

**AN EXPLORATION OF ADOLESCENTS'
PROBLEMS AND WAYS OF COPING IN A
SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT**

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DECLARATION

Unless specifically stated to the contrary in the text, this thesis is the original work of the undersigned.


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ABSTRACT

Many areas of development converge as adolescents confront their major task of establishing an adult identity. However this is a complex task complicated by the difficulties experienced in the South African context. Concerns about health and well-being, coupled with research findings that emphasized adolescents' reluctance to seek help, prompted a review of adolescents needs. The present study explored the problems experienced and the coping styles used by a sample of adolescents living in the South African context. Participants' self-esteem was examined in relation to styles of coping that were employed.

Data was gathered from questionnaires distributed to adolescents from three schools in the locality of Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu-Natal, including one rural school and two urban schools. The final sample consisted of 362 subjects. The data were analysed using frequencies, factor analyses, Pearson's correlation coefficient and regression analyses.

The results of the study showed that adolescents experienced problems which included difficulties related to school achievement and maintaining standards; money problems; interpersonal problems regarding relationships with parents and family, friends and partners; intrapersonal problems, dealing with personal problems, depression and not wanting to live; and future related concerns, involving qualifications, careers, and employment.

Three coping style described strategies employed by adolescents to manage their concerns: Internal coping, Active coping, and Withdrawal or an Avoidant style of coping. Of the three styles participants used an internal style of coping most frequently overall. However, all styles of coping were used interchangeably in order to solve problems of different types. Coping styles were found to be specific to particular problem domains.

Analysis of self-esteem was carried out for participants from one urban school only, as the scale did not meet the criteria for reliability for the remaining two schools. Associations between self-esteem and coping styles showed that a negative relationship existed between an avoidant coping strategy and self-esteem, and a positive relationship existed between self-esteem and an active

coping style. Findings also showed the greater the degree of avoidance in problem solving the lower the expected level of self-esteem.

This study presents findings that show evidence of adolescents' difficulties and stresses, and an emergent need for assistance at a time of change and transformation in South Africa. Where better to address these needs than in the educational environment within the framework of Guidance and Counselling. The results of this study may inform and render assistance in constructing an appropriate Life Orientation and Guidance curriculum for all schools, that will address current needs of adolescents as they confront the chief task of adolescence, that is the formation of an adult identity, a South African identity.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Continual patterns of change and transformation present rigorous challenges to people. Adolescence is a time of rapid change and development. The normative journey through adolescence presents a myriad of challenges and tasks that require negotiation, to ensure the satisfactory passage towards adulthood (Coon, 2004). In addition to the biological, psychological and social aspects of development, adolescents who grow up in a modern South African society are affected further in a country going through rapid social change. Consideration then must be paid to the magnitude of the developmental task of adolescence in terms of the mental health and well-being of South African youth, when it is accompanied by political change, rural/urban migration, and acculturation.

During the stage of adolescence young people go through puberty, physical and sexual maturation, which in turn affects self-consciousness and self-identity. Peers become important as the adolescent explores roles separate from his/her parents, and positive acknowledgement for an emerging identity is crucial. At the same time, adolescents need to make decisions about their future, negotiate society's expectations, and manage many external influences, such as sexual interactions, drugs and alcohol, etc. (Meehan & Astor-Stetson, 1998). South Africa, despite significant positive developments, is still dealing with disparities in wealth; domestic, political and criminal violence; lack of basic resources, and effects of HIV/AIDS.

Ecosystemic theory suggests that the environmental context within which an individual lives is a major source of influence on development (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). According to Pettigrew and Akhurst (2002), it is not a static force that affects all in the same way, but instead is dynamic and ever changing, and the timing of the environmental changes will affect the impact of the changes. Given that much of the research on adolescence has been in developed countries, it is possible that the experience of this developmental stage may be different, given the environmental differences in South Africa, compared to the USA and Europe.

Research shows the period between the ages of 12 and 21 for some adolescents has been clearly navigable, while for others this journey has presented challenges laden with far reaching consequences (Meyer, 2003). Schlebusch (in Meyer, 2003) has drawn attention to the drastic increase in adolescent suicide rates both in South Africa and more particularly in KwaZulu-Natal. His report states that the most common causes for suicide in South Africa are interpersonal, marital, relationship, family and financial problems, stress, academic-related problems, depression and incest, especially among younger victims. Madu and Matla (2003), report that 21% of high school adolescents studied in Limpopo Province, had attempted suicide.

Despite it being a difficult stage, many adolescents appear to eventually emerge from this "phase" relatively unscathed. However, more frequently now in South Africa, research is showing that unspoken issues of young people, and their capacity to cope, need serious consideration from those within the helping profession (Van der Riet & Knoetze, 2004). Despite evidence of a need for help, adolescents report low utilization of services (Barker & Adelman, 1994, Ntshangase, 1995). From this viewpoint it may be necessary to re-evaluate provision of services in schools and help-seeking, as a method of coping in adolescence, with a vision to possible de-stigmatisation of "help-seeking". Research establishing whether services are accessible and what could increase their utilization could be revised with this intent in mind (van Schoor, 1981).

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

This research emerged from an interest in adolescence as a developmental phase, that flourished during the researcher's teaching career and whilst raising two teenage sons. Through study in the fields of education, as a teacher, and in educational psychology, the researcher has elected to explore concerns affecting adolescents in a changing South Africa.

The current study is a follow-up to a Psychology Honours project (Gillespie, 2001), which examined the reported problems and help-seeking behaviour of male adolescents, in the Pietermaritzburg area of KwaZulu-Natal. This study differs in that it incorporates data collected from co-educational schools in rural and urban areas of KwaZulu-Natal. Significant findings emanating from the current study may validate possible links between educational, emotional

and environmental issues experienced by learners in urban and rural schools, and with and without the provision of counselling and guidance resources in the respective schools.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa in its preamble informs of its aims to "heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights, and improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person" (Act 108 of 1996, p.1). The Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) (National Education Policy, 2002, p.1) states "Education and the curriculum have an important role to play in realising these aims.... to develop the full potential of each learner as a citizen of a democratic South Africa".

The new curriculum (RNCS), has replaced the previous educational system in schools, an attempt to address injustices of the past, where social engineering of South African youth was expressed within the School Guidance curriculum, where it was intended to benefit governmental control, instead of the learners it served (Ntshangase, 1995). Outcomes-based education now forms the foundation of the new curriculum, which has various critical outcomes envisaged, for example, decision making, self-management, effective communication, ability to identify and solve problems, by recognizing that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation (National Education Policy, 2002). Such outcomes clearly are designed to change the nature of School Guidance and the impact of education.

To date Life Orientation has replaced School Guidance, and has been implemented for all learners from Grades R to 12. This study is particularly concerned with Grades 9 to 12, where the focus of the investigation is on problems experienced and reported by adolescents, as well as the coping strategies they used, and includes the effect of self-esteem on coping, with a view towards further research evaluating the appropriateness of school help sources in terms of both learner needs, and the aims of new curriculum. This may then be used to inform the provision of guidance and counselling resources in schools. If previous research suggests adolescents do not access support it would be beneficial to find out what problems they experience, and what ways they cope at present so that school services and curriculum may be appropriately developed.

1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY

South Africa has faced its own challenges during the past decade of change and transformation (1994-2004). While the country as a whole has experienced enormous adjustments within this time frame, the focus of this study is to discover the implications of this change period in terms of adolescents' experiences, and more specifically to consider:

- what problems the adolescents in this study have experienced in the last six months;
- what coping strategies the adolescents in the study have used; and
- how these adolescents view themselves with respect to measuring their levels of self-esteem.

Since adolescents spend a major part of their time in school, this study was conducted in the educational setting. It aims to survey adolescent experiences in three co-educational schools located in very different environments. It is hoped that the study will reveal the commonalities of adolescent experience in the context of the Midlands of Kwa-Zulu Natal, South Africa, and explore the differences influenced by different environmental contexts.

1.4 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

The key concepts used in this study will be defined and explored as follows

1.4.1 Adolescence

Many societies mark the beginning of adolescence with rites of passage, by celebrating attainment of adult status, with its corresponding duties and responsibilities, in preparation for participation in their traditional lifestyle. For others the complexities of modern life have postponed acquiring adult status until the end of adolescence (Papalia & Olds, 1992). Characterized by biological, psychological and social developmental changes, adolescence comprises rapid acceleration of growth, sexual and cognitive development, and consolidation of personality formation. Socially, adolescence is illustrated by intense preparation for the role of young adulthood. Kaplan & Saddock (1998, p.42), state that "puberty, the physical process of change, differs from adolescence, largely a psychological process of change. Under ideal circumstances these processes are synchronous; when they fail to occur simultaneously, as they often do, adolescents must cope with the imbalance as an added stress".

1.4.2 Help-seeking

Help-seeking refers to the extent to which individuals utilize different sources of support for overcoming personal difficulties. The sources of support may be informal, e.g. parents and peers, and formal, for example school counsellors and mental health professionals. Having access to support networks has been found to buffer the effects of stress and improve resilience (Grotberg, 1995). Most young people, at some time during adolescence, experience problems that seem beyond their capacity to cope with (Rickwood & Braithwait, 1994, in Bee-Gates, Howard-Pitney, & LaFromboise, 1996). For many, seeking help is one means for beginning to cope with and resolve these problems (Bee-Gates et al. 1996).

1.4.3 Coping

Coping can be defined as "problem-solving efforts made by an individual when the demands he/she faces are highly relevant ... and tax his/her resources" (Lazarus, Averill & Opton, 1974, in Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990, p.351). Coping behaviour reflects a person's method of responding, actively or passively, to environmental demands (Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990). Given the normative developmental tasks confronting adolescents, and the relatively short time period within which they have to be fulfilled, coping with disengagement from family, restructuring identity, building heterosexual relationships, and choosing a career, may have far reaching consequences for some individuals (Havighurst, 1972, in Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990).

1.4.4 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is significantly associated with personal satisfaction and effective functioning. By self-esteem, Coopersmith (1967, p.4), refers to "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a *personal* judgement that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself." Howcroft, (in Long, 1993) refers to self-esteem as a key social indicator in analysis of social change in South Africa, around areas of growth and progress, and problems such as racism and integration in South Africa.

1.4.5 Guidance

Akhurst and Ntshangase (2002, p.261), view School Guidance "as an approach which takes a holistic view of learners, is responsive to their context, and is an integral part of the Life Orientation Learning Area, which forms the basis of the whole curriculum". The term guidance is described as deriving from the root word "guide" which means to direct, manage or steer and meaning "the process of helping individuals to understand themselves and their world" (Shertzer & Stone, 1976, p.38). Guidance in schools then is seen as the assistance given to learners who need help with events and concerns that occur during normal development. Accordingly, in understanding themselves, learners may become aware of personal identity, experiences, and interactions with others on a deeper more complete level. Shertzer & Stone (1976), maintain individuals who understand themselves and their world will become more effective, productive and happier human beings. School Guidance is currently under revision as part of a new approach within the school curriculum and plans are underway to incorporate it in the Life Orientation Learning area. Studies such as the present study may provide meaningful information that may be found be insightful for use in such planning.

1.4.6 Counselling

"Counselling is a facilitative process in which the counsellor, working within the framework of a special helping relationship, uses specific skills to assist young people to help themselves more effectively" (Gillis, 1999, p.2). Because of its supportive nature, counselling is often linked to guidance, and is aimed at providing assistance to an individual who may have a personal, social or psycho-emotional problem. It encourages discussion, lays grounds for self and situational insight, while encouraging problem solving and self-empowerment (Akhurst & Ntshangase, 2002). Although there are schools in South Africa that employ full time counsellors, there are many more disadvantaged schools that are restricted in their ability to afford such essential resources (Akhurst, 2001).

1.4.7 Life Orientation

School Guidance has emerged from a problematic history in the South African educational system (Akhurst & Ntshangase, 2002). Guidance provision in White schools was designed

towards the empowerment of individuals, while in Black schools it was designed for submission. Later guidance was treated with suspicion as it was deemed another way of gaining power over Black people through education (Akhurst, 2001). Now an awareness of the need for guidance in areas related to educational, emotional, social and career adjustment, has been recognized by curriculum designers, and School Guidance, as a subject, has been incorporated into the Life Orientation Learning Area of the revised curriculum (Akhurst & Ntshangase, 2002). With a rapidly changing world, young people require particular skills, such as, self-awareness, communication, decision-making, and the ability to resource opportunities in order to live successfully in a modern environment.

1.4.8 Transition of schools

Participants in this study attended former Model C schools. In order to examine the context in which this research is embedded, there follows a brief description of how, in 1990, the 'Model' schooling system was formulated. Model C was one of three options that emerged as a result of the opening of 'white' state schools to all races (Carrim, 1998, in Bennewith, 2003). Model A offered the option to privatize the institution with minimal government funding. Model B permitted schools to continue as before, retaining government funding while determining their own admission criteria. The Model C format enabled semi-privatization of institutions, becoming self-funding while retaining state subsidy for teaching salaries. Although most schools opted for Model B conversion, in 1992, the apartheid government decreed that all formerly 'white' schools convert to Model C (Sedibe, 1998, in Bennewith, 2003). A marked increase in fees meant that schools continued to be outside the reach of the underprivileged majority. Aiming to prevent elitism and inaccessibility to these schools, dissolution of Model C schools occurred in 1996, with the passing of the South African Schools Act (Carrim, 1998, in Bennewith, 2003). South African education is presently divided into either public or private schools, with former Model C schools falling into the former category (Bennewith, 2003).

The aim of the study is to investigate the difficulties adolescents in different schooling contexts face and explore how they are coping with those difficulties. Contexts differ between urban and rural settings, access and availability of resources and in socioeconomic levels. Thus, taking into consideration the vast differences that occur in the three contexts presented, the rationale behind this study then is to provide the opportunity to consider and promote the mental health and well-being of adolescents by examining the problems they face, and by building capacity

for coping in the face of adversity. Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi (2005) suggest ways to deal with difficulties by focusing on the positive rather than on the negative. This incorporates valued subjective experiences such as: contentment, satisfaction, hope, optimism and happiness. It is envisaged that working towards health and well-being would involve intervening in the education of adolescents through guidance within the learning area of Life Orientation advocating a focus on the positive as suggested by Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi (2005).

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF TERMS

The following definitions serve to clarify some of the terms used within this dissertation.

- Former DEC:** Refers to those schools which formerly fell under the control of the KwaZulu (homeland) Department of Education and Culture. These schools were often more poorly resourced than other 'black' schools falling under (DET), the Department of Education and Training.
- Former Model C:** Refers to those schools which previously adopted the third option of the 'class models' – becoming a state aided school owned by the management committee while retaining state subsidy for some teaching staff.
- Urban:** Refers to areas or schools situated within the city or town limits, where access to local facilities is made easy.
- Peri-urban:** Refers to those areas or schools situated on the outskirts of a city or town, but are within commuting distance, although access to resources is generally more difficult.
- Rural:** Refers to those areas or schools situated beyond the town or city limits, outside of commuting distance and where access to resources is minimal.

Of the three schools in this study, two can be categorized as former Model C schools, situated in the urban district of Pietermaritzburg, in KwaZulu Natal. They were formerly part of the Natal Education Department, and therefore are very well resourced, with a high ratio of staff to learners. The third, and semi-rural school fell formerly under DEC. It is situated approximately 20 kilometers from the city of Pietermaritzburg, and learners live in the surrounding areas. Socio-economic activities surrounding the school depend on farming, and although the school does have electricity and running water, it is not otherwise well resourced. The learners of this school and their families experienced conflict between the ANC and IFP during the 1990 Edendale War. The adolescents in this study were the victims, and now are the survivors, of that war.

1.6 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

This research will use survey methodology to explore the impact of adolescents' exposure to enormous change in terms of problems they experienced, coping strategies they used and how they view themselves, with respect to their reported levels of self-esteem.

Chapter 1: Introduction - introduces the study, provides a rationale, along with motivation, aims and objectives, definitions, and clarification of key concepts and terms used in this dissertation.

Chapter 2: Literature Review - provides the theoretical basis for the study and reviews the relevant literature associated with the research topic. This chapter describes adolescence, the South African context, and the theories of coping and self-esteem.

Chapter 3: Methodology - discusses the research design, research instruments, theoretical framework, and describes the sample used and procedures employed in conducting the study.

Chapter 4: Findings - an outline of the research findings is presented, that includes the demographic details of the participants, along with descriptive and statistical analysis of the results.

Chapter 5: Discussion – in this chapter the findings are discussed, links are made between the findings and the research literature reviewed in chapter 2, and successes and limitations of the study are considered.

Chapter 6: Conclusion - this chapter presents a summary of the research findings, and offers suggestions towards potential future research topics which have emanated as a result of this study.

A review of the relevant literature that formed the theoretical basis for this study follows in Chapter Two.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter adolescence is explored as a stage of development in which there is rapid change, conflict in the process of forming identity, and as a stage when a young person is particularly at risk. This can only be amplified in South Africa in a country going through rapid social change and transformation. Adolescents' problems and the coping styles used to manage difficulties, along with the effects of self-esteem, are examined with a view to determining adolescents' needs for health and well-being.

2.2 ADOLESCENCE

The precise nature of the definition of adolescence varies from culture to culture (Mead, 1975, in Meehan & Astor-Stetson, 1998). It is described in the literature as the period of human development during which a young person must move from childhood to adulthood, and from dependency to independence, autonomy and maturity (Geldard & Geldard, 1999). The progress through adolescence involves a multi-dimensional process involving a gradual transformation of the person in which individual differences, regarding time taken and ability to adapt and manage change, exist. As a developmental phase, adolescence can be considered in terms of inevitable change in particular spheres, as discussed below:

- *Biological* changes include physiological, sexual and emotional changes. A growth spurt, the maturation of reproductive organs, and the development of secondary sex characteristics lead into sexual maturity. These physical and hormonal changes render adolescents vulnerable to many psychological ramifications.
- *Psychological* changes in adolescence involve further formation of identity. This process integrates biological, social and cognitive change, during which the adolescent increasingly establishes a personal identity that is unique, individual, and separate from parents. The task of forming a personal identity has implications for effective psychological functioning, as some adolescents demonstrate emotional or behavioural problems associated with

identity. Of special concern is suicide, which "continues to increase among this population of individuals" (Bukatko & Daehler, 1998, p.428).

- *Cognitive* changes take place. The individual develops a capacity for abstract thinking, detecting new ways of processing information, including creative and critical thinking. Learning to use these new skills through success and failure is part of the challenge of adolescents' cognitive development.
- *Social* change is concerned with the process of socialization involving an adolescent's integration with society. Socialization enhances personal identity and assists with society's expectations and standards (Geldard & Geldard, 1999).

The above four aspects of change are interrelated and impact on each other. Incorporated are the perceptions, ideas, and beliefs a person holds to be true of him or herself, in conjunction with how the person initiates, organizes, and interprets experience (Bukatko & Daehler, 1998). A heightened sense of self-awareness as one aims to form a coherent and acceptable identity, make adolescents hyper sensitive to fitting in, to group norm behaviour, and the expectations placed upon them by significant others.

A major aspect of psychosocial development for adolescents is the formation of a coherent personal identity (Papalia & Olds, 1992). Erikson (1980) referred to this period as the *adolescent identity crisis*, the chief task of which is to resolve the conflict of *identity versus identity confusion*. Identity, as defined by Marcia (1980, in Papalia & Olds, 1992, p. 343), is, "an internal, self-constructed, dynamic organization of drives, abilities, beliefs, and individual history". In order to resolve conflicts, adolescents need to build a consistent identity out of their roles, aptitudes, life history and relationships, to become a unique adult with an important role in life (Douvan, 1997, in Coon, 2004). This effort to make sense of the self and the world is a healthy process that contributes to the ego strength of the adult (Papalia & Olds, 1992). Based on Erikson's theory, Marcia's (1966) research identified four states in the process of identity formation, determined by the presence or absence of the two elements which according to Erikson (1980) are crucial in forming identity: *crisis* and *commitment*. *Crisis* is defined as a period of conscious decision-making, and *commitment* is defined as personal investment in an occupation and/or a system of

beliefs, an ideology (in Papalia & Olds, 1992). To evaluate a person's identity status Marcia (1966, in Papalia & Olds, 1992) classified them in one of the following four categories:

- *Identity achievement*: crisis leading to commitment; where active thought has been undertaken, crucial choices have been made, and strong commitment to those choices results.
- *Foreclosure*: commitment is made without considering alternative choices (going through crises), but instead accepting other peoples' plans for future lives.
- *Identity diffusion*: no commitment has been made. Alternatives may or may not have been considered (crisis), but commitment has been actively avoided.
- *Moratorium*: (in crises), a stage of ambivalent struggle, making decisions and heading for commitment, identity will most likely be achieved.

Marcia (1979, in Papalia & Olds, 1992), contends that these states, in the search for identity, do not form a progression, nor are they necessarily permanent, but may change as a person continues to develop.

Archer, (1992, in Geldard & Geldard, 1999) describes the process of individuation for the adolescent as one that involves the development of independence from family relationships, and an increased capacity to assume a functional role as a member of adult society. The need for autonomy can cause conflict with parents, when adolescents strive for independence, but at the same time they can benefit from the support of the home environment.

The establishment of personal identity may lead to special problems for adolescents who belong to ethnic minority groups. Waterman (1984, in Geldard & Geldard, 1999) proposes that in the first stages of ethnic-identity development, minority adolescents accept the values and attitudes of the majority culture, often including internalized negative views of their own group. This may continue, until an individual experiences racism or prejudice, which forces them to see themselves as a member of a minority group. An emotional personal ethnic-identity search, involving learning about one's own culture, may then ensue. Emotions such as anger and outrage may be directed at the majority society, but satisfactory ethnic identification can be achieved with individuals developing a

deeper sense of group belonging (Waterman, 1984, in Geldard & Geldard, 1999). The concept of individuation is however a particularly Western, individually orientated view and the process may be different in more collective, community-oriented cultures. For Traditional African communities self is defined in terms of "one's relationship with others including family, community (present relationships), one's ancestors or *amadlozi* (past relationships and family of recently departed spirits) and one's status in the group" (Mkhize, 2004, p. 36). Personhood then is defined relationally, by interaction in a community and interdependence between its members (Mkhize, 2004).

