

**THE INFLUENCE OF SELF-CONCEPT ON THE  
FUTURE IMAGE OF BATSWANA ADOLESCENTS**

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D E C L A R A T I O N

I declare that the thesis hereby submitted to the University of Potchefstroom P.U. vir C.H.O.. for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at any other University and that it is my own original work.

Signed : *Eun Motlhabi* .....

D E D I C A T I O N

To my son Khanya with grateful thanks  
for all his assistance and encouragement  
during the time spent researching  
and writing-up of this thesis.

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## SUMMARY

An analysis of the problems inherent in the formulation of an image of the future by Batswana adolescents has been undertaken. The study takes as problematic the nature of the attitudes to, perceptions and perspectives of the future conceptualised by groups of adolescents in various high schools in the North West Province of South Africa. An attempt has been made to clarify some underlying conceptual issues about self-concept in an effort to present something definitive about its influence as a main determinant of concepts of the future.

There emerged a kind of a dialectic paradox in the idea that self-concept, on the one hand, implies that Batswana adolescents have a self-perception of themselves as functioning units organised to achieve self-set goals which are located in the future. This gives prominence to a conception of the self-concept as a global entity. On the other hand, the view was mooted that self-concept is an interconnected collection of various facets, an emphasis on its multidimensionality. The particular unity-in-plurality notion generates the idea that there is oneness (same self) in the manifoldness of the future-focused roles projected in the future.

In the exploration of the mode in which adolescents seek to be effective in the manipulation of a future environment, a consideration of such variables as locus of control orientation, achievement orientation, culture, future orientation, future shock and orientation to adulthood, received priority of treatment. Central to the discussion of the development of attitudes to the future, were developmental issues pertinent to future orientation and the educational interventions implemented by educators in the school and family, in thus promoting the handling of futurity by adolescents. This was executed with an eye upon cultural universalities as they are extant in Western technological societies, traditional societies and enculturative environments. A fine distinction emerged between educational situations which promote closed/restricted images of the future and open/creative images of the future, a differential between futures education dispensed in Western technological societies and that implemented in traditional societies.

The empirical investigation conducted, assessed the veracity of the postulates presented and hypotheses formulated. The requisite analysis of the results provided a photostatic image of where the problems are at as far as the development of an image of the future is concerned. On the basis of results of the empirical investigation, a consideration of recommendations and suggestions as to appropriate educational interventions has been undertaken.

## OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie navorsing was om deur analise te bepaal wat die probleem aspekte is ten opsigte van toekomsverwagting by Batswana-adolesente. Die navorsingsprobleem het gewentel rondom die houdings, persepsies en perspektiewe aangaande die toekoms soos gekonseptualiseer deur groepe adolessente in verskeie hoërskole in die Noordwes-provinsie van Suid-Afrika. Die doel van die studie was onder meer om belangrike onderliggende konseptuele fasette aangaande die selfbegrip te belig om sodoende meer te wete te kom oor die invloed daarvan as 'n dominante bepaler van toekomsverwagting.

Die navorsingsresultate het 'n soort dialektiese paradoks na vore gebring: daar is enersyds bevind dat Batswana-adolesente se selfbegrip gerig is op 'n konsep van georganiseerde funksionerende eenhede wat daarop ingestel is om selfgedetermineerde toekomsdoelwitte te bereik; dit gee prominensie aan die konseptualisering van die selfbegrip as 'n globale entiteit. Andersyds is bevind dat selfbegrip die versameling is van 'n verskeidenheid onderling verwante fasette, met die klem op multidimensionaliteit. Hierdie eenheid-in-veelheid bring die gedagte voort dat daar eenheid in die individu is ten opsigte van die veelvuldige rolprojeksiemoontlikhede wat die toekoms vir hom/haar bied.

In 'n ondersoek na die wyse waarop adolessente hul toekomsverwagtinge effektief probeer manipuleer, het die klem op die volgende veranderlikes geval: loci van oriëntasiebeheer, prestasie-oriëntasie, kultuur, toekomsoriëntasie, toekomsskok/-vrees ("future shock") asook ingesteldheid teenoor beroepskeuse.

In die bespreking van die ontwikkeling van 'n toekomsingesteldheid staan verskeie ontwikkelingsaspekte wat 'n rol speel in toekomsoriëntasie van adolessente sentraal. Klem is in die ondersoek gelê op ingrepe deur opvoeders in die skool en die huis wat daarop gerig is om toekomsgerigheid te hanteer. Hierdie vraagstuk is bespreek in die lig van kulturele aanvaarbaarhede in respektiewelik Westers-tegnologiese gemeenskappe, tradisionele gemeenskappe asook in geakkulturaliseerde omgewings. 'n Duidelike

onderskeid het geblyk te bestaan tussen opvoedingsituasies waarin die klem op toekomsverwagtinge enersyds geslote/beperk en andersyds oop/kreatief is.

Die empiriese navorsing wat gedoen is, het die aanvaarbaarheid van die gestelde hipoteses van die studie bevestig. Die resultate bied 'n beeld van die probleme rakende die ontwikkeling van die betrokke groep adolessente se toekomsverwagtinge.

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## CHAPTER 1

### THE STATEMENT AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

#### 1.1 Orientation

According to Poole and Cooney (1987:129) adolescence is a period of orientation to future goals in preparation for transition to adulthood. The contemplation of the future within a realistic and extended time perspective is, therefore, a characteristic of adolescent growth.

Adolescence is the period of development between childhood and adulthood. In modern society adolescence is alleged to begin around age thirteen years and to end between the nineteenth and twentieth years of age (Ferron, 1990:161; Dednam, 1988:16; Bauer, 1988).

At this developmental stage individuals have a unique psychological make-up (Connell, 1985:1082; Bilsker & Marcia, 1991:75-76; Garza & Herringer, 1987:299-308).

During this period rapid changes occur at the physical, psychic, spiritual, emotional and cognitive levels. These and also changes in the mode of conducting social relations demonstrate that the girl is becoming a woman and the boy, a man (Kruger, 1980:60; Du Plooy, 1991:1).

These changes have an influence on the adolescent's image of the future. This makes it imperative that an exploration of these factors (changes) be undertaken.

According to Garbers, Wiid, Myburg, Van Biljon & Fourie (1985:5) the adolescent development is marked by a quest for self-knowledge. The notions of self-image, self-concept and self-esteem include the person's outlook on and evaluation of himself. This entails the cognitive, emotional and spiritual elements which make self-definition possible.

Nyakutse (1985:83) holds that self-concept is the basis for the constitution of an image of the future. The stanchions of self-image are goals and the goal dimension has to do with objectives for which a future role image has been structured. Sedibe (1991:33) views this exercise as the formulation of a purpose for life "a search for meaning encompassing future roles". "Becoming somebody happens on the basis of self-concept which brings a person's view of himself into alignment with anticipations concerning the future" (Sedibe, 1991:34).

In setting himself a blueprint of his future, the adolescent establishes a linkage between the view he takes of himself and his view of his personal future. Although self-image has a powerful influence on the image of the future, the deliberate and conscious educational intervention of

educators can enhance the self-concept of adolescents and thereby motivate them to endorse a positive image of the future (Magsud, 1991:37).

Self-concept is not the only factor that determines the nature of the adolescents' future image. There are other determinants of the future image such as culture, locus of control, academic achievement, personality, future orientation, future shock and career choice. This provides the opportunity for the treatment of the independent variables to determine how they affect the dependent variable, the image of the future.

## 1.2 The Problem

The impetus for this study came from the writer's experience with teaching high school pupils of differing ethnic origins. It became increasingly clear that Batswana adolescents handle futurity in a qualitatively different manner than do their Xhosa counterparts. Whereas the latter group of pupils conceptualised the future as less personalised, less within their control and more threatening, Batswana adolescents seemed to have no difficulties with constituting an image of the future characterised by optimism, a sense of control and a sense of power over their destinies.

In an attempt to establish a systematic demonstration of this postulate, it was decided to explore the content, affect and time-span of the future orientation of young people in high schools in the North West Province of South Africa. It is critically important to discover how this anticipating function is exhibited in their personal future in terms of goals, plans and decisions (Poole & Cooney,1987:21).

One's brief is essentially to characterise the process of orientation and preparation which is accompanied by the emergence of ideological orientation, mobility orientations and progressive redefinition and internalisation of values which sees the adolescent become a socially adaptable adult. By mobility orientations is meant the commitment by an individual to a preferred occupation and the anticipation of promotion in his chosen profession.

