

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS FROM THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 4, the research strategies and methods regarding black learners' life-worlds, especially their experience of the multicultural school environment in a formerly traditionally white school, were discussed. The stages described in Section 4.5 of the previous chapter provide the structure for this chapter. In this chapter, the questions that guided the research are stated where relevant. In order to determine the nature of their experience the data collected by means of questionnaires are analysed and interpreted. The questionnaire is appended as Appendix A for easy reference to the exact formulation of the questions. Questions and variables are referred to in this chapter by number, for example Q56 (V96). (Data collected by means of interviews are discussed in Chapter 6).

The data analysis was done by means of statistical calculations and is documented in the form of frequency tables and figures. To construct Tables 5.1 to 5.23, one-way frequency analysis was used to investigate possible trends (discussed in Sections 5.2 to 5.4). Thereafter, two-way frequency analysis was used to construct Tables 5.24 to 5.43 (discussed in Section 5.5). The total sample size was N = 332.

First, the biographical data on the learners are discussed as part of the family dimension, followed by details on parents and the parent-child relationship. Next, the individual and school/cultural dimensions are examined, focusing on the various questions that form part of each dimension.

5.2 THE FAMILY DIMENSION

The family dimension concerns biographical information on the learners as well as their experience of their life-world at home. It contains information on some aspects of the family value system, the educational involvement of the parents and their interpersonal



relationships with their children. Some light is also shed on the physical environment in and around the home.

5.2.1 Biographical data on the learners

The following biographical information was collected on the learners:

- What is the learners' age? (Q2, V2 see Figure 5.1)
- What is the learners' gender? (Q3, V3 see Table 5.1(a))
- Is it the learners' first year in Grade Nine? (Q4, V4 see Table 5.1(b))
- What is the language most spoken at home? (Q58, V102 see Table 5.1(c))

5.2.1.1 Age

Figure 5.1 is a bar-chart drawn to depict the frequency of the respondents' ages.

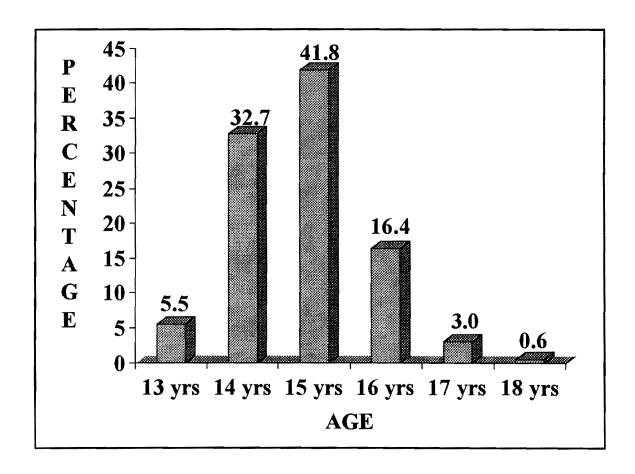


Figure 5.1: Age of the learners who completed the questionnaire



It is clear from Figure 5.1 that most of the learners – 138 (41.8%) – are fifteen years old, followed by 108 (32.7%) who are fourteen, and 18 (5.5%) respondents who are thirteen. Therefore the average age of the respondents falls into the early adolescent phase. This corresponds with the age group one would expect to find in Grade Nine. Of the respondents, 66 (20%) were sixteen and older. This means that they represent a later phase of adolescence and suggests that their age could influence their experiences and expectations of their school.

5.2.1.2 Gender

Table 5.1 (a): Gender of learners

Gender Q3 (V3)	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Boys	147	44.3
Girls	185	55.7
Total	332	100

INTERPRETATION

Of the respondents, 185 (55.7%) were girls and 147 (44.3%) were boys.

5.2.1.3 One or more years in Grade Nine

Table 5.1 (b): First year in Grade Nine

First year in Grade Nine Q4 (V4)	f	%
Yes	288	86.7
No	44	13.3
Total	332	100



For 288 (86.7%) of the learners, this is their first year in Grade Nine, while 44 (13.3%) are repeating Grade Nine.

5.2.1.4 Language most spoken at home

Table 5.1 (c): Language most spoken at home

Language	L eading the second	%
Tswana	147	44.4
Northern Sotho	43	13.0
Southern Sotho	38	11.5
Zulu	29	8.8
Xhosa	21	6.3
Tsonga	18	5.4
Venda	13	3.9
English	11	3.3
Ndebele	6	1.8
Swazi	3	0.9
Other	2	0.6
Total	331*	100

^{(*}There was a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)

INTERPRETATION

Tswana is the language most spoken, in 147 (44.4%) of the homes, followed by Northern Sotho in 43 (13.0%) and Southern Sotho in 38 (11.5%) of the homes. English is the language most spoken in only 11 (3.3%) of the homes. These findings are significant, since English is the language that 277 (86.0%) of the learners want as their medium of instruction (see Q58, V102).

5.2.2 Biographical data on the parents

According to Scheffer (1972:84-101), the occupational status and educational level of parents are very important determinants of the lifestyle and living milieu of a family. For that reason, it was imperative to look closely at these two aspects. In Table 5.2 (a), the



educational level of the parents is set out. In Tables 5.2(b) and (c), the occupational status of the parents is presented.

5.2.2.1 The educational level of the parents

Table 5.2 (a): Highest educational level of parents

Qualifications of parents	Fati Q9 (\		Mother Q11 (V20)		
	f	%	ſ	9%	
Grade 7 (standard 5) and lower	2	0.6	5	1.5	
Grade 10 (standard 8)	11	3.4	10	3.0	
Grade 12 (matric)	29	8.9	29	8.8	
Grade 12 (matric) plus diploma	23	7.1	49	14.8	
Grade 12 (matric) plus degree	71	21.8	94	28.4	
I do not know my father/mother	18	5.5	5	1.5	
I do not know	171	52.6	139	42.0	
Total	325*	100	331*	100	

^{(*}There was a missing frequency of 7 for Q9 (V18) and 1 for Q11 (V20). These frequencies were discarded due to unreliability.

INTERPRETATION

From those learners who knew details about their parents' educational qualifications (136 cases for fathers, 187 cases for mothers), the following data were gathered:

- It appears that 13 out of 136 (9.6 %) fathers and 15 out of 187 (8.0%) mothers have qualifications up to the Grade 10 level or lower;
- 29 out of 136 (21.3%) fathers and 29 out of 187 (15.5%) mothers have a Grade 12 (matric) qualification;
- 23 out of 136 (16.9%) fathers have a Grade 12 (matric) qualification plus a diploma, whereas 49 out of 187 (26.2%) mothers have a matric plus a diploma; and

The area surrounded by double lines represents the responses of learners who knew what their parents' qualifications were.)



• 71 out of 136 (52.2%) fathers and 94 out of 187 (50.3%) mothers have a matric and a degree.

It is of particular importance for this study to note that 171 out of 325 (52.6%) learners did not know what their fathers' qualifications are, and 139 out of 331 (42.0%) learners did not know what their mothers' qualifications are. Also, 18 out of 325 (5.5%) learners did not know their fathers, and 5 out of 331 (1.5%) learners did not know their mothers.

5.2.2.2 The occupational status of parents

During the classification process of the occupational status of learners' parents, occupational codes (see list of codes – Appendix E) were assigned to the various occupations of the parents according to a classification scheme developed by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). These codes are incorporated in Tables 5.2 (b) and (c).

Table 5.2(b) overleaf



Table 5.2 (b): Occupational status of father

Code	Professional or semi-professional occupation Administrative and managerial worker Clerk and related worker Salesperson Schooled tradesman Trained outside occupation Farmer, gardener Duty worker (personal and domestic) Operator and semi-skilled worker Unschooled occupation Housewife Pensioner Jobless Subtotal I do not know (his occupation)	Know		Known and unknown		
		ſ	%	f	%	
3	Professional or semi-professional occupation	55	25.9			
3	Administrative and managerial worker	44	20.8	99	30.0	
2	Clerk and related worker	12	5.7			
2	Salesperson	42	19.8	100	30.3	
2	Schooled tradesman	14	6.6			
2	Trained outside occupation	32	15.1			
1	Farmer, gardener	2	0.9			
1	Duty worker (personal and domestic)	2	0.9	7	2.1	
1	Operator and semi-skilled worker	1	0.5			
1	Unschooled occupation	2	0.9			
0	Housewife	0	0		-	
0	Pensioner	3	1.4	6	1.8	
0	Jobless	3	1.4			
	Subtotal	212	100			
	I do not know (his occupation)			105	31.8	
	I do not know my father	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		5	1.5	
	Father deceased			7	2.1	
	Total		1	330*	100	

^{(*}There was a missing frequency of 2, which was discarded due to unreliability.

The majority of the fathers (199) are classified under Occupational Codes 2 and 3. These codes include occupations such as clerks, salespeople, schooled tradesmen, as well as professional, semi-professional, administrative or managerial occupations.

The area surrounded by double lines represents the responses of learners who knew the occupational status of their fathers.)



Table 5.2 (c): Occupational status of mother

Code	Occupational status Q8 (V17)	Know	n only		n and lown
		f	%	f	%
3	Professional or semi-professional occupation	158	58.5		
3	Administrative and managerial worker	17	6.3	175	53.4
2	Clerk and related worker	29	10.7		
2	Salesperson	26	9.6	62	18.9
2	Schooled trades(wo)man	4	1.5		
2	Trained outside occupation	3	1.1		
1	Farmer, gardener	0	0		
1	Duty worker (personal and domestic)	2	0.7	13	4.0
1	Operator and semi-skilled worker	8	3.0		
1	Unschooled occupation	3	1.1		
0	Housewife	11	4.1		
0	Pensioner	0	0	20	6.1
0	Jobless	9	3,3		
	Subtotal	270	100		<u> </u>
	I do not know (her occupation)		1	54	16.5
	I do not know my mother			1	0.3
	Mother deceased	L		3	0.9
	Total		1	328*	100

^{*}There was a missing frequency of 4, which was discarded due to unreliability.