 Much of the literature on adolescence is based on Western and European research. While South Africa can be said to have a multi-racial, multi-cultural society, little can be found in the literature that describes "typical" South African adolescents, and the challenges and changes that have accompanied this stage of their development. It is therefore uncertain if Western research on the developmental passage through adolescence can be generalized to the South African context. Belief systems are shaped by numerous factors such as culture, religion, ethnic background, persona and family history (Mkhize, 2004). South African society consisting of African, Indian, Coloured and White populations, may display cultural diversity in the methods in which each adolescent group navigates its way through adolescence. During the past decade South Africa has been engaged in a profound and rapid transformation process. Building a nonracial society where equality and opportunity presides for all citizens is one task of paramount importance (Sifunda, 2001). The distinct transition period facing today's South African adolescents is comparable to Tyler's (1969) description of transformation in progress, in what they are likely to encounter; "the complexity of the occupational world in a progressive South African society; the impact of rapid social change and departure from traditional society; questioning and erosion of old beliefs and values; and scarcity of informal counselling which was typically available in the village community and extended family" (Tyler, 1969, p.5).

The way which adolescents now undertake to form their identity may vary greatly to that of the past, when consideration is given to the country's new democracy, political and environmental change, and diversity within groups. Adolescents may experience a new variety of difficulties, linked to the process of identity formation, without always having the capacity to resolve them.

2.2.1 Problems experienced by adolescents

Teen years are a time of semi-dependence and a jarring mixture of freedom and constraints. The portrayal of teenagers as, "powerful or vulnerable, innocent or threatening, bumbling or innovative, socially smooth or awkward" is indicative of shifting between extremes in the process of identity formation (Kaplan & Saddock, 1995, p.2162). The medley of concerns presently facing young people is viewed along a continuum, from relatively minor, such as clothing labels, to extreme, such as rape, and suicide (Kaplan and Saddock, 1995). These concerns along with the normal demands of daily living, present an assortment of stresses with which adolescents must cope. Little information has been recorded about the everyday issues and experiences that cause concern for South African adolescents. Because these issues are a cause for concern, information pertaining to their problematic nature, and the manner in which they are handled by adolescents, would prove beneficial in areas such as learner education, educator training, program planning and intervention.

It has been established that, in most Western cultures young adolescents often experience problems and stresses beyond their capacity to cope independently (Bee-Gates, et al. 1996). Much of the literature in this area focuses on the help-seeking behaviour of adolescents, types of problems they report, and includes an indication of from whom they seek help, if at all. Bee-Gates et al. (1996) found that out of 139 learners 61% of whom were female, the three most frequently reported problems for girls included grades or keeping up marks, family relationships and trouble making a decision. For boys concern about their future, keeping up grades and making decisions were the most frequently cited problems. The problems reported as most serious for both male and female adolescents in that study, were family relationships, keeping up grades and concerns about their future. Although a third of the young women reported feeling that they did not want to live, this was not cited as one of their most frequently identified serious concerns. Adolescents chose to seek help from informal sources such as parents, family, friends or themselves (Bee-Gates et al. 1994).

According to Seiffge-Krenke and Shulman's (1990) study, (n=540), everyday problems that are relevant to the majority of adolescents focus on studies, teachers, parents, peers, opposite sex relationships, self, future and leisure time. Similarly, Boldero and Fallon (1995) cite studies that document problems such as social relationships, personal development and career skills as having been central during this period. Barker and Adelman's (1994) study, (n=471), on mental health needs of adolescents, found problems that adolescents identified as causing concern were: psychological distress, psychosocial problems, alcohol and drug abuse, acting out (temper outbursts and fist fights), delinquent behaviour and gang membership. Among these students, the most commonly cited problems were depression, too much stress and family problems. Reviews of studies in South Africa reveal similar results.

2.2.2 Review of studies done in South Africa

Van der Riet and Knoetze (2004) described South African adolescents from the provinces of the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal as having similar problems as those identified in reviewed literature. The qualitative nature of their research provided detailed information about problem types experienced by participants which "assisted in understanding the broader context of the lives of the participants" (p.229). While interpersonal (identity, family and peer pressure) and academic problems (school work and school environment), were reported as prominent problems, less dominant, but still causing concern, were problems involving relationships and sexuality, health (HIV/AIDS and substance abuse), and finance. A noteworthy difference for these authors, between this study and those they reviewed, was the emphasis placed on HIV/AIDS as being a significant problem for the participants (Van der Riet & Knoetze, 2004, P.230). This they saw as related to the rapid increase of prevalence of HIV.

The presence of suicidal behaviour among adolescents has received relatively little attention in South Africa, regardless of the fact that both fatal and non-fatal attempts are common. Pillay & Wassenaar, (1997), note that adolescents have a high risk for such behaviours, and hold that suicidal behaviour in adolescents is as prevalent in South Africa as it is in most Western countries. Madu & Matla (2003) cite a number of studies that document high rates of parasuicide among high school pupils in Limpopo Province, KwaZulu-Natal and in the Cape Peninsula. One study

(Fisher, 1999, in Madu & Matla, 2003) states that suicide in South Africa accounts for up to 1.2% of all deaths of children aged 14 years and younger, while among adolescents aged 15 to 19 years, the suicide mortality rate is significantly higher. These researchers report that among White and Asian populations, suicide is the third leading cause of death, constituting 11.4% and 12.5% (rates per 100,000), respectively of all deaths in the 15 to 19 years age group. Rates of attempted suicide were highest in urban areas compared to rural areas (Madu & Matla, 2003). The prevalence of suicide rates in adolescence is indicative of perceived seriousness of problems adolescents experience and their perceived lack of support for these.

A national survey of South African teenagers (n=2000), conducted by Love Life, recorded that HIV/AIDS, crime, violence and abuse were major concerns for adolescents, with many reporting personal experience with these problems (South African National Youth Survey, 2000). Further, a pilot study investigating problems experienced by male adolescents from Pietermaritzburg in Kwa-Zulu-Natal, (Gillespie, 2001) produced similar findings to Bee-Gates et al. (1996). Participants in this study reported having experienced problems with future, decision making and keeping up marks. Personal problems, depression and not wanting to live were considered as "most serious" by some males in the study. Investigations of a less formal nature (Gillespie, 2003) were undertaken by Intern Psychologists at three Pietermaritzburg schools in an attempt to discover areas where adolescents were experiencing difficulties, with a view to planning interventions. Common problems for girls included, bereavement, pregnancy, rape, physical abuse and eating disorders, while for boys, bereavement, finance, drugs and alcohol were common problems. Van der Riet and Knoetze (2004) found that although problem types are not identified in the literature as specifically male or female, gender differences in the types of problems expressed, were evident, for example rape, pregnancy and physical abuse. Difficulties such as those stated here, will have consequences for adolescents in terms of trauma and stress, coping strategies used, and the development of self-concept. In respect of the problems that South African adolescents reported in the studies reviewed, and considering the transitional changes such as South Africa is currently undergoing, methods of coping and its implications for the health and well-being of its young people require serious consideration.

2.3 COPING

The study of coping aims to theorise around how people manage, adjust, and adapt in order to survive daily demands and meet task requirements under difficult circumstances. In earlier research, coping was conceptualized in the psychoanalytic tradition as a defense mechanism, and thus an unconscious process (Freud, 1933, in Jassat, 1997). According to Aldwin (1994), understanding coping efforts in terms of defense mechanisms is problematic, as that implies they are maladaptive, in that they distort reality. Valliant (1977, in Aldwin, 1994) redefines defense mechanisms in terms of adaptive styles, with a clear assumption that some defense mechanisms can be healthy and adaptive.

A need to identify or distinguish between the dimensions or subtypes of coping, that best describe coping strategies in childhood and adolescence, has produced little consensus among coping researchers (Skinner, Edge, Altman, & Sherwood, 2003). The difficulty lies in that coping is not a specific or unidimensional behaviour, but “functions at a number of levels and is attained by a plethora of behaviours, cognitions, and perceptions” (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978, in Skinner et al., 2003, p. 217).

Lazarus (1993) defines coping as constantly changing “cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person” (in Jassat, 1997, p.22). Coping then is seen to be a flexible process-centered approach, that responds to contextual feedback from a course of events, which in turn influences adaptational outcome. It is a dynamic process that changes, in time, in response to objective demands, and subjective appraisals of the situation (Eagle, 1987). Eagle (1987) further adds that resistance to problematic situations, and maintaining a degree of equilibrium in the face of adversity employs an active and complex set of behavioural, emotional and cognitive processes. Lazarus & Folkman (1980, in Eagle, 1987) regard cognitive processes as incorporating appraisal and coping, where appraisal allows for the evaluation of a situation, along with the availability of options and resources to reduce or tolerate the external demands. Appraisal and coping continuously influence each other throughout a stressful encounter.

These authors describe two major modes of coping that relate to the function of the coping efforts, namely:

- Problem focused coping, which refers to coping efforts that manage or alter the source of stress, and entails direct action on the self or the environment.
- Emotion-focused coping, which relates to the regulation of stressful emotion.

Lazarus (1993, in Jassat, 1997) states that western society would be inclined to favour problem-focused coping over emotion-focused coping as a more effective coping style. Therefore, taking action against a problem would be more desirable than reappraising the meaning of the problem. Lazarus however adds, that problem solving efforts in certain situations may also be counterproductive in cases where the situation cannot be changed constructively, and may cause distress when they fail, thus *emotion-focus coping would be the better choice* (1993, in Jassat, 1997). Strentz & Auerbach (1988, in Jassat, 1997) point out that both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies are used to some degree in most situations.

2.3.1 Styles of coping

Methods of coping, whether cognitive or behavioural, can be seen to be either approaching or avoidant in style. Moos (1993) describes an approach style of coping with a stressor, as one that involves analysis and appraisal of the situation, problem solving, or seeking help and support. On the other hand, an avoidant style of coping comprises cognitive avoidance, acceptance and resignation, seeking alternative rewards, or emotional discharge. In recent literature varied terms have been used to classify coping behaviour. Along with problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, Billings & Moos (1981, in Jassat, 1997) use approach and avoidance, while Seiffge-Krenke, (1993) prefers functional and dysfunctional styles of coping. According to Frydenberg & Lewis (1995), functional styles of coping describe direct attempts to deal with the problem, while dysfunctional styles of coping are considered to be fruitless in their outcomes. Certain styles of coping are linked to better or poorer adaptation, in that active coping infers positive adjustment while avoidant coping implies poorer adaptation (Herman-Stahl, Stemmler, & Petersen, 1995).

Seiffge-Krenke (1992), identified a 3-dimensional structure of coping, which focused on responses to everyday problems that were considered relevant to the majority of adolescents (in Frydenberg, Lewis, Kennedy, Ardila, Frindte, & Hannoun, 2003), namely active coping, internal coping and withdrawal. The first dimension included active undertakings such as information seeking and seeking advice, the second emphasized appraisal of the situation and search for a compromise, and the third - which may be considered dysfunctional – entailed a fatalistic attitude leading to withdrawal. This study recorded adolescents' responses across eight everyday problem areas.

The intention of this study is to explore problems experienced by a sample of South African adolescents, and examine the strategies they use as a means of coping. Because it focuses on the everyday problems affecting adolescents, Seiffge-Krenke's 3-dimensional model of coping will be used as a framework.

2.3.2 Culture and coping

The situational context affects coping strategies and outcomes (Eckenrode, 1991, in Aldwin, 1994). Wallace (1966, in Aldwin, 1994, p.197), defined culture in terms of "mazeways", that consisted of "patterns of beliefs, values, commitments, expected behaviours, and resources, that shape individual behaviour". This definition allowed for varied pathways within mazeways for individual differences, and differences between males and females, or for different socioeconomic or ethnic subgroups. Wallace further alluded that culture does not affect individuals within it in a uniform way. Types of stressors encountered and the range of acceptable coping strategies are partly determined by a person's position in the mazeway. Aldwin (1994) lists four ways that culture can affect the stress and coping process;

- the cultural context shapes the type of stressors likely to be experienced
- culture may affect the appraisal of the level of stressfulness of an event
- culture affects the choice of coping strategies used in any given situation, and
- culture provides different institutional mechanisms to assist in various situations.

The relationship between culture and individual coping is not unidirectional, but rather individual behaviours can reinforce or change existing patterns of coping and it is important to understand that individuals' coping can be both affected by, and affect, culture (Aldwin, 1994). Within the South African context diversity of culture and race is prominent, therefore coping strategies among adolescents of various races and cultures may vary greatly.

2.3.3 Cross cultural studies of coping

Relatively few studies have compared young people's coping behaviour with daily concerns in a cross-cultural perspective. Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman (1990) concluded there is a universal capacity for young people from Germany and Israel, to use the two functional styles of coping, namely active and internal coping, and to a lesser degree the dysfunctional style of withdrawal. A similar pattern of coping was found among adolescents in a six-nation comparison study by Gelhaar, Seiffge-Krenke, Bosma, Gillespie, Tam, & Tzelepi (2004), where functional coping strategies (active and internal coping; range: 73% - 83%) outweighed dysfunctional coping behaviour (withdrawal; range: 17% - 27%). Of all the nations investigated in this study, adolescents from South Africa and Hong Kong were found to use the most withdrawal strategies. Coping with peer related concerns was found to be similar across cultures, while stressors related to future, home, family or school differed very much in the six countries explored. Gelhaar et al. (2004) state that a relatively high percentage of withdrawal recorded among South African and Hong Kongese adolescents may be a consequence of different values, education, and family system evident in cultures with a collectivist orientation. It may also be a lack of agency to effect change, as some cultures rely more on faith than on problem solving in facing adversity (Seligman, 1975; Grotberg, 1995). Previously, the South African political situation has meant that many people have been rendered unable to change the situation, and so may have developed helplessness.

Gibson-Cline's (1996) thirteen-nation study (in Gelhaar, 2004) reported a global similarity of young people's concerns. Highlighted also were higher concerns about financial or material matters in poorer countries; while self-related problems or academic stressors were highest in economically well-developed societies; and the more collectivist a culture, the higher the stressors were due to

family issues. Concerning coping strategies, individual problem solving was employed most in all cultures, by means of "planning", "trying harder", or "seeking support".

2.3.4 Coping and well-being

Coping plays an essential role in one's psychological and physical well-being when one is confronted with stressful or negative life events (Jassat, 1997). Coping with stress is an important component of health and well-being, since failure to deal with stress is very costly. Effects on social and emotional functioning, as well as on the ability to receive, capture and retain information due to cortisol production, have been found (Lewis & Friedenberg, 2002). Further, overuse of non-productive strategies interferes with the capacity to use productive coping, while adept coping with everyday concerns and with more serious issues may be the key to adolescents maintaining a state of health and well being (Lewis & Friedenberg, 2002).

South African youth need to be able to cope in the face of adversity. Studies document implications for youth, who like many South African adolescents, are among the most impoverished and disadvantaged. A number of studies are documented by Weist, Freedman, Paskewitz, Proescher, & Flaherty (1995) that report the effects and severe implications of poverty, low parental education, unemployment, absence of one or both parents, and large family size, for the course of life events for young people. According to these authors, living in an environment of deprivation produces elevated rates of behaviour problems, feelings of alienation and hopelessness, along with suicidal ideation and behaviour, teen pregnancy, drug dealing and or use, and a 50% drop out rate of disadvantaged learners.

The role of family and other forms of social support play an integral role in the well-being of youth. Rumberger et al., (1990, in Weist et al., 1995) found that high levels of nurturance and support related positively to academic self-concept and inversely related to absences from school. Adolescents who had dropped out of school reported that parents who were less involved in decision-making were more permissive and less involved in school related matters.

Weist et al. (1995) investigated the impact of stress and intervening influences of locus of control, family environment, social support, and coping style on psychological and academic outcomes in a sample of inner-city learners, where patterns emanated differently for boys as compared to girls. Family cohesion, that is closeness and supportiveness was found to be the only variable to protect against the effects of stress for boys, where it was the inverse for girls, and was associated with increased vulnerability to school problems. This may have ramifications in a South African context where family cohesion may be less evident due to the affects of the AIDS pandemic. Problem focused coping was found to activate a number of protective functions for girls only. External locus of control was found to increase vulnerability to life stress for both boys and girls.

Since stress is so much a part of daily life, how people successfully manage stress has immediate personal relevance. Statistics show that many South Africans live below the poverty line. Current unemployment figures (Knowledge is Power, 2004) show that of the estimated 30,4 million people aged between 15 years and 65 years, 12 million were employed and 4,6 million were unemployed. The consequences for adolescents reflect severe financial problems, and accompanied by the ensuing stress, require that specific coping strategies be adopted.

In spite of growing up with multiple and chronic stressors associated with poverty, many youth remain prosocial and well adjusted (Weist, et al., 1995). Grotberg (1995, p.7) describes resilience as "a universal capacity which allows a person, group or community to prevent, minimize or overcome the damaging effects of adversity". Promoting resilience in youth involves factors such as, building trusting relationships, self-esteem, finding emotional support outside the family, encouraging autonomy, unconditional love for someone, and a sense of being lovable (Grotberg, 1995). The study of variables that differentiate 'resilient' children from maladjusted youth has been identified as critical to the development of preventative interventions (Cowen & Work, 1988, in Weist et al., 1995).

2.3.5 Happiness and well-being

Accounting for happiness, and distinguishing happy individuals, has been the focus of many studies (Lawton, 1984; Tellegan, 1985; Watson & Clarke, 1992; Diener & Fujita, 1995, in Ben-Zur,

2002). In assessing the *subjective well-being* (SWB) of adolescents, there have been endeavours to determine elements that contribute to young people's sense of well-being and happiness. According to Deiner & Fujita (1995, in Ben-Zur, 2002), the main components of SWB are affect and life satisfaction. Ben-Zur (2002, p.68) describes positive and negative emotional experiences that form affect, "positive affect elicits states such as joy, interest, excitement, confidence and alertness, while negative affect in contrast describes subjective distress and dissatisfaction, and is composed of anger, fear, sadness, guilt, contempt and disgust". This author further states that this positive affect/negative affect construct has been investigated in many studies on mood and distress, and is considered to be part of the affective aspect of well-being and quality of life. Life satisfaction, a component of SWB, comprises both cognitive and affective aspects, and may be assessed by levels of satisfaction at work, in a relationship, school and other areas of life (Myers & Diener, 1995, in Ben-Zur, 2002).

A factor considered to affect individual's well-being is the resources they have. Deiner & Fujita (1995, in Ben-Zur, 2002, p.68) describe resources as "material, social, or personal characteristics that a person possesses, that he or she can use to make progress toward her or his personal goals". It was found that personal and social resources contributed more significantly to SWB among young people, than did material resources. In agreement with Deiner & Fujita (1995), Ben-Zur (2002) found that, personal characteristics such as mastery and optimism (internal resources) made a stronger contribution to SWB than did perceived economic status. An encompassing concept for mastery, plus self-perception, plus well being is self-esteem.

2.3.6 Role of parents and family in adolescents' happiness

Family process theory, as discussed by Larson & Richards (1994, in Ben-Zur, 2002), suggests that family members share a subjective reality, along with shared values and world-views. Matched by other studies (Field et al., 1995; Lasko, 1996; Sim, 2000 in Ben-Zur, 2002) this author also found an association between the adolescents' positive relationships with their fathers and their high level of internal resources of optimism and mastery. Suggested implications may be that positive interactions with parents, may adequately equip adolescents with resources that can assist them in coping with life's problems and in turn enhance the quality of their adult life. Conversely, different

types of relationships between adolescents and their parents can affect their well-being either positively or negatively (Paskoff et al., 1993 in Ben-Zur, 2002). Differences in perception among family members, regardless of shared environment, may contribute to family stress, and have implications for adolescents' well-being (Ben-Zur, 2002). Individuation from family, seeking autonomy from parents, and redefining roles and places in society, may prompt conflict between adolescents and their parents (Coleman, 1992; Holmbeck et al., 1995, in Ben-Zur, 2002).

Well-being, in accordance with reviewed literature concerning positive and negative affects of relationships with parents, may not hold true for South African adolescents. Once a strong, traditional, extended family structure existed within the black community, but change is now evident. Rural/urban migration in the black community, and divorce in other communities has led to the emergence of single parent families. While many children and adolescents have lost one or both parents as a result of the AIDS pandemic, it has become apparent that many adolescents have had to adjust and adapt to residing with relatives or becoming heads of households themselves. Extreme living conditions such as these, and the absence of parental guidance, may seriously affect the health and well-being of many South African adolescents (Barberin & Richter, 2001).

2.4 SELF-ESTEEM

Much work is being carried out in the area of self-esteem in adolescence. It is argued that understanding of self-processes during this stage of life would be enhanced by investigation of self-esteem and its linkages to other components of the developing self-system (Hirsch & DuBois, 2000). Identity formation, in regard to the 'self' and self-concept, is said to incorporate self-image, self-efficacy and self-esteem (Yardley & Honess, 1987). Coopersmith (1967) defines self-esteem as: "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: It expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the level to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy. In short self-esteem is a *personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself*" (p.5). Coopersmith (1967), affirms that the formation of children's self-images are based on the way they are treated by significant others, such as parents, teachers and peers, who

provide information which is the content of their perceptions and opinions about themselves. The positive or negative attitudes and values that construct the self-image, and the judgments that are made about it, form the person's self-esteem (1967). Coopersmith (1987) contends that antecedents of self-esteem include: the influence of social background, parental characteristics, the individual's characteristics, the individual's early history and experiences, and parent-child relationships. Overall or global self-esteem, along with general, home, school and social self-esteem can be determined by interpreting Coopersmith's (1967) Self-Esteem Inventory.

Self-esteem can be alluded to in positive or negative terms. Coopersmith (1967), describes positive self-esteem as being associated with terms such as self-respect, superiority, pride, self-acceptance, and self-love, whereas negative self-esteem or appraisal is often equated with inferiority, timidity, self-hatred, lack of personal acceptance, and submissiveness. It is highlighted that positive or negative connotations can also be applied to both descriptions, thus a person with high self-esteem may be associated with vanity and arrogance, while a person who takes a modest view of him or herself may be described either as humble and more in tune with self, or conversely, as passive and inferior individuals (Coopersmith, 1967). Overall or global self-esteem, along with general, home, school and social self-esteem can be determined by interpreting Coopersmith's (1967) Self-Esteem Inventory. This study will use the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI).

