

.b 137 462 12



University Free State



34300000073837

Universiteit Vrystaat

HIERDIE EKSEMPLAAR MAG ONDER
GEEN OMSTANDIGHEDE UIT DIE
BIBLIOTEK VERWYDER WORD NIE

**THE INFLUENCE OF THE
FAMILY STRUCTURE ON THE
ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF
SECONDARY PUPILS IN THE
MASERU REGION**

Puleng Relebohile Letsie

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

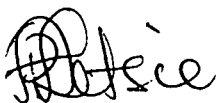
- A special note of thanks is extended to Prof. CJ Kotzé, for his guidance. I thank him for his patience, advice, support and dedication throughout this study;

I also wish to express my profound thanks to the following individuals:

- Dr. GS Kotzé, in the Department of Didactics, University of the Orange Free State, for editing this dissertation;
- Mrs. AR du Plooy, for the typing of this dissertation;
 - Mrs. Kate Smit, of the UOFS Computer Centre, for assisting me with the processing of the data I submitted;
- Dr. M van Zyl, of the Department of Statistics, UOFS, for his assistance in the computing of the data;
- The principals, teachers and students who helped when I required their assistance;
- Miss. Maseketso Leokaoko, for the typing and binding of the questionnaire and many other items; not forgetting 'Me Molebo, 'Me 'Mamosetse and aus' Hlomphi for their assistance in the binding of the questionnaire;
 - Miss. M Sennane, Aus' Tholoana, my friends and all other people who assisted me in various ways. Your assistance and interest in my work inspired me;
- My mother, 'Mapuleng, my aunt Puseletso, my sister, Pinkie, and my grandfather Tseliso;
 - The Almighty God, for the wisdom, strength, health and patience that He gave me to start and finish this study.

DECLARATION

I sincerely and solemnly declare that this dissertation
is my original and independent work, and has never
been submitted to any other university or faculty
for degree purposes



P.R. LETSIE
(Bloemfontein)
March 1999

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother, 'Mapuleng,
my aunt, Puseletso,
my sister, Pinkie,
and my grandfather, Tseliso Morai

THE INFLUENCE OF THE FAMILY STRUCTURE ON THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF SECONDARY PUPILS IN THE MASERU REGION

by

Puleng Relebohile Letsie
(B.Ed. [Lesotho], B.Ed. [Post-graduate, UOFS])

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Humanities,
in the fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of

MAGISTER EDUCATIONIS

in the

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
(Department of Psychology of Education)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE ORANGE FREE STATE
(Bloemfontein)

Study leader: Prof. CJ Kotzé
November 1998

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: General orientation **1**

1.1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.2	STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....	3
1.3	NECESSITY OF THE RESEARCH.....	3
1.4	AIM OF THE RESEARCH.....	4
1.5	RESEARCH QUESTION	5
1.6	DEFINITION OF TERMS.....	5
	1.6.1 Single-parent household.....	5
	1.6.2 Separation.....	5
	1.6.3 Broken homes	5
	1.6.4 Extra-curricular activities.....	6
	1.6.5 Performance	6
	1.6.6 Intact-families.....	6
	1.6.7 Resident family	6
1.7	DEMARCATON OF RESEARCH AREA	6
1.8	METHODS OF INVESTIGATION	7
	1.8.1 Literature review	7
	1.8.2 Empirical investigation	7
1.9	COURSE OF STUDY.....	7
1.10	SUMMARY.....	8

CHAPTER 2: Family structures **9**

2.1	INTRODUCTION	9
2.2	HISTORICAL FAMILY STRUCTURES.....	10
	2.2.1 Extended families	10
	2.2.2 Nuclear families	11
	2.2.3 Polygamy and polyandry	12
2.3	TYPES OF FAMILY STRUCTURES	13
	2.3.1 Single-parent families.....	14
	2.3.1.1 Mother-led families.....	15
	2.3.1.2 Father-led families.....	17

2.3.2	Two-parent families	18
2.4	CHANGES IN FAMILY STRUCTURES	19
2.4.1	Divorce.....	19
2.4.2	Death.....	20
2.4.3	Separation.....	21
2.5	RESULTS OF FAMILY STRUCTURE CHANGES.....	22
2.5.1	Remarriage	22
2.5.1.1	Formation of a remarried family.....	22
2.5.1.2	Structure of the system	23
2.5.1.3	Step-parenting	23
2.5.2	Foster parenting	25
2.5.3	Adoptive parenting	25
2.5.4	Surrogate parenting	26
2.6	SUMMARY.....	27

CHAPTER 3:	Adolescence and family structures	28
-------------------	--	-----------

3.1	INTRODUCTION	28
3.2	THE NATURE OF ADOLESCENCE.....	29
3.2.1	Physical and physiological development.....	31
3.2.1.1	Pubertal phase.....	32
3.2.1.2	The adolescent growth spurt.....	33
3.2.2	Identity formation-cum-development	36
3.2.2.1	Erikson's psychosocial approach.....	37
3.2.2.2	Blos's psychoanalytic perspective.....	38
3.2.2.3	Identity through a cognitive developmental lens: Kohlberg	38
3.2.2.4	Ego development in adolescence: Loevinger's paradigm.....	38
3.2.2.5	Kegan's constructive-developmental approach (identity as meaning-making).....	39
3.2.3	Cognitive development	39
3.2.3.1	Thinking and reasoning.....	41
3.2.3.2	Intellectual development.....	41
3.2.4	Social and emotional development.....	42

3.2.4.1	Changed family structure	43
3.2.4.2	Decline in the authority of the adult group	43
3.2.4.3	The new individualism	43
3.2.4.4	The generation gap.....	44
3.2.4.5	The adolescent peer group.....	44
3.2.5	Sexuality.....	45
3.3	THE ADOLESCENT'S FAMILY	46
3.3.1	Adolescent development and the changing family.....	47
3.3.1.1	towards the isolated nuclear family.....	47
3.3.1.2	Limited adult models	48
3.3.1.3	Non-familial peers.....	48
3.3.1.4	Parents, peers and autonomy.....	48
3.3.2	Divorce and remarriage.....	49
3.3.3	Parental employment and adolescent adjustment	51
3.3.4	Personality development and family structure.....	52
3.4	FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AT ADOLESCENCE.....	53
3.4.1	The family as a system.....	55
3.4.2	The adolescent's parents.....	56
3.4.3	Changes in family needs and functions.....	57
3.4.4	Transformations in family relations.....	59
3.5	FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT	59
3.5.1	Family size	60
3.5.2	Parenting styles and their effects.....	61
3.5.3	Individuality and attachment in the adolescent's family	62
3.5.4	Adolescents' relationships with siblings.....	62
3.6	SUMMARY.....	63

**CHAPTER 4: Factors influencing the
 adolescents' intellectual
 development and academic 64
 performance**

4.1	INTRODUCTION	64
4.2	INTELLIGENCE AND INTELLECTUAL GROWTH DURING THE ADOLESCENT PHASE.....	65
4.3	ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND ACHIEVEMENT	71
4.4	MAIN FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT'S INTELLIGENCE AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT.....	72

4.4.1	Factors in the adolescent himself/herself	73
4.4.1.1	Poor study methods	73
4.4.1.2	Negative attitude towards study.....	74
4.4.1.3	Health problems and malnutrition.....	74
4.4.1.4	Poor self-concept.....	75
4.4.2	Environmental factors	75
4.4.2.1	Drugs and alcohol.....	76
4.4.2.2	Friends and peers.....	76
4.4.2.3	Ethnic differences in educational achievement.....	78
4.4.3	Factors in the school.....	79
4.4.4	Factors in the home	83
4.4.5	Factors related to the family	85
4.4.5.1	The adolescent's parents	86
4.4.5.2	Parental attitudes.....	86
4.4.5.3	Establishment of the family	98
4.4.5.4	Socio-economic status.....	100
4.4.5.5	Family size.....	101
4.5	CHANGES IN FAMILY STRUCTURES AND THEIR EFFECTS ON PERFORMANCE	102
4.5.1	Causes of a change in the family structure, and their effects on performance.....	104
4.5.1.1	Divorce and separation	104
4.5.1.2	Death	105
4.5.2	Historical family structures.....	107
4.5.2.1	Extended families.....	107
4.5.2.2	Nuclear families.....	108
4.5.3	Types of family structures.....	108
4.5.3.1	Single-parent families	109
4.5.3.2	Two-parent families.....	110
4.5.4	Results of changed family structures and performance	110
4.5.4.1	Remarriage and step-parenting	111
4.5.4.2	Foster-parenting	112
4.5.4.3	Adoptive parenting.....	112
4.6	SUMMARY.....	113

List of tables

Table 3.1	The developmental sequence of primary and secondary sexual characteristics	32
Table 3.2	Piaget's stages of cognitive development.....	40
Table 6.1	Distribution according to form/grade	121
Table 6.2	Distribution according to gender	121
Table 6.3	Distribution according to age	122
Table 6.4	Distribution according to family structure	122
Table 6.5	Family structures	123
Table 6.6	Distribution according to the duration of time at where one is staying.....	123
Table 6.7	Distribution according to how often pupils see their parents.....	124
Table 6.8	Family structure and academic performance	125
Table 6.9	Distribution of responses in the questionnaire (Section B, Questions 4-25)	126

List of figures

Figure 3.1	Adolescent increment growth curves in height for boys and girls who reached puberty at the average times.....	34
Figure 3.2	Diagram of sequence of events at adolescence in girls	35
Figure 3.3	Diagram of sequence of events at adolescence in boys.....	36
Figure 4.1	The didactic situation	80

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the influence of the family structure on the academic performance of secondary school pupils in the Maseru region. It should be realised that this is a very controversial issue according to the researcher as some people in the community strongly believe that children from single-parent families do not perform well academically, while others object to it strongly. At the same time, it cannot be denied that the family structure can have a great influence on the academic performance of pupils.

The attitudes and opinions of pupils towards the effect of the family structure on academic performance were investigated on a theoretical and empirical basis.

In this study the researcher defined various relevant concepts used in the study. The theoretical framework related to family structures and academic performance, is divided in four chapters. The first chapter is the general orientation of the study, that is, the problem is stated, the necessity of the study explained, the aim of the research, research questions, definition of terms, demarcation of the research area, method of investigation and the course of study have been elaborated in the first chapter.

The second chapter deals with different family structures, with sub-topics such as historical family structures, types of family structures, changes in family structures and the results of a change in the family structure.

The third chapter mainly deals with adolescence and family structures. Included in this chapter are concepts such as the nature of adolescence, the adolescent's family and family relationships and adolescent development.

The fourth chapter, being the last theoretical chapter, deals with factors influencing the adolescent's intellectual development and academic performance. Issues discussed in this chapter are intelligence and intellectual growth, academic performance and achievement, main factors affecting adolescents' intelligence and academic achievement and the changes in family structures and their effects on performance.

For the empirical research, the researcher firstly outlined the practical steps and activities aimed at gathering information from pupils by means of questionnaires. Finally, the researcher tabulated the results from all respondents. The data was analysed and processed by means of the programme called the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Findings were discussed in relation to the tables according to various responses from the respondents, and then analysed. On the basis of the theoretical findings, the researcher came to the conclusion that the family structure does not have much influence, if any, on the academic performance of secondary pupils. In the empirical study on the other hand, the family structure clearly affects pupils' academic performance.

Recommendations made by the researcher are based chiefly on the findings of the empirical study.

OPSOMMING

In hierdie studie word die invloed van die gesinstruktuur op die akademiese prestasie van sekondêre leerlinge in die Maseru-omgewing ondersoek. Volgens die navorser is hierdie 'n baie kontroversiële aangeleentheid omdat sommige mense in die gemeenskap sterk daaraan glo dat kinders van enkel-ouergesinne akademies nie goed presteer nie, terwyl ander weer dié siening sterk teenstaan. Hoe dit ookal sy, dit kan nie ontken word nie dat die gesinstruktuur wel 'n groot invloed uitoefen op die akademiese prestasie van leerlinge.

Die houdings en opvattinge van leerlinge betreffende die effek van die gesinstruktuur op akademiese prestasie was teoreties sowel as empiries ondersoek.

In die studie het die navorser verskeie relevante konsepte wat in die ondersoek ter sprake was, gedefinieer. Die teoretiese raamwerk wat oor die gesinstruktuur en akademiese prestasie gehandel het, is in vier hoofstukke verdeel. Die eerste hoofstuk is die algemene oriëntasie van die ondersoek: die uiteensetting van die probleem, verduideliking van die noodsaaklikheid van die ondersoek en die doel van die studie, die formulering van navorsingsvrae, definiëring van terme, afbakening van die veld en metode van ondersoek en aanduiding van die verdere verloop van die studie.

Die tweede hoofstuk handel oor verskillende moontlike gesinstrukture, met subhoofde soos die historiese agtergrond van verskillende gesinstrukture, tipes gesinstrukture, veranderinge in die gesinstruktuur en die uitwerking van sodanige veranderinge.

In hoofstuk drie word hoofsaaklik aandag gegee aan die adolessent en die gesinstruktuur. In hierdie hoofstuk word konsepte hanteer soos die aard van adolessensie, die adolessent se gesin en sy/haar gesinsverhoudinge en ontwikkeling.

Die vierde hoofstuk handel weer oor faktore wat die adolessent se intellektuele ontwikkeling en akademiese prestasie beïnvloed. Aspekte wat in dié hoofstuk bespreek word, is intelligensie en intellektuele groei, akademiese prestasie, belangrikste fak-

tore wat die adolessent se intelligensie affekteer en die veranderinge in die gesinstruktuur en die effek daarvan op sy/haar prestasie.

Vir die empiriese ondersoek het die navorser eerstens die praktiese stappe uiteengesit wat aangewend is om inligting van die leerlinge te bekom deur middel van vraelyste. Aan die einde is die resultate van al die respondente in tabelvorm weergegee. Die data was geanaliseer en geprosesseer deur middel van die Statistiese Program vir Sosiale Wetenskappe (SPSS).

Bevindinge was aan die hand van die tabelle uiteengesit en geanaliseer. Teoretiese bevindinge het daarop gedui dat die gesinstruktuur nie noemenswaardige invloed uitoefen op die akademiese prestasie van die sekondêre leerlinge nie. Die navorser se empiriese ondersoek het, aan die ander kant, weer laat blyk dat die gesinstruktuur duidelike effek het op hulle akademiese prestasie.

Die navorser se aanbevelings is hoofsaaklik gebaseer op die empiriese bevindinge in die ondersoek.

General orientation

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Various authors believe that a child's academic performance and performance in extra-curricular activities are a complex response to his family and home environment, his community and its values, his peers and other social contacts, his teachers and his school. This highlights the fact that the school and the home are mutually related in the development and performance of a child. Concerning performance, it must be noted that reference is made to both academic and extra-curricular performance of children.

There are various types of family structures, and to mention but a few families such as single-parenthood families, step-parenting, divorced families, separated, widowed, foster-parenting, surrogate parenting and adoptive parenting family structures will be discussed in correlation with children from such families' performances.

Furthermore, there are also families which can be considered as complete, where both parents live with their children; while on the other hand there are "broken" families which are not necessarily separated. These broken families can be broken either temporarily - parent(s) working far from home or even studying - or permanently whereby there has been no judicial separation between the parents, but they do not live together. Both types of family-structures will definitely have an impact on their children's performance, either academically or socially.

It has also been argued that children who belong to large families tend to have lower intelligent quotients (IQ) and hence perform less better than children from smaller families (Child 1981:202). This further shows how the structure of a family can affect the children in both the academic and social spheres of life. Family size can

also be affected or enhanced by re-marriage, especially in the case whereby both partners already have own children from previous marriages.

In addition, the author believes that different parenting styles may also affect the child's academic and extra-curricular performances. For instance, it has become apparent that a child with either an uninvolved parent or parent with a laissez-faire attitude will definitely not perform well at school or in extra-curricular activities because of the lack of motivation from the parent(s).

Various authors also maintain that the nature of the parenting style could affect the child's development in general. Louw (1992:353) states that mainly children of uninvolved and laissez-faire parents usually show disturbances in their relationships with other people, they also tend to be impulsive and anti-social. It is also stated that these children are less achievement-orientated in school.

To sum up, it should be noted that any family disturbance in the structure, for instance divorce, is not a single life event. Rather, it is a series of stressful experiences for the family, beginning with the marital conflict before the actual divorce, and including many changes in roles, routines and responsibilities (Louw 1992:355). From the above statement it can be suggested that disturbances like divorce certainly affect family members and in most cases, children are the most vulnerable and hence drastically affected by such occurrences.

Moreover, in some instances, children from single-parent families are more linked with delinquency. Anthony (1974 in Ellis 1985:48) contends that children who lose a parent through either separation or divorce will subsequently show greater vulnerability to acute psychological disturbances than children from two-parent families.

However, Nye (in Ellis 1985:50) illustrates that the single parent is less a cause of delinquency than the fact that the youths are the victims of an impoverished environment. He argues that single parents are not poor role models for their children, but rather strong parents who endure the hardships of raising children alone.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It seems as though the performance of a child is influenced by various factors: family-structure being one of those factors, which encompasses the home situation cum environment a pupil is exposed to.

Children have common misperceptions based on their assumptions about the nature of the world. They usually assume that parental love is innate and natural, and when they obtain information that leads them to conclude that the parent does not love them, they decide that they are so unlovable as to violate a law of nature (Hodges 1986:8). When parents have problems in the home which can lead to factors like divorce or separation, foundations are shaken of what children believe is true about the world.

Looking at single-parent families, Blechman and Manning (1976 in Hodges 1986:195) note that children from single-parent families have several disadvantages as compared to children from two-parent families. There is one less parent to help solve problems or to appeal to unfair decisions. The parent may also not provide enough attention to children hence there is less time because of other life commitments.

All these factors are thought to have a great impact on the well-being of a child and from them, the research problem can broadly be formulated as follows: *How does the family structure affect the child's performance in the Maseru region?*

1.3 NECESSITY OF THE RESEARCH

A family can be a single-parent family for a variety of reasons, including the decision not to marry, abandonment, death of parent or prolonged work-related separation such as the military (Hodges 1986:49).

Several researchers have reported a relationship between living in a single-parent household, adoptive-parent household, other forms of households, and an increased risk of low performances, both academically and in extra-curricular activities.

It has thus been found of significance to the researcher to study, not only the style or mode of living in such families, but also how the *change* from single parent house

holds to two-parent households and from two-parent households to single parent household affects children from such families, with special emphasis on their academic and extra-curricular performances.

Therefore the study will comprise various factors which will highlight the fact that if parents and teachers could be aware of and more sensitive to the impact of family structures and parents' marital statuses on children, there might be feasible solutions and recommendations for the future.

Teachers, in particular, must be aware of pupils' family structures and situations and help provide assistance to such children, such as for instance, children's support systems can be included in school guidance.

1.4 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The broad aim of the study is to determine whether the way a family is structured can have an influence on the academic performance of the child being part of that family. From this aim the following objectives may be derived:

- to arrive at a general justification of children's academic performances, with specific reference to environmental factors children is exposed to; more especially their family structures;
- to investigate the different family structures and its influence on the child living in that family;
- to investigate the various parenting styles as to how they are related to a change in the family structure, together with their impact on children;
- to arrive at an analysis of how the afore-mentioned factors affecting children's performance lead to certain behaviour and performance patterns, and how much parents contribute to the affirmation of these factors;
- to present a holistic perspective on the relationship between family structure in the context of school achievements of children.

It is necessary to mention that the supposition is that the pupils whose academic performance are involved here, should be exposed to the specific family structure during school terms. These pupils therefore need not to be blood related to the resident family, because the study is about the influence of this specific family structure on the child's academic performance.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION

The main question concerning this study will be:

- Does the structure of a pupil's resident family have an influence on the pupil's academic performance?

1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.6.1 Single-parent household

For the purpose of this study, single-parent household refers to a family environment created out of the divorce or separation of two previously married adults, with children who were at one time under the custody and guardianship of both parents.

1.6.2 Separation

An arrangement by which a husband and wife remain married, but live apart (Fowler & Fowler 1990; *Concise Oxford Dictionary* 1990:1104).

1.6.3 Broken homes

For purposes of this study, broken homes refer to those homes whereby parents do not live with their children because of either working or studying away from home.

1.6.4 Extra-curricular activities

These activities refer to those activities which are not in the school curriculum for instance, sports activities, debates and competitions.

1.6.5 Performance

For purposes of this study, performance refers to academic achievement and performance in extra-curricular activities.

1.6.6 Intact-families

Families which have both the mother and the father living with the children on a full-time basis.

1.6.7 Resident family

The family where the pupil stays during school terms.

1.7 DEMARCATION OF RESEARCH AREA

This research fits into the structure of educational psychology in such a manner that it deals with human development in a way as it looks into various parenting styles, family structures and their impact on both performance and behavioural patterns.

The study will be carried out in some schools in the Maseru region - Kingdom of Lesotho - as these will be more accessible and economical to the researcher. The study will be carried out amongst high school students as they are able to display various behavioural and performance patterns as they are affected and influenced by various extrinsic and intrinsic factors like adolescence and family structures.

1.8 METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

1.8.1 Literature review

The study of related literature will be carried out investigating specific related issues.

1.8.2 Empirical investigation

This investigation will also be carried out in a quantitative manner, whereby self-structured questionnaires will be used. The questionnaire has 25 items and consists of two sections - Section A deals with the biographical information, while Section B is concerned with information about various family structures.

The experimental group for the empirical survey is Forms B and C pupils - equivalent of grades 9 and 10 - in three randomly selected schools in the Maseru region.

The academic performance of these pupils will be obtained by combining the December 1997 marks and marks obtained in the first session (January to June 1998), to form an average percentage.

1.9 COURSE OF STUDY

In order to achieve the stated objectives, the research will evolve as follows:

In chapter two, the concept *family structure* will be placed within a theoretical framework. Apart from a brief overview aspects such as types of family structures, changes in family structures and results of such changes will be considered from a psychopedagogical perspective.

In chapter three, the concept *adolescence* and its vulnerability to changes in family structures will be discussed.

In chapter four a more particular perspective on performance will be presented. In this case, aspects such as academic performance and factors influencing the adolescents' intellectual development will be discussed, together with how they are affected by changes in family structures.

In chapter five, the concept, family structure and its implications on children's performance will be applied to the school situation in the form of an empirical study.

In chapter six, the research will be summarised in the form of findings, conclusions and recommendations.

1.10 SUMMARY

The researcher believes that with the above-mentioned course of the research, the study will be able to address the issue of various family structures and children's performance patterns.

In the following chapter, the concept family structure will be discussed, with special reference to historical family structures, types of family structures, changes in family structures and the results of such changes.

Family structures

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept *family life* is a broad and complex one, therefore, for purposes of this study, certain major aspects concerning family structures, changes in the structures and the results of such changes will be discussed.

Steyn (1994:1) contends that the nature of family structures generally occurring in societies has attracted the attention of many family sociologists and researchers. She further states that when analyzing a given structure such as the family, the focus is on the broad generalised pattern which reflects the ideal of what the structure ought to look like. The focus is also on what is defined as appropriate and legitimate. For instance, it is specified what ought to be the appropriate positions in the structure, the relative status of the positions with regard to one another, and the nature of the relatedness between the positions.

It must be noted that an extensive part of research on family structures has been done in such a way that the ideal image of the family as representative of all families in society was utilised. The family was defined in terms of the ideal family structure of a particular society (Steyn 1994:2).

However, Griffins (in Steyn 1994:3) states: "Families are not only complex; but are also infinitely variable and in a constant state of flux as the individuals who composed them aged, died, married, reproduced and moved ... Thus it is essential to start thinking of families rather than the family."

Despite the view that families vary a great deal, Griffins (in Steyn 1994:3) concludes that there are indeed a number of characteristic ideas and phenomena common to all families. She postulates that factors such as co-residence, marriage, power

relations between men and women, power relations between adults and children, domestic labour, sexuality and sexual relations, procreation, motherhood and mothering, fatherhood, sibling relationships, definitions of kinship, gender, authority, dependence, service and economic relations can be seen as important and explicit in definitions of the family.

To further define the concept *family*, the phenomenon *kinship* should be included. Steyn (1994:3) states that kinship and family life revolve around procreation, which includes the purely biological processes of mating, conception, pregnancy and birth, and thereafter the process of caring for and socialising with the children until they can live autonomously and independently as adults.

Generally, the family is defined at a very high level of generality as a small kinship-structured group, with the additional specification of co-residence in order to form a local group.

2.2 HISTORICAL FAMILY STRUCTURES

Literature on the human family appearing during the past decade has taken a decided swing away from the earlier simple classificatory goals of identifying lineality, locality, descent groups and formal kin structures (Fortes in Klinch & Goodman 1968:44). For purposes of this study, it is essential to differentiate between nuclear and extended families. A nuclear family can be described as a family consisting of only the parents and their children, while an extended family consist of parents, children and relatives.

2.2.1 Extended families

According to Lee (in Steyn 1994:7) the extended family stem from two or more families who are affiliated to one another through the extension of the parent-child relationship. The most simple form of this extended family is the so-called tribal family, where only the eldest married son resides with the family of origin to form an extended family.

To further distinguish between nuclear and extended families, the researcher finds it important to state that even though the nuclear family consists of one family, it is not an autonomous body, it is still encapsulated in the extended family in terms of

relations and authority. The fact is that the nuclear family occupies a separate residence which is not shared with other relatives or the parents of the spouses. It is also economically independent, insists on its privacy, and solidarity with other relatives is minimised.

It is generally believed that relations between the members of the nuclear-family and the extended family are strongly prescriptive, and mutual aid and assistance are regarded as culturally compulsory.

Most researchers including Lee (1979), Winch (1977) and Blumberg and Klinch (1972) indicate that the extended family system is most likely to occur in established agricultural and cattle-farming societies, in contrast to other types of economies in which it occurs less often. From their findings, they indicate that the family structure in simple societies mostly comprise the independent or nuclear-family and that there is development in the direction of the extended family where societal complexity increases and agriculture starts to develop, but with a further increase in societal complexity, there is again a movement towards the nuclear family.

From these findings, they concluded that there is a tendency for the more developed countries to have smaller familial systems.

2.2.2 Nuclear families

Goode (1963:201) contends that the extended family began to disintegrate during the Industrial Revolution and the concurrent process of urbanization together with the increasing prominence and growing independence of the nuclear-family.

In addition, when discussing the issue of family structures, Yorburg (1973:107) is of the opinion that the family structure refers to the totality of socially recognised statuses or positions occupied by individuals who are engaged in regular, recurring, and socially sanctioned interactions and relationships.

With death, divorce, separation, marriage and childbirth, family structure changes - statuses are lost or added; roles are redefined and redistributed, but he further states that "historically, family structure has been either nuclear or extended" (Yorburg 1973:106).

Furthermore, from what has been stated by various authors, the researcher is of the opinion that when concentrating more on the African situation, parents of nuclear families are able to guide and raise their children in a more efficient way as they are role models of intimacy for their children. The bonds in the nuclear family are intact, family milestones like birthdays, weddings, funerals and others are usually times that enhance family bonding.

Members in a nuclear family are more likely to enjoy a sense of security because of their continuity, predictability and traditions and all the decisions are contained within the family hence the involvement and participation of all the family members, regardless of their age differences.

It therefore becomes apparent that children from nuclear families develop a sense of identity and belonging, more readily than those from extended families, as they are influenced by differing expectations from different people. Their roots are also stable, as all are related by blood and usually show physical resemblance and in these families the medium of communication is most often face-to-face verbal-cum-non-verbal communication where feelings are freely expressed and communication is harmonious. In the nuclear family, parents usually have time for their children hence children's performance is enhanced by the interest, participation and motivation provided by such parents.

Finally, the researcher is of the opinion that in extended families, contact between parents and their children is so minimal that it might happen that the parents are sometimes not even aware of their children's abilities and achievements as there is too much to look after; that is, other family members, for instance, grandparents with ill health.

2.2.3 Polygamy and polyandry

Many researchers are beginning to discover, analyse and put into perspective a panorama of plural family topology, in which there appear, co-existing and interacting simultaneously and successionaly, diverse structural systems and different models on family life (Lenero-Otero 1977:5).

Kay (1972:134) further contends that in most countries, polygamy is regarded as a problem to such an extent that in a court case held in the United States, a certain judge considered polygamy as a notorious example of promiscuity.

Moreover, Yorburg (1973:36) defines a family as a group that engages in socially sanctioned, enduring and exclusive relationships that are based on marriage, descent, adoption, or mutual definition. She also defines polygamous families as forms of extended families in which the husband has several wives at one time or, polyandry, where the wife has several husbands. However, she states that polyandry is rare, and in most cases, polygamy is more common in non-literate societies than in literate ones.