The majority of mothers (175) are classified under Occupational Code 3. This means that most of the mothers are either professional, semi-professional, administrative or managerial workers. Next comes Code 2 (62 mothers), which includes occupations such as clerks, salespeople, schooled tradeswomen and trained outside occupations.

The fact that in Tables 5.2 (b) and (c) as many as 105 (31.8%) of the fathers' and 54 (16.4%) of the mothers' occupations were unknown to their children is particularly relevant

The area surrounded by double lines represents the responses of learners who knew the occupational status of their mothers.)



for this research. It could indicate a lack of adequate communication between these parents and their children.

5.2.3 Facilities available at the homes of black learners

The physical home environment of black learners is important, because inadequate facilities can be regarded as a stumbling block to proper school adjustment. Tables 5.3 (a), (b), (c) and (d) indicate respectively the areas in which learners reside, the number of bedrooms in the home, the number of home occupants, as well as the availability of amenities such as running water, electric lights, a geyser, a fridge and newspapers.

The research questions are the following:

Do black learners experience overcrowded housing, and/or sensory and intellectual deprivation at home? Which basic facilities are available at the homes of black learners?

Table 5.3 (a): Facilities at home: In which area do you live?

In which area do you live?	Area	ľ	%
Q18 (V40)	Suburb	174	52.9
	Township	141	42.9
	Farm/smallholding	6	1.8
	Other	8	2.4
Total		329*	100

^{(*}There was a missing frequency of 3, which was discarded due to unreliability.)



Table 5.3 (b): Number of bedrooms in the home

Number of bedrooms in the home Q16 (V35)	Number of bedrooms	f	%
	1	4	1.2
	2	39	11.7
	3	144	43.4
	4	69	20.8
	5 or more	76	22.9
Total		. 332	100

Table 5.3 (c): Number of occupants

Number of occupants Q14 (V33)	Occupants	l	%
	2-4	219	66.2
	5-6	90	27.2
	7 or more	22	6.6
Total		331*	100

(*There was a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)

Table 5.3 (d): Amenities available

Availability of:	Ava	ilable	Unav	ailable	Total		
Q17(V36-39)	f	%	ſ	%	ſ	%	
Running water (V36)	319	96.1	13	3.9	332	100	
Electric lights (V37)	328	98.8	4	1.2	332	100	
Geyser (V38)	297	90.3	32	9.7	329*	100	
Fridge (V39)	324	97.9	7	2.1	331**	100	
Newspapers Q15 (V34)	307	92.7	24	7.3	331***	100	

^{(*}Q15 (V38) had a missing frequency of 3.

The missing frequencies were discarded due to unreliability.)

^{**}Q 15 (V39) had a missing frequency of 1.

^{***}Q15 (V34) also had a missing frequency of 1.



In general it appears that a majority of 174 (52.9%) of the learners reside in suburbia. However, a significant number, 141 (42.9%), live in the townships. This means that many of the learners commute daily between two different life-worlds – the one is the township, where the rule of thumb is often that "only the strongest survive", contrasting with the other, the Westernised industrial world, which demands congruency with its own particular ideologies and philosophies.

Demographic factors, such as the distance between the parental home and school also determines the amount of time spent daily on travelling. Miller (1998:5) states that long bus rides could leave children hungry when they arrive at school. This is especially relevant if meals are skipped (see also Section 5.2.4) or lack proper nutritional value. Consequently, learners' general school performance and particularly their cognitive functioning can be detrimentally affected (Fernald, Ani & Grantham-McGregor, 1997:19; Miller, 1998:5). Another particularly South African problem associated with living far from school is that it prevents learners from participating in extra-mural activities that they might wish to take part in. Teachers have identified participation in extra-mural activities as a vital facilitating element in learner accommodation. Therefore, where learners live can influence their experience of meaningful accommodation at school.

From the responses to Q16 (V35), it appears that 87.1% of respondents live in houses with three or more bedrooms and from those to Q14 (V33) it is clear that 93.4% of learners live in houses where there are fewer than six occupants. Liddell *et al.* (1994:57) refer to Loo and Ong's (1984) rating of household size according to international standards. These standards define overcrowding as seven or more members per household. Accordingly, from the responses to Q16 (V35) and Q14 (V33), it appears that generally the accommodation is adequate, since there are enough bedrooms for the number of home occupants. The occupancy rate, excluding the respondent, visitors and domestic servants, is two to four occupants per household for 219 (66.2) respondents, and seven or more occupants per household for only 22 (6.6) respondents. The number of bedrooms was limited for a small percentage of learners: Only 4 (1.2) respondents reported one bedroom and 39 (11.7) reported two bedrooms, which could indicate overcrowding in these instances.



With regard to the availability of facilities (Q17, V36-39), it appears that, generally speaking, the amenities in question are available. It must be mentioned, however, that for some of the respondents, not all the above amenities are available. Of these learners, 13 (3.9%) have no running water, while 32 (9.7%) do not have warm water readily available; 4 (1.2%) do not have electric lights; 7 (2.1%) do not have access to a fridge and in 24 (7.3%) of the homes, newspapers are not read.

Liddell et al. (1994:52; 58-59; 63-64) concluded from a South African study that global socio-economic status (SES) predictors, such as household size and ethnicity, although they are of great value for explaining the behaviour of Western children, have only limited predictive value regarding the behaviour of young African children growing up in very different circumstances in South Africa. Liddell et al. warn that these are categories invented by "experimenters" and may bear little resemblance to the categories used by South African communities to guide their everyday lives. These authors do concede, however, that variables such as SES and household density were not sufficiently spread in the sample under discussion, since the children studied by Liddell et al. all lived in crowded conditions.

For the purposes of this study, it was assumed that inadequate facilities tends to detract from the learners' general quality of life, in that it limits intellectual stimulation at home and complicates the day to day activities of ablution, feeding and studying. It is logical that this could have an impact on these learners' experience of the school environment as accommodating, especially since the schools in question were traditionally white schools embodying standards of living as determined by the industrialised West.

5.2.4 The quality of parental caregiving and support at home

Parental caregiving and support could make the difference as to whether learners can cope physically with the demands of the school or not. Poverty, in particular, can influence the ability of many families to serve as adequate support structures for the nurturance and development of learners (Dawes & Donald, 1994b:5). However, other factors are also influential. American research findings, for instance, indicate that one of the reasons for skipping breakfast is that the hectic work schedules of parents limit their ability to prepare and serve breakfast to their families (Miller, 1998:5). Older children, 12 to 13 year olds,



mentioned not having enough time, and said that they were "not hungry" in the morning. These are issues that require parental involvement and guidance, especially regarding the issues of health and time management.

The research qu	estion is the following:	
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what is the qua	llity of parental caregiving a	na support at nome:

Table 5.4: The quality of parental caregiving and support

Presence of circumstances	Not	at all	all Sometimes		Usually		Every day		Total	
that could hinder study	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q41 (V78)	127	38.3	171	51.5	21	6.3	13	3.9	332	100
Household dutie important than s		rk	Ag	ree	Unce	ertain	Diss	gree	To	tal
Q32 (V69)			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
			54	16.3	70	21.1	207	62.5	331*	100
Breakfast at hon	le				Y	es	Ŋ	io	To	tal
Q34 (V71)					f	%	f	%	f	%
					204	61.4	128	38.6	332	100

(*Q32 (V69) had a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)

INTERPRETATION

Only 127 (38.3%) of the learners do not have any circumstances which may hinder them from studying at home. It appears that 205 (61.7%) of the learners experience some form of obstruction or hindrance on a fairly regular basis when they want to study.

Of the learners, 207 (62.5%) do not agree that it is more important to get household duties done than it is to get their schoolwork done, while 54 (16.3%) agree that household duties are more important than their schoolwork and 70 (21.1%) are uncertain. This leaves 124 (37.4%) learners who could feel in some way pressurised at home to give top priority to the performance of household duties. Also see Table 5.6(b), which shows that 45 (13.6%) of the learners are not actively encouraged to attend to their studies at home.



Regarding the eating of breakfast at home, 204 (61.4%) of the respondents answered in the affirmative, which is positive. It is not clear when the remaining 128 (38.6%) consume breakfast: on the way to school, on arriving at school, or only at first break (which is at about 10h00). If the latter is the case, it means that the learners' diet is "inadequate", in the sense that breakfast is eaten too late in the morning to provide nutrition for many early morning activities.

Findings from American studies on the value of breakfast have shown that children who regularly eat breakfast make fewer errors on standardised achievement tests, are more attentive, vigilant and display reduced tardiness (Miller, 1998:5; Fernald, Ani & Grantham-McGregor, 1997:19-20). In addition, Miller (1998:4) says that children may not be able to compensate for the nutrients normally provided by breakfast by eating other meals during the day, thereby affecting their overall nutrient status and calcium intake in particular. In this regard, there may be a need for a specifically South African study to compare breakfasts, their intake and effects, since American breakfast habits may differ from those in South Africa, and in the townships in particular.

For the purposes of this study, the question remains whether these learners' diet can boost them to perform at maximum levels (both intellectually and physically) during the school day. Factors which should be considered include the nutritional quality of the meal as well as the time of day it is consumed.

It also appears that many of the parents of these respondents need guidance concerning the provision of quality caregiving and support in the home.

5.2.5 The role of traditional values in the black family

Belgrave et al. (1994:143-154) refer to Akbar (1979), to Baldwin (1981) and to Nobels (1985) who define an Afri-centric world view as a set of beliefs, philosophical orientations and assumptions that reflect basic African values. One of the dimensions includes spirituality. Belgrave et al. (1994:143-154) found in a study that the enhancement of Africentric values could be useful in drug prevention programmes.

Cleaver (1994:10) claims that since 1976, black community life has changed, resulting in many traditional values losing their meaning. This in turn has influenced the stability of



black learners' life-worlds. In the light of these changes, in this study, it was considered important to determine to what extent traditional values are still respected.

The research question is the following:

How important is the role of traditional values in the black family?