// The study presents an innovative approach to education which involves an investigation of whether or not futures education is conducted in the schools. Such an educational endeavour would place power in the hands of the learners to envision alternative futures. In the face of the acceleration of change in technology, family structure, urbanisation and international relations, the ability to visualise the future, to generate and discard alternative future images, is

compulsory. Freire, Gorman & Wessman (1982:247) suggest that an appropriate futures education facilitates the making of adaptations at three levels, conditioning to change, perception of change and control over change. Conditioning to change means the prompting a person gets in educational situations to estimate duration and the changes that happen in it. Perception of change is a behavioural phenomenon in which, within narrow limits, a person can integrate successive stimuli in such a manner that they seem to be happening at the same time as is the case in the perception of rhythm and speech sequence. Control over change involves the anticipation of the future, challenging it with intentions and plans (Connell, 1985:1021; Dusek & Flaherty, 1981:2)..

In terms of education in and for the future, schools and universities with their accentuation of the past implicitly convey a false image of the future. This image is based on the assumption that the future will replicate the present.

The attempt at identity resolution is one of the manifestations of the strivings of the adolescent (Nesser 1985:18; Harmse, 1982:145). This is the quest for a progressive continuity between what he is and what he promised to become in the anticipated future

(Nesser, 1985:19). Erikson (1981:250) perceptively remarks that sociological inputs (from the school) which engender problems of identification affect the continuity of self in that culture and can prove so traumatic to identity formation that they can break the inner consistency of a child's expectations of the future. The sociological inputs can take the form of social, economic and technological change.

In looking at the development of an image of the future by adolescents, therefore, reference should be made to the adolescents' search for a reliable identity, their persistent endeavour to define and re-define themselves, their experimenting with various roles and exploration of different avenues of behaviour as well as making decisions about the future.

A need of adolescence which is highlighted in this study is the need for responsibility.

"Die adolescent verlang enersyds om toenemend self verantwoordelikheid te dra" (Garbers et al, 1983:7). The adolescent increasingly sees his or her behaviour as the result of individual choice, not parental choice or coercion (Josselson, in Craig, 1986:386). This sense of responsibility is reflected in the disposition to ascribe the responsibility for the occurrence of reinforcement to themselves or to

powerful others. The questions to be explored is what role cultural values play in eliciting attributional styles and how locus of control relates to the development of an image of the future. It is postulated that individuals raised in a culture that values self-reliance and individualism are likely to be more internally oriented than those brought up in a different set of values (Maqsood, 1991:37; Whitehead, 1990:401-402 & Chiu, 1988: 411-413).

Understanding the relationships between locus of control orientation and conceptions of future, could provide helpful insights into how adolescents make evaluative decisions about the form and substance of preferable futures (Newman, Brown & Rivers, 1983:12; Geber & Newman, 1980:15).

Achievement orientation has been identified as an important determinant of the image of the future. The point in isolating this variable for treatment, is to undertake a critical evaluation of the significance of the future for pupils who value achievement and those who do not. McClelland (1990: 102-103) has observed a relationship between the need to achieve and an active future orientation. He declares that it is as if the achievement need has served to relate present achievement experiences to future ones, to promote understanding of the present in terms of a wider

context. Motives seem to relate the present to the future, the specific to the general and long run (McClelland, 1990:102-103).

In this regard, several questions warrant exploration. Does high effort on tedious assignments prove meaningful to the individual who sees them in terms of a future time perspective in which success is the reward? Should education induce young people to adopt an attitude to the future which does not lead to the devaluation of the present and desensitise them to the meaningfulness and immediacy of the present? Need there be a contradiction between a high consciousness of the current and a sense of orientedness to the future? The addressing of these issues could provide enlightenment on the issue of the development of an image of the future in educational situations. It could lead to some possibly fruitful modes of application of theoretical principles applicable to the dispensing of a future oriented education (Robertson, 1985:5)

A thought-provoking line of reasoning alleges the existence of a determinate Tswana cultural temporal calendar. This is viewed as consonant with that which prevailed in traditional societies in Africa. A certain residual traditionalist outlook would seem to occasion the Batswana to argue along the lines that

"what will be will be what has already been, that the future is in a sense the past, and that man is and will only be what he has been" (Erny, 1981:166).

The thus categorised ecological pattern is alleged by Richie and Bichard (1988:19) to have generated a future imagery which was not the result of remote planning. The effective range of action was limited; the timespan of foresight, goal formulation and accountability was short and the control of circumstances, limited (Toffler, 1983:16). The long run of consequences was left to chance, the providence of ancestors who allegedly authorised and shaped the future (Nxumalo, 1988:36).

Given the alleged persistence of a definite Tswana calendar, the question of the degree of commitment to this, is crucial. The issue is one of whether or not the learners' conscious concern with the cultural calendar is accompanied by the type of future image which it implies, Wolf (1985:47); and Mikulincer (1990:144) postulate the existence of a linkage between becoming what one wants to become and expectancies about the stability of outcomes. A research finding of tremendous psycho-educational significance will be one which establishes whether or not the participation of Batswana adolescents in the modern sector of society, permits them to engage in

advance budgeting for future progress. Clifford (1981:61) considers the capacity to plan ahead to be a byproduct of high expectancy for future success.

For purposes of this investigation, it is necessary to consider issues prevalent in the process of adolescent education in the schools in the North West region of South Africa. It is of particular importance to explore the structural variables and value orientations of the schools with a view to establishing how they define the position of young people in the school hierarchy. The benefit of examining administrative structures in the schools goes beyond their value in interpreting forms of distribution of power which promote or hamper the development of images of the future (Ezewu, 1986:35). By examining school contextual factors more directly, it becomes possible to determine if the quality and stability of the schools are predictive of the success of the candidates or graduates or not. It will be highly appropriate to gain empirical insights into the pupils' views of their position in the status systems of their schools. It may also indicate their perceived efficacy in exerting an influence on the schools' future development (Musaazi, 1988:20-21).

The problems mooted in the foregoing can be crystallised into three pertinent questions:

1. What influence does the Batswana adolescents' self-concept have on their future image?
2. Do variables such as culture, locus of control, academic achievement, future orientation, future shock and choice of a career also influence Batswana adolescents' future image?
3. Does the future image of Batswana adolescents have any educational implications?

### 1.3 The aim of the research

1. The aim of the research is to determine the influence of the self-concept on the future image of Batswana adolescents.
2. The secondary central aim of this study is to determine to what extent factors such as locus of control, academic achievement, future orientation, future shock and choice of a career influence Batswana adolescents' future image.

3. The third aim of this research is to determine the educational implications of Batswana adolescents' future image.

#### 1.4 A model for the evaluation of the development of an image of the future in an educational situation

It is necessary to construct and implement a model for the evaluation of the educational processes and experiences which pervade the inculcation of an image of the future in children. To this end, it is appropriate to proceed to the presentation of our integrated model, encompassing three models proposed for the evaluation of learning proposed by Garbers (1972), Vrey (1979) and Dreyer and Duminy (1983).

Duminy and Dreyer (1983:205) propose a framework for understanding the process of development in learners. They use the notion of continuum to provide the overarching scheme for illustrating a great many of the permutations and combinations of the variables, adult, child and milieu as significant factors in the child's

development. In this conceptual framework, it is possible to encounter a child who has a superior genetic endowment, very low motivation and personal initiative but who has been brought up in an above average stimulating environment by adults who do not take an active interest in his education and development.

Along a similar line of reasoning, (Garbers et al(1983:9) declares the tenets of his educational model "a differentiated frame of reference for the guidance and evaluation of education and development in practical situations", as follows:

1. Education and development are determined by the image of adulthood that has to be realised.
2. The child is guided in its development towards adulthood in an evaluative and normative way.
3. The child participates actively in its own development.

In similar vein (Vrey (1979:30-39) elaborates what he designates categories of Empirical Education and gives priority of attention to attribution of significance and involvement, inter alia.

Significance attribution refers to assignment of meaning while involvement implies "to be physically and psychologically drawn into an issue" (Vrey, in: Mahlangu, 1983:41-42).

A rigorous specification of an integrated or unified model must be made for it throws into sharp relief the future-directed orientation of education and emphasises the role of the image of the future as a dimension of adulthood. The unified developmental model concerns itself with the nature of anticipated adulthood and it, therefore, highlights the issue of educational influences on future life in predominantly vocational, avocational, social and community service areas. They are effects of variables which operate in the educational situation which make education an avenue to future opportunities.