To sum up, it can be stated that the extended family structure is more functional in traditional societies where land is the basis for subsistence and wealth. The family provides services that cannot be obtained elsewhere. Therefore, children are essential to economic survival and well-being.

Finally, the researcher believes that the extended family structure is any form of family in which members of several nuclear-families defer to the same authority, exchange essential ideas and services, and either live together in the same household, or close enough to be in daily contact.

2.3 TYPES OF FAMILY STRUCTURES

The concept of structure refers to a number of units - molecules, individuals, social classes, for example - that are related to each other in certain interdependent and recurring ways within some sort of a bounded whole: a cell, a family, or a society (Yorburg 1973:106).

According to Edwards (1969:9) the family, from a sociological point of view, occupies a central position in any social structure. Some authors even maintain that a form of family structure is requisite to the persistence of societies themselves. He even postulates that the family, as it has been studied in the context of social changes, is the dependent variable. The processes of industrialization and urbanisation are viewed as stimulants to alterations in familial structures and functions.

Luepnitz (1982:153) is also of the opinion that family structures today are the product of industrialisation and advanced capitalism. In addition, L'Abante (1985:89) asserts that in order for a family to function adequately, it needs persons to perform certain functions. Somebody must lead the group, somebody must move the group forward to do the tasks that are necessary for the group's success and somebody must integrate the personal relationships in the group so that the emotional needs of the members of the groups are met and so that the group has interpersonal cohesion.

The researcher also concurs with the above-mentioned ideas and believes that there are various structures which are brought about by various factors which will be discussed later in the script.

2.3.1 Single-parent families

The researcher is of the opinion that when dealing with single-parent households, a variety of concepts, like mother-led families, father-led families, voluntary single-parenthood and paternal deprivation are of paramount importance.

Morawetz and Walker (in Ellis 1985:13) point out in their review of family therapy and interaction research that the involvement of the absent parent as well as the extended family may prove critical to the long-term welfare and emotional adjustment of the household members. Since the family members are only physically separated from one another, they still remain part of the emotional family system.

Ellis (1985:14) further contends that there are many ways in which a family might come to be headed by one parent. Among these, death of a spouse, marital desertion, marital divorce, separation, working place (mainly military work) and never married parents remain the most common.

Therefore, the researcher is of the opinion that since the greatest proportion of single-parent households with children are the result of either marital separation or divorce at present, a study specifically focussing upon families adapting to either divorce or separation would be the most appropriate selection for the joint observation of children's performance and interactions within single-parent households.

Economically, most authors believe that the hardships facing the single-parent household are largely due to the economic and social restrictions suffered as a direct

result of lower wages (McLanahan, Wedemeyer & Adelberg 1981; Nye in Ellis 1985:18) and the author is of the opinion that the tendency is still in existence.

According to Bilge and Kaufman (in Ellis 1985:19), the single-parent with child custody is living in an environment suddenly depleted of many of its previous resources like income, transportation, housing and co-parenting.

However, Kay (1972:18) states that changes in traditional family patterns due to the prevalence of divorce are of smaller impact on society than the great increase in one-parent families. The one-parent family was previously a "rogue" circumstance to be remedied, banished or concealed. Its rarity made it a social problem, while its present prevalence has not minimised the extent of the problem but has resulted in the one-parent groups creating its own position in society.

2.3.1.1 *MOTHER-LED FAMILIES*

Kay (1972:19) is of the opinion that: "The more intelligent sections of society have begun to accept that the unmarried mother is not necessarily promiscuous, an irresponsible teenager or a poverty-stricken moron."

He further goes on to say that an increasing number of unmarried mothers are in the higher social and economic groups and nearly a third of children born out of wedlock are born to women who are in fact married but the father of the child is not the husband. According to researcher's own perception based on observation this tendency still exists and even increases.

Complete social integration of the unmarried mother-and-child family unit is in its transition today. Certain services and funds which were not accessible to single mothers, like council houses and loans are now being offered even though it is still on a minimal scale.

Phelps (in Hodges 1986:196) states that one-parent family mothers tend to be more conservative in their attitudes than the two-parent family mothers. One-parent mothers are more rigid about allowing their children to express aggression, about learning about sex and about willingness to expose the child to adult influences outside the home.

They tend to blame adult males for their domestic problems and expect more rapid physical and psychological development of their children than mothers from two-parent families. Most of them tend to blame their own parents' permissiveness for the failure of their own marriage.

On the other hand, Cox and Desforges (1987:24) believe that the single mother, unlike the father, frequently has little time and is not used to regarding her social needs as a priority. If she does wish to make new friends and pursue new activities, she must arrange baby-sitters in addition to other considerations. To add on to that, it can be stated that it is still true that it is more difficult in our society for a woman than a man to re-establish social relationships. A single man is more welcome in many groups than a single woman.

Furthermore, in cases of divorce or separation, the mother often turns to her daughter as another female and a source of comfort. Boys, on the other hand, may remind their mothers of their unsatisfactory husbands, and this can cause unwarranted difficulties for them in their relationships with their mothers. Mothers are often inconsistent in their discipline following divorce and harsher to boys than to girls. Boys miss their fathers, mainly because of their need of a male to imitate and are more likely to press their mothers to re-marry and find a replacement if they cannot have their own fathers.

To sum up, it can be stated that the divorced or deserted mother is often insidiously held responsible for her position; it is assumed that she must have behaved badly to drive her man away, and therefore deserves the situation. At the bottom of the scale is the unmarried mother who is judged to have behaved irresponsibly in producing children outside marriage. Indirectly, the children of those one-parent households have been treated according to the status of their households. Only recently have attempts been made to give illegitimate children the same rights as legitimate children (Cox & Desforges 1987:65).

In conclusion, Scanzoni (1974:41) is of the opinion that father-absence in any household is linked to limited financial resources and without these, the child is hampered to some degree not only in the necessary supplies, but also by other "status symbols" necessary for peer acceptance.

It should be noted however, that Scanzoni's point of view may be seen as the direct opposite of Kay (1972:19), as Kay believes that an increasing number of unmarried mothers are in the higher social and economic groups.

2.3.1.2 *FATHER-LED FAMILIES*

The transition to single-parenthood is thought to be less problematic for men than women from several perspectives. L'Abante (1985:572) indicates that men do not undergo the physical experiences of pregnancy and birth-cum-possible lactation. In addition to experiencing fewer physical demands, they are spared much of the role-conflict between the work role and the parent role that women can experience. However, the financial obligations that come along with parenting can weigh heavily upon men.

Cox and Desforges (1987:34) state that mothers are often inconsistent in their discipline following divorce. Luepnitz (1982) also agrees that mothers become more strict after their divorce while fathers are reported to become more lenient disciplinarians after divorce.

In her research, Luepnitz (1982:81) indicates that most children from father-led families reported that they were doing well in school and had active social lives with peers. Their fathers also had well-developed support groups and by no means relied solely on their children for friendship.

However, some studies reveal the fact that according to conventional sex roles women are kinder, more compassionate people, and men are firmer and more task-oriented. Single fathers are also believed to handle things easier than women when it comes to playing off parents after visiting. It is also believed that single fathers are more close to their children than fathers in two-parent families.

To sum up, the highest status one-parent household is that of a man whose wife has died, who is seen as struggling to bring up his children without help. He is in no way responsible for his situation, while the mother is usually blamed - and much admiration is directed towards him for undertaking a difficult job of bringing up chil-

dren. The divorced father is also held in high esteem and any blame which might be attached to his situation is offset by his willingness to look after his children.

Finally, even though fathers generally tend to be excused in cases of divorce, and sympathy and efficiency in children's up-bringing are directed towards them, it does not eliminate the fact that they do not encounter any problems. Some of the problems as discussed by Schlesinger (in Hodges 1986:197) will be briefly listed:

- financial problems;
- child care;
- social life;
- home-making (basic house-keeping chores);
- personal problems;
- community support;

seems lacking to single fathers - even though Cox and Desforges (1987) stated that women, especially single mothers are the ones who lack community support.

2.3.2 Two-parent families

According to Kenniston (in Berger 1981:84) it is a myth that intact families are more self-sufficient and able to solve their own problems. The researcher agrees with Kenniston's view because it sometimes happens that, for instance, in a particular area, two-parent families have very disharmonious relationships, especially between both parents. In this instance, it usually becomes apparent that single-parent homes have a more harmonious environment. Therefore two-parent families cannot be taken as ideal models for happy families.

Furthermore, to believe that children in two-parent families are more cared for than children from single-parent families is also a question open for research. As Wyness (1996:80) observes, in two-parent families, mothers are the ones who take part in almost all activities and responsibilities as regards the child. He argues that

mothers tend to spend more time with their children than their husbands, because they are around the home more than their husbands.

As Belsky, Lerner and Spanier (1984:23) suggest, before children from single-parent homes and those from two-parent homes are compared (and usually those from single parents are regarded negatively), the issues of marriage quality and stability should be looked at.

The researcher notes that an unstable family can initiate a very negative self-concept in a child, and apart from self-concept all the aspects of human development, achievement aspirations and many other aspects will be negatively affected by such a situation, hence there is no need to stay in a two-parent family if it does not work out.

It therefore becomes apparent that parents who insist on keeping their marriage "for the sake of the children" are not actually protecting the children, but may even destroy them.

2.4 CHANGES IN FAMILY STRUCTURES

The researcher maintains that marriage can nowadays be compared to a "slot machine" or a gamble. In certain cases it can either be a source of tragedy or comedy. Therefore, because of various factors which contribute to disharmonious marriages, people today are likely to part, either through divorce or separation, when a marriage is disharmonious. Religious doctrine for example, has diminished as a barrier to divorce.

The family structure therefore can easily change from a two-parent family to a one-parent household; or even from a one-parent household to a two-parent household in cases of remarriage.

2.4.1 Divorce

Belsky *et al.* (1984:5) state that the important message in our life-span or ecological perspective is not simply that changes occur at the level⁴ of the individual and of the family but rather that the key feature of our perspective is that changes in each one

influence the other: The child's development provides changes in the family and similarly, changes in the family alter the child's development.

When the bride and groom say: "Till death do us part", they almost always mean it. Unfortunately, the happiness of courtship, the joy of the wedding, and the novelty of early marriage vanish quickly for many couples.

It is important to realise that a divorce signifies the end of only a particular marriage, and not necessarily that marriage or the family as a social institution are in jeopardy. Rather divorce tells us that a particular couple could no longer find satisfaction and love in their relationship. Divorce then usually involves the "rejection" of a partner or a relationship, not a rejection of marriage as a meaningful lifestyle (Belsky *et al.* 1984:137).

Furthermore on the issue of divorce, it can be stated that Carter and Plateris (in Winch & Goodman 1968:564) believe that the legal grounds for divorce are not necessarily the real reasons for obtaining a final decree. They reflect only in part the marital difficulties which preceded the divorce; they also depend upon statutory provisions in each country, and perhaps even more important, on judicial interpretations and precedents. Some evidence points to the conclusion that a majority of divorces are obtained on grounds least unpleasant to advance under existing laws, and easiest to establish in legal proceedings.

In conclusion, the researcher believes that there are various factors which may lead to family dissolutions. These factors may include to sum up, an inferiority complex in one partner, which may be a result of various factors such as educational levels, family backgrounds, financial and social restraints in the family; parental influence (in-laws); cum-addiction to drugs; personality traits, such as introversion/extroversion, immaturity, type-A behaviour prone patterns; and finally serious illnesses such as cystic-fibrosis, leukemia and AIDS.

2.4.2 Death

It is a well-known fact that death is a very painful experience to both adults and children. In a family, the death of one parent can change the family structure from a two-parent family to a single-parent family.

Visher and Visher (1982:22) maintain that for some time or months after the death of a spouse, the remaining partner has to deal with many deep and powerful emotions, including anger, guilt, depression and extreme loneliness.

2.4.3 Separation

According to the *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1990:1104) separation is "an arrangement by which a husband and wife remain married but live apart".

As far back as in 1968, Winch and Goodman (1968:566) indicated that in most cases the husband and wife are separated for a time prior to the final decree. There was evidence then that previous marital experience of husband and wife was related to the duration of marriage prior to separation, a situation that most probably still exists.

In addition, Clapp (1992:7) contends that the events of separation often destroy the hurt partner's belief that the "leaver" had never valued the marriage. Feeling enraged and exploited the hurt spouse frequently sets out either to retaliate, to seek "justice" or to capture some power. Unfortunately, this tends to begin a vicious circle of attack and counterattack.

Each spouse tends to conclude that the current actions of the other reflect the other's true character. In reality, they are usually the unfortunate outcome of stress and an emotionally charged situation gone out of control. Obviously, the best way to avoid this scenario is with preparation, discussion and sensitivity before separation.

On the other hand the researcher is of the opinion that marital separation can be caused by a variety of reasons or factors. These factors can be broadly divided into two components, being:

- *Harmonious separation*: This occurs in cases of working or studying away from home of one partner;
- *Conflict-ridden separation*: In this case the reasons may be less harmonious as in cases of divorce.

However, Jacobson (1983:49) asserts that societal factors such as tendencies to early marriage, and greater economic choices, interact with interpersonal ones to maintain or terminate a marriage. Ultimately, the fate of the marriage is determined by the extent of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of each partner. This in turn is often influenced by life events that may be extrinsic to the marital pair. In that instance, intervention may change the progression toward marital dissolution.

2.5 RESULTS OF FAMILY STRUCTURE CHANGES

According to the researcher's point of view, there are various types of family structures, and these structures are usually or in most cases, subject to change. When talking about change, it is apparent that every change or disruption has a certain result or impact on something. In the same manner, results of changes in family structures will be discussed.

2.5.1 Remarriage

To define remarriage, Sager, Brown, Crohn, Engel, Rodstein and Walker (1983:3) contend that the term is used to describe the second, reconstituted, blended or step-family. The remarried family is a family that is created by the marriage (or living together) of two partners, one or both of whom had been previously married, and then divorced or widowed.

2.5.1.1 FORMATION OF A REMARRIED FAMILY

A remarried couple has arrived at remarriage through a process of evolution and revolution, by planned changes as well as by gradual accretion of unnoticed changes and by the sudden wrenching and far-reaching changes brought about by a spouse's death or by marital conflict, separation or divorce, as the author denotes.

For the majority changes are forced upon them. The children rarely have a role in the decision-making process. They may be subject to damaging effects engendered by the fact that they cannot understand or control the adult actions that so deeply affect them (Sager *et al.* 1983:5).

2.5.1.2 *STRUCTURE OF THE SYSTEM*

Robinson (1991:152) states that many remarried partners in order to protect the vulnerability of their own relationship as well as the development of the new stepfamily, attempt to draw boundaries around their households.

On the other hand, Sager *et al.* (1983:23) define the structure as consisting of two adults and one or more children - each child being parented by only one of the adults - parental tasks are shared with previous the spouse. The parent-child unit predates marital pair, at least two members are part of another family system, membership is not clearly defined, as boundaries may be biologically, legally and geographically blurred.

Finally, legal ties are asymmetrical since the legal parent-child subsystem brings all prior legal rights and obligations into the remarried family (Sager *et al.* 1983:23).

2.5.1.3 *STEP-PARENTING*

Visher and Visher (1982:12) believe that even though people react to situations in their own particular ways, the stepfamily journey has many special turnings which one needs to learn about and consider. It is a complicated journey because many more people are involved in more complicated relationships than in first marriage families.

However, it should be noted that stepfamilies may be a result of either death or divorce, not only death as it is usually associated with step-parenting but also in divorce and separation.

As it has been previously stated that step-families involve more people, thus it is also necessary to consider the issue of step-siblings. Palsey and Ihinger-Tallman (1987:167) mention that in the case of siblings, status differences are manifest in age and sex differences as well as socio-economic differences when siblings and step-siblings reside in different households. However, the emergence of new bonds is neither automatic nor inevitable. The degree to which they appear or fail to appear is affected by the state of the initial bonds and the situation within which the relationship exists.

In addition, there is not a single path or route without problems. That is why Clapp (1992:302) identifies eight losing strategies or common paths to serious step-family problems, which are listed as follows:

- Trying to replace the absent parent
- Creating a false sense of togetherness
- Forced blending
- Dramatically changing parent-child relationships
- Assuming authority too quickly
- Resisting family blending
- Trying to shut out the former spouse from children's lives
- Denying problems and conflicts.

To sum up, it can be stated that problems are to be rather avoided than solved, therefore Collins (1988:19) advocates ten basic principles of step-parenting:

- Care can be as important as love
- Understanding is important
- Step-families are not inferior imitations of biological families
- Step-parents are not necessarily parents
- Personal relationships can hurt, but they can also heal
- Guilt can damage the health of the household
- Comparisons are odious
- Myths and superstitions have no place in a modern step-family
- Human emotions are seldom straight-forward
- parents are not just emotional caddies.

The researcher therefore concludes by stating that step-parenting is not really problematic per se, but it only needs one to be humble and accept the other members of the family without any grudges or hard feelings.

2.5.2 Foster parenting

Foster parenting is a really difficult task according to the researcher's opinion, as it involves caring for a child that is not one's own.

Sarason, Lindner and Crnic (1976:5) define the aim of foster care as to provide a healthy family experience for children during times when they cannot live in their own homes.

They further postulate that there are various reasons why foster care is necessary. Sometimes an unmarried mother is unable to care for her child; a child has been seriously neglected or abused; a child has been abandoned; a child has been found pre-delinquent by a judge and seems likely to become delinquent if he remains in his own home; parents feel that they can no longer cope with their child and ask the state to intervene for them by placing the child in foster care; and lastly, a teenager feels that he cannot live with parental standards and expectations and asks to be placed in a new home.

When dealing with foster children, it should be noted that children may have all kinds of ways of hiding from their foster parents and perhaps also from themselves, what they are really feeling and needing. In some ways, play can help foster parents most in understanding the child (Stevenson 1965:39).

2.5.3 Adoptive parenting

Rowe (1966:130) states that "no-one doubts the gravity of the decision to place a child for legal adoption with people who are unrelated to him". She states that unhappiness in these man-made families is tragic and serious. The issue of adoption has been discussed over a long period of time, and there is general agreement that whenever possible, a child should remain with, or return to, his natural parents.

In addition, despite the findings of many studies, professional ambivalence about adoption seems to persist beyond an appreciation of knowledge gained. It is likely, therefore that there are other factors which relate to the "man-made" nature of adoptive families.

Smith (1984:25) asserts that it has been suggested that an inability to conceive may be causally related to certain, psychological factors which may later influence the adoptive parent-child relationship. The most significant stumbling block for many social workers seems to concern the essentially social nature of adoptive relationships and the separation of adopted children from their biological lineage.

2.5.4 Surrogate parenting

Some of the most vexing questions in surrogacy revolve around the issue of parental rights. In most surrogate cases, there are at least two unrelated people making parental claims, and in gestational surrogacy, there are three people who have made biological contributions to the child (Rae 1994:76).

Furthermore, to clarify the issue of surrogacy, Rae (1994:38) provides the distinction between surrogacy and adoption. He starts by stating that in surrogacy, the natural father of the child is also the intended social father of the child. Black market adoptions are rarely concerned with the child's best interests, while in surrogacy there is a reasonable certainty that a healthy home for the future child exists prior even to conception.

In addition, surrogacy results from a planned and often desperately desired pregnancy, not an unwanted pregnancy, and there is usually a significant difference between birth mothers in adoption cases and surrogate mothers, that is, in most cases, a surrogate mother is typically married, middle-class, stable, reasonably well educated and has rarely had one child.

Finally, the stranger has no constitutional right to adopt, but the father has a right to associate with his offspring. In surrogacy, since the contracting father is the biological father, a key constitutional right is being undercut by prohibiting the fee, since that would dramatically reduce the pool of available surrogates available to infertile

couples. A biological father has the right to procreate and associate with his own child, and any overreaching restrictions on this right are unconstitutional.

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the historical family structures, namely extended families, nuclear families and polygamous families have been discussed. The types of family structures, being the single-parent families and two-parent families have also been dealt with.

In addition, changes in the various family structures including divorce, separation and death have been discussed in conjunction with their results. These results can be mentioned as remarriage, foster-parenting, adoptive parenting and surrogate parenting.

Therefore, in the following chapter, the concept *adolescence and its relation to family structures* will be discussed. In this manner, the correlation between adolescence, family structure, and the effects of a changed family structure on the development of a child will be discussed.

Adolescence and family structures

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Adolescence can be defined or described as the developmental stage between childhood and adulthood. Thom (in Louw 1992:377) states that the term *adolescence* has been derived from the Latin verb *adolescere* which means "to grow up" or "to grow to adulthood".

He states that because of individual and cultural differences, the age at which adolescence begins varies from eleven to thirteen and the age at which it ends varies from seventeen to twenty-one. Since the age boundaries of adolescence are flexible, it is better to demarcate the various developmental stages of adolescence on the basis of specific developmental characteristics rather than on age - adolescence therefore begins at puberty.

Some authors have described adolescence as a period of stress and storm. In addition, Canger (1979:6) contends that adolescence can be a time of irrepressible joy and seemingly inconsolable sadness and loss; of gregariousness and loneliness; of altruism and self-centredness; of insatiable curiosity and boredom; of confidence and self-doubt. But, above all, adolescence is a period of rapid change - physical, sexual and intellectual changes within the adolescent, environmental changes in the nature of the external demands placed by society on its developing members.

Blos (1962, 1967 in Coleman 1980:3) describes adolescence as a "second individuation process", the first having been completed towards the end of the third year of life. In his view, both periods have certain things in common: there is an urgent need for psychological changes which help the individual adapt to maturation; there is an

increased vulnerability to personality; and finally, both periods are followed by specific psychopathology should the individual run into difficulties.

The aim of this chapter therefore is to discuss the nature of adolescence, the adolescent's development and the changing family; family relationships at adolescence; family relationships and adolescence development; and, finally the developmental differences in different types of family structures.

3.2 THE NATURE OF ADOLESCENCE

Dreyfus (1976:4) contends that if we talk about the integration of physical, social, intellectual and emotional aspects of human growth, we are in a much better position to talk about adolescence. Steinberg (1993:8) continues to state that although all adolescents experience the biological, cognitive and social transitions of the period, the effects of these changes are not uniform for all young people. Puberty makes some adolescents feel attractive and self-assured, but it makes others feel ugly and self-conscious.

Furthermore, Noller and Collan (1991:1) are of the opinion that adolescence is about growing up and becoming an adult. While adolescents move away from their family towards their friends, relationships with their families are important for most adolescents both during adolescence and for the rest of their lives. For this reason, it must be emphasised that any serious consideration of the adolescent experience has to include the type of family one comes from. It should be noted that the quality of family relationships is crucial in determining the competence and confidence with which young people face this major transition from childhood to adulthood.

Manaster (1989:10) contends that during the period of adolescence, then, the individual is in the process, through learning and testing himself and society, of achieving the attitudes, beliefs, and skills needed to be an effective participating adult in the society. During this same period, it should be noted that the individual is also in the process of living as an adolescent, and trying to be equally effective and as much of a participant in the adolescent peer group as one would hope he or she will eventually be in the adult world.

He further states that in an attempt to understand adolescents, they will as far as possible, with existing theory and data, be viewed as total, complete individuals, whose own feelings and perspectives influence their own personal goals within their own environments as members of society.

From this holistic approach, the interrelatedness of adolescence and certain developmental tasks must be investigated. For this reason, Manaster (1989:15) identifies eight developmental tasks which are associated with adolescence.

The first developmental task, is achieving new and more mature relations with agetates of both sexes, interacting with peers as equals, rather than as one of a group established from without, and excluded from the group, is a new development at adolescence. Secondly, one must achieve a masculine or feminine social role, including the self, friends and community, love and sex.

Furthermore, accepting one's physique and using the body effectively, as in cases of love and sex, is an essential component of adolescence. Fourthly, achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults, which is marked by ambivalence is also essential.

Another developmental task is preparing for marriage and family life. This preparation involves education in the meaning and operation of marriage and long-term relationships, but assumes, for success, the satisfactory solution of two other developmental tasks - satisfactory relations with people of the opposite sex and emotional independence of parents.

The sixth task is preparing for an economic career. This involves organising and planning so that one can enter a career and feeling that one can do so. In school, adolescents are in the process of developing their sense of what they can do well and determining what they want to do.

To sum up, it can be mentioned that another important task is acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behaviour. The seeds of the values and ethical system that one will eventually adopt are presented through all the influences that act on individuals in a society.

Lastly, an adolescent has to desire and achieve socially responsible behaviour. The goals of this developmental task include the development of a social ideology

that allows the adolescent, when an adult, to be a responsible participant in his or her community and country. To be a responsible adult and citizen demands that one takes account of the values of society in one's personal behaviour.

To further explain the nature of adolescence, Rodman and Trost (1986:1) are of the opinion that the process of adolescent development and adults' perception of that process will differ from society to society, and from one area of behaviour to another. Social and cultural differences can fundamentally alter the nature of the adolescent dilemma, or even raise questions about its very existence. Some societies train adolescents in decision-making at a relatively early age; in other societies, parents or guardians maintain authority for a longer time. In some societies adolescence looms large as a period of turmoil; in others it may pass quietly or may not be recognised at all, children becoming adults through clearly defined and organised rituals, without an intermediate stage.

Children depend on the nurture of others for their physical survival and their social and psychological development. This nurture is usually provided within the family - by parents, siblings and other kin. As children grow older, they become able to take responsibility for an increasing number of decisions.

Finally, it can be stated that the nature of adolescence comprises many components, which together provide a clear picture of what adolescence is all about. The following sub-sections of this section will deal with the different components and developmental traits of adolescence.

3.2.1 Physical and physiological development

Physical development and motivation, which is characterised by puberty at adolescence, is truly inevitable. The researcher is of the opinion that not all adolescents experience identity crises, rebel against their parents, or fall head over heels in love, but virtually all undergo the biological transitions associated with maturation into adult reproductive capability.

Steinberg (1993:22) states that puberty however, is considerably affected by the context in which it occurs. Physical development is influenced by a host of environ-

mental factors, and the timing and rate of pubertal growth varies across regions of the world, socio-economic classes, ethnic groups and historical eras.

Smart and Smart (1973:1) believe that a child changes into an adult during adolescence, a period lasting from about eleven to about eighteen years of age. The changes which take place during adolescence include not only physical events, but also psychological and social ones. The child's body changes into an adult's through an almost invariable sequence of events.

3.2.1.1 PUBERTAL PHASE

Smart and Smart (1973:2) further state that puberty is the time when sexual maturity is reached. Pubescence is the period of time encompassing the physical changes which lead to puberty.

Thom (in Louw 1992:383) concurs with the idea that the pubertal phase generally occurs between the ages of eleven and fifteen, although individual differences may occur. Puberty begins when the ovaries and related organs, such as the uterus in girls and the prostate gland and seminal vesicles in boys, begin to enlarge. The first externally visible signs of the commencement of puberty are the development of breasts in girls and the appearance of pubic hair in boys. Table 1 gives the developmental sequence of primary and secondary sexual characteristics (adapted from Lambert, Rothchild, Atland & Green 1978 in Louw 1992:383).

Table 3.1: The developmental sequence of primary and secondary sexual characteristics

FEMININE	MASCULINE
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Enlargement of breasts ■ Appearance of straight pigmented armpit hair ■ Rapid physical growth ■ Appearance of curly pubic hair ■ Enlargement and development of vagina, clitoris and uterus ■ armpit hair ■ Menstruation ■ Localised fatty deposits ■ Sebaceous glands more active ■ Increasing maturity of reproductive organs ■ Stable ovulation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Enlargement of testes, scrotum and seminal vesicles ■ Appearance of straight pigmented pubic hair ■ Growth of penis ■ Voice breaks ■ Growth of beard ■ Growth of curly pubic hair and ■ First ejaculation ■ Seminal emissions

Furthermore, Smart and Smart (1973:2) postulate that it is difficult to pinpoint the achievement of sexual maturity and the capacity for reproduction. Menarche is often assumed to be the time when a girl becomes able to have babies, but a sterile period of a year or more probably occurs in most girls after menstruation. However, there is no corresponding definite event for boys, although a criterion sometimes used is the production of spermatozoa.

Dreyfus (1976:8) contends that, for centuries it was believed that puberty marked the beginning of sexuality. With Sigmund Freud and the development of the psychoanalytic theory, the concept of infantile sexuality and of psychosexual development superseded the traditional concept of puberty. Psycho-analytic theory stresses the role of emotion and motivation in determining behaviour. According to Freud (1953), pleasurable experiences associated with food consumption, elimination and genital arousal occur before puberty. He believed that the form that infantile sexuality took during early and middle childhood directly determined how adolescence was experienced.