Table 5.5: The importance of traditional values

Attendance of Regularly Officeligious services		ten	Seldom		Never		Total			
Q6 (V15)	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	153	46.6	91	27.7	46	14.0	38	11.6	328*	100
Belief in spirits of	Belief in spirits of forefathers				Yes		No		Total	
Q44 (V81)					f	%	f	%	f	%
					99	30.0	231	70.0	330*	100
Treated by medica	ıl docto)r			Y	es	1	Vo	Te	tal
Q (V)					f	%	f	%	f	%
					313	94.3	19	5.7	332	100
Treated by tradition	onal ho	aler			Y	es	Ŋ	No.	To	tal
Q13 (V31 & 32)					f	%	f	%	f	%
					39	12.3	279	87.7	318*	100

(*Q6 (V15), Q44 (V81) and Q13 (V31 and 32) had missing frequencies of 4, 2 and 14 respectively. These frequencies were discarded due to unreliability.)

INTERPRETATION

The data shows that 244 (74.3%) of the respondents attend religious or traditional services regularly or often – indicating that this could be an influential aspect in the family system. The fact that 99 (30%) of learners believe in the spirits of their forefathers, and 39 (12.3%) have been treated by a traditional healer points to strong a Africa-orientation that should be allowed for at school. It is worrying, however, that 19 (5.7%) have never been treated by a medical doctor. One can ask oneself whether these learners might possibly be unaware of medical care received during infancy, or whether they have forgotten about previous medical treatment.



5.2.6 The quality of the parent-child relationship

For the purposes of this research, it is vital to question the quality of the parent-child relationship. The parent-child relationship should be characterised by trust, understanding and obedience to authority (Van Niekerk, 1982:8). By supporting their children emotionally, parents enable children to have confidence in their parents and themselves. This in turn leads to self-actualisation and a trusting relationship between parents and children.

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The research question is the following:	
What is the quality of the parent-child relation	ship?

Table 5.6 (a): Parent-child relationship: caregiver

Learner	Both	Mom	Dad	Mom	Dad &	Siblings	Grand-	Rela-	Other	Total
stays with: Q12 (V21-30)	parents			& step- dad	stepmom		parents	tives		
r	192	92	7	14	3	11	31	12	3	365 [*]

(*Some respondents selected more than one category of caregiver – hence the total, which is more than 332. Due to the number of additional responses, the frequencies were not expressed as percentages.)

Table 5.6 (b): Parent-child relationship: emotional support

Parents encourage learner to do homework	Y	es	1	No.	Total			
Q 40 (V77)	f	%	f	%	ſ	%		
	287	86.4	45	13.6	332	100		
Parents - can discuss personal problems	Y	es	1	Vo	To	Total		
Q42 (V79)	f	%	f	%	f	%		
	109	32.9	222	67.1	331*	100		
Parents scold undeservedly	Yes		1	No		Total		
Q 39 (V76)	f	%	f	%	f	%		
	129	39.2	200	60.8	329*	100		

(*Q42 (V79) and Q39 (V76) had missing frequencies of 1 and 3 respectively. These frequencies were discarded due to unreliability.)



Table 5.6 (c): Parent-child relationship: manner of discipline

Manner	Talk	Shout	Hit	Other	Scold	Ignore	Ground	Never	Other	Total
of				adult						
discipline										
Q35(V72)										
f	154	112	25	3	11	7	16	3	1	332
%	46.4	33.7	7.5	0.9	3.3	2.1	4.8	0.9	0.3	100

Table 5.6 (d): Parent-child relationship: gender of disciplinarian

Q36 (V73)	Male	 1988 ft 1, 4178 st 1, 458 11, 130 	Total
f	99	232	331*
%	29.9	70.1	100

(*Q36 (V73) had a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)

Table 5.6 (e): Parent-child relationship: respect

Respect for parents: Know better than parents Q37 (V74) f		Yes	1	ło	Total	
		82	2:	50	332	
9/6		24.7	75	5.3	100	
Reason for the above Q38 (V75)	Learners better educated	Learners know more	Learners cleverer	Parents old- fashioned	Other	Total
ſ	12	18	4	40	4	78*
9/6	15.4	23.1	5.1 51.3		5.1	100
Respect parents' traditional viewpoint Q45 (V82)		Yes	No		Total	
f		287	45		332	
%		86.4	13	3.6	100	

(*Q38 (V75) was only to be answered by respondents who had said "no" in Q37 (V74), hence the total of 78.)



Table 5.6 (f): Parent-child relationship: acceptance of parents

Feelings about parents'	Нарру	Embarrassed	Do not mind	Unhappy	Total
attending school					
function					
Q43 (V80)					
ſ	139	36	143	12	331*
9/6	42.0	10.9	43.2	3.9	100

(*There was a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)

INTERPRETATION

The data show that 192 learners come from intact families, while, of the rest, 92 are cared for by their mothers only, compared to 7 cared for by fathers only. This suggests that the mother is usually the parent responsible for child-care and therefore also the parent that carries most responsibility.

It appears that 287 (86.4%) of the parents do encourage their children to attend to their studies, which is a very positive finding.

An alarming 222 (67.1%) of learners indicated that they cannot discuss their personal problems with their parents or caregivers. This probably indicates a lack of communication between parents and learners (this finding was borne out by the interpretation of Tables 5.2 (b) and (c), which indicated that some learners did not know what their parents did for a living). Liddell *et al.* (1994:60) found that interactions and exchange of information between adults and children occurred less in larger black households. Parents are often busy or unavailable. It also appears that matters such as childbirth and sexuality are not discussed, since such discussions embarrass some black parents (Cleaver, 1994:10).

Peltzer (1993:15-16) explains that after weaning, the traditional person transfers the authority and omnipotence of the father and mother to the extended family including siblings and peers: "The 'mother-as-support' is widely extended to many mothers and fathers, in a system of multilateral possibilities of identification, including brothers and sisters, peers, older companions, father and ancestors."



However, from this research, the question arises if these respondents are not more transitional persons (learners) where the influence of the group is not strong any more. Consequently they may be undergoing a process of individuation which could leave them without the full support of the group system. Should parental support also be lacking, these learners may experience themselves as being emotionally very vulnerable, and as being left without guidance regarding the handling of their personal problems and basic life issues.

The data indicated that for 154 (46.4%) of these learners, the mode of discipline they are mostly exposed to, is that of a parent or caregiver who talks to them. The quality of discipline must be questioned in the cases of 112 (33.7%) respondents who say they are mostly shouted at. Negative methods of punishment (being given a hiding, 25 (7.5%); receiving a scolding, 11 (3.3%); and being ignored, 7 (2.1%)) are experienced by a total of 43 (13.0%) respondents. The forms of discipline preferred might be ascribed to the fact that in 232 (70.1%) of cases, the disciplinarian is female (most of the learners have their mothers present in their homes – see Table 5.6(a)). Also, 129 (39.2%) of the learners feel that they are scolded more than they deserve. This response might be interpreted as either an emotional reaction normal for adolescents; or as a sign that there is a lack of understanding on the side of the parents, or merely as an indication that overburdened mothers are trying to fulfil the roles of both provider and disciplinarian.

A further analysis of the parent-child relationship indicates that although there appears to be a lack of openness between parents and children, a majority of 250 (75.3%) of the learners felt they do not know better than their parents. Of the 78 (23.8%) that did feel that they know better than their parents, 40 (51.3%) ascribed their attitude to their parents' being old-fashioned, 18 (23.1%) felt that they as children know more about life and 12 (15.4%) felt that they were better educated than their parents. Parents' traditional viewpoints were respected by 287 (86.4%). The aforementioned data could indicate that authority relationships within the family are still reasonably intact for these respondents.

The above data suggest that a large percentage of learners are exposed to less optimally supportive home environments. Accommodation at school involves identification of and provision for such needs.



5.3 THE INDIVIDUAL DIMENSION

The individual dimension deals with aspects to do with the learners themselves. To a greater or lesser degree, these aspects play a vital part in helping learners to adjust to the school environment. It was felt that aspects such as feelings about the self, sensitivity to criticism, a sense of belonging to the school, personal aspirations and scholastic coping ability could shed light on the individual dimension. The findings on these aspects are discussed below.

5.3.1 The nature of learners' self-esteem

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale determines whether a person has a favourable or an unfavourable attitude toward himself (Rosenberg, 1965:18). It was decided to include this scale in the questionnaire in a modified form. The composite self-esteem score was derived by adding up the scale items and then averaging them, thus arriving at an aggregate value. The learners' responses to the scale items in Q24 (V46-55) are set out in Table 5.7(a).

The research question is the following:

What is the nature of the learners' self-esteem?

Table 5.7 (a) Feelings about the self

		Yes		Uncertain		No		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
a	In general I am happy with myself	258	78.9	40	12.2	29	8.9	327	100
b	At times I think that I am no good at all	89	27.2	134	41.0	104	31.8	327	100
e	I feel that I have some good in me	278	84.2	35	10.6	17	5.2	330	100
d	I am able to do things as well as any other young person	229	70.2	65	19.9	32	9.8	326	100
e	I feel I do not have much to be proud of	76	23.2	71	21.6	181	55.2	328	100
f	Sometimes I feel useless	86	26.4	96	29.4	144	44.2	326	100
g	I am just as valuable as any other young person	233	71.7	55	16.9	37	11.4	325	100
h	I wish I could like myself more	238	72.6	42	12.8	48	14.6	328	100
i	On the whole I think I am a failure	21	6.4	73	22.4	232	71.2	326	100
j	I feel good about myself	267	81.2	46	14.0	16	4.9	329	100

(There were missing frequencies (varying between 1 and 7) for the respective scale items. These frequencies were discarded due to unreliability.)



Q25 examined how learners react to criticism, and therefore provided additional insight into the learners' level of self-esteem (see Table 5.7(b)).

Table 5.7 (b): Sensitivity to criticism

How upset are you when you are criticised?		Very upset	A little upset	Not at all upset	Total
Q25 (V56)	f	128	142	60	330*
	%	38.8	43.0	18.2	100

(*There was a missing frequency of 2, which was discarded due to unreliability.)

INTERPRETATION

It looks as if the respondents generally feel positive about themselves (Q24). However, 72.6% indicated that they wished they could like themselves more (Item h).