A detailed discussion of the stipulations of the integrated model is found in the second chapter of this thesis but the summary and essence of the discussion is as follows:

Firstly, because education targets the child's attainment of adulthood, it, therefore, springs from and flows from an image of the future. In the process of educating, "a clear future perspective, a clear accepted aim in life, a definite future investment"

(Garbers, 1980:101) is at stake. The conceptual model recognises that the way a person meets the problems and challenges of adulthood is in part a function of the future imagery he possesses while still an adolescent. It is suggested that the adolescent's structuring of his future represents an index of educational experience and context. This educational influence acts upon him as though from an external source. When he reaches adult status, that particular phenomenological future which he structured, with adult guidance, in an infinite variety of educational situations, guides him like a map (Garbers, 1980:91).

Secondly, in the education of the child, the adult spontaneously, deliberately and consciously intervenes, rearranges and selects learning material and informational content and helps the child to formulate a world view (Ferreira, in: Sonnekus, 1985:42). The cognate subject areas have great relevance for the child's future life career and other adult roles (Dovay & Mathabe, 1987:5). Learning and teaching are thus specifically future-oriented.

The adolescent is constantly reminded of the world beyond the school (Ginzberg, 1980:3). "The more he learns, the bigger it becomes in his conception...." (Harmse, 1982:149). Educators, inter alia, help the learners to constitute realistic images of the future.

The participation of the adult in the educational process that facilitates becoming, is evident in the creation of "geborgenheit", that is, the sense of being accepted unconditionally and the feeling of belonging. This stimulates the urge to explore, to discover things on own initiative, and to attain self-realisation (Engelbrecht et al, 1983:3).

Thirdly, in his education the child is an active agent. The model emphasises the role of the child as an active participant in his own development. When a consideration of anticipations concerning the future by adolescents is under way, the child continually makes use of feedback from his educators who evaluate him in a normative way. He strives to assign meaning to the environment. He is at the mercy of neither his educators nor his milieu since he participates actively in his becoming.

When the child has internalised values and cultural systems, he uses them as an interpretative system which he uses for purposefully manipulating the environment. This means that a plan, a direction and a frame of reference has been evolved by the child. It is in terms of this framework that he constructs an image of the future, orienting his actions according to it and appropriately relating means and ends to each other (Dreyer & Duminy, 1983:200; Becvar & Becvar, 1982:36).

## 1.5 Hypotheses

### Hypothesis one

Self-concept has a meaningful influence on the future image of Batswana adolescents.

### Hypothesis two

Batswana adolescents' future image is also influenced by culture, locus of control, academic achievement, future orientation and choice of a career.

### Hypothesis three

Careers and futures education influence the development of Batswana adolescents' image of the future.

## 1.6 Method of research

### 1.6.1 The speculative-analytical method

This study will be implemented by applying explorative-intuitive analysis. Sommer & Sommer (1980:14) and Mohanoe (1983:17) argue forcibly that this is a viable method for the explication of problems of social science and educational significance. The pursuit of a study of conceptions of the future extrapolated by Batswana adolescents, using the speculative-analytical method, may constitute the nearest approximation of the truth.

In executing the speculative-analytical method, the researcher is concerned with the appraisal of relative values and norms. Education deals predominantly with issues of human significance which are not amenable to manipulation through the use of objective methods alone (Nyakutse, 1985:114; Mohanoe, 1983:18).

Indeed, the explorative-intuitive approach can most appropriately be used in the identification of causative factors, beyond the relationships between data which have evolved through the application of statistical analysis. This eliminates the possible bias which occurs when the researcher generates and sometimes contrives the data in observational study. Causal relations between educational (social) phenomena are explained and rationalised by the researcher, (in situations where statistics demonstrate a tendency, in one direction or another), when she utilises an explorative-intuitive methodology (Westheimer, Stewart & Reich, 1989:12-15).

It is submitted that the identification of the determinants of the image of the future projected by Batswana adolescents, using the speculative-analytical method, provides a conceptually sophisticated account of the state of futures-education in their schools.

To this end, an overview of literature appertaining to

the field will be under journals, and other primary and secondary sources of information related to the study.

A computer search will be performed with the following key words: adolescence, culture, self-concept, goals, cognitive development, occupational aspirations and academic achievement.

#### 1.6.2 The empirical method

The research is of an ex post nature and a factorial design will be utilised.

The empirical method will most judiciously be used as a conceptual tool for the interpretation of objectively derived data. This is an inductive method which involves observation, measurement, analysis, experimentation, statistical computation and thorough-going analyses of research results and presentation of research findings (Jones, 1973:15).

Its efficacy lies in its provision of an interpretative framework for objectively accumulated data.

The indictment against the empirical method as a research method is that it is too closely aligned to the assumptions of positivism on which the methodologies of the natural sciences are based,

(Motshabi, 1993:33). These are increasingly discredited as incapable of giving a good account of psycho-educational phenomena (Stones, 1979:1).

Mohano (1983:7) observes that whereas the objectivity of the empirical method puts it in a position of strength in the natural sciences, the same quality renders it inadequate as a tool for understanding human functioning.

In this study the theoretical, speculative-analytical method will be applied to generate informational content about the image of the future and related factors. The statistical-empirical methodology will be employed for amassing data and "enumerating findings".

### 1.7 Study population and sample

All ±28,000 Batswana secondary school children in the (region) will serve as the population. A randomly selected sample of approximately N=600 pupils was drawn from a random cluster sample of six schools (three urban and three rural) secondary schools. The sample was constituted by fifty girls and fifty boys from each school, the sum of which was 300 boys and 300 girls.

## 1.8 Variables

Dependent variable: Future Image

Control variables: Self-concept, locus of control, cultural traits, future orientation, vocational preference.

Environmental variables: The family, the school, rural and urban localities.

Independent variable: Self-image

## 1.9 Instrumentation

The measuring techniques used in the research project consist of:

1. The home background questionnaire.
2. The cultural dimension questionnaire.
3. The Eysenck Personality Inventory.
4. The Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale.
5. Connell's Locus of Control Inventory.

6. Strodbeck's Valuing of Achievement Inventory.
7. Wallace Future Opinions Age Task.
8. Buxton's questionnaire on: Attitude to the school as a social system.

### 1.10 Statistical techniques

For purposes of this study, the following statistical methodology will be applied.

1. Use will be made of multiple linear regression analysis which is concerned not only with the determination of the nature of the image of the future, but also with the strength of the relationship between variables as well as the degree of variation of variables operating jointly (SAS Stat user's guide, 1992:1400; Oppenheim, 1992:27-28; Welkowitz & Cohen, 1971:162-164).

### 1.11 Definition of concepts and indicators

#### 1.11.1 Image of the future

By an image of the future is meant conceptions of the future held by an individual or society. The formulation of an image of the future involves the

exercise of the imagination in an attempt to structure the future, filling it with contents.

#### 1.11.2 Extension

This refers to the range of reference or time span that is referred to in the future. It reflects how far into the personal future a person can project his thought.

#### 1.11.3 Locus of control orientation

Locus of control refers to the extent to which people ascribe responsibility for the occurrence of a reinforcement to themselves or to powerful others. Internally controlled people believe in their ability to order their fate while externally oriented people believe that their fate is determined by external forces, namely, luck, chance, the system and fate.

#### 1.11.4 Future shock

By future shock is denoted the swift arrival of the future on people who have difficulties in adapting to high-speed change in various spheres of life. People are usually traumatised by change because they have not formulated a viable image of the future.

#### 1.11.5 Self-concept

Self-concept refers to how a person consciously perceives himself, the central core usually consisting of his name, his body image, sex and age. It originates from a comparison of an individual with others as well as the reactions of others to one.

#### 1.12 Thesis outline

The arrangement of data comprises:

1. Orientation, statement of the problem and the method of research.
2. The development of an image of the future within an educational situation.
3. Family and school influences on Batswana adolescents' future image.
4. Method of research.
5. Discussion of results.
6. Summary, findings and recommendations.

## CHAPTER 2

### SELF-CONCEPT AND OTHER FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN IMAGE OF THE FUTURE

#### 2.1 Introduction

This portion of the thesis, by definition concerns itself with the role of self-concept as a basis for the formulation of an image of the future in influencing the development of conceptions of the future by children. Other variables, as precursors of the future, are considered, with a view to establishing the degree to which they affect the development of attitudes to the future.

An educational model is set up for the purpose of evaluating the educational situations structured and directed at promoting the manipulation of futurity by children. Developmental issues receive adequate attention, in any consideration of how children structure their future image in a manner which is commensurate with their level of development in the life cycle.

Certain categories have been evolved and they have operated as a framework, "pegs" driven in, to append facts on the development of an image of the future, with a developmental perspective in mind. These are awareness of self and a separate identity, cognitive stimulation, figures for

identification, opportunities for exploration and play.