2.4.1 Appraisal and levels of self-esteem

Baumeister (1993,) notes that individuals with high self-esteem generally want to and expect to succeed, be liked and admired, and approach new situations with a confident optimism, but the puzzle according to this author lies with those individuals who form negative self-appraisals. Baumeister attests that self-esteem is one of the central, and most important aspects of the self-concept and, according to Campbell & Lavellee (1993), self-esteem has been shown to have a pervasive and powerful impact on human cognition, motivation, emotion and behaviour. In addition, studies cited by these authors document the effects of self-esteem in diverse areas such as: competition, conformity, attraction, causal attribution, achievement, and coping with stressful life events. It is argued that an important natural accompaniment of self-esteem is the clarity of self-

concept, and while people with high self-esteem have positive, well-articulated views of the self, people low in self-esteem have poorly defined self-concepts (Campbell & Lavelle, 1993).

Competence and approval seem to be vital ingredients in the formation of self-esteem. Harter's research (1982 – 1991) confirms findings derived from models of James (1892), and Cooley (1902), cited in Harter (1993), which revealed that competence in domains deemed important, as well as approval from significant others, as being highly predictive of self-esteem in older children and adolescents. Hence, the more one's importance of value ratings in a particular domain exceed one's perceived adequacy or competence, the lower one's self-worth. According to Harter (1993), domains considered very important for adolescents and valued highly by significant others, such as parents and peers are, scholastic competence, athletic competence, physical attractiveness, social acceptance, and appropriate behavioural conduct. Repeated findings show that self-evaluations in the domain of physical appearance correlate highly with self-esteem in older children, adolescents, college students and adults (Harter, 1993).

Social comparison provides guidelines for self-evaluation. Thus, how one measures up to one's peers, and to societal standards, becomes the filter through which judgements about the self are made (Harter, 1993). Tice (1963) reports that the first goal of individuals with low self-esteem in most situations is to avoid failure, humiliation, rejection and other disasters. Being well acquainted with and sensitive to the costs and pain of failure, their focus is on self-protection against such distressing outcomes. Further, it is their tendency to lean towards being noncommittal, neither highly negative nor highly positive in self-presentation, but they focus on their shortcomings and try to remedy them (Tice, 1963).

Studies need to be able to ascertain what self-esteem might influence. Harter, in agreement with other researchers for example (Beck, 1975; Higgins, 1989; Baumeister 1993, in Harter, 1993) report that one's mood is a major candidate found to influence self-esteem, along the dimension of cheerful to depressed. Older children and adolescents reporting low self-esteem consistently report depressed affect. Causal constructs, namely competence in domains of importance, and social support, may not only influence one's level of self-esteem but may provoke a powerful emotional reaction, that for the low self-esteem adolescent may result in a chronic mood state of

depression (Renouf and Harter, 1990, in Harter, 1993). In accordance with Seligman (1975), Harter (1993) also found that self-esteem and affect correlate highly with hopelessness and helplessness, which have been implicated with depressive reactions.

Discrepancies between one's ideal and real selves may contribute to the value placed on personal worth (Harter, 1993). A review of work by Markus & Nurius (1987) concludes that 'possible selves' are seen as part of the system that makes up self-concept, and includes individuals' conceptions of their potential and their future. Similarly, for adolescents, development of possible selves may represent individual's ideas of what they would like to become and might become, and incorporate their hopes, fears and goals for the future. Thus, poorly defined self-concept, as previously discussed (Campbell & Lavelle, 1993), may present difficulties when adolescents need to decide about their future and the world of work.

2.4.2 Culture and self-esteem

Researchers have questioned whether self-esteem has similar meanings and correlates in individual and collectivist cultures (Kohler Flynn, 2003). *Self-esteem theory and measurement* imply cultural and gender assumptions that self-esteem is an individual characteristic that all humans possess and continually strive to improve (Greenberg et al., in Kohler Flynn, 2003). At the base of this is the Western notion of individuation and autonomy. Diverse cultural backgrounds differ considerably in that they have a less individuated and more collective notion of self. Collectivist societies that include countries of Southern Europe, Latin America, most Asian and African cultures, are characterized by emphasis on family and community based relations and values. According to Kohler Flynn (2003), in collectivist societies it is 'in-group' norms and role relations that motivate and drive the individual, and from where direction is taken. In comparison, individualistic cultures show opposite orientations where emphasis is placed on personal goals, interests and preferences. Choices then are relatively free of the dictates of the family and others to whom one might be linked in traditional role relations (Nisbell & Ross, 1991, in Kohler Flynn, 2003).

Cross-cultural researchers report a systematic response bias in Likert type scales, for example, East Asian respondents (Japanese and Chinese) were more likely than North American respondents to use the mid-point on Likert Scales, while African American were more likely to use extreme values than Whites. Asian Americans consistently ranked themselves lower than other ethnic groups (Chen, in Kohler Flynn, 2003). Authors such as De Las Fuentes & Vasquez, and Portes & Rumbaut, have been reported to have found that attributes and behaviours of one culture modified as a result of contact with a different culture, and an increase in self-esteem over a period of three years (in Kohler Flynn, 2003). Crocker & Major (1989), argue that it is not possible to have a universal self-esteem scale, since they report that the link between response bias and culture make it likely that measurement scales are only locally specific. Adopting a universal notion of the self then neglects cultural diversity (Crocker & Major, 1989). The multifaceted concept of identity is important when examining self across cultures. This needs to be taken into consideration when examining levels of self-esteem, as reported by adolescents in a society that incorporates diverse cultures, such as South Africa.

2.4.3 Difficulties in measuring self-esteem

Coopersmith (1987) emphasizes the importance of supplemental measures and observations when measuring self-esteem, and recommends that local norms be developed wherever possible. While he feels that self-esteem will usually remain consistent over a period of several years, momentary or short-lived changes can and do occur. Further, temporary inflation or deflation of self-esteem may occur as a result of drastic change in family or school situation that may determine the type of self-report response provided during data collection. Coopersmith also states that particular ethnic, cultural, or religious groups could have values and perceptions significantly different from those inherent in the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) statements, and therefore, for a few groups the SEI may not validly measure self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1987).

2.4.5 Aim and rationale

In the light of societal reformation, environmental shift and adolescents' metamorphosis it would seem that adolescence is a developmental stage that would benefit from being addressed in terms

of health and well-being. This is possible within the framework of education and the school curriculum. A revised outcomes-based curriculum has the intent to develop the full potential of each learner and prepare him/her for life and its possibilities. Holding the holistic development of learners as central, Life Orientation is concerned with the promotion of social, personal, intellectual, emotional and physical growth of learners, as well as health and orientation to the world of work (National Curriculum Statement, 2002). To address these needs it is important to have knowledge about them.

The aim of this research is to explore the problems reportedly experienced by adolescents in this study, along with their strategies for coping, and an insight into how they view themselves in terms of self-esteem. Chapter 3 will discuss the methodology used to conduct the study.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In a decade of educational change within South Africa, school-based research promises to be an important tool for advancing knowledge and promoting progress in a system that is undergoing immense changes in teaching methods, curriculum content and the experiences of the learners. Research therefore assists us in understanding the motives for our behaviours and for developing effective programmes of intervention. This research endeavours to investigate aspects of adolescent adjustment in the environment of the school. The methodology used for this research will be presented in this chapter. This will include the aims of the study, a discussion of the questionnaire/survey method as a means of research, a discussion of the questionnaire sub-sections used in this study, a description of the research sample, and finally the research procedure.

3.2 AIM OF RESEARCH AND REASEARCH QUESTIONS

3.2.1 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to explore difficulties experienced by adolescents, and the manner in which they are managed. Interest has been generated by many changes that have occurred in South Africa in general and specifically within the education system, during the first ten years of democracy, 1994-2004. This study is a follow-up of an unpublished research project entitled *Help-Seeking Behaviour of Male High School Adolescents* (Gillespie, 2001). Studies of adolescent help-seeking behaviour have been conducted in the USA, Europe and Australia (Bee-Gates et al., 1996; Boldero & Fallon, 1995; Kuhl, Jarkon-Horlick, & Morrissey, 1997). To date little research has been conducted in this area in South Africa, with one study being cited (Van der Riet & Knoetze, 2004). Other South African studies have investigated effectiveness of Guidance and Counselling (Ntshangase, 1995). A review of the literature presents evidence pointing towards adolescents'

reluctance to seeking help for problems they experience (Boldero & Fallon, 1995; Bee-Gates et al. 1996; Ciarrochi, Dean, Wilson & Rickwood, 2002).

Considering the growing changes in education and the environment where learning takes place, the turbulent developmental stage of adolescence physically, emotionally and cognitively (Coon, 2004), and the perceived multiplicity of difficulties adolescents in South Africa may face, it would seem that adolescents most need supportive services. According to Akhurst & Ntshangase (2002, p261) there exists "...the need for guidance in the areas related to educational, emotional, social and career adjustment", in all schools in South Africa. This would point to the potential need for a study investigating adolescents' help-seeking activities. However, as suggested by a previous study by the researcher (Gillespie, 2001) and the literature (Boldero & Fallon 1995; Bee-Gates et al., 1996; Kuhl et al., 1997), adolescents are reluctant to seek help. Therefore, it was felt that an exploratory baseline study to establish how adolescents were coping, and what they perceived as issues of concern as adolescents, was warranted. Knowledge of problems encountered, and methods of coping that accompany these everyday difficulties, considering few adolescents seek help, would be insightful as to how young people manage the problems they face. Information of this nature could in turn inform Guidance and Counselling programmes presently being revised and soon to be incorporated into the Life Orientation learning area, and intervention planning, within the South African school curriculum.

The present study aims to investigate the extent and frequency to which a broader cross-section of adolescents, across socio-economic groupings, and including males and females, experience a range of educational, career and emotional concerns. This is coupled with an enquiry into adolescents' coping styles, and their reported levels of self-esteem. Responses from three schools will be compared, two co-educational urban high schools presently offering Guidance as part of their curriculum, and one co-educational semi-rural high school where Guidance is not offered within the curriculum. Due to varied contexts in which South African youth attend schooling it was deemed important that data was gathered from a sample of these varied contexts.

3.2.2 Research questions

The three main questions guiding this piece of research are:

- What type of problems do South African adolescents in this sample identify as those they experienced during the past 6 months, and on a daily basis?
- What coping styles are used by learners for the problems they identify?
- Does their level of self-esteem as measured by an inventory have any bearing on the manner in which they cope?

In order to answer these research questions, it was decided that a survey methodology, based on the use of a custom designed questionnaire, would be most suitable to explore broader patterns among a large sample, rather than an in-depth understanding of the construction of help-seeking. Explanations for these will be discussed later in 3.4.

3.3 QUESTIONNAIRE/SURVEY METHODOLOGY AS A MEANS OF RESEARCH

A survey is an overall approach to doing social research, involving practical and tactical strategies to do with the detailed design of the instrument to be used, determining the sample to be surveyed, and ensuring high response rates. In most cases the instrument is a questionnaire, largely or wholly composed of fixed choice questions (Robson, 2002). Questioning can be carried out either orally through interviewing, or on paper by administering a questionnaire, to obtain self-report information from participants, mainly to accomplish descriptive or predictive goals. The items used in a survey instrument are used to measure facts, opinions and behaviours of the broader population (Dane, 1990). Questionnaires have a number of functions, and do not attempt to control conditions or manipulate variables, as is the case with experimentation. Instead the questionnaire is considered to be well suited to descriptive studies and can be used to explore aspects of a situation, provide data for testing hypotheses, as well as seeking explanations (Robson, 2002).

This study employed the questionnaire method in order to gain information linked to self-management of adolescents. It is hoped that adolescents responses will identify problems they experience, and that the opinions expressed will illuminate their self concepts, and reported behaviours will provide insight into their coping styles. For this study, the questionnaire was chosen over the interview method as the research instrument in an attempt to alleviate a possible reluctance on the part of adolescents to share the nature of their problems and their needs to seek help. It was hoped that in the absence of any potential personal threat that may be associated with face-to-face interviews with a relative stranger, learners would answer more freely and honestly.

3.3.1 Advantages of questionnaire/survey methodology

The questionnaire, defined as a group of written questions to gather information, is undoubtedly one of the most popular research tools. According to Neuman (1997), the questionnaire is advantageous because:

- it is effective, as large amounts of information can be gathered from a large sample size in a relatively short time
- sample size can vary from relatively small to enormous
- it can be given directly to respondents who read instructions and questions, and record their responses
- it is considered one of the cheapest research methods, and can be conducted by a single researcher
- it provides anonymity and confidentiality for participants, which may facilitate willingness to reveal sensitive information, and
- it can avoid interviewer bias.

The questionnaire was an appropriate choice of instrument for this study, as each of the above items was applicable. A large sample was used which yielded a considerable amount of data in a relatively short space of time, permitting potential generalisability of results. It was possible to conduct this study relatively cheaply, and the time involved was manageable. Anonymity and

confidentially allowed learners the freedom to respond more openly, which may result in more accurate data being presented.

3.3.2 Disadvantages of questionnaire/survey methodology

As with every research method, whilst there are many advantages of using a questionnaire, disadvantages are also inevitable. Neuman (1997) mentions the following for consideration:

- shortcomings (in design or construction) cannot be altered once given to respondents
- preparation is required to ensure clarity and relevance of questions
- it is difficult to design questions that obtain in-depth meaning from respondents
- misinterpretation of a question can go unnoticed
- not all respondents may be in earnest
- responses may be based on self-presentation instead of accuracy
- respondents may be unwilling to reveal sensitive material, or admit to particular types of behaviours, and
- it requires a certain level of reading skills.

Whilst the intention lies in an endeavour to produce an adequate questionnaire that will produce valuable information, the above limitations need consideration. Deliberation of limitations that relate directly to this study follow:

- Firstly, during construction of the demographic section of the questionnaire, 'Gender', was initially excluded. This omission was consequently rectified by including "Gender" to all subsequent instruments. Consequently, there will be limitations of any gender comparisons throughout the study.
- Secondly, the instrument was presented to learners in English. Therefore consideration must be given to the fact that English is a second language for the majority of learners in this study, and employing the services of an interpreter during the data capture stage of the study would prove helpful.

The construction of this instrument and the three sections is discussed below.

3.4.1 The Construction of questions

Robson (2002) comments that "although surveys rely largely on closed questions, where there is a choice among a number of fixed alternatives, some open-ended questions where respondents are free to answer as they wish, can be introduced" (p 238). This study incorporated both open and closed questions, to derive information. A section permitting participants to answer freely was included, to give learners an opportunity to indicate problems they considered as 'most serious'. The last section of the questionnaire required participants to select 'like me' or 'unlike me' in response to a series of statements. This process involved learners rating themselves, stating whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement, a technique developed by Likert (1932, in Robson, 2002).

3.4.2 The Likert Scale

As a rating approach that is widely used to elicit information, Likert Scales aim to provide an ordinal-level measure of a person's attitude. The Likert Scale consists of items reflecting extreme positions on a continuum, items with which individuals are likely to agree or disagree (Dane, 1990). By increasing the number of categories, for example, by including "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree" potentially more accurate data may be collected. Numerical values, such as 1,2,3,4,5, may be assigned in order to rate an individual's personal feelings and attitudes, thus increasing and supporting the possibility of accuracy of data collected (Robson, 2002). However, in this study, only the categories 'like me' or 'unlike me' were used to give an indication of learners' feelings about their self-esteem. Another choice was not offered in the SEI, which prevented learners from 'sitting on the fence', and forced them to make a conscious decision about how they view themselves in different situations.

3.4.3 The choice of instruments and the questionnaire

This research used a three-part questionnaire, the design of which was drawn from a number of different studies. Each section of the questionnaire explored one of the following: possible problems experienced by learners, learners' coping styles, and learners' self-esteem (each section to be explored below). A cover page explained the nature of the research, and included several questions for demographic purposes (see Appendix 3 for complete questionnaire).

3.4.3.1 Section one of the questionnaire

Section one of the questionnaire was adapted and piloted for the South African context from a study conducted by Bee-Gates et al.(1996), who researched help-seeking behaviour of American Indian High School Students. The adapted version of their instrument consisted of 22 statements describing problems oriented around personal, family, emotional, career, future and social issues that may be experienced by adolescents. Two items from the original questionnaire were excluded from the instrument used for this study, namely: Other Problems, and No Problems. 'Other Problems not already listed' replaced the former as an open-ended question, while the latter item was considered uninformative after piloting the instrument.

Learners in this study were asked to identify problems and their frequency, that is, daily, weekly, or monthly as they experienced them over the previous six months. Participants were offered an opportunity to say which problem they considered 'the most serious' of those they selected. An opportunity to name an unlisted problem they may have experienced, and describe it in more detail, was also included. Subjective responses allowed for a qualitative dimension in addition to the already captured quantitative data.

3.4.3.2 Section two of the questionnaire

Section two of the questionnaire inquired about learners' styles of coping. The Coping Across Situations Questionnaire (CASQ) used by Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman (1990) in their cross-cultural study of adolescents' styles of coping in Germany and Israel, was used for the current study. The

CASQ was translated from German to English for the intended purposes of various cross-cultural studies by the original researcher, and hence, it was thought that the English language version would be suitable for use in this study. Respondents were asked to indicate their preferred method for coping with issues across eight problem domains, by selecting from listed ways of dealing with problems. For example, if a problem was encountered with school, partner or peers, a choice for coping would be, "I discuss the problem with my parents" or "I try to forget the problem with alcohol and drugs"

Studies about adolescents' coping have focused primarily on the impact of major life events or extreme situations, such as rape, kidnapping, or a major illness, like cancer (Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990). Further, the notable majority of stressful events in adolescence are the numerous small events of everyday life, like conflict at school, and quarrels with parents or peers. It is of interest within this piece of research to investigate the magnitude of problems reported and the methods used by learners for coping with the type of problems they report.

3.4.3.3 Section three of the questionnaire

Section three of the questionnaire explores adolescents' self-image. The instrument used for this purpose was The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI), developed by Coopersmith (1967) in conjunction with an extensive study of self-esteem in children. The SEI consists of items relating to self-attitudes in four areas: peers, parents, school and personal interests. Learners were asked to select 'Like me' or "Unlike me" in response to each statement. The School Short Form of the inventory is particularly useful in situations where time limits make it impractical to administer the longer 50-item version. 25 items that were considered suitable for the South African context and pertinent for this research were selected for use in this study. These same items were used by Gillespie (2001), and found to be useful.

Initially, the SEI, CASQ and Bee-Gates et al. (1996) questionnaires underwent tests for reliability and validity, at the time of the original research (Coopersmith, 1967; Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990; Bee-Gates et al. 1996). It was thought that as reliability and validity were established during

the course of analysis of each respective study, the formulation of one instrument, from the three previously tested instruments, as was done for this study, would reduce the risk of invalid findings.

3.5 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This section outlines the planning of the research, from formulation through to the execution of the study. The research process consisted of piloting the questionnaire, revising the instrument, administering the instrument to participants, advising participants of informed consent and confidentiality, administration of the instrument, and finally analyses of the data.

3.5.1 The selection of schools

Learners' needs dictated reasons for selecting particular schools in which to conduct this study. Two urban schools and one semi-rural school, from in and around Pietermaritzburg in KwaZulu-Natal, formed the research sites. These schools were selected because both male and female learners attended, and the schools were of substantial size, drawing learners from across the socio-economic spectrum.

The schools differed in terms of resources and racial make up of learners. An all-black learner population attended the rural school, while learners of multi-racial origins attended both urban schools. Guidance and Counselling which is currently under review as a subject area, was provided as part of the curriculum at both urban schools, but not at the rural school, which meant that it would be possible to collect a diversity of data, and to undertake some comparisons between schools. Historically, group separation in the schooling system rendered inconsistencies in terms of provision and allocation of resources among schools, leaving urban schools more advantaged than their rural counterparts (Akhurst, 2001). A divide still exists along socio-economic and resource status, where a rural/urban imbalance has yet to be rectified. Comparing differences pertaining to life difficulties that rural and urban adolescents experience, and how they manage these difficulties, may be helpful when planning future support services in the respective schools.

3.5.2 The research sample

The research sample consisted of 362 Grade10 learners, with an average age of sixteen years. There were 130 learners from one all-black rural high school, and groups of 150 and 82 from each of two multi-racial urban high schools in Pietermaritzburg. This age group being mid-way in their high school education was chosen for several reasons. Firstly, it was felt that they would have an adequate understanding of English. Secondly, they would be able to reflect on their experiences in order to provide meaningful data. Thirdly, this was a vital time for these learners entering their final phase of schooling, which would then influence their future careers. Fourthly, findings of this study may be useful for Grades 11 and 12 Guidance and Counselling curriculum planning, presently in progress. The sample comprises both English and Zulu first language learners whose medium of instruction in school is English. There was thus a diversity of learners included in the sample.

All three schools are large co-educational establishments that differ according to their urban or rural positioning in terms of resources. Rural schools tend not to be as well staffed, equipped, or exposed to Guidance and Counselling, as are their urban counter-parts. The rural school learners in this study are predominately first language Zulu speakers, while the multi-racial groups attending the urban facilities speak various languages. However, English is the medium of instruction in each of the above educational facilities. For ethical reasons pseudonyms have been allocated to each school, and from here they will be referred to as:

- **Misty Mountain – rural school whose learners are majority black.**
- **Old Oaks – urban school whose learners are multi-racial.**
- **River Glen – urban school whose learners are majority black.**

Misty Mountain is a poorly resourced rural school situated on the outskirts of Pietermaritzburg. Its history and location means that for learners and their families, many basic services, transport, and employment are inaccessible. There is a lack of teaching staff, educational equipment and textbooks available to address the multifaceted needs of this school's learners. In contrast, Old Oaks and River Glen are urban schools situated within the Pietermaritzburg city boundaries, and

are well-resourced schools. They have good teaching and material assets, to accommodate appropriate educational facilitation for the vast majority of their learner needs. The families whose children attend Old Oaks enjoy a much better socio-economic status than those at River Glen, while Misty Mountain learners appear to be the most economically disadvantaged of all three sets of participants in this study.

3.5.3 Gaining access to a suitable sample

Access to a suitable sample from each school was gained by telephonically contacting the Principal who granted permission for the research to be carried out in their respective schools. Heads of Departments and guidance staff coordinated convenient times, and venues for this research to take place. Meetings were held between the researcher and guidance staff in each school, to confirm suitable dates and times for the proceedings to take place.

3.5.4 Ethical considerations

Principals were contacted, the aims and research process were explained and permission was granted. Permission from parents for learners to participate was gained by return of the tear-off slip from a letter that explained the nature and purpose of the research (See Appendix 2). Principals were assured of confidentiality regarding learners' responses, and anonymity of schools. As previously mentioned, a pseudonym was assigned to each school to prevent recognition by prospective readers. Learners were informed about the nature of the research, voluntary participation and confidentiality. In this research it is recognized that there may be adolescents concerns that may need to be raised. Although this is group data, staff will be notified of broad concerns arising from the research results to assist with future planning.