This phenomenon is not easy to explain. Pacheco (1996:259) found in a study on black learners that a significant percentage would have liked to be someone else. Foster (1994:236-237) argues that out-group preference is often evident among minority-group children, while ethnocentrism and prejudice can be found to a larger degree amongst dominant-group children. Foster explains that additional methodological and conceptual criticism leave these findings "...less clear cut, less powerful and altogether more shaky but nevertheless naggingly still present. We believe that the earlier interpretations in terms of 'self-hatred' and psychopathology are exaggerated. Out-group preference need not necessarily imply self-rejection. Self-esteem among minority groups seems to remain surprisingly unscathed as the result of a host of protective and buffering processes. To interpret the meaning of these patterns we have to turn to moral and political considerations. The question of 'damage' cannot be answered in psychological terms alone. The question of values, in moral and political terms, stands at the core of the whole issue." Foster concludes that racism is still in place and he strongly advocates the eradication thereof. Accordingly, he singles out racism as the generator of, if not all, then certainly a substantial degree of negative self-responses. In line with Foster (1994:237), this study strongly advocates the eradication of racism (especially at school level), since racism can engender negative feelings towards the school as an institution of accommodation.



The learners' responses to the item aimed at examining sensitivity to criticism (Q25) showed that 81.8% (38.8% plus 43.0%) of learners are at least a little upset when others laugh at them when they have done something wrong. It could indicate that although learners generally have good self-esteem, their self-esteem can be shaken easily by inconsiderate actions. Consequently, it appears to be imperative that teachers should possess good interpersonal skills to negotiate tricky situations that might arise in the classroom or on the playground.

5.3.2 Belonging

Tables 5.8(a) to (e) set out a breakdown of responses to different aspects of the feeling of belonging to their school that learners experience, namely their participation in extra-mural activities, having close friends of another race group, their choice of school, feeling happy or unhappy at school, plus their reasons for feeling that way. The need to belong can be described as a need displayed by people, as inherently social beings, to belong to groups, thereby sharing in certain similarities and experiencing certain benefits (Cushner *et al.* 1992:58). According to these authors, at the centre of all affiliative behaviour lies the "need for the self-confirmation, attention, emotional release, esteem, and security that help to provide structure, meaning, and stability in people's lives".

The research question is the following:	
Do learners feel that they belong to their school?	

Table 5.8 (a): Friends in another race group

Close friends in another race group	None	One		More than two	Total
Q26 (V57) f	102	40	30	159	331*
9/6	30.8	12.1	9.1	48.1	100

(*There was a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)



Table 5.8 (b): Participation: feeling of belonging

Extra-mural activities Q5 (V5-14)	f
Sport	196
Hiking	36
Religious organisations	27
Choir	22
Drama	14
Debating	7
Chess	7
Service organisation	6
Other	6
None	67
Total	388*

(*This section was optional. Respondents could select more than one option, hence the total of 388. Because of the higher total number of responses, frequencies were not expressed as percentages.)

Table 5.8 (c): Choice of school

Choice of school composition	Only black	50-50% black-	More black	Races equal	Total
	learners	other	12	•	2214
Q27 (V58)	1 9 0/ 27	53	12	257	331*
	% 2.7	16.0	3.6	77.6	100

(*There was a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)

Table 5.8 (d): Feeling happy/unhappy when at school

Feeling happy/unhappy at school	Нарру	Unhappy	Total
Q28 (V58) f	252	80	332
%	75.9	24.1	100



Table 5.8 (e): Reasons for unhappiness

Specify reasons for answering the Question 28 (above) in the affirmative Q29 (V60-66)	f
Teachers	37
Social factors	31
Schoolwork	17
Too much discipline	14
Too little discipline	12
Lack of facilities	4
Other	9
Total	124*

(*This question was optional and respondents could select more than one option, hence the total of 124. Because of the higher number of responses, the frequencies were not expressed as percentages.)

INTERPRETATION

Sport can be singled out as the extra-mural activity within the school that most respondents participate in (196 respondents). Of the learners, 67 said that they do not participate in any extra-mural activities, which can possibly have a negative influence on their sense of belonging. According to the data, 69.2% of these learners are close friends with members of another race group, while 30.8% indicated that they did not have any friends from another race group.

When given a choice of schools, 77.6% would choose a school where all race groups are equally represented and 16% would prefer a school where black learners constitute 50% of the school population, while only 2.7% would prefer an all black school population. This indicates a wish to belong to and be accepted in the schools these learners are attending at present. Only 24.1% are unhappy at school, as opposed to 75.9% who are happy. The reasons specified for unhappiness are mainly teachers (37%) and social factors (31%). It is important to note that these factors centre around interpersonal relationships.



5.3.3 Aspirations

Aspirations are motivating factors, but when expectations are not met, learners may be disappointed. It was therefore decided to ascertain what learners' aspirations were, and to determine how these respondents feel about their scholastic achievement.

The research question is the following:

Do learners have unrealistic expectations and aspirations?

Table 5.9 (a): Aspirations

Educational level you would like to reach Q20 (V42)	ſ	%
Grade 9	3	0.9
Grade 10	3	0.9
Grade 11	2	0.6
Grade 12	14	4.2
Diploma / certificate	16	4.8
Degree	52	15.7
Degree + diploma / certificate	242	72.9
Total	332	100

In answer to Q21 (V43), whether learners thought they could reach the educational level they had indicated in Q20 (V42) (see Table 5.9 (a) above), 88.3% answered "yes", while 11.7% said "no".



Table 5.9 (b): Desired occupation

Desired occupation	ſ	%
Q23 (V45)		
Doctor	67	20.2
Chartered accountant	45	13.6
Lawyer	38	11.5
Engineer	28	8.5
Self-employed	20	6.0
Professional sportsman	11	3.3
Unsure	10	3.0
Other	112	33.8
Total	331*	100

^{(*}There was a missing frequency of 1, which was excluded due to unreliability.)

It appears from Q4(V4) (see also Table 5.1 (b)) that for 86.7% of the learners, this is their first time in Grade Nine, while 13.3% are repeating.

Table 5.9 (c): Feelings about schoolmarks

Schoolmarks Q31 (V68)		Very happy	Satisfied	Disappointed	Unceoncerned	Total
	f	34	157	131	10	332
	%	10.2	47.3	39.5	3.0	100

INTERPRETATION

Of the respondents, 72.9 % aspire to a degree plus a diploma or certificate. Only 15.7% would be satisfied with a degree. As many as 88.3% believe that they will be able to realise their ambitions. The preferred occupations are those in the higher status professions – doctor (20.2%), chartered accountant (13.6%), lawyer (11.5%) and engineer (8.5%).

As only 13.3% of the respondents are repeating Grade Nine (see Table 5.1(b)) it can be assumed that most of the respondents have at least a fair scholastic coping ability. Regarding their feelings about their schoolmarks, 42.5% indicated that they were



disappointed with or unconcerned about their marks, while 47.3% were merely satisfied with their marks. Since only 10.2% were very happy with their marks, one can safely presume that they felt their scholastic achievement was lacking.

Learners generally have very high and sometimes unrealistic expectations of themselves and the school (this finding was also borne out by the interviews). It appears that they view the school as a means of becoming upwardly mobile.

5.4 THE SCHOOL/CULTURAL DIMENSION

Kaschula and Anthonissen (1995:1,27) regard language as a social or cultural phenomenon, which is part of society. These authors maintain that language is partly shared by society and in some instances itself shapes society. As communication across cultures is very necessary in South Africa today, it not only calls for an awareness of differences between languages, but also for a tolerance between cultural groups when confronted by a variety of views and values (as expressed in language). For this reason it was necessary to gauge the learners' feelings regarding various aspects of language usage at school and at home.

5.4.1 Language

Language preferences were examined in this section.

The research question is the following:

What are the learners' feelings about language at school level?

Table 5.10 sets out data on different aspects of language usage, namely language preference; comprehensive ability; expressive ability and how easy it is to speak, read and write in English. Language preference refers to which language learners would prefer to be taught in. Comprehensive ability refers to the learners' ability to understand a language (what is often referred to as comprehension). Expressive ability refers to how learners experience their ability to speak, read or write in a language (in this case, English). Lemmer (1993:151-152) claims that many black learners display a Limited English Proficiency (LEP). Although their Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) – a term which refers to aspects such as basic vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation – are sometimes



adequate to allow basic communication, they are not sufficiently developed to ensure academic success. In fact, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) pertains to the proficiency level required to grasp academic concepts and to achieve well in school. For this reason, the learners were required to assess themselves.

Table 5.10: Language preference

Language preference Q58 (V102)	ſ	%
English	277	86.0
Tswana	18	5.6
North Sotho	7	2.2
Afrikaans	5	1.6
Zulu	5	1.6
Venda	2	0.6
French	2	0.6
Any other	6	1.8
Total	322	100
Comprehensive ability Q59 (V103)	ſ	%
Yes	123	37.0
No	209	63.0
Total	332	100
Expressive ability Q60 (V104)	ı	%
Yes	265	80.3
No	65	19.7
Total	330	100

How easy is it to	Very	easy	E	isy	Diff	icult	Very d	lifficult	To	tal
Q61 (V105-107)	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
• speak	162	48.8	159	47.9	9	2.7	2	0.6	332	100
• read	158	47.6	156	47.0	16	4.8	2	0.6	332	100
• write	141	42.5	160	48.2	28	8.4	3	0.9	332	100



Most learners (86%) prefer to be taught using English as the medium of instruction. Although the learners tend to experience the speaking, reading and writing of English as "very easy" or "easy" (more than 90% in each case), the indirect questions to gauge their expressive and comprehensive abilities (Q59 and Q60) indicate a lesser level of competence. Also, during the interviews, many grammar mistakes were made, which suggested that a fairly high level of Limited English Proficiency (LEP) was reasonably common.

