THE ROLE OF THE EMOTIONAL FATHER-SON RELATIONSHIP IN THE
SELF-CONCEPT FORMATION OF ADOLESCENT BOYS IN SECONDARY
SCHOOLS

by

ENID MANYAKU PITSOANE

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SUPERVISOR: PROF FE GOUWS
ABSTRACT

The study investigated adolescent boys who experienced behavioural problems at school and the possible causes for these phenomena. It was evident that the adolescent boys who experienced behavioural problems were found to lack emotional connections with others due to their fathers’ absence and lack of positive attachment. A total of 403 adolescent boys from various schools in the Tshwane districts were used in the sample group. This quantitative study employed the use of a quantitative questionnaire as a means of data collection that included qualitative open-ended question as a method to enrich the quantitative data and obtain insight into the life world functioning and experience of the participants. The primary aim of the research study was to determine the emotional relationship between fathers and sons within the sample group. Secondly, the study sought to investigate how this emotional relationship affects the adolescent boy’s self-concept, resilience and motivational aspects in his daily functioning.

The approach to quantitative data analysis was by means of descriptive statistical analysis. The findings revealed that emotionally absent fathers indeed impact negatively on the adolescent boys’ resilience and motivational aspects of their functioning and that a father’s absence has a significant influence on the behaviours of adolescent boys in relation to motivation and resilience. However, the research results also revealed that an emotionally absent father does not significantly affect the self-concept of an adolescent boy. Finally, an intervention programme was developed to assist and guide fathers and adolescent boys to improve their relationship with one another.

Keywords: attachment, absent father, resilience, self-concept, motivation, adolescent, emotional functioning
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the dissertation submitted for the degree D. Ed in Psychology of Education, at University of South Africa (Unisa), is my own original work and has not been previously submitted to any other institution of higher education. I further declare that all sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by means of a comprehensive list of references.

__________________________
E.M PITSOANE

STUDENT NO.: 6206700
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTORY ORIENTATION, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
AIMS AND CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the reason why mothers are more devoted to their children than fathers: it is that they suffer more in giving birth and are more certain that they are their own.


Even as early as the 4th Century BC, a pattern seemed to emerge of relationship disharmony and distrust between fathers and their offspring in more recent times it seems that nothing has changed. With the deterioration of the nuclear family, men are increasingly being drawn away from families (Dobson 2001:142). Relationships between fathers and their offspring have become increasingly strained as environmental and social factors often rip the very essence of the father-child relationship. In South Africa’s society, this fact is even more prominent, as children born out of wedlock, which is a common occurrence, usually reside with the mother.

The family unit has and will continue to play a key role in the socialisation of the child. The effect of the child living in different types of family environments is therefore a significant concept to consider when attempting to, determine the socialisation and functioning of a child. This research study focussed on a more defined sub-section of parental relationships, that is, the father-son emotional relationship. There is much evidence that supports the notion that a father’s presence has a significantly positive impact on the life of boys. Fathers should offer a protectiveness, which would allow their children to develop as individuals (Broughton & Rogers 2007:39).
Fathering is strongly influenced by both culture and the communal way of life expressed through extended family, which can be considered as strong in South Africa. However, at present the extended family system in South Africa, with its traditional close communal ties, is not as strong as previously experienced. This is due to the social and political changes that have occurred in recent years. These changes have been influenced by education, urbanisation, employment and a rapidly changing political social climate. Often, men are the ones employed away from the home, or have to travel extensively from the home environment, leaving children in the care of their mothers. Without this communal care, the children’s father is absent from the home and can no longer experience the male role model that was considered part of the extended families in the larger and more traditional communities.

This vacuum creates a need for fathers to be more involved in modelling and guiding their children in ways that will help develop good social and emotional relationships. The researcher sought to determine whether attachment between father and son positively or negatively influences the son’s emotional and behavioural development. Currently many fathers do not see the need for bonding and attaching with their sons. The trend is that fathers leave bonding to mothers, and sons are left to find out about gender roles and discover role models in the larger society. Gender roles are socially and culturally constructed.

Fatherhood is a social role, and its importance fluctuates over both time and developmental periods of a child’s life. In the South African context the role of a father is no different. Richter and Morrell (2006:2) summarise the privileged father role succinctly:

“Not all fathers are proud to be fathers, and unfortunately not all fathers want to participate in the lives of their children. In fact, most South African men do not seem especially interested in their children. They seldom attend the births of their children, they don’t always acknowledge that their children are their own and they frequently fail to participate in their children’s lives”. 

2
1.2 AWARENESS OF THE PROBLEM

The researcher's own son was a compelling factor that motivated the completion of this study. The researcher's intense desire to understand, educate and socialise this young man, while being a single parent, spurred her on to pursue this study and to assist others who either experienced or who currently face the challenges that accompany the emotionally absent father. The researcher challenged the Feminist theory in which it acknowledges discrimination against women and helped to develop and perpetuate inadequacies of women. The rationale was based on the recognition of the inadequacy of existing models to explain women’s positions and their potential for change in the present and future always been empirical and concrete, about how and why events, practices, knowledge, texts are forms of expression of patriarchal power relations Grosz (2010: 49). The absence of a father in the researcher’s son’s life taught the researcher a great deal about the importance of the father’s role during the critical years of the son’s development, especially during adolescence and young adulthood. The researcher’s in-depth involvement with boys in psychological therapy over the past eight years has also contributed greatly to the connections shared with young boys, as well as gaining understanding of the complex emotional relationships that exist between fathers and sons.

Choi and Jackson (2011: 6970) in their studies of African American pre-schoolers indicate that there is evidence suggesting that the quality of a fathers’ involvement matters more than the quantity. The American President Barak Obama was quoted, “I believe that fathers, whether resident or non-resident, are critically important to the foundation of the family” (Choi and Jackson 2011:698). They further indicated that African American pre-schoolers whose non-resident fathers maintain contact with them have fewer behaviour problems than those pre-schoolers whose fathers are available in their lives.

As time passed, the researcher developed an interest in exploring and describing the experience of father-son relationships in the South African community. The dynamics of these relationships are explored from the adolescent boy’s perception
of his world functioning; while the emotional relationships and behavioural responses of adolescent boys are the emphasis of the research.

In the wake of lost relationships with their fathers, the researcher witnessed some children’s school performance drop, while others developed behavioural problems as a result of lost relationships with their fathers. The researcher further viewed that these children sometimes socially isolate themselves and develop emotional problems. The notion is emphasised by Langa (2010:519) whereby he states that father presence enhances children’s emotional well-being, whereas children in father-absent households are more likely to experience emotional disturbances, including aggression and violent behaviours.

With regard to the above mentioned in mind, the adolescents strive to bring a sense of belonging into their lives, by forging a mature identity and a sense of independence as a result of the absent father. It is suggested that adolescents hide behind this forged maturity and false independence in an effort to cope with their loss and deal with the frustration of not having a father figure or role model.

The researcher witnessed these challenges due to the nature of her work, and having experienced it personally, the researcher therefore was prompted to explore and describe the effects of the emotional father-son relationship and its impact on adolescent boys. The recognition that fatherhood is a position arising out of social forces rather than simply a reproductive role is emerging in South African writing, it seems to need constant review (Clowes, Ratele, and Shefer 2012: 256). Fathers and fatherhood have thus emerged as key concern in critical men’s studies/masculinities studies in South Africa over the last decade (for example, Richter and Morrell 2006, Swartz and Bhana 2010). There is a need for young boys to be heard, as they are emotionally hurting. The researcher aimed to help other therapists, educators and parents to deal more effectively with issues that arise due to the emotionally absent father-son relationship. Therapists, counsellors and educators have used their own knowledge and experience of what is documented by other researchers in other parts of the world.
1.3 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

One of the most famous attachment theorists, John Bowlby (1988), commented on the dynamics of attachment in children. Bowlby (1988:129-130) explains that in their formative years, children build models of how each parent communicates and behaves, together with the complementary models of the child in interaction with each parent. It is postulated that a child’s primary care-giver, whether it is the mother or another family member or trusted individual, has a profound impact on the cognitive development of the child. The evidence of the working models that were created by the child affects the child’s real life experience of day-to-day interactions with parents. How the child views himself is reflected in how his parents view and treat him. These created models have an intense influence on how a child behaves towards his parents. The models also have an impact on the fears and wishes expressed in a child’s day dreams. All these feelings a child experiences through his own created working models and have an influence on how the child perceives and embraces the world later in life.

Fathers are perceived as the primary sources of explaining basic societal rules to their sons (external socialisation). Boys tend to be heavily involved emotionally with their fathers as role models. They look up to their fathers about how to act out their male roles. According to Yablonsky (1990:15) the amount of contact between fathers and sons determines the degree to which their personalities are intertwined with each other from the sons’ birth. Sons need a sense of identity from their fathers; without it they feel lost and isolated as they believe they have lost a sense of belonging.

More recently researchers have once again echoed the initial themes that Bowlby (1988) sited. Flouri (2005:179-188) explained the following:

- a father figure’s involvement was positively related to an adolescent’s life satisfaction; happiness had more impact on decreasing emotional and behavioural problems;
• a father’s involvement was significantly related to adolescents’ academic motivation;

• A father’s involvement was associated with a low risk for delinquency.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The problem that was investigated in this study pertains to the impact of an absent father on the adolescent boy’s self-concept. The study focussed on emotional development, behavioural functioning of the adolescent boy and the emotional relationship with his father.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following questions were posed, and can be considered as the formal statement of the problem of this investigation:

• What are the subjective experiences of adolescent boys with respect to their relationship with their fathers?

• What impact does the emotionally absent father have on the self-concept of an adolescent boy’s life?

• What impact does the emotionally absent father have on the adolescent boy’s resilience?

• What impact does the emotionally absent father have on the adolescent boy’s motivation?

• What guidelines and/or suggestions can be made to assist and support parents, educators and therapists to enhance emotional relationships between fathers and adolescent boys?
1.6 **AIM OF THE RESEARCH**

The aims of the study are:

- To investigate the subjective experiences of adolescent boys with respect to their emotional relationship with their fathers.

- To investigate the impact that the lack of emotional attachment between fathers and their adolescent boys, has on the development of the adolescent boys’ self-concept.

- To investigate the impact that the emotionally absent father’s relationship has on the development of the adolescent boy’s resilience.

- To investigate the impact of the emotionally absent father’s relationship with the adolescent boy regarding the development of the adolescent boy’s motivation.

- To provide guidelines and/or suggestions to support parents, educators and therapists to enhance the emotional relationship between fathers and adolescent boys.

1.6.1 **Literature overview**

Literature that was accessed prior to this study indicated that boys who have grown up with absent fathers were generally less well-adjusted than boys who have grown up with fathers that were present in their lives and were reasonably available. According to Elium and Elium (2004:24) a father’s absence or presence has a powerful effect on his son, regardless of the level of the father’s involvement. Effectually, the son observes the father and subconsciously “soaks up” his very presence. This implies that every moment is a process of learning, where the child is exposed to the meaning of being a father and experiences the delicate intricacies of the father’s role.
• Impact of cultural factors on the father’s role and family dynamics

In a black cultural environment, fatherhood is considered to be the final confirmation of a man’s masculinity. According to entrenched cultural traditions and beliefs, a man is conditioned to behave in a distinctive way that sets him apart from women. Men think, feel and behave in this particular way, which is socially unique and acceptable to their particular cultural norms (Dobson 2001:34).

The role of fathering is passed down through generations by overt means of direct instruction (Dad sits his son down and has a direct communication with the child) and personally being subjected to the influences in a particular situation (the father disciplines the child and the father’s actions are experienced by the child). This learning process is considered to be an indirect means whereby a child observes the father and by merely being in the father’s presence, the child absorbs the father’s influences. It is worth noting that a man may be emotionally removed from his son because of his upbringing and personal limitations (Illardo 1993:15). Hunter, (2006:101) further emphasises that the father clearly provided a role model for his sons, but the day-to-day socialisation of young men appears to have taken place through peer groups or elder brothers. Many fathers live according to the models of their fathers, hence attachment is hampered and these cultural expectations may lead to the development of emotional and behavioural problems.

• Impact of psychosocial factors on the father’s role and family dynamics

Many households are headed by single mothers. Many fathers are absent during the birth of their son. Illardo (1993:17) indicated that half of the sons born to contemporary couples will not have experienced living with their biological fathers. Other factors such as divorce, as well as young girls giving birth outside of wedlock contribute to a father’s absence in a boy’s life. Hence many boys grow up without fathers and they yearn for an emotional connection with their fathers. The special bond that can exist between fathers and children needs to be kept in
mind (Morrel 2006:15). Probably the answer to the question is that, ideally, children should have adult men around them, to care for them, love them and to provide role models.

Another psychosocial factor is the lack of preparedness of first time fathers, which may lead to uncertainty and rejection. In other instances, a father may feel uncomfortable to connect with his son due to his inability to relate. Secondly, the birth of a son may trigger a need of comfort in the father. Illardo (1993:24) stated that a father may experience intense emotional neediness when he observes his wife nuture his son. Such emotional neediness may cause emotional tension between father and son. The father may resent his son, whose arrival has resulted in his perception that his wife has abandoned him and instead focusses much of her love and attention on their son.

- **Non-custodial fathers and family dynamics**

Disagreements between parents during divorce settlements are also a contributory factor regarding fathers who do not relate to their sons. Fathers who fail to provide or preserve maintenance requirements also experience problems that range from depression and shame to abnormally high levels of chemical addictions and physical illness (Illardo 1993:18). The paths from fathers’ contact and parenting quality depict the expectation that more involved parenting by fathers (a form of social and economic) might be associated with fewer child behavior problems (Choi and Jackson 2010:700).

Lack of visitations between fathers and sons, as well as the failure to pay maintenance, alienates boys from their their fathers. Boys feel angry towards their fathers because they perceive the fathers as failing to provide for them.
1.7 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.7.1 The concept of a father and an absent father

Fatherhood is a social and cultural role. The importance of this role fluctuates over time and the functions within the role shift (Richter and Morrell 2006:1). Obligatory investment means that male care is absolutely necessary for the survival of the offspring and thus males will then show more interest and invest more in the offspring. For many species, including humans, male parenting is not critical for the survival of offspring and therefore the quantity and quality of investment varies with social and ecological conditions (Geary 2008:115). Fathers have to invest in their sons to ensure that their sons are emotionally stable to venture into the world without fear.

Absent fathers primarily denote natural fathers who are not physically present in the life of a child. Essentially, absent fathers are those who desert the family/child or pass away. The secondary concept of absent fathers is when the father is physically present, but due to specific, individual circumstances the father is emotionally unavailable, for example alcoholism, emotional detachment or extended working hours, all of which contribute to the father becoming unresponsive to his family or to his duties as a father. Thirdly, it might be the father’s choice to feign disinterest in acknowledging his offspring, and by being both physically and emotionally absent from the child’s life. In as much, fathers who are alive are viewed as being absent if they are not part of the same household as their children.

1.7.2 The parameters of the adolescent phase of development

Adolescence is a development phase in the human life cycle that is positioned between childhood and adulthood (Gouws, Kruger and Burger 2008:2). The beginning of adolescence is not clearly defined, but universal biological markers attribute the onset of puberty as the commencement of the phase (Gumbiner 2003:24). Adolescence extends from early or mid-teens through to early or mid-
twenties and spans approximately a ten-year period. During this period the child undergoes multiple physical, cognitive psychological and social changes. It is a period between childhood and adulthood during which individuals behave and are treated differently than either their seniors or their juniors (Schlegel 2008:32). Essentially, adolescence commences with biological markers and concludes with cultural and societal markers (Berryman, Smyth, Taylor, Lamont and Joiner 2002:293). What is certain is that this phase is one of rapid change and growth, culminating in the individual finding himself and creating his own identity.

1.7.3 The concept of attachment

Attachment is a close emotional relationship between two persons, characterised by mutual affection and a desire to maintain proximity (Shaffer 2005:131). Potgieter (2006:37) defined attachment as the deep and enduring connection established between a child and a care giver in the first several years of life. Attachment influences every component of the human mind, body, emotions, relationships and values. Attachment is a relationship that is created between parents and their children. The core of an attachment or an “affectional bond” is the attraction and attachment that one individual has for another individual (Bowlby 1979:65). When analysing the types of bonding (attachment) between individuals, the most common are those bonds between one or both parents and their offspring, and between members of the opposite sex; these are called primary attachment relationships. Usually the first and most persistent bond is between mother and infant, this bond can and usually does persist into adulthood. Unchallenged maintenance of a bond is experienced as a source of security and the renewal of a bond as a source of joy (Bowlby 1979:68-69). The essential feature of affectional bonds or attachment is that the two individuals tend to remain in close proximity to one another and if parted, they will seek out each other and renew proximity.

Prolonged or repeated disruptions of the mother (parent) -child bonding cycle during the first five years of life are known to be especially frequent in patients later diagnosed as psychopathic or sociopathic (Bowlby 1979:81-82). Bowlby
further emphasised that losses that occur during the first five years, are probably
dangerous for future personality development, and when they occur late in life they
may probably cause diseases that are physically or emotionally related.

Hazan and Zeifman (1994:152) cited four components of attachment. These are
geraphically represented as follows:

![Diagram of attachment components]

Figure 1.1 Attachment components as cited by Hazan & Zeifman (1994)

Figure 1.1 provides a brief explanation of how an individual acts in a case of
insecure or secure attachment. An individual who feels insecurely attached resists
separation and easily becomes distressed, whereas a securely attached individual
feels comfortable in the absence of the care giver.

1.7.4 Identity formation of the adolescent

One of the primary tasks associated with childhood and adolescence is to shift
from being regulated by others to self-regulation and self-control (Tilton-Weaver
and Marshall 2009:11a). This entails the adolescent being liberated from the
safety of childhood and his or her parents’ protection and attaining a firm hold on
the responsibilities and demands of adulthood (Finkenauer, Engel and Kubacka
2008:45). A fundamental task in an adolescent’s identity formation is an increase
in independence from parents and the formation and maintenance of social
networks outside the family. Finkenauer, et al (2008:45) stated that
developmental tasks in adolescents comprise of seemingly contradictory goals. Adolescents have to develop intimate relationships while striving for autonomy and independence. This is done by attempting to develop a sense of independence in various social domains, while simultaneously attempting to fit into societal norms.

1.7.5 Behavioural functioning of the adolescent

Adolescents become less dependent on their parents and function more autonomously, but they still have to preserve a good relationship with their parents as the parent still remains important and influential throughout their lives. Finkenauer, et. al (2008:45) proposed that secrecy and concealment may function to facilitate adolescents’ accomplishment of these seemingly contradictory goals, because it allows the adolescent to actively control the information about the self. The adolescent endeavours to balance closeness, independence, autonomy and connectedness and stability and change.

1.7.6 Emotional functioning of the adolescent

Emotional involvement includes warmth, affection, feelings and closeness. During this stage, adolescents experience feelings of independency and strive towards emotional self-fulfilment. Their level of attachment influences their emotional functionality. Where childhood experiences have left fixations, and unmet developmental needs, individuals feel compromised in letting go of the unconscious influences. In the cases where individuals have experienced positive attachment, they are relatively capable of emotional autonomy in both their external and internal worlds (Watts, Cockcroft & Duncan 2009:34). If adolescents experienced a secure base during childhood, they are more than likely to experience feelings of security and feel comfortable to adjust and form relationships.
1.7.7 The concept of culture

Culture is defined as the customs as well as the intellectual and social activities of a particular group of people (Weavell and Powell 1996:244). Adolescents seldom grow up knowing of only one culture, they increasingly have interactions with people from diverse cultures either first hand or indirectly through different media, and this forges the adult’s multi-cultural identity. Jensen (2008:14) stated that contemporary adolescents are coming of age in a multicultural world where creating a cultural identity has become complex. Adolescents face the task of integrating various cultural beliefs and behaviours which are brought about by multiple agents of socialisation. The task of forming reasonable and sensible cultural identities that allows adolescents to become contributing members of society presents challenges that may be stressful or even considerably more problematic, as adolescents are still in a stage of transition and require guidance from role models to embrace their selected cultural identity.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.8.1 Research paradigm

The researcher selected a quantitative approach for the study. Although this was a quantitative study, the researcher included the open-ended question that was qualitative in nature, so that the combination of both methods would capture the finer details and create an understanding of the complex and unique issues surrounding the emotional father-son relationship.

1.8.2 Research methodology

Quantitative method

A quantitative approach was used in the study to investigate the emotional relationship between fathers and sons with regard to the self-concept formation of the adolescent boys. The self-administered questionnaire (Appendix 3) was used.
The main focus was to measure the impact of fathers’ emotional relationships in relation to self-concept, resilience and motivation of adolescent boys.

Qualitative method

The qualitative data that was collected by using open-ended question was to verify quantitative responses regarding the emotional relationship adolescent boys have with their fathers. The respondents had to indicate their desires in a writing form about their relationships with their fathers by completing the open-ended questions (see appendix 3).

1.8.3 Sampling

Stratified sampling was employed in the study to allow all participants an equal opportunity to be selected to contribute to the study. The participants in this study were adolescent boys between the ages of 15 and 17 years. All adolescent boys who fitted the criteria due to age were allowed to take part in the study. After completion of the questionnaire the adolescent boys who indicated that they were not living with their fathers were excluded from the sample. This was done to protect the identity of those adolescent boys who do not live with their fathers by including all the boys initially in the sample.