3.6 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was distributed to each group of learners, who were informed about the nature of the research, voluntary participation and confidentiality (See protocol in Appendix 3). Learners

were encouraged to ask for clarification should they experience difficulty understanding instructions or any item on the questionnaire. Prior to administering the questionnaire, school staff members were briefed regarding the content of the questionnaire, and the procedure to be followed. They were encouraged to assist learners with queries and clarification of items, should the need arise. Learners spent approximately 50 minutes in total completing the questionnaire.

A Zulu speaking teacher was invited to accompany the researcher while administering the questionnaire to rural school learners. There was a concern that misunderstanding of the instructions and questions, due to language difficulties, may provide less fruitful data. This was a worthwhile addition, as initial concerns were found when the first group of Zulu first language learners came to make responses. As was suspected, learners did not feel comfortable to ask in English for explanations or clarification for that which they did not understand. This observation led to a guided approach being taken, where learners made their responses by tackling one section of the questionnaire at a time, in correspondence with instructions given both in English and in Zulu, by the Zulu speaking teacher. This method proved more effective than the intended method, where learners would be given all the information and instructions, and then independently completed the questionnaire.

3.6.1 Difficulties encountered during the process of data collection

As with any operation, plans do not always materialize as initially intended. Old Oaks learners were the first group to complete the questionnaire. Grade 10 learners arrived at the school hall at the allocated time. No prior hall preparation had taken place, thus 175 students sat on the floor to complete the questionnaire. This type of setting made the delivery of instructions and holding participants' attention very difficult. There was a hum of excitement, and because learners sat in close proximity to one another, they were easily distracted, and may not have been conscientious about the task at hand.

As was agreed the school counsellor remained in the hall to assist with the proceedings, but little disciplinary control was asserted. In this setting it was understandable that learners would be

tempted to discuss responses with friends. The researcher did endeavour to instill an air of seriousness around the task, however there were a few learners who regarded the experience as a very social occasion. 40 questionnaires were omitted from this collection of data due to learners providing unreliable or incomplete responses. However, information from these same respondents' questionnaires proved to be rich in qualitative data, and thus useful for gaining insight into thought patterns with which adolescents appear to be preoccupied

There were a number of learners in the overall sample that experienced difficulty with the wording of certain items, and with word meanings, in the questionnaire. The researcher and the school staff member attended to difficulties as they arose.

When data was being collected from Misty Mountain rural school, it was evident that the initial group of learners completing the questionnaire was reluctant to ask for help or clarification of items in English (their second language). The expertise of the Zulu speaking teacher, who accompanied the researcher for the purpose of acting as an interpreter, was used. It was decided to proceed through the questionnaire section by section, using English and isiZulu to assist learners with any misunderstandings or language difficulties. Learners thereafter appeared comfortable to ask questions in isiZulu. Hence, for the remaining three sets of learners at this research site, communication was conducted through a medium of English and isiZulu. The additional isiZulu clarification at this site may have slightly influenced learner responses, but it was felt necessary in order to collect the data.

Section two of the questionnaire, CASQ, (See Appendix 3) that asked learners to describe how they coped with particular problems, proved difficult for both English and Zulu speaking learners to understand. Careful explanation and administration of instructions had to be carried out for this section. This may have influenced the type of responses made by learners. It may be beneficial to consider rewording the instructions for Section Two for future research.

These problems did not emerge during the initial piloting of Section Two of the questionnaire. However, slightly older learners were used for the piloting procedure, and it may have been the case that they were accustomed to the level of difficulty of the language used therein. The

remainder of the questionnaire, that is Sections 1 and 3, had been piloted prior to conducting the initial help-seeking project (Gillespie, 2001), and was not piloted a second time.

3.7 ANALYSES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized in the analyses of the data. Data were entered, coded, and analysed by using the following techniques :

- Frequency Analyses
- Factor Analyses
- Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r)
- Regression Analyses

An account of the findings of this research will be presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to outline the major research findings of this study. Three parts will be used to summarise the analyses: Section 4.2 will describe the participants of the study, giving demographic details of the respondents, sections 4.3 will report the findings of each section of the questionnaire, a profile of types and frequencies of problems experienced by participants, their coping styles, and self-esteem, and section 4.4 will link the findings to the research questions.

4.2 DESCRIPTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS

The research sample was drawn from three high schools located in and around the city of Pietermaritzburg, in KwaZulu-Natal. All three schools are large government co-educational, multi-racial facilities, whose learners come from various cultural and socio-economic backgrounds, and speak a variety of languages. However due to South Africa's sociopolitical history the demographics are not equally distributed across schools. Anonymity has been secured by the allocation of pseudonyms:

- Misty Mountain – rural school, with black learners
- Old Oaks – urban school, with multi-racial learner
- River Glen – urban school, with black learners

Old Oaks and River Glen, are equally well resourced schools, in comparison to Misty Mountain, which is under resourced.

4.2.1 Characteristics of the Sample

Demographic details of learners who participated in this study are tabled below. Table 4.1 gives information regarding the entire sample, while Table 4.2 provides data for individual schools.

Table 4.1 Demographic data pertaining to learners in the study

	AGE n = 362	GENDER n = 281 * 81 missing cases		RACE n = 362				LANGUAGE n = 362		
		Male	Female	Black	White	Coloured	Indian	Zulu	English	Other
FREQUENCY		151	129	240	89	12	21	228	124	10
		41.7%	35.6%	66.3%	24.6%	3.3%	5.8%	63%	34%	3%
MEAN	15.84									
STANDARD DEVIATION	1.54									

Table 4.1 illustrates the demographic information regarding age, gender, race and home language of the sample, n = 362. Here it is important to note that the first data set was collected from Old Oaks without 'Gender' as an item, in the demographic section of the questionnaire. Considering the value of gender information in the overall research, it was incorporated in subsequent questionnaires that were distributed to Misty Mountain and River Glen learners. The data showed 81 missing cases recorded under 'Gender', 80 of which can be accounted for as missing data from Old Oaks learners, the remaining missing case was detected to come from River Glen data.

The learners in this study ranged between 15 and 17 years of age with a mean age of 16 years. Of those learners who did indicate 'gender', approximately 41.7% were male and 35.6% were female. 81 missing cases (22.7%) were recorded in this section. More than half the sample was made up of Black learners, 66.3%, less than a quarter were White learners, 24.6%, and the remainder consisted of 3.3% Coloured, and 5.8% Indian learners.

Five languages were identified within the sample. 63% of learners spoke Zulu as their first language, 34% spoke first language English, while only a few learners, 3%, spoke Xhosa, Afrikaans or Yorubu. The language of learning in the schools in this study is English, indicating

that as few as one third of learners in this research sample have the advantage of learning and processing information in their home language.

Table 4.2 Demographic details for the participants of each school.

Schools	GENDER		RACE				LANGUAGE		
	Male	Female	Black	White	Coloured	Indian	Zulu	English	Other
Misty Mountain <i>n</i> =130	72 55.4%	58 43.6%	130 100%	0	0	0	129 99.2%	0	1 .8%
Old Oaks <i>n</i> =150 missing=80	32 21.6% *	38 25.3% *	28 18.7%	89 59.3%	12 8%	21 14%	23 15.3%	124 82.7%	3 2%
River Glen <i>n</i> = 82 missing= 1	47 57.3% *	34 41.5% *	82 100%	0	0	0	76 92.7%	0	6 7.3%

Table 4.2 illustrates gender, race and language differences between the three schools. Old Oaks differs greatly from Misty Mountain and River Glen in that as a former Model C school the majority of learners are White, English-speaking and come from an economically advantaged background (see Table 4.4 for employment details). River Glen, also previously a Model C school, has almost 100% Black Zulu-speaking learners, many of whom would come from families with lower socio-economic level than those of Old Oaks (see Table 4). Learners from Misty Mountain, formerly a DEC school, have been raised in a peri-urban area. In peri-urban and township areas, schools still often have fewer resources in terms of training and physical resources than schools in town. The majority who attend Misty Mountain are Black, Zulu-speaking learners, who could be categorized in South African terms as economically disadvantaged (see Table 4.4).

Data pertaining to the number of parents reportedly employed along with an indication of the average occupancy per household is shown in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4. 3 Employment rates per household

n = 362 employed Percentage		
Father	66	18.2
Mother	53	14.6
Both	173	47.8
Neither	70	19.3
Total	362	100
Average number of occupants per household		6

Table 4.3 displays the employment figures of this sample. In families where only one parent is employed, a greater number of fathers are employed, 66 versus 53 mothers who are employed. 47.8% (173) of households have both parents working, while nearly one fifth of families have neither parent working, 19.3% (70). The National average for unemployment recorded in March 2004, was 27.8% (Knowledge is Power). In this sample, the average number of inhabitants per household is 6.

Table 4. 4 Employment rates and average family size per school.

n	<u>Misty Mountain</u> 130	<u>Old Oaks</u> 150	<u>River Glen</u> 82
Fathers working	27 20.8%	26 17.3%	13 15.9%
Mothers working	31 23.8%	12 8%	10 12.2%
Both Parents working	14 10.8%	108 72%	51 62.2%
Neither Parent working	58 44.6%	4 2.7%	8 9.8%
Average family size	7.34	4.33	5.26

Table 4.4 illustrates the earning potential of the families of participants from each school. Misty Mountain learners reported that 20.8% of their fathers and 23.8% of their mothers were employed. Data also shows 44.6% of these learners had nonworking parents, the highest percentage among the three schools. In comparison, learners from the urban schools reported a higher number of both parents in employment, 72% for Old Oaks and 62.2% for River Glen. It can be said that Old Oaks learners have more economic resources than either Misty Mountain or River Glen learners.

Table 4.5 Average number per household for each school.

Schools	Average number of family members per dwelling
Misty Mountain	7
Old Oaks	4
River Glen	5

Table 4.5 shows the average number of occupants per household for each school. Misty Mountain learners reported the fewest number of employed parents, but highest number of people living in their homes. Families with higher income opportunity, such as those from Old Oaks, had as few as 4 members. Although the average occupancy of each household is 6, (Table 4.3), the data shows that many dwellings house between 10 and 17 dependants, the majority of whom attend Misty Mountain and River Glen. It can be inferred from Tables 4.4 and 4.5 that the learners of Misty Mountain have significantly fewer financial resources, while those at Old Oaks have greater financial resources.

4.3 PROFILE OF PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED, COPING AND SELF-ESTEEM

Learners were asked to indicate problems they experienced, their preferred styles of coping, and how they rated themselves in terms of self-esteem.

4.3.1 The questionnaire

The questionnaire was compiled by combining three separate instruments, as was described in chapter 3.

- Section 1 investigated the types of problems, and most serious problems experienced by the adolescents in this sample, using an adaptation of the Bee-Gates et al.(1996). questionnaire, that examined problems reportedly experienced by Native American Indian adolescents. This same questionnaire was used in a pilot study by Gillespie (2001) and was found to be useful.
- Section 2, explored the coping styles of the learners using the CASQ from Seiffge-Krenke and Shulman's, 1990 cross-cultural study of German and Israeli adolescents, and
- Section 3 enquired about the learner's levels self-esteem using the SEI, and looked for associations between self-esteem and coping styles used.

4.3.1.1 Section one of the questionnaire – types of problems experienced

Of the 400 instruments distributed, the 38 spoiled responses, which would have affected the reliability and validity of the analysis, as they were either incomplete or covered with graffiti, were removed from the sample. The findings from Section 1 of the questionnaire are illustrated, both in tabular and graphical format. Table 4.6 below was ranked according to the total number of respondents who marked the item as problematic, as is illustrated in the columns to the left. The percentages of respondents who rated the item as a daily problem are noted in the column to the right.

Table 4.6 Problems experienced by adolescents during past 6 months and daily.

Number	% Past 6 months	Problems	% Daily
242	66.9	Having time to study	36.2
230	63.5	Money	22.4
214	59.1	About the future	20.7
206	56.9	Keeping up marks	21
201	55.5	Making a decision	17.7
201	55.5	Personal problem	18.5
189	52.2	Family members	21.5
144	39.8	Depressed and not caring	10.8
133	36.7	Getting along with friends	10.5
128	35.4	School teachers/personnel	14.9
110	34.4	Subject choice	13
104	28.7	Illness or injury	4.4
102	28.2	What life's work might be	7.7
94	26.0	Becoming/getting someone pregnant	7.7
92	25.4	Whether to leave this school	8
91	25.1	About sex	9.4
89	24.6	With alcohol	5.8
88	24.3	Not wanting to live	6.6
71	19.6	With smoking	13
57	15.7	Racial tension	5
57	15.7	Missing school	3
35	9.7	With drugs	4.4

Table 4.6 depicts a ranked list of the problems that learners in this study reported to having experienced during the previous 6 months. Evidence points towards elevated concerns about 'time to study', 'future', 'money', 'keeping up marks', and prospects in the world of work. Almost two thirds of the adolescents in this sample reported financial problems, while over a half reported a personal or family problem, and difficulty with decision-making. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 below show graphical representations of 6 monthly and daily problems.

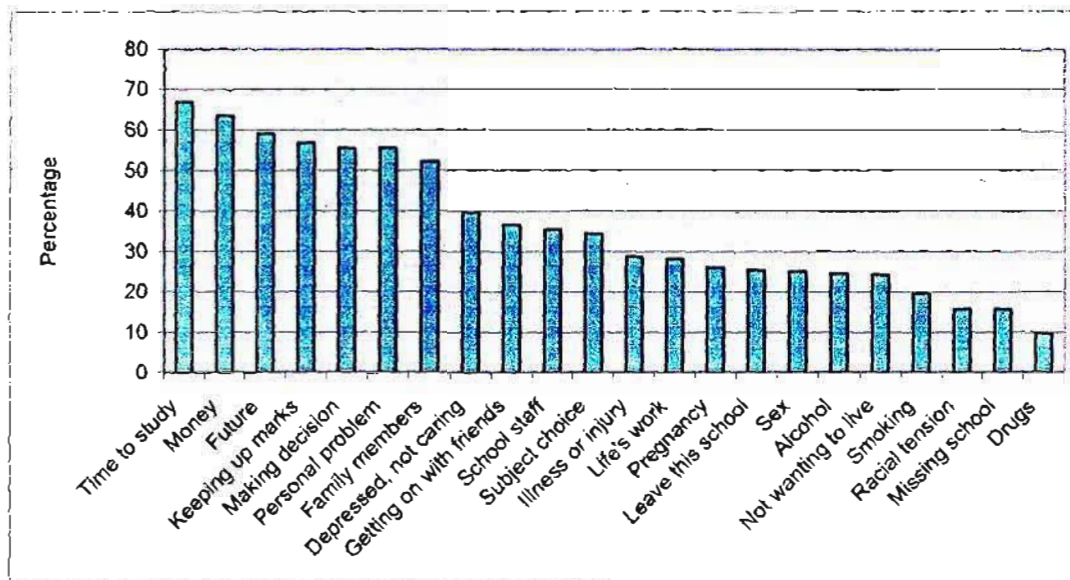


Figure 4.1 Problems experienced by adolescents at some time during the last six months

Figure 4.1 above provides a clearer indication of those problems that cause most and least concern for this sample. Problems that raise most concern are 'time to study', 'money' and 'future' those related to what the future may hold. 40% of this sample report feeling depressed and not caring, while almost 25% report not wanting to live. Notably, learners considered sexuality, substance abuse and racial tension to be less troublesome than other categories of problem.

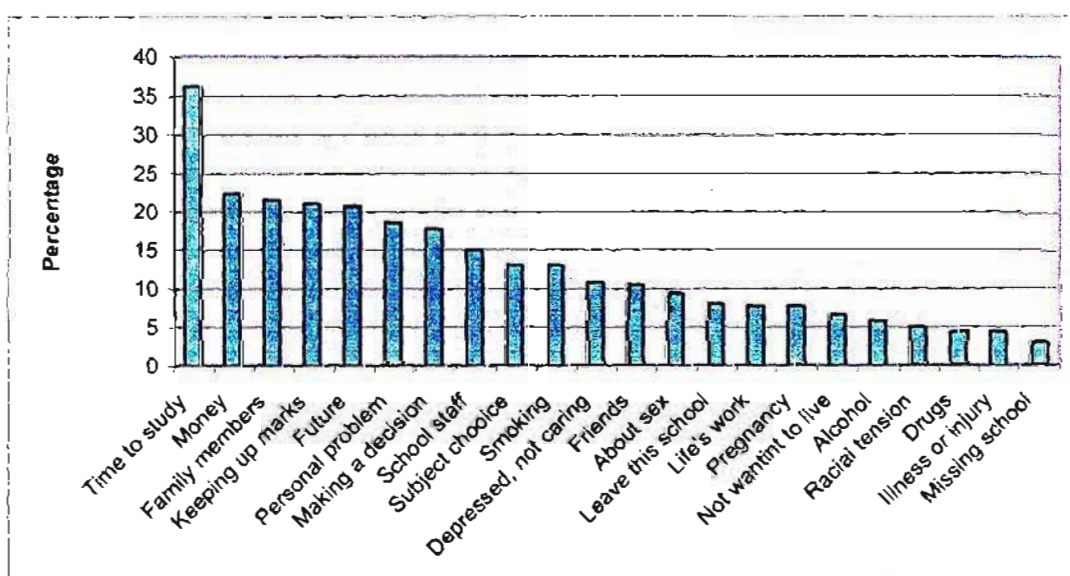


Figure 4.2 Problems experienced by adolescents on a daily basis

Figure 4.2 illustrates problems that affected participants' lives on a daily basis. 'Time to study', 'money', 'family members', keeping up marks', 'future' and 'personal problems' were of constant concern for some adolescents on a daily basis. It is interesting to note that again 'time to study' ranked first in the list for over a third of respondents.

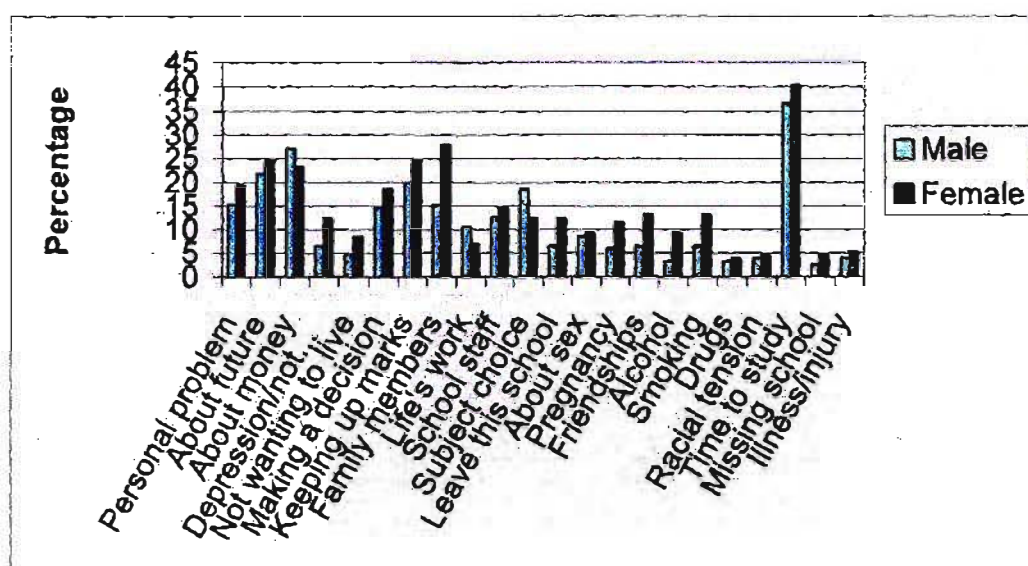


Figure 4.3 Comparison of problems experienced by males (n = 151), and females (n = 129)

Males and females whose gender was recorded, reported experiencing similar types of problems on a daily basis. Problems rated significantly higher than others were linked to academic performance and attainment, financial situation, prospects for the future, family relationships and personal problems. 'Having time to study', caused concern for almost as many males (36.42%) as females (40.31%). While 'money' was a problem for both genders, (27.15%) of males and (23.25%) of females, it was ranked second most problematic for males, but fifth for females. 'Family' was more of an issue for girls than boys, ranked second (27.90%) as being problematic for girls, but sixth (15.23%) for boys. Almost 25% of females and 20% of males found 'keeping up marks' difficult, while more females (25%) than males (22%) considered their 'future' to be problematic. More females compared to males reported concern with pregnancy, depression, friendships, smoking, and alcohol.

4.3.2 Most serious problems

In Section 1 of the questionnaire space was provided for learners to indicate the “**most serious problem**” of all those they reported having experienced within the past six months. Categorization of reported responses pertaining to “most serious problems” was necessary to assist in data management, and permit closer analyses of the pertinent areas of primary concern for learners. Therefore, learners’ listed problems were arranged and grouped in categories according to similarities. The selected categories used were: **School**, **Future**, **Interpersonal**, **Intrapersonal**, and **Social**, because they seem to have face validity, but the groups were not tested empirically. Items that shared similar features within the selected categories are illustrated in Figure 4.4 below.

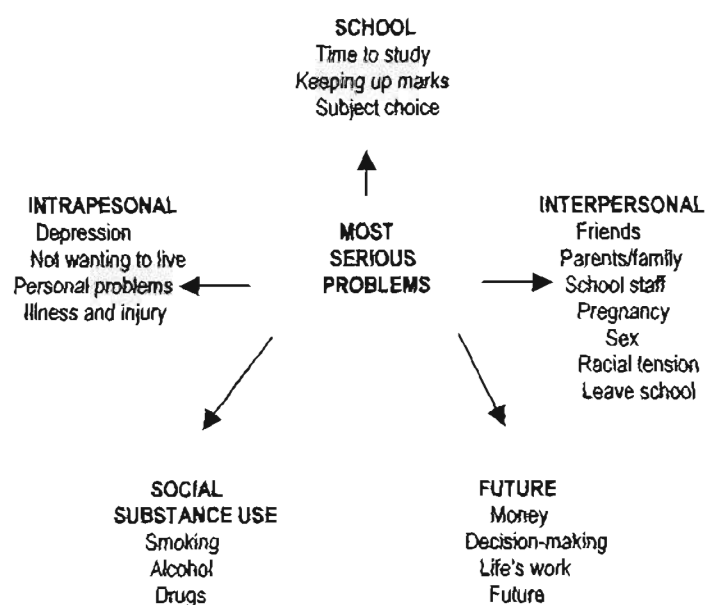


Figure 4.4 Items that share similarities under their categorical headings.