5.4.2 Cultural factors

To get an idea of the behavioural dynamics in the school and classroom environment and how this could possibly be influenced by the culture of the learners, a number of questions concerning some cultural aspects were asked. These cultural factors were discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

5.4.2.1 Punctuality

Kearney (1984:95,103) maintains that there are various perceptions regarding time. While industrialised societies are future-oriented and value punctuality, non-industrialised societies concentrate more on the present, are more task-oriented and are by implication less concerned with punctuality.

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Table 5.11: Punctuality: Arriving late for school is acceptable

Condone latecoming Q46 (V83)	Yes	No	Total
f	82	250	332
6/6	24.7	75.3	100



Although 250 (75.3%) respondents were against coming to school late, as many as 82 (24.7%) respondents condoned getting to school late.

5.4.2.2 Communication

Factors such as the audibility level of language, as well as whether or not to establish eye contact during conversation and the physical distance between conversationalists, are culturally determined. These factors influence the style of communication. Because these factors differ between cultures, they are prone to misunderstanding.

The research question is the following:	
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Table 5.12: Traditional courtesy

Loud talk Q47 (V84)	ſ	%
Indicates bad manners	135	40.8
Is a sign of openness	61	18.4
Prevents gossiping	33	10.0
Is to be expected	77	23.3
Signals an ill-disciplined school	25	7.6
Total	331*	100
It is a sign of respect not to make eye contact Q48 (V85)	ſ	%
Agree	92	27.7
Uncertain	86	25.9
Disagree	154	46.4
Total	332	100

(*For Q47(V84) there was a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)



With regard to the meaning of loud talking in school corridors, 51.7% of the respondents chose the options of openness, of gossiping, or of something to be expected. This implies that they condone loud talk in the corridors between classes. It is highly probable that they approach loud talk from their own cultural mindset. Of the respondents, 27.7% felt that it is respectful not to look the teacher in the eye; 25.9% were uncertain. It appears that loud talking and not making eye contact is heavily influenced by cultural determinants.

5.4.2.3 Personal space

Personal space is a culturally determined phenomenon (Brisin *et al.* 1986;273). Indications are that the black culture has little regard for Western notions of personal space (Coutts 1992:85). Most Westerners prefer at least an arm's length between themselves and others in normal social situations.

The research question is the following:

The extent of personal space is a culturally determined and maintained phenomenon and therefore a matter of cultural preference – can this lead to misunderstandings amongst cultural groups?

Table 5.13: Personal space

When talking, standing very close to the person is acceptable Q49 (V86)	Yes	No	Total
	133	199	332
%	40.1	59.9	100

INTERPRETATION

With regard to personal space, the responses of 40.1% of the learners indicate that they prefer to stand closer than an arm's length to somebody when communicating. Of the respondents, 59.9% indicated otherwise. These different body space requirements may lead to cultural misunderstanding if the phenomenon is not understood by both groups.



5.4.2.4 Interests of the group versus interests of the individual

One of the dimensions of an Afri-centric world-view is an interpersonal collective orientation (Belgrave *et al.* 1994:145). Accordingly, matters regarding the group are generally given top priority and individual concerns are regarded as less important.

The research question is the following: How important is group interest as opposed to individual interest to these learners?

Table 5.14: Group interest versus individual interest

When I do well, I tell Q56 (V96-100)	ſ	%*
Parents	273	
Friends	127	
Relatives	42	_
Caregivers	24	
Keep quiet	33	
Total	499*	
I am happy sharing a desk (Q55 (V95)	ſ	%
Yes	154	46.4
No	178	53.6
Total	332	100

(*More than one response was possible per respondent for Q56, hence the total of 499. Because N>332, the frequencies were not expressed as percentages.)

INTERPRETATION

It appears that only 127 learners would tell their friends about it when they do well at school, whereas the majority would tell their parents. A much smaller group would tell caregivers or relatives. The choice not to tell friends about achievements at school might indicate conforming to peer group pressure, because individual achievements are not sanctioned by the group. The data show that 46.4% of these learners are prepared to share desks even if it is inconvenient. This indicates that 46.4% of learners are willing to sacrifice their own comfort to accommodate another member of the group of learners. Consequently,



for a large percentage of learners, the interests of other group members rank very high and should be reckoned with in the school situation.

5.4.2.5 Conflict resolution

The research question is the following:

In what manner are conflicts mostly resolved?

Table 5.15: Conflict resolution

Way to resolve conflict Q50 (V87-90)	f	%
Discuss	257	
Protest action	78	-
Stay away	24	-
Other	14	
Total	373*	-
It is OK to hit a person Q65 (V111)	f	%
Agree	76	22.9
Uncertain	92	27.7
Disagree	164	49.4
Total	332	100
How to solve arguments Q67 (V113)	f	%
Physical force	19	5.7
Argue	29	8.7
Talk	254	77.4
Turn back and leave	13	3.9
Give up	17	5.1
Total	332	100
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^{(*}More than one response per respondent was possible for Q50, hence the total of 373. Because N>332, the frequencies were not expressed as percentages.)



The preferred way of conflict resolution appears to be discussion, according to 257 of the respondents. However, 116 prefer more drastic measures. Although 77.4% would regard talking as the best way to solve an argument, it is noticeable that 22.9% condone hitting a person that makes them "cross", while 27.7% feel uncertain about whether it is acceptable to hit a person (and thus might consider doing so).

According to the literature, black children have for long been exposed to political violence, a situation which has been compounded by domestic and criminal violence (Dawes & Donald, 1994b:5). Although exposure to violence does not necessarily warp children psychologically (Rudenberg, Jansen & Fridjhon, 1998:112), it could be argued that such exposure suggests violent methods to be an effective way of dealing with problematic and frustrating situations. Non-violent resolution of conflict should be promoted at school in order to accommodate all learners in a safe school environment.

5.4.2.6 Approach to asking questions in class

Within black cultures, the asking of questions is not often encouraged.

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Table 5.16: Asking questions in class

Asking questions in class Q54 (V94)	ſ	%
Never ask questions	4	1.2
Ask when work is not understood	199	60.3
Only answer when asked	37	11.2
Ask whenever you feel like it	90	27.3
Total	330*	100

^{(*}There was a missing frequency of 2, which was discarded due to unreliability)



The data indicated that only 27.3% of these learners will ask questions spontaneously, while 60.3% will only ask if work is not understood. The spontaneous asking of questions should be encouraged by creating an accommodating atmosphere in the school in general and in the classroom in particular.

5.4.2.7 Discipline

Given the fact that most black cultures are patriarchal (Mokwena, 1992:43-45), it is to be expected that females as disciplinarians are not regarded with the same respect as male disciplinarians in black cultures.

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Table 5.17: Female disciplinarians

Females cannot discipline as well as males Q66 (V112)	ſ	%
Agree	119	35.8
Uncertain	85	25.6
Disagree	128	38.6
Total	332	100

INTERPRETATION

As many as 35.8% of these learners regard female teachers as inferior disciplinarians and 25.6% are unsure about the issue. A narrow majority of 38.6% believe without doubt that women can administer discipline as well as men can. Given that many teachers are female, any belief that women cannot administer discipline as effectively as men could be problematic for the effective application of discipline in schools.



5.4.2.8 Personal responsibility

Ramphele (1992:24-25) discusses the issue of a culture of entitlement as well as the inhibiting and debilitating factors hindering black people from creating transformation. It was therefore deemed important to determine whether black learners accept personal responsibility for what happens in their lives, or whether they have an attitude of entitlement.

The research question is the following:

Are learners willing to accept personal responsibility for what happens in their lives?

Table 5.18: Personal responsibility

Who/what will mostly be to blame if you do not reach the level of education that you would like to reach? Q22 (V44)	ſ	%
Myself	243	73.4
Lack of money	47	14.2
Close family	12	3.6
Teachers	11	3.3
Department of Education	9	2.7
Society	5	1.5
Lack of School facilities	3	0.9
Classmates	1	0.3
Total	331*	100
If a learner does something wrong and gets into trouble at school with the teachers, he/she should Q64 (V110)	ſ	%
Admit it and apologise	298	89.8
Deny he had anything to do with it	22	6.6
Admit it but blame somebody else	12	3.6
Total	332	100

(*Q22(V110) has a missing frequency of 1, which was discarded due to unreliability.)



According to the data, 73.4% of learners will accept blame if they cannot complete their studies, with 14.2% blaming either lack of money, family (3.6%) or the Department of Education (2.7%). When they get into trouble at school, 89.8% choose to admit and apologise when they did something wrong. This finding may link up to Peltzer's (1993:16) comment that the further black people have progressed in the transitional phase, the more they accept responsibility for their own destiny. However, 6.6% of these respondents will deny doing something wrong, and 3.6% will admit to it, but eventually place the blame elsewhere.

5.4.2.9 *Honesty*

As various cultural views are attached to the various aspects of honesty (and the whole concept of honesty is a sensitive and emotive issue), it is important to determine what the learners' point of view is with regard to this issue. This matter is vital especially where the school also has very specific views on the issue.

The research question is the following:	
Regarding the aspect of honesty - how will learners react?	

Table 5.19: Aspects of honesty

Keep item for yourself Q30 (V67)	ſ	%
Agree	67	20.2
Uncertain	66	19.9
Disagree	198	59.8
Total	331*	100
Cribbing - clasamates should provide answers Q62 (V108)	f	%
Yes	68	20.6
No	261	79.4
Total	330*	100

Table 5.19 is continued overleaf



Table 5.19 (continued)

Borrowing without asking Q51 (V91)	ı	%
Yes	37	11.1
No	295	88.9
Total	332	100

(*Q30 and Q62 had missing frequencies of 1 and 2 respectively. These frequencies were discarded due to unreliability.)

INTERPRETATION

Most learners (59.8%) feel that they cannot keep whatever they pick up. However, 40.1% of the learners will either keep such an object or are uncertain whether they should do so. Van Heerden (1992:277) has found in a local study that some black university students believed that the spirits of the forefathers can arrange that somebody drops money and then guides somebody else to the spot to pick up the money. This is therefore an area where Western values can come into conflict with those of black cultures, where what is picked up, could be regarded as "heaven sent" and an approach of "finders keepers" could apply.