1.8.4 Data collection

As this study is concerned with the investigation of the emotional relationship of the father-son and how this relationship impacts on the self-concept formation of the adolescent boy, the data was collected administering a questionnaire that included quantitative elements and qualitative open-ended question.

1.8.5 Data analysis

Data analysis was done by means of a descriptive statistical analysis approach. The findings were described based on the presented data collected. Quantitative
data was then validated by the qualitative data and that was analysed by means of open coding technique (Tesch, 1990).

1.8.6 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations are issues that are integral to the research process and therefore need to be analysed before the research commences. Neuman (2000:91) explains that the researcher’s authority to conduct research is accompanied by a responsibility to guide, protect, and oversee the interest of the people being studied. In this study, the following ethical issues were observed and all individuals were regarded with positive regard and were guaranteed of trustworthiness, confidentiality, the right to participate in their preferred language and the participants provided informed consent. Debriefing was employed to ensure no harm to participants was inadvertently experienced due to the nature of the questions that were posed.

- Informed consent

Informed consent is achieved by providing subjects with an explanation of the research and the opportunity to terminate their participation at any time with no penalty and full disclosure of any risk associated with the study (McMillian & Schumacher: 2012:118). To ensure informed consent is adhered to, the respondents were provided with written information about the purpose of the study and the procedure to be followed. Letters to request permission were sent to the Department of Education (Appendix 6), the principals of the schools the learners attended (Appendix 4), and consent letters were sent to parents (Appendix 2). All participants of the study were provided with assent forms (Appendix 1), which gave them a choice to take part or withdraw from the study.

- Anonymity

Anonymity in research studies denotes the process where no identifying information is recorded to link respondents with their responses (Check & Schutt
Participants in the study were not required to write their personal details in order to maintain anonymity.

- Competency

The researcher was qualified to carry out the research due to her qualifications, as well as her years of experience in the field of educational psychology and teaching in secondary schools. Her supervisor was involved in this process, ensuring a suitable research design and giving guidance in the process of research. The researcher (Ps 0091065) is registered with the Health professional of South Africa.

Ethical clearance was approved by the Ethical Committee of the College Education, University of South Africa (Appendix 7).

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- The study was limited to adolescent boys between the ages of 15 and 17 years, who attended school in the three districts of Tshwane (Tshwane South, Tshwane North and Tshwane West).

- The study is focused on the emotional relationship between fathers and adolescent boys’ and the influence of the emotional relationship on the adolescent boys’ self-concept, resilience and motivation.

- The research relied on the opinion and perceptions concerning the individual’s experience of an absent father and the evaluation of the implemented strategy.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH PROGRAMME: CHAPTERS

The study consists of seven chapters, the outline of which is described as follows:

Chapter 1: Introductory orientation, statement of the problem, aims and clarification of concepts.
Chapter 2: The Phenomena of Attachment: Literature review and theories, perspectives and views surrounding the phenomena of attachment.

Chapter 3: Emotional development of the adolescent: Review of emotional development of the adolescent boys' emotional functioning with regard to his emotional functioning.

Chapter 4: An evaluation of the relationships between father and son and the impact of attachment on the behavioural functioning of adolescent boys.

Chapter 5: The research design and methodology: Methods considered in the research design, procedures and techniques used in the study and data collection.

Chapter 6: Data analysis research findings and discussion: A description and presentation of the analysis and findings within the study, along with the recommendations that were considered according to ethical aspects.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations: Limitations of the study along with the contributions that the study made are provided. Recommendations for further study are suggested and conclusions made with respect to the scope of this study.

1.11 CONCLUSION

You don’t raise heroes, you raise sons. And if you treat them like sons, they’ll turn out to be heroes, even if it’s just in your own eyes.

(Walter Schirra in Trip: 1970:911)

Fathers have received limited attention in academic circles, when compared to mothering. Fathers are often assumed to be on the periphery of their children’s lives and therefore of little importance to children’s development (Flouri 2005:17). Fatherhood is not a mere fact of having a child; it should be seen as going beyond the contribution of conception. Fatherhood should be regarded as conferring a responsibility to provide and protect (Richter and Morrell 2006:23). This research intended to emphasise the importance of the attachment between a father and his
son and to encourage fathers to develop more intimate and connected emotional relationships with their sons in order to create a better society for all. The study further intended to clarify the notion that a father is not only a provider but an instiller of knowledge, a responsible caretaker who exerts positive influence in a child’s development.

With this in mind, Chapter 2 explores the basic phenomena of attachment between human beings and focusses particularly on the attachment between the adolescent boy and the father.
CHAPTER 2

THE PHENOMENA OF ATTACHMENT: THEORIES,
PERSPECTIVES AND VIEWS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

What is believed to be essential for mental health is that the infant and young child should experience a warm, intimate and continuous relationship with his mother (or permanent/significant other substitute figure) in which both find satisfaction and enjoyment.

(Bowlby 1984:xi)

John Bowlby is considered to be the “father” of attachment theory and principles. His influence on the theory and principles of attachment are derived from his personal experience of the loss of a significant attachment figure. John Bowlby was born in London on 26 February 1907 to an upper-middle class family. During that period, it was common for children to spend limited time with parents, as society believed that excessive time with children led to “spoiling”. Bowlby was sent to a boarding school at seven years of age, and this incident proved traumatic for him (Bowlby 1988).

From the beginning of his academic and professional career Bowlby was interested in the problem of separation of mother and child. By the late 1950s he had sufficient observational and theoretical work to indicate the importance of attachment for human development from birth. In his theory of the development of attachment he propounded the idea that attachment behaviour was essentially an evolutionary survival strategy for protecting the infant from “predators” (Mooney 2010:17). Lamb 2010:3 further state that fathers play a significant role as
providers, protectors, models, guides, teachers and breadwinners whose importance varies according to cultures and various subgroups.

With the background of John Bowlby in mind, the researcher primarily used Bowlby’s attachment theory to delineate and to base her study on the attachment of adolescent boys to their fathers. Even though the literature is relatively archaic, the primary concepts and dynamics of his theory are still considered exceptionally relevant (Mooney 2010:17-19).

This chapter endeavours to explore the nature of attachment, as defined by Bowlby, and to examine the specific attachment bonds of fathers and sons in the unique African context. The researcher also sought to explore how these bonds, or the absence of these bonds, influence the developing child. Furthermore, the researcher sought to determine whether these bonds influence the emotional development of the African adolescent boy.

Mooney (2010:5) acknowledged the work of Bowlby by saying that “it is in our first relationship, usually with our mother, that much of our future well-being is determined’. In this chapter, the researcher attempted to establish the holistic impact of attachment, especially in relation to attachment between adolescent boys and their fathers.

2.2 INITIAL ATTACHMENT BEHAVIOUR

No form of behaviour is accompanied by stronger feelings than attachment behaviour. Attachment is directed towards specific individuals by the child demonstrating emotions such as love and joy. As long as the child is in the unchallenged presence of a principal attachment-figure, or within easy reach of the attachment-figure, he feels secure. A threat of loss creates anxiety, and actual loss can cause the child to experience both sorrow and anger (Bowlby 1987:209).

Several types or forms of behaviour demonstrating attachment of an infant are evident, but in general all forms of these behaviours are directed towards a particular “object” in space which is usually a specific attachment-figure (mother,
A cornerstone of attachment theory is that a mother’s sensitively responsive behaviour is an important contributor to the quality of her infant’s attachment to her and it is then expected that the infant becomes securely attached to her (Woodhouse et al 2005:35). A secure mother, in turn, is also expected to be open to the full extent of the infant’s needs and to respond in such a way that the infant perceives the mother as a “secure base” from which the child ventures out into the world. Figure 2.1 depicts the attachment behaviour exhibited by the infant.

![Attachment Behaviour](image)

**Figure: 2.1  Attachment Behaviour exhibited by an infant**

According to Bowlby (1987:266–267) there are four phases that impact on the development of attachment (See Figure 2.1). The first phase includes orientation and signals, where the infant displays limited discrimination of the attachment figure. As the infant develops, further definition regarding the primary attachment figure is demonstrated and the orientation and signals that are primarily directed towards one or more specific figures can be clearly observed. In the second phase, the favoured figure (the mother, father or significant caretaker), becomes
more prominent and is discerned by the child. The child makes a concerted effort to be with this person. The third phase entails the child’s efforts at maintaining proximity to the favoured figure by means of locomotion as well as signals. As the child moves towards the figure, as illustrated in Figure 2.1, it solidifies the connection with the figure while emphasising that choice and free will is overtly being exercised by the child.

In the fourth and final phase of attachment development, the formation of a goal corrected partnership is evident as the infant (child) now infers and interacts with the significant figure by maintaining proximity and both assuming and anticipating the mother’s actions and reactions.

A synopsis of the four phases of development of attachment behaviour see table 2.1, reflecting the actions and reactions of the child and the significant attachment figure are presented in Table 2.1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Actions and Reactions</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| Phase 1 | Orientation and signals with limited discrimination of figure. | - Child behaves in certain characteristic ways towards people.  
- Discrimination between one person and another is limited to olfactory and auditory stimuli.  
- Phase commences at birth and lasts approximately until the infant is eight to twelve weeks of age. |
| Phase 2 | Orientation and signals, directed towards one or more discriminated figures. | - Continued behaviour toward people in the same friendly way as in phase one.  
- More marked discernment towards mother figure.  
- Phase lasts from about twelve weeks to six months of age. |
| Phase 3 | Maintenance of proximity to a discriminatory figure by means of locomotion as well as signals. | - Child increasingly discriminates the way he treats people with his repertoire of responses including:  
  - Following a departing mother  
  - Greeting a mother on return  
  - Using a mother as a base from which to explore.  
- This phase commonly begins between six and seven months but may be delayed until after the first birthday. This phase continues throughout the second and third year. |
The exact moment of attachment cannot be precisely deduced, but it is possible to infer that the child has not yet attached to a significant figure during phase one (see Table 2.1), although by phase three it is evident that the child has significantly attached to a specific figure. Whether and to what extent the child can be said to be attached during phase two is a matter of how attachment is personally defined. Even though this phase can be considered a “grey” area, by Bowlby, one can still view phase two as a transition to a deeper and more stable connection of attachment.

### 2.2.1 Patterns of attachment

Attachment of the infant to a specific figure can be assessed by observing the child’s reaction to the return of the attachment figure after a short absence. A secure child will display an organised sequence of goal-directed behaviour that welcomes back the mother/specific figure by either initiating actions that encourage being picked up, or to proceed to get close to the mother and cling to her. Children who are not as securely attached respond by showing disinterest in the return of the attaching figure, while a relatively extreme outcome is displayed
when the child utterly avoids the person. Ambivalent responses are also evident in children not securely attached (Gray 2002:72).

Secure attachment is a relationship that involves intimacy, exclusivity, mutual enjoyment, acceptance and recognition of the feelings of others. According to Ainsworth in Randolph (2002:6), a healthy attachment is only present when all the above mentioned behaviours (see Figure 2.2) are repeatedly demonstrated to the attachment figure.

In insecurely attached children feel inconsistent, punishing, unresponsive emotions from the attaching figure and feel threatened during times of distress (Gray 2002:70). Children with insecure avoidant attachment behaviour conclude that it is safer and better if they are self-reliant, thus they do not seek comfort or ask for help. These children treat strangers in a similar way as their attachment figure and avoid closeness. They show little apparent signs of distress when separated from their attachment figure and often ignore or avoid the attachment-figure upon arrival or reunion. Other people are viewed as a source of potential hurt and pain and all trust in the adult world is lost (Randolph 2002:26, Howe 2006:12). As described in Figure 2.2 below, the insecurely attached children’s greatest anxiety is being ignored, abandoned and left alone with unmet needs. They have little confidence in their own abilities to bring change and attain their needs therefore they make use of aggressive approaches such as showing distress, shouting and threatening. These actions tend to produce children who are demanding, although they are never satisfied or reassured (Howe 2006:129).
2.2.2 Persistence and stability of patterns

The more satisfaction that is exhibited in the interactional pattern adopted by the child and the care giver or parent, the more stable the relationship is bound to be.
When the pattern adopted leads to dissatisfaction in one or both parties, there is less stability. Nevertheless, satisfying or unsatisfying to those involved, the interactional patterns that have formed during the first year of an individual’s life tend to persist at least during the ensuing two to three years.

Bowlby and Colleagues have drawn on studies of experimental and naturally occurring separation and losses. The studies by Bowlby and colleagues have provided clues regarding the mechanisms by which early, ongoing losses or deprivations may confer vulnerability. Furthermore, a possible paradigm has been provided for classifying individuals’ characteristic styles of responses to interpersonal loss or frustration and the corresponding risk for depression or suicide these styles may convey (King 2008:345).

2.3 ATTACHMENT IN MIDDLE CHILDHOOD

During an individual's developmental process, all aspects of that individual's life change. As with other life-world processes, attachment and the attachment needs of the individual also change as the individuals mature or develop. It is during the period of middle childhood in which the attachment behavioural system becomes a more fully representational system and attachment security initiates the formation of characteristics of a person, not merely characteristics of a specific relationship (Raikes & Thompson 2005:255). Attachment at this age becomes more sophisticated and more abstract and less dependent on proximity and contact (Mayseless 2005:2). Feelings of attachment are more important than actually being attached. In order to solidify this notion, Mayseless (2005:5) noted five different developmental processes in an attempt to illustrate the normative changes of attachment during the middle childhood phase of development. Mayseless (2005:4-19) cited the following attachment developmental aspects:

- The attachment behavioural system becomes more sophisticated and is governed by cognitive (affective) internalisations.

  This emphasises the growing ability of the child to reason, in terms of abstract representations of objects and events and employ planned
behaviour and lastly to acquire new information and use it in reasoning and problem solving. One of the consequences of this new higher level of functioning is that individual differences in attachment security or insecurity may be internalised by the child. For example, withdrawal may serve as either a distancing or coercive strategy. Distancing as a strategy might be an effort not to “overtax” the attachment figure and a coercing strategy might serve to force an unresponsive attachment figure to remain available.

- **The attachment behavioural system becomes more integrated and generalised.**

  As the child matures, attachment behaviours become integrated, first into the relationship and experience with one caregiver. Later, attachment behaviours become integrated with various other relationship figures.

- **The attachment behavioural system becomes more differentiated and diversified.**

  Children at this age form close affectional bonds with several additional figures besides their primary caregivers for various reasons, and this is termed diversification. For example, one friend is chosen to help with a specific type of distress or a school problem, while another friend is selected to offer support for family problems.

- **Shift in responsibility between child and parent for monitoring and maintaining the availability and accessibility of the caregiver.**

  Parents do not have to constantly monitor the child. The negotiation of this shift may take place smoothly or abruptly, depending on the quality and nature of the attachment relationship. This shift in responsibility is closely
tied to one of the most noted characteristics of middle childhood the decrease in the intensity of attachment behaviour.

- **Decrease in intensity of attachment behaviour.**

Bowlby 1979: indicates that “waning of attachment behaviour” is displayed when a child matures. There are expected changes in two major areas. What previously was a cause for concern for the child (environmental factors, for example, strangers and strange settings) has changed and no longer poses a threat or danger to the child. Secondly, due to cognitive development, separation periods away from the caregiver are also no longer perceived as a threat.

It is evident that the middle childhood period is a unique developmental period for the growth of attachment. The attachment process is obviously deepened with the child’s cognitive development becoming more internally consistent, logical and objective. These individuals “think about thinking” and the child reflects their own thoughts, which influence the child’s social and emotional experiences and development. This leads to the child thinking about themselves. Self-concept develops and children define themselves by using more profound psychological perceptions. This process introduces the concept of self-worth, which a child evaluates through his/her interactions with others. An all-inclusive self-worth is especially influenced by how a child perceives his/her strengths and weaknesses in areas that are important to him/her.

The development of the self-concept and self-understanding have potentially important implications for understanding the nature of attachment security and the internal working models that arise from relational experience in middle childhood (Raikes & Thompson 2005:255). The development of the self-concept allows children to continue to refine their understanding of other people’s emotions and feelings by referring to their own frame of reference. The children’s decisions to hide or display emotions are also related to their perceptions of available emotional support. Children are more likely to display negative feelings if they perceive their parents are nearby to provide comfort (Raikes & Thompson 2005:255).
Emotional regulation denotes the management of a child’s own emotional states. Children use their own experiences and gained knowledge of themselves and their feelings to predict their own emotional responses to challenging situations, as well as to manage their emotional feelings and expressions. A secure base provided by parents allows children the freedom to self-regulate and manage their emotions in both calm and challenging periods.

2.4 ATTACHMENT IN ADOLESCENCE

During middle childhood the formation of an attachment bond is seen as the foundation of forming relationships to and with others and objects. This period forms a substructure for the next phase of attachment development in the individual’s life. In adolescence the re-negotiation of attachment also configures the inclusion of sexuality and the ability to consider other people’s perspectives in relationships. This introduces a new level of complication and complexity regarding in human connections (Gilligan 2008:146).

By being more aware of the new dimensions of human connections and functioning, adolescents reflect different needs with respect to attachment and attachment behaviours, often portrayed through their experimental nature. Adolescents tend to seek out and discover what constitutes relationships (attachment on various levels) and also examine and investigate what is needed to solve problems within their relationships. The use of this information (hurting or helping) is then transformed into knowledge, and can be seen as a measure of cognitive awakening and responsibility taken by the adolescent in his/her relationships. The challenge of attachment in adolescent development is inseparable from the problem of interpretation, since the ability to establish connections with others hinges on the ability of the adolescent to render his/her own story in a coherent manner (Gilligan 2008:153). Essentially, the very nature of adolescent attachment development limits and inhibits the definition of the adolescent’s coherent own story.
Even though Bowlby focused intently on parent-child relations in the younger years of childhood development, he was of the opinion that a person’s childhood experiences influence their adult personalities and their views of relationships. More recent research has reinforced Bowlby’s original concept, known as intra-personal attachment characteristics (characteristics of the self with the self). Bartholomew and Griffin (1994:34), McCrae and Costa (1987:81-90) used a five factor model as a “frame of reference” to evaluate noteworthy constructs concerning attachment in adulthood. The five-factor model provides a widely recognised taxonomy of personality dimensions that appear to emphasise most personality constructs. Attachment experienced by the individual has influenced the various personality constructs. Attachment experiences can serve as a buffer to promote the development of positive aspects and functioning of the personality, or to negatively influence the development of the personality and impair functioning. The personality factors that are considered (adapted from McCrae and Costa 1987:52) are:

- **Neuroticism**: Individuals who experience elevated levels of trait tend to experience:
  - Emotional instability
  - Anxiety
  - Moodiness
  - Irritability
  - Sadness

- **Extraversion**: This trait includes characteristics such as:
  - Excitability
  - Sociability
  - Talkativeness
  - Assertiveness
  - High amounts of emotional expressiveness

- **Openness**: This trait features characteristics such as:
  - Imagination and insight
  - Tendencies to have a broad range of interests
• **Agreeableness**: This personality dimension includes:
  - Positive attributes (trust, altruism, kindness, affection)
  - Pro-social behaviors
• **Conscientiousness**: Common features of this dimension include:
  - High levels of thoughtfulness
  - Good impulse control
  - Goal-directed behaviors
  - High levels of organization’s and being aware of details

Inter-personal attachment characteristics (characteristics evident when interaction occurs with others) are best described by Bartholomew and Griffin (1994:38), who cite a four category model describing an individual’s attachment orientation. This was developed in an effort to explain an individual’s behaviour in intimate relationships. The four categories described were as follows:

- Secure
- Fearful
- Preoccupied
- Dismissing

Attachment behaviour plays an important role in shaping how people operate in their relationships and how they construe their social world in their cognitive, behavioural and emotional responses. Mikulincer and Shaver (2007:79-81) emphasised aspects of importance of the attachment process:

- The beneficial effects of participating in available and responsible relationships regarding a person’s emotional state, self-image, as well as behaviour in close relationships and engagement in growth oriented activities.
- The influence on adaptive and regulatory functions of the individual, including coping mechanisms of the individual.
The attachment theory helps connect many of the basic concepts and finds the personality, as well as the social, developmental and clinical psychology of individuals.

2.5 DYNAMICS OF ATTACHMENT

2.5.1 Working models: Interaction styles and normative attachment process

Bowlby (1973) used the term “working models” to describe the internal mental representations that individuals develop of the world and of significant people within it, including the self (Collins & Read 1994:55). It is evident that a child also develops enduring styles of interactions or responses to disruptions which may be a part of his life-world experiences.

The building blocks of working models are depicted below in figure 2.3: (Adapted from Collins and Read 1994:55-60).

![Diagram](attachment.png)

**Figure: 2.4** The building blocks of working models  
(Adapted from Collins & Read 1994:55-60)
• **Memories of attachment related experiences:** These are autobiographical memories and accounts of attachment related experiences with parents and other important attachment figures. Evidence that positive parent relationships (those that were more affectionate and loving) produced more secure adults; the opposite was also evident, namely avoidant and anxious adults tended to have more distant and removed parents.

• **Beliefs, attitudes and expectations about self and others:** These concepts denote a person’s knowledge about self, others and relationships. This knowledge is partially abstract, derived from concrete experiences during life-world development. The implications of this are that those individuals with a history of difficult and painful relationship experiences may be very familiar (negatively predisposed or “experts”) on poorly or maladjusted relationships and may have an idealised, stereotyped, unrealistic perception or image of good relationships.