Following are some examples of the "most serious problems" as written by participants:

School

"My parents don't want me to leave school, but my problem is I am doing subjects I don't like"
"I have a problem about how to study, I would like you to discuss it"

Interpersonal

"I feel a pressure to have sex just because my friends are doing it"
"I am scared of getting Aids"
"My family everyday they are going to have dispute"

Future / Money / Survival

"My problem is about unemployment and HIV/AIDS"
"I sometimes worry if I have what it takes to make it to the real world and can survive by myself"
"I don't know what I can do, my mother does not work, no one is working everything is so difficult"

Social substance use

"My problem is with alcohol, if I could get it everyday"
"My problem taking drugs, I find it hard to give it up"

Intrapersonal

"I just wanted to give up on everything, school, my dreams, parents, and leave my home last year"
"Depressed, not caring, I often feel very fat and ugly, and I wish I could be more pretty"
"Want to kill myself, tried to overdose, because of God I didn't die"

Figures 4.5 to 4.9 below show an inter-school comparison of the "most serious problems" as listed by the percentage of adolescents from each school who reported the problem as most serious.

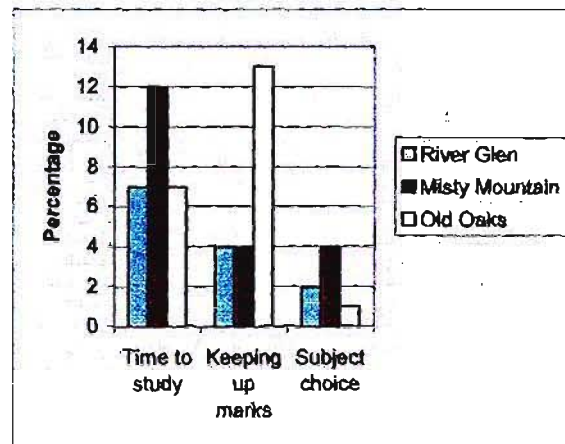


Figure 4.5 Most serious school problems experienced by adolescents

Figure 4.5 shows having time to study, keeping up marks and subject choice, were the "most serious" school problems. Misty Mountain learners felt the pressure of having little time to study, compared to their urban counterparts. More Old Oaks learners (13%), experienced difficulties keeping up marks, in comparison to the 4% who experienced the same difficulties at River Glen and Misty Mountain. The number of learners who may have been worried about choosing subjects for their Matric package appears fairly low overall. Learners from Misty Mountain seem to exhibit more concern about subject choice than the others.

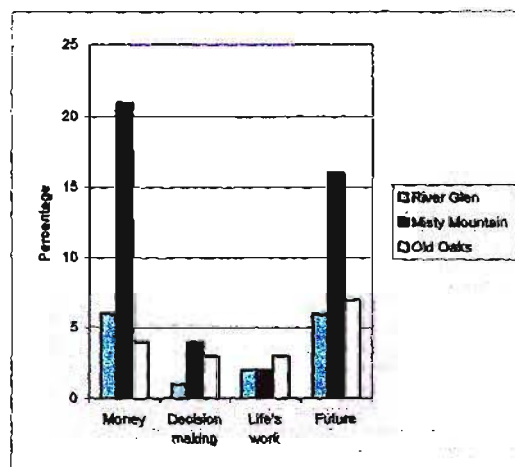


Figure 4.6 Most serious problems about the future experienced by adolescents

The "most serious problems" in the future category comprised: money, making decisions, what life's work might be, and what the future may hold. Anxiety around issues of money, and the

future, affected some learners from all schools, but more from Misty Mountain than Old Oaks or River Glen. It is apparent from the graph that fewer of these respondents note having problems with making decisions or about choosing areas of work.

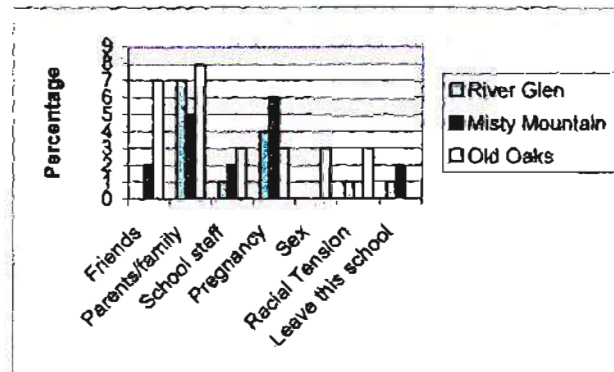


Figure 4.7 Most serious interpersonal problems experienced by adolescents

Adolescents in this study reported problems with friends, parents/family, teachers, potential sexual partners, and peers of other races. While all adolescents here reported having difficult relationships with parents or family members, more urban than rural learners reported these difficulties. River Glen respondents appeared to have no problems relating to friends, while Old Oaks respondents did. Few learners reported problems associated with school staff, of those who did, Old Oaks learners were in the majority. Learners from all three schools reported Pregnancy as a most serious problem, but at the same time only learners from Old Oaks report having problems with sex. Some racial tension was reportedly experienced at the two urban schools, and Old Oaks was the only school where all learners did not report wanting to leave the school.

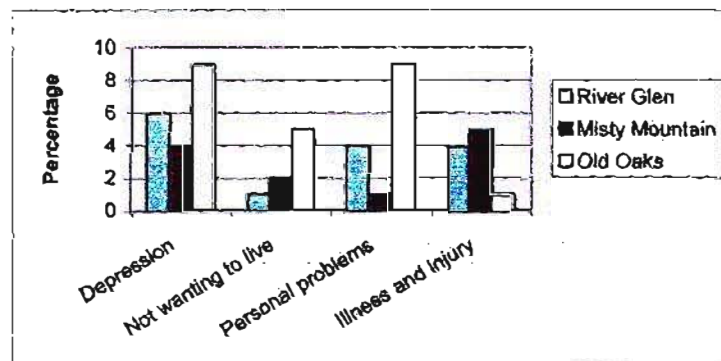


Figure 4.8 Most serious intrapersonal problems reported by adolescents

Figure 4.8 shows depression, not wanting to live, personal problems, and illness and injury were the “most serious” intrapersonal problems. More learners from Old Oaks reported feeling depressed, having experienced personal problems, and not wanting to live, than learners from the other two schools. The fewest learners reporting similar problems were the rural school learners from Misty Mountain. Adolescents who expressed concern with illness and injury came from River Glen and Misty Mountain, the two schools where the majority of learners are Black.

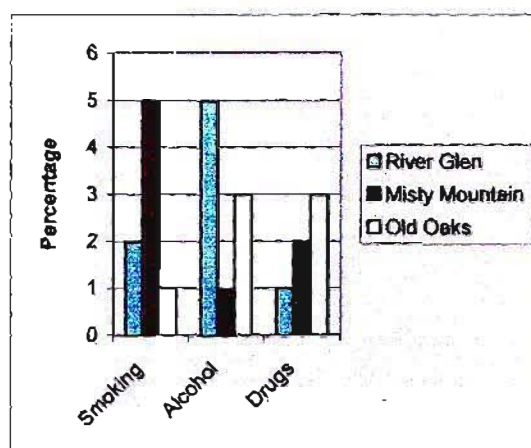


Figure 4.9 Most serious social/substance use problems experienced by adolescents

According to the findings of this study very few adolescents reported problems with smoking, alcohol or drugs. However, adolescents from the rural area cited smoking as more problematic than drugs or alcohol, while alcohol appeared to present the biggest problem to River Glen learners. An equal number of learners at Old Oaks reported drugs and alcohol as problematic for them.

4.3.3 Section two of the questionnaire: Coping

4.3.3.1 Coping styles

In order to gain insight into the preferred strategies for coping with potential problem areas, participants were asked to indicate their way of managing everyday issues, using CASQ (See Appendix 3), more than one problem area could be ticked. Following Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman's (1990) methods of analysis, a factor analysis was run to differentiate coping styles used by learners in this study.

The factor analysis was run on the CASQ using a varimax rotation. The Rotated Component Matrix produced 4 factors, of which the first three factors were selected on a cut-off value of 0.4 and above. The three factors that emerged together explained 46.008 % of the total variance. Table 4.7 below indicates statements extracted per factor.

Table 4.7 Factor analysis of 20 ways of coping across 8 situations

Rotated Component Matrix(a)	Factors			
Coping Strategies	1	2	3	4
1. I discuss problem with parents/other adults.		.693		
2. I talk straight away about problem, don't worry much.		.700		
3. I try to get help from institutions (job center)		.425		.646
4. I expect the worst.	.473			
5. I accept my limits.		.541		
6. I try to talk about problem with person concerned.		.629		
7. I behave as if everything is alright.	.607			
8. I try to let aggression out (music, wild dancing, sport).	.537			
9. I do not worry, everything turns out alright.	.580			
10. I think about problem, find different solutions.	.424			
11. I compromise.	.669			
12. I let out anger, Shouting, crying, slamming doors.	.489			
13. I tell myself that there always will be problems.			.461	
14. I only think about the problem when it appears.	.477			
15. I look for information in magazines/internet/books.			.494	
16. I try not to think about problem.	.629			
17. I try to forget problem with alcohol and drugs.				.721
18. I try to get help/comfort from people in similar situation.			.750	
19. I try to solve problem with help from friends.			.688	
20. I withdraw, I cannot change anything anyway.			.461	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in 17 iterations.

Below is a description of items that comprised Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman's (1990) factors that created their three coping styles. The computation for each coping style involved adding up all the items associated with each coping style for each factor, as illustrated:

- Active Coping Style = CASQ questions (1+2+3+5+6), active problem solving.
- Internal Coping Style = CASQ questions (4+7+8+9+10+11+14+16), appraisal of situation and a search of compromise.
- Withdrawn Coping Style = CASQ questions (12+15+18+19+20), dysfunctional, fatalistic attitude leading to withdrawal

Slight differences were found in the items that loaded on the various factors between the original and the current study. Item 12 is included in Internal Coping in the current study while it appears in Withdrawn Coping in the original study, and item 13 is included in Withdrawn Coping in the current study but omitted from the original study. Three coping styles emerged for this study, for item examples refer to Table 4.7

- Factor 1 - Internal Coping Style included items (4+7+8+9+10+11+12+14+16).
- Factor 2 - Active Coping Style included items (1+2+3+5+6)
- Factor 3 - Withdrawn Coping Style included items (13+15+18+19+20)

In agreement with Seiffge- Krenke and Shulman's (1990) findings, three factors emerged, together accounting for 46.008% of the total variance ($n=362$). Factor 1, namely internal coping, signifying appraisal of the situation and the search for compromise, explained 32.447% of the total variance. Factor 2, namely active coping, where social resources were utilized to solve a problem, explained 7.410% of the total variance. Factor 3, namely withdrawal or avoidant coping, reflecting a fatalistic approach and inactivity in solving a problem, explained 6.231% of the total variance. SPSS indicated a fourth factor, with only two items above the cut off selection value, i.e. number 3 (help from institutions), and 17, (forget the problem with alcohol and drugs). This was considered to be an inadequate number of items to justify a fourth factor. Therefore, 3 coping styles seem the best way of grouping the factors. Frequencies of coping strategies were calculated by adding up items corresponding to each coping style. Computed means for active, internal and avoidant coping styles are shown in Table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8 Frequencies of coping strategies employed

		Active Coping	Internal Coping	Withdrawal coping
N	Valid	358	359	361
	Missing	4	3	1
Mean		7.7598	11.5070	6.9972
Median		6.0000	9.0000	6.0000
Mode		5.00	8.00	6.00
Std. Deviation		5.42980	8.93736	6.16914

Table 4.8 shows that learners employed all three styles of coping when solving problems. However, items indicating an internal style of coping ($m = 11.5070$) were used more often than those describing either active ($m = 7.7598$), or avoidant ($m = 6.9972$) coping styles. It is apparent that a considerable amount of avoidance occurred within the sample when problem solving.

4.3.3.2 Domain specific coping

In order to determine if coping strategies were specific to particular problem domains (see Appendix 3 for questionnaire) eight variables were created for each coping style, e.g. **Active** school, parent, peer etc; **Withdrawn** school, parent, peer etc; and **Internal** school, parent, peer etc. Hence, all those that responded to the items for each coping style on each of the eight problems areas, were added to create each variable. Correlations were run to determine if relationships existed between coping styles and particular problem areas. Tables 4.9 to 4.12 describe the associations that were found between coping strategies and specific problem domains.

Table 4.9 Correlations with an Active Coping Style in 8 Problem Domains

Correlation coefficients significant at $p = .05$, two-tailed	SCHOOL	PARENT	PEER	LEISURE	PARTNER	SELF	JOB	FUTURE
ACTIVE COPING	.747	.656	.651	.548	.560	.604	.636	.644

Table 4.9 demonstrates that various strengths of relationships exist between active coping and all 8 problem domains. A low to moderate relationship can be seen between active coping and having a problem with Self, $r = 0.604$, Job $r = 0.636$, Partner $r = 0.560$, and Leisure, $r = 0.548$. A moderate relationship is evident for coping actively with Future, $r = 0.644$, Peer, $r = 0.651$, and Parent, $r = 0.656$. A strong relationship can be detected when a problem with School, $r = 0.721$, arises. Thus in this sample, learners are more task oriented when solving problems related to school, parent, peer and future.

Table 4.10 Correlations with an Internal Coping Style in 8 Problem Domains

Correlation coefficients significant at $p = .05$, two-tailed	SCHOOL	PARENT	PEER	LEISURE	PARTNER	SELF	JOB	FUTURE
INTERNAL COPING	.734	.800	.710	.654	.670	.664	.618	.671

Table 4.10 shows a moderate correlation between Internal Coping and problems such as, Job, $r = 0.618$, Leisure, $r = 0.654$ and Self, $r = 0.664$. A moderate to strong relationship is evident between an Internal Coping strategy and problems with Partner, $r = 0.670$, Future, $r = 0.671$. A strong correlation exists between Peer, $r = 0.710$, and School $r = 0.734$, and an Internal style of coping. Difficulties with Parents correlates very strongly with Internal Coping as a means of problem solving, $r = 0.800$. Learners here appear to problem solve by way of cognition and appraisal of the particular situation, especially for issues concerning parents, school and peers.

Table 4.11 Correlations with a Withdrawn Coping Style in 8 Problem Domains

correlation coefficients significant at $p = .05$, two-tailed	SCHOOL	PARENT	PEER	LEISURE	PARTNER	SELF	JOB	FUTURE
WITHDRAWN COPING	.710	.744	.664	.589	.689	.655	.593	.632

Table 4.11 indicates that moderate to strong relationships exist between a Withdrawn Coping style and problems across 8 domains. A strong relationship can be detected between withdrawal as a way of coping and problems with Parent, $r = .744$, School, $r = .710$, and Partner, $r = .689$. A more moderate association can be seen with, Peer $r = .664$, Self, $r = .655$, and Future, $r = .632$. A less than moderate relationship is seen between withdrawal as a strategy, and problems concerning Leisure $r = .589$, and Job $r = .593$. It appears that avoidance strategies are used when problems pertain to parents, partners and school. A significant correlation $r = 0.505$ between a Withdrawn Coping Style and an Internal Parent problem solving style was found indicating that the best option for the solution of a parent problem situation, may be appraisal followed by avoidance (refer Appendix 5).

The above correlations indicated that for any one problem, a variety of coping styles were used by participants, for example, when having a school related problem, learners used Active $r = 0.747$, Internal $r = 0.734$, and Withdrawal $r = 0.710$ coping styles in order to manage the situation. Likewise, when a parent problem arose correlations showed stronger relationships with withdrawal, $r = 0.744$, and internal, $r = 0.800$, coping styles than active strategies, $r = 0.656$. Hence for adolescents in this study, the coping style selected to solve the problem appeared to be determined by the problem domain. A further correlation was run to test the relationship of three coping styles with each other. Table 4.12 below illustrates the relationships that were produced.

Table 4.12 Correlations with Active, Internal and Withdrawn Coping Styles

Correlation coefficients significant at $p = .05$, two-tailed	ACTIVE COPING	INTERNAL COPING	WITHDRAWN COPING
ACTIVE COPING	1	.588	.547
INTERNAL COPING	.588	1	.654
WITHDRAWN COPING	.547	.654	1

Table 4.12 shows that coping styles are shared, and that no one singular coping style could be obtained from this instrument. A significant correlation $r = 0.588$ between Internal coping and active coping was evident, showing that appraisal of a situation occurs along with action when problem solving is undertaken by participants. Further, a moderately strong relationship exists between Internal and Withdrawn coping styles, $r = 0.654$, where a situation is assessed and avoided, in an effort to manage the problem. A less than moderate relationship between Active and Withdrawn coping exists $r = 0.547$. Therefore, depending on the problem domain, participants choose their strategy, or combination of strategies in order to manage a problematic situation. Since it would be nice to know if one method of coping could be described as dominant for any particular problem domain, the CASQ would require refinement to produce information of this nature. Future research could incorporate this as a possibility.

4.3.4 Section three of the questionnaire: Self-Esteem

4.3.4.1 Self-esteem and coping styles

In order to find out if self-esteem had any bearing on the type of coping styles employed by learners in this study (4.1.1), it was initially necessary to determine participants' levels of self-esteem, and then test for relationships between reported self-esteem and active, internal and avoidant styles of coping.

4.3.4.2 Self-Esteem

The SEI was used to detect whether the participants in this sample reported positive or negative self-image. Learners were asked to rate themselves by selecting, 'like me' or 'unlike me', to agree or disagree with a series of statements. The reliability of this scale was tested with a Cronbach Alpha and was found to be .3452, ($n = 362$). As this caused much concern, reliability coefficients for each school were examined, see Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Reliability coefficients for each school

Schools	Cases	α	Items
Misty Mountain	130	0.3828	25
Old Oaks	150	0.7558	25
River Glen	82	0.5406	25

Table 4.13 shows low reliability coefficients for, Misty Mountain, $\alpha = .3828$, and River Glen, $\alpha = .5406$. As reliability coefficients for these two schools did not indicate adequate internal consistency, it was decided to exclude both schools from further analyses concerning Self-Esteem. The remaining school, Old Oaks ($n = 150$), with a reliability score, $\alpha = .7558$, was included in testing associations between self-esteem and coping styles, in order to partially answer research question 3. The SEI was originally constructed for use with Western populations therefore suitability for use in the South African context may be questionable, due to items not being considered totally culture free. The SEI may be more suited, in this case, for use with learners from Old Oaks, where the majority (60%) of learners are white (see Table 4.2) and could be

described as possibly coming from a more westernised type background. Self-esteem scores calculated for participants from Old Oaks, and compared with American norms as per SEI scoring key are shown in Tables 4.14 and 4.15 below.

Table 4.14 Self-Esteem levels reported by Old Oaks learners.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	α	Total % tile
Old Oaks	150	55.86667	19.88648	.7558	30
Norms	78	66.7	19.2	.80	

The overall means and standard deviations were calculated for Old Oaks high school (n=150). Table 4.14 shows the mean for Old Oaks, 55.86667, to be lower than the mean obtained for the normed sample, 66.7, as per scoring manual. Old Oaks ranked at the 30th percentile, which meant that this group scored below 70% of the population on which this test was normed.

The numbers of Old Oaks learners who rated themselves with high, average, and low levels of self-esteem, are illustrated in Table 4.15 below. The corresponding levels of self-esteem, if scored according to norms indicated as per the SEI, are included for comparison.

Table 4.15 Levels of self-esteem reported by Old Oaks learners, n=150

Self-Esteem level	Using Old Oaks Self ratings		Using American norms	
	No.	%	No.	%
High	24	16%	10	7%
Average	105	70%	89	59%
Low	21	14%	51	34%

Table 4.15 shows a lower percentage of learners with high, average and low self-esteem if American norms are used. The suitability of the SEI, as an instrument to test South African levels of self-esteem, is questionable, due to culture differences between South Africa and America. Considering the notable difference in group means (Table 4.14), 55.9 for the South African sample, and 66.7 for the U.S. sample, it was decided to continue further analyses using self-esteem levels as calculated for South Africa, rather than for U.S.A. The rationale for this is based on the fact that

the SEI has not been normed for the present context hence making comparisons between the two samples appears inapplicable. Therefore, as seen in the table above, 16% of learners report high self-esteem, 70% report average self-esteem, and 14% report low self-esteem. A histogram illustrating frequencies of scores is shown in Figure 4.10 below.

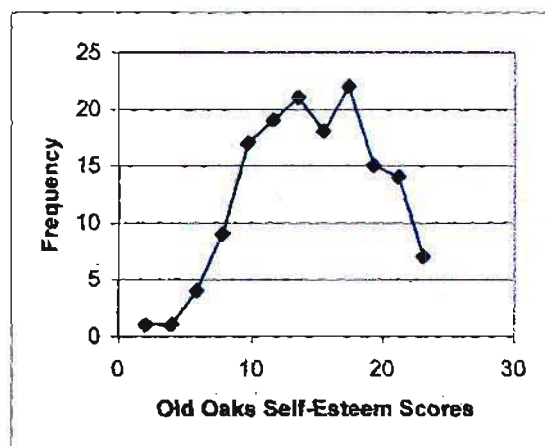


Figure 4.10 Histogram of Self-Esteem scores for Old Oaks

Figure 4.10 shows the majority of learners from Old Oaks report having average levels of self-esteem, with scores ranging from 10 to 18 out of a possible 25. Fewer learners report low self-esteem, compared to those who report high self-esteem, 14% and 16% respectively.

4.3.4.3 Self-esteem related to coping styles

Associations between self-esteem and active, internal and withdrawn or avoidant styles of coping were studied by correlating these with self-esteem. The correlations are shown in Table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16 Correlations of self-esteem with 3 coping styles

		Self-esteem	Active coping	Internal coping	Avoidant coping
Self-esteem	Pearson Correlation	1	.131	-.116	-.246(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.110	.160	.002
	N	150	150	149	150
Active coping	Pearson Correlation	.131	1	.442(**)	.424(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.110		.000	.000
	N	150	150	149	150
Internal coping	Pearson Correlation	-.116	.442(**)	1	.583(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.000		.000
	N	149	149	149	149
Avoidant coping	Pearson Correlation	-.246(**)	.424(**)	.583(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000	
	N	150	150	149	150

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.16 shows that a negative relationship ($r = -0.246$; $n = 150$, $p = 0.002$) existed between a withdrawn or avoidant coping strategy and self-esteem, indicating that if avoidance increased, self-esteem decreased. Associations were also evident between avoidant coping and active coping ($r = 0.424$; $n = 150$, $p < 0.0005$), and avoidant coping and internal coping ($r = 0.583$; $n = 149$, $p < 0.0005$).