Dreyfus (1976:9) further postulates that at puberty, the beginning of adolescence, both boys and girls show definite signs of stress. An important development of this period is the child's growing independence from his parents. As a result of this independence, a certain amount of affection is freed to go in search of new love objects outside the family.

3.2.1.2 THE ADOLESCENT GROWTH SPURT

The researcher contends that one of the many physical changes associated with puberty is the "growth spurt". Coleman and Hendry (1990:16) are of the opinion that the term *growth spurt* is usually taken to refer to the accelerated rate of increase in height and weight that occurs during early adolescence.

Most authors, including Krogman (1957), Watson and Lowrey (1951) and Tanner (1961) believe that after the extraordinary initial growth spurt from birth to the age of two, growth in height is very constant over the remaining eighteen or so years, with the exception of a second growth spurt, called the adolescent growth spurt, which occurs in early adolescence.

Conger (1979:19) argues that the term *adolescent growth spurt* refers to the accelerated rate of increase in height and weight that accompanies puberty. The age at which the growth spurt begins varies widely even among perfectly normal children.

It should be noted that Conger's views on the growth spurt are in no way different from those of Coleman and Hendry (1990). They also agree on the fact that changes in height and weight are accompanied by changes in body proportions in both boys and girls. The head, hands and feet reach adult size first. In turn, the arms and legs grow faster than trunk length, which is completed last.

Manaster (1989:23) asserts that the growth spurt for girls occurs approximately two years earlier than that of boys. On average, the highest rate of height gain, for boys is about 10 centimeters a year, while the average peak velocity is somewhat less for girls. Prior to growth spurt, there is little difference in height between girls and boys, whereas after the growth spurt the difference in height between boys and girls is about eight percent.

In the data in figure 3.1 first published in 1939 (adapted from Tanner in Manaster 1989:24), the spurt for boys occurs on the average between thirteen and fifteen and a half years of age.

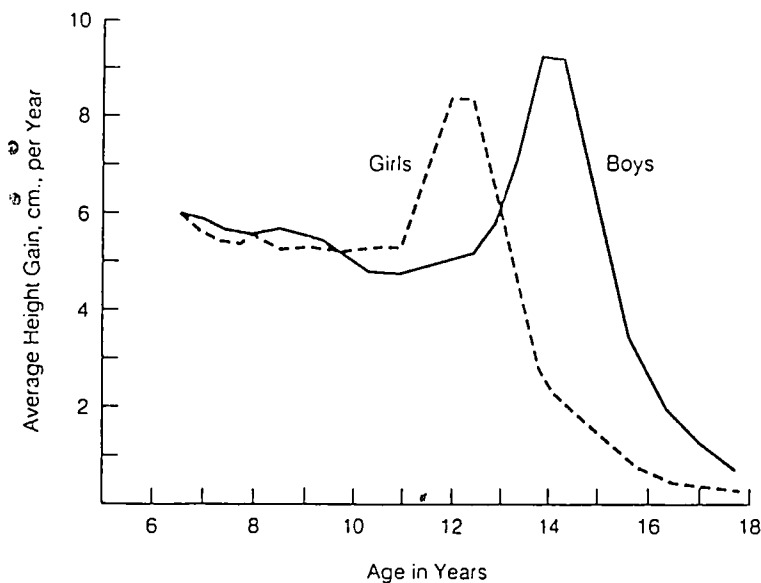


Figure 3.1: Adolescent increment growth curves in height for boys and girls who reached puberty at the average times

To sum up, it can be stated that Coleman and Hendry (1990:19) are also of the opinion that sexual maturation is closely linked with the physical changes described above. The sequence of events is approximately eighteen to twenty-four months later for boys than for girls. For boys, the first sign of the approach of puberty is most commonly an increase in the rate of growth of the testes, and scrotum, followed by the growth of pubic hair. Acceleration of growth of the penis and the appearance of facial hair frequently accompany the beginning of the growth spurt in height and weight, and it is usually somewhat later than this that the voice breaks, and the first seminal discharge occurs.

For girls, enlargement of the breasts and the growth of pubic hair are early signs of puberty and are followed by the growth of the uterus and the vagina. The menarche itself occurs relatively late in the developmental sequence and almost always after the peak velocity of the growth spurt.

The sequence of events in boys and girls is illustrated in figures 3.2 and 3.3 (Marshall & Tanner in Coleman & Hendry 1990:20).

Physical development

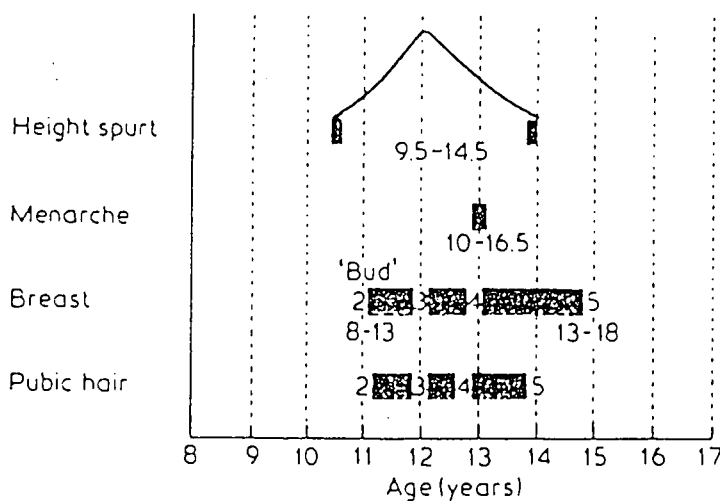


Figure 3.2: Diagram of sequence of events at adolescence in girls

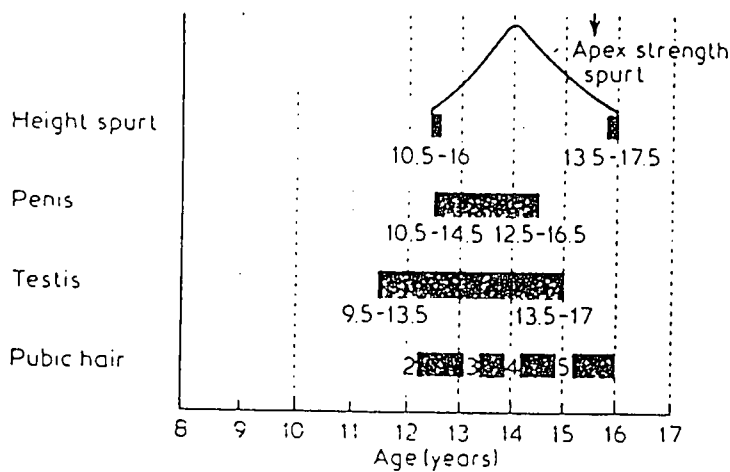


Figure 3.3: Diagram of sequence of events at adolescence in boys

To conclude, Conger (1979:26) states that as the adolescent moves away from dependence primarily on the family and towards the peer group as a major source of security and social status, conformity to peer group standards becomes more important, not only in social behaviour, but in appearance and physical skills. Deviation from the idealised peer group norms in body build, facial features, physical abilities - even at times, in such seemingly irrelevant matters as whether one's hair is straight or curly - may be a source of great distress to an adolescent.

3.2.2 Identity formation-cum-development

Dreyfus (1976:9) is of the opinion that the single greatest contribution to the study of adolescent development has been made by Erik Erikson (1968) whose modified psychoanalytic position is often considered the most thorough and valid interpretation of adolescent behaviour. Erikson's is a modified interpretation because he believes that

Freud's theory of developing sexuality is secondary to and falls within the process of establishing the concept of the self. He believes that the major concern of this period is the search for identity.

The purpose of this section of the chapter is to understand how adolescents navigate through life, more or less successfully, developing a sense of who they are and how they can best find personal satisfaction in the adult world of love and work. Five developmental models of the identity formation process are to be presented, accompanied by critical comments, reviews of related research, and a discussion of the implications each theory holds for social response, as stated by Kroger (1989).

3.2.2.1 *ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL APPROACH*

Kroger (1989:13) contends that according to Erikson, identity seems to be most easily definable through its absence or loss; it is only when one can no longer take for granted the fabric of one's unique existence that its foundation threads become exposed and more clearly apparent. It is through such loss of ego identity or its developmental failure that opportunity does exist for understanding more normative modes of identity formation and the means by which society can provide for optimal development.

Erikson conceptualises and defines identity in an interdisciplinary way; biological endowment, personal organisation of experience and cultural milieu all conspire to give meaning, form and continuity to one's unique existence.

Erikson (1968:159) further states that identity formation involves a synthesis of these earlier identifications into a new configuration, which is based on, but different from the sum of its individual parts. It is a process also dependent on social response; identity formation relies on the way society identifies the young individual, recognising him or her as somebody who had become the way he or she is, and who, being the way he or she is, is taken for granted.

Erikson (1968:161) concludes by stating that the final identity, then, as fixed at the end of adolescence, is superordinated to any single identification with individuals of the past; it includes all significant identifications, but it also alters them in order to make a unique and reasonably coherent whole of them.

3.2.2.2 *BLOS'S PSYCHOANALYTIC PERSPECTIVE*

Character formation as outlined by Blois involves the resolution of at least four challenges in order for identity to develop and stabilize at the close of adolescence. Challenges addressed through a sequence of phases are the second individuation process, reworking and mastering childhood trauma, developing a sense of ego continuity and forming a sexual identity (Kroger 1989:79).

3.2.2.3 *IDENTITY THROUGH A COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENTAL LENS: KOHLBERG*

According to Kroger (1989:82), Kohlberg conceptualizes moral reasoning as only one subdomain of ego functioning, evolving alongside others (such as cognition) in the course of identity development. Kohlberg's theory implies that age may be a less accurate indicator of one's ethical reasoning stage (at least during the adolescent and adult years).

Kohlberg has viewed the development of moral reasoning as qualitative change, occurring in a universal, hierarchical and invariant sequence of six stages by which one resolves moral conflict. While Kohlberg does not directly address the formation of identity, he views the development of moral reasoning as one aspect of ego functioning. Kohlberg's states, strongly related to indexes of cognitive development, identity formation, ego development and moral behaviour, reflect the increasing internalization of rules and principles.

3.2.2.4 *EGO DEVELOPMENT IN ADOLESCENCE: LOEVINGER'S PARADIGM*

The ego, according to Loevinger, is that *master trait of personality* which serves as an organising framework for one's customary orientation of one's self to the world. Ego development proceeds through a series of stages, believed to be hierarchical and invariant in sequence which marks a continuum of increasingly complex and differentiated means by which one perceives oneself, the world, and one's relationships in it. Greatest gains in ego development occur during early and mid-adolescence with girls generally reaching the higher ego stages earlier than boys. Recognition of an adolescent's ego stage has important implications for counseling and educational responses (Kroger 1989:138).

3.2.2.5 *KEGAN'S CONSTRUCTIVE-DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH (IDENTITY AS MEANING-MAKING)*

Kegan has proposed a constructive-developmental view of the identity formation process. The integrative theory suggests a process which drives cognitive and affective developments and is responsible for generating logics tapped by Piaget and Kohlberg in the realms of physical and social cognition. The theory describes a sequence of balances and transitions in the relationship between that which is considered self and what is taken to be other. Adolescents generally make meaning from the interpersonal balance, in which one *is* rather than *has* one's institutional affiliations, or from transitions to or from each of these balances. A self optimally evolves to a new balance in a holding environment which has three characteristics: holding securely, letting go, and remaining in place (Kroger 1989:166).

In conclusion, it can be stated that one of the most difficult problems that confronts the adolescent is the development of a sense of identity. Identity versus identity confusion or diffusion is the fifth stage in Erik Erikson's theory of development, occurring at about the same time as adolescence. During adolescence, world views become important to individuals entering a "psychological moratorium" between the security of childhood and autonomy of adulthood.

3.2.3 **Cognitive development**

The adolescent's cognitive ability develops both quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitatively in the sense that the adolescent is able to master intellectual tasks more easily and more effectively, and qualitatively in the sense that changes take place in the nature of the thought processes and the cognitive structure. The quantitative and qualitative characteristics of the thought processes do not, however, develop separately but in a complementary and integrating way (Thom in Louw 1992:400).

Santrock (1981:142) believes that the contemporary study of adolescent cognitive development is dominated by the ideas and research of one man - Jean Piaget - and his colleagues. The major outline of Piaget's ideas will be presented in table 3.2 (adapted from Santrock 1981:142) for an overview.

Table 2 **Piaget's stages of cognitive development**

	GENERAL DESCRIPTION	AGE LEVEL
Sensorimotor	The child progresses from instinctual reflexive action at birth to symbolic activities, to the ability to separate himself or herself from objects in the environment. He or she develops limited capabilities for anticipating the consequences of his or her actions.	0 0,5 1 1,5 2
Preoperational	The child's ability to think becomes more refined during this period. First, the child develops what Piaget calls preconceptual thinking, in which the child deals with each object or event individually but is not able to use symbols, such as words, to deal with problems. During the latter half of this period, the child develops better reasoning abilities but is still bound to the here and now.	2,5 3 3,5 4 4,5 5 5,5 6 6,5 7
Concrete operational	At this stage, the child develops the ability to perform intellectual operations - such as reversibility, conservation, and placing in order by number, size or class. His or her ability to relate time and space is also maturing during this period.	7,5 8 8,5 9 9,5 10 10,5
Formal operational	This is the period in which the person learns to reason hypothetically. The child is able to function for the first time on a purely symbolic, abstract level. His or her conceptualization capacities have matured.	11 11,5 12 12,5 13 13,5 14 14,5 15

Stevenson and Zigler (1993:518) contend that adolescents undergo major bodily changes as they transform from children to adults. They mature sexually, they grow taller and they acquire muscular strength.

Adolescents gain a higher level of intellectual functioning. They can think in the abstract about different possibilities and they relish working with friends on a task. Many teens enjoy activities that challenge their physical strength, and also practice

such skills as music with an intensity that lets them refine and excel in these areas as well.

Some teens become absorbed in mental tasks and find the challenge of difficult problems stimulating. They get together to develop a strategy for problem solving and they enjoy debating, which requires them to formulate effective arguments. Stevenson and Zigler (1993:519) further state that choosing friends is critical to the search for identity. Friends provide the emotional support adolescents need as they experience physiological and intellectual changes; they also help determine lasting values.

3.2.3.1 *THINKING AND REASONING*

Richmond (1970:56) contends that Piaget's analysis of formal operations achieves a number of things. It explains how formal operations grow out of concrete operations, it describes the structure of such operations, and the consequences which will follow in terms of intellectual achievement because of those structures.

Formal operations produce changes in the child's attitude to the environment. He or she now has a powerful problem-solving mechanism at his command. He can use the hypothesis, experiment, deduction approach when investigating his or her environment.

The most distinctive property of formal thought is the reversal of direction between reality and possibility; instead of deriving a rudimentary type of theory from the empirical data, as is done in concrete inferences, formal thought begins with a theoretical synthesis implying that certain relations are necessary and thus proceeds in the opposite direction.

3.2.3.2 *INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT*

The issue of intellectual development in adolescents is more or less related to thought and reasoning; or according to the researcher, it can be defined as an aftermath of both thought and reasoning.

Keating (in Stevenson & Zigler 1993:520) suggests that the adolescent's thinking differs from the child's thinking in five ways. First, adolescents can think about ab-

stract possibilities; secondly, adolescents are capable of thinking about hypotheses; thirdly, adolescents are capable of thinking ahead and planning, although they do not always think before they act, they do so more often than younger children. This ability allows adolescents to approach problem-solving in a systematic and efficient manner; they can integrate what they have learned in the past and consider all the possible combinations of relevant factors.

Fourthly, adolescents are capable of reflective thinking, or thinking about the processes of thinking, and how to make them more efficient. They use various strategies to enhance their ability to learn and solve problems. They can also reflect on the process of thinking, which is referred to by information-processing researchers as metacognition (Keating in Stevenson & Zigler 1993:520).

Lastly, the content of adolescent thought is broadened. Adolescents think about many topics that they have never considered before. Enhanced by their ability to think in the abstract they can think about the world as it is, and as it might become. For example, adolescents may construct their own elaborate political and economic theories or complex plans for the reorganization of society, or they may think through issues pertaining to social relations, morality or religion.

To conclude it can be stated that Piaget (in Richmond 1970:56), when writing about intellectual development in adolescents, contends that at adolescence, the child's increased ability to form complex classes out of the properties of things, and to make linked statements about them, in the end, forms a wealth of information which he or she is unable to understand. Formal operations produce changes in the child's attitude to the environment. He or she now has a powerful problem-solving mechanism at his or her command.

3.2.4 Social and emotional development

The researcher believes that adolescents have a variety of values and social roles to choose from, and social change occurs at an incredibly fast pace in complex societies like ours. Because of increasingly, more sophisticated communication, transportation and scientific techniques, individuals confront a future that is substantially different from what their parents had to deal with when they became adults. The decisions teenagers make during adolescence and young adulthood are not necessarily final and

unalterable but they will have consequences for later life and so must be weighed carefully.

Rockwell and Elder (1982 in Louw 1992:414) point out that the psychosocial development may be better understood when it is seen against the background of social and cultural changes. Some aspects of social change and their influence on the development of the adolescent will be discussed.

3.2.4.1 *CHANGED FAMILY STRUCTURE*

Urbanisation, industrialisation and greater geographical mobility in western societies have caused the extended family to shrink to the nuclear family. The parents in the nuclear family are often geographically isolated from, their relatives since they live in faraway cities, towns or rural districts. They are thus often obliged to bring up their adolescent children without support and guidance. These parents often find themselves confused by conflicting advice from other parents and from articles in the popular press.

3.2.4.2 *DECLINE IN THE AUTHORITY OF THE ADULT GROUP*

Rockwell and Elder (1982 in Louw 1992:416) further contend that a few generations ago adults formed a homogeneous group, and when an adolescent rebelled against the opinions values and actions of those adults, he or she found himself or herself confronted by a united adult opposition. Parents were seen as wise authority figures and were thus effective role models.

3.2.4.3 *THE NEW INDIVIDUALISM*

Social changes have led to increased individualism and in the nuclear family the emphasis is on satisfying personal needs. Emphasis on individualism may sometimes lead to isolation. Adolescents and other age groups as well, may now be left to themselves to accomplish their developmental tasks on their own, that is, without any assistance or support from the parents or relatives.

3.2.4.4 THE GENERATION GAP

The term *generation gap* refers to certain differences that occur between adults and adolescents. These differences may involve values, interests, attitudes and opinions.

The relationship between adolescents and adults in modern societies is inevitably characterised by mutual hostility and conflict, differences between the generations are often exaggerated and readily accepted as the cause of conflict.

3.2.4.5 THE ADOLESCENT PEER GROUP

The researcher is of the opinion that although broad social changes and social policies have important effects on the development of adolescents and their eventual course in life, family and friends also exert a great deal of influence.

Santrock (1981:242) states that a very important part of the world of adolescents are peers. The term *peers* usually refers to adolescents who are about the same age, but adolescents usually interact with children or other adolescents who are three or four years older or younger.

He further contends that one of the most important functions of the peer group is to provide a source of information and comparison about the world outside the family.

Peer relations affect emotional adjustment as well. The adolescent's emotional adjustment may be affected by present or past competence and satisfaction in peer relations.

Finally, the adolescent relies on the peer group for rehearsing roles and testing out ideas and behaviours, including sex-role behaviour, dating, information about sex, cooperative and competitive behaviour among equals, the expression of aggression and play. These behaviours or ideas are often inhibited or impossible in the adolescent's interaction with adults, but they occur frequently in the context of peer relations.

3.2.5 Sexuality

An important developmental task of the adolescent is to satisfy his or her sexual needs in a socially acceptable way so it contributes positively to the development of his or her identity. Their newly developed sexuality must also be integrated with their interpersonal relationships. The heterosexual relationships that begin during adolescence offer the adolescent an opportunity to achieve a certain amount of sexual satisfaction and also the opportunity to develop his or her identity as a sexual being (Juhasz & Sannenshein - Schneider 1980 in Louw 1992:135).

Santrock (1981:428) is of the opinion that adolescence is a time when exploratory and experimental sex play turns into more purposeful sexual behaviour. However, many adolescents because of social and religious standards, stop short of sexual intercourse even when they find a partner they would sincerely like to have sexual intercourse with. They often restrict themselves to "petting" and for most of the adolescents, the main sexual outlet is masturbation. As a rule, adolescent females are more sexually inhibited than adolescent males are.

Dreyfus (1976:34) agrees with Santrock that females lag behind males in the rate at which they learn explicitly erotic behaviour, even though they develop and start maturation earlier. Their feelings about sex are more diffuse.

However, Dreyfus (1976:39) states that on the contrary to what Santrock (1981:428) has said about adolescents abstaining from sexual intercourse, it appears that today's youth are replacing the old fears of pregnancy with a concern that a certain level of maturity be reached before having sexual relations. In contrast to the strongly moral views of earlier times adolescents today feel that sex is not intrinsically right or wrong. Many admit to using sex to reward or punish, but almost none admitted to having sex to avoid loneliness in a study carried out by Sorensen (1973). Sorensen points out that sex generally takes place without conscious ulterior motives among adolescents. The current pattern in sexual relationships is serial monogamy without marriage, although most adolescents intend to marry sometime.

3.3 THE ADOLESCENT'S FAMILY

Sheppard, Wright and Goodstadt (1985 in Noller & Callan 1991:123) state that the peer group, contrary to what is commonly believed, has little or no influence as long as the family remains strong. Peers take over only when parents abdicate.

They further state that there is evidence that the support of the family is crucial to adolescents and that those who do not have strong support from parents are more likely to become involved in undesirable behaviours. Adolescents who rely on the peer group, rather than the family, for their main support are particularly vulnerable to peer pressure to engage in problem behaviours such as smoking cigarettes, drinking alcohol or using illegal drugs.

For instance, Johnson (1986) examined the relative influence of parents and peers on adolescents' use and abuse of alcohol. The more involved adolescents were in their peer group, the more likely they were to drink alcohol. These findings suggest how important it is for parents to support adolescents rather than throwing them out of the home or withdrawing love and support in some way or other. If parents fail to support their adolescents, the young people can become more involved with their peer group and even more committed to peer group values.

However, Hofer, Noack and Youniss (1994:191) indicate that parent-child relations differ according to the child's age and the child's culturally defined developmental tasks. These relationships are organised according to the sociocultural values which serve as one of the main bases for the socialization and development of adolescents.

The quality of parent-child relations also affects the way adolescents deal with social change and whether they prefer challenging opportunities or risks. When the relation between adolescents and their parents is close, traditional patterns of behaviour may be preserved. Alternatively a loose or conflictive relation between the two generations may promote social change.

3.3.1 Adolescent development and the changing family

The discussion on adolescent development and changing family structures will be based on a number of factors with the aim of identifying the new structural conditions that facilitated the rise in modern adolescence.

Hamburg (in Takanish 1993:9) postulates that the crucial transition from childhood to adulthood is now very different from the past. Throughout most of human history the transition was steady, gradual, cumulative and well-ordered. Children could see what their parents did for a living, they could observe what the dangers and opportunities were. They were given tasks from an early age that bore some clear resemblance to adult responsibilities. These tasks traditionally grew more complex and broader in scope as the children grew older. By the time they reached adolescence, they were quite familiar with what would be required of them and what their adult roles would be.

He further goes on to state that in the twentieth century, however, the ground rules changed, and the rate of change has accelerated in the past few decades. Young adolescents now have less and less opportunity to direct participation in the adult world. It is less clear how to be useful, less clear how to earn respect in one's community. The time between childhood and adulthood has grown longer and the outcomes are less clear. The requirements, risks and opportunities of this period are now highly ambiguous for most adolescents. As it has earlier been stated, there are various factors which lead to changing family structures today. These factors will be discussed, together with how they affect adolescent development, as they have been outlined by Sebald (1984:128-135).

3.3.1.1 *TOWARDS THE ISOLATED NUCLEAR FAMILY*

In the past, most of the African population was classified as rural. With urbanisation and westernisation, the proportion of rural people consistently declined. In the traditional setting, many married children shared the household of their parents, but today most married couples live with their children only. Additional factors that have reduced household size include the divorce rate, which seems to be the main reason why most children live in single-parent families. A component in the growth of single-parent families is the sharp rise in the number of unwed mothers.

3.3.1.2 *LIMITED ADULT MODELS*

The traditional family was able to provide a number of adults who could serve as significant models. This was possible not only because there were more individuals in the family but also because their work performance was more visible. In the isolated nuclear family, learning from available persons is extremely limited. Normally, there is only one adult of each sex present and if this parent is not readily observable, the young are deprived of models. The nuclear family has been accused of being "obsolete and barbaric" because of the young's "obligation to give affection as a duty to a particular set of persons because of the accident of birth". Moore (1960 in Sebald 1984:130) considers adolescence to be the outgrowth of the modern family's incapability of stabilizing the personalities of its offspring. The nuclear family therefore fails to offer children flexibility in choosing models, thereby complicating the transition from childhood to adulthood.

3.3.1.3 *NON-FAMILIAL PEERS*

In the large traditional family the child usually grew up with peers who were of his or her family group. When the young married, they would most likely remain in the household of the family of orientation, or at least in the same community. In contrast, most modern nuclear families are isolated from kin and cannot provide playmates who are relatives. Modern youth grow up seeing few, if any, of their relatives, many of them live and grow up with only one parent. Hence children of nuclear families find their playmates outside the kin group and commonly transform the school environment into a primary source of friends.

Parents' prime competitors seem to be their children's non-familial peers, who, unlike siblings and cousins growing up in the same family system, frequently have divergent attitudes and fail to share common loyalty to one family.

3.3.1.4 *PARENTS, PEERS AND AUTONOMY*

Adolescents' desire to establish distance from their family groups finds implementation through affiliation with non-familial peers who, in concerted rebelliousness, try out new norms and values and in the process obtain skills in problem-solving and de-

velop unique identities. A major function of modern adolescence is renunciation of dependence on the family and substitution of peer groups for the family group. The peer group therefore, facilitates the young individual's autonomy process and emancipation from the family.

3.3.2 Divorce and remarriage

The researcher believes that every year the family life of thousands of children is disrupted by divorce and the indications are that the number is still rising. Pringle (1974:128) contends that there may be a link between the rising divorce rate and the increasing trend towards early parenthood which allows young couples little time to adjust to the new relationships and responsibilities of marriage; then financial and housing problems are added with the arrival of a baby.

Pringle (1974:128) further contends that one of the most striking demographic features associated with divorce is the increased risk among wives who were pregnant at the time of marriage - marriages are now taking place at a younger age than previously and young brides are forming an increasing proportion of all pre-marital pregnancies so it is likely that a large number of children than at present will be innocent witnesses of a broken home and family. Remarkably little attention has been given to the effects which the break-up may have on children's development.

However, Benn (1969 in Pringle 1974:128) states that in relation to children's reactions to new marriages of either of their parents it has been suggested that "overall, it seems it is better to have three or even four parents and six grandparents than no father or mother. This pattern of multiple marriages in fact produces a new type of extended family and consequently a variety of people with whom the child can identify and form relationships - structurally, the family of the future will be polynuclear".

Pringle further suggests that from what has been observed, a sizable proportion of children whose parents have been divorced show disturbed behaviour. What is agreed by many, including some lawyers, is that custody decisions, in the lower courts at any rate, tend to be arrived at too hastily and with too little attempt to take into account the child's own wishes or needs. If his or her long-term interests are to be regarded as of major importance, then some reform of divorce proceedings would seem essential.

Berns (1993:103) however, is of the opinion that studies of family dissolution have generally focussed on the differences between children of divorced parents and children of intact families. However, the real difference is how all the various members of the family deal with the transition, re-establish their role obligations and perform functions such as economic functions, authority, domestic responsibilities and support functions.

Hetherington (1989 in Berns 1993:106) is of the opinion that the period after divorce is usually disruptive for the family. The children are upset by the disruption - but they do not all react to divorce in the same way. Children's reactions depend on the various personalities involved and the parents' relations with their children. Reactions also depend upon such factors as age and gender, how much family disharmony existed prior to the divorce, and how available other people are for emotional support.

Adolescents, unlike younger children, feel little sense of blame for the separation of their parents, but they are often pawns for each parent's bid for loyalty. Whether the child is a boy or a girl influences the impact of the divorce. Research shows boys are harder hit (Hetherington in Berns 1993:106).

To sum up, Berns (1993:107) states that children involved in custody battles are the most torn by divorce. To avoid this win/lose situation, some parents are turning to joint custody, mainly for the sake of the children, sharing responsibility for the children.