### 2.1.1 Orientation

The exploration of the growth and development that takes place as a result of the influence of the self-image, is an attempt at gaining a clearer insight into the significance of "how a person consciously perceives himself" (Verkuyten,1990:285) for the image of the future. Two questions are addressed in this regard: first, whether the future orientation of the culture, a framework in which the Batswana adolescents operate, conditions the quality of their striving towards a self-set image of the future. Secondly, as striving as a motive is inextricably intertwined with the issue of self-image, it is imperative to establish to what degree self-image is a predominating factor in the future image projected by Batswana adolescents. It is necessary to accumulate evidence establishing the linkage between what the adolescents are, what view they take of themselves and the way they see themselves existing in the future.

According to Van Zyl & Van der Walt (1978:36) adolescence is characterised by the stabilisation of the self-image. This is the adolescent's view or opinion of himself as created by what his experiences tell him he is or what he is becoming. Harmse (1982:144) remarks that the adolescent behaves as though he is "reacting to an imaginary audience". This conveys the idea that the adolescents' self concept is

largely determined by the "looking glass self", that is, the image which they feel other people have of them (Nyakutse, 1985:86).

The concern highlighted in this regard, is that the adolescents' self-concept is not, per se, sufficient to account for anticipations concerning the future. It is the deliberate and conscious educational intervention directed at the enhancement of the future-focused role image (image of the future self) that strongly affects competence in the adolescents' handling of futurity. It is considered that education, in general, and future-oriented learning situations, in particular, provide support for the adolescent as he projects his self-concept forward in the process of developing an achievable future-focused role image. Such an image delineates, in the emerging out of school world into which he will soon move, what he can become. These arguments make a reasonable case for the conception and implementation of an educational model for the evaluation of the educational process that develops the self-concept appropriate to the role image that emerges with the arrival of the future (Sanders, Mckim & McKim, 1988: 431-432, Miller, 1993: 169-171 and Craig, 1986: 386.)

Although the self-concept is categorised as a dominant factor in the development of orientations to the future, other factors are found which wield their influence on the

adolescents' mode of formulating the image of the future. These factors relate to personality generally and motivational states, cultural universalities and interest, particularly. They are adulthood, identity, locus of control, academic achievement, future orientation and future shock (Tajfel, 1981:37; Dalal & Sethi, 1988:55-56; Whitehead & Smith, 1990:401-402).

As with self-concept, these variables of the image of the future are amenable to systematic alteration to determine the degree of their influence on the image of the future.

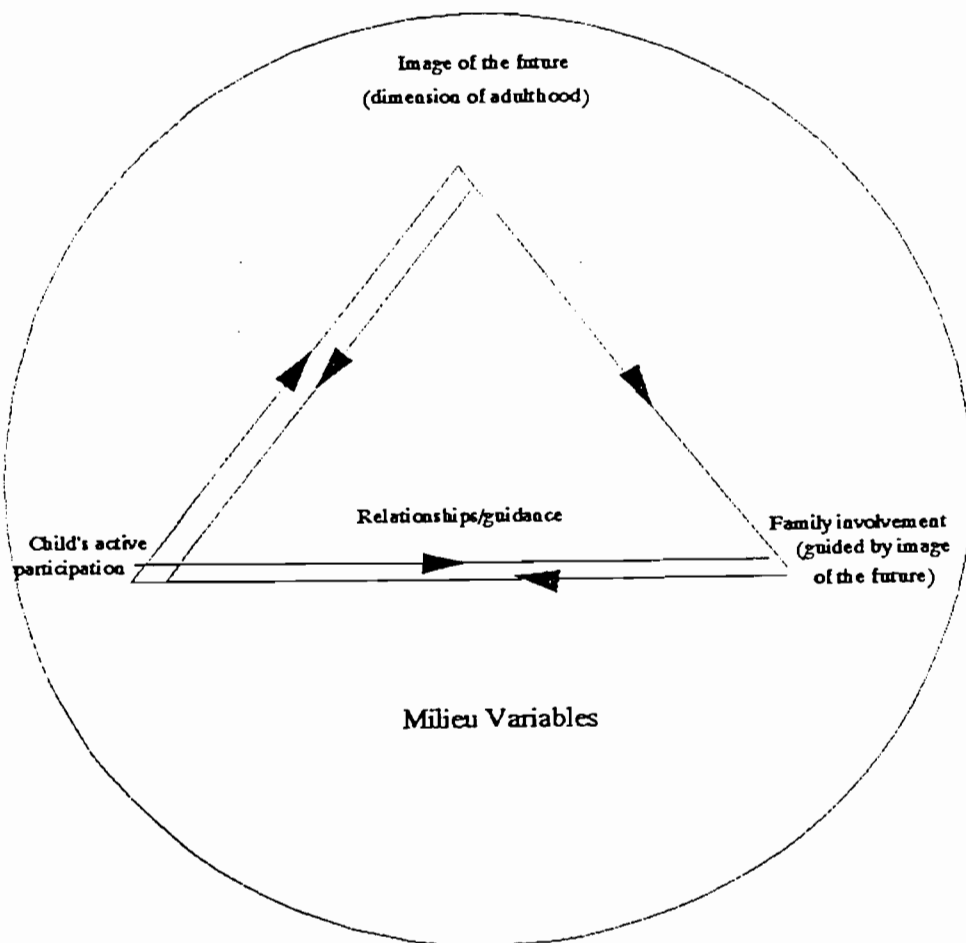
## 2.2 Educational model of the development of the image of the future

For purposes of understanding the development of an image of the future, it is necessary that a framework for analysis be developed which incorporates models for the evaluation of development proposed by Garbers (1972:10-12), Dreyer & Duminy (1983:206) and Vrey (1979:49). The unified model integrates the various known processes which transpire during the overall process of becoming. The model demonstrates that learning, development and the development of an image of the future are interacting aspects of the child's progression towards adulthood.

The model makes crucial the issue of anticipated adulthood. Education provided for the promotion of the image of the

future, happens with a definite aim in view, namely, the attainment of adult status. In the educational situation, the adult is constantly addressing the child. The model for the evaluation of the development of the future is diagrammatically illustrated as follows:

FIGURE 2.1 : Diagrammatic representation of a model of the image of the future



### 2.2.1 The characteristics of the model

There are four main aspects to be considered in order to understand the integrated model. It encompasses the notion of the relationship between the adult, child and milieu, as factors, conditions and ideas which are relevant to the child and his development (Dreyer, 1980:155-158). The fourth, the formulation of an image of the future is a concept portraying an ideal situation. The conceptualisation of an image of the future and the attainment of adult status are like binding glue that holds together the various aspects of the model and permeate it in its entirety.

The model recognises explicitly the existence of interactions between educators and learners which facilitate the pedagogical forming of the latter in the development of a sense of futurity. In other words, the involvement of an adult who dispenses futures education means that the process of the child's becoming adult is initiated by someone else other than him.

Of significance in this connection is that the child is, thereby, being pushed by an adult to progress towards adulthood in an evaluative and normative way. This means that judgements are communicated by the educator as the way forward towards the achievement of

proper adulthood (Garbers, 1980).

The model, however, reflects the view that as children mature, particularly in adolescence, they construct their conceptions of the future in terms of their own scale of values not necessarily derived from images of the future inculcated by educators. There is a tacit recognition of the fact that as the child progresses on his way to adulthood, his level of growth and development becomes emancipated to a "point" where the adult's upbringing of him becomes superfluous (Sonnekus, 1985:52).

A salient feature of the model is the recognition of the fact that the learner is an active participant in his learning and this impacts his commitment to future concerns. The goal of attaining adulthood is the all-important, singular and direct factor accounting for his determination to strive for goals which have a future reference (Garbers, 1972:3).

The child as an active agent in his own development is influenced by his own assessment of the educational situation and anticipated ends (adulthood, future roles) and he applies himself with vigour and effort to the contemplation of roles to be played in adulthood. Therefore, the learner's perception and evaluation of adult roles has the possibility of being

influenced not only by feedback from adults but also his personal judgements of anticipation of personalised future events (Harmse, 1982:49). The message of this model is that evaluations of preferred adult roles arouses cognitive and affective reactions which instigate the learners to challenge the future with expectations, aspirations and future focused role identities, (Verstraeten, 1980:178).

Milieu contextual effects are explained in this model as impacting the future imagery produced by learners. These come from a variety of factors ranging from educational support provided by significant others to the nature of the school environment, the family and the characteristics of the neighbourhood in which the homes of the children are located. (McClelland, 1990: 103-104). Significant others are those individuals whose opinions a person values.