A regression analyses (using the 'enter' method), was used to predict self-esteem on the basis of active, internal and avoidant styles of coping, and assess the relative importance and contribution of the predictors to the criterion variable, self-esteem. The adjusted $R^2 = 12.3\%$ ($df = 3, 145$; $F = 7.946$; $p < 0.0005$), indicated that active, internal and withdrawal coping strategies accounted for 12.3% of the variance. The regression equation explained that, self-esteem = $56.290 - 0.092$ (internal coping) $- 1.251$ (avoidant coping) $+ 1.161$ (active coping). All were significant ($p < 0.0005$) except internal coping ($p = 0.665$). The negative relationship between avoidant coping and self-esteem indicated 1 unit increase in avoidance was associated to -1.251 decrease in self-esteem. A positive association existed between active coping and self-esteem, which indicated, 1 unit increase in active coping was associated with 1.161 increase in self-esteem. A test of multiple comparisons and Tukey HSD indicated that adopting an avoidant style of coping is significantly associated with a corresponding low level of self-esteem, $p = 0.005$ (see Appendix 6)

4.4 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

4.4.1 Research questions

The three main questions guiding this piece of research were:

- What type of problems have South African adolescents in this sample experienced during the past six months (and more specifically identifying those which occurred on a daily basis).
- What coping styles appeared to be employed by the adolescents in this study?
- Does self-esteem have any bearing on the coping styles used by adolescents in this study?

4.4.2 Section one

Research question 1 asked what type of problems adolescents in this study experienced, during the six months prior to the study and on a daily basis. A variety of problems that reportedly caused concern during the six months prior to the investigation, also were a cause for concern on a daily basis. Examples were; having time to study; money; family members; keeping up marks; about the future; personal problems; and making a decision. Notably, just over one third of the sample reported 'having time to study' as problematic. Money, school and future related problems were considered to be "most serious" for many participants in this study.

4.4.3 Section two

Research Question 2 enquired into the types of coping styles that were employed by participants. A factor analysis produced three factors to describe coping styles used by adolescents in this sample namely, Internal Coping, Active Coping and Withdrawal or Avoidant Coping. Of the strategies employed to solve problems, internal strategies ($m = 11.5070$) were used more frequently than either active ($m = 7.7598$), or avoidant ($m = 6.7792$) strategies. Therefore, adolescents in this sample employed cognitive means of appraisal of the situation, and compromise, more often than approaching the problem and finding solutions. A withdrawn or avoidant style of coping was also employed fairly frequently by adolescents, but less often than the other two styles of coping. It was found that all three types of strategies were used in each

problem domain, the degree of which was dependant on the problem type. Thus, a combination of internal, active and avoidant styles of coping, were employed in order to solve a parent, school or peer problem for example. Overall, an internal style of coping was most frequently exercised for problem solving signifying an appraisal of the situation, and indicating that learners used cognitive processes to address an issue more often than approaching the task at hand.

4.4.4 Section three

Research question 3 examined participants' levels of self-esteem in relation to the coping styles that were used to solve problems. Analysis of self-esteem was carried out on one school only, Old Oaks, due to the alpha reliability of that school being the only one adequate enough to permit further analyses to proceed (refer Table 4.13). Adolescents from Old Oaks rated their self-esteem as follows: 16% reported a positive sense of self, 70% reported an average self-image, while 14% reported a negative self-image. Self-esteem was found to correlate positively with an active coping style, while a stronger negative association was found between an avoidant style of coping and self-esteem. Thus, the higher the self-esteem or a positive self-image, the more active coping was used, while an avoidant style of coping was found to be associated with a low level of self-esteem.

The results of this study have been presented in this chapter, the interpretation and discussion of which will follow in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

At its commencement, this research in part, was motivated by interest in adolescent' issues and concerns. Of particular significance was adolescents' perceived reluctance to seek help voluntarily for difficulties they were experiencing, despite professional services being available in the school. However much literature and common experience confirms adolescence as a particularly challenging stage of development. Therefore an enquiry into the types of problems adolescents experienced, the styles of coping that they employed, and the effects of self-esteem appeared to be of value. This knowledge could inform interventions so they may build on existing coping styles, and aim to prevent or limit problems. The study aims to explore particular types of problems and coping styles across sociocultural contexts. The findings of such an investigation could inform and direct future curriculum planning and the implementation of intervention programmes for use with adolescents within the learning environment.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the findings that emerged from this study. The initial discussion will focus on demographics of participants, and the findings of each section of the questionnaire, after which the limitations of the study will be mentioned, as well as recommendations for future research, and possible programme and intervention planning.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF SCHOOLS AND PARTICIPANTS

Three schools from varying locations and backgrounds were selected for this research in an attempt to discover any similarities and differences of concerns that affected the daily lives of their learners. Two urban former Model C schools, and one rural former DEC school became research sites for the study, which incorporated Grade 10 learners from all race groups whose average age was 16 years. Selecting this age group had particular significance in that adolescents were verging on the final vital stage of their educational development, which in turn would required

decision-making on the part of the would-be matriculant, with regard to the make-up of subject packages, career choices, and prospects for the future in the world of work.

Erikson (1980) believed the chief task of adolescence is to resolve the conflict of *identity versus identity confusion*, to become a unique adult with an important role in life. Assisting adolescents move towards *identity achievement* through conscious decision making and investment in an occupation of systems and beliefs is of the utmost concern during this latter stage of schooling (Papalia & Olds, 1992). Exploration of the difficulties experienced by adolescents during this phase in their educational development is useful for educators, specialists in helping and health professions and curriculum planners in determining the needs of learners.

As former Model C schools, both Old Oaks and River Glen had good infrastructure, material resources and a well-trained quota of teaching staff. Professional helping services were offered at both schools in the form of Guidance and Counselling. In comparison, Misty Mountain belonged to the former DEC schools, and unlike its urban counterparts it was poorly resourced with regard to equipment, facilities and teaching staff, especially qualified counsellors. Career guidance within the Life Orientation learning area was not included in the timetable and provision of professional helping services in this school was minimal, due to a lack of finances and absence of specialized teaching staff.

Notable differences were found between the schools regarding family size and the number of parents who were employed. Of the two urban schools researched, Old Oaks participants appeared to be relatively financially secure as they belonged to smaller families (average of 4) with 72% of both parents reportedly employed, and as few as 2.7% of parents reportedly unemployed. Participants from River Glen however, reported having slightly larger families (average of 5), 62.2% with both parents employed and 9.8% with neither parent employed, placing them in a comparatively lower income-earning group than Old Oaks learners. Of the three schools studied, participants from Misty Mountain reported the largest family sizes (between 5 and 17 people per household), and as few as 14 families (10.8%) in which both parents were employed, while in 58 families (44.6%) neither parent was employed. Adolescents from Misty Mountain belonged to the lowest income group of the three schools in this sample, and they could be described as

economically disadvantaged. As will be discussed later, this disparity in socioeconomic status results in significant differences in the types of problems experienced by adolescents.

In summary, adolescents who had the advantage of belonging to smaller families and had one or both parents employed, the case for Old Oaks learners and to a lesser degree learners from River Glen, would potentially have the advantage, more opportunities, less financial hardship, and access to superior educational resources, through which to address the tasks and challenges encountered during their adolescent development, compared to adolescents who had limited or no income, large families and inadequate or limited educational resources, such as most participants from Misty Mountain school.

5.3 TYPES OF PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY ADOLESCENTS

Participants were asked to record problems that affected their lives, and state which of those were experienced during the six months prior to the study and which were experienced daily, as a way of differentiating between the occasional and constant occurrence of problems. An analysis of results showed that participants reported experiencing similar problems during the 6 months prior to the study, as they experienced on a daily basis. The following ranked issues were considered to be problematic during the 6 month period by many adolescents: having time to study; problems about money; problems about the future; problems keeping up marks; problems with making a decision; having personal problems; problems with family members; problems with feeling depressed and not caring; and problems about getting along with friends. Daily problems that were listed by participants differed only in the order in which they were prioritized as being problematic. Problems that occurred daily for participants in this study were ranked as follows: having time to study; problems about money; problems with family members; problems keeping up marks; problems about the future; having personal problems; problems about making a decision; problems with school staff; and problems with subject choice. It seems that adolescents in this study experience similar stressors daily as they do over a longer time period.

'Having time to study' ranked first as problematic for just over one third of the adolescents in this study. Any number of reasons could account for this namely, domestic responsibilities, travelling,

inadequate or absence of study facilities at home, participation in extramural activities at school or lack of personal and time management skills. Future research using qualitative methods could explore deeper reasons and provide descriptive details as to why this particular set of adolescents experienced difficulty with finding time to study, something which could not be established in quantitative research such as is the current study. Difficulties concerning 'money' were ranked second as being problematic for the adolescents in this study. Although Van der Riet & Knoetze (2004) cited a number of studies where finance was reported as a cause for concern for adolescents, interestingly but not elaborated on was the fact that financial issues were reported to be less dominant for the South African adolescents in their study. More in-depth qualitative exploration may provide further insight into the pertinent 'money' difficulties experienced by the current sample of adolescents.

Issues pertaining to 'family' featured daily for over one fifth of the study's participants. Similarly, just above 20% of the adolescents reported problems encountered with 'keeping up marks', and with 'future'. 'Making a decision' and 'personal problems' ranked sixth and seventh respectively as problematic for just under 20% of the individuals in this study. These concerns resonate with approaching the final year of school where adolescents need to make study, career, and future decisions. According to Erikson (1980) at this stage of development adolescents are involved in *Crisis*, a period of conscious decision-making, and *commitment*, a personal investment in an occupation, as they embark on *identity achievement*. It is possible that making crucial choices about the future and expressing strong commitment to those choices, poses many difficulties for the majority of adolescents, and especially for those who do not have access to appropriate resources in their schools.

Addressing needs such as these through the provision of services and interventions within the school and the school curriculum could assist learners to alleviate possible anxiety experienced in decision making regarding their future. Historically in educational institutions, supportive resources have been inaccessible or unavailable for some learners, and while a policy for equal provision of resources for all learners has been put in place, correcting "such a pervasive system of imbalance will take many years" (Van der Riet & Knoetze, 2004, p.228). Similar findings were confirmed between the current research and studies reviewed concerning problems reported by participants.

Frequently identified problems in the literature included future, academic, family, and decision-making issues (Bee-Gates et al., 1996; Seiffge-krenke & Shulman, 1990; and Van der Riet & Knoetze, 2004).

In their study of South African adolescents, Van der Reit & Knoetze (2004) found that HIV caused the most concern while concerns related to relationships, sexuality, and pregnancy were found to be less prominent. Of the 28.7% of the present sample who reported 'illness and injury' to be problematic during the 6 month period, the majority were black learners who attended Misty Mountain and River Glen. Notably in comparison, few adolescents from Old Oaks were concerned about health. This could suggest differences in learners' perceptions about who may and may not be vulnerable to becoming infected by HIV/AIDS. Qualitative research that would provide more in depth knowledge regarding adolescents' perceptions in this regard seems pertinent.

5.3.1 Most serious problems

Most serious problems were categorized into the following groups: School; Future; Interpersonal; Intrapersonal; and Social substance use. Adolescents in this study experienced difficulties in varying degrees in all of these areas. Differences in the socio economic backgrounds of the learners from the three schools may have played a role in how they perceived the seriousness of various problems. Discussion of the most frequently cited 'serious problems' will be presented in the following paragraphs.

5.3.2 School

Within the area of school, findings from this study confirm that difficulties were experienced in areas such as having 'time to study', 'keeping up marks' and 'subject choice'. More Old Oaks learners reported pressure about 'keeping up marks', which could be associated with long term employment plans, pressure from parents, and the effects of Affirmative Action on the job market. Having 'time to study' was problematic daily for 36.2% of the learners, and a serious issue especially for learners from Misty Mountain. Again any number of reasons may be assigned to rural learners not having adequate study time. Possible explanations could be sought using

qualitative methodology investigating learners' domestic responsibilities, conduciveness of home environment to study, access to basic amenities such as electricity, and travelling distance to and from school, all of which may inadvertently affect obtaining and maintaining academic standards. Ironically a domino effect exists, where the amount of time awarded to study will relate to marks gained, higher academic performance, tertiary education and or employment opportunities, earning potential, and prospects for the future.

Papalia & Olds (1992) suggest that socioeconomic status (defined by income, occupation, and education) is only weakly correlated with academic achievement. However, a major influence on achievement according to these authors is "a student's home atmosphere... and how stable the family is" (p.331). In spite of the socio-political change that has taken place within South Africa, many factors affect the stability of many lower socioeconomic families in South Africa such as: unemployment; and the affects of HIV/AIDS. It has become apparent that many adolescents have had to adjust and adapt to extreme living conditions, and thus achieving and maintaining academic standards may in itself present a variety of difficulties (Barberin & Richter, 2001).

5.3.3 Future

Preparation during the final phase of education should equip adolescents for roles and responsibilities that are inherently adopted by young adults and workers in the maintenance stage of adult life (Akhurst & Ntshangase, 2002). 'Future', 'life's work', 'decision-making', and 'money' were considered to be most serious 'future' problems by many adolescents in this sample. All involve aspects of self in the world of work. Describing these problems as 'serious' provides insight into the fears and uncertainty that many adolescents face as they explore work possibilities.

Possible fears and anxieties were expressed by one learner who wrote:

"I sometimes worry if I have what it takes to make it in the real world and can survive by myself".

Slightly more Old Oaks learners wonder about their life's work than either Misty Mountain or River Glen learners. Evidence pertaining to reasons for this is not detectable from the present study. A contextual exploration into learners' future expectations and aspirations and their perceptions surrounding possible barriers to career choices would provide a clearer insight into issues such as

Affirmative Action, parent and community expectations, job opportunities, and affordability of and access to tertiary education. The socioeconomic context in which learners from each school in this sample live may well dictate the extent and availability of opportunities on offer to them. For adolescents the decision-making process regarding aspects of the 'future' requires careful deliberation and assistance from helping services, as having a paid job impacts on the sense of self and self-esteem, as does success or failure in the work environment (Akhurst & Ntshangase, 2002).

Difficulties in obtaining employment after school are evident in South Africa, thus adolescents need to leave school adequately prepared for planning a career. Work in itself has changed over the past decade, and according to Akhurst & Ntshangase (2002) young people need to have a good understanding of the cyclical nature of new career patterns. It would appear that appropriate career education considering the South African context would be warranted for adolescents (Stead & Watson, 1999).

5.3.4 Interpersonal problems

Interpersonal problems involving relationships with family members, partners and friends appeared to be as common in this study as those reviewed (Baker & Adleman, 1994; Boldero & Fallon, 1995; Gillespie, 2001; Van de Riet & Knoetze, 2004). Van der Riet & Knoetze's (2004) found that 'difficulties with family members' was a dominant problem experienced by adolescents in their study. Similarly, all participants in this study reported having problems with family members, with Old Oaks participants having most and Misty Mountain having least. Due to the methodology used for data collection in this research reasons for conflict between adolescents and their family members is not clearly indicated. Qualitative methodology would provide a deeper understanding and exploration of aspects that may be considered to have an affect on family dynamics such as cultural value systems, identity formation and affects of parenting styles. It is noted that more Old Oaks participants also reported having trouble with friends, while those from River Glen did not report any serious conflict with friends. The intensity of friendships is greatest in adolescence than at any other time in the life span, and because teenagers are struggling to differentiate themselves from their parents a need for support may be influenced by peer pressure (Papalia & Olds, 1992).

An ability to make and keep friends may be determined by levels of self-esteem, competency, and school achievement. Those whose friendships involve a high degree of conflict score lower on these measures (Berndt & Perry, 1990, in Papalia & Olds, 1992).

Problems with 'pregnancy' affected most Misty Mountain adolescents and fewest adolescents from Old Oaks. According to Papalia & Olds (1992, p.357) "many adolescents hold values and attitudes consistent with responsible sexual conduct, but not all of them are able to translate these attitudes into personal behaviour". These authors report poll results (Harris, 1986) that found that social pressure was the chief reason given by 73% of the girls and 50% of the boys when asked why many teenagers do not wait for sex until they are much older. The South African National Youth Survey (2000, p.3) reported that peer pressure and coercion play a significant role in adolescent sexual behaviour, and that sex is also often used as a "commodity in exchange for money... drinks, food or other gifts".

Schlegel & Barry (1991, in Bukatko & Daehler, 2004) report that Western societies have generally been more restrictive in their expression regarding sexual activity among young people. Bukatko & Daehler (2004) state that youth who live in areas in which there is greater poverty, high crime rates, less stability - factors that are generally correlated with low education and income - tend to engage earlier in sexual activity. Female participants in Van der Riet & Knoetze's (2004) study prioritized problems with HIV/AIDS and pregnancy, as did many participants from Misty Mountain. Care must be exercised not to generalize between South African adolescents and those researched in Western and European studies, due to an array of diverse variables that may be unique to the South African setting.

'Racial tension' caused problems for some respondents from both urban schools. Multiracial education is relatively new to the majority of South African learners, and more time to explore diversity and culture may be required to engender a deeper understanding of one another.

5.3.5 Money

For many adolescents in this sample, and not prominent in other studies was adolescents' major concern about 'money.' Considering that 19.3% (Table 4.4) of the entire sample ($n = 362$) has neither parent working, poverty may have a serious impact on their daily lives. The majority of the unemployed parents are parents of Misty Mountain learners. Stress associated with threat to personal needs for basic survival, security, and implications of poverty, may surround prospects for the 'future' with ambiguity and confusion. Through necessity individuals who come from a low SES background are likely to be compelled to work for money as opposed to work for a career. However, Cowen and Work (1988, in Weist et al. 1995) argue that in spite of growing up with multiple stressors associated with poverty, many youth remain prosocial and well adjusted.

5.3.6 Substance use

Relatively few adolescents in this study found smoking, alcohol and drugs to be a serious problem. This varied from studies investigating adolescent help-seeking behaviour (Barker & Adelman, 1994; Bee-Gates et al., 1996), where it was found that ethnic minority youth from both studies were cause for concern, as they were found to be more vulnerable to substance use especially alcohol and marijuana. In this study, smoking caused greater concern for Misty Mountain learners, alcohol for River Glen and Old Oaks learners, and drug use for more Old Oaks and Misty Mountain participants. This could be related to accessibility and affordability of the particular substance. Fear of disclosure may explain the low percentage of adolescents who reported partaking in substance use, or alternatively participants may not perceive this behaviour as problematic at this stage of their lives. It would be useful and insightful to explore the difference in perceptions of concern regarding the use of substances.

5.3.7 Intrapersonal problems

Intrapersonal problems recorded were 'depression and not caring', 'not wanting to live', 'personal problems', and 'illness and injury'. 'Depression and not caring' was experienced by 11% of the sample on a daily basis ($n = 362$), while 6.6% said that 'not wanting to live' was a problem. It was

found that more adolescents from Old Oaks considered 'depression and not caring' (9%), 'personal problems' (9%), and 'not wanting to live' (5%), (n = 150) as 'most serious' concerns. SES might lead to perceiving problems differently. For example, for those belonging to a high SES discontent could be perceived as depression, while for individuals within a low SES discontent might be attributed to lack of finances and a struggle for survival.

In an investigation of mental health needs (Barker & Adleman, 1994) adolescents identified problems linked to psychological distress. For these students the most commonly cited problems were depression and stress. The presence of suicidal behaviour among adolescents in South Africa has been noted (Pillay & Wassenaar, 1997; Madu & Matla, 2003). These researchers reported that suicide is the third leading cause of death among Asian and White populations within the age group of 15 to 19 year olds. Schiebusch (in Padayachee, 2003) reported that attempted suicide rates among young black South Africans had risen alarmingly. Those highest at risk were 20 to 29 year olds, with 10 to 19 year olds being the second highest at risk group. Reasons given for the rise in suicidal behaviour among black youth were: no adult with whom they felt comfortable to talk to; loneliness – sent away to university or school; peer pressure; no counsellors in schools; and no psychological services for schools (Schiebusch, in Padayachee, 2003). While the intensity of stress linked to problems reported is relative, particular cause for concern in this study were the 36 adolescents who reported 'depressed and not caring', and the 21 who reported 'not wanting to live', on a daily basis. Feedback to schools would create awareness regarding such concerns and subsequent assessment of adolescents' depressive symptoms and coping strategies could be explored to identify the need for intervention strategies to address and promote adaptive coping for adolescents.

A major concern for South African teenagers, with many reporting personal experience was HIV/AIDS (National Survey 2000; Van der Riet & Knoetze, 2004). In this study 'illness and injury' was seriously worrying for more Misty Mountain and River Glen adolescents, while it concerned very few from Old Oaks. Van der Riet & Knoetze (2004) reported that rural learners' fear of getting AIDS was of major stress to adolescents. This raises an interesting concern around perception of vulnerability to illness in different race and socioeconomic status populations in South Africa with white urban learners feeling less at risk.

5.4 COPING STYLES USED BY ADOLESCENTS

The study of coping aims to theorise around how people manage, adjust and adapt in order to survive daily demands and meet task requirements under difficult circumstances (Aldwin, 1994). Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman (1990) refer to coping as being functional or dysfunctional: functional that is active and internal, and dysfunctional, as withdrawal or avoidance. It was found that adolescents in the current study utilized similar coping strategies but in differing frequencies to those used by participants in Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman's (1990) study. While Active coping strategies were used more often by adolescents in the Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman (1990) study Internal coping strategies by comparison were more frequently employed by adolescents in the present study.

Coping is said to be indicative of how one manages oneself in times of adversity. An active coping style, that is addressing the situation directly, seeking information and/or advice indicates an internal locus of control, and is considered functional as a problem solving strategy (Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990; Frydenberg et al., 2003). Also considered functional is an internal style of coping that employs cognitive appraisal of a situation and compromise, although resolution of the difficulty is not achieved immediately. However, internal coping strategies provide time for an individual to take stock of a situation before implementing a plan of action, and can indicate flexibility on the part of the individual when compromise is selected to problem solve. Conversely, internal coping may indicate a lack of assertiveness if compromise is continually favoured, which in the long term could affect issues of self-esteem (Seligman, 1975). Avoidance or withdrawal as a style of coping is considered by Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman (1990) to be dysfunctional, and entails a fatalistic attitude.