Hetherington (1989 in Steinberg 1993:125) further postulates that the recognition that divorce and remarriage can be better understood as family transitions than as static events has focussed researchers' attention on adolescents' adaptation to these changes over time and on the identification of factors that seem to make a difference.

Furthermore, Steinberg (1993:126) is of the opinion that the short-term effects of remarriage also appear to vary among children, although not necessarily in the same ways as the short-term effects of divorce. In general, girls show more difficulty in adjusting to remarriage than boys and older children more difficulty than younger children.

Therefore, it can be assumed that some of the effects of early parental divorce will not be manifested until the adolescent begins dating and getting seriously involved

with others of the opposite sex. These initial forays, into intimate relationships may recall old and difficult psychological conflicts that had remained latent for some time (Wallerstein & Blakeslee in Steinberg 1993:127).

3.3.3 Parental employment and adolescent adjustment

During the earliest years of our lives emotional expression and its reception are the only means of communication between children and their parents (Bowlby 1988:157).

Kamerman and Kahn (1981:2) contend that childbearing and child rearing continue to be the core functions of the family in our society and child care continues to be the most important family responsibility carried by employed women. If women are to bear and rear children at the same time as they participate in the labour force, traditional assumptions regarding women bearing sole or primary responsibility for child care and child rearing become increasingly untenable. Even if there is more shared responsibility between husbands and wives, the pressures on the time and energy of working parents - and especially on single parents - increasingly demonstrates the need for some sort of response and adaptation by the society at large as well.

These authors further postulate that separation of work life and family life has long been identified as one of the most significant characteristics of industrialized societies. The negative consequences, including isolation and depression for the at-home partner, and mainly for the children - the absence of positive adult role models for children, and the increase in concomitant family stress are well-known.

Concerning adolescence, working parents and decision-making, Sigel and Laosa (1983:76) state that courts in most countries are beginning to restrict parental function where the child's and parent's interests clash. They recognize that the accelerated maturity of adolescents has made it desirable for young people to decide matters for themselves, especially in the area of reproduction.

To sum up, it can be stated that parental employment may sometimes prove advantageous to adolescent development. Pringle (1974:91) contends that children growing up in an unstimulating environment (like unemployed parents), often have limited language skills, hence language indicates social class. It therefore becomes ap-

parent that the different language modes, characteristically used by the middle and the working classes, initiate and then reinforce different patterns of behaviour and personality in adolescents.

Finally, adolescents whose mothers are employed differ from those whose mothers are not, in several respects. In general, maternal employment during adolescence has quite positive effects on daughters but more mixed or negligible effects on sons, especially in middle-class and professional families (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter 1982 in Steinberg 1993:129).

One especially interesting finding concerns the impact of maternal employment on adolescents' academic performance. Here a number of studies have found that in middle-class and upper-middle-class homes, full time maternal employment during the high school years is associated with lowered school performance among boys, but not among girls (Bronfenbrenner & Crouter in Steinberg 1993:129).

3.3.4 Personality development and family structure

The researcher's view is that there are dramatic changes among western children in their overt behaviour and in the form and quality of the intellectual functioning during their adolescent years.

Kagan (1969:117) postulates that children in western society acquire attributes about intellectual mastery, especially expectancy of success and failure; standards of performance and competence; attitudes about teachers; tendencies for active versus passive behaviour with peers; attitudes toward self; preferences for particular defenses to anxiety; and standards for rational thought and autonomy.

He contends that a major transformation occurring during the pre-school and early school years is the decreasing importance of standards. Because crystallization of major standards, motives, anxieties, expectancies and defences occur during the early school years, this period offers a preview of the personality of the late adolescent and young adult. The bases for dramatic individual differences among adults can be discerned by the time the child is ten years old. At this age motives for affiliation, mastery, hostility and sexuality, as well as for dominance, affection, acceptance and recognition can be seen to exist in different hierarchies in a group of children, and the

standard for sex role behaviour, rational judgements and autonomy of action have been formed.

In addition, Edwards (1969:243) states that the balance of power within the family has continued to shift with fathers yielding parental authority to mothers and taking on some of the nurturant and affectional functions traditionally associated with the maternal role.

Edwards (1969:245) further states that both responsibility and leadership are fostered by the relatively greater salience of the parent of the same sex boys tend to be more responsible when the father rather than the mother is the principal disciplinarian; girls are more dependable when the mother is the major authority figure: in short, boys thrive in a patriarchal context, girls in a matriarchal.

Finally, the absence of the father apparently not only affects the behaviour of the child directly but also influences the mother in the direction of greater over-protectiveness. The effect of both these tendencies is critical for male children; boys from father-absent homes tend to be markedly more submissive and dependent.

3.4 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AT ADOLESCENCE

The researcher believes that while adolescents may move away from their family towards their friends, relationships with their families are important for most adolescents both during adolescence and for the rest of their lives.

Noller and Collan (1991:1) believe that: "Family relationships affect the success with which young people negotiate the major tasks of adolescence, the extent to which they become involved in the problem behaviours generally associated with this time, and their ability to establish meaningful close relationships that are likely to last. The aspects of the family that seem to be particularly important are the encouragement and autonomy and independence, the degree of control desired by parents, the amount of conflict among family members, the closeness of family bonds and the love and support available to adolescents".

Olweus (1980 in Barth 1986:188) concurs with the idea that families with aggressive children often have weak and punitive family-management skills and limited problem-solving and communication skills. Child and caregiven conditions associated

with aggression in boys include the mother's negativism, the mother's permissiveness regarding aggression, the mother's and father's uses of power, and the boy's temperament.

Noack, Hofer and Youniss (1994:190) are however, of the opinion that parent-child relations differ according to the child's age and the culturally defined developmental tasks for the child. The study of these relations during adolescence is especially informative since the relation is organised around the culture - specific transition of adolescents into the adult role and related developmental tasks. Usually in western cultures, achieving identity, autonomy and independence are considered the most important developmental tasks of adolescence.

Parent-child relationships are organized according to the socio-cultural values which serve as one of the main bases for the socialization and development of adolescents. The quality of parent-child relations also affects the way adolescents deal with social change and whether they prefer challenging, opportunities or risks. When the relation between adolescents and their parents is close, traditional patterns of behaviour may be preserved. Alternatively, a loose or conflictive relation between the two generations may promote social change. In this way, the quality of parent-child relations in adolescence may indirectly affect social change; such as when the detachment of adolescents from their parents' values gives rise to more than just an age-related value change. On the other hand, social change may affect the quality of parent-child relations, including more independent or interdependent relations (Noack, Hofer & Youniss 1994:192).

Finally, Thomas, Gecas, Weigert and Rooney (1974:3) contend that it is possible to see what the characteristics of the children will be, who grow up experiencing both parental support and control. They conclude by stating that if a child grows up experiencing high support and high control then he or she will be inclined towards dependency, timidity, rule enforcement, compliance, responsibility, leadership and conscience; and low on aggression creativity and friendliness.

However, if a child experiences low-support and low control, then he or she will show a tendency to quarreling, shyness with peers and self-aggression; and low on adult role-taking.

3.4.1 The family as a system

Family is a word which, unlike *kinship* is much used by the inhabitants of the technologically advanced societies with which most scholars are concerned. It might be thought therefore that confusions might arise from differences between popular and academic uses of the term (Harris 1969:62).

Harris (1969:91) further postulates that it must be recognised that the family is, like all kin groups a divisive structure within the society. In order to explain the nature of the family, arguments were raised that where, in consequence of the performance of activities of rearing, mates and children come to form a social group, this group persists even after its characteristic activities have ceased. It does not persist solely because the persons concerned are recognized as biologically related.

The "functional theory" of the family seeks to explain the existence of the family by showing that it has certain social functions, that is, the performance of activities has certain effects on the other social institutions which go to make up the society (Harris 1969:93).

Smart and Smart (1976:18) contend that a family can be thought of as a complex system, an organization of people who interact with one another and influence one another in many ways. Their communication with one another is very important in their interaction. The family is only one social system, however, and it operates in connection with many other social and non-social systems.

Families are deeply affected by the economic system that determines their level of living and its stability or instability; the occupational system that may dictate where they live, their self-esteem, education systems, religious systems, legal systems, and the health care system that makes for more or less freedom of choice on family limitation, methods of childbirth, and use of hospitals. Families also affect these other social systems through their interaction with them.

To conclude, Smart and Smart (1976:22) are of the opinion that every family is special, even though there is much that can be said about families in general. Since every human being is different in some way from all others, the married pair and their family must be a unique combination. Each family is unique in the expectations of the people in various roles, in its patterns of interaction, its history of development and its relationships with other systems.

3.4.2 The adolescent's parents

Researchers have known for some time that parents play a critical role in their children's academic achievement as well as their socio-emotional development.

Takanish (1993:114-115) contends that a number of studies have documented the relation between parent involvement in their children's education and such family characteristics as family income, parents' educational level, ethnic background, marital status, parents' age and sex, number of children and the parent's working status. The following parent/family characteristics are therefore likely to be important:

- "■ Social and psychological resources available to the parent
- Parents' efficacy beliefs
- Parents' perceptions of their child
- Parents' assumptions about both their role in their children's education and the role of educational achievement for their child
- Parents' attitude toward the school
- Parents' ethnic identity
- Parents' general socialization practices
- Parents' history of involvement in their children's education."

Smart and Smart (1976:237) further postulate that while the adolescent is struggling with the problem of separating him/herself further from his or her parents, alternating between wanting to be close and wanting to be independent, his or her parents suffer too. Even when they realise that the child is ambivalent, and normally so, it is hard to keep trusting and loving, letting him or her make mistakes, neither hanging onto him or her nor pushing him or her out.

Furthermore, there are many problems associated with parenting, and among these, adolescents and their parents may experience major problems, the incomplete or broken family in which one parent probably the mother, rears the child alone. More than a tenth of African children as has been confirmed by numerous studies, are reared in homes in which a parent is missing, either because the parent has not

been married or as a result of separation, divorce or death. If the parent has obligations to the child, he or she also has privileges (Smart & Smart 1976:237).

Williamson (1966:492) postulates that parenthood is possibly the most critical role of a lifetime. The parent usually has to make decisions regarding what he or she should do when his or her child refuses to cooperate, or whatever is considered unlawful or disobedient. The parents' treatment of the child is no doubt more meaningful when the motive underlying the conduct are considered and discussed. The weighing of alternatives is a never-ending process in the discipline of the child. He also maintains that discipline administered in an affection-oriented relationship has a greater prospect of establishing constructive behaviour than in a negative environment in which the child does not feel loved.

In addition, Stinnett and Walters (1977:294) concur with the idea that some children are much easier to bring up than others because they are more placid, less aggressive and are simply more fun. All parents encounter difficulties in raising children, and at times experience frustration. Many parents, unfortunately who are confident in their abilities as parents manage to do a poor job in terms of raising and guiding their adolescents to become productive, happy and fun to be with. Good parents consider the long-range effects of their guidance and concentrate on structuring the environment of their children to insure the production of winners in life.

They further postulate that relations between parents and their children, mainly adolescents, are very important. What a person learns and experiences with respect to interpersonal relationships as a child influences his or her attributes and behaviour later in adult relationships. The attitudes a child develops toward interpersonal relationships are influenced by the quality of relationships with the parents and the degree to which the parent-child relationship fulfills or enhances basic emotional needs.

3.4.3 Changes in family needs and functions

The researcher contends that it is not only individual family members who undergo change during the family's adolescent years, but the family as a whole changes, together with its economic circumstances, its relationship to other social institutions and its functions as well; but what is mostly affected is the financial part or assets of the family. Family finances are likely to be strained during adolescence partly as a result

of the accelerated physical growth during puberty, and considering how costly clothes are, together with the accompanying bits and pieces of the peer culture, for instance, the records, cosmetics, videos and computers.

Steinberg (1993:138) agrees with the notion as he states that financial demands on the family during adolescence require adjustment on the part of the family. He states that in addition to the financial pressures the adolescent's family must cope with the increasing importance of two new contexts in which the young person spends time and invests energy; those being the peer group, and later in a adolescence, the work-place. Families may have a tough time adjusting to the adolescent's increasing interest in neglecting family activities for peer activities.

Important changes in family functions also take place during adolescence. Making the transition from the family functions of childhood to the family functions of adolescence is not necessarily easy, for the shift often upsets the equilibrium established during childhood (Steinberg 1993:138).

Sebald (1984:136) is also of the idea that adolescents are forced to learn to replace old, rigid role matrixes with sensitive personal communication. Learning to act individualistically takes both courage and experience. Learning adequate responses to the liberalized style of human interaction constitutes an immensely difficult task - a task requiring the treatment of each social scene as a situation that presents unique problems and requires unique solutions, mainly from the family as they will also have to assist and cooperate in the adjustment process.

To sum up, it can be stated that from what has been observed from various studies, families really change their functions during the adolescent years of the child or children. Sebald (1984:135-145) outlines that the components of new family lifestyles are basically five in number, and they are

- exiting role and enter individual;
- moving from status ascription to status achievement;
- the law and the young; independence, individualism and isolation;
- the rise of the personality function;
- the question of primary group quality.

3.4.4 Transformations in family relations

The researcher contends that the biological, cognitive and social transitions of adolescence, the changes experienced by adults in midlife, and the changes undergone by the family during this stage in the family life cycle disturb and therefore enhance some transformations in family relationships.

Studies of family interaction suggest that early adolescence may be a time during which young people begin to try to play a more forceful role in the family but when parents may not yet acknowledge the adolescents' input. As a result, young adolescents may interrupt their parents more often but have little impact. By middle adolescence however, teenagers act and are treated much more like adults. They have more influence over family decisions, but they do not need to assert their opinions through interruptions and similarly immature behaviour (Steinberg 1993:139).

Axinn, Hall and Paolucci (1977:15) further contend that how family members interact with one another is shaped not only by the personalities that comprise the family unit but also by the complex set of environments that surround and sustain them. Family members, their external environments as perceived by them, and the web of human transactions carried out through the family organization constitute the basic elements of the family ecosystem.

Finally, Beck (1976:15) outlines the various factors that may lead to transformations in family relations; and these are technological changes, widespread disaffection with the monogamous family pattern. The researcher concludes by stating that parent-child relations are very crucial in the well-being of the child.

3.5 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT

According to the researcher, when parental practices and adolescent development are considered and discussed, it should be noted that parents affect their adolescents' behaviour, and similarly adolescents affect their parents' behaviour.

3.5.1 Family size

Maternal age of marriage may be related to family size and the way an adolescent develops to adulthood. Most middle-class people experience their lowest earning capacity in their earlier years and those who have children during this time will have to bring them up in generally poorer circumstances than those who postpone the birth of their first child (Wadsworth 1979:35).

Furthermore, West (1967 in Wadsworth 1979:41) states that there is general agreement on the fact that families with a large number of children contribute a disproportionately large number of juvenile delinquents, and he further points out that the link between family size and other things show once again how consideration of any one of these social background factors leads to all the rest.

In his study Nye (1958:38) found that for boys' delinquent behaviour is less in small families, and he concluded that difference in family size is probably more closely related to internal and indirect controls than to direct controls.

On the other hand, Stinnett, Walters and Kaye (1984:236) are of the opinion that when a young couple defers to having a family, they are talking about making their own decisions, about how many children to have and when to have them. This freedom to choose when and whether to have children is nowadays possible because of widely known safe and reliable ways to control fertility.

To sum up, it can be stated that Polit-O'Hara and Berman (1984:42) are of the opinion that there is a curious tendency for children in small families to be smarter than those from larger families. They state that it is true that a child from a particular family with five or six children may do better than a child from another family of two or three, on an IQ test. However, when the performance of hundreds or thousands of children is averaged, most invariably those from smaller families do better than those from larger families.

Finally, they state that ability in family size differences do persist regardless of the type of test used. For instance, such tests as IQ tests, aptitude tests, reading and vocabulary tests, mathematics achievement tests, and tests of learning readiness have all yielded the same results: children with fewer siblings do better than those with many.

3.5.2 Parenting styles and their effects

There are a variety of ways to characterise parents' behaviour toward their children. Laycock, Ryan and Warren (1981:71) contend that although society tends to view adolescence as a time of conflict, trauma and problems, these can be handled in such a way as to produce growth, therefore adult fears regarding adolescence may lead to a heightening of a crisis and parent-teen conflict.

De Rosis (1974:129) postulates that there are three general categories of parents: the authoritarian type, the permissive type and the in-between. Each category contains sub-types, for instance, the rigidly inflexible authoritarian; the moderately inflexible authoritarian; the mildly flexible authoritarian, the mildly inflexible authoritarian; the occasionally inflexible authoritarian; the occasionally flexible authoritarian; and the frequently flexible authoritarian.

The in-between parent can be only occasionally authoritarian, and at the other extreme be excessively permissive, while the permissive can be moderately permissive, excessively permissive or occasionally permissive.

In addition, Ells (1995:140) identifies four basic types of parents, being neglectful parents, authoritarian parents, permissive parents and balanced parents. From his point of view, neglectful parents are not involved with the children, so it becomes apparent as to what kind of life the children are exposed to, and what kind of future they are facing. Authoritarian parents on the other hand, have a high need to control their children's behaviour, even at the expense of the children's feelings and this may lead to rebelliousness in children, especially during adolescence.

Permissive parents are emotionally caring but they are overly concerned about wounding children or depriving them of inner fulfillment. The parents place a low priority on controlling children's behaviour and a high priority on taking care of their feelings. This may lead to children whose feelings have always been affirmed but who have problems with boundaries and obedient behaviour.

Balanced parents incorporate the need to control children's behaviour with the need to support and love the children. These parents have rules and requirements but enforce them with love and sensitivity to the needs of the children at the time. A balanced style administers consequences consistently and fairly in what is often called a matter-of-fact style of communication.

Finally, Baumrind (1971, 1976) and Maccoby and Martin (in Louw 1992:352) identify four parenting styles, being the authoritarian parent, the authoritative parent, the permissive parent and the uninvolved parent.

3.5.3 Individuality and attachment in the adolescent's family

The understanding that every family is imperfect needs to be balanced by the realization that every family is also wonderfully unique and complex. Like the squares of a fascinating quilt constructed over the generations, family members contribute in a special way to its distinctiveness (Ells 1995:15).

Hurlock (1975 in Bigner 1979:190) argued that the adolescent state of development is technically divided into two periods, early and late adolescence.

Bigner (1979:190) contends that the adolescent period is characterised by the child's involvement in establishing a sense of identity versus role confusion. The child's attempts to fit together the puzzle of his or her own personal ego integrity coincides with the parents' realization that they too, must begin to recognise the fulfillment of their identities as caregivers and nature individuals. The challenges that confront both parents and child may result in conflicts of varying intensities as each individual experiences his or her own inner conflicts.

Most researchers found out that adolescents appear to do best when they grow up in a family atmosphere that permits the development of individuality against a backdrop of close family ties. In these families conflicts between parents and adolescents play a very important role in the adolescent's social and cognitive development, because individuals are encouraged to express their opinions in an atmosphere that does not risk severing the emotional attachment (Cooper in Steinberg 1993:146).

3.5.4 Adolescents' relationships with siblings

Generally, studies suggest that sibling relationships may have characteristics that set them apart from both other family members relationships and other relationships with peers. In general, adolescents' relations with siblings are different from those with parents or friends.

Smart and Smart (1976:274) contend that each child contributes part of the family environment of every other child. Granted their similarity in heredity and environment it sometimes seems surprising that siblings turn out as differently as they do. The child's position in the family is often thought to be important in shaping his or her personality.

Finally, Plomin and Daniels (in Steinberg 1993:149) indicate that siblings actually do describe their upbringings as very different and that these differences in experiences are related to different patterns of development. In general, better adjusted adolescents are more likely than their siblings to report that their relationship with their mother was close, that their relations with their brothers or sisters were friendly, that they were involved in decision-making and that they were given a high level of responsibility around the house.

3.6 SUMMARY

It has been argued that family relationships constitute a particularly appropriate, although not exclusive, site for the exercise of raising children, especially during the adolescent period.

Family relationships are very important in that they provide contexts through which many locations relating age are given substance and meaning. While there are wider social constructions of age, family relationships provide a context within which these administrative functions are elaborated (Morgan 1996:151).

The following chapter, therefore will deal with how different family structures affect children's performance. Note should be taken that when mentioning performance, reference is made to both academic performance and performance in extra-curricular studies of a particular child from a particular type of family.

Special concentration will also be focussed on how a change in the family structure will affect the performance of a child.

Factors influencing the adolescents' intellectual development and academic performance

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter various factors which contribute to and influence adolescents' intellectual development and academic performance will be discussed. In this case, intellectual development is prioritised because the researcher believes that when investigating adolescents and academic performance, intellectual development cannot be left out because it is a determining factor in performance.

Amongst the various factors which influence intellectual growth and academic performance in adolescents, parents and different family structures will be discussed as the main aim of this study is to determine whether a change in the family structure and academic performance are in any way related, and if so, to what extent.

The researcher hence includes the relationship between adolescents' intellectual growth and academic performance as these can be heavily influenced by parents, as well as the family structure as a whole.

Research emphasizes the aspect of achievement and underachievement. The focus of this chapter is on the achieving process and on the characteristic ways adolescents attempt to reach whatever academic goals they seek to achieve. It is proposed that the styles people use in their efforts to achieve whatever they want to achieve are determined by various factors and environments they are exposed to, for instance, the school, peers, the community and the family.

In addition, it should be noted that the researcher is of the opinion that children acquire knowledge and beliefs about the way in which learning processes are affected by factors such as the characteristics of learners, the nature of study material and the accuracy and appropriateness of learning strategies. The fact, however, is not overlooked that parents and the home situation as a whole are amongst the major factors which may affect learners' academic performance.

According to Mailhoit and Kobasigawa (1997:642), many learning situations involve end products. Consequently, effective learners have been characterized as individuals who initially determine goals of learning and then organise their learning activities by deciding, for instance what materials should be emphasized for studying, what strategies should be used, or what learning goals should be achieved.

The researcher agrees with the above exposition that learners actually presuppose what is best for them in order to achieve the desired end product. Students' learning may be improved when they perceive the purposes of teachers' instructions accurately.

It should thus be noted that students' perceptions of study goals are influenced by various factors. Mailhoit and Kobasigawa (1997:642-643) postulate that subject-specific objectives are directly related to concrete classroom activities, whereas general educational goals are abstract and distant.

4.2 INTELLIGENCE AND INTELLECTUAL GROWTH DURING THE ADOLESCENT PHASE

According to the *Oxford Dictionary* (1994) intelligence is a noun meaning *mental ability; the power of learning and understanding*.

Steinberg (1993:70) proposes a triarchic theory of intelligence. He argues that a thorough assesment of an individual's intellectual capabilities requires that one should look at three distinct, but interrelated types of intelligence, being componen-tial intelligence, which involves our abilities to acquire, store and process informa-tion; experiential intelligence, which involves our ability to use insight and creativity; and contextual intelligence, which involves our ability to think practically. He argues that all individuals have all three types of intelligence, but some individuals are stronger in one respect than in others.

In addition, McCandless (1961:209) postulates that attempts to define intelligence range from stating that "intelligence is what intelligence tests measure" to such definitions as "intelligence is the ability to do abstract thinking".

Some researchers and writers argue that there are many concepts of intelligence or that intelligence comprises a number of pure or "primary" factors, each relatively independent of the others.

Ferguson (1954:98) believes that "ability" or intelligence, as tested by current intelligence tests, consists of correlated types of overlearning. Overlearning, in interaction with an individual's biological heritage, has resulted in separate abilities, which when grouped, are called intelligence.

Ferguson (1954:99) therefore postulates that "presumably, children reared in different environments, which demand different types of learning at different ages develop different patterns of ability".

Furthermore, McCandless (1961:220) is of the opinion that there is scattered evidence in literature that children of average and near-average verbal intelligence quotient (IQ), whose performance test quotients are much higher, may have reading difficulties more often than would be suspected from their verbal IQ alone. Children from lower-class homes are likely to have verbal quotients equal to or lower than performance quotients, whereas the opposite is true for children from middle-class homes. There is also evidence to indicate that delinquents are likely to have performance quotients higher than verbal quotients.

Cognitive psychology is the branch of psychology, concerned with how people think, learn, and remember. The ability to think, learn and remember, is in turn related to the concept of intelligence. Intelligence is not a unitary concept, it comprises several intellectual abilities that are related to one another but yet somehow different (Halpen 1986:5).

In addition, Elkind (1974:99-104) contends that the majority of adolescent experiences can only be fully understood within the context of the new mental capacities and in the context of the new affective transformations which have been described by other adolescents. Our knowledge about the cognitive structure of adolescents is based on the work of Piaget and Inhelder. In their work on adolescent thinking, they identify ways in which the thought of the adolescent differs from that of the child.

Piaget and Inhelder (in Elkind 1974:99-104) state that in the first place, the adolescent is capable of combinational logic and can deal with problems in which many factors operate simultaneously. Secondly, adolescents have the ability to utilize a second symbol system, that is, a set of symbols for symbols.

Thirdly, adolescents have the capability or capacity to construct ideals, or contrary-to-fact situations. The capacity to deal with the possible as well as the actual liberates the adolescent's thought so that he can now deal with many problem situations in which the child is prevented from accomplishing. In addition to expanding the adolescents' adaptive potentials, these aspects of adolescent thinking also pave the way for new experiences and reactions unknown to childhood. These experiences, for which the new cognitive structures of adolescence are necessary prerequisites will be considered.

The researcher believes that different influences on the adolescent's intellectual development and academic performance would be understood better if the different phases of cognitive development, based on Piaget's theory are investigated.

Sigel (1990:78) is of the opinion that development is a process of ongoing qualitative change, or transformations proceeding in a progressive, orderly manner. Development proceeds with various systems, biological and psychological. These systematic changes are interdependent. There is a synergistic quality to the transformation so that while the child does not change in one system, the system changes.

Therefore, the task at hand is to explain how this constructive development takes place in the young adolescent. Piaget describes general development from birth to adulthood and proposes that all humans develop cognitively through a series of stages, with each stage necessary for the development of subsequent stages.

Piaget's theory also describes the factors that are necessary for development to occur: physical maturation, physical experience, social transmission, and equilibration.

Havering (1995:113) states that the first of the stages is the sensorimotor, which lasts from birth to about two years of age; next is the preoperational stage lasting from two to approximately seven years of age; following this is the concrete operational stage from seven to around twelve years of age; finally, the formal operational stage ranges from twelve years of age and up. The ages listed are approximations, and

not everyone in those age ranges will be able to demonstrate thinking processes associated with a given stage. At each stage, there are characteristic types of cognitive processes that are typical for an individual who is able to use them.

Piaget's four developmental stages will be outlined and explained as they have been described by Gross (1985:32-41).

■ *THE SENSORIMOTOR PERIOD*

This stage is characterized by a progressive integration of motor and perceptual schemes, which culminate in a more objective understanding of one's self and surroundings. This period has six substages; and in the first substage (0-2 months), an infant's behaviour is governed primarily by reflexes rooted in his or her genetic structure. During the second substage (2-4 months), infants' behaviour is increasingly less reflective as it is modified through experience. These changes involve the incorporation of novel body movements into pre-existing reflex schemes - the behaviour patterns can be characterized as habits.

During the third substage it is postulated that as infants grow, they become more active and mobile; they extend the range of things and events they experience. During this stage (4-10 months), infants develop a new kind of habit pattern referred to as secondary circular reactions connoting a shift towards the reproduction of activities involving objects.

In the fourth substage (10-12 months) greater refinement and coordination occur in infants' secondary schemes. The coordination of these behaviour patterns produces systematic, goal oriented behaviour. Infants at this stage initiate behaviours that lead to specific goals. This behaviour reveals for the first time practical intelligence.

In the fifth substage (12-18 months), infants show a growing curiosity and expansion of knowledge about the nature and property of objects. Behaviour is initiated to discover new properties of objects; these behaviour patterns are referred to as tertiary circular reactions. Infants develop new schemes for assimilating objects into action schemes.

The final substage of sensorimotor development represents the culmination of the first five substages and marks a transition into the next stage of cognitive develop-

ment. Prior to this substage, infants could discover new relationships, but these relationships are discovered through direct perception and active manipulation of objects.

■ *THE PRE-OPERATIONAL PERIOD*

The advent of the pre-operational period (2-7 years) reflects a remarkable intellectual advance. The pre-operational child has the ability to represent and consequently, the ability to manipulate and act upon things in their absence. The representational ability is increasingly symbolic and it is a consequence of what Piaget calls semiotic function - the ability to use symbols or signifiers.