• **Attachment related goals and needs:** The attachment behavioural system serves to satisfy the broad goal of maintaining felt-security, which is evident in social and emotional needs. The attachment behavioural system motivates the search or avoidance of rejection, privacy, approval, and also seeks to develop intimate relationships. The goal structure of secure and insecure individuals differs considerably, where one seeks intimate relationships, while the other balances autonomy with closeness.

• **Plans and strategies to attain attachment goals:** These organised sequences of behavioural responses are aimed at attaining the goal of maintaining proximity and acquiring felt-security by individuals regulating their attachment-related social and emotional needs.
These fundamental features of the attachment system are called “normative” because they are considered to be the developmental norm (Mikulincer & Shaver 2007:51). Further, it is evident that attachment is based on the individual's primary memory of relationships as experienced from an early age. As the individual develops and attains a cognitive broader understanding, a wider system is incorporated into the individual’s life-world functioning. Essentially, the belief and value system that direct the functioning of the individual are created from memories of attachment. After the inclusion of the life-world context, the individual commences to overtly assess and examine his/her own needs and goals and then implement strategies to attain these desires.

2.5.2 The role of attachment in personality development

Bowlby (1987:129) states that the working models a child constructs of his mother and her ways of communicating and behaving towards the child, as well as a comparable model of his father, together with the complementary models of himself in interaction with each, are created by a child during the first few years of life. It is postulated that these models of interaction soon become established as influential cognitive structures.

It can be assumed that the patterns of attachment increasingly become the property of the child as he/she develops. These patterns are based on the child’s day-to-day interactions and experiences with his/her parents and significant others. The attachment system can further be emphasised by suggesting that it has a biological function. Mikulincer and Shaver (2007:11) stated that attachment’s biological function is protection especially during infancy and early childhood from danger by ensuring that the child maintains close proximity to the caring and supportive other. This facilitates and shapes positive basic structures for future relationships and as the child enters more complex social relationships, behaviour is more appropriate. A child who has been appropriately coached and guided by attachment figures in a wide variety of situations is more likely to develop appropriate skills (for an example; expressing emotions appropriately,
communicating needs and feelings coherently and clearly, regulating the expression of needs in line with preferences and role demands) (Gottman and DeClaire 1998: 85).

In acquiring and accomplishing levels of these skills the child directly and/or indirectly influences aspects of his/her personality. Bowlby (1987:130) states that the model of himself that he built also reflects the images that his parents had of him, images that were communicated not only by how they treated him, but also by what they said to him. These models governed how he felt towards each parent and about himself; his expectations of treatment by each parent, and how he planned his behaviour towards them. These models governed both the fears and the wishes expressed in his day dreams.

It can therefore be suggested that once these attachment “paths” have been developed, these attachments are persistent and operate on an unconscious level, influencing the child’s personality and behavioural reactions. They lead to personalised patterns of interaction. As Bowlby (1987:130) declared, the patterns of interaction become habitual, generalized and largely unconscious. The patterns of interaction persist in a comparatively uncorrected and unchanged state, even when the individual in later life is dealing with persons who treat him in ways entirely unlike those his parents adopted when he when a child.
Any influences that the child experiences in his/her developmental pathway must be considered and assessed, as there is an impact these have on the individual during adolescence as well as later on in his life. If a child experiences the loss of his father, the event can then be noted as being a “life influencing” factor, something that would influence his functioning (behaviour, emotions and cognitive perceptions) during his adolescent years.

**2.6 CHANGES OF BEHAVIOUR DURING THE LIFE CYCLE OF CHILDREN**

**2.6.1 Growth and attachment**

Attachment develops from the earliest interactions of the child with significant others. Considering differences between individuals with respect to the speed at which they develop and the environmental circumstances that are present when the child develops, together with a myriad of other personal/circumstantial/environmental challenges, differences and uniqueness is obviously evident. Research by Bridges (2003:194) explained that parents with young children tend to support the theoretical view that a child's sense of security
is best described by the core of the self and the child’s fundamental sense of others, as caring, children also see the self as worthy, and the world as safe.

It is believed that the stages of attachment are developed according to this approximate guideline (Beckett 2002:58) as depicted in figure 2.5 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre attachment (0-2 months)</th>
<th>Undiscriminating social responsiveness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Child is interested in human voices and faces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Can be left with different care givers without undue distress.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attachment-in-the-making (3-6 months)</th>
<th>Discriminating social responsiveness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Child starts to show different responses to different people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Become increasingly focused on their main caretaker.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reciprocal relationship (from 3 years)</th>
<th>Development of internalised working models</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mobility of the child enables the child to spend more time away from the caretaker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• A reciprocal state is attained where shared responsibility for maintaining equilibrium is required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increasing feelings of security can be maintained during separation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Cognitive development allows child to see other people’s perspectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Behaviour can be adjusted and relationships become partnerships.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure: 2.7: The development of attachment

2.6.2 Comparing attachment theory and development theories

Attachment theory is compared to the developmental theories of Freud and Erickson regarding the developing individual and their developmental pathways. The concepts of affectional bonds that are established early in life have significance for subsequent social and emotional well-being is well established in theories of personality development, including psychodynamic theories and Erikson’s theory (Bridges 2003:179).
Human development propounds that psychosexuality is based on two premises. Firstly, the genetic approach whereby the personality is shaped by various types of childhood experiences and secondly, the libido or sexual energy that is constantly present in an individual (from birth) and thereafter progresses through a series of stages. The psychosexual view of personality development is reflected in Sigmund Freud’s four universal stages of psychosexual development.

Psychosocial theoretical frameworks are the other developmental process that is explored using Erik Erikson’s theory, which reflects the interplay of biological, behavioural experimental and social factors.

### 2.6.3 Sigmund Freud: A psycho-analytic theory of personality

Freud theorised that there were four universal stages of psychosexual development which are decisive in the formation of personality (see figure 2.6). These include:

- Oral
- Anal
- Phallic
- Genital

The individual’s social experiences at each stage of development supposedly leave some permanent residue in the form of attitudes, traits and values acquired at that stage, which is explained in terms of two factors (Hijelle and Ziegler 1981:39):

- **Frustration**: The child’s psychosexual needs are thwarted and he is not optimally gratified. This results in the child not mastering internal functions. For example control over bodily excretion, which could manifest as feelings of dependence and incompetence.

- **Overindulgence**: Once again, the child’s psychosexual needs are thwarted. Here the child is overindulged and the child is not given the opportunity to discover for himself his own “self” because he has everyone doing
everything for him, which results in the child not mastering internal functions.

If the influence of attachment during the four sexual developmental stages is considered, it is evident that both parents are important in the positive development of the life-world functioning of a child. In table 2.2 an interactional analysis of Freud’s psychosexual development and attachment is provided. The first psychosexual phase coincides with the first and second phase of attachment. Positive attachment facilitates psychosexual tasks such as basic attitudes of dependence and independence.

The second psychosexual development phase encompasses the third phase of attachment. During this phase positive attachment facilitates the child’s sense of self-control and mastery, as secure attachment provides the child with security and enables the child to venture and explore. The phallic phase of development is when the child gains morals and values; positive attachment during this phase provides the child with a definite moral and value system. In the genital phase, which basically incorporates adolescence and the acquiring of mature social psychosexual relationships, attachment behaviours are of paramount importance in the child’s general life-world functioning, as this is the phase in which the child begins to make romantic and emotional attachments.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>CENTRAL TASK OF AGE/PHASE</th>
<th>COMMENTS/COMPARISON</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Oral phase (throughout first year of life)</td>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Oral phase Establish general rudimentary attitudes of dependence, independece, trust and reliance in regard to other people.</td>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Oral phase As basic or rudimentary attitudes are grounded in this phase attachment forms the framework for facilitating these tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 1 (0-3 months) Phase 2 (3-6 months+)</td>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 1&amp;2 Discrimination between one person and another is learned and characteristic behavior/interaction between certain people is learned.</td>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 3 Positive and reliable contact/interaction/attachment would promote and facilitate the psychosexual tasks which a child must experience and learn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Anal phase (2-3 years)</td>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Anal phase Child must learn to distinguish between the demands of immediate gratification (id) and the social restraints imposed by parents and larger society. (Self-control and mastery).</td>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Anal phase Experiencing a positive attachment (protection and security) would encourage confidence and venturiosity, thereby promoting self-control and mastery.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 3</td>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 3 Maintenance of proximity to a discriminatory figure. Experiencing protection and security.</td>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 3 As the child initiates and maintains proximity towards the main attachment figure (discriminatory figure), self-control and mastery of a situation is needed, secure attachment would promote the psychosexual tasks needed to be learned in this phase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Phallic phase (4-5 years)</td>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Phallic phase (4-5 years) The child gains moral values. Role gender identities are discovered and developed which enhances identity or self (male/female).</td>
<td>Freud: Psychosexual Development: Phallic phase (4-5 years) Positive attachment will promote self concept and therefore enhance goal directed partnerships which will involve relationship negotiation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 4 (4 years +)</td>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 4 (4 years +) Relationship negotiation to initiate and maintain goal directed partnerships. Goal directed systems must be devised and utilized in order to maintain proximity to the attachment figure as child must gain insight into the attachment-figure’s feelings and motives. Flexibility of behavior.</td>
<td>Attachment theory: Phase 4 (4 years +) If a child is securely attached and has acquired a secure base then role negotiation will enhance the child’s ability to discover and develop his/her role identity and facilitate more behavioural flexibility in the child’s actions and reactions and behaviour in general.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41
Table 2.2 Interactional analysis of Freud’s psychosexual development and attachment phase development

The consequences of attachment, whether positive or negative, are evident within the developing individual. Attachment figures’ failure to provide either a safe haven or a secure base results in a person’s attachment related doubts and worries, as well as psychological defences that are attempts to compensate for the lack of security but result in cognitive distortion, rigidity, constriction, alienation and an increased interpersonal and intergroup conflict (Mikulincer and Shaver 2007:49). These consequences are also evident when a child’s psychosexual development is considered.


**Figure: 2.7: The positive and negative influences of attachment on psychosexual development**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITIVE ATTACHMENT</th>
<th>Central task</th>
<th>NEGATIVE ATTACHMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Phase:</strong></td>
<td>Acquiring rudimentary attitudes</td>
<td><strong>Separation anxiety</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bold actions when child explores</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Uncertainty</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Lack of confidence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Disorganization</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Disorientation</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Anal Phase:**      | Acquiring self control |
| Self control enhanced | | Self control deteriorates as trust and reliability are not experienced by the individual |
| Positively experiencing trust and reliability |

| **Phallic Phase:**  | Acquiring sex-role identity |
| Promote self concept | | Withdrawal |
| Confidence in relationship interactions | | lack of self confidence |
| | Insecurity |
| | Interpersonal problems |

| **Genital Phase:**  | Acquiring Responsibility |
| Confidence to experience | | Lacks confidence |
| Willingness to accept responsibility | | Blaming |
| Trust in oneself and others | | Insecurity |

2.6.4 **Erik Erikson: A psychosocial theory of personality**

Where Freud theorised the four universal stages of psychosexual development, Erikson embarked on a different path and attempted to explain the ego and was labelled an *ego psychologist* (Hijelle and Ziegler 1981:113). Erikson’s major attention was focussed on the reciprocal interplay of biological, behavioural, experimental and social factors throughout the entire human life cycle, which focuses on the “normal” or “healthy” rather than the pathological, to explain personality organisation (Hijelle and Ziegler 1981:113).

Erikson highlighted on the “Eight Ages of Man” (Erickson 1941:82). That includes the following stages:
• Infancy: Basic Trust \textit{versus} Mistrust $\Rightarrow$ Dimensional Attribute/Component which is learned is \textbf{Hope}.

• Early Childhood: Autonomy \textit{versus} Shame $\Rightarrow$ Dimensional Attribute/Component which is learned is \textbf{Will Power}.

• Play Age: Initiative \textit{versus} Guilt $\Rightarrow$ Dimensional Attribute/Component which is learned is \textbf{Purpose}.

• School Age: Industry \textit{versus} Inferiority $\Rightarrow$ Dimensional Attribute/Component which is learned is \textbf{Competency}.

• Adolescence: Ego Identity \textit{versus} Role Confusion $\Rightarrow$ Dimensional Attribute/Component which is learned is \textbf{Fidelity}.

• Young Adulthood: Intimacy \textit{versus} Isolation $\Rightarrow$ Dimensional Attribute/Component which is learned is \textbf{Love}.

• Middle Adulthood: Generativity \textit{versus} Stagnation $\Rightarrow$ Dimensional Attribute/Component which is learned is \textbf{Care}.

• Maturity: Ego Integrity \textit{versus} Despair $\Rightarrow$ Dimensional Attribute/Component which is learned is \textbf{Wisdom}.

Considering these stages of ego and the “normal” or “healthy” reciprocal interplay of biological, behavioural, experimental and social factors throughout the entire human life cycle, the researcher explored attachment behaviour and considered the attachment of individuals in relation to the psychosocial aspects.
2.6.5 An interactional analysis of Erik Erikson’s psychosocial theory of personality and Bowlby’s attachment theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ERIKSON: PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY</th>
<th>PHASE SPECIFIC DEVELOPMENT TASK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infancy: Basic Trust vs Mistrust: Hope (During the first year of the child’s life). The acquiring of a basic sense of trust is the cornerstone of a healthy personality. Aspects include “inner certainty”, security and gratification.</td>
<td><strong>Negative attachment</strong> would have a marked impact on the child acquiring the rudimentary cornerstones of healthy personality development, trust gratification and security. Unfavorable outcomes reflect insecurity and fear of the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTACHMENT THEORY: Phase 1 &amp; 2: Discrimination Phase 1 (0-3 months)/Phase 2 (3-6 months+) During phase 1 a child learns to discriminate between people. Phase 2 facilitates a more refined interpersonal discernment.</td>
<td><strong>Positive attachment</strong> would facilitate the child’s experience of feeling secure, promoting trust. Gratification of the child by the mother being available will also enhance trust and feelings of security. A favorable outcome reflects trust in the environment and hope for the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERIKSON: PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY: Early childhood: Autonomy vs Shame and Doubt: Will Power (During the second and third year of a child’s life). The attaining of a sense of autonomy engenders a sense of self-control and competence. Gradual allowing of freedom facilitates the experience of control and accomplishment thereof.</td>
<td><strong>Negative attachment</strong> would create insecurity and doubt. The child would not have experienced the freedom of confident and secure interactions and explorations into the social world. Insecurity would subdue the child’s will and determination creating feelings of shame and doubt about one’s capacity for self-control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTACHMENT THEORY: Phase 3 (2-3 years): The Secure Base The child is more aware of the attachment figures’ presence. The attachment figure is used as a secure base from which the child ventures out to explore.</td>
<td><strong>Positive attachment</strong> would create a trusted base from which the child would venture out into the world. This would facilitate self-confidence enabling the child to experience. The desire to experience creates the child’s sense of self and control and will power, producing a positive sense of autonomy and self-esteem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERIKSON: PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY: Play Age: Initiative vs Guilt: Purpose (Preschool stage of the child’s life - 4th to 5th year). Child begins to master new tasks and skills face challenges of the social world and take on more responsibility. Children feel that they are counted as a person and that life has purpose for them.</td>
<td><strong>Negative attachment</strong> would have a marked impact on the child’s interactive and relationship confidence. This could result in insecurity withdrawal and isolation of the child as he/she is not confident enough to “hold his own” in a social setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTACHMENT THEORY: Phase 4 (3 years +): The Formation of goal directed partnerships. The child does not need a close proximity to the attachment figure. Mother is seen as an independent figure. Child inquires insight into mothers’ and others’ motives and feelings.</td>
<td><strong>Positive attachment</strong> would enhance the child’s interactive relationships with others and objects. Goal directed actions and reactions reflect positive purpose of behaviors with negotiation and re-negotiation in situations and relationships resulting in healthy interactions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ERIKSON: PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY:
School Age: Industry vs Incompetency (6 to 11 years of age)
Child begins to learn the rudimentary skills of the culture via formal education and there is an increased powers of deductive reasoning and self discipline.

ATTACHMENT THEORY:
Phase 4 (2 years +): The Formation of goal directed partnerships.

PHASE SPECIFIC DEVELOPMENT TASK

Negative attachment would have a marked impact on the child acquiring the rudimentary cornerstones of the culture into which he/she was born. Self-discipline would also be affected. The psycho-social attitude which can result is self-doubt, ineptitude and powerlessness and feeling of inadequacy and inferiority.

Positive attachment would reinforce cultural ties, enhancing and grounding the child within him/herself and in the environment in which the child develops. Favorable outcomes creates a sense of competence and achievement as well as confidence in one’s own ability.

ERIKSON: PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY:
Adolescence: Ego Identity vs Role Confusion: Fidelity
(From 12 to 13 years of age to about 20 years)
Child consolidates all knowledge about themselves and integrates this into various self-images, resulting in an ego identity.

ATTACHMENT THEORY:
Phase 4 (2 years +): The Formation of goal directed partnerships.

Negative attachment engenders uncertainty; feelings of doubt, confusion, and anxiety counteracts the emerging sense of identity creating a sense of confusion over who and what one is.

Positive attachment would enhance inner unity resulting in positive self-concepts and social images. Ability to see oneself as a consistent and integrated person.

ERIKSON: PSYCHO-SOCIAL THEORY:
Young Adulthood: Intimacy vs Isolation: Love
(Age 20 to 42 years)
The person usually orients themselves towards enriching vocations and “settling down”. A new dimension with respect to intimacy is experienced or on the other hand isolation. The individual also experiences the ability to fuse the identity with someone else (relationships) without the fear of losing oneself.

ATTACHMENT THEORY:
Phase 4 (2 years +): The Formation of goal directed partnerships.

Negative attachment is detrimental to intimacy which could result in the individual becoming self absorbed, or avoiding of inter personal relationships and it can also lead to feelings of social emptiness and isolation and superficial relationships with others.

Positive attachment form the basis for forming meaningful relationships and therefor is seen as essential for the establishment of a meaningful marital/ permanent relationships. In short, a consolidated personal identity facilitated by positive attachments, assists in attaining a true sense of intimacy and creating the ability to experience love and commitment to others.
Table 2.3  Integration of Erikson’s psychological theory and Bowlby’s attachment theory

Psychosocial theories versus attachment theory (c)

Negative and positive influences of attachment as illustrated in Figure 2.7 are noteworthy as attachment bonds influence the child’s future orientated social functioning. The figure outlines the typical forms of behaviour associated with an individual’s attachment style. Table 2.3 further depicts the relationship between
Erickson’s psychosocial theory and Bowlby’s attachment theory and how each developmental stage correlates with each other when needs remain unmet. What is experienced during the various stages has definite implications regarding how the child socially functions at the subsequent stage.

2.7 CONCLUSION

The human being begins to appropriate the tasks of the world departing from his own organism at the moment of birth. It is the world that provides the tasks being appropriated. Everything that I appropriate (“build” into the self) becomes the Self, and in the future it is more and more the projection of the Self, which leads the way in the further appropriation of the world. This relation includes the process of appropriation, as well as objectification and the expression of the self, which is like acting, thinking and feeling.

(Heller 2009:23)

In considering both personality theories, it can be concluded that attachment during the various phases is of paramount importance to the optimal development and life-world functioning of the individual. Many attachment theorists argue that many other problems actually have their roots in the challenges of early attachment relationships and that early attachment has strong links with mental health in adult life, including the ability to form relationships, the ability to parent and the ability to deal with loss (Beckett 2002:50).

An important facet of attachment is the emotional bonds that develop between child and parent. It is believed that emotional development both advances and is advanced by other development systems in particular the physiological system’s cognitive structures and by the child’s self-esteem (Halle 2003:135). Therefore to enhance the understanding of attachment, emotional development must be considered. This aspect becomes the essence of the following chapter. An in-depth exploration of the adolescent’s emotional development and emotional functioning are examined in Chapter 3.
CHAPTER 3

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT:
BEHAVIOURAL REACTIONS RELATING TO EMOTIONAL
FUNCTIONING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Human beings change over their lives’ journeys. The first overt change that is
realised is that a child changes physically and these drastic physiological changes
are evident almost on a daily basis as one sees the child maturing and growing.
Emotionally one “feels” rather than sees changes in the child’s life. This is felt
especially by those who are significant in the child’s life-world. Mothers will say
that they feel the child is crying differently or that the child is upset over and above
the overt crying signals. As with infants, adolescent development is a beginning in
which the individual begins to experience more intensely the nuances of emotions
that have been part of his/her life-world experiences since he/she can remember.

The developmental task of adolescence is widely agreed to be the construction of
a new identity with which to enter the adult world. Components of this identity
include elements of the following (Beckett 2002:185):

- Autonomy: Increasing independence from one’s family of origin, taking
  responsibility and increasingly relying on the peer group as a source of
  support.

- Sexual Identity: Experiencing and achieving a sense of oneself as a sexual
  being and being capable of successfully negotiating sexual relationships.

- Occupational Identity: Achieving a sense of being competent in acquiring
  skills and providing for oneself.
With each of these tasks come physical and emotional challenges. This chapter discusses adolescent emotional development and functioning by focusing on the emotional challenges the adolescent boy has to face and deal with in his life-world functioning.