In the present study an Internal coping style appeared to be most frequently employed by adolescents ($m = 11.5070$, $std.dev. 8.9373$) where cognitive means of appraisal and compromise were used to address problematic situations. Active coping strategies were also employed but less frequently ($m = 7.7589$, $std.dev. = 5.42980$), indicating that approaching a problem and being task oriented in finding a solution, was not a first choice for participants when they faced a problem situation. This may be related to the participants' developmental stage, where developing

confidence in self and ability to independently solve problems may be ongoing. Notably, an avoidant style of coping was exercised almost as often as an active coping style ($m = 6.9972$, $std.dev. = 6.16914$) showing that withdrawal from the situation was often preferred. Hence, the process of problem solving by the adolescents in this study was mostly done by way of internal mechanisms. Adolescents therefore used cognition, appraisal of the situation and compromise more often than actively seeking solutions. Avoidance was used almost as frequently as active coping in times of difficulty. One of the strategies in an Active coping style is that of seeking help Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman (1990). If as reported in studies reviewed (Bee-Gates et al., 1996, Boldero & Fallon, 1995, Gillespie, 2001) adolescents prefer not to seek help then it could be assumed that they prefer to use Internal or Avoidant coping styles for many of their problems. The latter style of coping is described by Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman (1990) as fatalistic. Perhaps a need exists where by Avoidance as a means of coping should be addressed within school programmes with the aim of promoting ability to handle real life problems and wisdom that helps individuals cope with an often ambiguous world (Papalia & Olds, 1992).

An inability to cope may emerge from a perceived lack of control over circumstance on the part of the individual. According to Seligman (1975) helplessness (absence of internal locus of control or sense of agency) that reverts to hopelessness, may ensue with the expectation of dire consequences of depression and not caring, and not wanting to live. A more in depth exploration of learners' coping styles using qualitative methodology could provide invaluable insights into reasons behind some participants in this study feeling 'depressed and not caring' and 'not wanting to live', in relation to specific contexts.

Pearlin & Schooler (1978, in Skinner et al., 2003, p.217) stated that coping functions at a number of levels and is not specific or unidimensional, but is attained by a "plethora of behaviours, cognitions, and perceptions". It was found that no one style of coping was dominant when adolescents in this study faced a problem in a particular domain. As will be indicated below, different coping strategies were evident in the management of particular problem situations.

5.4.1 Domain specific coping

In general, coping behaviour reflects a person's mode of responding actively or passively to environmental demands. However the nature of unique situational factors may in turn affect the response mode (Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990). According to the findings of this study adolescents used a variety of coping styles in specific problem domains. It was evident that the problem type determined the most frequently preferred coping methods (Tables 4.8 to 4.10). Moderate to very strong correlations were found between internal, active and avoidant styles of coping and all eight problem domains. As an illustration, correlational analysis showed a strong relationship between active, internal and avoidant coping styles when learners in this study had to contend with 'school' related difficulties. The pressures linked to academic achievement then were handled firstly, by approaching the difficulty ($r = .721$), secondly, by appraisal of the situation ($r = .690$), and thirdly by avoidance or withdrawal ($r = .666$) from the situation.

As discussed previously, active coping appears to be more desirable as a choice of coping style, while an avoidant coping strategy described in the literature as fatalistic, is least desirable (Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990). Coping styles and problem domains were examined by way of correlational analysis to ascertain if styles showed relationships to particular problem areas. It was found that active/internal strategies were employed when 'school', 'job' and 'future' problems arose, while problems concerning "leisure time" correlated moderately with internal coping.

Adolescents employed either internal/avoidant or avoidant/internal strategies for interpersonal type problems, depending on the strength of the correlational relationship with coping style. It was found that internal/avoidant coping tactics were utilised when contending with 'parent', 'peer' or 'self' relationships. Notable was the avoidant/internal coping style that was used to manage a 'partner' relationship type problem. Adolescents are potentially less able to actively negotiate with a partner at this developmental stage of developing an identity and fledgling intimacy. An important source of support during the complex transition of adolescence is young people's involvement with their peers (Papalia & Olds, 1992). The manner in which adolescents in the study deal with parents, friends, partners and themselves could be viewed as personal interaction difficulties with those individuals where relationships are deemed important but where conflict can be easily encountered. Intervention may appropriately develop adolescents' capacity for maintaining

relationships during this stage of their lives thereby relieving undue stress, and enhancing their well-being.

5.5 SELF-ESTEEM OF ADOLESCENTS

The object of investigating participants' levels of self-esteem was to probe the way they perceived themselves with reference to self-concept, self-image, self-efficacy, and self-worth, and consequently to examine possible relationships between reported self-esteem and coping styles. A comparison of self-esteem findings between rural and urban, single race and multiracial schools was envisaged with the prospect of discovering similarities and differences that may emanate in relation to environmental settings.

The SEI, when used by Bee-Gates et al. (1996) to test self-esteem of a group of Native American Indian adolescents, was reported to have an adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .79$). Although the measure was not validated specifically on Native American Indian populations, research cited by these authors (Madhere, 1991; Capelli, 1995; Rhodes, 1995) demonstrated that it was appropriate for use with ethnically, culturally and economically diverse groups of adolescents. However, caution was called for in the interpretation of results. On the strength of the studies mentioned above the SEI was considered suitable for use in the current research.

Tests of reliability for the SEI produced Cronbach Alpha scores as follows: Misty Mountain ($\alpha = 0.3828$); River Glen ($\alpha = 0.5406$); and Old Oaks ($\alpha = 0.7558$); suggesting that the SEI was not a valid measure of self-esteem for the Black adolescents attending the former two schools, while the reliability score for the latter school whose learners were predominately White was found to be adequate. In retrospect, Coopersmith (1987) affirmed that ethnic, cultural, or religious groups could have values and perceptions significantly different from those inherent in the SEI statements. The importance of supplemental measures and observations were also emphasized as they would increase the usefulness of the SEI "even in extreme instances when the SEI may be found invalid for assessing self-esteem among members of a particular group, that finding is in itself important in describing the attitudes and functioning of the group" Coopersmith (1987, p.3). Reasons for finding the SEI invalid for assessing self-esteem among learners from Misty Mountain and River Glen and

perhaps more valid for use with learners from Old Oaks are unclear but nevertheless valuable. New research questions pertaining to self-esteem and black learners can be formulated as a result of this finding.

Literature reviewed suggested that perceptions of self-esteem vary greatly between individual and collectivist cultures (Coopersmith, 1987; Kohler Flynn, 2003). Stemming from a collectivist tradition, it may be from 'in group' norms and role relations that black adolescents from Misty Mountain and River Glen are motivated, and from where direction is taken (Kohler Flynn, 2003). In comparison White individuals from Old Oaks, could be described as belonging to an individualistic culture, and therefore produced a more valid measure of self-esteem for this instrument. If indeed Misty Mountain learners ascribe to a collectivist culture, then it is possible that differences are evident in the manner in which the 'self' is constructed between Black rural and Black urban learners through a process of acculturation. As seen above, differences in the reliability of self-esteem scores between these two sets of learners could suggest possible change in how urban adolescents perceive themselves, perhaps from a Euro-centric point of view. Bennewith's study of Black learners in 'White' schools (2003, p.118) suggests that while learners may continue to invest in culture, they appear to remake it in new ways, as "their status as young, modern individuals, located within a westernising world, appears to mediate their construction and experience of 'culture'. Importantly, they present their engagement with their 'cultural traditions' as diverging from their parents' generation". In light of this self-esteem may have a new role to play as part of the self-concept of a new generation of black adolescents in the formation of their identity.

Internal consistency for self-esteem of Old Oaks learners was found to be adequate ($\alpha = 0.7558$, $n = 150$) hence further analysis was considered to be valuable, despite the fact that this group's mean was below that of the norm for the SEI. It was imperative however that due caution would be exercised in the interpretation of results. Consequently, 16% of the adolescents from Old Oaks rated themselves with high self-esteem, 70% of average self-esteem and the remaining 14% with low self-esteem. Higher scores indicated higher self-esteem therefore many of these adolescents did not aspire to a positive self-image. It could be estimated that almost 50% of the learners from Old Oaks rated themselves negatively indicating poor self-esteem (14% low self-esteem + the lower half of those rated with average self-esteem, 35%). In comparing to USA norms, South

African children in this school rated their self-esteem as lower. This could be related to cultural norms for acceptability of positive self-evaluation, but may also be related to self-perception linked to sociopolitical history.

5.5.1 Correlations of self-esteem and coping styles

For Old Oaks learners self-esteem correlated positively with an active coping style, while a stronger negative association was found to exist between an avoidant style of coping and self-esteem (Table 4.16). Thus, the higher the level of self-esteem reported by adolescents, the more active coping strategies were employed, and the more avoidant of problems adolescents were the lower the level of self-esteem was to be expected. From this inference self-esteem levels of adolescents who perceived themselves to be low average and low, may plummet further if withdrawal and avoidance is the method of dealing with difficulties.

Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi (2005) illustrated that young people with negative self-image, lack of constructive problem solving abilities, and perceived mastery may be predisposed for depression, not caring and not wanting to live. Approximately 19% of the participants in this study considered feeling 'depressed and not caring' as a most serious problem. 9% of this figure was Old Oaks learners, who also reported 'personal problems' as being serious. Of the 8% of the sample who reported 'not wanting to live', 5% attended Old Oaks. Findings also showed that this was more serious for females than males, who also reported difficulties with personal problems, study time, and family members. According to Seligman (1974) in the absence of internal locus of control, and experiencing feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, depression is inevitable. Therefore links could be inferred between Old Oaks learners' low and low average levels of self-esteem, avoidant coping style, and feeling 'depressed and not caring' and 'not wanting to live'.

In a 13-nation study Gibson-Cline (in Gelhaar et al., 2004) pointed out that academic stressors and self-related problems were highest in economically well-developed societies. Old Oaks participants could be likened to belonging to a well-developed sector of the community with regard to high SES, access to material and educational resources, and financial security. With a living environment in which happy, healthy, achieving adolescents could thrive, why then do the majority

of participants from Old Oaks present with low to low/average self-image, self-efficacy and self worth? A factor considered to affect individual's well-being is their resources depicted by the material, social, or personal characteristics they possess. According to Deiner and Fujita (1995, in Ben-Zur, 2002) personal and social resources contributed more significantly to well-being than did material resources. Further, Ben-Zur (2002) added that personal characteristics such as mastery and optimism made a stronger contribution to well-being than did perceived economic status.

5.6 ADOLESCENTS' WELL-BEING

Adept coping with everyday concerns and more serious issues may be the key to adolescents maintaining a state of health and well-being (Lewis & Friedenberg, 2002). Studies cited in Ben-Zur (2002) report that positive affect and life satisfaction are the main components that contribute to young people's happiness. Accordingly states such as joy, interest, excitement, and confidence combined with satisfaction in relationships, work, and school are aspects that contribute to quality of life.

The role of the family and other forms of social support are vital for satisfactory progress during the transitional phase between adolescence and adulthood. A positive interaction with parents, may adequately equip adolescents with resources that can assist them in coping with life's problems and consequently enhance the quality of their adult life. This is supported by Papalia & Olds (1992) who state that adolescents need help from their parents to assist with achieving independence, encouragement to form their own code of values and help with educational and career goals. 21.5% (n = 362) of this study's participants reported experiencing problems with family members and parents on a daily basis. Findings also showed that adolescents in this study selected an internal/avoidant style of coping when they encountered parent related problems. Current structural changes within many South African families due to rural/urban migration, divorce, and loss of one or both parents as a result of the AIDS pandemic, may be just some factors that prevent or make difficult that close parent/adolescent relationship. Also, becoming heads of households has forced many South African adolescents to adjust and adapt to adult roles and responsibilities earlier than normally would be expected (Barberin & Richter, 2001). The specific contexts in which the adolescents in this study find themselves may therefore present

subsequent differences and difficulties in the way they form relationships with their parents or significant others.

5.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of the present study will be discussed in terms of the sample, the measuring instrument used and the analytical process.

5.7.1 The Sample

Three groups of Grade 10 learners were selected according to the varying context, environment and type of school that they attended. The main objective was to explore and compare the similarities and differences across varying contexts regarding the problems they experienced, the means by which they coped with difficulties and the way they perceived themselves in terms of levels of self-esteem.

Challenging situations arose during the collection of data. Difficulties were encountered with the physical environment and setting in which respondents completed questionnaires at two research sites. In the process of data collection at Old Oaks participants were seated on the floor of a large hall throughout the administration and completion of the questionnaire. The absence of desks made conditions for control and administering instructions extremely difficult. Due to close proximity of participants discussion was apparent, and an air of freedom was noticeable as learners were missing lessons. The behaviour of a small group of learners was less than ideal, which could pose questions as to the meaningfulness of the data collected from this school. However, after the removal of 38 spoiled instruments, that were either incomplete or covered with graffiti, it was felt that the remaining data would be valid and would produce meaningful information.

During data collection at the rural school site, classes of 60 Misty Mountain learners completed the questionnaire at one time. Conditions were extremely cramped with three occupants per desk but this appeared to be common practice at this school. Although English was the language of learning for participants at Misty Mountain, Zulu was their spoken language. Hence, precautionary

measures were taken in order to alleviate possible language complications that may have arisen while giving instructions for the completion of the questionnaire, which was written in English. The assistance of a Zulu speaking educator and researcher was found to be of immense benefit, as learners did experience difficulty with understanding the wording and meaning of some questions, which were consequently translated verbally into isiZulu. Noting participants' limited ability to understand the English language, and their reluctance to ask for help, the research assistant was able to provide the necessary clarification, which ensured more meaningful responses from otherwise shy participants. However, in future a dual language questionnaire is recommended for consideration and will be referred to under the next section pertaining to the discussion of the measuring instrument.

Due to the exploratory nature of the present study caution must be exercised against making generalizations of the results in terms of the South African population of adolescents.

5.7.2 The measuring instrument

It was decided that questionnaires from selected published studies would be adapted and combined for use in the South African context. Although not of South African origin or standardized for the South African context the questionnaires chosen had been validated for use in the research of adolescents from diverse cultural backgrounds (Bee-Gates, et al., 1996; Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990, Coopersmith, 1987). It was assumed that they would have a certain validity and suitability for use with adolescents from diverse South African backgrounds.

Deliberation of limitations that relate directly to the measuring instrument include firstly, an omission of 'Gender' from the demographic section of the questionnaires dispensed to Old Oaks participants. This was rectified with the addition of 'Gender' to consequent questionnaires, which permitted limited gender type comparisons to be carried out between two of the schools. Secondly, it was evident that the wording and meaning of some items related to coping styles and self-esteem presented difficulty for both English and isiZulu speaking participants from all three schools. It was necessary to explain for example the meaning of 'compromise' as a method of coping. Rewording of problematic items would be carried out if it were necessary to use the

questionnaire for further research. One main disadvantage of questionnaire methodology is the lack of in-depth information about the nature of problems experienced, which could be gathered more effectively through qualitative methodology. It is also uncertain if the options that were available influenced which problems adolescents reported, therefore, future research may benefit from the inclusion of open-ended type questions to 'flesh out' the data gathered through closed questions.

The section of the questionnaire regarding self-esteem presented unexpected problems. It was found that the reliability of self-esteem scores for two thirds of this sample of adolescents proved to be inconsistent with those of the normed group for the SEI. It transpired that the SEI was not a suitable measure of self-esteem for Black adolescents in this sample. While comparative analysis of self-esteem between schools was prevented, the illustration that culture plays a role in self-perception and self-concept is valuable in itself, when considering the population under investigation. It is envisaged that a future investigation of adolescents' self-esteem would be undertaken to explore different sociocultural understandings and conceptions of self-esteem.

The instrument compiled for use in this study was not normed for the South African context but presumed suitable as it was used in cross cultural settings in other parts of the world. The language medium of the instrument appears to have limited its effectiveness, as learners needed instructions in isiZulu, which may have lessened the likelihood that they fully grasped the content. By using a dual language medium i.e. isiZulu and English for the questionnaire it may be possible to alleviate some of the language complications that were evident in this study, and that are a challenge for all South African research. Even with the complications that have been mentioned it is noteworthy that the results of this study are generally consistent with those of the studies from which the questionnaire was originally adapted. This suggests that the findings may be useful to a certain extent in relation to the adolescents under investigation. Due to the exploratory nature of the present study and the fact that the questionnaire has not been normed for the South African context, cautionary measures need to be adhered to when making generalizations related to South African adolescents.

5.7.3 Methodology

The methodology used for the current study was of a quantitative nature and as this was an exploratory study much valuable data were acquired. However, the depth of meaning pertaining to the data was unable to be established through this method of investigation, which would be better addressed via a qualitative methodology.

Although there were some South African studies that researched adolescents' perceptions of the usefulness and provision of helping services in South African schools (Ntshangase, 1995; Van der Riet & Knoetze 2004) a similar study to that of the current research had not been found in the South African literature prior to embarking on this piece of research. As a result certain elements from selected Western and European studies were used to guide the current study (Bee-Gates, et al., 1996; Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990, Coopersmith, 1987). Criteria that prompted the use of these studies were that they investigated adolescent behaviour, involved cross-cultural populations; and in the case of the Bee-Gates, et al. (1996) study the sample included Native American Indian adolescents, who were considered to be a minority race group. These criteria were considered applicable for the present study.

When undertaking research it is important to understand individuals in the context of their environment. More importantly it is imperative to consider the behaviour of individuals located in a rapidly changing environment, such as South Africa. In attempting to understand behaviour studied in settings different from those in which an original study evolved poses a question: does the study 'fall apart'? Gilbert(1989, p.92) discusses issues regarding some of "the dislocations and discontinuities that arise when applying psychology in a Third World setting". He states that dislocations come from evidence from cross-cultural psychology, and can be identified in at least four problem areas: issues of relevance and bias between Western/European and Third World contexts; scientific method recorded in studies in foreign journals may fail to present a clear understanding of behaviour in complex contexts such as those found in a rapidly changing Third World as is South Africa; an inability to demonstrate equivalence presents problems for comparisons and generalizations across cultural settings; and the processes involved in social and cultural change that are presently evident in a democratic South Africa will differ enormously from

those in Western/European contexts (Gilbert, 1989). Research studies taken from outside South Africa will therefore be unable to explain how culture or behaviour is shaped within a South African context, but if treated with exceptional caution and used as guidance only these studies could prove valuable in the generation of information that would lead to meaning and better understanding of adolescents in the South African context. While it may be unwise to make comparisons and generalizations between Western/European and South African adolescents' problems and styles of coping, exploration of these concepts requires a point of departure, which may be guided by prior research.

5.8 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As an exploratory study this piece of research has provided a broad brushstroke understanding of problems experienced, and the styles of coping employed by a sample of adolescents living in the locales of Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu-Natal. In hindsight, it could be said that the current study is extremely broad in that it explores three areas, pertaining to adolescents, none of which are considered to be in-depth. It is believed that the study if narrowed down would provide a significant and more meaningful comprehension of the topic. The application of quantitative research methods for this study has furnished valuable statistical data, however, it is possible that the inclusion of qualitative research methods would have enhanced the study by contributing a deeper meaning to the data. In the absence of much South African literature specific to adolescence, the ensuing proposals provide ways in which future research could be fruitfully expanded and improved.

A 'universality' of coping styles among young people is posed by cross-cultural studies from around the world. As South Africa is a multicultural society, further research in the field of adolescents' coping styles is supported, and in particular coping within a variety of domains. Refinement of the CASQ would be required for this undertaking in an attempt to discover more precisely adolescents' needs in problem solving, and inform helping professionals differentiate and plan intervention programmes for at risk and specific diverse groups.

A longitudinal study of this sample presently in Grade 10 when they are at the Grade 12 level of education, would provide useful statistics for similarities and differences in problems experienced and coping styles employed at different developmental phases in adolescence. This would also prove beneficial for Guidance curriculum planning for both stages in adolescence.

Research intent on the exploration of Black South African adolescents' self-concept and self-esteem is envisaged, as it would advance knowledge pertaining to issues concerning identity formation within the process of acculturation. Working towards the development of a self-esteem inventory suitable for use in the South African context is also suggested as a tool to discern where intervention may be beneficial for adolescents' capacity building and personal growth.

The rationale behind the current study was an attempt to draw an overall picture of the problems experienced and styles of coping used by a sample of adolescents living in a rapidly changing South African society. Information and insight through an exploratory study of this nature could open doors for future research possibilities and implementation of intervention programmes regarding the developmental challenges of adolescence, identity formation, and acculturation as rapid change occurs in South Africa. Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi (2005) propose and promote Positive Psychology as a way to address problems experienced by adolescents, their sense of agency in the face of adversity, locus of control, mastery, optimism, and well-being. The development, appraisal, implementation and evaluation of a programme that focuses on the positive rather than the negative such as the one promoted by Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi (2005) for high school learners is suggested, with a view to its inclusion in the Guidance curriculum for South African schools.

This chapter has considered the results of the present study in light of previous studies and literature. Limitations have been discussed and recommendations for more comprehensive future research have been given.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

Transformation in South Africa promotes freedom and opportunity for all, where in the future personal growth need not be stifled. Still, regardless of a new democracy, a dearth of finance presides and extreme poverty exists in some corners of society, where the need for human upliftment is evident. Very relevant is the need to address poverty alleviation and inequality in educational provision across the urban and rural divide that emanates from our Apartheid history. Provision of helping resources and services in all schools will assist adolescents navigate through life's adversities, develop a positive South African identity, with a view to future nation building.

While contemplating and deliberating a smooth and satisfactory passage through the developmental phase of adolescence, it is within the educational environment that physical and psychological health and well-being can be prioritized. In view of studies that found that adolescents did not seek help for problems they experienced, questions pertaining to problem type, intensity, and their management, became the focus of this study. The findings have offered insight into areas of need regarding curriculum planning, and the incorporation of intervention programmes into the Life Orientation learning area in schools. While services are not available in all schools the results of this study reveal an imperative need by way of the difficulties currently experienced. The provision of helping professionals and resources in all schools along with the promotion of their use by learners is of paramount importance, especially for adolescents from disadvantaged rural areas.