Despite the appearance of semiotic function the pre-operational child's intellectual ability is limited. For instance, children at this stage are unable to conserve or to realize that the composition of an object does not change as a function of superficial changes in its appearance. Children's thought at this stage is characterized by their inability to decenter, and an attention to states rather than transformations leading to states. A final limitation on pre-operational children's thought is egocentricity. Young children operate as if they are unaware that others may see something differently than they. Whereas they are capable of symbolic representation, these children's intellectual structure doesn't reflect a knowledge about fundamental relationships existing in the world.

■ *THE PERIOD OF CONCRETE OPERATIONAL THOUGHT*

The period of concrete operational thought ranges from seven to twelve years to adulthood, Piaget and Inhelder (1958) believe that their intellectual structure allows them to reason in an almost scientific manner. During this period, adolescents are able to reason about things encountered in the real world, but this reasoning is often unsystematic and incomplete. Thought becomes characterized by an expanded set of rules that allows the individual to manipulate elements and operations so that all possible solutions to problems can be considered. Systematic tests can be constructed to evaluate hypotheses and the results can be evaluated in such a manner that conclusions drawn are true. These skills reflect the acquisition of an expanded set of logical operations that are more logical than mathematical in nature, that is, reasoning takes

on the form of propositional logic rather than the mathematical quality that characterized operations during the concrete operational thought.

It can be stated that Piaget's theory of cognitive development emphasizes the role of both maturation and learning. In order for children to develop, they must have the opportunity to interact with the environment, because it is through this interaction that they construct knowledge about reality.

The stage of formal operational thought is very crucial in this study as adolescents are the core characters this research is based upon. It is therefore essential to highlight the characteristics of adolescents as regards cognitive development as it is a base for academic performance. That is, one cannot fully understand academic performance of adolescents without first looking into the period of formal operational thought.

In addition, psychological and cognitive growths are just as dramatic as physical growth at the beginning of adolescence. Between the ages of twelve and fourteen average thought processes are reorganised on a higher level, making the adolescent different from the school-age child. The new level of thinking, formal thought, is not the automatic result of accumulated years any more than the transition from sensorimotor to pre-operational intelligence is automatic. An adolescent's achievements depend upon her/his own resources and what the environment offers. Some adolescents therefore, go further than others in building and using the structures of formal thought - some individuals never achieve formal thought (Smart & Smart 1973:69-70).

Smart and Smart (1973:90) further contend that there is a widespread belief that by mid-adolescence, thinking is more a function of the particular school-subject than of more general thought processes and psychological changes. But thinking is an interaction between pupil and subject and the adolescent has not ceased to be a pupil.

To conclude, it should be noted that the researcher is of the belief that the main change in adolescent thinking is the use of imagined explanations carrying with it the capacity to manipulate and eliminate possibilities and adolescent thinking is to some extent educable - but its effect is limited. What results from learning various school subjects is not merely data collection, but the power to think in the way inherent in these disciplines so that later, although the theories, laws or changes are partly, or

almost wholly forgotten, they can be resuscitated and used in the proper manner and in the new circumstance fresh information and problems be dealt with constructively.

4.3 ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND ACHIEVEMENT

Smith (in Spence 1983:12) defines *achievement* as a task oriented behaviour that allows the individual's performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion that involves the individual in competing with others, or that otherwise involves some standard of excellence.

This definition is composed of activities occurring in settings in which there are generally agreed upon standards by which to judge the quality of performance and in which evaluation of the performer usually occurs.

It also permits either the participating individual or an outside agency to specify whether the individual's performance is being evaluated according to some standard of excellence as well as to designate what that standard is.

Spence (1983:115-116) further contends that many theorists have suggested the important contributions of both parents and teachers to individual differences in children's concepts of their abilities, perceptions of task difficulty, expectancies and values. Role modelling, parent and teacher expectations and the shaping of activities through reinforcement and the provision of toys, clothes and other experiences, have emerged with some regularity in developmental research.

Lacey (in Banks & Finlayson 1973:3) postulates that achievement is a process involving what is termed polarization and differentiation. Differentiation is identified as the separation and ranking of students, largely carried out by teachers in the course of their normal duties, in accordance with the academically orientated value system of the school. Polarization, on the other hand, takes place within the student body, although it is affected by the process of differentiation. For instance, a boy who does badly academically is predisposed to reject the system which has placed him in an inferior position, and in extreme situations, an anti-school culture may develop. On the whole therefore, the highly complex and dynamic pattern of relationships which underlies differences in school achievement is inadequately described and little understood.

Literature on achievement has documented the importance of parents' and teachers' expectations and attitudes in shaping students' self-concepts and general expectancies of success. Various studies have shown that students for whom teachers and parents have high expectations also have high expectations for themselves and in fact do better in their course work. It seems reasonable therefore, that this effect is mediated in part, by students' perceptions of their parents' and teachers' expectations.

Sergiovanni (1990:110) further postulates that empowerment, enablement and enhancement need to be expanded to include parents in the governance and process of schooling so as to enhance performance. Parents must be invited to participate - schools need to help them participate by removing obstacles and showing them how. If meaningful parent participation is achieved, the process of schooling improves and this improvement enhances the roles of principals, teachers and parents. Enhanced roles means all three groups will feel better about themselves and have a greater sense of efficacy, conditions that lead to increased commitment and better results from the pupils.

According to the researcher's opinion of more value is the influence of the parents on the adolescents' performance. Parents influence their children's achievement in two ways: through their roles as models and through their roles as expectancy and value socializers. Spence (1983:127) states that important models, especially parents, exhibit behaviours that children come to initiate and later adopt as part of their own behavioural repertoires. If mothers exhibit different behaviour patterns than fathers, then it has been argued females and males will acquire sex-differentiated behavioural patterns.

4.4 MAIN FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT'S INTELLIGENCE AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

The researcher is of the opinion that educational achievement is usually defined in one of three ways: the grades students earn at school; their performance on standardized tests of academic achievement, or the number of years of school completion - which is usually referred to as educational attainment. In contemporary society, achievement is a lifelong concern. Educational institutions stress performance, competition, and success on tests of knowledge and ability. Achievement during adolescent years, merits special attention for several reasons, for instance, the fact that

there are various factors which are linked to adolescence which may influence achievement.

There are several factors influencing adolescents' achievement, such as environmental factors, factors in the home, factors at school, and factors in the adolescent himself which will be discussed in the following sections.

4.4.1 Factors in the adolescent himself/herself

The adolescent may be influenced by various factors in his/her achievement. Factors within the adolescent may range from a negative attitude towards the school or study to neurological problems such as learning disabilities and epilepsy.

4.4.1.1 POOR STUDY METHODS

According to the researcher, poor study methods involve anything from truancy to lack of interest in one's studies. Lindsay (1983:182) states that it is a fact that there are children who habitually stay away from school and this has attracted considerable attention in both the mass media and academic literature. Many of these accounts give the impression that non-attendance can be satisfactorily explained in simplistic terms and that strategies for dealing with the problem follow logically from such explanations. A significant minority of pupils who are supposed to be attending school do not do so. Some might stop attending altogether, others attend on certain days, or for certain subjects, while others have the days off.

The researcher believes that in some instances the reasons for the above-mentioned occurrences may be ones such as a particular student not liking a particular teacher, or has a lot of "other" activities apart from school - for example clubs or associations. In this case, more time may be spent on other or extra-curricular activities than on school work. A balance is not created, hence school-work may deteriorate or suffer drastically.

4.4.1.2 *NEGATIVE ATTITUDE TOWARDS STUDY*

A student's attitude can become either negative or positive as a result of various factors. By a negative attitude, the researcher particularly refers to lack of interest in school work. Sometimes lack of motivation may cause a negative attitude towards study.

Brimer, Madows, Chapman, Kellaghan and Wood (1978:199) state that it is obvious clear that heritable factors together with formative influences of early rearing exercise substantial effects upon learning readiness before the child ever enters school. Such effects pre-dispose the interaction of the child with schools to a degree which the school under present conditions, seems to have only limited powers to modify.

The above statement implies that the school will have difficulty in motivating the child if the child has not been motivated from the on-set-from the home.

However, Brimer *et al.* (1978:200) state that most teachers and schools accept a principle of equality of concern for all pupils. This does not mean, however, that identical components of school-based resources are available to each child. Each school will provide different treatments for children who appear different in their readiness for learning and such differences in treatment are continued to be judged necessary at successive decision points in the school system.

The researcher believes that this problem of lack of interest or a negative attitude can be rectified by providing motivation to students, by both the school and the family. The school can provide motivation by activities such as achievement competitions, while the parents should show interest in their child's work and try to help where problems are encountered.

4.4.1.3 *HEALTH PROBLEMS AND MALNUTRITION*

Health problems may be anything from minor illnesses to chronic illnesses such as cancer; and these can influence an adolescent's performance or achievement.

Schiefelbein and Simmons (1981:28) contend that malnutrition, body weight or height and health are significant predictors of standard scores of a study they carried out. This finding provides strong support for experiments to raise health levels as a

form of vocational investment. Nutrition and health correlate highly with achievement.

The researcher believes that it becomes apparent that a student who is malnourished cannot cope with the activities of the school, and can therefore not perform well in his/her studies. Because of malnutrition or health problems in some cases, a student may sometimes miss classes or be absent from school for periods ranging from a day to even a year. In this case, it becomes apparent that the performance of such a student will be seriously hampered.

4.4.1.4 *POOR SELF-CONCEPT*

According to the researcher, a student or an adolescent with a poor self-concept will not perform well at school because he/she is consistently insecure whether he/she is doing the right thing. This results from the fact that poor self-concept is related to feelings of insecurity or inferiority.

Because of these, the child may even encounter certain social problems because of insecurity.

To conclude, the researcher contends that parents are also to blame for some factors like bad or poor attendance, although the blame is always put on the children. This refers to those who habitually permit their children to remain at home or cover up for them when they skip school.

It is also apparent that a malnourished or sick student cannot do well at school. It is also the duty of the parents to ensure that a student is attending school well and not playing truant. Finally, a negative attitude towards study can be improved by parents' encouragement and involvement.

4.4.2 **Environmental factors**

Environmental factors refer to those factors outside both the home and the school. These factors may be drugs, alcohol and adolescent sex amongst others. These can highly affect the adolescent's performance as they interfere with the adolescent's cognitive abilities or mental capability and reasoning.

4.4.2.1 DRUGS AND ALCOHOL

In addition to being a time of profound physical change, adolescence is also a time when cognitive functioning goes through dramatic changes. The most widely recognized change is the appearance of formal operational thought where concrete operational thought once prevailed. This increase in the ability to think abstractly allows adolescents to reflect on and make independent judgements about their experience. Egocentrism is also prevalent at this stage, and this self-centeredness contributes to extreme self-consciousness. Most adolescents resolve this through painful and uncomfortable experiences. Others turn to alcohol or drugs to alleviate tension and stress. Using chemical substances in this way is harmful because it keeps the adolescent from actually resolving the conflict. The use of drugs provides an experience in which adolescents can artificially achieve intellectual abstraction. In addition, the adolescent who moves into a heavy pattern of drug use usually not attending school, or attending while high misses the academic structure which is designed to stimulate the development of abstract thought. This further compounds the problem (Jaynes & Rugg 1988:32-33).

4.4.2.2 FRIENDS AND PEERS

During adolescence, children tend to get out of the parental "shell" and seek security, company and comfort from peers. It has also been stated by various authors like Harper (1978) that peers influence the individual's self-concept and academic achievement.

Belsky, Lerner and Spanier (1984:83) also support the idea that peers influence adolescents' aspirations and educational performance, and in most cases, there is convergence between family and peer influences. Kardel and Lesser (in Belsky *et al.* 1984:83) observed that when adolescent peer relations are characterized by closeness and intimacy, there is a great deal of correspondence between the educational aspirations of the peers of the adolescent. Importantly, most adolescent's educational plans agreed with parents and peers.

In addition, Shaw and Alves (in Harper 1978:47) found that students who have a higher social status among their peers view themselves to be more emotionally well adjusted. He further stated that the underachieving student sees himself as less capa-

ble, less worthy and less adequate than his more successful peers. Since these adolescents view themselves and their abilities in a negative manner, they usually fail to achieve good grades as they lack motivation.

With respect to peer relations, Harper (1978:46) found that underachievers were selected significantly less often by their peers than were achievers. This attitude on the achievers went to an extent of not even playing with the underachievers. The consequence of underachievers all having to work together may intensify their academic difficulty and it is hypothesized to further increase their relating to peers.

On the other hand, the opinion that parental influence decreases during adolescence, and that the parents' values are unacceptable to the peer group is not necessarily correct. Similarities in social, economic, religious and educational characteristics will ensure that the values of the parents and those of the peer group are more or less the same. Adolescents also tend to choose friends with parents whose values are similar to those of their parents.

The peer group will, for example, have greater influence on issues like relationships with the opposite sex and clothing, and the parents will have greater influence on basic moral and social issues. The influence and importance of parents and friends are therefore complementary rather than conflicting. Other variables such as personality, maturity and family relationships will also determine who has the greater influence concerning peers and parents. Slavish conformity to the peer group is often the result of too little attention and interest given at home and also lack of parental warmth and understanding (Coleman 1980, Mussen *et al.* in Louw 1992:424).

It is apparent therefore that the adolescent's friends and peers can have a distinct influence on the achievement of the adolescent; and it should be noted that this influence may either be negative or positive.

Finally, it can be stated that peer groups play a more prominent role in adolescents' lives today than at any other time in history and they play a vital and needed role in the socialization of adolescents for adulthood.

4.4.2.3 *ETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT*

Among the most controversial findings in research on adolescent achievement are those concerning ethnic differences in school success.

It has been noted that adolescents who believe that intelligence is malleable are more likely to be intrinsically motivated, mastery oriented and as a consequence, academically successful. It is therefore interesting to note that Asian cultures tend to place more emphasis on effort than on ability in explaining school success and are more likely to believe that all students have the capacity to succeed (Hollowy in Steinberg 1993:404).

Another explanation for ethnic differences in performance, is that teachers and parents in Asian communities are more likely to socialize adolescents into believing that their success is in their own hands, whereas parents and teachers in black and other communities are more likely to communicate the message that although education is important, there is little that minority individuals can do to succeed within a discriminatory society (Mickelson in Steinberg 1993:404).

The researcher is of the opinion that over the years people have become ever more aware that children's experience of school life is very diverse, and a growing body of educational research has been concerned with exploring that experience. Ethnography has been the main research approach employed for this because it is well-suited to the task as a result of its open-ended orientation and concern with detailed investigation of diverse perspectives and of the complexities of human social interaction.

It should also be noted that students can suffer ethnic consequences in education, sometimes by what can be referred to as teacher-typification of the students. In most societies, there is a tendency for white students to be seen by teachers as technically of high ability and socially as conformist. In contrast, black students usually tend to be seen as of low ability and with potential discipline problems.

One way in which attitudes towards categorization of black pupils was fostered was through "informal gossip among staff", as Hargreaves (in Woods & Hammersely 1993:196) describes it. Many teachers jump to conclusions about pupils before they have even come into contact with them and broken through the pupils' resentment.

Hargreaves in his study, suggests that pupils with positive orientations towards school values largely converge in the higher streams, whereas those with negative orientations converge largely in the lower streams. He found that pupils in the lower streams were deprived of status and subsequently developed an anti-school culture which was used to gain status.

Wright (in Woods & Hammersely 1993:220) maintains that Afro-Caribbean and black students in the two schools in which she carried out her research, developed antagonistic views towards school in response to their teachers' hostility and unfair treatment - that the conflictual nature of the relationship between teachers and those students derives primarily from the teachers' negative treatment, and hence highly affecting the students' performance.

Finally it is important to note that these ethnic differences of "conflicts" do not take place only in schools, but in the community as well. Children's academic achievement may not be influenced only by factors within the school, but also in the family, community and "peer society".

Ramsay (1984:258) indicates that historically, the idea of equality in relation to education has undergone change. The initial reaction to minority under-achievement is in terms of a theory of cultural deprivation, in which the minority culture, its institutions, values and lifestyle, are blamed for the failure of its children in schools. Equality of opportunity under such a theory is seen as equality of educational outcomes in order to gain equality of access to political and economic institutions.

White (in Ramsay 1984:258) states: "Equality of cultural status has been added to the concern for political and economic equality. The shift is from outcomes and attendances per se, and from scrutiny of the socio-economic correlates of unequal achievement to consideration of cultural differences and attention to the cultural relevance of curriculum and pedagogy."

4.4.3 Factors in the school

The researcher indicates that when talking about the school, various factors within the school are taken into consideration. In the first place, when talking of schools, teachers are simultaneously being referred to.

The teacher is very important in the education of a child because without the teacher, it is almost impossible for a child to attain any knowledge. In didactics, it is stated that the didactic activities, which are teaching, being taught and learning are indivisible. The didactic situation, on the other hand, is when the activities are put into action. The situation comprises the educator, the educand and content, and it can be diagrammatically presented as follows:

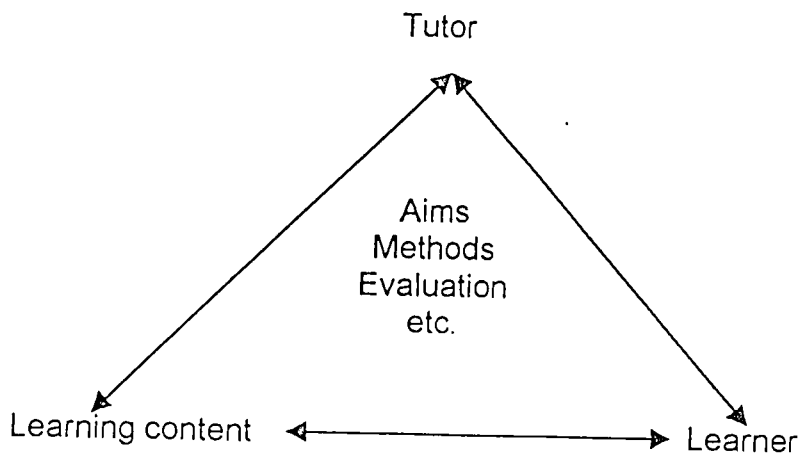


Figure 4.1: The didactic situation

Avenant (1990:52) expresses the opinion that there are literally hundreds of characteristics of a good teacher and good teaching which can highly influence a student's performance. He claims that the University of Stellenbosch has designed a didactic system of thought which makes provision for all those criteria to which a good teacher, good subject-matter and a good lesson must answer. According to the system, education must satisfy the following ten requirements in order to yield satisfactory results.

- *Purposefulness*: This principle in education implies that both the teacher and pupils must know precisely what they want to do or achieve, and not to wonder aimlessly.
- *Planning*: This entails thorough planning and systematic presentation of the learning content.

- ▣ *Pupil self-activity*: Pupils must form their own concepts through self-assertion, perception, comparison and selection. Pupils must be given a chance to carry out activities by themselves.
- ▣ *Integration*: Good teaching is characterized by an actual striving by the teacher to make his pupils perceive relationships by comparing and sorting, to integrate new subject-matter into their already existing conceptual structures, and thus to progress from the concrete to the abstract, or from the known to the unknown.
- ▣ *Experience*: The teacher must present the subject-matter in a concrete, visible and real manner so that his/her pupils can group and experience it.
- ▣ *Motivation*: Education must be tuned to motivate the pupils to co-operation, interest and enthusiasm, so as to enhance learning.
- ▣ *Socialisation*: The teacher must purposefully take steps to create a social climate in which learning can flourish, for instance, group work, competitions and debates.
- ▣ *Individualisation*: Since every pupil is unique, the teacher must take individual differences into account and adjust his own teaching so that each pupil may achieve to the maximum of his particular potential.
- ▣ *Evaluation*: It is regarded as a basic requirement for good teaching as it is done in order to determine whether the goals set have been attained.
- ▣ *Mastering*: It is assumed that once the teacher has explained the work to his/her pupils, he/she will take steps to ensure mastery by giving exercises, homework, revision and other ways of enhancing learning.

The reason why these didactic principles have been outlined is to indicate that a student's achievement can be hindered by factors mainly related to the teacher and the classroom situation.

Bukatko and Daehler (in Zibi 1995:31) state that students achieve unsatisfactorily when they are targets of frequent criticism or ridicule from the teacher. Unsympathetic criticism or merely ignoring the child are extremely harmful to the child's self-

concept; this attitude from the teacher creates psychological stress, which hinders the child's learning. It has also been found out that schools in which students received frequent praise and providing a pleasant, comfortable environment had children who were more likely to complete school and achieve satisfactorily.

An example of such schools which have a record of outstanding academic results in Lesotho, is the St. Stephen's High School in the Mophale's Hoek district where students are continually being rewarded for their work in the form of competitions - for example, there are "awards" which are called "stars" and these are awarded for good performance in daily work. There is also a prize-giving day when students with outstanding performance are awarded prizes, as well as those students who have accumulated the highest numbers of stars in their classes.

These can be described as incentives which are used to motivate students, as teachers play a major role in fostering a sense of mastery in academic achievement. When children do well, teachers can further promote a mastery orientation and build a greater sense of security about student competencies by rewarding stable, inner qualities, such as ability, as they encourage children's efforts.

Mwamwenda (1989:209) postulates that a positive teacher-pupil relationship will facilitate effective teaching and learning. He further warns teachers against paying more attention to pupils with whom they feel comfortable and have much in common. It has also been reported that children who are more involved and motivated in school and have warm and supportive teachers tend to do better in school.

More recently discipline has been viewed again as a serious problem. Stern, harsh discipline, was characteristic of much formal schooling in the past, however, that is now changing as the law is also against harsh punishment like corporal punishment. Although rules might be developed, it is wiser to have as few rules as possible: those that clearly contribute to educational objectives should be retained and others eliminated. It is better to state rules positively rather than negatively (i.e. what is to be done, and not what not to do). Above all, rules need to be enforced promptly and fairly, thus teachers should not make idle threats, nor should they fail to act on infractions (Rich 1982:59).

Another factor that can influence students' achievement is lack of classroom accommodation. This will result in congestion and a tense classroom atmosphere is not

conducive to learning and satisfactory achievement. The researcher cautions that the same consequences are encountered where there is a high pupil-teacher ratio, as this will result in a lack of individual attention.

Finally, poor facilities in schools usually lead to wrong methods of teaching. Most under-developed countries have poor facilities for education in comparison to developed or first world countries - the Kingdom of Lesotho is no exception. The poorer the facilities the poorer the quality of education, the poorer the results and the greater the number of drop-outs.

In some schools in Lesotho, mainly rural schools, there are pupils who have gone through the primary school phase without ever seeing a beaker or a thermometer, students who do science subjects in schools without laboratories, and those who have gone from standard six to standard ten never having seen a microscope or performed an experiment. There are schools with no libraries, thus providing no facilities for individual assignments of a meaningful nature and no reference beyond the textbook.

It is apparent therefore that from such situations the level of achievement will be greatly affected mainly because of the situation that is prevailing, which is really unavoidable to both student and teacher.

4.4.4 Factors in the home

The home is the most powerful factor that determines students' scholastic achievement. Family environments are likely to encourage favourable responses to school and good performance (Masilela 1988:12).

Harper (1978 in Zibi 1995:25) notes that the intimate interaction within the home significantly influences the personalities of the children, and this relationship is regarded as the primary source of achievement motivation. The importance of this relationship extends beyond childhood and into adolescence. It has been further noted that home environment is very important since children spend at most only nine per cent of their time at school.

Benbow, Arjmand and Walberg (in Zibi 1995:26) concur with the idea that the quality of the home environment appears to be a potent predictor of later educational

aspirations in that the family focuses and mobilizes the individual and provides a nurturing environment.

Researchers have focussed on three ways in which the adolescent's home may influence his or her level of achievement. Firstly, studies have shown that authoritative parenting is linked to school success during adolescence. In one recent study, it has been demonstrated that adolescents whose parents were authoritative consistently performed better in school than their peers whose parents were permissive or autocratic. Interestingly, the poorest performance was observed among adolescents whose parents were inconsistent in their child rearing.

A second way in which the home influences adolescent achievement is through parents' encouragement. Studies have shown that adolescents' achievement is directly related to the level of achievement their parents expect them to attain.

Lastly, studies have also shown that the quality of an adolescent's home environment strongly correlates with the student's level of academic achievement rather than with the quality of the physical facilities of the school they attend, the background and training of teachers or the level of teacher salaries paid by the school district (Steinberg 1993:398-399).

Campion (1985:57) indicates that most models of the parent-psychologist relationship appear to be based on the assumption that the child's unsatisfactory or immature behaviour, or his/her learning difficulties, are a facet of his/her personality and intellect. Family therapists on the other hand, hold the view that the behaviour of an individual can never be considered in isolation and without reference to the behaviour and attitudes of other family members; they also suggest that past events have a powerful effect on the present behaviour of family members. In the case of children, the focus is never on the child alone or on his/her condition or behaviour, but always on the actions and interactions of all members of the child's family, and on the shared life-experiences of family members.

From the above exposition, the researcher concludes that the home apparently influence an adolescent's academic achievement. Almost everything one does is usually affected and influenced by his or her home environment.

In addition, Burgess (1976:153) concurs with the idea that each child reacts to school in his/her own individual way. Each needs something slightly different from

his parents by way of support at home. Children require basic general support from the school such as consistent treatment, regular habits, sensible priorities and, above all, facilities for doing what they want. Parents need these things too and if they can arrange it for themselves and their children, and to treat their children as individuals, they will find that it helps at school and that the children will be nicer to live with.

Finally, Haldone and McCluskey (1982 in Campion 1985:93) suggest that families tend to be trapped in repetitive patterns of behaviour and relationships which maintain the status quo and inhibit development, maturation and individualization and that individuals in the family may find it impossible to cry out and be heard except in ways which are experienced by them and others as potentially destructive. In such cases, it therefore becomes apparent that academic achievement will be highly and seriously affected.

4.4.5 Factors related to the family

Although children start their academic career at about age six, the family remains the dominant factor of influence in their lives for quite some time. There is no doubt that in South Africa or Lesotho and many other countries, the family has undergone a series of profound changes during the past century, which highly influence adolescents and their performance. Rising divorce rates, increases in maternal employment, and accelerating geographic mobility have dramatically altered the world in which children and adolescents grow up.

The role of the family in education has been illustrated by Brown (1980:537) who points out that changes in family circumstances from traditional two-parent families to single-parent families or even from single-parent families to two-parent families is so rapid that the reality of low performance by increasing numbers of affected students is ever present at schools.

George and Wilding (s.a.) point out that there is evidence that children of atypical families, including one-parent families, do not achieve as well in school work as those from two-parent or intact families.

The importance of the family in the life of a person is apparent because from the afore-mentioned statements, it has become clear that the structure, function, size and

relationships in the family can seriously determine and influence academic performance.

4.4.5.1 *THE ADOLESCENT'S PARENTS*

When guiding the child to adulthood, the role of the parents should not be neglected. The researcher is of the opinion that in most cases, parents' home conditions and pre-primary school life will determine what the life of the child at school as well as later on. It is thus essential that contact should be established between parents and the school.

Sihlezana (1994:30) agrees with Masilela (1988:7) that the parents' educational level is related to their children's school achievement. Masilela (1988:7) states that pupils from educated families are more likely to be successful at school than children whose parents are uneducated. Parental education has a significant effect on parents' educational expectations of their children and students' aspirations.

Hossler and Stage (1992 in Zibi 1995:27) state that some studies revealed the relationship between parental expectations and the educational aspirations of high school students. They emphasize that parental support positively correlates with academic achievement.

Diane Baumrind (1972 in Clark 1983:197) concludes that strong parental support and control, when that control is internalized and based on reasoning and accompanied by a child's sense of power, result in satisfactory academic achievement.

Finally, parents may exercise authority in various ways but still not have ultimate authority. This is evident in so far as the state can intervene, and where necessary, remove the child temporarily or permanently from the parental home because of neglect or abuse (Rich 1982:100).

4.4.5.2 *PARENTAL ATTITUDES*

There is a statutory requirement to ensure the child's presence at school, and in order to carry out this efficiently, parents must have a positive opinion towards the school so as to provide motivation and encouragement to the child.

This again can be linked with parental involvement in education. Lindsay (s.a.) in her research project, indicates that considering parental contacts with all members of staff, a third of these was devoted to the subject of attendance, and in particular bad attendance and truancy. Since non-attendance is only one symptom of maladjustment to school, the high incidence of occasions of dealing with this problem must be seen partly as a function of its status according to the law. Possibly the parents' statutory obligation and school prompts them both to overcome difficulties which might otherwise inhibit contact.