There is emphasis in the model on the fact that environmental factors most plausibly work through the family and school rather than by direct effects of the physical, residential environment. The habitus or residential environment indirectly influences the structuring of an image of the future by learners through coping with developments and changes in the social milieu.

The residential environment may indirectly influence the image of the future entertained by the learners by shaping the development of the school social milieu, through the infiltration of inputs from a rapidly changing supra-environment. For example, recent developments in urban North West Province of South Africa, point to the influence of housing tenure (primarily the difference between residence in privately owned versus public rental housing) on such social demographic factors as health and response to the educational process. As a result of the bombardment of the school by technological, social and info-psychological transformation, forthcoming from the neighbourhood it (the school) is compelled to influence learners to formulate their images of the future on the basis of new assumptions which are in accord with the modern sector of society. This effect from the larger environment is an effect through its influence of personality development and values, (De Clerq 1984:4; Roodt & Lawrence 1984:3). The model of choice thus emphasises the fact that different environmental contexts will indirectly contribute to the development of differential conceptions of the future by learners.

The model proposed for the evaluation of the future image in children, represents the view that children's reactions to the school milieu lead them to invest or disinvest in a future domain. The development of an

orientation to the future is explained in the model as a consequence of the learner being convinced, having had exposure to a congenial educational environment, that he has a role to play in the future.

### 2.2.2 Process explanations

The activator is the event or occurrence that triggers a person to endorse an image of the future. The event that activates an individual to orient himself can be internal such as when a learner arbitrarily forms an anticipatory mental picture of his own future. For example, a learner can use his future - scanning talent to summon an image of himself operating on a patient in a surgery in the capacity of a doctor. The event that activates an individual to constitute future imagery about himself and society may be external (Dovey & Mathabe, 1987:11).

The teacher may, for example, instruct pupils to write scenarios about the future or provide an opportunity for talking about how the world might be in times yet to come (Ximba, 1987:101). There is, therefore, an acknowledgement in himself of the learner's emerging ability to think about life on his own initiative as well as with prompting by the educator (Dreyer & Duminy, 1983:201).

The learner is depicted in the model as undertaking an internal evaluation of the future and responding to the future according to this judgement (Englebrecht et al, 1982:90). Thus the cycle continues, with ongoing adjustments and refinements of the future image as he constantly evaluates not only his immediate future but also the remote future (Van Niekerk, 1987:15). Dwelling on the teacher's role in inducing the learners to articulate conceptions of the future unduly, neglects to consider that the learner himself is pushed and impelled to anticipate the future because he wants to become somebody (Mohano, 1983:118).

### 2.3 Image of the future

One of the most important questions a person may be asked is what he intends to do with his life in the future. When an individual works on his expectancies for the future, when he utilises the present to prepare for the future, he is implementing an image of the future (Andrews, in: Carson, 1986:191).

According to Shane & Tabler (1981:6) an image of the future is the invisible architecture of assumptions which equip the individual with the practical ability to anticipate and adapt to change through the inventing and envisioning of preferred futures.

It is in the projection of the image of the future that the imagination is thrown into sharp relief. By means of imagination, the capacity to throw oneself in a variety of roles, individuals enter the future from the vantage point of the present. Before an individual can play a formative part in the construction of personalised future events, he must capture probable future situations imaginatively and explore new directions for the future (Fricke, 1979).

Thus, the future image has a cognitive component in so far as inter alia, it is a figment of imagination and the application of logical thinking (Shane & Tabler, 1981). Nesser (1985:19) corroborates the view that the future image flows from the deliberate application of imagination and thought and he calls this cognitive futurity.

The image of the future is not a unidimensional concept. An individual may develop a variety of images which are consonant with different aspects of life (Dovey & Mathabe, 1987:5). Differential sets of images projected by a person may appertain to an economic future, the social future, the future of interpersonal relations, the future of leisure, the material futures, the future of specific occupations, the future of travel and autonomy and so forth (Garbers, 1983:5). Ametewee (1991:19) elaborates that the fact that multiple images exist means that an individual does not formulate a homogenous set of dimensions for all aspects of life, bringing his conduct into a well-integrated pattern.

Another important component of the image of the future is the affective dimension. Future affective tone indicates whether pleasant and unpleasant experiences are anticipated by a person (Poole & Cooney, 1987:1). A person, on the other hand, shows pessimism when the dominant affective tone in his future image is characterised by anticipations of unpleasant eventualities (Verstraeten, 1980:5).

According to Greene (1987:100) the evaluation of the future as potentially pleasant and unpleasant springs from the influence of domains of life such as personality, family occupation, identity and cultural influences. In the image of the future extrapolated by pessimistic people, there is the perception that a catastrophic future is inevitable and this diminishes life chances and choices, with resultant powerlessness and helplessness (Hoy & Miskel, 1982). The pessimism - optimism dichotomy constitutes the normative and evaluative dimension of the future image (Toffler, 1983:16-17).

Aside from personal futurity, there obtain what are called societal future images which are held by thinkers, business leaders, politicians and ordinary people (Andrews, in: Carson 1988:195). Societal images take the form of announcements through extrapolations. Extrapolations are statements made about the future by people who have expertise in this pursuit, on the basis of present trends.

This group of people apprise members of society about the demand the future will make on them in political decision-making, adjustments and approaches to be adopted in the industrial sphere and what economic futures they must prepare themselves for, in order to survive future economic changes. In the ecosphere, there are collectively shared images of what form the earth will take in the future and how resources could be used in a sustainable way (Ezewu 1983:18).

Fine distinctions have to be made between a closed/restricted image of the future and an open/creative one. A community that operates at the traditional level, where the rate of technological change is slow and there is no turbulence to upset the rhythm of life, finds it easy to formulate an image of the future by simply taking recourse to the past (Richie & Bichard, 1988:15).

By dispensing a future-oriented education, educators help the learners recognise various solutions to future problems. Exposure to a future - oriented education develops in learners skills in making rational and autonomous decisions about alternative futures on the basis of standards of judgement derived from a variety of educational situations. Education, directed at promoting an image of the future in learners produces individuals who choose what lines of actions to take in life on the basis of critically evaluated standards which have been accepted

because reasons and evidence support them, (Klein, in: Carson, 1985:48-49).

Thus an image of the future is the way in which a group, society and person conceptualise events which will transpire in the future. It is a construction derived from experience and consequences of purposive action (Maqsud, 1991:20). In other words, individuals and groups learn to manipulate the environment to achieve their purposes and to design the future. The anticipation is a form of construct determined by individuals and groups. It builds on experiences of the past but is prompted by a person's desires and fits into a framework of possibility (Mahlangu, 1983:49).

Thus, an individual's private image shapes his or her decision making once he or she is convinced that the future is predictable, structured and controllable (Verstraeten, 1980:181).

### 2.3.1 Cultural premises for the image of the future

The image of the future whether formulated by a group of high school pupils or the political leadership of a nation, reveals a great deal about its creators and the cultural framework within which they operate. It stands to reason, therefore, that conceptions of the future present themselves in a cultural context. The

characteristics of an image of the future give evidence of cultural origins (Motshabi, 1993:33).

Mahlangu (1983:49) alleges that there are culturally determined attitudes about the future. Even at the traditional level people must cope with seasons, hunting patterns and other milestones of human life; prediction of necessity exists among traditionalists. Dreyer (1980:86) generalises into Zulu culture and makes the point that adolescents in traditional society had a well-defined future situation.

The image of the future also underlies the transmission of cultural standards and mores since parental child-rearing procedures are embedded in a temporal dimension. Therefore, it is necessary to include within the framework of an analysis of images of the future, the consideration that there are two modes of the image of the future, the closed/restricted and open/creative conceptions of the future (Greene, 1986:9).

The former is a consequence of the application of mechanistic child-training practices (Nxumalo, 1988:101). These require the application of simple learning techniques to restricted learning contents (Petje, 1985:15). The upbringing of the child necessarily takes place within the framework of a situation in which the future is decided by the older

generation (Van den Berg, 1983:103). Erny (1981:17) takes the position that a closed restricted future image is the result of lack of continuity and consistency of time reckoning.

The African man and woman at the traditional level endorsed a restricted image of the future because it was conceptualised in concrete terms (harvesting, tribal wars, epidemics and ceremonial observances).

With enculturation, there has been a move in the direction of articulating an abstract scheme (Nsibande, 1982:21). Socio-educational experiences, interpreted to mean upbringing practices which incorporate cultural values from Western technological societies, generate a creative image of the future in children. The latter liberate the individual to make informed decisions independently and they facilitate the formulation of a creative image of the future. Upbringing of a creative nature makes possible the leap from the concrete to the abstract mode of thinking which frees the child to explore the future and the spiritual world beyond himself (Sedibe, 1991:32).