Although 79.4% will not help classmates to crib during exams, it is alarming that 20.6% would be willing to do so.

Most learners (88.9%) will ask first before borrowing from others, but 11.1% indicated that permission is not necessary.

5.4.2.10 Personal input

Personal input could be influenced by an attitude of entitlement (Ramphele, 1992:24-25) and as such warrants an investigation of learners' attitudes regarding their personal input.

The research question is the following:
How do learners feel regarding personal input?



Table 5.20: Personal input

Time spent on schoolwork Q33 (V70)	f	9/6
No time	18	5.4
1 hour	126	38.0
2 hours	80	24.1
3 hours	51	15.4
More than 3 hours	57	17.2
Total	332	100
One has to work hard at a disliked subject Q57 (V101)	ľ	%
Agree	224	67.7
Uncertain	69	20.8
Disagree	38	11.5
Total	331*	100
Should learners write exams? Q63 (V109)	ſ	%
Yes	169	51.1
No	162	48.9
Total	331*	100

(*Q57 and Q63 had missing frequencies of 1. These frequencies were discarded due to unreliability.)

INTERPRETATION

In the light of these learners' high academic and occupational aspirations, it is noticeable that 5.4% spent no time on schoolwork, with 38.0% spending one hour and 24.1% spending two hours. Only 67.7% of learners were prepared to work hard at a subject they disliked.

Of these learners, 48.9% preferred not to be examined to determine who should pass or fail.



5.4.2.11 Corporal punishment

Corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure has been abused in the past in both black and white education. It is at present illegal to administer corporal punishment, but it remains important to determine learners' views regarding the use of corporal punishment to effect discipline.

Table 5.21: Desirability of corporal punishment

Corporal punishment should be reintroduced in schools Q 68 (V114)	ſ	9%
Agree	70	21.1
Uncertain	42	12.7
Disagree	220	66,3
Total	332	100

INTERPRETATION

There appears to be a strong feeling against corporal punishment (66.3%), but more or less a fifth of the respondents (21.1%) would be in favour of its reintroduction in schools.

5.4.3 Racism

Racism can shape learners' lives by influencing their experiences and opportunities. It is therefore very important to determine the extent of racism found at school.

To what extent does racism occur at school?





Table 5.22: Extent of racism

Racism Q52 (V92)	f	%
Put up with one another	147	44.3
Co-operate but do not mix	132	39.8
Are hostile to one another	22	6.6
Remain cross/unfriendly	31	9.3
Total	332	100
Racist insults Q53 (V93)	f	%
Never	18	5.4
Sometimes	173	52.1
Very often	141	42.5
Total	332	100

While 39.8% of learners co-operate at school, 44.3% say they only put up with one another, and 15.9% experience relations as hostile or at least remain cross. Racist insults also occur "very often" (42.5%) or "sometimes" (52.1%). These results emphasise that this is a contentious issue.

5.4.3.1 What would learners change about their school?

In order to establish what learners really viewed as stumbling blocks in their accommodation in and adjustment to the school environment, the questionnaire concluded with an open question about what learners would like to change about their school.



Table 5.23: Changes desired at school

What would you change? Q69 (V115-118)	ſ	%
School rules	65	19.6
Racism	61	18.4
Language	57	17.2
Teachers	54	16.3
Discipline	29	8.7
Activities	22	6.6
Facilities	19	5.7
No change	25	7.5
Total	332	100

Learners would mostly like to change school rules (19.6%); racism (18.4%); language (17.2%) and teachers (16.3%).

5.5 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIABLES

In the previous sections the focus was on discussions of a single factor at a time. This brought some important points to the fore, but in a study of this kind it is even more important to investigate possible relationships between two or more variables. Therefore, the chi-square test was used in two-way frequency tables to investigate possible significant dependence between two variables at a time (Steyn *et al.*, 1996:559-562).

In addition, the log-linear model was used to do a more in-depth analysis of significant relationships found between two variables (Steyn et al., 1996:564-576).

5.5.1 Relationship between the frequency of racist insults (V93) and other variables

The approach of this research is to assess the needs of learners in the complex multicultural context of the school. Racial interaction forms an integral part of a multicultural school



context. The literature study indicated that racist-inspired personal insults occur in schools (Dawes & Donald, 1994b:5). Because much racial tension and unhappiness at school can result from such practices, it was imperative to assess the context and effect of such behaviour.

It was decided to investigate the relationship between the frequency of racist insults and the following variables:

- gender (V3);
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92);
- the language medium of the school attended (Afrikaans or English); and
- the type of school a learner would prefer (V58).

The data are presented in the form of two-way tables. The frequency of the experience of racist insults is categorised along the rows and the variable with which the frequency of racist insults are compared in the columns.

5.5.1.1 Relationship between the frequency of racist insults (V93) and gender (V3)

The findings are summarised in Table 5.24. A chi-square test was done to compare the frequencies with which boys and girls experienced racist insults. Of the 147 boys in the sample, only 9 (6.1%) never experienced racist insults.

Table 5.24 Comparison between the frequency of racist insults and gender

	Gender					
	Male Female			Te	Total	
Frequency of racist insults	7	%		%	f	%
Never	9	6.1	9	4.9	18	5.4
Sometimes	72	49.0	101	54.6	173	52.1
Very often	66	44.9	75	40.5	141	42.5
Total	147	100	185	100	332	100



The p-value of the chi-square test was 0.577, which implies that there is no statistically significant difference between the experience of the male and female learners of racist insults. The implication is that racist insults at school level do not differentiate between genders, but rather that it is aimed at whoever represents the "unacceptable" race group.

5.5.1.2 Relationship between the frequency of racist insults (V93) and the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)

The data is summarised in Table 5.25. A chi-square test was done to compare the relationship between the frequency of racist insults and the nature of intercultural relations at school.

Table 5.25 Comparison between the frequency of racist insults and the nature of intercultural relations at school

		The nature of intercultural relations at school				
Frequency of racist insults		Put up with one another	Co-operate but do not mix	Hostile to one another	Remain cross or unfriendly	Total
Never	f	12	3	2	1	18
	%	8.2	2.3	9.1	3.2	5.4
Sometimes	f	. 85	75	6	7	173
	%	57.8	56.8	27.3	22.6	52.1
Very often	f	50	54	14	23	141
	%	34.0	40.9	63.6	74.2	42.5
Total	f	147	132	22	31	332
	%	100	100	100	100	100



It was concluded that the frequency of racist insults and the relation between cultural groups are associated (dependent), that is, that there is a significant relationship between racist insults and how cultural groups get on. A log-linear analysis found the following: There is a statistically significant indication that of the learners who experienced the relationship between the different cultural groups as "putting up with one another", few never experienced racist insults or name-calling. Of those learners who chose to describe the relationship between the different cultural groups as one where people "co-operate but do not mix", a statistically significant number chose the "sometimes" option with regard to how frequently they experience insults.

Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between the frequency of racist insults and the following:

- the language medium of the school attended (Afrikaans or English) see Appendix D, Table D1
- the type of school preferred (V58) see Appendix D, Table D2

From a chi-square analysis, the following was concluded for these comparisons:

(a) Experience of the frequency of racist insults (V93) versus the language medium of the school

It was found that there is a significant difference between English-medium and Afrikaansmedium schools regarding the frequency with which racist insults are experienced by
learners. A log-linear analysis found that significantly many black learners in Englishmedium schools "sometimes" experienced racist insults, while significantly few black
learners in Afrikaans-medium schools only experienced racist insults "sometimes". There is
some indication that many black learners in Afrikaans-medium schools "very often"
experience racist insults, and relatively fewer black learners in English-medium schools
experience racist insults "very often". The frequency of racist insults is therefore higher in
Afrikaans-medium schools than in English-medium schools.



(b) Experience of the frequency of racist insults (V93) versus the type of school a learner would prefer (V58)

There is a statistically significant difference between the frequencies with which racist insults were experienced in the different types of school learners would prefer, since the chisquare test p-value was below 0.01. It therefore appears that the frequency of racist insults and choice of school type are related. This relationship was investigated in more depth by means of a log-linear analysis, but no single row-column combination (of the two factors) contributed statistically significantly to the dependency. Therefore, the log-linear analysis could not find any specific significant row-column interaction. However, there is an indication that learners who preferred a school with only/mainly black learners tended to experience racist remarks far more often, while those that chose schools where all races are equally represented showed a greater tendency never to experience such remarks.

5.5.2 Relationship between keeping picked-up goods (V67) and other variables

The question arose as to whether any relationship existed between a number of variables and the attitude displayed towards goods picked up on the school grounds. It was therefore decided to explore the relationship between the attitude displayed towards picked-up goods and the following variables:

- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)



5.5.2.1 Relationship between keeping picked-up goods (V67) and the location of the home (V40)

The findings are set out in Table 5.26. A chi-square test was done to study the relationship between learners' view about keeping something valuable that they have picked up, and the location of their home.

Table 5.26: Comparison between keeping picked-up goods and the location of the home

			I	ocation (of the ho	ıme		
	Suburb		Township		Other		Total	
Keeping picked-up	f	%	f	%	ſ	%	f	%
Agree	40	23.1	24	17.0	3	21.4	67	20.4
Uncertain	30	17.3	34	24.1	2	14.3	66	20.1
Disagree	103	59.5	83	58.9	9	64.3	195	59.5
Total	173	100	141	100	14	100	328	100

INTERPRETATION

The p-value exceeded 0.01, which means that there is no relationship between keeping picked-up goods and the location of the home.

Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between keeping picked-up goods (V67) and:

- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)

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(The tables containing the data are given as Tables D3 to D8 in Appendix D.)

A chi-square analysis showed that there is no significant relationship between keeping picked-up goods and any of the abovementioned variables.

5.5.3 Relationship between condoning latecoming for school (V83) and other variables

As arriving late for school is recognised as a recurrent disciplinary and attitudinal problem, it was deemed important to determine influencing factors.

The relationship between arriving late for school and the following variables was researched:

- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- the location of the home (V40)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)
- 5.5.3.1 Relationship between condoning latecoming for school (V83) and the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)

The findings are set out in Table 5.27. A chi-square test was done to compare the relationship between condoning latecoming for school and the nature of intercultural relations at school.