In addition, there is perhaps a tendency to assume that parents are both able and willing to co-operate with teachers, simply because they say they want to help. The desire to help must be almost universal among parents who see their children in need of assistance. It cannot, however, necessarily be assumed that this desire can always be usefully and effectively channelled to the child's benefit. Applying certain techniques to assist their children in their school work on a regular basis can place a burden on parents who have a negative attitude towards education and already have other worries such as financial or personal burdens (Campion 1985:37).

Furthermore, if schools are influenced by parental decisions and attitudes, parents are, in turn, influenced by a number of surrounding factors. They do not act free of constraints, but if anything is a constraint, it is only because parents interpret it in such a way as they are influenced by their attitudes towards the school and their children's academic achievement (De V. Graaff & Lawrence 1986:27).

McClelland (1955 in Rosen 1961:48) considers independence training as the single most important area of child-rearing to affecting the development of the achievement motive. His basis for this hypothesis is that motives and values in the individual arise within the family setting, and those families which stress "competition with standards of excellence" or which insist "that the child be able to perform certain tasks well by himself" should produce children with high achievement motivation.

On the other hand, if the parents do not set high standards of excellence, or do not permit a child to compete, then he/she will not have the affective experiences associated with meeting, failure or meeting achievement standards which produce achievement motive. In terms of McClelland's hypothesis, one would expect that achievement will be low in homes characterised by overt demonstration of affection

or by extreme rejection, as these traits have the effects of increasing dependency, and hence decreasing academic achievement.

Shaeffer (1992:95) further contends that the supporting factors of success in developing parents' participation are good management of financial administration and positive activities from the school.

To sum up, it can be stated that Shaeffer (1992:109) suggests that schools are not the only places which provide conditions or situations for teaching and learning to occur; homes and communities equally help in this process. Professionally trained teachers in schools, parents and community members outside schools influence the learning process. While differences in the levels of attainment are evident, all three settings have a common purpose in making the learners acquire the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that help them develop into productive members of the family, community and society.

Roddy (1984 in Molebatsi 1992:25) notes that because working parents, especially women, usually head single-parent families, it is assumed that their children suffer the doubly harmful effects of the loss of one parent and lack of attention from the other. If adequate provisions are made for child care and maintenance of household routines, maternal employment may have no adverse effects on children. The researcher therefore maintains that negative parental attitudes towards their children, the school and lack of attention highly contribute to bad academic performance in children.

To elaborate further on parental attitudes, various factors will be discussed which further highlight the relationship between parental attitudes and academic performance, such as parenting and different parenting styles which have various influences on the academic performance of pupils.

■ *Parenting and performance*

It has been viewed that parents and teachers are in a much better position to see what children need, and that more power should be given to each local community. However, once their children are at school, some parents sometimes feel that the family is in the grip of "the system and that their influence over it is less than they would like" (Partington & Wragg 1989:4, 14).

Partington and Wragg (1989:27) further contend that parents have a right to see that the curriculum is implemented, although circumstances might make it virtually impossible to guarantee it. Usually secondary schools offer various subject choices, although schools with shortages of staff have a more limited choice. Usually schools will do their best to comply with parents' requests, but sometimes there are limitations.

The researcher's basic contention is that the family's main contribution to a child's success at school is made through parents' dispositions and interpersonal relationships with the child in the household. Children receive essential knowledge for competent classroom participation and achievement from their exposure to positive home attitudes and communication encounters. The researcher is interested in the way in which the knowledge is organised and passed on to adolescents through home interaction. A family's ability to equip its young members with survival and knowledge is determined by the parents' own upbringing, their past relationships and experiences in community institutions, the parents' support networks, social relationships and other circumstances outside the home, and most importantly, the parents' current social relationships in the home and their satisfaction with themselves and with home conditions.

Furthermore, Belsky, Lerner and Spanier (1984:83) are of the opinion that parents' own education and particular types of parent-child relationships during adolescence appear to facilitate successful school functioning. Morrow and Wilson (1961) found that high-achieving adolescents, as compared to a group of low achievers, tended to come from families where they were involved in family decisions, where ideas and activities were shared by family members, and where parents were likely to give approval and praise of the adolescent's performance and show trust in the adolescent's competence.

In turn, low-achieving adolescents come from families marked by parental dominance and destructiveness. Moreover, they also found that high-achieving adolescents tend to identify with their parents while low-achieving adolescents do not.

■ *Parental behaviour and school achievement*

In the preceding chapters, it has been indicated that the experience of the child in the family influences both cognitive and personality development. It usually happens that

in most cases, adolescents become replicas of their parents. The researcher is also of the opinion that the parent-child relationship is bi-directional in nature, with parents influencing children and children influencing parents. In this part or section of the chapter, it must be considered the extent to which parental attitudes and behaviour, family background, are related not simply to school achievement itself, but more importantly to those aspects of personality and motivation which make achievement possible.

Louw (1992:429) is of the opinion that the nature of the parent-child relationship is determined by the parents' behaviour and by the way in which parental authority is exercised, just as the parents' behaviour towards the child may influence the development of independence and school achievement during adolescence.

■ *Love-hostility dimension*

Douvan (1958 in Banks & Finlayson 1973:66-67) compared upward and downward-aspiring high school boys relative to their fathers' occupations and using the boys' perceptions of their parents, found that upward-aspiring boys were more likely to report a congenial relationship with their parents. A similar study of over- and under-achievers, homogenous in intelligence and socio-economic status, also indicated that over-achievers were more likely to describe their families as affectionate. Milner (1951) also emphasizes the factor of emotional warmth in a study of reading ability in grade one school children.

Louw (1992:429) agrees by stating that parents with a loving behaviour are characterised by acceptance, understanding and approval; these parents make little use of corporal punishment since they prefer to exercise positive discipline through explanations and praise. Parental behaviour based on love and trust enables the adolescent to act independently and to develop his own sense of identity with self-confidence. It becomes apparent therefore that with the warmth and harmony provided by the parents, the adolescent will consequently be able to perform well at school without any hindrances from within the family.

On the other hand, when parents behave in a hostile manner and neglect or reject their children, the adolescent may experience poor social relationships, have mental,

academic and behavioural problems like delinquency, and be unwilling to accept responsibility for his/her behaviour (Conger & Petersen 1984 in Louw 1992:429).

▫ *Autonomy-control dimension*

The autonomy-control dimension, as defined by Louw (1992:429) refers to parents who allow their children realistic freedom and to those who exercise exceptionally strict control over their children. In the autonomy dimension, the adolescent is usually very active, outgoing, sociable and independent. However, the ability of the adolescent relating to social behaviour, creativity, initiative and independent problem-solving may be inhibited if the adolescent is strictly controlled, thus the adolescent's academic achievement will be hindered or greatly affected.

On this issue, Becker (1964 in Banks & Finlayson 1973:67) has summarized a large number of studies which show that children exposed to restrictive discipline are more conforming and more dependent than children exposed to more permissive disciplinary techniques. An experimental study by Rosen and d'Andrade (1959) found that fathers of boys who were high scorers on projective measures of achievement motivation often appeared to be competent men who were willing to take a back seat while their sons were performing, although the mothers became emotionally involved in the boys' success. They suggested that dominating fathers seemed to be a threat to the boys.

Finally, Banks and Finlayson (1973:69) assert that even though a variety of studies have been carried out, there is a common core of agreement that the use of approval or disapproval as disciplinary techniques and the use of reasoning and explanation, are conducive to the development of conscience. The implementation of coercive methods of discipline including the application of physical punishment, appear to result in a moral orientation based on the fear of authority. The use of love-oriented techniques of discipline by parents appears to be related to pupils' achievement motivation.

▫ *The nature of the parent-child relationship*

The researcher is of the opinion that in the many attempts to relate school achievement to family background, the place of parent-child relations and parental aspirations have played a dominant part. A large number of studies have shown that parental aspirations for their children are related to school achievement.

As it has been noted earlier, the parent-child relationship is bidirectional in nature, and this leads one to conclude that the behaviour of the parent and of the child are inextricably intertwined.

Louw (1992:404) maintains that the ability to formulate hypotheses or various possibilities may influence the parent-child relationship in the following ways: the adolescent is often confronted with a large number of alternative or possible solutions to a problem and he sometimes finds it difficult to decide which alternative is the correct one. The adolescent wants his parents to give their reason for what they expect from him/her, and he/she argues with his/her parents about some of the decisions because he/she is now aware of alternative solutions. This in itself shows that even academically, the adolescent will prosper, because he/she has learned not just to accept information and decisions but to enquire and argue if necessary, or resort to other solutions. In this way, if the parents or teacher fail to give reasons for their decisions or expectations, or if they do not accept that the adolescent has a mind of his/her own, there may be conflict between the adolescent and his/her parents or teacher.

Finally, the adolescent's ability to think about possibilities without confusing them with reality also increases his/her awareness of the extent to which his/her parents, family and teachers deviate from their stated ideals. He/she often finds that reality falls far short of the ideal, and this could cause him/her to rebel against his/her parents, society and teachers (Fein 1978 in Louw 1992:405).

■ *Parenting styles and their effects on performance*

There are a variety of ways to characterize parents' behaviour toward their children. One of the most useful approaches derives from the work of psychologist Diana Baumrind (1978). According to her work and that of others, two aspects of the parents' behaviour toward the adolescent are critical: parental responsiveness and

parental demandingness. Responsiveness refers to the degree to which the parent responds to the child's needs in an accepting, supportive manner; while demandingness refers to the extent to which the parent expects and demands mature, responsible behaviour from the child.

From the above exposition, it can be mentioned that apparently, responsive parents create healthy living environments for their children, hence their achievement will not be hindered. On the other hand, demandingness can have negative effects on adolescents' academic achievement, hence similar behaviour is demanded from the child and the child is not properly guided to maturity. These excessive demands are ultimately going to affect the adolescent's performance drastically.

■ *Authoritarian parenting*

Belsky *et al.* (1984:67) contend that authoritarian parents stress the value of obedience to their authority, and, as a result, are likely to favour punitive, forceful disciplinary measures. These parents do not encourage verbal give and take, but instead, require the child to accept the word of the parent. Children of these parents tend to be less cheerful and more moody than others, as well as apprehensive, unhappy, easily annoyed, passively hostile, and vulnerable to stress.

Steinberg (1993:143) concurs with the idea that adolescents raised in authoritarian homes are more dependent, more passive, less socially adept, less self-assured and less intellectually curious.

A cross-national survey found a relationship between reports of authoritarian parental relationships and low educational achievement in the United States, Great Britain and East Germany. Many studies imply a linear relationship between parental authority and achievement, indicating that the more or less authoritarian the parent, the greater or less the level of achievement (Drews & Teahan 1957:328).

■ *Authoritative parenting*

Authoritative parents can be identified by their high use of positive reinforcement and infrequent use of punishment, they are also very responsive to their children's demands for attention, but not indulging or spoiling them. Children of authoritative

parents tend to be most socially competent and academically and instrumentally competent. These children usually display high levels of self-reliance, self-control, cheerfulness and friendly relations with age mates (Belsky *et al.* 1984:68).

Hoffman (1970 in Louw 1992:404) posits that children who have grown up in authoritative families have a high self-esteem, they are better able to internalise moral standards and perform better academically. These children's individual interests are recognized, yet standards are set for their future conduct. However, indulgent parents who make too few demands on the child, and parents who make excessive or too early demands are likely to produce children with low achievement motivation (McClelland 1961 in Banks & Finlayson 1973:69).

Generally speaking, young people raised in authoritative households are more psycho-socially competent than children raised in other kinds of households.

■ *Permissive parenting*

Permissive parents attempt to behave toward the child's behaviours, desires and impulses in a non-punishing, accepting and affirming manner. But the permissive parent does not present him/herself to the child as an active agent with the responsibility for shaping or modifying the child's present or future behaviour, rather he/she presents himself/herself as a family resource for the child, someone to use as the child wishes. This parent avoids exercising control over the child and does not encourage the child to obey external social standards (Baumrind 1968:256).

Children with permissive parents display very low levels of self-reliance, are frequently out of control and tend to have a difficult time inhibiting their impulses. In addition, research has indicated that children with permissive parents are disobedient and irascible when they are asked to do something that conflicts with their desires. They do not easily accept responsibility, tend to do less well at school and appear to be less mature in their behaviour and attitude towards their friends and school.

Steinberg (1993:143) agrees with the fact that these adolescents are often less mature, more irresponsible, more conforming to their peers, and less able to assume positions of leadership.

■ *Uninvolved parents*

These parents make no demands, they are indifferent to their children and may even reject them. They do the minimum that is expected from them as parents. They know little about their children's activities and whereabouts, show little interest in their child's experiences at school or with friends, rarely converse with their child and rarely consider their child's opinion when making decisions.

Rather than raising their children according to a set of beliefs about what is good for the child's development, uninvolved parents are "parent-centred" - they structure their home life primarily around their own needs and interest (Steinberg 1993:143).

Adolescents raised by uninvolved parents are often impulsive and more likely to be involved in delinquent behaviour and in precocious experiments with sex, drugs and alcohol (Lamborn *et al.* 1991 in Steinberg 1993:143).

The researcher therefore concludes that from the above statements about uninvolved parents, their children may show disturbances in their relationships with other people, hence they tend to be anti-social, they are often impulsive and less achievement-oriented in school. These results are due to the fact that the child is not used to being controlled or being cared for. He/she may sometimes feel rejected and therefore resort to drugs or alcohol and other indecent activities.

To conclude, it should be noted that the nature of parenting styles could highly affect children's development and academic achievement. Bronfenbrenner (1961 in Banks & Finlayson 1963:68), however, has argued that the affect of parental discipline may be curvilinear, so that both too much and too little discipline may have similar effects. In a study of adolescents, he found that high levels of responsibility as rated by teachers were associated with reports by pupils of moderately strong disciplines and that both lack of discipline and strong discipline, especially from the father, are associated with low levels of responsibility.

■ *Parental involvement in education*

Parental involvement means different things to different people - from parents repairing library books or helping on trips, to parent aides working in the classroom, or giving home-based help with reading. Parental involvement can mean much more than a way of liberating school staff from tedious tasks and much more than a taken

home-reading project. If parents can become involved in their own children's learning, the children's school performance will invariably improve quite significantly, as there will be increasing pressure on schools to respond to this new challenge, the traditional role of the teacher perhaps, and the very nature of early education will be called into question.

It is essential for parents to be involved in education as they should assist teachers in their day-to-day school activities, like homework.

Williams and Stallworth (1984:153) emphasize that schools cannot reach their ultimate objective of educating without parental participation in schools. Effective parental involvement will also improve the children's school achievement.

Long (1986:2, 3) cautions that there are various crucial reasons for involving parents in education. Firstly, he states that parents should be involved in the education of their children because it has been proved that parental involvement improves children's school performance.

Secondly, there is a large body of evidence from American schools which indicates that whatever the form of involvement, the effect on children's school performance is positive, provided the involvement is well-planned, comprehensive and long-lasting, and serves to integrate the child's experiences at home and school.

Thirdly, parents are already involved as the primary educators of their children before school or nursery, and it makes sense to continue and utilise this involvement in education.

In addition, lack of parental interest is often cited as a reason for low educational achievement, but several studies have shown that, given specific tasks and sufficient encouragement and assurance, a good majority of parents from all backgrounds are most anxious to help their children.

Finally, parental involvement has positive advantages for children, teachers and parents. By extending the contexts of learning beyond the confines of the classroom and the school, the child finds a wider range of constructive learning situations, the teacher develops his or her professional role as a facilitator of learning wherever it takes place and the parent gains skills and confidence to extend his or her child's learning.

Katz (1993:5-6) and Dekker (1995:95) agree that there is a link between parental involvement and school achievement. Therefore teachers should let parents know that their support is highly valued, as this will strengthen the parent-teacher relationship and encourage parents to participate meaningfully and fully in school affairs.

▫ *The role of parents in education*

Parents play a very significant role in education because they are the main stakeholders in education. The researcher is of the opinion that parents should provide supervision of homework and act as tutors supplementing the school, as their main duty is to supervise their children's work hence, consolidating school and home activities.

Litwak and Meyer (1974:8) contend that it is important to involve parents in school activities so as to ensure that there is continuation between home and school because if this does not happen, children become confused by different view points as some parents may not wholly approve of all the activities going on at schools.

However, it should be noted that it is not only the parents of school-going children who are expected to take part in school activities, but the community as a whole should recognise that it has a direct responsibility for the school and should therefore become involved in school affairs through school committees or governing councils or boards.

Furthermore, after South Africa's general elections in 1994, all former departments of education were restructured into a new single Department of Education and Culture. This new department is supposedly guided by the White Paper on Education. The White Paper on Education (1995:30) states that parents have a primary responsibility for the education of their children, that they have a right to be consulted or approached by the state education authorities with respect to the form that education should take and that they have to take part in the governance of schools. Parents should also be involved in the decision-making of the school as they are the main stakeholders in education.

Berger (1981:95) identifies various roles that parents can play in school affairs. He maintains that parents can act as policy-makers, as employed resources, as volunteers, as spectators, and they can also act as teachers of their own children.

From Berger's opinion, it can be concluded that parents have to be active in a school if the school has to achieve its objectives. The researcher further posits that parents should be part of school committees and governing bodies so as to participate meaningfully in the decision-making of the school in order to improve the quality of the education of their children. Their participation in decision-making will also ensure that the rights of their children and wishes of parents are observed and implemented by the school.

Cave and Wilkinson (1990:33) state that parents should also be involved in financial decisions and should ensure that the expenditures of the school finances match their own priorities. If there is a disagreement between parents and the school about how to spend money, the school should try to accommodate parental wishes as they also contribute money to the school in the form of fees and donations in some cases.

Even in Lesotho, today, parents pay large amounts of school fees as they are not subsidised by the government, they also contribute large sums of money in the form of examination fees, building funds, food and self-reliance projects in schools, so as to uplift the standard of education in the schools.

It can be concluded from the above information that parents should be involved in all decisions that affect their children such as discipline, school drop-out and transportation problems. Having looked at all the afore-mentioned facts and suggestions, parental involvement in education should be seen as very crucial for the development of the school.

4.4.5.3 *ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FAMILY*

The family is very important to the well-being of a person, and it is in the family that childhood experiences are treasured. By the time other influences like the school or place of work begin to shape the individual in important ways, the family has already accomplished much of this basic transformation, having taught the child how to behave and play out many of the social roles which he or she will ultimately have to adopt. This process is known as "socialisation" and it is the most important function of the family (Heasman 1978:10).

Heasman (1978:25) indicates that until comparatively recently, parents exercised a fairly rigid control over the choice of friends their adolescent children made. Parents decided whom their children met and what time they spent with their friends. However, today most families now leave the young person relatively free to select a mate. The dating relationship has become important as a way in which to select and test out a prospective, marriage partner. The same kind of relationship between adolescents and their parents in educational matters, also exists. This may either contribute negatively or positively to the achievement of the adolescent.

Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1986 in Sihlezana 1994:39) argue that the birth order, or the position of the child in the family can also influence the student's academic achievement. In their study on the achievement of Botswana pupils, they discovered that parents support and encourage first and second borns, and fail to support others. However, the researcher disagrees with the above finding. It has also been identified that nowadays parents usually favour the last child in the family, and he or she is usually spoilt and sent to good schools.

In addition, the development of a positive self-image in adolescence is directly correlated with the degree of interest parents take in their offspring. Supportive family relations and parental care are also associated with high self-esteem, high interpersonal confidence, low anxiety and low hostility (Robinson & Cooper 1984; McCabe 1984 in Zibi 1995:14).

According to Robinson and Cooper (1984 in Zibi 1995:14), parents are possible self-esteem enhancers. Although college students are more independent of the parents, their self-appraisals were positively related to the individual's perceptions concerning their parents' appraisals of them. Parents continue to be important in relation to their children's academic self-image.

Within the family, there are a variety of people of different ages, personalities and aims in life. Relationships between these people are not always easy, though they may be better with some members of the family than with others. Basically, relationships are a matter of personality, and the children's academic achievement may be seriously hampered by unhappy relationships within the family as they create an atmosphere which is not conducive to learning.

4.4.5.4 *SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS*

It is common practice to measure the social class of a household by the occupation of the head and to categorize such information into broad occupational strata like manual/non-manual or lower class/working class. These broad designations mask large socio-economic heterogeneity within the categories-variations in education, income, and other factors that may have separate and non-identical socio-economic effects on the relationship between family structure and cognitive performance (Spence 1983:259).

Elder (1974 in Spence 1983:260) has demonstrated that sudden changes in economic fortunes, even in families not undergoing shifts in social class or experiencing marital discord or dissolution, can have marked consequences for the personality development and achievement of even adolescent children.

Clark (1983:6) expresses the opinion that there is virtually some agreement between social scientists that family life plays a critical role in educational and social development. He argues that unskilled and semi-skilled parents with low educational attainment and inferior career experiences provide a low quality of family experiences which tend to limit the skill development, academic achievements and life chances of their children.

Heyneman and Currie (1979:94) contend that measures of socio-economic status have been used to represent a mixture of material and psychological privileges varying between families. There is no unanimous agreement upon what exactly "it" is within the family's environment; nevertheless many issues such as father's occupation, educational attainment, income, possessions and other factors are all indicative of "something" because each tends to endow the children who have better than average amounts with better than average performances in school.

To sum up, it is argued that there is ample evidence from industrial societies showing that children of "lower" socio-economic backgrounds score less well on average in tests of academic achievement. Finally, one of the findings of Roddy (1984 in Molebatsi 1992:24) is that the income of the parents had a great effect on achievement. Lack of finance to pay bills, school fees and other essential things might cause emotional stress in both parents and children. It has also been noted that pupils from low income families are more likely to drop out of school than those from high in-

come families. It therefore becomes apparent that a family's socio-economic status has an influence on students' academic achievement.

4.4.5.5 *FAMILY SIZE*

The happiness of a family with young children and adolescents depends very much on how the children get on with one another. Family size and the spacing of children are important in this regard. In a large family, an older brother or sister can often give a younger one support and assistance in academic issues, and the young child has someone to copy when he/she is not quite sure how to behave. It is in such cases where an only child may suffer. He/she has no one in whom to confide and the only people he/she can copy are his/her parents.

Family relationships can be altered by a change in the composition of the family, such as the arrival of a new baby, or an elderly relative to live with the family. Similarly, things like illnesses, a handicap or an accident can have profound repercussions on the family. They can alter relationships drastically and involve the family members in a sudden period of adjustment for which they are often quite unprepared (Heasman 1978:34).

In addition, Bukatko and Daehler (1992 in Zibi 1995:28) are of the opinion that parents with larger families have less time to spend with their children and may not provide the kind of cognitive stimulation that children receive in smaller families. In general, children from smaller families have higher intelligence scores, achieve higher levels of education and display higher self-esteem.

Finally, Polit-O'Hara and Berman (1984:42) believe that there is a tendency for children in small families to be smarter than those from larger families. Of course a child from a particular large family may do better on an IQ test than a child from a small family. But on average, however, almost invariably those from smaller families do better than those from larger families.

Family size differences in ability also persist regardless of the types of tests used in various research studies. For example, such tests as IQ tests, achievement tests, school-readiness tests and others have all yielded the same results: children with fewer siblings do better than those with many. "There is such extensive evidence on

this point that we must conclude that the differences are real, and not merely a 'fluke' that is idiosyncratic to one group of tested children" (Polit-O'Hara & Berman 1984:42).

Secondly the constructive plan of extra-curricular activities is based on the life of the school. In this instance, the school is alert, alive, growing, creative and responsive to pupils' needs, thus enhancing academic achievement.

4.5 CHANGES IN FAMILY STRUCTURES AND THEIR EFFECTS ON PERFORMANCE

Many school professionals have raised questions about the determinants of school achievement and adjustment. Students enter schools with different abilities and readiness to gain from their classroom experiences. The search for antecedents to intellectual, emotional and social well-being in school has led to a wide array of family characteristics, such as general patterns of functioning, access to information and social support, parenting attitudes, spousal relationships and cooperation in coping with children's difficulties, positive relations with parents and siblings, and parental involvement in schools (Cox 1978; Dolan 1983; Elizur 1986, Galloway 1988 in Proci-dano & Fisher 1992:3).

The researcher maintains that the above point of view has contributed to an increased awareness of the importance of prevention in education and a recognition of the value of early identification of children and adolescents who may be likely to have subsequent difficulties in school, hence the necessity of carrying out this particular study by the researcher.

Dowling (1994:1) cautions that most professionals in the mental health and psychological fields would recognise that two of the most influential systems in an individual's development are the family and the school. In the face of an enormous amount of imposed change, the education system has to continue providing an environment for children to learn. Families in recent years have undergone increasing changes in life patterns and styles. In this changing environment, the relationship between families and schools continues to evolve with children as "linchpins" between these two systems.

Furthermore, when a child behaves in a way that is considered inappropriate or unacceptable, it is common for the adult deemed to be "in charge" of that child to feel in some way responsible for his or her behaviour. This can apply for parents, care-takers and teachers in relation to their role acting in loco parentis whilst the child is at school. If children continue to behave in ways that worry, disturb or annoy people with whom they are in contact, it is very common for the adults - especially parents - involved, to feel as if they have failed (Dawson & McHugh in Dowling & Osborne 1994:88).

However, Johnson and Ransom (1983:1) are of the opinion that there is no shortage of advice to parents on how they should bring up their children, and what their relationship should be with the schools their children attend. More rarely heard is the parent's voice of experience on the stage, of family life and how the children's school life is seen from the family's point of view.

They further contend that in educational circles there is probably more agreement about the value of good home-school relationships than about anything else. But to appreciate the present-day amalgam of ideas as to what constitutes a good relationship between home and school, it is necessary to investigate the need to involve parents in the education of their children.

From the above expositions, the researcher asserts that parental involvement is essential in education, and the importance of it is illustrated by good relationships between home and school; but most importantly relationships within the home are of paramount importance. The relationships within the home are subsequently determined by the type of family structure, the causes of such a family structure, and subsequent results.

To illustrate this, an example can be taken from Procidano and Fisher (1992:102) in their research project of European-American and African-American families. In their project, family structure ranges from two adults with one or both working to a single adult who may or may not be working. African-American families with two working parents have more economic resources and stability than those with a single parent. In the past two decades single-parent families have doubled in both European-American and African-American families. The impact is greater for African-American families because single parents are twice as likely as their European-American cohorts never to have been married.

4.5.1 Causes of a change in the family structure, and their effects on performance

The family does not exist in a social vacuum. As a consequence, it is impossible to discuss the changing nature of the family, especially in Southern Africa without putting these changes into a broader perspective.

Changing and increasing rates of divorce, single parenthood, and maternal employment during the past years are not isolated trends but the results of a conglomeration of historical, economic and ideological shifts that took place following World War II. Like the other contexts in which adolescents develop, the structure and nature of the family has changed as society has changed, and this apparently has great influence on the adolescents' achievement or performance.

4.5.1.1 *DIVORCE AND SEPARATION*

Parkinson (1986:11) asserts that as long as divorce remains a legal process controlled by the courts, legal concepts and rules are bound to exercise a powerful influence over the way marriages are dissolved. This influence can be applied to helping divorcing couples to re-organise their lives and relationships and that of their children in a humane and civilised way. If divorce is handled as a process which concentrates on establishing which spouse is guilty antagonism increases and constructive resolutions are discouraged. The couples could also reach well-informed and mutually agreed decisions for the future, mainly for the sake of the children.

Furthermore Gabardi and Rosen (as contributors in Everett 1992:25) carried out a study examining differences between college students from divorced and intact families on several measures of intimate relationships and performance. Analyses indicated that students from divorced and separated families had more sexual partners and desired more sexual involvement when going steady than students from intact families. From this study the researcher cautions that with various sexual partners, much time is spent in trying to satisfy the multiple partners, hence school work and other extra-curricular activities may thus be affected negatively.

Hodnack, also a contributor (in Everett 1992:137) states that the quality of family relationships after parental divorce or separations has an impact on the children's psychological adjustment to the divorce. In the study carried out, the results indicated

that pupils who experienced parental divorce perceived their family of origin as emotionally distant and more disorganized than those whose parents were not divorced. The perception of family closeness positively correlated with self-concept and good or satisfactory performance. These results suggest that the lack of family closeness after divorce may affect the children's long-term psychological adjustment.

In addition, Cox and Desforges (1987:29) indicate that when a couple have children, divorce involves disorganization and reorganization of a family. Throughout this time the children will be more vulnerable to other stress factors and, additionally, the home is less likely to provide the help and comfort needed because the custodial parent is also likely to be suffering emotionally. The effect that parental separation has on children varies with the individual child and the particular situation. They further contend that teenagers, disliking their powerlessness in the face of unwanted parental separation, often seek to exercise their power elsewhere. They can throw temper tantrums, refuse to do school work and indulge in delinquent acts. Delinquent and rebellious behaviour can have long-term effects as it can also lead these children to drop out of school.