3.2 EMOTIONS AND FEELINGS

Psychologists identify emotions as the essential “building blocks” of well-being. Therefore, if one can trace the process associated with emotional development from infancy through to adolescence, contributors and measurements for well-being can be identified and appropriate support can be provided to assist the developing individual to grow emotionally. Operational definitions span biological, physiological, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions. Despite a multitude of operational definitions, most emotional researchers agree that emotions consist of several components within the domains of physiological responses, subjective experience and observable behaviours interacting in complex ways (Halle 2003:126).

There are two major theoretical approaches that are discussed in order to understand emotions, (Halle 2003:126) that include:

- **Structural Approach:**
  - Feelings and emotions are thought to be biologically based.
  - “Basic emotions” such as sadness, happiness, fear, anger are considered distinct entities.
  - Each distinct emotion is seen to be associated uniquely with particular patterns of behavioural expression and cognitive and subjective experience.
  - Measurements of emotions are focused on specific, discrete physiological and behavioural elements that signify the particular emotion, such as, measuring brain activity, cardiovascular activity, respiratory activity, observing facial expressions.
• **Functional Approach:**
  
  o Feelings and emotions are thought to evolve and emerge from ongoing transactions between an organism and its environment.
  
  o “Basic emotions” are not considered distinct entities but are considered flexible responses.
  
  o Physiological or behavioural components of emotions are not distinct emotional states but rather serve different functions, depending on context or social circumstances. Therefore changes in person-environment relations create changes in emotional development.
  
  o Measurement of emotions focuses on, and are emphasised by, subjective perceptions gathered through self-reports, observations and third party informants.
  
Emotions are also a major organising force with intra-personal and inter-personal relationships creating regulatory effects that can either be adaptive or functional. Three theoretical constructs reflect this organising force as suggested by (Frydenburg 2008:30) includes:

- **Emotional competence:** Essentially self-efficacy in the context of “emotional-eliciting social transactions” (Being effective in social interactions/contact).

- **Emotional intelligence:** The ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions as well as having the ability to regulate and use emotion based information to guide thinking and actions.

- **Emotional creativity:** Creating emotions that are novel.
Adolescents need to be taught to be their own self regulators and to increase their capacity to judge whether a particular response will attain the particular desired goal. Pro-active coping, positive emotions and self-regulation contribute to well-being and thriving of the individual as he/she negotiates life as illustrated in Figure 3.1 above.
3.3 LEARNING TO FEEL

All feelings are relatively either direct or indirect expression and all expressions are said to be information. The expression of feelings is said to be a signal which bears some significance in a persons’ life. It is important to learn the differentiation of expressions of feelings; but it is also helpful to learn the significance (as signs) of these expressions. We do not learn this on ourselves in front of a mirror, but rather on the faces, in the gestures, in the tone of voice, as well as the reaction types and in the behaviour of others (Heller 2009:52).

Expression is one of the principal sources of information and it is seen as part of a whole meaning. Expression of feeling informs how one is feeling. The more developed the individual, the more he/she is able to express, communicate his/her own feelings and effectively read and analyse others’ feelings. Thus, feeling means to be involved in something that guides the individual in the preservation and extension of the individual and provides information about what and who the individual actually is (Heller 2009:56).

The importance of this aspect, as indicated in the previous paragraph, forces individuals to consider the developing interpersonal contact and relationships, which directly affect the adolescent’s experience of his/her own and others’ feelings. Absence of one of the primary care giver, for example the father, obviously has repercussions on the adolescent child.

3.4 EMOTIONAL CHARACTER AND EMOTIONAL PERSONALITY

Every person experiences many kinds of feelings from the moment of birth. Every day the feelings experienced comprise of drive-feelings, affects and emotions. The continual exposure to the environment repeatedly creates opportunity for the individual to feel, think and act and forms a patterned behaviour which one can refer to as a habit. The personality feelings, once formed, make it probable that under certain conditions and circumstances; the person feels the same and acts or responds accordingly. Heller (2009:94) stated that both emotional character and
emotional personality are feeling habits. If individuals react with identical or similar feelings to similar circumstances, situations or events, those individuals become accustomed to these reaction types. Similarly, if the type of feeling reaction in general has assumed rigid, generalised typical forms put differently, if prediction makes sense with regard to the emotional behaviour, then individuals are dealing with a character or personality feelings.

Bearing this in mind, it must be considered whether the adolescent and the development path such an individual has followed through the years, has affected and formed their emotional character and personality.

3.5 ADOLESCENT EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Descriptions of adolescence often refer to new levels of emotional variability, moodiness and emotional outbursts. However, evidence suggests that this is also a time of increased emotional complexity with new capacities to identify, understand and express a wider range of emotions (Newman & Newman 2006:315).

If the above-mentioned statement is reflected upon, it can be suggested that emotions are closely interdependent and intertwined with cognition. More developed and heightened reasoning capabilities (cognitive abilities) trigger an increased differentiated range of emotions that are experienced, this includes consequences of expressing emotions and control of the emotional expressions (reactions).

Newman and Newman (2006:315) claim the likelihood of more differentiated range of emotions during adolescence. A major task during adolescence is for the individual to gain insight into his/her emotionality and to expand on his/her capability to empathise with the emotional state of others.
In the context of this study, school age refers to boys who are in turning point, this is often characterized by a turbulent phase where an emerging adult is in conflict and is forced to depart with his or her childhood self and engage with a world that emphasises maturity and individual responsibility. Adolescents are in the stage of moving towards emotional independence because they have experienced the conflict of moving towards maturity. Gouws et al (2008:121) state that adolescents have an improved emotional differentiation, which enables them to express themselves in more specific ways.

Emotions form a great deal of a person’s life. Culture and learning plays a large role in how individuals experience situations and how individuals express feelings (Kenrich, Neuberg and Cialdini 2010:49). The environment or the social context creates the foundation for experiences and expressions of feelings. Emotions are triggered by perceptions and interpretations of particular situations. Figure 3.2

![Figure 3.2 Continuity and change in emotions from infancy through adolescence](image-url)
indicates the continuity of emotional change and how individuals at different stages experience adjustment in their emotional well-being.

3.6 HOW EMOTIONS ARE RELATED TO POSITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Emotions are a key to an individual’s feelings and often display how individuals make sense of the world around them. Parental involvement has a contributing factor towards positive emotional development, thus the overall well-being, as demonstrated in Figure 3.3.

Figure: 3.3 Factors affecting the promotion of positive emotional development

According to Figure 3.3, the home environment elicits or promotes emotionally well-adjusted adolescents. Positive parent involvement whereby an adolescent experiences attachment promotes coping skills and the ability to deal with
negative life events. Furthermore, positive emotional development is enhanced by the adolescent's emotional understanding and emotional regulations, which is the basis of the positive parent-child relationship. When proper parent coaching in emotional expression is well-affected, the adolescent grows up with a solid foundation of how to adapt in situations in order to continue functioning effectively in the society.

3.7 EMOTIONAL ELEMENTS OF ADOLESCENT WELL-BEING

3.7.1 Coping

Coping involves “constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resource of the person” (Bridges 2003:156). As with all human beings, coping is essential for survival; adolescents obviously require coping skills as they contend with major physiological as well as environmental changes. Experiencing positive environmental support facilitates a child’s internal coping mechanisms. Bridges (2003:156) states that high levels of maternal support (a composite of family cohesiveness and adaptability, nurturing and monitoring of the child) and low levels of structure (a composite of family organisation and consistency) are positively related to flexible coping for example the number of coping strategies mentioned and/or used by a child when faced by a stressful situation.

Therefore, it is suggested that intact families (families where fathers are present and available) would promote positive coping skills in adolescents as these families have greater potential for resilience. Walsh (2006:26) mentioned three vital components to ensure family resilience, which in turn positively encourages coping and adolescent functioning, as follows:

- **The family belief system**, which includes making meaning out of adversity, having a positive outlook and a heightened sense of spirituality;
• **Organisational patterns of the family**, whereby the adolescent experiences flexibility, connectedness and positive social and economic resources;

• **Communication processes support** the adolescent by enabling the adolescent to experience collaborative problem solving, clarity and open emotional expression.

It is therefore evident that maladaptive responses heighten vulnerability and risks for the individual and these can cause distress in various aspects of the adolescent’s coping skills.

### 3.7.2 Trust, attachment and relatedness

Attachment theorists and researchers have proposed that secure attachment in infancy and childhood are promoted by sensitive parenting. Primary elements of sensitive parenting include consistency, contingency, appropriateness and positive affectivity. Elements of sensitive parents include the following (Adapted from Bridges 2003:177):

- sensitive parents are consistent in their responsiveness to children;
- sensitive parents create a predictable and care-giving environment;
- sensitive parents’ parental responses are tailored to the needs of their children. Parents also respond contingently to the signals, bids or requests of their children;
- sensitive parents are able to accurately interpret their children’s signals, bids or requests and respond appropriately; and
- sensitive parents express positive feelings about interactions with their children.

Nogales (2009:44) posits that trust is both a crucial need and an empowering feeling. If an individual experiences un-trustworthiness, his ability to trust others can be seriously impaired and then he/she can continue to assume that others will
betray him/her. The child may be overly suspicious and emotionally distant as well as refrain from committing to relationships. Therefore a child that trusts is someone that develops healthy relationships and has a sense of security, which allows him/her to fulfil his goals.

3.7.3 Autonomy

Autonomy, mastery, motivation and control are highly interrelated constructs that weave a definite pattern through the individual's functioning and life world perceptions. These constructs' influences are so great that they influence the developing individual to such an extent that his perceptions of autonomy arise out of experiences of being able to control the environment effectively in order to produce the desired results. McCarthy (2007:64) stated that autonomy is being self-governing and must be mastered and integrated into the developing ego in order to eliminate a pervasive sense of shame and doubt.

This inherently psychological construct can be used a measurement for emotional well-being. Bridges (2003:169) postulate that children who perceive themselves to be relatively competent tend also to perceive themselves as the originators of most of their own activity, even within school settings, where a substantial amount of activity is both required and not inherently fun. In contrast, children who perceive themselves incompetent tend not to choose to engage in activities where further failure is a possibility. As a result of this, they tend to feel controlled by external forces such as teachers and parents or negative internal forces such as shame or guilt.

Environments that promote feelings of competence in the child affect the development of the child's autonomy. When a child feels that their actions have been effective in producing positive outcomes, the child's autonomy grows, strengthens and develops. Restrictive environments undermine autonomous development.
These enabling environments include parents and primary caregivers who react positively to the child's actions and needs that affect the child's emotional well-being as Figure 3.4 suggests. There is evidence to suggest that there is a connection between environmental conditions and concurrent perceptions of autonomy (Bridges 2003:174).

3.8 CONCLUSION

In conclusion emotional development of the adolescent is influenced by the internal development of the individual as well as external environmental factors.
Cox and Harter (2003:56) stated that the gender of the parent may also be important. There has been recent concern about fathering and whether children are disadvantaged if they do not experience the parenting of an involved and active father. It must be noted that fathers influence their children indirectly as well as directly by contributing in positive ways to the complex social system of the family in which the child develops. It is much more challenging to quantify the way in which men contribute to their families and their children but these sources of influence are potentially important (Cox and Harter 2003:199). The statement emphasises the importance of a father’s role in the emotional development of adolescent boys. Chapter four focuses on the behavioural reactions of adolescent boys with respect to their emotional functioning.
CHAPTER 4

THE BEHAVIOURAL REACTIONS OF AN ADOLESCENT WITH RESPECT TO HIS EMOTIONAL FUNCTIONING

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter covers the diverse array of factors that indicate the importance of a father-son relationship in an adolescent boy’s emotional and behavioural adjustment. As an adolescent boy grows up, he requires positive inputs from a father who influences the way he functions and behaves within the culture and society he was born into. Fathers encapsulate roles and identities in the lives of the adolescent boys (Morell, 2006:23). Fathers are viewed as role models and provide adolescent boys with values, rules and norms and how to behave and also control themselves (Patrick 2006:31). Most adolescent boys’ intact experiences are based on unconditional love and recognition, gained from their fathers’ presence and interactions.

The emotional development and behavioural disorder are said to be the most common aspects of concern in the developmental stage of adolescent boys as they seek to understand and find their way into society. Meece and Daniels (2008:350) posit that the primary characteristic of children with emotional and behavioural problems is that their psychosocial development differs significantly from that of their peers. Adolescent boys with absent fathers in their lives may also exhibit behavioural disorders, as their familial situation differs from that of their peers. Issues of identity may come into play where behaviours such as anger, aggression, depression etc. are more likely to manifest.

4.2 EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Emotions are said to be complex and they involve a subjective reaction to something in the environment, are generally accompanied by some form of
physiological arousal and are often communicated to others by some expression or action (Parke and Clarke–Steward 2011:142). Slavin (2012:83) associates emotional development with a period where adolescent boys go through dramatic changes in body image, expected roles, and peer relations. In this current study emotional development was aligned with the definition of Slavin as adolescent boys’ experiences drastic changes during this period which might be confusing and challenging especially in the absence of an emotionally supportive father in their lives. The emotional functionality included aspects of adjustment in the *milieu* of an adolescent boy’s life. The topics that follow are discussed in relation to emotional development.

4.2.1 Resilience

Theorists have explained resilience as an individual being positively influenced by poor family environments and these conditions affect the individual in his/her adult life. Masten and Reed (2002:75) define resilience as a pattern of positive adaptation in the face of significant adversity or risk. Dent and Cameroon (2003:35) as well as Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2010:8) echo the same view that resilience is a process of using protective factors in order to withstand or bounce back from developmental risks or difficulties. Research done by Werner and Smith (1982:119-136) identified three sets of factors implicated in the development of resilience. These are:

- Attributes of the children themselves;
- Aspects of their families; and
- Characteristics of their wider environment.

Developmental investigators defined resilience in terms of a child who is able to meet the major expectations of a particular society or culture in a historical context for the behaviour of children that age and situation. For example, a child is able to achieve the necessary developmental tasks, cultural age expectations and competencies (Masten 2001:229). Minnard (2001:233) further adhere to the view of resilience being defined in terms of how well adaptation takes place when he
focused on the phenomenon of the child who, despite exposure to significant risk factors and crippling, environmental, familial and personal experiences, demonstrates good adaptation and develops normally.

Garbarino’s (1994:114) view on resilience is that each child has a “tipping point” between doing well and failing to do well for example feeling despair, having low self-esteem and demonstrating dysfunctional characteristics. This perspective is supported by Waller (2001:7) that she explains that resilience is not the absence of vulnerability and that no one is either resilient or vulnerable at all times.

For the purpose of this study the researcher adhered to the perspectives of Minnard (2001:233) and Donald et al (2010:8), defines resilience as positive adaptations despite adversities in a person’s life and the propensity to manage major difficulties and to thrive despite overwhelming odds. Sound or good adjustment in a view of familial interactions seems to be playing a role in resiliency. It is necessary for an adolescent boy to feel wanted and close to significant people in his life to enhance his level of adaptation. If systems are not in place, as in the familial situations where there is no attachment between father and an adolescent boy, then developmental problems are much greater than the level of resiliency (Waller 2001:8). The true test of a resilient adolescent boy is not only the positive adaptation but the ability to bounce back and to set realistic future goals.

Resilience is one of the great enigmas in human nature and simultaneously it appears to be an extraordinary “magic” that enables some children to progress well (Pharaoh 2004:33). It is the glue that enables individuals to continue functioning when they are confronted by life’s misfortunes or challenges. Resilience is considered to be the attitude, coping behaviours and personal strength that is evident in people who succeed in spite of adversity. Resilience results in positive adjustment by individuals to the challenges demanded of them by life’s circumstances.

Sheridan and Sheridan (2013), explains resilience as the ability to:
gather knowledge about new ways to win even when the individual is at a disadvantage;

- have the discipline to train yourself in one or more of those techniques; and

- persist until it is reasonable to bet something important, in the case of the individual’s life, that he/she can win with them.

Resilience includes learning and practicing techniques that are required to be done well in life. It does not matter whether these techniques are intrinsic or external, because both these kinds of resources interact and support each other to make an individual resilient.

Resilience can also be viewed as the capacity to construct a positive life instead of merely viewing the concept of life as a reaction to circumstances. Resilience can be evaluated in terms of protective factors and risk factors. Protective factors enhance the individual’s functioning and risk factors negatively influence optimal functioning, thereby creating an element of vulnerability.

Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan and Townsend (2008:534) define resilience as the ability to adapt effectively in the face of adverse life circumstances. These authors further explained resilience as the ability to adjust successfully to an environment despite exposure to risk factors. Resiliency is the ability to maintain adaptive functioning, or to regain functioning, in the presence of one or more risk factors, without experiencing serious long-term harmful outcomes (Nash and Bowen 1999:172). According to (Theron, 2012: 383) resilience is a process of adapting well to adverse contexts. Malindi and Theron (2010:319) further explain that resilience is the ability to adapt and cope under certain conditions and in this instance, conditions that are considered to be particularly difficult or harsh. They further stated that resilience is the capacity of individuals to navigate their way toward resources that sustain well-being. There are a number of conceptual elements such as the inherent parts of individuals that form character and personality that act as an aid to a person’s ability to be resilient. Together with
that, the resources made available to the individual are other people in the person’s environment.

In considering the above mentioned views of resilience, the relevant elements of resilience are:

- Ability to adapt
- Ability to adjust
- Ability to regain and maintain adaptive functioning

Resilient individuals are positively influenced by secure attached relationships, as this foundation provides them with the best base for future life-world functioning. Individuals who are not securely attached may struggle with managing anxiety, exaggerated emotions and maintaining negative beliefs about the self (Swartz, et al 2008:104). These individuals do not have the inner resources (protective factors of resilience) to enhance and circumvent negative life-world influences. They are obviously more predisposed to succumbing to negative influences (negative peer pressure and environmental adversity), retaining their lower self-esteem perceptions and being vulnerable to environmental problems.

Resilient adolescents are able to overcome the odds and lead full lives, even though they have experienced developmental challenges and adversity. Secure attachment enhances the phenomena of resilience and provides a stable and secure base for the child to venture out into the world.

Masten (2001:235) explained that resilience does not develop from rare and special qualities. Rather, it sprouts from the everyday magic of ordinary, normative human resources in the minds, brains, and bodies of children in their families and relationships and in their communities. Ebersohn, Eloff, Finestone, van Dullemen, Sikkema and Forstyn (2012: 333) concur that resilience does not only involve personal agency (adaptive functioning) it requires the availability of family and community resources.
It is because of this rationale that adolescent boys need close attachment with their fathers to experience those special qualities that will enable them to adjust and adapt through life’s adversities.

4.2.2 Identity

Identity can be defined as the sense of knowing an individual and placing that individual in the world (Donald et al 2010:199). The central point at this stage is that adolescent boys are coming to terms with whom they are and where they are going. The body undergoes physical changes and the adolescent boys attempt to seek identity as he associate strongly with peers. The adolescent boys seek to find meaning and understand their roles in the world. They find independency, interest, competency, sexual identity and self-image by making deeper, lasting friendships (Donald et al 2010:63). Identity is a sense of the self; it is concerned with those aspects of character and personality that are distinguishing. Identity formation is a lifelong and largely unconscious process and the roots of one’s identity is traced back to early experiences between mother and infant (Gouws, et al 2008:91).

It is during the adolescent stage that an adolescent boy experiments with a variety of identities and chooses the people with whom he would like to identify. This process is vital as it opens the door to an adolescent boy to the establishment of the identity of the sex role, which is informed by his involvement with significant people in his life, such as a father.

Erickson theory of personality development identifies eight stages, and the fifth stage denotes the relevancy to emotional development, namely identity versus role confusion (Erickson 1968:130-135). During this stage, an adolescent boy may experience a crisis where he is expected to adapt to new tasks and to experiment with various identities in order to answer the question “Who am I?” Once he is able to answer that question, he is able to forge a unique ethnic occupation. Some adolescents with absent fathers in their lives may fail or avoid answering the question, which might lead to role confusion. Adams and Beronsky
(2003:208) also indicated that adolescents who are incapable of making any decisions about themselves and their roles may appear to be disinterested in finding personally expressive adult roles and values. This state of confusion in an adolescent boy’s life may lead to different emotional problems as emphasised by Gouws et al (2000:92-93), whereby the authors purported that a state of confusion causes anxiety, apathy or hostility towards roles or values and may lead to feelings of incompetence and uncertainty, or form negative identity and a lack of direction in life.

For the purpose of this research study, the researcher selected an alignment with the definition provided by Gouws et al (2008:112-113). The lack of father attachment with an adolescent boy may contribute to identity confusion. These adolescent boys may struggle with emotional development and with how they are perceived by others (Mampane, 2004:38). This confusion might impact negatively on the adolescent boys’ lives, whereby they lose the meaning in life as they struggle to find their identity.

4.2.3 Locus of control

Adolescents, who feel they may be effective and have some sense of power or control over their environment, may be able to plan, hope and set personal goals. Personality traits that determine whether people attribute responsibility for their own failure or success or to internal or external factors are referred to as locus of control (Slavin 2012:301). Donald et al (2010:161) explained that the locus of control is experienced by people who feel the source of control in their lives as being either relatively internal or external. Tony (2003:455) indicated that the locus of control is a construct measuring the degree to which one feels in control over one’s life events. Locus of control is a cognitive style or personality trait that is characterised by a generalised expectancy about a relationship of reinforcement in the form of rewards or punishment (Oxford Dictionary of Psychology 2003). In the context of this study, external locus of control is understood to be the general belief that a person holds, that their life is not under their control but rather under the control of external factors.
The quality of the father son-relationship relates to how the adolescent boy views his control over life’s events. Adolescent boys who have a warm relationship with their fathers are more likely to develop a realistic internal locus of control (Lynch, Hurford and Cole 2002:527). Lynch et al (2002:527) further believed that children with an internal locus of control have increased abilities for impulse control, delayed gratification and regulation of control in the classroom. The implication for adolescent boys with internal locus of control may mean that they can withstand external risk factors.