Table 5.27: Comparison between condoning latecoming for school and the nature of intercultural relations at school

		The	natur	e of int	ercult	ural re	lation	s at sch	ool	
	Put up with one another		Co-operate but do not noix		Hostile		Remain cross/ unfriendly		Total	
Condoning latecoming	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	9/0	f	%
Yes	32	21.8	36	27.3	5	22.8	9	29.0	82	24.7
No	115	78.2	96	72.7	17	77.3	22	71.0	250	75.3
Total	147	100	132	100	22	100	31	100	332	100

There is no statistically significant relationship between condoning arriving late for school and the nature of intercultural relations at school, since the p-value exceeds 0.01. This implies that the reason for condoning latecoming is not particularly influenced by the nature of intercultural relations at school and vice versa.

5.5.3.2 Relationship between condoning latecoming for school (V83) and time spent on schoolwork (V70)

A summary of the information can be found in Table 5.28. A chi-square test was done to compare the relationship between condoning latecoming for school and time spent on schoolwork.



Table 5.28: Comparison between condoning latecoming for school and time spent on schoolwork

			Fime spe	nt on sel	walwork		
		None	One hour	Two hours	Three hours	More than three hours	Total
Condoning latecoming							
Yes	f	12	35	16	9	10	82
	%	66.7	27.8	20.0	17.7	17.5	24.7
No	f	6	91	64	42	47	250
	%	33.3	72.2	80.0	82.4	82.5	75.3
Total	f	18	126	80	51	57	332
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100

There is a statistically significant relationship between the time spent on schoolwork and condoning latecoming for school, since the p-value was less than 0.01. It therefore appears that time spent on schoolwork and condoning latecoming for school are related. It could mean that condoning latecoming for school also implies a *laissez-faire* attitude toward the time (and therefore effort) that is spent on schoolwork or the other way round. This relationship was investigated further by means of a log-linear analysis. Through the log-linear analysis it was found that statistically significantly many of the learners who condoned latecoming spent no time on schoolwork. Also there were statistically significantly few learners who did not condone latecoming who spent "no time" on schoolwork.

Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between condoning latecoming (V83) and:

- the location of the home (V40)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)



- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)

(The data are set out in Tables D9 to D13 in Appendix D.)

From the chi-square analyses, the following was concluded: There is no significant relationship between condoning latecoming and any of the abovementioned variables.

5.5.4 Relationship between condoning loud talk (V84) and other variables

Loud talk features very prominently in previous research as well as literature on the black cultures as a problem area in intercultural communication styles. For this reason, it was deemed necessary to pay attention to this aspect and look for possible influences.

The relationship between condoning loud talk and the following variables was explored:

- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)
- 5.5.4.1 Relationship between condoning loud talk (V84) and feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)

The information is presented in Table 5.29. A chi-square test was done to compare the relationship between condoning loud talk in the corridors between classes and whether learners feel happy/unhappy when at school.



Table 5.29: Comparison between condoning loud talk and feeling happy/unhappy when at school

		Feeling	happy/unh	appy when a	it school						
	Happy Unhappy Total										
Condoning loud talk	f	%	f	%	f	%					
Bad-mannered/ ill-disciplined school	126	50.2	34	42.5	160	48.3					
Cultural factors	125	49.8	46	57.5	171	51.7					
Total	251	100	80	100	331	100					

The p-value exceeded 0.01, which means that there is no significant relationship between condoning talking loudly in the corridors and feeling happy/unhappy when at school.

Chi-square analyses were done to determine the relationship between condoning loud talk in the corridors (V84) and the following:

- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)

(The tables containing the data are Tables D14 to D19 in Appendix D.)

There is no significant relationship between condoning loud talk and any of the other variables that were considered.



5.5.5 Relationship between regarding eye contact as disrespectful (V85) and other variables

Some black cultures (especially the Xhosa culture) avoid making eye contact when speaking as a sign of respect (Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:88). For this reason it was important to research aspects that could possibly affect this behaviour. The following variables were considered:

- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)

5.5.5.1 Relationship between regarding eye contact as disrespectful (V85) and the location of the home (V40)

The information was summarised in Table 5.30. A chi-square test was done to compare the relationship between regarding eye contact as disrespectful and the location of the home.

Table 5.30 Comparison between regarding eye contact as disrespectful and the location of the home

			L	ocation (if the ho	me		
	Sul	ourb	Tow	nship	Ot	her	To	otal
Eye contact is disrespectful	ſ	%	f	%	f	%	ſ	%
Agree	44	25.3	43	30.5	5	35.7	92	28.0
Uncertain	54	31.0	31	9.4	1	0.3	86	26.1
Disagree	76	43.7	67	47.5	8	57.1	151	45.9
Total	174	100	141	100	14	100	329	100



The p-value exceeded 0.01 which means that there is no statistically significant relationship between where learners stay and what they believe about eye contact.

Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between attitudes to eye contact (V85) and:

- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)

(The tables containing the data are included as Tables D20 to D25 in Appendix D.)

Chi-square analyses showed that there is no statistically significant relationship between attitudes to eye contact and any of the abovementioned variables.

5.5.6 Relationship between standing distance when talking to someone (V86) and other variables

Black learners often tend to stand too close to others (in Western terms) when they talk to them, since doing so is accepted as a natural phenomenon in many black cultures. This aspect required more attention.

The relationship between the standing distance and the following variables was explored:

- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)



- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)
- 5.5.6.1 Relationship between standing distance (V86) and feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)

The information is contained in Table 5.31. A chi-square test was done to study the relationship between standing distance and feeling happy/unhappy when at school.

Table 5.31 Comparison between standing distance and feeling happy/unhappy when at school

		Feeling h	appy/unhap	py when at	school	
	Ha	рру	Unh	арру	To	tal
Standing distance	f	%	f	%	ſ	%
Yes	96	38.1	37	46.3	133	40.1
No	156	62.0	43	53.8	199	59.9
Total	252	100	80	100	332	100

INTERPRETATION

There is no statistically significant relationship between standing distance and feeling happy/unhappy when at school, since the p-value exceeded 0.01.

Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between the standing distance when talking to someone (V86) and:

- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)



(The tables containing the data are included as Tables D26 to D31 in Appendix D.)

In the chi-square analyses, it was found that there is no significant relationship between the standing distance when talking and any of the abovementioned variables.

5.5.7 Relationship between borrowing without permission (V91) and other variables

Borrowing and taking others' belongings without permission has caused much tension in schools. Therefore this aspect warrants more attention.

The relationship between borrowing without permission and the following factors was researched:

- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (101)
- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- 5.5.7.1 Relationship between borrowing without permission (V91) and working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)

The information is contained in Table 5.32. A chi-square test was done to compare the relationship between borrowing without permission and working hard at a disliked subject.



Table 5.32: Comparison between borrowing without permission and working hard at a subject the learner dislikes

	N N	Working hard at a subject the learner dislikes									
	Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Total				
Borrowing without permission	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
Yes	24	10.7	6	1.8	7	18.4	37	11.2			
No	200	89.3	63	91.3	31	81.6	294	88.8			
Total	224	100	69	100	38	100	331	100			

There is no statistically significant relationship between borrowing without permission and working hard at a disliked subject, since the p-value exceeds 0.01.

Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between borrowing without permission (V91) and:

- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)

(The tables containing the data are included as Tables D32 to D37 in Appendix D.)

In the chi-square analyses, it was found that there is no significant relationship between borrowing without permission and any of the abovementioned variables.



5.5.8 Relationship between approving of the writing of exams to pass (V109) and other variables

Learners often regard the writing of exams as unnecessary. The relationship between approving of writing exams and the following variables was therefore researched:

- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)
- 5.5.8.1 Relationship between approving of the writing of exams to pass (V109) and time spent on schoolwork (V70)

The data is set out in Table 5.33. A chi-square test was done to investigate the relationship between approving of writing exams and the time learners spend doing schoolwork.

Table 5.33 overleaf



Table 5.33: Relationship between approving of the writing of exams to pass and time spent on schoolwork

				Time spent	on homewo	ırk	
		None	One hour	Two hours	Three hours	More than three hours	Total
Writing exams						50413	
Yes	f	7	71	33	32	26	169
	%	38.9	56.4	41.3	62.8	46.4	51.1
No	f	11	55	47	19	30	162
	%	61.1	43.7	58.8	37.3	53.6	48.9
Total	f	18	126	80	51	56	331
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100

The p-value exceeded 0.01, which indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between approving of writing exams and the time spent on schoolwork.

Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between approving of the writing of exams to pass (V109) and:

- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)

(The tables containing the data are Tables D38 to D43 in Appendix D.)



According to the chi-square analyses, there is no significant relationship between approving of the writing of exams to pass and any of the abovementioned variables.

5.5.9 Relationship between the handling of trouble at school (V110) and other variables

It is important to know which factors could influence learners' behaviour when they land themselves in trouble at school with teachers. The relationship between the way trouble with the teachers is handled and the following variables was researched:

- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101)
- the location of the home (V40)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- 5.5.9.1 Relationship between the manner of handling of trouble at school (V110) and the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)

The data is contained in Table 5.34. A chi-square test was done to investigate the relationship between the manner of handling trouble at school and the nature of intercultural relations at school.



Table 5.34: Relationship between manner of handling trouble at school and the nature of intercultural relations at school

		The natur	e of intercul	tural rela	tions at schoo	ol
		Put up with one another	Co- operate but do not mix	Hostile	Remain cross/ unfriendly	Total
Manner of handling trouble						
Admit it	f	137	117	18	26	298
	%	46.0	39.3	6.0	8.7	89.8
Deny /blame	f	10	15	4	5	34
	%	29.4	44.1	11.8	14.7	10.2
Total	f	147	132	22	31	332
	%	100	100	100	100	100

There is no statistically significant relationship between the manner in which trouble is handled at school and the nature of intercultural relations at school, since the p-value exceeded 0.01.

5.5.9.2 Relationship between the handling of trouble at school (V110) and working hard at a subject the learner dislikes (V101).