Variations in the future imagery occur and they fall in gradations along the continuum constituted by closed and open images of the future. As far as the

adolescents are concerned, other aspects of the future such as where they would like to live, marriage and family, leisure and occupations, come to the fore (Harmse, 1982:151). Thus the image of the future has a number of components, forming a configuration.

## 2.4 The image of the future and related variables

### 2.4.1 Adulthood

There are informal social definitions of adulthood. Someone who is employed, financially independent and is a parent generally, is considered a mature individual (Craig, 1986:314). Beyond these definitions, however, a vast array of psychological characteristics are usually associated with adulthood: psychological independence and autonomy, independent decision-making and some degree of stability, wisdom, reliability, integrity and compassion (Kruger, 1990:73).

The development of an independent view of life involves conquering the world on one's own. The predominant thinking mode of adulthood progresses from perseverance and discipline to controlled experimentation and the pursuit of goals. This represents a full adult consciousness (Engelbrecht et al, 1982:17).

There is also the aspect of social norm orientation which is characteristic of the adult development. Sedibe (1991:30) observes that a feature that manifests in adulthood is the ability to alter one's behaviour with the aim of altering consequences, that is, interactions with people. This implies that the individual conforms to social dictates and expectations regarding human conduct in relation to others. Conformity to group norms is, therefore, typical adult behaviour because it fulfils the need for acceptance by members of one's group. Just as important is the need to understand the environment and to find one's own niche in the social system. The ability to see another's perspective and to imagine alternative bases for laws and rules enter into the moral reasoning of adults (Maqsd, 1989:90).

In adulthood the individual embarks on a process called career formation. Those who have achieved adult status begin to invest in disciplined well-directed work. At the same time they cultivate those interests and values and qualities that will endure - throughout adult life (Sedibe, 1991:33).

Lindhard, Dlamini & Barnard (1987:72) maintain that leisure is used by people as a diversion from the routine of work. Ferron (1983:84) states that the distinction between work and leisure is spurious but he

he regards it as axiomatic that, that which is compulsory for a person to do is work. That which he pursues as a form of relaxation can be regarded as leisure.

Toffler (1983:288) opines that when it is recognised that individuals in modern societies participate in producing goods and services, the distinction between work and leisure will be dispensed with. The issue confronting adults to-day is not work versus leisure but paid work versus unpaid work which is self-directed and unmonitored.

Constructing an image of adulthood, leads to the adoption of the attitudes involved and inspires the acceptance of the values and attitudes built into the adult role aspired to (McClelland, 1990:104).

#### 2.4.2 Identity

Identity comprises knowing who one is to such a degree that one can satisfactorily answer the question "Who am I?" (du Toit & Kruger, 1991:21). Le Roux (1980:25) sees identity as the meanings which an individual attributes to himself.

Erikson (Connell, 1981:5) offers that the establishment of an identity is a process which occurs

at the core of the individuals. Yet the processes which are located outside of the individual which are at the core of communal values also facilitate identity formation. The quest for identity encompasses a striving for continuity of the self as against role variability. Role variability refers to lack of continuity and consistency in a person's identity over time (Erikson, 1981).

According to Erikson (du Toit & Kruger, 1991:22) the adolescent has a nuclear sense of identity that develops from earlier stages, provided these were successfully negotiated. A sense of identity is formed by the integration of all earlier stages into a whole via a process called ego synthesis. Identity is the adolescent's knowledge of who and what he is and what he can become. Throughout life individuals ask: "Who am I?" and proffer different answers which define identity.

Thus identity is transformed from one stage to the next, and early forms of identity influence later ones. Behr (1980:124) declares that adolescence is a period of life when each individual carves for himself some central perspective and direction as well as some working unity out of the remnants of childhood and the hopes of anticipated adulthood.

Identity formation at this stage, therefore, means the discovery of some meaningful resemblance between what the adolescent has come to recognise in himself and what this heightened awareness tells him others judge him to be. According to Lindhard (1992:18-19), social contexts bring pressure to bear on the adolescent to define who he is and who he will be.

In Erikson's (Connell, 1981:5) view the focal point of adolescence is a crisis of identity, and the failure to achieve a coherent sense of identity which brings about what he terms the syndrome of identity diffusion. With reference to the development of an image of the future, the inability to reconcile different aspects of the self into a relatively coherent sense of identity can cause the adolescent severe anguish and identity foreclosure. This can result in the evaluation of the future as potent and warranting avoidance. Mild anxiety and depression are symptoms associated with adolescents with regard to issues relating to identity, long-term goals, career choices, friendship patterns, sexual orientation and behaviour, religious identification, moral value systems and group loyalties (Gilbert, 1987:73-75). Craig (1986) attributes to identity diffusion, that is, the failure to integrate identifications, roles and selves, future disorientation. Identity diffuse status incorporates people without a sense of

direction, who have a vague future-focused role image. Facing identity diffusion, they organise their image of the future less consistently, envisage fewer future alternatives, experiences and roles.

Sedibe (1991:22) remarks that the important role played by significant others (parents, teachers, peers) in the child's identity formation should not be underestimated. Individuals in the immediate milieu and whose opinions he values provide him with tentative identifications and expectations which help him in the development of orientations to the future.

#### 2.4.3 Self, self-concept, self-esteem and self-image

In order to gain a fine grasp of definitions of the constructs self-concept, self-esteem and self-image, it is necessary to clarify the concept self. A clear definition is that given by Hamachek (1978:vii) which he puts at some detail as follows:

"A person's self is the sum total of all he can call his. The self includes, among other things, a system of ideals, attitudes, values and commitments. The self is a personal total subjective environment: it is the distinctive centre of experience and significance. The self constitutes a person's inner world as distinguished from the outer world consisting of all other people and things."

A fine distinction needs to be made between three over-lapping components of self. The first is self-concept and it refers to the cognitive representation an individual has of himself. It is the kind of person that he thinks he is. The use of the word "think" betokens that it is the cognitive part of the self picture (Nyakutse, 1985:86).

Self-esteem, the other component of self, is the feeling or affective aspect of an individual's self-picture. It is the way a person feels he is and reflects whether he feels worthy or not. It is the evaluative component of the self.

Self-image, according to Nyakutse (1985:68), connotes the way a person consciously perceives himself, "the central core usually consisting of his name, his bodily feelings, body image, and gender and age".

Ximba (1987:iii) is of the view that self-concept is consensually defined, that is, significant others have to reciprocate by motivating the person who thus endorses a concept of himself. In other words, self-esteem and self-image originate, on the basis of the theory of the "looking glass self" (Cooley, in: Craig 1986:387), from the reaction of others.

For example, adolescents derive many of their ideas of

viewing themselves from reference groups and significant others. Reference groups are broad social groups or narrow collections of individuals surrounding an individual with whom attitudes are shared. Significant others are those individuals whose opinions an individual values highly, for example, teachers, parents and peers.

Behr (1980:123) considers that the self-concept consists of three components:

1. The self, as seen by the self: This may be reflected in statements such as, "I am warm and friendly", "I am aggressive". Such feelings influence what the individual does and does not do.
2. The self as seen by others: Every individual develops attitudes to people's view of him and he tends to live up to these perceived expectations "People think that I am confident" and "my friends think that I am attractive" are statements which reflect this dimension of self-concept. The way the individual behaves will be determined by the way he believes significant others and generalised others evaluate him. Generalised others are the "wholly other" group

of individuals whose norms and values individuals emulate.

3. The ideal self: The ideal self represents what a person would like to become. "The ideal self is the fantasy or picture of various ideals of behaviours", manifestations that an individual aspires after: (Nyakutse, 1985:69). Clearly, aspirations, goals and even dreams are encapsulated in the ideal self. "I would like to be a doctor". "I wish to marry one day" are examples of statements reflecting the ideal self.

According to Van Zyl & Van der Walt (1978:ii) the important dimensions of self-concept are the body image, cognitive self, social self and self-esteem. In other words people put a value on their bodies, academic ability, the self in social situations and they use such words as "good" or "bad" to describe themselves and one another in these dimensions (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:21).

#### **2.4.3.1 Multidimensional self-concepts**

Recently self-concept has quite frequently been posited as multidimensional in that it is specific to particular domains, for example the

physical, social and academic. This development is a perfect foil to the emphasis on global self-esteem as a construct (Marsh & Gouvernet, 1989:57); Fleming & Watts, 1980:38, Buri, Kirchner & Walsh, 1987:583-588).