The consequences of an external locus of control appear to be detrimental for adolescent boys. An external locus of control has been associated with anxiety, depression, and poor academic performance (Lynch et al 2002:528). Adolescent boys growing up without the role models of fathers in their lives may fall prey to delinquent behaviours. The studies conducted by Bieri and Lobeck (1959) and Biller (1974) found that boys who have absent fathers are perceived to be inadequate regarding self-control. The studies also indicated that such individuals are less able to extend themselves into the future perspectives. Richter and Morrel (2006:64) also purported that fathers make important contributions to child development and their self-control, and in turn, the experience of fathering makes important contributions to adult development. Fathers who have a particular bond with their adolescent boys may instil positive growth and influence positive future relationships.

4.2.4 Self-concept and self-esteem

Self–concept answers the question of how one describes him/ or herself. The belief one has about himself or how he is perceived by others determines his self-concept. The beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, and ideas people have about themselves are referred to as the self-concept (Meece and Daniels 2008:356). This self-knowledge is organised in a way that it defines behaviour of a particular individual. The evaluation of the self can lead to either positive or negative characteristics in a person. Roets (2002:19-23) postulates that a person’s self-concept is shaped by the type of thinking patterns that he adheres to, the role of
the intra-psychic dialogue contributes to either a positive or negative self-concept. How an adolescent boy views his relationship with a father either unattached or attached might shape his perception and feelings of self-worth.

The self-concept of the adolescent is influenced by his/her identity development. Gouws et al (2008:100) indicated that the self-concept affects various areas of the adolescent’s life. The adolescent stage is the period where the self-concept develops and is dependent on the experiences of the environment. Ntshangase (2007:66) stated that adolescents develop the concept of who they are such as the real self and also of who they would like to be the ideal self during this intense and significant period in their lives. Adolescents develop their self-concept by the norms and values of their families and their peers with whom they have contact. This helps them to define themselves as they compare their functioning to those around them, thereby enabling them to control their impulses and evaluate the “good” and “bad” aspects of their actions and reactions.

Feldman (2001:112) defined the self-concept as the set of beliefs that are held concerning the individual's perceptions. The self-concept differentiates one person from another. Poor sense of self-concept may cause an adolescent to behave in a socially negative way, for example, adolescents who devalue themselves have problems relating to themselves and to others. They may feel unloved and incompetent. Conversely, individuals who have experienced secure attachment perceive themselves and others positively and present with a more defined and more intact self-concept (Feldman 2001:112). Carranza, Kilman and Vendimia (2009:253) referred to these individuals as demonstrating self-positivity, which implies that the individual’s overall level of self-esteem is positive or that the individual has a high sense of worthiness. Another aspect that can be considered when considering self-concept is that of individuals demonstrating high levels of interpersonal trust and “daring”. Adolescents who are insecure, that is to say those who are unfortunate to have experienced an insecure base of attachment, would present as being more withdrawn and scared to attempt or venture out.
Self-esteem involves the evaluation of traits, abilities, and characteristics (Meece and Daniels 2008:356). Self-esteem therefore involves a sense of self-worth and self-acceptance and it indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable. Adolescent boys whose fathers provided emotional support, appropriate monitoring and discipline reported higher self-esteem traits and tended to experience less depressive tendencies and were less likely to engage in behaviour such as delinquency and substance abuse (Carlson, 2006:139). A father’s involvement has been found to contribute directly and positively towards academic achievements as well as to the child’s general functioning and self-esteem (Schmidt and Padilla 2003:38).

Family challenges refer to discipline, stimulation and training that parents and other family members present to the adolescent (Rathunde, Caroll & Huang 2000:135). A positive challenging family environment is presumed to foster autonomy and self-direction. These challenges can be considered as personal resources provided by fathers to the adolescents in an effort to foster positive and optimal development traits in the child’s life. As the adolescent develops self-esteem, further positive characteristics develop. These are feelings of self-worth and a sense of achievement and belonging. Someone with high self-esteem is satisfied with who he is, what he is and he can meet his own standards and expectations as a human being. Schmidt and Padilla (2003:39) further stated that self-esteem increases when a person succeeds, is praised, or experiences another’s love, making self-esteem dependent on not only one’s perceptions of himself, but also on others’ perceptions of him. It therefore seems logical that adolescents who experience a father’s positive emotional attachment will experience high levels of self-esteem, self-worth and positivity. Positive and secure attachment by the father conveys to an adolescent boy a sense of autonomy and self-worth, thereby positively influencing the child’s self-esteem.

From the literature referred to, it appears that fathers play a vital role in the emotional development of adolescent boys in relation to their self-concept, locus of control identity and resilience. The factors that relate to emotional well-being in
the life of an adolescent boy seems to be mostly sought out as they have a bearing in the adolescent’s boy development, and thus adolescent boys growing up with absent fathers appear to be at a distinct disadvantage.

4.3 EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS

Emotional disorders may emanate from various factors in the make-up and development of an individual. Emotional disorders cover a range of behaviours such as aggression, under-achievement, depression and delinquency (Slavin 2012:374). Slavin further suggested that factors that affect families can disrupt one’s sense of security; for example, these might leave an adolescent boy depressed, insecure, lonely and defensive. Based on Slavin’s (2012) explanation, emotional disorders are discussed in the following sections.

4.3.1 Anxiety

Anxiety is explained as manifesting in the following physiological signs: an uneasy mind, a feeling of having butterflies in the stomach all the time, sweaty palms, the heart beats rapidly, the head pounds, shoulders ache and the knees wobble (Stone 2008: 41). A person is unable to concentrate, breathe deeply, and talk more, or talk less. Individuals seem to dart from task to task, or they do nothing at all. These are the physical symptoms of anxiety. Anxiety is similar to fear, and is most easily experienced when individuals perceive a threat of some kind of threat of failure, embarrassment, job loss, or some unknown free-floating threat that cannot be adequately named. Essentially, anxiety ensures that a person is not confident of his/her ability to handle the perceived peril (Stone 2008:41-42).

Absence of either parent is not conducive to optimal development of a child, but for an adolescent boy the absence of a father can be experienced as exceptionally devastating. The physical absence of a father from his household generates feelings of insecurity, anxiety and vulnerability. An emotionally absent father is often associated with an especially high level of anxiety in adolescent boys (Bezuidenhout & Joubert 2008:79). The situation contributes to insecurities in a
boy’s life, which will in turn affect his inter and intra-personal relationships. This can manifest in the boy’s behavioural actions and reactions and may contribute to feelings of anxiety, depression, compromised self-worth and low self-esteem.

As the boy experiences aspects of identity development, he may realise that he feels different from other boys as he is more isolated and alone, and this may further increase levels of anxiety. The boy may also perceive himself as being inadequate and different from his peers. Fathers who are present in the adolescent’s life may realistically and creatively provide support and security for the developing adolescent boy. Father presence is said to be a mediator between family and the outside world and demonstrates how it is possible to engage actively and assertively with the world without being destructive (Lindegger, 2006:124). This principle role of the father in assisting the adolescent boy to deal with these intra-personal and environmental adjustments is vital to the child’s optimal development and functioning.

4.3.2 Depression

Depression is a psychological condition in which a person is typically miserable, unhappy and socially unresponsive; cries easily; is unable to concentrate and complete work; finds it difficult to eat and experiences sleep problems. (Meece & Daniels 2008:119; Donald et al 2010:269 & Hutchison, 2011:264). In this research concept, depression is considered as it is classified by Stone (2008:34) who posits that it includes five aspects:

- Doing less
- Escaping
- Loss of meaning
- Inability to cope
- Hyperactivity

When considering these aspects, it is apparent that depression negatively affects the adolescent boy and his functioning. Doing less denotes withdrawal from
personal interaction with family, peers and scholastic activities. Escaping and loss of meaning are construed as wanting to get away, and using substances to reduce the effect of reality on the already painful situation. This situation generates feelings of not being able to cope within the adolescent, adding to the already fragile self-concept. Hyperactivity can be related to individuals that become aggressive, impulsive and compulsive. Such hyperactivity is really a type of inactivity as it is unproductive, wasteful and sometimes even harmful (Stone 2008:35).

Balk (1995:535) stated that adolescents who disguise their feelings of depression are likely to be aggressive. They could behave restlessly, have difficulty concentrating and have a tendency to flee or withdraw from others. The long-term effect may be an erosion of self-esteem, which leads to deficient social skills and problematic inter-personal relationships. Depressed adolescents may also experience difficulties in maintaining satisfying relationship with peers and adults.

### 4.3.3 Substance Abuse

Family factors are influential towards the genesis of adolescent drug and alcohol abuse problems. Poor relationships with parents and inadequate child rearing practices are closely linked to adolescent drug abuse (Johnson 2000:2). Fathers play an important role in the behaviour of adolescents as they are usually seen as the authority figure. During the years of development, an adolescent boy closely interacts with his father; he develops habitual patterns of behaviour which are repeated several times and become imprinted in his life. The repetitive sequences of behaviour provide an adolescent boy with a foundation for his own form and style of behaviour. The father’s influence can be compared to an “invisible force”. This “invisible force” influences and sometimes even governs the reactions and behaviour of an adolescent and steers him forward on his life path. “Invisible forces” include spoken and unspoken expectations and words, rules for managing conflict; these forces explicitly or implicitly reflect structures and responsibility of assigned roles, and imprint norms and values on the developing individual (Johnson 2000: 3).
In the case of adolescent behavioural problems, Orbot (2005:5) maintains that the family’s lack of skills to manage a youth can create a force that makes the adolescent function inappropriately. An adolescent with poor family management styles does not have the structures or discipline within his own life to rely on, and without this guidance he may decide to establish his own lifestyle and external attachment bonds.

Engaging in substance abuse or any delinquent behaviour may create feelings of unity with the peer group and become a way of escaping from the overwhelming problems experienced by the adolescent growing up alienated from his father. The lack of love or attachment the adolescents experience due to father absence may also directly contribute towards finding solace in drugs (Orbot 2005:7-12). Alcohol is a depressant and the melancholic who uses it is taking a life threatening risk. Alcohol seems to accelerate the downward spiral, as it relieves some tension in the short term and then brings the individual to an even lower point of self-esteem (Stone 2008:48).

Families whose relationships are cold and unsupportive are more vulnerable to emotional and physical health problems, including substance abuse problems and various emotional tribulations (Shelton, Harold, Fowler, Rice, Neale, Thapar and de Bree 2008:216). Adolescent boys growing up within families where fathers are absent tend to learn negative behavioural patterns from their peers at a faster rate, as they identify and relate more closely to the external group to compensate for the lack of attachment within the family, especially with the father. Smoking seems to be the first step taken by the adolescent into a negative behavioural pattern. It can be considered the first behavioural sign that has serious negative implications within the school context, which leads to the child clashing with school authorities.

Fathers’ behaviours that are characterised by lack of warmth and hostility have been associated with elevated misconduct and smoking behaviour in adolescents (Repetti, Repetti, Taylor and Seeman 2002:332). Cigarette use in adolescents is prevalent and places a considerable burden on families and the individual, both
financially and in terms of health. Smoking is a health hazard and negatively impacts the quality of life of both the individual and those around them. Once an adolescent becomes addicted to nicotine, it may be difficult to stop and the likelihood is high that the adolescent may experiment with stronger substances. The positive authority fathers provide is not a guarantee that the child will never experiment with substances, but there is a great need for fathers to guide and support their adolescent sons in an effort to discourage such addictions and behaviours from starting, as well as attempting to stop adolescents from continuing with these destructive activities as soon as they are discovered. Repetti et al (2002; 332) state that substance misuse among adolescents living in dysfunctional family relationships may compensate for the deficit of social and emotional development and serves as a self-medicating function in response to dysregulation in the context of conflicted family life.

4.3.4 Scholastic performance

The effects of emotions on achievement are assumed to be a joint product (Schultz & Perkrun 2007:28) towards scholastic achievement. Positive emotions such as enjoyment exert positive effects towards achievement. Negative achievement such as boredom and hopelessness exert negative effects. Positive scholastic achievement is highly influenced by level of emotional stability. There are several reasons why paternal involvement is associated with positive educational outcomes in adolescents which affect their educational attainment. Flouri (2006:42) identifies four important factors that support the father-son attachment towards positive scholastic achievement:

- Fathers who are involved tend to financially support their children, which affects their educational attainment by influencing the economic structure of a home;
- Fathers who are involved in their son’s lives will probably engage with them in physical play, which is an activity important for cognitive and physical development;
• Families where fathers are involved benefit from having both parents highly involved with the consequent diversity of stimulation in social capital which predicts attainment; and

• Fathers are more likely to be involved when the co-parental relationship is good and therefore the overall family context in which the adolescent boy is raised is positive, which contributes to positive child outcomes.

Adolescent boys who have a strong attachment or bond with their parents are likely to show progress in school as they feel safe and grounded. The attached adolescent tends to accept discipline and school rules from teachers at school, they carry what has been taught at home over to the school setting. Lack of attachment in adolescents tends to lead to lack of conscience, morality and a greater willingness to engage in delinquency (May, Vartanian and Virgo 2002:269).

Adolescents who have grown up without a strong base from their fathers find it difficult to obey rules at school. They tend to be disruptive and unruly since they have no reference of organised behaviour (Lamb 1987:266). It becomes difficult for educators to control these individuals as they lack a positive and disciplined frame of reference. Therefore involvement and supervision by fathers of the young developing adolescent, makes it easier for educators to instil rules and discipline on learners as foundational structures are already entrenched in the adolescent boy. If parents are involved in their children’s lives, the tendency for those children to have fewer scholastic problems is evident, as the child tends to respect the wishes and expectations of their fathers, when there is a healthy bond (May, et.al 2002:149).

It is further stated that the more fathers are involved in the lives of their adolescent boys, striving to make the adolescents feel wanted and good about themselves, the less likely they are to turn into delinquents as a means of getting what they want. However, reduced level of father involvement leads to the adolescents
being poorly adjusted in school, which in turn leads to poor academic performance.

4.3.4.1 Under-achievement

An adolescent who is emotionally pained finds it difficult to concentrate and effectively function in class and the general school environment. If scholastic progress is negatively experienced by the adolescent, such an adolescent might manifest behavioural problems. This produces a downward cycle of low academic achievement coupled with on-going negative behaviour patterns thus experience emotional pain that hampers scholastic performance (see Figure 4.1). The result of this downward spiral is evident in the psychological functioning of the child as he/she displays anger, directed either inwardly or outwardly, low self-esteem, low internal motivation, fear of failure and a general feeling of being overwhelmed.
These resulting feelings and behaviours can be extremely powerful in influencing the adolescent's life. Mazza (2002:682) states that feelings of anger and failure can be directed inwardly (resulting in drug addiction, alcoholism, depression and excessive gambling), or outwardly (resulting in overt aggression and delinquency). All manifest behaviours are an attempt to shut out the outside world and protect the self from further psychological pain. More specifically, involvement of
adolescents in delinquent behaviour is a quest for dulling the pain of rejection (Mazza 2002:683).

In most cases, educators fail to understand the adolescent’s frustration and psychological disturbance that is being experienced. Educators rather tend to believe that the adolescent is being disrespectful and wilful, rather than acknowledging the child’s internal sadness and anxiety. The emotionally pained adolescent sometimes does not show any remorse after being punished as they often believe that they deserve such punishment (Mazza 2002: 684). This happens when their emotional need is overlooked or misinterpreted. Truancy also reflects an adolescent’s psychological functioning and academic underachievement.

Generally a low level of performance seems to reinforce and prove to the adolescent that he is not important, not good enough and different from his peers; it tends to emphasise his predicament and enhance his loneliness. This situation is particularly noteworthy as the adolescent is in a developmental phase where he needs assurance, recognition, good role models to relate to, optimal development and functioning. If this is not achieved the adolescent could resort to other ways of acquiring validation and recognition. The other alternative is to seek affirmation and guidance from his friends and peer groups. These are the people who recognise and validate him as a human being. Fathers and the father-son relationships work against the negative peer group attraction. May et al (2002:268) stated that adolescents, who are strongly attached to their fathers and whose fathers provide adequate supervision, will view themselves as being insulated from potential victimisation.

**4.3.4.2 Motivation**

Motivation, according to Abraham Maslow is embedded on the hierarchy of needs. As individuals’ basic needs are fulfilled, possibilities of fulfilling more complex desires are unlocked (Swartz, et al 2007:124). An adolescent’s need for love, safety, belonging or to self-actualise, depends on how each of the preceding
levels were met. The higher needs can only be achieved if the basic needs were fulfilled. The need to love and to be loved, as well as the need for security, forms the bases of individual’s levels of need and when met, these determine individual’s levels of motivation.

![Motivational Representation](image)

**Figure: 4.2 Motivational representation: Adapted from Gouws et al (2008)**

Motivation refers to needs, goals and desires that spur an individual to action (Gouws *et al* 2008:71). Motivation involves movement and actions which inspires individuals to act in a particular way. An individual whose needs are satisfied will be spurred to act in a positive way, as opposed to an individual who is less motivated. Motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic. When an individual is intrinsically motivated, he/she has an inner drive which initiates an action or movement. If an individual is extrinsically motivated, there should be outside forces such as rewards that will spur action. Gouws *et al* (2008) illustrated motivation as depicted in Figure 4.2 as a cyclical process.
Adolescents’ who believe that the relationship they have with their fathers is important and instrumental in their lives are likely to be motivated as they have internal motivation driving them to a particular action. Adolescents who feel attached to their fathers, experience less psychological distress and are less likely to engage in problematic behaviour.

4.4 CONCLUSION

An adolescents’ emotional development is fragile and is influenced and formed by internal as well as external factors. The primary sphere of influence originates from the family and the dynamics within that environment, specifically with regard to the adolescent boy and the father as a role model, is of prime importance.

Furthermore, an adolescent can be affected in his life-world functioning by reflecting emotional and behavioural problems which he may experience due to inadequate or poor attachment to his father. This deficit spirals into other life-world areas, such as the educational sphere where he once again experiences rejection and the inability to conform to social structures and norms, creating a negative “ripple effect” on the adolescent boys’ path forward in life.

The lack of warm, positive relationship with insecure attachments with fathers, coupled with inadequate supervision of and involvement with children are strongly associated with children’s increased risk for behavioural or emotional problems (Frik, Lahey, Loeber, Stouthammer-Louber 1992:52; Shaw, Owens, Vondra, Keenan and Winslow 1996:688). This indicates that parental involvement, especially the involvement of a father in the life of an adolescent boy, plays a major role in his behavioural functioning. The lack of a father-son relationship due to a father’s absence appears to be a contributing factor to the adolescent boy’s behavioural functioning. The following chapter focusses on the research design and methodology.
CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides detailed information regarding how the research study was conducted, the methods that were used in generating data for the empirical aspects and how data was analysed. The terms, methods and methodology are defined in order to gain a deeper understanding of how the research was conducted. Buckingham and Saunders (2004:15) state that the term “methods” is normally reserved for the technical aspects of research, including the actual tools by which data is generated and analysed, while “methodology” refers to the logic or philosophy underlying particular methods. Struwig and Stead (2010:44) further emphasised this aspect of research methodology, explaining that it specifies the scientific method used to gather and analyse data in order to arrive at a solution for the problem. The research undertaken for this thesis delineated this scientific approach in order to effectively investigate the issues surrounding the research questions, aims and problem statement and processes to arrive at a conclusion as to improve the identified problem.

Research methodology can be understood as the approach that the researcher selects to conduct the research which may either be quantitative or qualitative. McMillan and Schumacher (2012:330) viewed research methodology as the approach selected, either qualitative or quantitative or both, by a researcher to conduct a research. For the purpose of this study, a quantitative approach was selected.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is viewed as the structure of the research project or study. It involves procedures that are employed in the research process. Research design
can be thought of as the basic framework of the research study. Creswell (2012:20) stated research designs are procedures involved in the research process, such as data collection, data analysis, and report writing. Welman and Kruger (2001:46) further elaborated on the concept by stating that a research design is the plan which the researcher uses to obtain research participants and collects information from them with the purpose to reach conclusions about the research problem.

It is used to structure the research and to show how all the major parts of the research project such as, the samples, measures and methods work together to address the central research question. The research design also enabled the researcher to anticipate what the appropriate research decisions should have been to maximise the validity of the results. Mouton, Wildschut and Boshoff (2000:13) add that a research design as they explained it as a plan or a blueprint of how the researcher intends conducting the research, suggesting that the epitome of research lies in the planning.

This research design can therefore be defined as the plan that guides the researcher in the process of the study from inception to conclusion of the study. The quantitative approach was used in the study in an effort to be able to provide better understanding of the core concepts, which were the emotional relationship between fathers and sons and how this relationship impacts on the adolescent boy’s self-concept formation.