It can therefore be concluded that pupils from divorced or separated homes may not achieve as well as those from intact families - either socially, academically or in extra-curricular activities.

4.5.1.2 *DEATH*

According to Oates (1993:ix) organized groups of individuals, such as schools, develop extra-utilitarian or useful norms and values that go beyond the strict boundaries of group goals. These unwritten norms typically encompass awareness and concern for group members, as human beings. Most schools genuinely care about their members' well-being. Other organizational groups, however, never develop a personal level of group concern, and members suffer and are diminished by this organizational indifference. Significant losses by death or separation within the group affect the entire group, not only members individually or uniquely but as group members who share a common identification. An organized group response that represents a communal reaction to such losses and an effort to support group members is possible as well as helpful.

In addition, the prevalence of death in the lives of school-age children is increasing, and the number of students identified as being at risk grows each year. Meeting the needs of these students requires a large investment of time, money and personnel, and therefore, affects the total school community, as has been observed by the researcher in various occurrences.

Jewett (1982) and Wolfet (1983 in Oates 1993:23) collaborate with the above opinions as they posit that disruptive behaviour, school phobia, learning problems and hyperactivity of some students are the result of unresolved grief. Drug and alcohol abuse, suicide and delinquent behaviour in children and youth have also been linked to grief reactions, and incomplete recovery from loss can affect the capacity for happiness throughout one's lifetime.

Children who are disruptive in school or make suicide attempts are not only a risk to themselves, but affect the learning environment of all students. Helping grieving students has the potential to improve the school climate for all who work and learn. To be effective, however, helpers must understand how children and adolescents react to loss in their own unique ways.

To sum up, Doka (1989 in Oates 1993:26) believes that teenagers, more than adults or young children identify closely with their peers and spend time and share intimately with them, thus, the death of a friend can be devastating. Sklar and Hartley (1990) also indicate that adolescents and young adults are a "high-risk" group for difficulties that may stem from the death of a close friend as friendships are very important at this age.

Finally, the researcher supports the above-mentioned findings, and contends that it is almost apparent that the death of someone close to a person will consequently highly affect the bereaved. For purposes of this study, the researcher concludes that the death of either a parent, relative, teacher, friend or schoolmate will have a definite impact on the adolescent's performance, both in academic issues and extra-curricular activities.

4.5.2 Historical family structures

The researcher believes that the basic characteristic of every family is that there is a blood relationship between its members, or what sociologists call "kinship". In some families, this kinship relationship is recognised over a much wider area than others. Where a very large number of distant relations are regarded as members of a family, the adjective, "extended" is used to describe the family; but where only fairly close relations are included in the family it is regarded as "nuclear", this term implying that family members are fairly closely related to the nuclear of the parents.

4.5.2.1 *EXTENDED FAMILIES*

In extended families, there is a constant feeling of responsibility for all the other family members, and the family is "durable". Individuals may come and go, but the family unit maintains its identity, property, as well as its collective responsibility.

Molebatsi (1992:10) is of the opinion that in traditional African society extended families serve as a source of support for members of the family such as widows and orphans. The people affected by separation - familial or ethnic - found solace in the family by means of support in various forms, material, emotional, social and even academic. This support assisted them in building a positive self-concept which, in turn, helped them in recovering, thus enabling them to develop fully and attain more.

However, though extended families may provide some kind of support children from larger families tend to achieve less well, as compared to those from smaller families. This may be caused by factors such as congested households and thus not having ample space for studying. In addition, in such families, one usually finds that there are certain duties and responsibilities allocated to each member and for this reason, a student might not have enough time to concentrate on his/her studies.

Finally, the researcher is of the opinion that where many people live together, there are likely to be conflicts, and these may negatively influence a student's performance.

4.5.2.2 NUCLEAR FAMILIES

Preston-Whyte (1974 in Molebatsi 1992:8) argues that in the traditional black family system, the nuclear family unit is seen as the first phase in the cycle of the development of family and domestic groups.

Heasman (1978:13) suggests that since there is little sense of family solidarity, the nuclear family has a fragility which can cause great distress to its members. This family also contains no large, close-knit groupings that can offer emotional and material help, it has no inbuilt way of taking care of the sick, the disabled and the elderly. Some families may manage to do so, but the smallness of many houses and the fact that both wife and husband have full-time jobs, may make this impossible.

On the other hand students in nuclear families have time to spend with family members, that is, there is no lack of attention from parents in the nuclear family.

Because of this fact, children from nuclear families are likely to achieve better than children from extended families as almost all the resources (for example, economic resources) are enough for every family member.

4.5.3 Types of family structures

There have been dramatic changes in family life over the years. These changes have transformed the nature of family life for many young people and in most cases these changes are brought about by increasing divorce and separation rates and also death because of the high crime rate in South Africa. Today's adolescents often experience a series of household reorganisations.

Spence (1983:206) is of the opinion that divorce is setting off a sequence of life changes, with children and parents confronting different stresses and challenges at each stage.

In the following sections, a literature review will be presented regarding the relationship between children's performance from one-parent or two-parent families.

4.5.3.1 SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES

In the first instance, Spence (1983:206) cautions that various researchers have studied this concept, and they indicate that when the single-parent family's socio-economic status is taken into account, only small differences are typically found between the scores of children from one-parent homes and those from two-parent homes on intelligence quotient tests and standardized tests of academic achievement. Apparently, relatively few children in one-parent homes suffer any serious long-term intellectual deficit.

On the other hand, greater discrepancies are found between these two groups of children in school grades. The researchers suggest that the data were subject to several interpretations. Circumstances within the one-parent household sometimes result in children becoming more disruptive in the classroom, less efficient in their study habits, and less likely to be willing or able to attend school regularly. These behaviours may depress and inhibit children's school performance.

Procidano and Fisher (1992:46) state that many studies of adolescents in stable, Anglo-American, post-divorce, single-parent families found few if any negative effects as a function of single-parenting. However, negative findings also emerged regarding the impact of post-divorce, single-parent home on adolescents. Parish (1981) for example, indicate that early adolescents from single-parent families have more negative self-concepts and less positive ratings of both their custodial mothers and non-custodial fathers than did their peers in intact families.

It may therefore be concluded that findings regarding adolescent adjustment in single-parent homes may reflect shortcomings in available research. None of the studies that have been cited above, for instance, are based on a large, nationally representative sample. Findings also suggest that the adjustment of adolescents is more strongly related to the sum total of environmental resources available, including the quality of the parent-child relationship, than to the factor of residing in a single-parent family.

For improved school performance, vulnerable children from single-parent households, rather than being shunned and categorized as troublesome or stupid, would highly benefit from tutoring, or from the daily monitoring of school work by an interested adult. Even though children from single-parent families are viewed as deficient

and associated with maladjustment, many children actually thrive in single-parent homes.

4.5.3.2 *TWO-PARENT FAMILIES*

It is generally believed that children from two-parent families are well adjusted, not problematic and more achievement-oriented. However, it is the opinion of the researcher that no matter what kind of family one comes from, if he or she already has either social, psychological or academic problems, the kind of family he/she belongs to will have no influence on such traits unless proper care and guidance are provided.

According to Zakariya (1982 in Molebatsi 1992:19) the results of a study co-sponsored by the National Association of Elementary School Principals and the Institute for Development of Educational Activities in America, comparing performance of children from one- and two-parent households, indicated that one-parent students were found to show lower achievement in school than their two-parent classmates.

In another study by Crescimbeni (1965) significantly lower scores on standardized achievement tests among father-absent school children were found than among those from two-parent families.

The above-mentioned studies therefore suggest that children from two-parent families perform better, academically and socially, than those from single-parent families.

To sum up, it can be stated that the researcher found differing views on the performance level of children from two parent families as compared to those from single-parent families.

4.5.4 **Results of changed family structures and performance**

As it has already been stated that families today are in a continuous state of change, it should therefore be noted that these changes have noticeable results. For instance, divorce leads to single-parenting, which may in some instances eventually result in remarriage or step-parenting.

4.5.4.1 REMARRIAGE AND STEP-PARENTING

Procidano and Fisher (1992:57) assert that the divorce rate continues to be very high in the United States. Although the divorce rate fluctuated during the 1980's, up to fifty percent of all marriages may end in divorce. However, between 70 % and 83 % of adults will remarry following divorce. Because the divorce rate for second marriages is higher (60 %), many children will experience the divorce and remarriage of their parents two or more times before they become adults. These demographic trends demonstrate that divorce and remarriage are not static events, but ongoing processes and transitions for children and adults.

Bray (1988a, 1988b; Kelly 1988 in Procidano & Fisher 1992:59) state that remarriage and the formation of a stepfamily involve a complicated series of changes that affect parent-child relationships, parenting practices, family conflict family income, residence, extended family relationships, peer relationships and school life. These changes are often stressful and disruptive to the usual patterns of family life and they may produce both short-term disruptions and long-term effects on individuals and families.

Sager, Brown, Engel, Rodstein and Walker (1983:30-33) describe children of remarried families as having special anger and resentment towards the parent who is seen as having broken up the nuclear family. The remarried family is a new system, and if there has not been enough consolidation, an adolescent child may feel excluded. On the other hand, step-siblings enter and may alter ordinal positions in the family. The biological parents' time and affection are shared with the new spare step- and half-siblings if there is a mutual child. Roles towards step-siblings are nuclear and roots are likely to be disrupted or displaced.

It becomes apparent therefore from the above expositions that as children had no say in the decision to break up the nuclear family or to choose step-parents, often this causes feelings of helplessness, anger, guilt, noncooperation, divided loyalties, insecurity, identity diffusion and lack of commitment to the child in such a family. Judging from the above feelings, it can be concluded that the child having these mixed feelings of "frustration" may encounter problems in their school work - that is, both academic achievement and performance in extra-curricular activities.

4.5.4.2 FOSTER-PARENTING

Foster care forms a very vital part of the total child welfare service programme in South Africa. Children involved are those whose well-being is in some way threatened. The decision to remove a child from parental care is one of the most far reaching and also one of the most difficult decisions that social workers are confronted with in practice. In the most extreme cases it can be fatal to leave a child in the care of parents whose psychological equilibrium is deteriorating. In such cases, the removal of the child is necessitated by the need to ensure his/her immediate safety.

To remove a child from parental care can prove beneficial in certain areas of his/her life, however, such separation can sometimes lead to deprivation and disruptions in other areas.

To conclude, the *South African National Council for Child and Family Welfare handbook/guide* (1987:56-58) states that children should only be removed from the care of their parents after all efforts to keep the family intact have failed, or where there is reason to believe that the child's life is in danger, or that serious bodily harm or emotional harm could be inflicted on him.

Social workers must assess carefully the nature of the relationship between the parent and the child and how this has affected the intellectual, emotional and social development of the child; also what effect the severing of such a relationship will have on the child's future.

From what has been stated, one may as well indicate that a child cannot study harmoniously in an environment not conducive to good health. Therefore foster parenting may be seen as a solution to a variety of problems which children encounter in their own homes, thus making it impossible for them to achieve to their full capacity.

4.5.4.3 ADOPTIVE PARENTING

By and large, the vast majority of married couples who adopt children have tried for several years to have children of their own, but for various reasons have not been able to do so. Parents who adopt children have the same motivation as any married couple

who want natural children. To carry on the family name, to see that their ambitions and goals are carried on, to enjoy sharing their life with offspring, are but a few of the reasons.

Ansfield (1971:27) contends that most adolescents take with them into their adolescent period their feelings from childhood. That means that the symptoms of feeling different, shame, depression, anger and fear from childhood follow them into adolescence.

Shame and embarrassment about being adopted are not usually as pronounced in adolescence as in childhood, as adolescents are more mature. Crying spells or temper tantrums are displays of emotions that are not seen as frequently in adolescence as in childhood, however, they do occur more in adolescent girls than boys. In adolescent boys, fighting and involvement in delinquent gangs are examples of acting-out behaviour. The use of drugs is also one way of showing displacement of anger.

Finally, Ansfield (1971:28) believes that adopted adolescents can and do become depressed even more than adopted children do. The symptoms of depression usually change from those of childhood to those of adolescence, poor eating habits, difficulty in sleeping, or sleep-walking. This depression can become so severe that it can lead to suicidal thoughts.

To conclude the researcher is of the opinion that with feelings such as suicidal thoughts, one cannot possibly achieve and perform according to one's ability.

4.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the concept performance was dealt with, together with the factors influencing it, which were environmental and factors related to the family. Performance in extra-curricular activities was also highlighted; together with how a changed family structure can influence a student's performance.

In the following chapter, the description and explanation of how the empirical study is to be conducted will be discussed, that is, applying the concept, changed family structure, and its implications on children's performance, directly to the school situation.

Research design

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the concept *academic performance* was dealt with in relation to different family structures. This chapter is mainly concerned with the empirical methodology and procedures aimed at gathering the required information, in order to find out whether different family structures have any impact on the academic performance of an adolescent pupil in the Maseru district in Lesotho. This information comprised pupils data concerning various family structures - nuclear families, extended families, single-parent families, two-parent families, step families and foster homes.

This chapter also includes the sampling procedures, preparation for the empirical study, the way in which the study was conducted, administration of the questionnaire and the analysis techniques following the preceding three chapters in which the review of related literature was presented on family structures, adolescence as well as the effect of different family structures on adolescents' academic performance.

5.2 PREPARATION FOR THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

The empirical study was prepared thoroughly. The necessary steps regarding questionnaire administration were followed.

Permission to conduct this study was applied for and obtained from the Ministry of Education, Maseru (Lesotho) (see appendix A).

5.3 AREA OF CONCENTRATION

The area of concentration for this study is Maseru Central, in the Kingdom of Lesotho, which falls under the Ministry of Education - central region.

Maseru is the capital of Lesotho. The residents of Maseru come from various areas: rural, semi-rural and urban. After years of establishment and adjustment, the town has been classified as a city. It is predominantly a Sesotho-speaking city. Therefore, the pupils from the three schools in Maseru can be taken as a representative sample of Lesotho's population.

5.4 SAMPLING

According to the Examination Council of Lesotho (ECOL), and the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC) pass list (February 1997), there are thirty registered high schools in the Maseru central and periphery regions.

This number does not include privately-owned secondary and high schools, especially those not registered with the Examinations Council of Lesotho. Of this number, only 10 % of the schools was involved.

In sampling, the researcher used random sampling by writing down the names of the schools on pieces of paper and putting them into one container, then randomly taking out one piece of paper.

The researcher is mainly concerned with the pupils' academic performance, however, teachers will also be asked to complete certain tables regarding students' academic performance, as these will show if there is any discrepancy between the academic performance of pupils from various family structures.

The researcher selected secondary pupils for the study. The majority are adolescent stage. According to the researcher's opinion, this is an important stage as it is the beginning of a transformation into adulthood and as such, has an influence on the child's development.

5.5 LISTING OF PUPILS

The covering note, appendix B, was sent to selected high schools. The secondary pupils' class teachers had to attend to the details indicated. These forms were completed by the teachers to indicate how different pupils perform academically. The questionnaire was administered to 200 pupils

5.6 THE QUESTIONNAIRE

In order to gather information on the various family structures and pupils' academic performance, the researcher designed a questionnaire for the pupils, which is the main instrument used for this study, consisting of 25 items.

The questionnaire is used because the researcher finds it very suitable for the specific information required. It is also advantageous as it is economical, hence expenditure is limited to printing costs and travel tariffs. In addition, when using the questionnaire, a large number of respondents can be reached; and the greater coverage makes for greater validity in the results through promoting the selection of a larger and more representative sample.

A further advantage of the questionnaire is its uniformity, as all the respondents receive the same set of questions phrased in exactly the same way. The respondents are also free to express their feelings as there is no interviewer bias, and confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed.

The questionnaire deals with a significant topic which the respondent will recognise as important enough to warrant spending his or her time on. It seeks only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources, except the respondents themselves, and it is as short as possible, but long enough to get the essential data.

It is fairly attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly duplicated so as to encourage the respondents to complete it. Instructions are formulated clearly. All questions are designed as simply and as clearly as possible, and the categories provide for easy accurate and unambiguous responses.

The questions of the questionnaire are closed, whereby the respondent is supposed to mark the answer he or she chooses from the list of alternatives provided with a tick. Finally, the questions are objective, with no leading suggestions as to the responses desired, and questions are presented in sound psychological order, proceeding from the general to the more specific responses, that is, from certain biographical information to pupils' individual situations, ideas, views and perceptions.

5.6.1 Reliability of the questionnaire

The researcher attempted to ensure that the reliability requirements of the questionnaire are met. According to Best (1981:153-154) reliability is the quality of consistency that the instrument or procedure demonstrates over a period of time. Behr (1973:34) further states that the reliability of a test indicates the degree to which it gives the same relative difference in the scores when administered to the same individuals on a second occasion. Bell (1987:50) is also of the opinion that reliability is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions.

The reliability of this questionnaire, therefore, has been enhanced by ensuring that questions which ask for opinions are not asked, as they may produce different answers for a whole range of reasons. The researcher also believes that the reliability of the questionnaire will also be enhanced by the formulation of the questions and the way the questionnaire has been piloted. It has been piloted in such a way that the researcher delivered and administered the questionnaire personally, thus respondents were given instructions and guidelines in a uniform manner, hence no bias.

5.6.2 Validity

It is very essential to ensure the validity of the questionnaire, that is, to find out whether it is going to measure what it is supposed to measure. McMillan and Schumacher (1993:223) state that validity is a judgement of the appropriateness of a measure for specific inferences or decisions that result from the score generated. Best (1981:179) postulates that basic to the validity of a questionnaire are the right questions phrased in the least ambiguous way.

The researcher is supposed to ascertain that validity is catered for in the questionnaire. In order to enhance the validity of the questionnaire, the researcher ensured that all the questions are related to the subject-family structure and academic performance; the questions are phrased in the least ambiguous way, they answered by a large proportion of the respondents, and the information in the questionnaire is consistent.

The researcher is also aware that there are various other factors which can result in the invalidity of the questionnaire and she has endeavoured to avoid such factors as

incompleteness of the returned questionnaires as she administered the questionnaire personally. Questions, order and organisation have been clearly set out and anonymity of the respondents was ascertained by the fact that they were not required to supply their names.

5.6.3 Usability and objectivity

The usability of the questionnaire is determined by economy in terms of time and finance, ease of administration and interpretation. Therefore, the researcher has enhanced these by ensuring that the questionnaire is easy to apply with a clear and detailed set of instructions.

Objectivity has also been ascertained in this questionnaire as the procedures for applying and administering the questionnaire are clearly set out for other researchers to apply it in the same way.

5.7 PILOT STUDY

Before the questionnaire was distributed to the secondary school pupils (Forms B and C), the researcher first tested the credibility of the questionnaire by the use of a pilot study. The questionnaire was piloted to Grade 8 (form B) students at Mafeteng, Kingdom of Lesotho. Only 10 percent (20 pupils) of the total population of respondents was asked to complete the questionnaire. This was done in the afternoon, after school hours, and the students were placed in one classroom and supervised by the researcher herself.

The questionnaire was given to them and the respondents were allowed to make comments as the researcher had requested the respondents to analyze all aspects of the questionnaire, for instance, the wording, question order and any possible other items which were not very clear.

The pupils reported that they found the questionnaire interesting and not time-consuming. However, a few alterations were made before it was finalized for distribution and administration.

5.8 ADMINISTRATION OF RESEARCH METHOD AND PROCEDURES

The researcher was granted permission by the Ministry of Education (Lesotho) to distribute the questionnaire to the students and forms (*cf.* appendix B) to the teachers in various schools. The distribution was done personally by the researcher.

Each batch of questionnaires and forms had a covering letter stating the purpose of the study, a request for cooperation, promise of results, appreciation and request for immediate completion of the questionnaire.

Each class-teacher was given a period of approximately three days to complete the forms and complete them with their corresponding questionnaires.

5.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

There are certain limitations regarding this study that should be mentioned:

- Researcher used only self-structured questionnaires in the empirical investigation which were not sufficiently standardized. Despite various advantages of the questionnaire as a measuring instrument in the study there are also certain disadvantages regarding the questionnaire.
- Some of the samples (the family structure groups) were too small for reliable results.
- As the investigation only included Sotho speaking black adolescents as respondents in a specific area general deductions including all adolescents could not be made.

5.10 CONCLUSION

The next chapter is concerned with the analysis of data and interpretation of the results, as well as the recommendations and suggestions for further research.

Results, findings, conclusions and recom- mendations

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to determine whether the structure of a family can have an influence on the academic performance of the adolescent being part of that family. In the previous chapter the research design for the empirical study was described.

This chapter deals with the results of the empirical research, the concluded findings, recommendations made by the researcher, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research. As explained in chapter five, the subject for the study was the secondary school pupils in the district of Maseru, in the Kingdom of Lesotho.

Two hundred pupils from three schools in Maseru were chosen for the study with the use of a 25 item questionnaire. The study investigated the influence, if any, on the academic performance of secondary school pupils according to the family structure. The different family structures varied from a single-parent family to an intact family, from an intact family to a single-parent family, from a step-family to an intact family or vice-versa. The questionnaire was used to collect data, and the study was based on the following question: "Does the structure of a pupil's resident family have an influence on the pupil's academic performance?"

6.2 RESULTS

The results are summarised in the tables.

6.2.1 Questionnaire to the pupils

6.2.1.1 RESULTS AND FINDINGS OF THE RESPONSES FROM PUPILS REGARDING SECTION A (BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION)

The biographical information regarding the pupils (their gender, age and their form or grade) is presented in the following tables, together with the findings.

Table 6.1 Distribution according to form/grade

FORM	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
B	72	41,1
C	103	58,9
Total	175	100,0

According to table 6.1 the number of pupils in Form C was greater than of those in Form B (58,9 % and 41,1 % respectively).

Table 6.2 Distribution according to gender

GENDER	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Male	86	49,1
Female	89	50,9
Total	175	100,0

According to table 6.2 the numbers of males and females were more or less the same (49,1 % and 50,9 % respectively).

Table 6.3 Distribution according to age

AGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
16 & under	74	42,3
17-19	92	52,6
20 & older	9	5,1
Total	175	100,0

The majority of the pupils (52,6 %) were between 17 and 19 years of age, followed by those between under 14 and 16 years of age, and the lowest number of pupils (5,1 %) were 20 years old and older.

6.2.1.2 *RESULTS AND FINDINGS OF THE RESPONSES FROM PUPILS REGARDING SECTION B*

Only the first part of Section B, indicating the family structure to which the respondents were exposed to for at least six months will be discussed next.

Table 6.4 Distribution according to family structure

FAMILY STRUCTURE DURING SCHOOL TERMS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Staying with both biological parents	82	46,9
Biological mother only	26	14,9
Biological father only	6	3,4
Mother and grandparent(s)	7	4,0
Father and grandparent(s)	1	0,6
Both parents and grandparent(s)	4	2,3
Brother(s) and/or sister(s)	16	9,1
Parents and other relatives	11	6,3
Biological mother and stepfather	1	0,6
Biological father and stepmother	1	0,6
Step-parents	1	0,6
Adoptive parents	2	1,1
Guardian	11	6,3
Boarding (e.g. hostel)	6	3,3
Total	175	100,0

As a result of the fact that there were such low frequencies of respondents in some of the family structure groups, not all of them could be regarded as being reliable for the purpose of the investigation. Therefore, the family structure groups will be divided into two main groups, being pupils staying with both parents as compared to the rest of the family structure groups combined. The total situation can thus be tabularised as such:

Table 6.5 Family structures

FAMILY STRUCTURES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Both parents	82	46,9
Other family structure groups	93	53,1
Total	175	100,0

This indicates that most of the pupils stay in various family structure groups, while pupils staying with both biological parents constitute 46,9 % of the total population of respondents.

Table 6.6 Distribution according to the duration of time at where the pupils were staying

TIME	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Six months plus	170	97,1
Less than six months	5	2,9
Total	175	100,0

Most of the pupils have been staying with the same people for a period exceeding six months while a very low percentage of them (2,9 %) have been staying where they are for less than six months. Therefore, this can be seen as a reliable sample for the purpose of the investigation.

Table 6.7 **Distribution according to how often pupils see their parents**

NUMBER OF TIMES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Once a week	13	7,4
Once in two weeks	1	0,6
Once a month	15	8,6
Every two months	3	1,7
Every three months	9	5,1
After six months	4	2,3
Once a year	3	1,7
Regularly	33	18,9
Always (stay with parents)	94	53,7
Total	175	100,0

Most pupils (53,7 %) stay with their parents therefore they always see them, while 46,3 % of the pupils see their parents periodically. This can therefore be seen as reliable for purposes of this study as the regularity of meeting parents will be compared to academic performance later.

The majority of pupils indicate that they stay with both biological parents (46,9 %) while 14,9 % stay with the biological mother only, 9,1 % stay with brother(s) and/or sister(s) while 29,1 % stay in various other family structures.

As the aim of this study is to determine whether the family structure has any influence on the academic performance of pupils, the way different family structures seem to affect the academic performance of pupils will be discussed.

From the biographical information, it has been found that the average performance for the entire population of 175 pupils is 47,3 %. It has also been observed that females perform better than males with their average performance percentages as 49 % and 45,5 % respectively.

With regard to age, it has been found that pupils in the lowest age group (under 14-16 years old) are the best performers academically, with an average of 48,5 %, followed by those between 17 and 19 years old, with an average percentage of 46,8 %, and the poorest performers are those of 20 years old and above, with an average performance of 43,5 %.

It can therefore be concluded that females are better performers academically than males, with respect to the specified age groups, that is, pupils mainly in their adolescent stage.

In addition, a conclusion that the younger a pupil is, the better his or her academic performance, can also be drawn from the results found.

The most important part of this study will now be discussed. From the research method and procedures, it has been found that the average academic performance for the entire population as compared to different family structures is 47,3 %. The average academic performance for each pupil was obtained by combining the December (end of year) examination marks (1997) and the first session (January to June 1998)-marks.

For reliability purposes, the various family structures will be combined to form three prominent groups, being those staying with both biological parents, biological mother only and brother(s) and/or sister(s).

Table 6.8 Family structure and academic performance

FAMILY STRUCTURE	AVERAGE PERCENTAGE
Both biological parents	54,0
Biological mother only	47,6
Brother(s) and/or sister(s)	49,8

From previous tables, it was found that most pupils (46,9 %) stay with both biological parents. These pupils have therefore been found to perform well academically, with an average overall performance of 54 %. The second prominent group was of those pupils staying with their biological mothers only (14,9 % of the population of respondents) with an average performance percentage of 47,6 %; and the last group is of pupils staying with their siblings with an average academic performance percentage of 49,8 %

However, pupils staying with their biological mother and stepfather, guardian, parent(s) and grandparent(s) and step-parents can also be mentioned as they were also found to perform above the overall average performance of 47,3 % with performances of 51 %, 51 %, 49,5 % and 47,5 % respectively.

All the pupils in the above-mentioned family structures can be regarded as good performers as they all have an average performance above the overall average percentage of the entire population.

From the above exposition, it can be stated that pupils staying in extended families perform slightly below average (47,0 %). In addition, it has also been found that pupils staying with biological fathers only, do not perform well at school (45,1 %). This also applies to pupils staying at boarding houses like hostels (42,7 %).

Pupils who also do not perform well are those staying with an average performance of 39,0 % and this can be caused by the fact that it seems as though mothers play a major role in the education of their children, therefore in most cases there are problems between children and their stepmothers, hence the low academic performance of pupils is of those pupils staying with their adoptive parents with an average performance of 36,5 %

Table 6.9 Distribution of responses in the questionnaire (Section B, Questions 4-25)

Q.	FREQUENCY					PERCENTAGE				
	S.A.	A.	N.S.	D.	S.D.	S.A.	A.	N.S.	D.	S.D.
4	1	3	6	42	123	0,6	1,7	3,4	24,0	70,3
5	87	61	14	8	5	50,0	35,1	8,0	4,6	2,9
6	87	61	17	6	4	50,0	35,1	9,8	3,4	1,7
7	55	91	15	10	4	31,4	52,0	8,6	5,7	2,3
8	65	79	20	8	1	37,6	45,7	11,6	5,6	0,6
9	17	51	35	46	24	9,8	29,5	20,2	26,6	13,9
10	3	8	13	67	83	1,7	4,6	7,5	38,5	47,7
11	85	76	3	8	3	48,6	43,4	1,7	4,6	1,7
12	9	18	13	74	61	5,1	10,3	7,4	42,3	34,9
13	54	89	17	8	7	30,9	50,9	9,7	4,6	3,9
14	36	78	16	32	14	20,6	44,6	8,6	18,3	7,9
15	25	56	14	60	21	13,7	32,0	8,0	34,3	12,0
15	17	65	16	54	23	9,7	37,1	9,1	30,9	13,2
17	20	70	18	55	12	11,4	40,0	10,3	31,4	6,9
18	43	78	31	13	10	24,6	44,6	17,7	7,4	5,7
19	47	73	21	24	10	26,9	41,7	12,0	13,7	5,7
20	5	13	27	68	62	2,9	7,4	15,4	38,9	35,4
21	15	19	4	5	1	34,1	43,2	9,1	11,4	2,3
22	13	16	9	4	2	29,5	36,4	20,5	9,1	4,5
23	6	28	8	3	4	12,2	57,1	16,3	6,1	8,2
24	15	11	15	7	2	30,0	22,0	30,3	14,0	4,0
25	7	22	15	2	2	14,6	45,8	31,3	4,2	4,2

Key for table 6.9:

Q Question
SA Strongly Agree
A Agree

NS Not sure
D Disagree
SD Strongly disagree

In the case of two questions (5 and 6) the majority of the pupils (50 %) strongly agree to the questions.