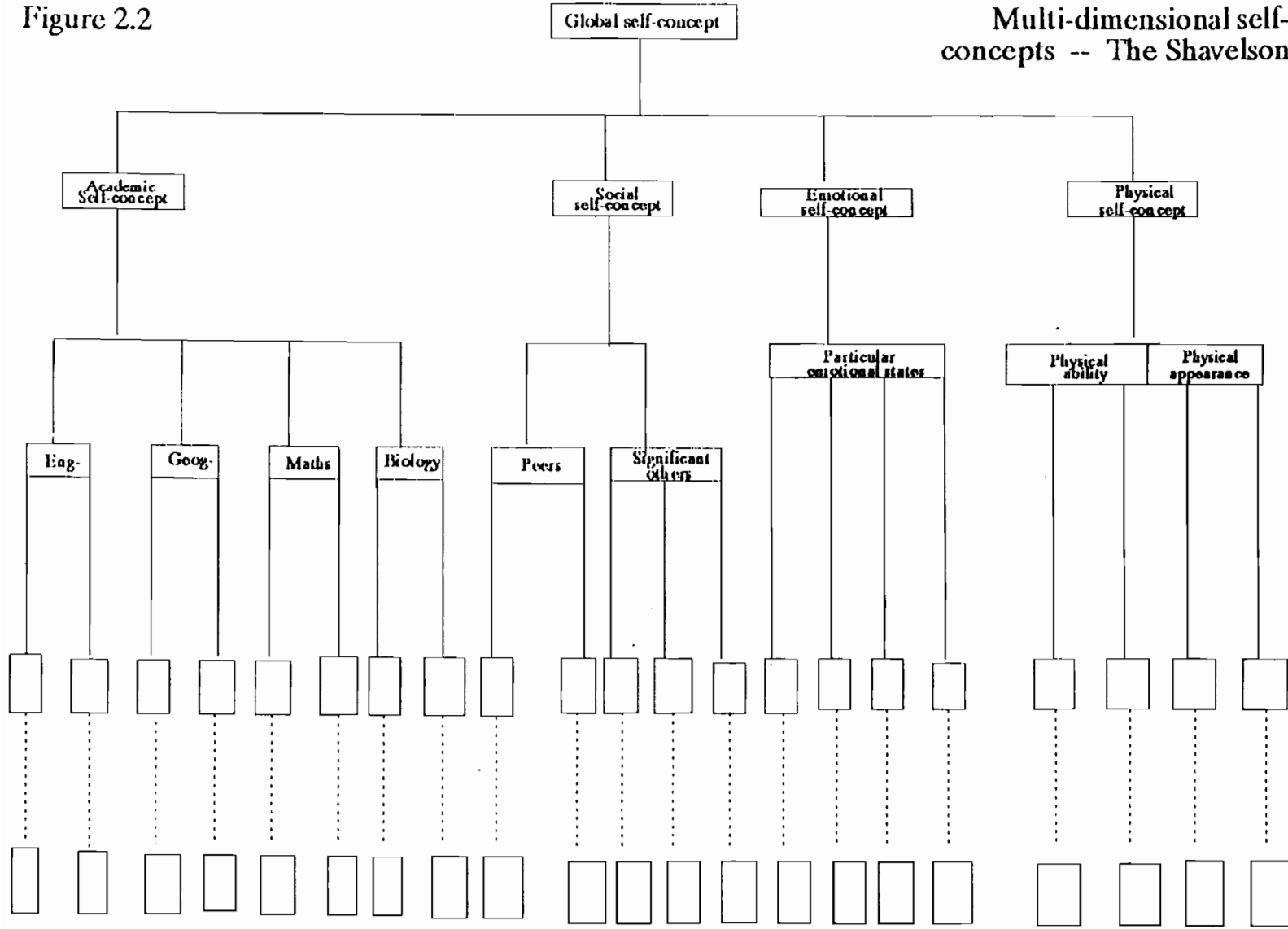
According to Marsh & Gouvernet (1989:57) Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton proposed a global self-concept defined by specific academic and non-academic self-concepts.

The academic self-concept was divided into self-concept in particular subject areas, for example, English and Biology and the non-academic categories comprised social, physical and emotional self-concepts (Marsh, 19890:647). Physical self-concept was further divided into self-concepts of physical ability and physical appearance. Social self-concept was divided into peer relations and relations with significant others.

"By positing this hierarchical mode, Shavelson et al (Marsh,1990) emphasised the domain specificity of self-concept while still recognising a general construct" (Marsh & Gouvernet, 1989:57). Thus self-concept is categorised as a superordinate onstruct comprised of self-appraisals across a variety of more narrowly defined areas" (Byrne, 1984:427)".

Figure 2.2

Multi-dimensional self-concepts -- The Shavelson Model



Feedback from significant others

#### 2.4.3.2 Sources of self-concept

1. Self concept is formed through the individual's interaction with the reaction of other members of society, his peers, parents, teachers and other agents of socialisation (Connell 1985:1082; Bilsker & Marcia, 1991: 75-76; Garza & Herringer, 1987:299-308).

By dint of interaction, a necessary form of effective communication, the child learns to adopt the roles and attitudes of others with whom he relates. The attitudes adopted condition not only his conduct in relation to others but also how he regards himself. The selves of individuals, albeit possessing an own unique personality characteristics, are a reflection of social processes.

This is elaborated in Cooley's "looking glass image" in terms of which the individual's self-concept comprises the imagination of individual's appearance to the other people, the imagination of his evaluation of that appearance and an accompanying self-feeling such as pride or mortification.

Elkind & Weiner (1978:552) consider that adolescents exhibit a tendency to behave as though they are enacting roles in the presence of an audience. They allege that this tendency in younger adolescents accounts for the power of the peer group because the adolescent is continually attempting to project a particular image of himself to his friends. Elkind & Werner (1979) also elaborate that the adolescents' feelings that they are on stage helps explain some of their attention-seeking manoeuvres.

2. Mechanisms of upbringing, interpreted to mean child-rearing practices by parents and other caregivers, are an important source for the development of self-concept. Buri, Kirchner & Walsh (1987:584) aver that the effect of parental nurturance on self-concept cannot be over-emphasised. The three researchers administered a questionnaire comprising 24 statements that would permit subjects to appraise the nurturance received from their mothers and fathers.

Each of the youth (college-aged) participants and their parents completed the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the Total Positive Self-esteem score was computed for each subject.

The Waring Intimacy Questionnaire (Buri, Kirchner & Walsh 1987:585) was completed by the mother and the father. The total Intimacy minus Desirability score was divided for each parent. Following upon the execution of a regression procedure, it was found that mothers' nurturance and fathers' nurturance together significantly predicted self-esteem.

Nyakutse (1985:75) concedes to familial relationships significant effects on self-concepts. She offers that children in whose home of origin there is acceptance, trust and compatibility between parents demonstrate better intrapersonality adjustment, higher levels of autonomy and more positive self-concepts than do children reared in homes where there is discord and relationships are dysfunctional. All of the family's warmth and regard for children, and the creation of an ordered world

characterised by parental expectations of high standards of behaviour, mingle to develop healthy self-concepts in young people (Ginzberg, 1980:12; Becvar & Becvar, 1982:5, Ezewu, 1986:114).

It seems necessary to point out that the factors of parental self-esteem, parental marital compatibility and parental methods of discipline, may have an influence on the self-concept of children when they are young. But such familial effects dissipate by late adolescence and young adulthood. The relationship between parental nurturance and these older children's self-esteem, however, is still clearly demonstrable in these older adolescents and young adults. Hence the conclusion by Waring and Reddon (1983:56) substantiates the contention that acceptance, approval, and support forthcoming from parents is crucial to the development of self-esteem in children, even if these children have become individuals in their late adolescence.

3. Within the framework of the school, teachers apply strategies in their dealings with children, which are directed at enhancing

self-concept and self-esteem. Such teaching strategies are related to four basic needs of children and adolescents.

Teachers create an ordered world where there is security. As Craig suggests "children need a sufficient amount of external social control, firmness and consistency in order to feel safe and secure" (Craig, 1986:288). Adolescents throughout the world are having to solve additional problems experienced in coming to terms with a rapidly changing social and cultural environment. These changes are more comprehensive and rapid in South Africa. The teacher's brief is one of educationally equipping the adolescent with a mobile image of the world and the future, thus putting power in his hands to confront continuing change from a position of strength, namely, a positive self-concept. "Knowing then that the existing structure is not static and that changes are to be expected, he may design himself a role in the process of change" (Harmse, 1982:148).