5.3 QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

As the study employs the use of quantitative research approach, which according to (Leedy and Omrod 2005:231) is the method used to answer questions about relationships among measured variables with a purpose of explaining, predicting and controlling the phenomena. The researcher will briefly provide the underlying pragmatic philosophy to the particular method chosen.
Qualitative research activities are centred on and inside the perspective on social action with sensitivity to the context in which participants operate their frame of reference and history (Babbie and Mouton 2001:271). An aspect of qualitative research approach was applied in this study as it attempts to ascertain how people make sense out of their own lives. The personal perspectives and experiences of the participants were explored, described and reported on by using a qualitative question that was included in the quantitative questionnaire. As Patton (2002:129) states, the strength of qualitative research is that it is an inductive, naturalistic inquiry.

Quantitative research that was the main approach in this research investigation refers to an inquiry useful for describing and presenting trends and explaining the relationship among variables and constructs found in literature (Creswell 2012). Denzil and Lincoln (1998:5) and Johnson and Christensen (2012:33) concur, that the quantitative approach to research indicates that there is reality out there to be studied, captured and understood. Guba and Lincoln (1994:109) reinforce this notion by asserting that quantitative paradigm believe that reality exists and is apprehensible, which is driven by immutable laws and reality takes a mechanistic form.

As the research study was a quantitative research design with only one qualitative element, further reasons for choosing a quantitative approach are as follows:

- **Objectivity.** As Magagula (1996:7) contended, the quantitative approach is based on the premise that reality exists out there and can be studied independently; it is believed that the investigators have the ability to detach themselves from the object under investigation in order to avoid bias and data contamination. Johnson and Christensen (2012:36) contended that qualitative approaches are subjective. It is important to establish close contact with the object of study through participant observation and interviews but to strive to avoid subjective influences.
• **Independence and elimination of bias:** As Johnson and Christensen (2012:36) asserted, quantitative tradition holds that the researcher should remain distinct and independent of what is being researched; hence the use of questionnaires are an attempt to control bias, select a systematic sample and be objective when assessing a situation through a neutral instrument, such as a quantitative questionnaire that provides an opportunity to be able to generalisations with a broader context of population.

5.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

5.4.1 Population

The following three references provide a comprehensive description of the concept of population:

• Wiersma and Jurs (2009:478) described population as the totality of all elements, subjects, or members that possess a specified set of one or more characteristics that define it. It is a particular group that defines the unit of analysis.

• Population can be defined as all possible elements that can be included in the research (White 2005:113).

• The population for a study is usually a group of people about whom the researcher wants to draw conclusions, although it is never possible to study all members of the population and it is never possible to make every possible observation about these members (Babbie 2005:113).

The population in this research study comprises all the elements of a population sample, as established in the above mentioned references. The specified set of one or more characteristics defining the sample, namely, adolescent boys aged between fifteen and seventeen years, also includes all possible elements that were included in the research to enable the researcher to draw conclusions
(relationships between adolescent boys and their fathers) in the study. The available population consisted of nine schools in the district of Tshwane that were divided into the regions of Tshwane North, Tshwane South and Tshwane West. The names of schools from the varying districts are Voortrekkerhoogte High School, Tshwane Secondary School, Pretoria Secondary School, (Tshwane South), Daspoort High School, Modiri High School, Pelotona Secondary School (Tshwane West), Memezelo Secondary School, Ratshepo High School and Prospectus Novus School (Tshwane North).

5.4.2 Sampling

Wiersma and Jurs (2009:479) provided a general definition of a sample and interpret it as a subset of the population under study. Conversely, White 2005:115 is of the opinion that sampling makes a selection from the sampling frame in order to identify the people or issues to be included in the actual research study.

In the research study the targeted group were adolescent boys who were in some way disconnected with their fathers. The subjects were either living with their family but did not present with a good father/son relationship or were not living with their fathers due to divorce or other unforeseen circumstances. The sample was collected from secondary schools in the Tshwane district regions where three schools were chosen from each district, as indicated in paragraph 5.4.1.

Random sampling was used to select the participants. According to Creswell (2012:626), random sampling is a process used in selecting individuals so that each individual has an equal opportunity of being selected. Initial selection was done among all adolescent boys to ensure that none of the boys would be marginalised. The sensitivity of the topic prompted the researcher to use random sampling as a way of protecting the image and identity of the adolescent boys. Further selection enabled the researcher to obtain a more defined sample for the research study through this method.

After participants had completed the questionnaire, some boys were found to not fit the criteria of the sample selection. Such respondents’ individual questionnaires
were excluded from the study sample as the participants indicated at the end of the questionnaire the reasons for not having a father; some boys did not complete the questionnaire, which also required additional information about their fathers.

5.5 DATA COLLECTION

Bell (1993:63) illustrated that the methods selected provide the data that is used to produce a complete piece of research. Therefore decisions have to be made about which methods or method is best suited for a particular purpose and then an appropriate data generating instrument must be designed to collect the necessary data.

Gay and Arisian (2000:9) concurred with Cohen and Manion (1995:242) that the choice of approaches to be adopted depends on the nature of the research question. As this study was concerned with ascertaining the father-son emotional relationship and how this relationship impacts on the self-concept formation of the adolescent boy, the quantitative questionnaire and qualitative open questions on the questionnaires were found to be relevant as it supported the quantitative data.

5.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

This section focuses on the quantitative data generation instrument, and the qualitative open-ended questions as data collection methods used in the research study, why they were specifically chosen and it also delineates the strengths and weaknesses of these methods.

5.6.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are regarded as a commonly used method of collecting data (Newby 2010:333). The literature review completed for this study was on the basis for the development of the questionnaire. Noting the themes of the challenges encountered with the adolescents and the theory regarding child development and attachment theory, a self-administered questionnaire was
developed in conjunction with the research aims to obtain more in-depth reliable information.

The self-administered questionnaire as a data generating instrument was the primary method of data generating process (See Appendix 3).

The questionnaire was administered face-to-face with adolescent boys in schools. This method of administration yields a positive response rate since questionnaires are distributed in a group setting and most group members are likely to participate (Check and Schutt 2012:173). Some disadvantages, as Check and Schutt (2012:173) provided, is most commonly that when using this method participants may feel coerced to participate, and as a result participants may be less likely to answer the questions honestly.

Bell (1993:84) claimed that all data generating instruments should be piloted to test how long it takes recipients to complete them, to verify that all questions and instructions are clear and to enable the researcher to remove any items that do not yield any usable data. Bennett, Glatter and Levacic (1994:174) agreed with the above statement and asserted that the piloting of a research instrument is one way in which a research instrument can be honed to its particular task. Piloting creates validity in the instrument, as shortcomings are identified and then rectified (Monyatsi 2002:170). Piloting of this questionnaire endeavoured to do the following:

- Reveal gaps in the logical sequence of the questions.
- Eliminate incompatibility of wording used;
- Remove any items that do not yield appropriate or usable data;
- Gauge the general level of comprehension and interpretation of the instructions and questions by the respondents;
- Expose the time parameters taken to complete the questionnaire.

Piloting of the questionnaire during this research study was of prime importance. Therefore, to test the reliability of the questionnaire; the
questionnaire was piloted to a sample of adolescent boys in schools that were not part of the sample group which participated in the study as a way of finding more varied information from different participants. Problems of validity were found and the questionnaire was then rectified so as it could be valid.

5.6.2 Reliability

McMillian and Schumacher (2010: 179) posit that reliability refers to the consistency of measurement, or the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instruments or occasions of data collection.

Internal consistency of scale responses were assessed using Cronbach’s Alpha. In this study, reliability estimates were found to be 0.89, 0.84, and 0.88 as evident from Table 5.1 for responses to the variables “information received”, “information sent”, and “action taken on information”, respectively. This indicated good reliability of constructs. A reliable Cronbach alpha coefficient value validates that the individual items of a dimension measured the same dimension (concept) in the same manner (or consistently).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Items left out</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Construct 1: Information received</td>
<td>7,9,11,13,15,17,19,21</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct 2: Information sent</td>
<td>23,25,27,29</td>
<td>Q29 out (0.81)</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct 3: Action taken on information</td>
<td>31,33,35,37</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 5.1 Means, standard deviations, correlations and coefficient alpha reliability estimates for the study’s variables

In this Table, Cronbach’s Alpha (coefficient alpha) estimates are reported in table
5.1 above that indicates an example of this approach to summarize items for three constructs (scales).

5.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis was done by means of a descriptive statistical analysis approach. A descriptive statistical analysis approach serves as a way in which aims of the data obtained from the questionnaire was analysed. The findings were described based on the presented data collected. Quantitative data was then validated by the qualitative data that was analysed by means of open coding technique (Tesch 1990).

5.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

5.8.1 Informed consent

Informed consent implies that all possible or adequate information about the goal of the study as well as what the respondents’ or the participants’ participation entails, as well as the credibility of the researcher be rendered to potential subjects (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche' and Delport 2011:117).

In this study permission was obtained from the Department of Basic Education to complete research at schools in the Tshwane districts as per Appendix 4. A requisition letter was sent to principal of schools to conduct research at the identified schools as per Appendix 3. Permission was obtained via consent letters to parents (Appendix 2), which were provided to all the participants used in the study. As they were between the ages of fifteen and seventeen and still legally considered minors, parental consent had to be acquired. The letter was explained to the participants as well as the parents in order to confirm that they were free to participate or withdraw from the study. All participants were also requested to sign the assent letter as shown in Appendix 1, which informed them that there would be no incentive when participating in the study and that they were welcome to withdraw from the study at any time if they felt uncomfortable. According to
Struwig and Stead, (2010:68) if the study involved any risks such as discomforts or embarrassment, the participants should be informed in advance. This was fully explained to all participants and emphasis was again placed on the fact that if a participant wished not to participate in the research, there would not be any negative consequences held against him.

5.8.2 Anonymity

Anonymity in a research study ensures that no identifying information is recorded to link respondents with their responses (Check and Schutt 2012:181). Participants in the study were not required to write their personal details in order to maintain anonymity.

5.8.3 Deception

Deception refers to misleading participants in such a way that had they if they had been aware of the nature of the study; they may have declined to participate in it (Struwig and Stead 2010:69).

Another aspect of deception is reflected by Corey, Corey and Callan (1993:230) who states that deception involves withholding information or offering incorrect information in order to ensure the participation of subjects when they would otherwise have refused it. Neuman (2000) explained that deception occurs when the researcher intentionally misleads subjects by way of written or verbal instructions of other people, or certain aspects of the setting.

As errors can easily occur, during this research letters stating the intention of the study were sent to both parents and participants two weeks before the study commenced. In that way all participants were given an opportunity to understand the intention of the researcher to conduct the research and for the participants to withdraw from participating in the study. The intention of the study was clearly explained to avoid deception by means of the consent letters.
To further attend to any occurrence of deception which might have been unintentionally inflicted, participants were debriefed after the administering of the questionnaires.

5.8.4 Protection from harm

Protection from harm denotes that the researcher does not expose research participants to unnecessary physical or psychological harm (Leedy & Omrod 2010:101). This study involved adolescent boys’ relationships with their fathers; hence some questions in the study may have created some discomfort to participants. In order to prevent psychological discomfort, explanations were provided before the study commenced to attempt to furnish the participants with enough time to agree to participate in the study or withdraw from the study. Where such discomfort was noted, the participants were debriefed after the completion of the questionnaires.

5.8.5 Confidentiality

For the purpose of this study privacy was used synonymously with confidentiality. De Vos et al (2011:119) defined privacy as keeping to oneself that which is normally not intended for others to observe or analyse.

5.8.6 Competency

The researcher was qualified to carry out the research due to her qualifications, as well as her years of experience in the field of educational psychology and teaching in secondary schools. Her supervisor was involved in this process, ensuring a suitable research design and giving guidance in the process of research. The researcher (Ps 0091065) is registered with the Health professional of South Africa
5.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter addressed research methods and how data was collected to answer the main research question. The following chapter addresses results, findings and provides an interpretation of results.
CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the results of the data that was collected by means of a questionnaire as a data generating instrument. The research findings are preceded by the biographical data pertinent to the study. The distribution of schools used in the study was explained, in order to reflect the dynamics of districts in which the study was conducted and also to provide a broader perspective regarding the participants from different locations. Demographic details and biographic details are discussed in detail in order to place the research study in perspective, thereafter the results are examined and conclusions drawn.

A total of 403 respondents formed part of the study; all were adolescent boys who attended schools in the Tshwane district, within the Gauteng Province of South Africa.

6.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The specific research problem as stated in chapter one section 1.3 investigated the emotional relationships between the adolescent boys and their fathers, in an effort to develop an intervention programme to assist the adolescent as well as their fathers in building better relationships and also to provide guidelines or suggestions to assist and support parents, educators and therapists. It was also aimed at fostering a better understanding of the adolescent by educators, other family members and significant others who are present in these adolescents boys’ lives and who support them.

The questionnaire consisted of five sections, namely section A, which covered the biographical data; section B, which dealt with paternal relationship; section C
sought to determine aspects of the self-concept; section D dealt with resilience factors; and section E covered issues of motivation. Sections B to E each consisted of ten questions.

6.3 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The descriptive statistical analyses included statistical techniques used to answer the research questions were to describe and present data such as mean scores, the variances, frequencies and percentages. The results and findings are discussed by relating the information to the literature review.

6.4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The three districts were purposefully chosen. Tshwane North and West covered most schools that are in the townships and Tshwane South covered schools that were previously categorised as Model C Schools.

6.4.1 Section A: Biographical data of respondents

Figure 6.1 below depicts the distribution of districts and the percentages used in each district.
These regions are situated in the Tshwane area of the Gauteng District. The districts were divided into the following: Tshwane North constituted 34% of the participants, Tshwane South included 33% of the participants and Tshwane West had 33% of the participants.

The number of participants were fairly equally distributed, except for Tshwane North, which had a higher participant percentage result and can be attributed to the higher number of schools in the area.

6.4.2 Distribution of schools

The demographics of the schools that took part in this study are portrayed in the figure below.
The schools from the Tshwane districts that took part in the study are represented in the figure 6.2 above. The names and percentages of participants in the study that came from the schools used in the study were Daspoort 11%, Pelotona 11%, Modiri 11 %, Pretoria 11 %, Tshwane 10%, Voortrekerhoogte 11%, Ratshepo, 14% Memezelo 14% and Prospectus Novus School 6%.

A total of 403 adolescent boys formed the population sample of the study. Participation by the adolescents in the schools ranged between 14% and 10%, except for Prospectus Novus, which had a participation rate of 6%. The reason for this is that Prospectus Novus has fewer learners in the school due to its specialised function. Prospectus Novus caters for learners with learning difficulties. The school admits fewer learners so that these learners can be given individual attention. The researcher deemed it fit to include learners from this particular school as it enhanced the representativeness of the study and in doing so; it provided a more inclusive approach.
6.4.3 Respondents’ age groups

Figure 6.3 below shows the various ages of the adolescent boys participated in the study.

![Figure 6.3 Age groups of participants](image)

The ages of the respondents in the study were within the adolescent developmental phase, this age group ranged between 15 years and 17 years. These ages typically represent a period between childhood and adulthood, during which the participants behave differently and are treated differently. They are neither seniors nor juniors; they are in a transition period (Schlegel 2008:32). The adolescent boys chosen in the study were all in secondary schools and their ages were relevant to the parameters of the study.

It is during this period that adolescent boys seek identity and role models in their lives. As stated in paragraph 1.7.6, these adolescents often experience feelings of independency as they strive towards emotional self-fulfilment. The adolescents
are in a stage of exploration and experimentation and they seek and need fathers who will guide them in making good choices about life issues.

6.5 CONSTRUCTS

Quantitative research findings are based on the data collected from a self-administered questionnaire. This research study collected quantitative data from the respondents at different schools by administering a questionnaire.

Chronbach’s Alpha was used in the study to describe internal consistency, which is reflected in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Construct</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paternal Relationship</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resilience</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Concept</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.1 Reliability of constructs

According to Cronbach’s alpha coefficient the constructs are considered reliable when they range between 0.6 and 0.9. Constructs used in this study fell well within this range.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Internal consistency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>α ≥ 0.9</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8 ≤ α &lt; 0.9</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.7 ≤ α &lt; 0.8</td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6 ≤ α &lt; 0.7</td>
<td>Questionable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5 ≤ α &lt; 0.6</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α &lt; 0.5</td>
<td>Unacceptable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.2. Internal consistency of Cronbach’s Alpha

The internal consistency of scale responses assessed by Cronbach’s Alpha and the reliability estimates were between 0.7 and 0.9 for responses on “Information received”, “Information sent” and “Action taken” on information respectively. Regarding the reliability Coefficient for the constructs, paternal relationship was
0.89, resilience was calculated at 0.71, self-concept demonstrated 0.77 and motivation was recorded at 0.93. This indicated good reliability on all constructs.

A reliable Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient value validates the individual items of a construct measured the same construct in the same manner consistently. This was proven true in the variables of the study.

6.5.1 Discussion of constructs

The constructs used in this study were aimed at investigating the following Aims:

- The subjective experiences of adolescent boys with respect to their emotional relationship with their fathers.
- The impact that the lack of emotional attachment between fathers and their adolescent boys, has on the development of the adolescent boys’ self-concept.
- The impact that the emotionally absent father’s relationship has on the development of the adolescent boy’s resilience.
- The impact of the emotionally absent father’s relationship with the adolescent boy regarding the development of the adolescent boy’s motivation and
- To provide guidelines and/ or suggestions to support parents, educators and therapists to enhance the emotional relationship between fathers and adolescent boys.

6.5.1.1 Paternal relationship

The table below seeks to explain the differences in percentages between variables of the construct of paternal relationships in the study. The mean of individual questions in the entire table of constructs was only used to rank and
interpret the items and not to statistically analyse, since it is an ordinal variable with only five levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V6</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V7</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V8</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V9</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V10</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V11</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V12</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V13</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V14</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V15</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>2.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.3 Paternal relationship

The column with mean scores in the above table indicates the level of agreement to the question posed regarding paternal relationship and it can be used to rank the items in order of preference. The paternal relationship construct consists of variables from V6 to V16. In the above table the respondents agreed most strongly with V15, which states that the respondents (adolescent boys) feel secure with their fathers; this was reflected with the score of strongly agree showing a mean of 2.68. The respondents strongly disagreed with V13, which reflected opinions on the father’s involvement with the adolescent’s extra mural activities. The score moved towards the disagree pole with the mean of 3.79.

The individual percentages shown in the table above reflected that 38.15% of respondents strongly agreed that they feel secure with their fathers, 45.98% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their fathers are involved in their extra mural activities.

These results imply that fathers are emotionally absent in the lives of the adolescent boys, even though the fathers are physically present. Quality time
between fathers and their adolescent sons seem to be missing and this affects the parental relationship.

6.5.1.2 Resilience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.63%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>13.23%</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25.45%</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>24.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V17</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>9.50%</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.25%</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20.25%</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>25.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V18</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.21%</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19.40%</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.40%</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>28.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V19</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.02%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8.27%</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16.79%</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>28.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.50%</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>12.75%</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21.25%</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>21.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.74%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.48%</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.98%</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>18.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V22</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9.32%</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9.32%</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26.20%</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25.19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V23</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.27%</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9.77%</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17.04%</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>26.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V24</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8.95%</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10.23%</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30.18%</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>29.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V25</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>17.04%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>13.03%</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17.04%</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>16.79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>36.09%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.4. Resilience

The column displaying the mean scores in the table above reflect agreement to the question posed regarding resiliency and can be used to rank the items in order of preference. The table above was again used to rank the items in order of importance. The resilience constructs consists of V16 to V25.

Respondents strongly agreed with V21, which denotes that respondents do not give up easily in challenging situations; this is suggested by the mean score of 1.82. The respondents least agreed with V25, which states that respondents can easily let go of negative emotions; this is indicated with the score leaning towards disagreement, reflected in a mean of 2.58. The individual percentages per category are illustrated in the table above, whereby 59.35% of respondents strongly agreed that they do not give up easily in challenging situations. 17.04% of respondents strongly disagreed that they can easily let go of negative emotions. The implication suggests that adolescent boys feel that they can resist (are resilient) and can adapt to situations.
Table 6.5. Self-Concept

Table 6.5 above reflects the mean scores and percentages of the individual variables regarding the self-concept. The mean score indicated the level of agreement regarding the question referring to self-concept and it is used to rank the items in order of importance. The self-concept construct consists of V26 to V35. The respondents strongly agreed with V33, which indicated that respondents like to be watched when playing soccer; evident by the mean score of 2.92. The respondents least disagreed with V28, which indicated that respondents were satisfied with who they are (self-concept). The adolescents’ satisfaction with their self-concepts was reflected in the mean score of 2.51.

The individual categories as represented in the table above represents the difference in percentages between each construct. 27.39% of respondents strongly agreed that they like to be watched when playing soccer, whereas 42.68% respondents strongly disagreed that they are content with who they are (self-concept). The majority of respondents clearly demonstrated that they are not satisfied or content with who they are as indicated by their percentage scores.
6.5.1.4 Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V36</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>31.49%</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>18.39%</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V37</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>35.70%</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>16.96%</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V38</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>27.96%</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>21.16%</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V39</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>38.85%</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>14.79%</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V40</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>36.87%</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>15.91%</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V41</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>31.23%</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>18.39%</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V42</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>46.60%</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9.82%</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V43</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>34.09%</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>17.17%</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V44</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>40.40%</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>16.92%</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V45</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>44.97%</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10.05%</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.6 Motivations

Table 6.6 above shows the mean scores and percentages of different variables of the construct motivation. The mean column indicates the agreement to the question regarding motivation which is used to rank the items in order of preference. The construct motivation consists of V36 to V45. The respondents agreed most strongly with V45, which says that respondents can always try again if they fail at anything, reflected in the column of agree with a mean of 2.59. Conversely, the respondents agreed least with V42, which indicates that it does not matter to respondents if they are liked or not, they will still be able to continue. This mean score of 2.50 echoed this negative motivational factor.