The promotion of resilience in youth involving factors such as building trusting relationships, self-esteem, finding emotional support within and outside the family, encouraging autonomy, unconditional love for someone, and a sense of being lovable (Grotberg, 1995) will provide a sense of agency for adolescents verging on young adulthood. Central to and in support of guidance and counselling for adolescents through the Life Orientation learning area then is the consideration for encompassing a focus upon the positive in nurturing what is best (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2005), in terms of character strengths and actions that lead to well-being, positive individuals and future thriving communities.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Correspondence with school

14 Lymbrook Road
Scottsville
Pietermaritzburg
1 August 2002

The principal
Old Oaks High School
Pietermaritzburg

Dear Sir

I am presently studying for my Psychology Masters Degree at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg. My course work requires me to conduct a piece of research, and I would like to request your permission to use Carter high School as my research site. I am investigating Adolescent Help-Seeking Behaviour, which would require Grade 10 learners to complete a questionnaire consisting of problems that may be encountered by young people, their coping methods, and a section on self-esteem. I would like to establish if learners seek help for the problems they experience, and if so, from whom. I hope to make the area of adolescence part of my future work, hence my choice of research topic.

I will be working under the guidance and supervision of Dr. Jacqui Akhurst at the School of Psychology, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg.

I appreciate your taking time with this matter, and I do hope that you will grant me permission to carry out my study. The identity of the school and learners will remain entirely confidential. I thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Kind regards

Yours sincerely

Celia Gillespie

APPENDIX 2

Correspondence with parents

2 August 2002

Dear Parent

PERMISSION FOR YOUR CHILD'S PARTICIPATION IN COMPLETING A QUESTIONNAIRE REGARDING PROBLEMS YOUNG PEOPLE EXPERIENCE AND WAYS IN WHICH THEY COPE WITH DIFFICULTIES.

I am a research student in my final year of study in order to qualify as an educational psychologist.

I am conducting an investigation into the types of problems experienced by young people and from whom they seek help. This study is being carried out under the supervision of Dr. J.E. Akhurst, senior lecturer in the School of Psychology, and with the approval of the school principal.

I shall visit the school in order to supervise the completion of a questionnaire. I undertake that any information provided by your child will remain confidential and anonymous.

Upon completion of my studies, I shall provide the school with a copy of my report which will summarise my findings. This information may be useful to the teachers in gaining fuller understanding of the students they teach, and for future curriculum planning in the area of school guidance and counselling.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would agree to your child's participation in the study. **If you are not agreeable to this, please inform the Principal in writing of your decision.** Your child will not be inconvenienced in any way, or put under any pressure to participate.

Thank you for your consideration in this matter, and for taking time to read this letter. Should you require further clarification please feel at liberty to contact me on 033- 3866546.

Yours sincerely,

Celia Gillespie

APPENDIX 3

Questionnaire

PUPIL QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is part of an investigation into learners' attitudes to seeking help for problems. All the information collected will only be used for this research and the identity of participants and the school will not be disclosed. Your name should not appear on any sheet. This is not a test of any kind. Please answer as honestly as possible.

We would like to have a few details from you.

Gender: _____

Age: _____

Race: _____

Religion: _____

Home language: _____

Father's Occupation: _____

Mother's occupation: _____

How many people live in your home? _____

Section 1

The table below lists events which could happen to anyone. Please tick those which you have experienced in the last six months, in the column on the left. For each one you have ticked, mark in the column on the right how often you experienced the problem.

Place ↓ ↓		Daily	Weekly	Monthly
	A personal problem			
	Problem about my future (tertiary education, work, gap year etc.)			
	Problem about money			
	Problem about being depressed or not caring			
	Problems about not wanting to live			
	Problems making a decision			
	Problems keeping up marks			
	Problems with parents or family members			
	What one's life work might be			
	Problems with school teacher or other personnel			
	Subject choice problem			
	Whether to leave this school or not			
	Problems about sex			
	Fears of getting someone pregnant or becoming pregnant			
	Problems getting along with friends			
	Problems with alcohol			
	Problems with smoking			
	Problems with drugs			
	Problems with racial tension			
	Problems about having time to study			
	Problems with missing school			
	Problems with illness or injury			

Of the problems you have marked above, which one would you say has been the most serious?

If you have experienced a problem not listed above, or if you would like to describe a problem in more detail, write in the space below.

Section 2

This section indicates your preference for finding help with everyday issues. A list of ways of dealing with problems is given in numbers 1-20. The columns on the right list potential problem areas. Read each item 1-20, and tick which of the problem areas you would resolve using that method. You may tick more than one problem area.

When this problem comes about →	School	Parents	Peers	LeisureTime	Partner	Self	Job	Future
1. I discuss the problem with my parents/other adults.								
2. I talk straight away about the problem when it appears and don't worry much.								
3. I try to get help from institutions (job centre, youth welfare offices).								
4. I expect the worst.								
5. I accept my limits.								
6. I try to talk about my problem with the person concerned.								
7. I behave as if everything is alright.								
8. I try to let my aggression out (with loud music, wild dancing, sport etc.)								
9. I do not worry because usually everything turns out alright.								
10. I think about the problem and try to find different solutions.								
11. I compromise.								
12. I let out my anger or desperation by shouting, crying, slamming doors etc.								
13. I tell myself that there always will be problems.								
14. I only think about the problem when it appears.								
15. I look for information in magazines, Encyclopedias, internet, or books.								
16. I try not to think about the problem.								
17. I try to forget the problem with alcohol and drugs.								
18. I try to get help and comfort from people who are in a similar situation.								
19. I try to solve the problem with the help from friends.								
20. I withdraw because I cannot change anything anyway.								

Section 3

In this section you will find a list of statements about feelings. If a statement describes how you usually feel, put an **X** in the column "Like Me". If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put an **X** in the column "Unlike Me". There are no right or wrong answers.

Like Me	Unlike Me	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	1. Things usually don't bother me.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	2. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	5. I'm a lot of fun to be with.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	6. I get upset easily at home.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	8. I'm popular with kids my own age.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	9. My parents usually consider my feelings.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	10. I give in very easily.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	11. My parents expect too much of me.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	12. It's pretty tough to be me.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	13. Things are all mixed up in my life.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	14. Kids usually follow my ideas.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	15. I have a low opinion of myself.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	16. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	17. I often feel upset in school.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	18. I'm not as nice looking as most people.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	19. If I have something to say, I usually say it.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	20. My parents understand me.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	21. Most people are better liked than I am.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	22. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	23. I often get discouraged at school.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	24. I often wish I were someone else.
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	25. I can't be depended on.

Thank you for filling out this form.

APPENDIX 4

Reliability scales

MISTY MOUNTAIN HIGH SCHOOL

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	LASTLY1	1.4769	.5014	130.0
2.	LASTLY2	1.4923	.5019	130.0
3.	LASTLY3	1.7769	.4179	130.0
4.	LASTLY4	1.3615	.4823	130.0
5.	LASTLY5	1.3769	.4865	130.0
6.	LASTLY6	1.5231	.5014	130.0
7.	LASTLY7	1.4538	.4998	130.0
8.	LASTLY8	1.5308	.5010	130.0
9.	LASTLY9	1.3923	.4902	130.0
10.	LASTLY10	1.4692	.5010	130.0
11.	LASTLY11	1.7385	.4412	130.0
12.	LASTLY12	1.5769	.4960	130.0
13.	LASTLY13	1.4385	.4981	130.0
14.	LASTLY14	1.4462	.4990	130.0
15.	LASTLY15	1.4462	.4990	130.0
16.	LASTLY16	1.4154	.4947	130.0
17.	LASTLY17	1.3615	.4823	130.0
18.	LASTLY18	1.3692	.4845	130.0
19.	LASTLY19	1.2385	.4278	130.0
20.	LASTLY20	1.2846	.4530	130.0
21.	LASTLY21	1.4308	.4971	130.0
22.	LASTLY22	1.2769	.4492	130.0
23.	LASTLY23	1.3692	.4845	130.0
24.	LASTLY24	1.5154	.5017	130.0
25.	LASTLY25	1.4846	.5017	130.0

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LASTLY1	34.7692	9.2797	-.0847	.4123
LASTLY2	34.7538	8.3886	.2173	.3453
LASTLY3	34.4692	8.9797	.0471	.3823
LASTLY4	34.8846	8.5835	.1614	.3588
LASTLY5	34.8692	8.7192	.1101	.3699
LASTLY6	34.7231	8.8840	.0458	.3842
LASTLY7	34.7923	8.6309	.1333	.3646
LASTLY8	34.7154	8.5618	.1567	.3593
LASTLY9	34.8538	9.1955	-.0550	.4052
LASTLY10	34.7769	9.4150	-.1281	.4213
LASTLY11	34.5077	8.6550	.1628	.3599
LASTLY12	34.6692	9.2308	-.0679	.4083
LASTLY13	34.8077	8.4821	.1868	.3525
LASTLY14	34.8000	8.9829	.0135	.3912
LASTLY15	34.8000	8.9829	.0135	.3912
LASTLY16	34.8308	8.4363	.2058	.3484
LASTLY17	34.8846	8.6300	.1446	.3625
LASTLY18	34.8769	8.6204	.1466	.3620
LASTLY19	35.0077	8.5348	.2218	.3488
LASTLY20	34.9615	8.6419	.1596	.3601
LASTLY21	34.8154	8.5703	.1563	.3595
LASTLY22	34.9692	8.6967	.1411	.3640
LASTLY23	34.8769	8.4964	.1916	.3520
LASTLY24	34.7308	8.5239	.1696	.3563
LASTLY25	34.7615	9.0047	.0053	.3930

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 130.0

Alpha = .3828

N of Items = 25

OLD OAKS HIGH SCHOOL
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	LASTLY1	1.5570	.4984	149.0
2.	LASTLY2	1.5034	.5017	149.0
3.	LASTLY3	1.6107	.4892	149.0
4.	LASTLY4	1.4765	.5011	149.0
5.	LASTLY5	1.1275	.3347	149.0
6.	LASTLY6	1.5638	.4976	149.0
7.	LASTLY7	1.2886	.4546	149.0
8.	LASTLY8	1.3557	.4803	149.0
9.	LASTLY9	1.3020	.4607	149.0
10.	LASTLY10	1.5302	.9970	149.0
11.	LASTLY11	1.5436	.4998	149.0
12.	LASTLY12	1.5638	.4976	149.0
13.	LASTLY13	1.5302	.5008	149.0
14.	LASTLY14	1.5369	.9265	149.0
15.	LASTLY15	1.4430	.4984	149.0
16.	LASTLY16	1.4295	.4967	149.0
17.	LASTLY17	1.4497	.4991	149.0
18.	LASTLY18	1.5302	.5008	149.0
19.	LASTLY19	1.3557	.4803	149.0
20.	LASTLY20	1.4430	.4984	149.0
21.	LASTLY21	1.4362	.4976	149.0
22.	LASTLY22	1.4899	.5016	149.0
23.	LASTLY23	1.4094	.4934	149.0
24.	LASTLY24	1.4966	.5017	149.0
25.	LASTLY25	1.1745	.3808	149.0

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LASTLY1	34.5906	24.9056	.2281	.7516
LASTLY2	34.6443	25.0145	.2038	.7531
LASTLY3	34.5369	23.5882	.5180	.7349
LASTLY4	34.6711	25.0330	.2004	.7532
LASTLY5	35.0201	25.3712	.2390	.7514
LASTLY6	34.5839	23.4878	.5294	.7340
LASTLY7	34.8591	25.8246	.0557	.7603
LASTLY8	34.7919	25.1524	.1880	.7538
LASTLY9	34.8456	24.8882	.2586	.7499
LASTLY10	34.6174	24.2243	.1091	.7756
LASTLY11	34.6040	24.5246	.3060	.7472
LASTLY12	34.5839	23.9878	.4213	.7404
LASTLY13	34.6174	24.1702	.3793	.7429
LASTLY14	34.6107	23.6988	.1920	.7636
LASTLY15	34.7047	23.5879	.5066	.7353
LASTLY16	34.7181	24.1362	.3905	.7423
LASTLY17	34.6980	23.7393	.4730	.7373
LASTLY18	34.6174	24.9946	.2084	.7528
LASTLY19	34.7919	24.4902	.3298	.7459
LASTLY20	34.7047	24.4122	.3306	.7457
LASTLY21	34.7114	24.5445	.3036	.7473
LASTLY22	34.6577	24.4293	.3243	.7461
LASTLY23	34.7383	24.2216	.3756	.7432
LASTLY24	34.6510	23.1206	.6045	.7293
LASTLY25	34.9732	26.3101	-.0426	.7631

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 149.0

N of Items = 25

Alpha = .7558

RIVER GLEN HIGH SCHOOL

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	LASTLY1	1.4512	.5007	82.0
2.	LASTLY2	1.3902	.4908	82.0
3.	LASTLY3	1.5732	.4977	82.0
4.	LASTLY4	1.4268	.4977	82.0
5.	LASTLY5	1.1707	.3786	82.0
6.	LASTLY6	1.4878	.5029	82.0
7.	LASTLY7	1.5122	2.2236	82.0
8.	LASTLY8	1.2317	.4245	82.0
9.	LASTLY9	1.7561	1.2429	82.0
10.	LASTLY10	1.2927	.4578	82.0
11.	LASTLY11	1.6463	.4810	82.0
12.	LASTLY12	1.4024	.4934	82.0
13.	LASTLY13	1.3780	.4879	82.0
14.	LASTLY14	1.4390	.4993	82.0
15.	LASTLY15	1.2683	.4458	82.0
16.	LASTLY16	1.3537	.4810	82.0
17.	LASTLY17	1.3415	.4771	82.0
18.	LASTLY18	1.3780	.4879	82.0
19.	LASTLY19	1.4756	.5025	82.0
20.	LASTLY20	1.3659	.4846	82.0
21.	LASTLY21	1.3537	.4810	82.0
22.	LASTLY22	1.4390	.4993	82.0
23.	LASTLY23	1.1829	.3890	82.0
24.	LASTLY24	1.3049	.4632	82.0
25.	LASTLY25	1.2805	.4520	82.0

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LASTLY1	33.4512	24.0778	-.0186	.5491
LASTLY2	33.5122	22.6480	.2886	.5174
LASTLY3	33.3293	23.3594	.1310	.5338
LASTLY4	33.4756	22.9685	.2141	.5251
LASTLY5	33.7317	24.2975	-.0545	.5490
LASTLY6	33.4146	22.7642	.2542	.5207
LASTLY7	33.3902	18.1421	.0608	.6573
LASTLY8	33.6707	23.0631	.2438	.5242
LASTLY9	33.1463	22.1265	.0484	.5665
LASTLY10	33.6098	22.9322	.2498	.5225
LASTLY11	33.2561	23.0571	.2054	.5263
LASTLY12	33.5000	21.4383	.5593	.4879
LASTLY13	33.5244	21.9809	.4412	.5013
LASTLY14	33.4634	22.7702	.2555	.5206
LASTLY15	33.6341	22.2349	.4290	.5057
LASTLY16	33.5488	22.8927	.2418	.5226
LASTLY17	33.5610	23.5086	.1083	.5361
LASTLY18	33.5244	23.3636	.1348	.5334
LASTLY19	33.4268	23.3094	.1392	.5329
LASTLY20	33.5366	23.3875	.1312	.5338
LASTLY21	33.5488	22.9173	.2363	.5232
LASTLY22	33.4634	22.7209	.2662	.5195
LASTLY23	33.7195	23.4883	.1585	.5323
LASTLY24	33.5976	22.0706	.4486	.5024
LASTLY25	33.6220	23.5961	.0995	.5370

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 82.0

N of Items = 25

Alpha = .5406

APPENDIX 5

Letter to Examiner

Dear Examiner

Data capture for correlations was too large to reproduce in print. A disc can be provided if necessary. Please contact my supervisor Angela Hough or myself in this regard.

Angela Hough - 033 260 5364

Celia Gillespie - 033 386 6546

.....

C.V. Gillespie

APPENDIX 6

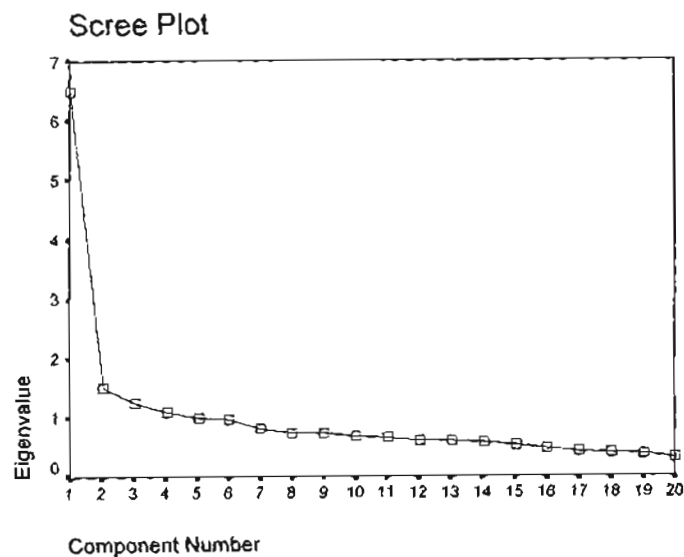
Data capture

FACTOR ANALYSIS

Total variance explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
	6.489	32.447	32.447	6.489	32.447	32.447	3.356	16.782	16.782
	1.482	7.410	39.857	1.482	7.410	39.857	2.711	13.555	30.337
	1.246	6.231	46.088	1.246	6.231	46.088	2.642	13.208	43.545
	1.073	5.364	51.453	1.073	5.364	51.453	1.582	7.908	51.453
	.982	4.912	56.364						
	.946	4.732	61.096						
	.803	4.016	65.112						
	.730	3.650	68.761						
	.709	3.547	72.308						
0	.658	3.290	75.599						
1	.641	3.205	78.804						
2	.604	3.018	81.822						
3	.592	2.961	84.783						
4	.575	2.873	87.656						
5	.507	2.537	90.193						
6	.466	2.331	92.524						
7	.423	2.113	94.637						
8	.395	1.977	96.614						
9	.372	1.859	98.473						
10	.305	1.527	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



a 4 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
PARTOT	.089	.693	.331	.018
TALKTOT	.223	.700	-.064	.236
INSTITOT	-.071	.425	.092	.646
WORSTTOT	.473	.160	.185	.249
LIMITTOT	.392	.541	.088	.136
TRYTOTOT	.182	.629	.325	-.003
ALLRTTOT	.607	.162	-.046	.091
MUSICTOT	.537	.302	.259	.266
WORRYTOT	.580	.399	.161	-.100
SOLVETOT	.424	.426	.325	-.063
COMPRTOT	.669	.094	.241	-.014
ANGERTOT	.355	.078	.489	.378
TELLTOT	.419	-.027	.461	.027
THINKTOT	.477	.089	.380	-.043
BOOKTOT	.062	.363	.494	.333
TRYNTTOT	.629	.203	.046	.232
FORGETOT	.238	-.055	.150	.721
COMFTTOT	.136	.254	.750	.106
FRHLPTOT	.092	.325	.688	.110
WITHDTOT	.500	-.134	.461	.287

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 17 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	.620	.503	.528	.289
2	.638	-.767	.013	-.059
3	-.436	-.396	.584	.558
4	.131	.039	-.617	.775

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Correlations of Self-esteem and coping styles

		SELFES_T	ACTCOPE	INTCOPE	AVOIDCOP
SELFES_T	Pearson	1	.131	-.116	-.246(**)
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.110	.160	.002
	N	150	150	149	150
ACTCOPE	Pearson	.131	1	.442(**)	.424(**)
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.110		.000	.000
	N	150	150	149	150
INTCOPE	Pearson	-.116	.442(**)	1	.583(**)
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.000		.000
	N	149	149	149	149
AVOIDCOP	Pearson	-.246(**)	.424(**)	.583(**)	1
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000	
	N	150	150	149	150

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Variables Entered/Removed(b)

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ACTCOPE, AVOIDCOP INTCOPE(a)		Enter

a All requested variables entered.

b Dependent Variable: SELFES_T

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.376(a)	.141	.123	18.617

a Predictors: (Constant), ACTCOPE, AVOIDCOP, INTCOPE

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Régression	8261.670	3	2753.890	7.946	.000(a)
	Residual	50255.591	145	346.590		
	Total	58517.262	148			

a Predictors: (Constant), ACTCOPE, AVOIDCOP, INTCOPE

b Dependent Variable: SELFES_T

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	56.290	3.257		17.284	.000
	INTCOPE	-.092	.211	-.043	-.434	.665
	AVOIDOP	-1.251	.335	-.365	-3.737	.000
	ACTCOE	1.161	.325	.316	3.574	.000

a Dependent Variable: SELFES_T

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
CLASSSE	1	high	24
	2	average	104
	3	low	21

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: INTOPE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	459.781(a)	2	229.891	2.760	.067
Intercept	19517.302	1	19517.302	234.287	.000
CLASSSE	459.781	2	229.891	2.760	.067
Error	12162.527	146	83.305		
Total	42900.000	149			
Corrected Total	12622.309	148			

a. R Squared = .036 (Adjusted R Squared = .023)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: ACTCOPE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	86.339(a)	2	43.169	1.484	.230
Intercept	7503.932	1	7503.932	257.976	.000
CLASSSE	86.339	2	43.169	1.484	.230
Error	4275.901	147	29.088		
Total	15768.000	150			
Corrected Total	4362.240	149			

a. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = .006)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: AVOIDCOP

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	344.040(a)	2	172.020	5.442	.005
Intercept	5981.314	1	5981.314	189.212	.000
CLASSSE	344.040	2	172.020	5.442	.005
Error	4646.920	147	31.612		
Total	13564.000	150			
Corrected Total	4990.960	149			

a. R Squared = .069 (Adjusted R Squared = .056)

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AVOIDCOP

Tukey HSD

(I) CLASSSE	(J) CLASSSE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
high	average	-1.2512	1.27209	.588	-4.2631	1.7607
	low	-5.1845(*)	1.68002	.007	-9.1623	-1.2067
average	high	1.2512	1.27209	.588	-1.7607	4.2631
	low	-3.9333(*)	1.34402	.011	-7.1156	-.7511
low	high	5.1845(*)	1.68002	.007	1.2067	9.1623
	average	3.9333(*)	1.34402	.011	.7511	7.1156

Based on observed means.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

AVOIDCOP

Tukey HSD

CLASSSE	N	Subset	
		1	2
high	24	5.9583	
average	105	7.2095	
low	21		11.1429
Sig.		.662	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed. Based on Type III Sum of Squares The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 31.612.

a Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 30.361.

b The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

c Alpha = .05.