A summary of the information can be found in Table 5.35. A chi-square test was done to compare the relationship between the ways of handling trouble at school and working hard at a subject the learner dislikes.



Table 5.35 Relationship between the handling of trouble at school and working hard at a subject the learner dislikes

		Worki	ng bard	at a subj	ect the l	earner	dislikes		
	Ag	ree	Uncertain			gree	Total		
Manner of handling trouble	f	%	f	%	ſ	%	f	%	
Admit it	209	70.4	59	19.9	29	9.8	297	89.7	
Deny it	15	44.1	10	29.4	9	26.5	34	10.3	
Total	224	100	69	100	38	100	331	100	

There is a statistically significant relationship between the manner in which trouble is handled at school and working harder at a disliked subject, since the p-value was less than 0.01. It therefore appears that these two aspects could have an influence on each other. This relationship was investigated further through a log-linear analysis. It was found that a statistically significant large number of learners who would admit and apologise, agree about the need for working harder at a subject they dislike in order to obtain good marks. Statistically few who would deny/blame somebody else agree about the need for working harder at a subject they dislike.

Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between the manner of handling trouble at school (V110) and the following:

- the location of the home (V40)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- job aspirations (V45)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)

(The tables containing the data are Tables D44 to D48 in Appendix D.)



From the chi-square analyses, the following was concluded for these comparisons:

No statistically significant relationship has been found between the ways in which trouble is handled and any of the abovementioned variables.

5.5.10 Relationship between the number of close friends from another race group (V57) and feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59).

It is important to establish whether the number of close friends from other race groups has an effect on whether learners feel happy/unhappy when at school.

Table 5.36 Relationship between number of close friends from other race groups and feeling happy/unhappy when at school

		Feeling h	appy/ unh	appy wher	at schoo	I
	Ha	рру	Total			
Close friends from another race group	ſ	%	f	%	ſ	%
None	69	27.4	33	41.8	102	30.8
One	30	12.0	10	12.7	40	12.1
Two	27	10.7	3	3.8	30	9.1
More than two	126	50.0	33	41.8	159	48.0
Total	252	100	7 9	100	331	100

INTERPRETATION

There is no statistically significant relationship between having close friends from another race group and feeling happy/unhappy at school, since the p-value exceeded 0.01.

5.5.11 Relationship between the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92) and other variables

The nature of intercultural relations at school determines whether learners experience the school environment as accommodating. Therefore the relationship between the nature of intercultural relations at school and the following variables was researched:



- condoning hitting somebody (V111)
- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- close friends in another race group (V57)
- type of school preferred (V58)
- keeping picked-up goods (V67)
- borrowing without permission (V91)
- way to solve an argument (V113)

5.5.11.1 Relationship between the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92) and condoning hitting somebody (V111)

The information is presented in Table 5.37. A chi-square test was done to compare the relationship between intercultural relations and condoning hitting somebody.

Table 5.37: Comparison between the nature of intercultural relations at school and condoning hitting someone

			Con	doming his	iting a p	erson		
	Ag	ree	Unc	ertain	Dis	agree	To	tal
The nature of intercultural relations at school	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Put up with one another	28	19.1	39	26.5	80	54.4	147	44.3
Co-operate but do not mix	30	22.7	43	32.6	59	44.7	132	39.8
Hostile	10	45.5	4	18.2	8	36.4	22	6.6
Remain cross/unfriendly	8	25.8	6	19.4	17	54.8	31	9.3
Tetal	76	100	92	100	164	100	332	100

INTERPRETATION

The p-value exceeded 0.01, which means that there is no statistically significant relationship between the nature of intercultural relations at school and condoning hitting a person.



Similar analyses were done to determine the relationship between the nature of intercultural relations at school and the following:

- feeling happy/unhappy when at school (V59)
- having close friends from another race group (V57)
- type of school preferred (V58)
- keeping picked-up goods (V67)
- condoning borrowing without permission (V91)
- way to solve an argument (V113)

(The tables containing the information are Tables D49 to D54 in Appendix D.)

The chi-square analyses showed that there is no significant relationship between the nature of intercultural relations at school and any of the abovementioned variables.

5.5.12 Relationship between self-esteem (V46-55) and other variables

The literature suggests that self-esteem and black identity are significantly correlated (Belgrave *et al.*, 1994:152-153). Therefore, learners who feel good about themselves should display healthy self-acceptance, which in turn bodes well for their accommodation in the school. Consequently it was decided to determine the nature of the relationship between self-esteem and the following variables:

- the location of the home (V40)
- the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)
- time spent on schoolwork (V70)
- the desired educational level (V42)
- encouragement received from parents to do homework (V77)
- ability to discuss personal problems with parents (V79)

The data is presented in the form of a summary of main features. The aspects of self are categorised along the rows and group size, mean and standard deviation were set out in the columns.



5.5.12.1 Relationship between self-esteem (V46-55) and the location of the home (V40)

The information is presented in Table 5.38. A comparison was done to see whether a difference in the location of the home influences the learners' self-esteem.

Table 5.38: Relationship between self-esteem and the location of the home

Location of the home	N	Mean	Standard deviation
Suburb	174	1.569	0.341
Township	141	1.623	0.355
Farm	6	1.733	0.547

INTERPRETATION

The location of the home does not seem to have a dramatic effect on the learners' experience of self-esteem, although it appears that learners who live on farms have the highest count on the self-esteem scale, which means they have the lowest self-esteem.

5.5.12.2 Relationship between self-esteem (V46-55) and the nature of intercultural relations at school (V92)

The information is presented in Table 5.39. A comparison was done to compare the relationship between self-esteem and the nature of intercultural relations at school.

Table 5.39: Relationship between self-esteem and the nature of intercultural relations at school

The nature of intercultural relations at school	N	Mean	Standard deviation
Put up with one another	147	1.588	0.326
Co-operate but do not mix	132	1.564	0.351
Hostile	22	1.536	0.386
Remain cross/unfriendly	31	1.755	0.401



It seems that learners who experience intercultural relations as "cross" or "unfriendly", score the highest on the self-esteem scale, indicating that they have the lowest self-esteem. Constant exposure to an unaccommodating atmosphere in the form of insults and strained intercultural relations can lead to negative feelings about the self, resulting in low self-esteem.

5.5.12.3 Relationship between self-esteem (V46-55) and time spent on schoolwork (V70)

The information is presented in Table 5.40. A comparison was done to establish the relationship between self-esteem and the time spent on schoolwork.

Table 5.40: Relationship between self-esteem and time spent on schoolwork

Time spent on schoolwork	N	Mean	Standard deviation
No time	18	1.756	0.426
One hour	126	1.582	0.373
Two hours	80	1.564	0.320
Three hours	51	1.596	0.352
More than three hours	57	1.588	0.307

INTERPRETATION

Learners who spend no time on schoolwork have the larger count on the self-esteem scale, which indicates that they have the lowest self-esteem. These factors could have a reciprocal influence on each other. Low self-esteem could result in a capitulation regarding the doing of schoolwork. Alternatively, not doing schoolwork could result in low self-esteem, since learners will constantly be scolded. Also, these learners could feel that they cannot, for some reason, cope with the work.



5.5.12.4 Relationship between self-esteem (V46-55) and the desired educational level (V42)

The information is presented in Table 5.41. A comparison was done to determine the relationship between self-esteem and the desired educational level.

Table 5.41: Relationship between self-esteem and the desired educational level

Desired educational level	N	Mean	Standard deviation
Grade 9	3	1.9333	0.321
Grade 10	3	1.667	0.153
Grade 11	2	1.550	0.212
Grade 12	14	1.679	0.383
Diploma/certificate	16	1.806	0.328
Degree	52	1.628	0.296
Degree + diploma/certificate	242	1.558	0.357

INTERPRETATION

It appears that learners whose desired level of education is Grade Nine score the highest on the self-esteem scale, which indicates that they have the lowest self-esteem. To struggle scholastically could be accompanied by feelings of low self-esteem. Such learners would probably not be motivated to obtain higher academic qualifications.

5.5.12.5 Relationship between self-esteem (46-55) and encouragement from parents to do homework (V77).

The information is presented in Table 5.42. A comparison was done to determine the relationship between self-esteem and the encouragement received from parents to do homework.



Table 5.42: Relationship between self-esteem and encouragement from parents to do homework

Encouragement to do homework	N	Mean	Standard deviation
Yes	287	1.578	0.343
No	45	1.668	0.386

The encouragement from parents to do homework does not seem to have a substantial effect on the learners' experience of self-esteem. However, those who do receive encouragement from their parents have the lowest rating on the self-esteem scale. This means that they have the highest self-esteem. Supportive parents do contribute to a stabilising atmosphere in the parental home. To know that one is important enough to be cared about boosts self-esteem.

5.5.12.6 Relationship between self-esteem (V46-55) and the ability to discuss personal problems with the parents (V79)

The information is presented in Table 5.43. A comparison was done to determine the relationship between self-esteem and the ability to discuss personal problems with the parents.

Table 5.43: Relationship between self-esteem and the ability to discuss personal problems with parents

Ability to discuss personal problems	N	Mean	Standard deviation
Yes	109	1.535	0.328
No	222	1.620	0.357

focus interviews. In Chapter 7, the summary, the conclusions and recommendations of the study are outlined.



The ability to discuss personal problems with parents does not have a dramatic effect on the learners' experience of self-esteem. However, those who can confide in their parents score the lowest on the self-esteem scale. This indicates that they have the highest self-esteem. Learners who can discuss personal problems with parents know that they can rely on a supportive family system. Also, they receive appropriate guidance concerning the handling of their personal problems. This could enhance their self-esteem.

5.6 SYNTHESIS

In this chapter, empirical data was analysed and interpreted and several significant relationships that exist between variables were discussed. The educational and underlying needs that could arise from the learners' socio-economic, historico-political and cultural background, as well as their expectations of the self, school and society and possible educational backlog, were investigated. Chapter 6 examines data gained from individual focus interviews. In Chapter 7, the summary, the conclusions and recommendations of the study are outlined.