The individual percentages per category as indicated by the table also revealed that 22.86% of respondents strongly agreed that they can always try again if they fail at anything and 46.60% of respondent strongly disagreed that it does not matter if they are not liked, they will be able to continue, emphasising the fact that they need support and availability of others or their fathers when they feel alone or unlike/unpopular. The construct therefore as per the percentages and the mean scores reflected indicates that most of the respondents strongly agree that they are not motivated to do things on their own.
6.5.2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of variance is used to determine whether the mean scores of categories differ significantly or not. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a collection of statistical models and their associated procedures, in which the observed variance is partitioned into components due to different explanatory variables. ANOVA is a statistical technique used to infer whether there are real differences between the means of three or more groups or variables in a population, based on the sample data.

To determine whether the means were significantly different, the $t$-test was used as part of ANOVA procedure, which produces probability values (p-value). The p-value indicates statistical difference at a 95% level of confidence. When the calculated p-value is smaller than 0.05, a statistically significant difference exists between the tested categories at a 95% level of confidence. Values above 0.05 indicate no significant difference between the tested categories or levels. The explanation is given in the following paragraphs regarding the significant difference in the residency category.

6.5.2.1 Means for paternal relationship in relation to residency

Residency in the context of the study refers to the parent the respondent lives with; essentially the primary residency. The table below reveals the analysis of variance with regard to residency and paternal relationship mean scores.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>Lower 95%</th>
<th>Upper 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stay with Mother</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>3.55024</td>
<td>0.07817</td>
<td>3.3965</td>
<td>3.7040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with Father</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.25882</td>
<td>0.24058</td>
<td>2.7857</td>
<td>3.7319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with both parents</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>2.68755</td>
<td>0.07393</td>
<td>2.5422</td>
<td>2.8329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.34841</td>
<td>0.26510</td>
<td>2.8271</td>
<td>3.8697</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.7 ANOVA for residency and paternal relationships
The results in Table 6.7 show the mean score (average) of paternal relationship scores by residency (who the respondents are staying with at home). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is intended to compare the differences between parental relationship mean scores and residency (in this instance, the variance refers to whether the respondent resides with the mother, resides with the father, resides with both parents or resides with others). The total number of respondents residing with the mother were 161, while 17 resided with the father, 180 resided with both parents and only 14 resided with others.

An explanation of the data captured in in Table 6.7 is provided in a tabular form below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Significance with respect to Paternal presence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stay with Mother</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>This was the highest score. In these cases, the father was absent the majority of the time. The respondents LEAST preferred the type of residency where they only stay with the mother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with Father</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>This was the THIRD highest score which indicated the LESS preferred type of residency. The respondents did not prefer to reside with fathers only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with both parents</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>This score indicated the MOST preferred type of residency. The respondents preferred staying with both parents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>This was the SECOND highest score; it indicates a preference in relation to residency. Respondents preferred LESS to stay with grandparents, aunts or other relatives.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.8 Explanation of ANOVA scores regarding residency and paternal relationships

From the table above it is evident that there is a difference between staying with mother and staying with both parents and the least preferred type of residency indicated by respondents is that of staying with only the mother with a mean score of 3.55, when compared to staying with both parents with the mean score of 2.7. Staying with both parents was determined to be the most preferred type of residency.
Table: 6.9  p- value of paternal relationship

Table 6.9 reveals the probability-value of 0.0001, which indicates that there is a significant difference between the residency categories for paternal relationship at a 99% level of confidence. These data further purports that the adolescent boys who do not stay with the father may experience challenges, as the study hypothesised. Therefore the null hypothesis can be rejected, and the alternative must be accepted. There is a difference in the perceived paternal relationship score. The place of residency therefore has a significant influence on the perceived paternal relationship score. By interpreting the means, the LEAST preferred residency option is to stay with the mother only.

6.5.2.2  Mean scores of resiliency in relation to residency

The table below displays the difference of mean scores in relation to resilience and residency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>Lower 95%</th>
<th>Upper 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stay with mother</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>2.27371</td>
<td>0.05408</td>
<td>2.1674</td>
<td>2.3801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with father</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.48824</td>
<td>0.16644</td>
<td>2.1609</td>
<td>2.8155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with both parents</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>2.31060</td>
<td>0.05115</td>
<td>2.2100</td>
<td>2.4112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.04813</td>
<td>0.18341</td>
<td>1.6875</td>
<td>2.4088</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.10  Mean scores of resilience
The mean scores of the three types of residency indicate the LEAST preferred type of residency. Respondents’ levels of resiliency are not influenced by residency. The score shows the MOST preferred type of residency of the respondents with regard to their level of resiliency. The respondents’ levels of residency are strong when they reside with extended family other than their parents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Significance with respect to Resilience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stay with mother</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>The mean scores of the three types of residency indicate the LEAST preferred type of residency. Respondents’ levels of resiliency are not influenced by residency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with father</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>The score shows the MOST preferred type of residency of the respondents with regard to their level of resiliency. The respondents’ levels of residency are strong when they reside with extended family other than their parents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with both parents</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.11 p-values for resilience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>Prob &gt; F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staying</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.60315</td>
<td>0.534382</td>
<td>1.1347</td>
<td>0.3349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>173.31148</td>
<td>0.470955</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Total</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>174.91463</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.12 Probability value of resilience

The results indicate that the probability value of (0.33) indicates that there is no significant differences between resilience mean scores for the residency categories. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Therefore there is a significant difference in the perceived resilience scores. By interpreting the mean, the MOST preferred option of residency is to stay with extended families.

6.5.2.3 Mean scores of self-concept in relation to residency

ANOVA was performed to find the difference between the mean scores to depict the relationship between the constructs of self-concept and residency of respondents, as per table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>Lower 95%</th>
<th>Upper 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stay with mother</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>2.84205</td>
<td>0.07138</td>
<td>2.7017</td>
<td>2.9824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with father</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.90000</td>
<td>0.22642</td>
<td>2.4548</td>
<td>3.3452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with both parents</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>2.71161</td>
<td>0.06769</td>
<td>2.5785</td>
<td>2.8447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.10159</td>
<td>0.24205</td>
<td>2.6256</td>
<td>3.5776</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.13 Mean scores of self-concept and residency

109
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Significance with respect to self-concept</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stay with mother</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>The mean scores indicate the LESS preferred type of residency. Respondents prefer to stay with neither the mother nor the father to a lesser extent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with father</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with both parents</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>This is the MOST preferred type of residency. Respondents prefer to stay with both their parents in relation to their self-concept. The presence of both parents in relation to residency influences the respondents' self-concepts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with other</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>The least preferred type of residency. The respondents do not prefer to stay with the extended families.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table: 6.14  Mean scores of self-concept**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>Prob &gt; F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staying</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.08848</td>
<td>1.02949</td>
<td>1.2551</td>
<td>0.2896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>300.20950</td>
<td>0.82024</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Total</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>303.29798</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table: 6.15  p-value of self-concept**

The ANOVA results indicated that there is no significant difference between the self-concept means scores for the residency categories with the probability value of 0.29. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Therefore there is no significant difference in the perceived self-concept scores. By interpreting the means, the LEAST preferred option of residency is to stay with extended family members.

6.5.2.4 **Mean scores of motivation in relation to residency**

The table below shows the mean performance of the constructs of motivation and residency of respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>Lower 95%</th>
<th>Upper 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stay with mother</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>2.62175</td>
<td>0.09675</td>
<td>2.4315</td>
<td>2.8120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with father</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.26471</td>
<td>0.29681</td>
<td>1.6810</td>
<td>2.8484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay with both parents</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>2.59274</td>
<td>0.09147</td>
<td>2.4129</td>
<td>2.7726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.31587</td>
<td>0.32707</td>
<td>2.6727</td>
<td>3.9590</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table: 6.16  Mean scores of motivation and residency**
Residency | Mean | Significance with respect to Motivation
--- | --- | ---
Stay with mother | 2.6 | The score reflects the less preferred type of residency. The same results were generated for the respondents who stay with both parents and those staying with mothers only. The mean scores show that respondents’ levels of motivation are the same when they stay with both parents and mothers.
Stay with both parents | 2.6 |  
Stay with father | 2.3 | The MOST preferred type of residency. The respondents indicated their preference for staying with fathers in relation to motivation.
Other | 3.1 | The LEAST preferred type of residency. The respondents do not prefer to stay with extended family. Their motivation levels are not enhanced by this type of residency.

Table: 6.17 Means of motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>Prob &gt; F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staying</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.05662</td>
<td>3.01887</td>
<td>2.0157</td>
<td>0.1113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>548.14135</td>
<td>1.49765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Total</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>557.19797</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.18 p-value of motivation

Table 6.18 lists the differences between the mean scores for the concepts of motivation and residency. This indicated that there is no significant difference. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference in the perceived motivation scores. By interpreting the means, the least preferred option of residency is staying with extended families.

6.6 CORRELATION BETWEEN CONSTRUCTS

The purpose of correlation tests the strength and direction of the relationship between constructs. The correlation coefficient (r) was used to determine the relationship between constructs. The correlation coefficient ranges from -1 to 1.
Correlations are described as follows:

- When $r = 1$: The correlation is perfectly positive.
- When $r = 0$: This implies that there is no linear correlation between the variables.
- When $r > 1$: Positive correlation, as it indicates that as a value for a variable increase, the value for another variable decreases.
- A value where $r = -1$: Implies that the correlation is perfectly negative

To determine the correlation between the constructs, namely paternal relationship, resiliency, self-concept and motivation, the Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated among the four constructs. The table below shows the correlation coefficient of the constructs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paternal Relationship</th>
<th>Resilience</th>
<th>Self-concept</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paternal relationship</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.1958</td>
<td>-0.0122</td>
<td>-0.1475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resilience</td>
<td>0.1958</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.1185</td>
<td>-0.0174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-concept</td>
<td>-0.0122</td>
<td>0.1185</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.7149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>-0.1475</td>
<td>-0.0174</td>
<td>0.7149</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 6.19  Correlation of Constructs

6.6.1  Paternal relationship and resiliency

The results indicated that there is a weak positive correlation between paternal relationship and resiliency at 0.20 ($r=0.20$). The probability value was calculated as smaller than 0.0001 ($p<0.0001$), which demonstrates a significant correlation, even though it is weak. It is therefore concluded that when a father is emotionally present in the life of the adolescent boy, the adolescent boy’s resiliency is positively affected. There is a weak positive relationship between paternal relationship and resiliency.
6.6.2 Paternal relationship and self-concept

The correlation coefficient between paternal relationship and self-concept showed a negative correlation of \(-0.0122\) \((r=-0.0122\) nearly 0). The implication of this result, suggests that the paternal relationship and self-concept has a very weak correlation. Furthermore, the probability value was calculated at 0.8, which indicates that there is no significant correlation between paternal relationship and self-concept.

Adolescent boys are able to know who they are and behave positively in the world without the presence of the father in their lives. It is therefore concluded that there is no relationship between paternal relationship and the formation of the adolescent’s self-concept.

6.6.3 Paternal relationship and motivation

The results for paternal relationship and motivation revealed that there is a weak negative correlation at -0.15 \((r=-0.15)\). The implication of this is that paternal relationship and motivation have a weak correlation. The probability value was calculated as 0.0027, which indicates that the correlation between paternal relationship and motivation is significant. It is therefore concluded that motivation and paternal relationship correlate negatively, although it is a weak correlation. Essentially, when fathers are emotionally absent the level of motivation is negatively affected. There is a weak negative relationship between paternal relationship and motivation.

6.6.4 Self-concept and resilience

The results indicated that there is a weak positive correlation between self-concept and resilience indicated at 0.11 \((r=0.11)\). The implication of this result is that self-concept and resilience have a weak correlation. The probability value was calculated at 0.03, which indicates that there is a significant correlation between self-concept and resilience. There is a weak positive relationship between self-concept and resilience.
6.6.5 Motivation and self-concept

The table indicated that there is a strong correlation between motivation and self-concept at 0.7 ($r=0.7$). The implication is that motivation and self-concept are strongly correlated. The probability value was calculated as smaller than 0.0001 ($p<0.0001$), which indicates that there is a significant correlation between self-concept and motivation. The more the respondents are motivated, the more their level of self-concept moves to the positive pole. It is then concluded that there is a strong positive relationship between self-concept and motivation.

6.6.6 Motivation and resilience

The results from Table 6.19 indicated that there is no correlation between motivation and resilience at 0.017 ($r=0.07$), which is nearly 0, indicating no correlation at all. The implication is that with no correlation between motivation and resilience, no relationship between the two constructs is significant. The probability value was calculated at 0.74, which indicates that there is no significant correlation between motivation and resilience. The conclusion is that there is no relationship between motivation and resilience.

6.7 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Adolescent boys need role models in their day-to-day life to lead exemplary lives. Physical and emotional presence is also vital according to the response of the respondents.

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between paternal relationships and adolescent boys’ resiliency

The results of the study demonstrated that there is a stronger correlation between paternal relationship and resilience. The implication is that when fathers are emotionally present, the level of resiliency in adolescent boys increases. Resiliency is interpreted as the way in which individuals manage life’s risks. An
individual’s response to risk cannot be seen as fixed attribute. Some individuals succumb to stress whereas others overcome the hardships or challenges of life.

The respondents in the study indicated low levels of resilience when fathers are absent in their lives. Adolescent boys with absent fathers responded negatively to risk. They are unable to deal with stressors in their lives. They easily become involved in risky activities as Seiffge-Krenke (2006:25-29) purport that adolescent boys who are ambivalent or experience resistant models of attachment and who seek support from others such as a father, but are disappointed in the way fathers provide support, are said to report high level of stress, continuous conflict and anger. Studies conducted by Allen and Daly (2007), Elgar, Knight, Worrall, and Sherman, (2003), Mash, McFarland, Allen, McElhaney, and Land, (2003) and Muris, Meesters and van den Berg (2003) further suggest that insecure attachment has been linked with problems such as anger, anxiety, depression and externalising problems such as conduct problems and oppositional behaviour.

Adolescent boys with absent fathers are more likely to experience such problems since their level of resistance is low due to insecure attachment with fathers. The attachment figure in this study refers to a father who is very important to the well-being of an adolescent boy. Studies have demonstrated that if attachment is permeable, boys are more likely to be involved in risk factors as hypothesised. Paternal acceptance is significantly and positively linked with psychological adjustment (Allen and Daly 2007).

It has also been proven that adolescent boys with more secure attachment who perceive their parent to be warm and involved in their lives have lower levels of delinquency than those adolescents who perceive their parents to be uncaring and uninvolved (Golstein and Haven 2000; Palmer and Holin 2001; Nikerson and Nagle 2004). Adolescent boys who experience the lack of attachment and who feel that their fathers are not emotionally present in their lives are more likely to be involved in delinquent behaviour as they experience low resistance. They struggle to control their edge to stressors: hence they are more easily involved in unacceptable behaviours. Adolescent boys who perceive their fathers as absent
are more likely to demonstrate a low internal locus of control, whereas adolescent boys with involved fathers are more likely to demonstrate a greater internal locus of control (Biller 1993; Lamb 1997; Thompson 1995 and Ross and Broh 2000).

**Hypothesis 2: There is no a relationship between paternal relationship and adolescent boys' self-concept**

The results of the study indicated that there is a weak correlation between fathers’ presence and the self-concept formation of adolescent boys. In the analysis of the relationship between paternal relationships and self-concept, the results revealed that there is no correlation between fathers and adolescent boys. This was unexpected, as other researchers have indicated that good relationships between dads and teenage boys can boost the teenager's self-esteem (Hartman 1993; Wark 2008).

The correlation in this study is weaker than in the other studies. The self-concept of an adolescent boy is affected. According to results, this revealed that the absence of a father in an adolescent boys’ life does not impact his self-concept. The assumption that says there is a relationship between father presence and self-concept is therefore not true.

The adolescent boys’ level of self-efficacy determines how they feel about themselves. Bandura (1994:71-81) defines self-efficacy as peoples’ belief about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance, that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. With the self-efficacy definition in mind, it can be concluded that people with strengthened self-efficacy are able to carry on with their lives without expecting encouragement from others. The study did not yield the same results as viewed by many researchers who are of the opinion that the lack of emotional attachment or involvement of fathers in the lives of adolescent boys’ negatively impacts on their self-concept.

As Bandura has emphasised, it has been indicated that adolescent boys are confident in themselves and they have a positive view of life despite the absence of a father in their lives. Therefore self-concept is more intrinsically motivated.
Hypothesis 3: There is a relationship between paternal relationship and adolescent boys’ motivation

The results revealed that the correlation between paternal relationship and motivation is significant. If the father is present in the life of an adolescent boy’s life, their motivational levels increase. The role the father plays as a motivator or role model seems to provide adolescent boys zeal to continue to work hard. Gouws et al (2008:71) referred to needs, goals and desires that spur an individual to action as motivation. Motivation involves movement and actions which inspires individuals to act in a particular way. An individual whose needs are satisfied will be spurred to act in a positive way as opposed to an individual who is less motivated.

Motivation can also be linked to an adolescent boys’ emotional intelligence, which is referred to as the ability to monitor individual’s and others’ feelings and emotions as well as having the ability to regulate and use emotion-based information to guide thinking and actions (Frydenburg 2008:30). This indicates that adolescent boys with sound emotional intelligence are able to plan ahead and resume accountability for their own actions. This happens when the father is present as the boy feels motivated.

Considering the above results, it is noteworthy that the emotional absence of a father in the life of an adolescent boy does reflect or impact on the adolescent boy’s life.

6.7.1 Qualitative results

The result that emerged during data analysis of the data that was collected by means of the open-ended question on the questionnaire administered reveals that:

- Adolescent want open communication with their fathers, whereby they are able to share their feelings. This implies that they need more involvement of fathers in their lives, whereby they will be taught to deal with things
through the expression of words, and not merely by emulating their fathers.

- Adolescent boys need their fathers to be involved in their lives. The boys thus require quality time with their fathers where they can spend time together such as partaking in physical activities with their fathers.

6.8 CONCLUSION

The study sought to investigate the emotional relationships between fathers and the adolescent boys. In order to achieve these outcomes, the magnitude of correlation co-efficient, as well as whether or not coefficients are statistically significant were considered.

To further emphasise this statement, the responses from open-ended questions completed by participants reflected the need of adolescent boys to have an emotional attachment with their fathers.

Therefore it can be concluded that the level of emotional presence a father plays is significant in the life of adolescent boys. Adolescent boys need fathers who are emotionally present in order for these individuals to increase resilience levels and present with better coping skills in life.

Adolescent boys are more prone to being exposed to negative influences and tend towards higher risk taking behaviours in their lives as they develop and form an identity. Fathers who are emotionally present in these children’s lives tend to help the adolescent to respond more positively to risks and make better decisions when faced with negative influences.

Chapter 7 discusses recommendations; and presented a specifically designed programme, while the limitations of the study are also discussed.
CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 7 is the final chapter of this study. The research study initially consisted of the rationale behind the study, the aim of the research and the literature reviewed which substantiated the research study. The chapter that followed was the research design and methodology and a brief explanation of the findings. This chapter further presents concluding comments with specific focus on the limitations of the study, recommended an intervention programme to enhance emotional relationship between fathers and adolescent boys, as well as recommendations for parents, educators and therapists and the final conclusions of the study.

7.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The conceptualisation of this study was initially generated by anecdotal evidence that suggested that the lack of a father-son emotional relationship had an impact on the adolescent boy’s self-concept. The reason which influenced the researcher to further investigate this topic was motivated by the number of adolescent boys presenting with the problem of father absence in her private practice as an educational psychologist. She then became aware of the following:

- Many adolescent boys presented with behavioural problems at schools.
- Most of these adolescent boys complained about their fathers being physically present in their lives but emotionally absent from them.
- Limited experience, knowledge and training in assisting adolescent boys with this situation.
• The need to find solutions to assist fathers and sons to connect and form an emotional relationship.

7.3 THE AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The main aims of the research were to investigate the following:

• The subjective experiences of adolescent boys with respect to their emotional relationship with their fathers.

• The impact that the lack of emotional attachment between fathers and their adolescent boys, has on the development of the adolescent boys’ self-concept.

• The impact that the emotionally absent father’s relationship has on the development of the adolescent boy’s resilience.

• The impact of the emotionally absent father’s relationship with the adolescent boy regarding the development of the adolescent boy’s motivation and

• To provide guidelines and/ or suggestions to support parents, educators and therapists to enhance the emotional relationship between fathers and adolescent boys.

The researchers’ aim was to develop an intervention programme to support teachers, parents and therapists and that will enhance the emotional attachment between fathers and their adolescent boys. The study was divided into two divisions, namely the: literature review, and an empirical investigation.