6.2.1.3 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO SECTION B

- *Attitudes of people respondents stay with towards school (Questions 4 and 5):* In this section, pupils were asked whether the people they stay with regard school as important. The overall performance average was 47,3 % for the entire population of respondents. The vast majority of pupils indicated that the people they stay with think that school is very important (70,2 % of the pupils) and the average performance of these pupils was well above average, as it is 47,6 % It can therefore be concluded that parents and families have a great influence on the academic performance of pupils, therefore the necessity for a positive attitude towards school. 24 % of the pupils also agreed that the people they stay with have a positive attitude towards school and their average performance was 47,0 % On the other hand, pupils who stay with people with a negative attitude towards school form or constitute 0,5 % of the entire population, with their average performance being 35,7 % which is below the average performance of the entire population.
- *Motivation of pupils (Questions 7-17):* 50 % of the pupils stay with people who praise them if they have done well, and academically, their average performance is 47,3 %, which is equal to the average performance of the whole population. On the other hand, pupils who do not receive constant motivation constitute 2,3 % of the total population, with an average academic percentage of 47,0 % which is below the overall average.

This shows that pupils need constant motivation at home to perform well at school. This motivation can be enhanced by whether pupils admire the people they stay with and whether there is peace in that home. It was therefore found that if a pupil does not have role-models at

home, and the relations and atmosphere at home not peaceful and harmonious, pupils do not perform well at school.

- *Influence on school work (Question 18)*: Most of the pupils (45,3 %) indicated that they stay with people who have a positive influence on their school work. These pupils perform above the average performance of the total population (47,3 %), as their average performance is 47,8 %. On the other hand, pupils who stay with people with a negative influence on their school work form 4 % of the total population, and their average performance is below average (43,5 %).
- *Literacy in the home (Question 20)*: 2,9 % of the pupils stay in illiterate households or families, and their average performance is 42,8 % which is below the average performance of the total population (47,4 %). Pupils who stay in literate households form 40 % and 33,5 % respectively and their average performances are 47,5 % and 48,0 % which are far above the overall average performance.

From these findings, it can be concluded that literacy in the home has an influence on the academic performance of pupils. Staying in a literate household can provide some motivation because pupils from such families perform well at school.

- *Staying with biological parents and its effects on performance (Questions 21-25)*: Pupils were asked whether they thought that staying with their biological parents all the time will lead to better performance at school than those not staying with their biological parents. A large percentage of pupils (65,9 %) believe that pupils staying with their parents perform better at school, and those not staying with their biological parents believe that if they could stay with their biological parents, they would do much better at school. They also state that because of not staying with their biological parents, the parents themselves seldom look at their work, hence there is no motivation provided from the biological parents.

However, 60,4 % of the pupils are of the opinion that school performance is influenced by family structure, 31,3 % of the pupils are not sure whether the family structure has any influence on the academic performance, while 8,3 % of the pupils are of the opinion that family structure has no influence at all on academic performance.

6.3 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Results and findings from pupils have been discussed. Conclusions and recommendations based on the theoretical and empirical studies, as well as the researcher's own opinion will be discussed.

6.3.1 Conclusions

In view of the theoretical findings, the researcher concludes that the majority of pupils who perform well at school are from two-parent families. However, this does not mean that pupils from single-parent families do not perform well. There is a small discrepancy between pupils from two-parent families and those from single-parent families, adoptive families and all other family structures, with the average performances being 54,0 % and 46,1 % respectively.

The researcher is of the opinion that what is most important in a pupil's academic work is the intensity and presence of motivation a pupil gets from home. The researcher firmly disagrees with the idea that pupils from one-parent families do not perform well at school.

The researcher's perception, based on observations in most schools is that the family structure mainly affects primary school pupils because of their age and vulnerability; but adolescents in secondary and high schools who are from single-parent families often perform well for more than one reason. Firstly, single parents, especially the mother, are more conservative and strict (*cf.* 2.3.1.1) and, secondly, pupils in such a home are often more self-motivated. Self-motivation is prevalent at this stage as the pupil wants to please or impress the usually - struggling single-parent and wishes to be able to help financially in future.

The researcher's opinion corresponds with that of Molebatsi (1992:46) who states that he found no significant difference between the academic performance of pupils from one-parent families and those from two-parent families.

However, after conducting the research and from analysing and interpreting data as indicated in the previous chapter, the following conclusions from the findings of the research are put forward:

- Pupils from families with both biological parents perform very well academically, and the two-parent family structure is in the majority, as also supported by Nzimande (1987 in Molebatsi 1992:15).
- Pupils from single-parent families also perform well. There is a small difference between the academic performance of pupils from one-parent families and those from two-parent families.
- Pupils from single-parent, mother-headed families perform better academically than those from single-parent, father-headed families.
- Pupils staying with both parents and grandparent(s) and those staying with siblings, that is, pupils staying in extended families also perform well at school.
- Pupils staying with their biological mother and any other people like stepfather or other relatives perform well at school, that is, the presence of the biological mother makes a great difference in a pupil's academic performance.
- Pupils staying with guardians and stepparents also perform well.
- Pupils staying at boarding houses, pupils staying with a biological father and stepmother, and those staying with adoptive parents perform academically very badly.

Findings from this study indicate that the family structure has an influence on the academic performance of pupils, but what is of major importance is the presence, and type of motivation from the family.

However, it can be mentioned that the researcher found some deductions according to family structures to be unreliable as a result of too small samples, hence the combination of various family structures to form one group.

The researcher concludes that the type of family structure has an influence on the academic performance of pupils, provided that such a family structure has a definite influence on the pupil's academic work.

6.3.2 Recommendations

The recommendations are mainly based on the findings from the empirical study. Mothers play a significant role in the motivation of their children academically. Fathers do not play the role they should be playing to influence their children to perform better.

On the other hand, Clapp (1992:204) is of the opinion that single fathers perceive themselves as more loving and nurturing than the average man. Because of this belief, single fathers may tend to spoil their children rather than to see to it that they are doing what they are supposed to do at a particular point in time, regarding academic issues.

From these observations, the following can be recommended:

- Fathers should be called for meetings or seminars to emphasize their role in the education of their children, and its importance. They should be allowed and encouraged to inspect their children's school work.
- The government and employers should assist in making single-parents effective parents by amongst others making sure that they give to such employees enough time to spend with their children.
- Adult education and literacy campaigns on what is expected from ideal parents should be introduced.
- Schools should arrange parent-teacher meetings regularly to discuss pupils' academic performance and problems.

- ▣ Parents centres should be established where fathers and other single-parents could go to when they have crises in the up-bringing of their children. Devoted and well-trained personnel should provide assistance.
- ▣ The government should increase the number of pupils being sponsored by it. One major problem is lack of finance which usually leads to truancy and hence the deteriorating performance of the pupil.
- ▣ The government and employers should also consider and try to improve their salary scales, as some of the problems in families are caused by financial constraints (*cf.* 3.4.3).
- ▣ Schools and communities should join hands to introduce programmes aimed at improving the relationships between children and their parents.
- ▣ Sporting activities and any other extra-curricular activities at schools should be attended by parents.
- ▣ For pupils to perform well at school, they need a lot of motivation which can be provided by people they stay with by having a positive influence on their school work.

6.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The researcher feels that more research could be undertaken to address problems faced by pupils residing in various family structures.

- ▣ Findings from this investigation revealed that mothers play a more prominent role in the education of their children than fathers. Therefore, there is a need for research regarding how fathers could be encouraged to play a more effective role in the education of their children.

- Research could also be done to determine the reasons why pupils with stepmothers staying with biological fathers do not perform well academically; and also those staying with adoptive parents.
- Researchers should also try to increase samples so as to deduct more reliable and meaningful results.

6.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research from the researcher have been discussed. According to the researcher's opinion, a single-parent family is an established type of family. Teachers, especially remedial teachers, and school guidance teachers ought to be aware of pupils from various family structures and assist them accordingly. It has been observed by the researcher that the most dominant type of single-parent families is the mother-headed one, and the academic performance of pupils from such families is satisfactory, especially as compared to father-headed single-parent families.

Finally, the researcher maintains that the family structure itself does not determine the academic performance of pupils, but motivation, attention, encouragement and harmonious relationships within the family play a very important role in the academic performance of pupils.

Bibliography

- ALBERT SL, BAHR HM & GOODMAN K
1983. *Divorce and remarriage: Problems adaptations and adjustments*. England: Greenwood.
- ANSFIELD JG
1971. *The adopted child*. Springfield: Charles C Thomas.
- AVENANT PJ
1990. *Guidelines for successful teaching*. Durban: Butterworths.
- AXINN NW, HALL OA & PAOLUCCI B
1977. *Family decision-making - An ecosystem approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- BACKMAN CW & SECOND PF
1968. *A social psychological view of education*. USA: Harcourt, Brace & World.
- BANKS O & FINLAYSON D
1973. *Success and failure in the secondary school*. London: Methuen & Company.
- BARTH RP
1986. *Social and cognitive treatment of children and adolescents*. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- BAUMRIND D
1968. Authoritarian versus authoritative parental control. *Adolescence* 3(1):.....
- BECK FD
1976. *Marriage and the family under challenge*. New York: Family Service Association.
- BEHR AL
1973. *Methods and techniques in educational and psychological research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- BELL J
1987. *Doing your research project*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- BELSKY J, LERNER RM & SPANIER GB
1984. *The child in the family*. Massachusetts, USA: Addison-Wesley Publ.
- BERGER EH
1981. *Parents as partners in education*. London: CV Mosby Company.

- BERMAN J & POLIT-O'HARA
1984. *Just the right size: A guide to family size planning*. New York: Praegar Publishers.
- BERNS RM
1993. *Child, family and community*. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- BEST JW
1981. *Research in education*. London: Prentice Hall.
- BIGNER JJ
1979. *Parent-child relations*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.
- BOWLBY J
1988. *A secure base-parent-child attachment and healthy human development*. New York: Basic Books Inc.
- BRIMMER A, MADDOYS GF, CHAPMAN B, KELLAGHAN T & WOOD R
1978. *Sources of difference in school achievement*. London: NFER Publishing Company.
- BROWN HS, ENGEL HC, SAGER CJ, RODSTEIN E & WALKER L
1983. *Treating the remarried family*. New York: Brunner/Mazel Publishers.
- BURGESS T
1976. *Home and school*. Hammondsworth: Penguin Ltd.
- CALLAN V & NOLLER P
1991. *The adolescent in the family*. New York: Routledge, Chapman & Hall.
- CAMPION J
1985. *The child in context: Family-systems theory in educational psychology*. London: Methuen & Co.
- CAVE E & WILKINSON C
1990. *Local management of schools - some practical issues*. London: Routledge.
- CHILD D
1981. *Psychology and the teacher*. London: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- CICOUREL AV, JENNINGS KH, JENNINGS SHM, LEITER KCW, MACKAY R, MEHAN H & ROTH DR
1994. *Language use and school performance*. New York: Academic Press Inc.
- CLAPP G
1992. *Divorce and new beginnings*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- CLARK RM
1983. *Family life and school achievement - why poor black children succeed or fail*. Chicago & London: University of Chicago Press.
- COLEMAN HENDRY
1990. *The nature of adolescence*. London: Routledge.

- COLEMAN JC
1980. *The nature of adolescence*. London & New York: Methuen & Company.
- COLLINS S
1988. *Step-parents and their children*. London: Souvenir Press Ltd.
- CONGER J
1979. *Adolescence: Generation under pressure*. South Africa: Juta & Company.
- COX KM & DESFORGES M
1987. *Divorce and the school*. London/New York: Methuen.
- CRAFT M, RAYNOR J & COHEN L
1967. *Linking home and school*. London: Langmans, Green & Co.
- CRATTY BJ
1970. *Perceptual and motor development in infants and children*. London: Macmillan Company.
- CURRIE JK & HEYNEMAN SP
1979. *Schooling academic performance and occupational attainment in a non-industrialized country*. Washington: University Press of America.
- DEKKER EI
1995. Parental rights, parent participation and parent cooperation in formal education of West German lander - General guidelines for parental involvement in education. D. Ed. Thesis. *Educare* 16(1).
- DE ROSIS H
1974. *Parent power-child power*. New York: McGraw-Hill Company.
- DE VILLIERS GRAAFF JF & LAWRENCE ML
1986. *Rural parents and school enrolment patterns*. Mafikeng: University of Bophuthatswana.
- DOWLING E & OSBORNE E
1994. *The family and the school*. London & New York: Routledge.
- DREWS EM & TEAHAN JF
1957. Parental attitudes and academic achievement. *Journal of Clinical Psychology* 1(13):...
- DREYFUS EA
1976. *Adolescence: Theory and experience*. Ohio: Bell & Howell Company.
- EDWARDS JN
1969. *The family and change*. New York: Alfred A Knopf.
- ELKIND D
1974. *Children and adolescents*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- ELLIS SP
1985. *Family cohesion and delinquency in the divorced single-parent household*. San Diego: University Microfilms International.

- ELLS AH
1995. *Family love*. Nashville: Thomas Nelson Publishers.
- ERIKSON EH
1968. *Identity: Youth and crisis*. New York: WW Norton & Company.
- EVERETT CA
1992. *Divorce and the next generation*. New York: The Warworth Press.
- FRETWELL KE
1931. *Extra-curricular activities in secondary schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- GECAS V, ROONEY E, THOMAS LD & WEIGERT A
1974. *Family, socialization and the adolescent*. Massachusetts: DC Heath & Company.
- GOODE WJ
1963. *World revolution and family patterns*. London: Free Press of Glencoe.
- GROSS TF
1985. *Cognitive development*. California: Brooks/Cole Publishing.
- HALPERN DF
1986. *Sex differences in cognitive abilities*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- HAMMERSLEY M & WOODS P
1993. *Gender and ethnicity in schools*. London & New York: Routledge.
- HARPER PB
1978. *Self concept and school achievement*. Unpublished M.Sc.Script. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.
- HARRIS CC
1969. *The family*. London: George Allen & Unwin.
- HEASMAN K
1978. *Home, family and community*. Boston: George Allen & Unwin.
- HODGES WF
1986. *Interventions for children of divorce - custody, access and psychotherapy*. USA: John Wiley & Sons.
- HOFER M, NOACK P & YOUNISS J
1994. *Psychological responses to social change*. New York: Walter de Gruyter.
- JACOBSON GF
1983. *The multiple crises of marital separation and divorce*. London: Grune & Stratton.
- JAYNES JH & RUGG CA
1988. *Adolescents, alcohol and drugs*. Springfield: Charles C Thomas.

- JEWETT C
1982. *Helping children cope with separation and loss*. Boston: Harvard Common Press.
- JOHNSON D & RANSOM E
1983. *Family and school*. London & Canberra: Croom Helm.
- KAGAN J
1969. *Personality development*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- KAHN AJ & KAMERMAN SB
1981. *Child care, family benefits and working parents*. New York: Columbia University press.
- KATZ AE
1993. Parent involvement in American Schools. *Educamus* 39(1):14-17.
- KAY FG
1972. *The family in transition - its past, present and future patterns*. Brittain: David & Charles Ltd.
- KAYE E, STINNETT N & WALTERS J
1984. *Relationships in marriage and the family*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- KOBASIGAWA & MAILHOIT
1997. Interdisciplinary and applied. *Journal of Psychology* 131(6):...
- KROGER J
1989. *Identity in adolescence: The balance between self and other*. London & New York: Routledge.
- L'ABANTE L
1985. *The handbook of family pshchology and therapy*. Illinois: Dorsey Press.
- LAOSA ML & SIGEL IE
1983. *Changing families*. New York & London: Plenum Press.
- LAYCOCK AB, RYAN P & WARREN BL
1981. *Contemporary parenting: Course guidelines for parent education*. Ypsilanti, Michigan: Department of Education.
- LINDSAY C
[s.a.] *School and community*. Edinburgh: Pergamon Press.
- LINDSAY G
1983. *Problems of adolescence in the secondary school*. Worcester: Croom Helm.
- LITWAK E & MEYER RH
1974. *The school, family and neighbourhood - theory and practice of school-community relations*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- LONG R
1986. *Developing parental involvement in primary schools*. London: Macmillan Publishers.

- LOUW DA
1992. *Human development*. Pretoria: HAUM.
- LUEPNITZ DA
1982. *Child custody - A study of families after divorce*. USA: DC Heath and Company.
- MANASTER GJ
1989. *Adolescent development: A psychological interpretation*. Illinois: Peacock Publishers, Inc.
- MASILELA PJ
1988. *A socio-pedagogic description of factors that influence scholastic achievement of secondary school pupils in Kwandebele*. Unpublished M.Ed. Script. Durban: University of Zululand.
- MCCANDLESS RB
1961. *Children and adolescents' behaviour and development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- MCMILLAN & SCHUMACHER
1993. *Research in education. A conceptual introduction*. New York: Harper Collins.
- MOLEBATSI MJ
1992. *Comparison on academic performance between pupils from single-parent families and pupils from two-parent families in some primary schools in Bothsabelo, OFS*. Unpublished M.Ed script. Bloemfontein: UOFS.
- MORGAN DHJ
1996. *Family connections*. Oxford: Polity Press.
- MWAMWENDA TS
1989. *An introduction to educational psychology - an African perspective*. Durban: Butterworths.
- NONGOGO SS
1989. *The high failure rate and Wastage in Ciskei primary schools with special reference to sub-standard A in the Mdantsane South East Directorate*. Unpublished M.Ed. script. Bloemfontein: University of the Orange Free State.
- NYE II
1958. *Family relationships and delinquent behaviour*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- OATES MD
1993. *Death in the school community - A handbook for counselors, teachers and administrators*. Alexandria: American Counseling Association.
- OPPONG C
1981. *Middle class African marriages*. London: George Allen & Unwin.
- OTERO-LENERO L
1977. *Beyond the nuclear family model: Cross-cultural perspectives*. Surrey: Biddles Ltd.

- PALSEY K & IHINGER-TALLMAN M
1987. *Remarriage and step-parenting*. London: The Guilford Press.
- PARKINSON L
1986. *Conciliation in separation and divorce*. London: Croom Helm.
- PARTINGTON J & WRAGG T
1989. *Schools and parents*. London: Cassell Educational Ltd.
- PENNELLS M & SMITH S
1995. *The forgotten mourners - guidelines for working with bereaved children*. Pennsylvania: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- PRINGLE MK
1974. *The needs of children*. New York: Schocken Books.
- PROCIDANO ME & FISHER CB
1992. *Contemporary families - A handbook for school professionals*. New York & London: Teachers College Press.
- RAE SB
1994. *The ethnics of commercial surrogate motherhood*. London: Praeger Publishers.
- RAMSAY DK
1984. *Family, school and community - perspectives on the sociology of New Zealand Education*. Sydney: George Allen and Unwin.
- RICH MJ
1982. *Discipline and authority in school and family*. Lexington: DC Heath & Company.
- RICHMOND PG
1970. *An introduction to Piaget*. New York: Basic Books.
- ROBINSON M
1991. *Family transformation through divorce and remarriage*. London: routledge, Chapman & Hall.
- RODMAN H & TROST J
1986. *The adolescent dilemma*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- ROSEN R
1961. *Relationship between parental attitudes, achievement motivation and reading attainment*. Unpublished M.A. Script. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.
- ROWE J
1966. *Parents, children and adoption*. London: routledge & Kegan Paul.
- SAGER C, BROWN H, CROHN H, ENGEL T, RODSTEIN E & WALKER L
1983. *Treating the remarried family*. New York: Bruner/Mazel Publishers.
- SANTROCK JW
1981. *Adolescence: An introduction*. Iowa: Wm.C Brown.

- SARASON G, LINDNER K & CRNIC K
1976. *A guide for foster parents*. New York: Human Sciences Press.
- SCANZONI JH
1971. *The black family in modern society*. USA: Allyn & Bacon.
- SCHAEFFER S
1992. *Collaborating for educational change - the role of teacher, parent and the community in school improvement*. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning.
- SCHIEFELBEIN E & SIMMONS J
1981. *The determinants of school achievement: A review of the research for developing countries*. Ottawa: International Development Research Centre.
- SCHOWALTER J, PATTERSON PR, TALLMER M, KUTSCHER A, GULLO SV & PERETZ D
1983. *The child and death*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- SEBALD H
1984. *Adolescence: A social psychological analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- SIHLEZANA NNP
1994. *The role of the parent and other influential factors on the academic achievement of children*. Unpublished M.Ed. Script. Bloemfontein: University of the Orange Free State.
- SMART MS & SMART RC
1973. *Adolescents' development and relationships*. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.
- SMART MS & SMART SL
1976. *Families developing relationships*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- SMITH C
1984. *Adoption and fostering*. Britain: Macmillan Publishers.
- SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR CHILD AND FAMILY WELFARE
1987. *A guide to foster care practice in South Africa*. Johannesburg: SANCCFW.
- SPENCE JT
1983. *Achievement and achievement motives*. San Fransisco: WH Freeman & Company.
- STEINBERG L
1993. *Adolescence*. USA: McGrawHill.
- STEVENSON MF & SIGLER EF
1993. *Children in a changing world - development and social issues*. California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- STEVENSON O
1965. *Someone else's child*. London: routledge & Kegan Paul.
- STEYN AF
1993. *Family structures in the RSA*. Pretoria: HSRC.

- STINNETT N & WALTERS J
1977. *Relationships in marriage and family*. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.
- TAKANISHI R
1993. *Adolescence in the 1990s - risk and opportunity*. New York: Teachers' College Press.
- VISHER BE & VISHER JS
1982. *Howe to win as a step-family*. New York: Brunner/Mazel Publishers.
- WADSWORTH M
1979. *Roots of delinquency - infancy, adolescence and crime*. Oxford: Martin Robertson & Company.
- WAVERING MJ
1995. *Educating young adolescents*. New York & London: Garland Publishing.
- WHITE PAPER ON EDUCATION AND TRAINING
1995. *The Government Gazette of South Africa*. 27 March 1995.
- WILKINSON M
1981. *Children and divorce*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell Publishers.
- WILLIAMSON RC
1966. *Marriage and family relations*. London: John Wiley & Sons.
- WINCH F & GOODMAN W
1968. *Selected studies in marriage and the family*. USA: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- WYNESS MG
1996. *Schooling, welfare and parental responsibility*. London: Falmer Press.
- YORBURG B
1972. *The changing family*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- ZIBI ZN
1995. *The relationship between self-concept and academic achievement of standard 10 students in the Umtata urban area senior secondary schools*. Bloemfontein: University of the Orange Free State.

Appendix A

P.O. B0x 1187
Mafeteng, 900
Lesotho

3 June 1998

The Personnel Secretary
Ministry of Education
PO Box 47
MASERU

Dear Sir

**RE: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A STUDY IN SOME
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE MASERU REGION**

I am a registered full-time Master of Education degree student at the University of the Orange Free State. I wish to be granted permission to conduct a research study in some secondary schools in the Maseru region.

Topic: *The influence of a family structure on the academic performance of secondary pupils in the Maseru region.*

I hope my application reaches your favourable consideration.

Yours faithfully

PULENG R. LETSIE



Appendix B Letter from Ministry

LESOTHO

Ministry of Education

26 August 1998

All Principals of Secondary and High Schools
MASERU DISTRICT

PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH STUDY

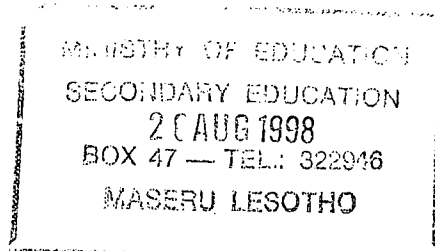
This serves to inform you that Ms. Puleng R. Letsie is a University student, pursuing a Master of Education Degree, who would like to carry out a research in the Secondary and High Schools of the Maseru District. The research topic is "The influence of a change in the family structure on the academic performance of Forms B and C pupils in the Maseru District".

You are requested to provide her with the usual cooperation, and assist her in her endeavour.

Yours sincerely

L.B. MAHLOKA

Chief Education Officer



Appendix C Questionnaire

TO FORMS B AND C PUPILS

AIM OF INVESTIGATION

The aim of this investigation is to find out whether different family structures have any influence on the academic performance of pupils.

INSTRUCTIONS

1. This is a research questionnaire, and NOT a test.
2. There is no wrong or right answer because we want to know your own opinion, so please be free to give an HONEST answer.
3. Your answers are strictly confidential. No one else will see your answers except the researcher only. Note that your name is not required.
4. Please answer ALL the questions.
5. Ask your teacher for help if you do not understand any part of the questionnaire.
6. Read each question carefully and then indicate your answer with a tick in the appropriate box.



7. No marks should be made in the right-hand column (Official Use).

EXAMPLES

I am proud of my school

Strongly agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	✓			

Official
Use

Most teachers in this school are fair

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

NOTE

To be able to do this research, it is very important for us to know the people or person you are staying with during school terms. If your parent(s) are for instance, still alive, and you see them occasionally or during the holidays, indicate in this questionnaire the person or people you are staying with during the school terms.

SECTION A - BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Name of School:

Date:

1. Indicate the class/form you are in now

Form B	Form C

Official
Use

1	2	3

4	
---	--

2. Gender

Male	Female

Official
Use

5	
---	--

3. Age

Under 14	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
Older	

6	
---	--

Official
Use

SECTION B - QUESTIONNAIRE

1. During school terms I stay with

7	
---	--

1	Both Parents Only (i.e. Biological) Father and Mother	54
2	Biological Mother Only	
3	Biological Father Only	
4	Mother and Grandparent(s)	
5	Father and Grandparent(s)	
6	Both Parents and Grandparent(s)	
7	Brother(s) and/or Sister(s)	
8	Parent(s) and Other Relatives	
9	Biological Mother and Stepfather	51
10	Biological Father and Stepmother	
11	Step-parents	1
12	Adoptive Parents	
13	Guardian	
14	Boarding (e.g. hostel)	

2. For how long have you been staying where you stay?

8	
---	--

Six months plus	Less than six months

Official

3. If you do not stay with your parents, how often do you see them?

Once a week	
Once in two weeks	
Once a month	
Every two months	
Every three months	
After six months	
Once a year	
Regularly	

Use

9	
---	--

4. The people I stay with say that school is not very important.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

10	
----	--

5. They praise me if I have done well

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

11	
----	--

6. I admire the people I stay with

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

12	
----	--

7. It is usually peaceful where I stay

Official
Use

13	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

8. There are good relations amongst the people I stay with.

14	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

9. They are very strict.

15	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

10. They like to punish me without explanation.

16	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Official
Use

11. They encourage me with my school-work

17	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

12. I cannot concentrate on my school-work because of the noise at home

18	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

13. They are interested in my progress at school

19	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

14. I feel at ease to discuss any problems that I have with them.

20	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Official
Use

15. I usually complete my homework before I do anything when I get home.

21	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

16. I have to do a lot of domestic duties (like preparing meals, cleaning the house, looking after small children, etc.)

22	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

17. I do my domestic duties every afternoon.

23	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

18. The people I stay with have a positive influence on my school-work.

24	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Official
Use

19. I have a lot of time to do my school-work at home.

25	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

20. I stay in an illiterate household, therefore I do not get enough motivation.

26	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following questions must be answered only by pupils who do not stay with their biological parents.

21. I miss my parents very much and I wish I could stay with them all the time.

27	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

22. My school work could be much better if I was staying with my parents.

28	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

23. My parents seldom look at my school-work.

29	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

24. Pupils living with their parents perform better at school.

30	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

25. School performance is not influenced by one's family structure.

31	
----	--

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Thank you for your co-operation!