7.3.1 The literature review

The literature review was undertaken to enable the researcher to emphasise the necessity and importance of attachment between fathers and adolescent boys.
The following were derived from the literature review as prominent aspects regarding the attachment and the father-son relationship:

- A simplified review of the attachment theory can be described as the process whereby an individual seeking closeness to the attaching figure encourages the individual to feel secure when the attaching figure is present and to feel anxious or insecure when the attaching figure is absent (ref par 2.2.1).
- The emotional and behavioural developmental aspects of the self-concept, resiliency and motivation of adolescent boys were influenced by relationships or bonds with their fathers (ref. par. 4.2 and 4.3).
- Attachment theory is more focused on the behavioural patterns of an individual than on the cognitive aspects; hence the study focused more on the behavioural patterns in relation to an adolescent boy’s functionality.
- The literature review also delineated how adolescent boys behave when these emotional bonds are absent.

Therefore to enable the researcher to gain more knowledge and to compile a questionnaire, the literature that was reviewed focussed on two main areas, namely

- Attachment theory,
- and adolescent boys’ relationships.

7.3.2 Research design and methodology

Chapter 5 concentrated on the research methodology. A quantitative research approach was employed in the study and included qualitative aspects that allowed the researcher to gain more insight into the issues raised. It was noted, discrepancies between the quantitative and qualitative data were evident. If this study did not include the qualitative question, these discrepancies might not have emerged. These discrepancies are further discussed in the recommendations.
In this particular study nine schools were sampled from Tshwane South, West and North district regions. An average of 33% of the adolescent boys from each school, ranging between the ages of 15 and 17 years were used in the sample. Questionnaires were used to collect data and open-ended question was used to support quantitative data. The use of the open question that was qualitative in nature was used to corroborate and authenticate the quantitative data collected means of quantitative questionnaire with the view of ensuring the credibility of the findings. Descriptive statistical analysis approach was used to analyse quantitative data.

7.3.3 Chapter 6: Results of the empirical investigation

Chapter 6 focused on the results of the empirical investigation. According to the results, it was concluded that:

- Adolescent boys in the study feel more comfortable staying with both parents than residing exclusively with mothers.
- The adolescent boys in the study showed that they have a need for a father who is emotionally present in their lives as fathers guide and support their children.
- The adolescent boys alluded that they need the security that their fathers offered in terms of being able to communicate, share their experiences and spend quality time with them.
- Attachment theory places more emphasis on bonding and attaching to significant people in an individual’s environment. This aspect was evident as a need of the adolescent boys in the study.
- Adolescent boys need role models in their day-to-day life to lead exemplary lives.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the mean difference between the four constructs for an example; paternal relationship, self-concept, resilience and motivation.
The first construct relating to father-son relationships emphasised that adolescent boys crave fathers who will promote or enhance feelings of security within themselves, which will lead to them feeling safe. This was authenticated by their quantitative findings, which indicated a need for open communication and to spend quality time with their fathers. Adolescent boys believe that their character will be moulded by the emotional presence of their fathers and the involvement of fathers in their lives.

With regard to the self-concept formation, the results of this research showed that the emotional absence of a father does not significantly impact on the self-concept of adolescent boys. Roets (2002:19-23) postulated that a person’s self-concept is shaped by the type of thinking patterns to which he adheres. Essentially, the role of the intra-psychic dialogue contributes to either a positive or negative concept of the self (par: 4.2.4). It is therefore concluded that adolescent boys in the study who presented with an ability to control and direct their thinking patterns and not consciously focus on the presence or absence of their father, promoted positive self-talk which lead to enhancement of their self-concept, thereby reducing the impact of the absent father. As previously stated, the adolescent will continue to form a self-concept as he matures but the quality of the development is affected by the influence of the paternal relationship.

With regard to integrating attachment theory and the concept of resilience it became evident that the adaptive nature of behaviour refines the understanding of the types of relationship experiences necessary to promote positive adaptation (Atwool, 2006:327). Resilience as a construct in the study indicated that there is a need for fathers to be emotionally present in the lives of adolescent boys to enhance the adolescents’ functionality and integration into the society in which the adolescents function (par: 4.2.1).

The results regarding motivation indicated that insecurely attached adolescent boys whose fathers are emotionally absent have little confidence in their own abilities to bring about change and obtain the things they need and require, as
previously discussed in par 4.3.4.2. The adolescent boys are also less motivated and display a lack of interest to independently pursue activities.

Based on the knowledge from the literature review and the empirical study regarding the importance of attachment in the life of individuals specifically fathers and adolescent boys an intervention programme that assists fathers and adolescent boys to relate emotionally was designed.

7.4 INTERVENTION PROGRAMME

The intervention programme revolves around three main aspects that the research study emphasised. The aim of the study was to assist fathers to re-connect with their sons and empower adolescent boys to actively seek a positive emotional relationship with their fathers. The intervention programme can be utilised in three ways: Firstly as an ice-breaker in a therapeutic situation with a therapist, and secondly by an educator as a tool to reach out to either the adolescent or the father and thirdly and by parents as means of bridging the gap and to enhance communication.

When used as an ice-breaker in a therapeutic situation, the therapist can actively challenge the adolescent regarding his relationship history and the feelings and emotions which accompany any trauma, his present needs as well as what he wants in the future and how he can change or accept the situation. The therapist can work through each step of the communication journey with the adolescent and start to identify the adolescent’s strengths and weaknesses. The intervention programme eventually becomes concrete evidence of the adolescents’ journey. From a more mature perspective, if the therapist works with the father, the intervention programme can be used as a tool to challenge the father’s thoughts, opinions and behaviours.

The aspects that the intervention programme seeks to address are as follows:
- Promoting communication (Reflecting on the paternal relationship construct and self-concept constructs).
- Reserving quality time moments for creating attachment (Reflecting on the motivation and paternal relationship constructs).
- Relational enhancement that enhance the connections between the two entities (Reflecting on the resilience and paternal relationship constructs).

7.4.1 The use and implementation of the Intervention Programme

The intervention programme is presented as a “comic” pamphlet that can be given to either the adolescent or the father, with the intention to help each party to commence the communication process and to eventually promote contact and relationship building (See Appendix 6 for complete pamphlet). It is recommended that all the stages of the intervention programme be followed to enhance continuity and progress of the relationship as they are equally important.

Introduction Stage

The programme comprises of four stages. The first stage is the introduction, which poses a question and provides all parties involved with an opportunity to complete self-reflection activities regarding their own feelings concerning the relationship.
Figure 7.1 is an introduction or the first stage in initiating contact between the father and his son. It serves as an ice-breaker between fathers and sons.

**Implementation Stage**

The second stage as shown in figures 7.2, 7.3 and 7.4 require the individuals to think about how they can communicate and attempts to commence some form of contact. In some situations, either fathers or the adolescent boys do not want to, or are not ready for face-to-face contact and but by giving the individuals some ideas and suggestions, it is hoped that one of the parties in the relationship will commit to initiating contact in order to commence the communication process.
Figure: 7.2 Implementation stage commencing communication

Figure: 7.3 Implementation stage involvement in communication
The second stage continues to urge the parties to communicate and take the first step of the communication journey in relationship-building. The relationship being built is symbolically portrayed as a journey and the individual is seen as embarking on the journey, similar to a car on a road.

**Reflection Stage**

The third stage attempts to recognise feelings and emotions and to help the father or adolescent boy to acknowledge (even if it is only to himself) that there is a need for connection, even though it is completely normal and “human” to experience emotions such as fear, anger and guilt.
This section also endeavours to normalise feelings and to continue to motivate the relationship. It also reassures the individuals that they are not alone and that it is acceptable to seek help.

\[\text{Figure: 7.5 Reflection stage considering emotions and needs}\]

\[\text{Figure: 7.6 Reflection stage Motivation}\]

**Final Stage**

Finally, in the fourth stage, as evident in Figure 7.7, an analogy is drawn between building a structure and building a relationship. The symbols relate strongly to a typically male dominated construction environment. At this stage the counsellor
provides a contact number or contact person if any of the parties desire a consequent session. The final question is the greatest challenge to all those involved: “What is stopping you?”

The intervention programme, when used by an educator, can be utilised as a base of referral that acknowledges the adolescent’s (or father’s) experiences and encourages them to initiate relevant contact and communication. Therapists can use the programme as a therapeutic tool to assist fathers and sons to build a harmonious relationship.

Figure: 7.7 Final stages
The intervention programme, when used by parents, can serve as a starting point to share experiences in order to create open communication that can lead to building an emotional relationship.

The programme is an initiating tool that can lead to further therapy or personal insight.

7.5 THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Due to the sensitive and personal nature of the research topic regarding adolescent boys and their father’s emotional attachment, it is felt that many of the boys did not feel comfortable enough to reveal various aspects of their family settings. This situation could have limited many aspects of the study. It is felt that a more in-depth qualitative study could have provided richer emotional data.

During the selection process, educators at certain schools randomly chose participants (adolescent boys) in their schools from class lists, despite the fact that these adolescents do not reside with both their parents. As selection criteria was not adequately adhered to by some educators, it resulted in some participants that were selected not to fit the sample selection criteria as they did not reside with their fathers and had no contact with any father figure. This situation limited the study in some aspects as it reduced the number of the sample. However, it also provided insight into adolescent boys’ life-world functioning in other situations for example when a child stays with grandparents or is fostered. This aspect also generated other avenues that could be explored during further research projects.

Another limitation was the quantitative findings of this study. The results of this study cannot effectively be generalised or transferred. The sample size was small and limited to only three districts of Tshwane schools in Gauteng that were used to gather the information. Furthermore, the study also focused on adolescent boys. However, regarding this point, the results served as a base for creating effective strategies to assist fathers and sons in their relationships.
Finally language and peer pressure during data generation seemed to influence the respondents, even though every effort was made to ensure that each respondent fully understood the information on the questionnaires and that he was not uncomfortable with the situation.

### 7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS TO TEACHERS< PARENTS AND THERAPISTS

The recommendations that arose from the results of this research can be noted as follows:

Regarding the first construct, namely the paternal relationship:

- Fathers should be made aware of the importance of a positive relationship with their sons.
- Assistance for both fathers and adolescent boys to relate emotionally is necessary to promote relationships which will bring about motivated adolescent boys with reduced behavioural problems.
- Adolescent boys need to spend quality time with their fathers. During this time they should be helped to share their feelings and experience open communication with their fathers.

Regarding the second construct, self-concept:

Results from the study reflect that the self-concept is not necessarily directly influenced by the father/son relationship. However, enhancing an adolescent boy’s self-concept could positively influence the other constructs.

- The self-concept of the adolescent boy can be promoted by encouraging a more intimate relationship between fathers and sons.

Regarding the third construct, resilience:
• Resiliency, as with the enhancing of the self-concept of the adolescent boy, can be promoted by encouraging and strengthening a more intimate relationship between fathers and adolescent boys.

• Adolescent boys should learn and if required get assistance in asserting themselves and defining their relationship with their fathers in order to improve on their resilience so that they will not be affected by pressures and outside forces.

Regarding the fourth construct, motivation:

• If an adolescent boy has a good role model, namely his father, and has a close relationship with him, this would provide a positive motivation for the adolescent boy to accept and abide within cultural, social and academic responsibilities which are required of him.

Regarding the intervention programme:

Further research into the implementation of the intervention programme can be completed to enable Life Orientation educators and therapists to implement the intervention programme. The research should be done to establish the effectiveness of the intervention programme, to conduct the statistical significance of the intervention programme and also to determine its usability.

Life Orientation educators should be given training on how to use the intervention programme to assist adolescent boys who are less motivated or portray resilient behaviour due to father absence, so that they are able to handle these adolescent boys and refer them accordingly when the problems are beyond their expertise.

7.7 CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the issues relating to father-son emotional relationships are crucial to the end of achieving the balanced development of adolescent boys. To ensure a positive and well-balanced next generation of men; warm, supportive and
nurturing relationships between fathers and adolescent boys are fundamental to empowering the adolescent, thereby influencing his behaviour and promoting positive adjustment in the boy’s life that will enhance their overall well-being.

In launching this intervention programme into the school environment, it is endeavoured to facilitate communication and contact between fathers and sons, who may be lost to one another, as the problems of emotionally absent fathers in black culture seem to be an emerging prominent problem. This situation is directly and adversely affecting the lives of adolescent boys, therefore any positive input or strategies are essential to consider when building the next male generation in a strong and resilient manner. Consequently, promoting emotional relationships between fathers and sons should be a priority when evaluating the larger societal picture from a South African perspective.
REFERENCE LIST


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APPENDIX 1

860 Petrick Street
Faerie Glen
Pretoria
0053

ASSENT FORM (Participants)

Research Title: The role of the emotional father-son relationship in the self-concept formation of the adolescent in secondary schools.

I appreciate your willingness to participate in this research project.

- The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate the emotional relationship between fathers and adolescent boys.
- This is not a test and therefore there are no right or wrong answers.
- Your involvement in this study is voluntary, you are not obliged to divulge any information you would prefer to remain private, and you may withdraw from the study at any time.
- No compensation will be given to participants.
- The researcher will treat any information provided confidential. You will not be identified in any document.
- The participants will be 200 adolescent boys from 8 Schools around Gauteng North, Tshwane South and Tshwane North districts.
- Every effort will be made to minimise the possible risks.
- The research findings will be made available upon your request through your department of Education.

I ........................................................................................................, agree to participate in the study mentioned above. I have also read the conditions mentioned above.

Please sign and return the form in an enclosed envelope.

_____________________________
Signature

The researcher’s: Signature: ________________
Consent Letter

Dear parent

Permission request for your child to take part in the research questionnaire

My name is Enid Tlhabane, I am a D.Ed student at Unisa. The purpose of this letter is to request permission that your son should take part in the study. The aim of the research is to investigate the attachment relationship between adolescent boys and their fathers. To be able to do so, this researcher intends to ask adolescent boys to complete a questionnaire which is voluntary whereby the researcher seeks to understand the emotional attachment of adolescent boys with their fathers and how this attachment affects the behavioural functioning of adolescent boys.

This letter serves as an invitation for your adolescent boy to participate in this research. The researcher assures you that your identity and your son’s identity will be protected at all costs. As you give information you will be contributing to the possibility of assisting in building strong relationship between fathers and sons. Information gained will also assist us in designing a programme which will enhance better relationship between fathers and their adolescent boys. The research will be conducted with learners after school lessons.

Ethical clearance to conduct a research has been granted by the University of South Africa.

If you agree to the contents please sign in the space provided.

Please sign and send the letter back with your child in an enclosed envelope.

I ------------------------------- give permission that my son partakes in the research study.

__________ ____________________
Signature Date
APPENDIX 3

Tick the relevant box

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>17</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am staying with my mother only</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am staying with my father only</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am staying with both my parents</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am staying with my grandparents</td>
<td>Grand mother</td>
<td>Grand father</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION A : PATERNAL RELATIONSHIP EVALUATION

1 = Definitely No, this does not happen!
5 = Definitely Yes, this does happen!!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attachment Aspect</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I can talk to my father about anything</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>My father supports me in time of crisis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My father is always understanding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>For me my father is a good role model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When I am sad my father is always there for me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>My father is involved in my school life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I understand when my father reprimand me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>My father plays sport with me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I share my experiences with my dad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I feel secured with my father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## QUESTIONNAIRE

### SECTION B : RESILIENCE FACTOR

1 = Definitely No, this is not ME!
5 = Definitely Yes, this is ME!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reflective Characteristic</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I can bounce back easily from difficult encounters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>In a crises I feel in control</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I can easily solve my problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>If I make a mistake I can laugh about it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I am always hopeful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I can usually see when there are problems arising</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I don’t mind unknown situations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I am usually optimistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I do not easily give up</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I am independent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I can talk to people about my feelings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I am flexible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I am tolerant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I can let go of negative emotions such as anger</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I am trusting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective Characteristic</td>
<td>Worthiness</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
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<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am confident that I can do whatever I set out to do</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I look better than my friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I am appreciated and loved by my family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I know my friends like to be with me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I am “ok”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I don’t feel that I <em>have</em> to compete with my peers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>When I write exams I usually feel that I have done well</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I know some friends and family members look up to me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I do not feel uncomfortable about my appearance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I know I am a worthwhile person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I am able to verbally express my thoughts and feelings freely</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I am popular with the opposite sex and get on well with girls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I like people watching me play sport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I do not have a problem writing down my thoughts and feelings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I feel comfortable talking to any adult and stating my point of view</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Name 3 things you wish from or about your relationship with your father

__________________________________________  __________

__________________________________________  __________

__________________________________________  __________
Dear Sir/ Madam,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE SCHOOLS IN GAUTENG DISTRICT FOR D.Ed PURPOSES

The topic of my research is: THE ROLE OF THE EMOTIONAL FATHER-SON RELATIONSHIP IN THE SELF-CONCEPT FORMATION OF THE ADOLESCENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

I am currently registered for Doctoral degree (D.ED) at the University of South Africa. The goal of the study is to **explore the role of the emotional father-son relationship the self-concept of adolescent boys in secondary Schools.**

It is my intention to cover a broad spectrum as of this light that questionnaires will be distributed to participants in Schools around Gauteng South, Tshwane North and Tshwane South Districts. Once permission is granted from your school, I therefore request that you allow me to conduct research as permission has been granted from Gauteng department of Education as per attached.

As for my background, I was an educator in Schools around Mabopane for 17 years, I am a registered Psychologist and currently working as a Student Counsellor at UNISA Ekurhuleni Regional Service Centre, the position I have assumed since 2009.
Participation will be voluntary. No person or group will be advantaged or disadvantaged in anyway by choosing to participate or not participate in the study. Participants will however be asked to sign an assent form prior to their participation in the study. Participants may refuse to answer any questions they feel uncomfortable with. They may also choose to withdraw from the group at any time.

All questionnaires will be kept in a safe, locked-up place to ensure confidentiality. Identifying information of participants and organisations will not be included in the final report. Results of the research will be presented in a research report that will be kept at the University of South Africa. This information may be shared with others in the form of conference presentations and publications in journals. Should you need any further information, please contact me or my supervisor, using the contact details below.

Thank you very much in anticipation of a positive response.

Regards,

Bunki Tlhabane: 0834314881  Prof F.E Gouws : 012 333 9465
Dear Madam,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE SCHOOLS IN GAUTENG NORTH

The topic of my research is: THE ROLE OF THE EMOTIONAL FATHER-SON RELATIONSHIP IN THE SELF-CONCEPT FORMATION OF THE ADOLESCENT BOYS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

I am currently registered for Doctoral degree (D.Ed) at the University of South Africa. The goal of the study is to **explore the effects of emotionally absent fathers in the life of adolescent boys and how father absence impact on their scholastic functioning.**

It is my intention to cover a broad spectrum as of this light that questionnaires will be distributed to participants in Schools around Brits and GaRankua, Mabopane and Hammanskraal. Once permission is granted from your office, I request you to provide me the names and contact details of the relevant persons so that I can approach them directly for logistical arrangements. A letter from your office as the custodian of the centres would still serve a great purpose.
As for my background, I was an educator in Schools around Mabopane for 17 years, I am a registered Psychologist and currently working as a Student Counsellor at UNISA Ekurhuleni Regional Service Centre, the position I have assumed since 2009

Participation will be voluntary. No person or group will be advantaged or disadvantaged in anyway by choosing to participate or not participate in the study. Participants will however be asked to sign a consent form prior to their participation in the study. Participants may refuse to answer any questions they feel uncomfortable with. They may also choose to withdraw from the group at any time.

All questionnaires will be kept in a safe, locked-up place to ensure confidentiality. Identifying information of participants and organisations will not be included in the final report. Results of the research will be presented in a research report that will be kept at the University of South Africa. This information may be shared with others in the form of conference presentations and publications in journals. Should you need any further information, please contact me or my supervisor, using the contact details below.

Thank you very much in anticipation of a positive response.

Regards,

Bunki Tlhabane 0834314881
9465

Prof F.E Gouws 012 333 9465
APPENDIX 6

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date:</th>
<th>4 February 2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Validity of Research Approval:</td>
<td>4 February 2013 to 27 September 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of Researcher:</td>
<td>Tlhabane E.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Address of Researcher:</td>
<td>850 Petrick Street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Faerie Glen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretoria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone Number:</td>
<td>012 991 8240 / 083 431 4881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fax Number:</td>
<td>086 693 7605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email address:</td>
<td><a href="mailto:thlabem@unisa.ac.za">thlabem@unisa.ac.za</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Topic:</td>
<td>The role of the emotional father-son relationship in the self-concept formation of adolescents in Secondary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number and type of schools:</td>
<td>EIGHT Secondary Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District/s/HO:</td>
<td>Gauteng North, Tshwane North, Tshwane South and Tshwane West</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school’s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

Making education a societal priority
1. The District/Head Office Senior Managers concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher(s) has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
2. The District/Head Office Senior Manager(s) must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.
3. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher(s) have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
4. A letter of instructions that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
5. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher(s) may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
7. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year.
8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
9. It is the researcher’s responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
11. The names of all the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
12. On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with a Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.
13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

Dr David Makhado
Director: Knowledge Management and Research

DATE: 2012/08/17

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Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0408
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.ggw.gov.za
APPENDIX 7

Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

EM Tlhabane [6206700]

for a D Ed study entitled

The role of the emotional father-son relationship in the self-concept formation of adolescent boys in Secondary Schools

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two years from the date of issue.

Prof KP Dzvimbo
Executive Dean : CEDU

Dr M Claassens
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
mcdtc@netactive.co.za

Reference number: 2014 MARCH/6206700/MC 18 March 2014