Teachers provide for the pupil-charges opportunities for exploration. It is through exploration that children discover

their self-efficacy and demonstrate competence in purposefully manipulating the environment (Toffler, 1983:16; Monnagotla, 1991:13).

In learning-teaching situations, teachers often make a practice of allowing children to be active agents in the learning process. Thus, for example, in teaching about Jan Van Riebeek, a South African historical figure, teachers encourage children to demand access to museums and archival material and to derive relevant concepts and indicators by exploration. This makes for meaningful learning and enhances feelings of mastery and, thereby, self-esteem.

Another need which is targeted for educational intervention by the teacher is the need for recognition, that is, positive feedback. Therefore, a key strategy for enhancing feelings of personal worth is to get the pupils in a position where they personally perceive the relationship between success and effort. In other words, the teacher provides the pupil with feedback on progress on the task. The teacher intimates to the pupil that although the task may

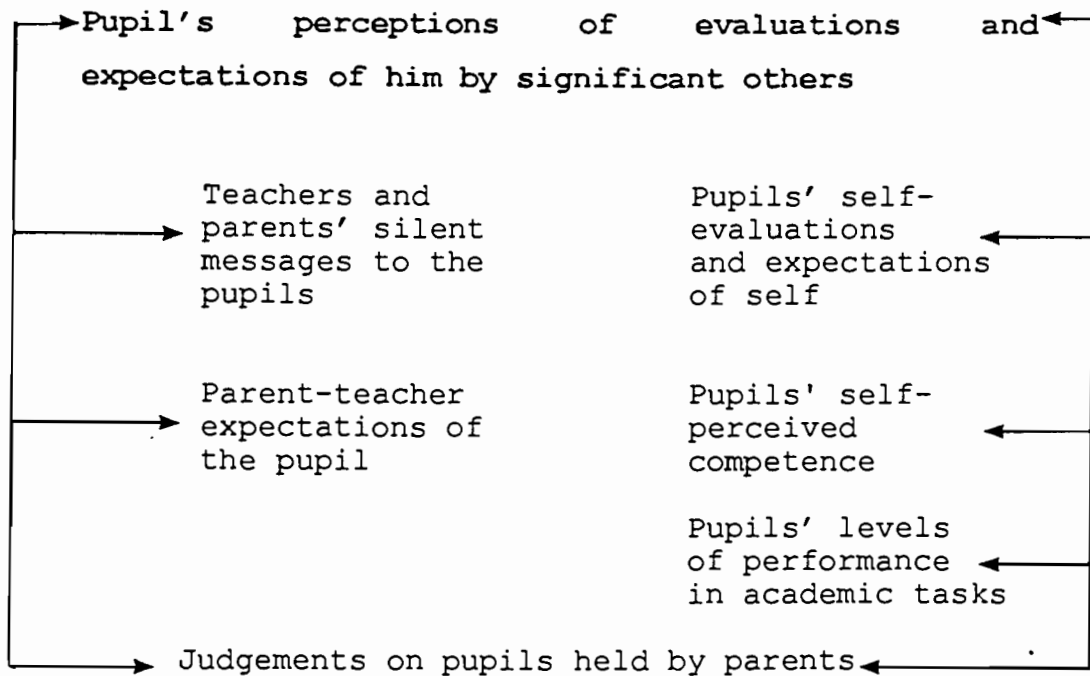
initially be daunting and challenging, it will eventually be successfully completed. Thus the connection between effort and success is easily apprehensible (Natriello, 1984:155; Canfield, 1992:24-26).

The final need that is addressed by teachers is responsibility. An effective technique of encouraging children to be responsible which teachers employ is peer teaching. This raises both knowledge of their effectiveness, enhancing as it does their self-concept, feelings of personal worth, and self-esteem.

It is evident then that not only the parents but also the teachers can help the child to feel effective and worthy by the satisfaction of basic psychological needs. The summary and essence of these practices are in the guideline which gives top priority to openness, an atmosphere of freedom, respect, warmth, a positive outlook on children and the experiences of success (Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1978:57).

### 2.4.3.3 The Circular process of self-concept

Figure 2.3



The diagrammatic representation in the foregoing throws into sharp relief the importance of positive feedback for the development of a positive self-concept in children. Ximba (1987:9) expresses the view that the self-concept of individuals is consensually developed, that is, significant others have to accord credence to the self-concept endorsed, in this case, by the pupils. In line with this reasoning, Ferron, (1983:201) mentions a strategy for enhancing self-concept and raising self-esteem. He calls it interchangeable teacher comment. By this he means that teachers should listen to pupils, act, as it were, as sounding boards for pupils'

original ideas. This gives the pupils a gratifying self-image, a sense of contributing to all that is of large and human significance.

Acceptance that each individual is a unique person and has a unique pattern of behaviour, helps parents and teachers, as reference groups, to react sensitively to children. With reference to school-related tasks, some children may require greater corporeal contact and direct manipulation of the environment before they can grasp cause and effect connections. Others may show evidence of abstract and symbolic thinking from an early age. All teaching, whether undertaken at home or school, should provide for individual differences.

Exposure to educational situations as categorised above changes the learners' self-expectations. Positive feedback from significant others (teachers, parents, peers) exerts pressure on them to pursue goals of learning. In this way, it becomes possible to increase their knowledge of their competence and thus raise the levels of self-esteem (Marsh, 1990:646; Byrne 1984:431).

#### 2.4.3.4 Empirical studies of self-concept related to school achievement

Numerous studies (Connell, 1981:248; Connell, 1981:6;

Byrne 1984) have investigated the relationship between general self-concept and educational achievement. These investigators concluded that "the learner's positive self-concept is the basis for educational progress" (Maqsud, 1991:36).

Maqsud (1991:37) measured the academic-self-concept of lower secondary school pupils. Measures of academic self-concept were taken from 120 (60 boys, 60 girls) pupils in a middle school in the North-West region of South Africa. The Brookover Self-concept of Academic Ability Scale (BSCAAS) based on six multiple choice items, and the Barker-Lynn's Academic Self-Image Scale (BLASIS) based on nine multiple-choice items, were selected to take measures of the subjects' academic self-concept. An illustrative item of the BSCAAS is "What kind of marks do you really think you are capable of getting?" (Mostly 5/10, mostly 3/10 and mostly 1/10). Similarly one of the nine items of BLASIS is: "When we have tests I get very good marks - most of the time, sometimes, hardly ever". The scores of the BSCAAS could range from 30 (good academic self-concept to six (poor academic self-concept). The scores on the BLASIS could range from 18 (good academic self-image) to 0 (poor academic self-image).

The measures of academic self-image, academic self-concept and academic achievement were found to be significantly positively related to one another. The results of this investigation are congruent with the findings of Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton (1976:407) who obtained a strong association between academic self-concept and indices of academic achievement. These results "provide one of the...defensible demonstrations of prior academic self-concept influencing subsequent and academic achievements" (Marsh, 1990:646).

In their investigation of the performance of children (in Central Harlem) as it related to self-concept, Davidson and Greenberg (Ximba, 1987:64) found that the lower the level of self-esteem, the lower the level of achievement. Consequently, higher levels of self-appraisal, ego-strength and perceived self-competence were associated with higher levels of achievement. High achievers, for instance, were more articulate and able to express basic needs, demonstrating that a stronger self-concept, is associated with a greater preparedness to risk self-expression, a necessary ingredient in

scholastic achievement.

McClelland (1990:31) reported that black children in America tended to have exaggeratedly high aspirations, so high that they were realistically impossible to approximate, let alone live up to. McClelland (1990) presented evidence which indicated that anticipation of failure or harsh evaluation by adults produced high levels of anxiety in children. The anxiety is highest in the case of children who are low achievers and have a high standard of self-appraisal. He found that black children with unrealistically high self-concepts have a severe fear of failure and this perpetuated constant failure. This demonstrated that achievement is related to self-concept in complex ways. High achievement targets are not enough when they are objectively unachievable because of lack of social approval which endorses a positive self-concept (Connell 1985: 1018-1019).).

It has been forcibly argued that the main antecedents of an individual's self-concept are reinforcements, evaluations by significant others and educational interventions by educators, who

set out to enhance and/or effect changes in self-concept (Maqsud & Rouhani, 1990; van Zyl & van der Walt, 1978:11; Nyakutse, 1985:86).

The question then arises: Do changes in self-concept cause changes in academic achievement? Some investigators allege that causation is mutual and reciprocal but achievement is the more causally predominant of the factors (Marsh & Gouvernet, 1989:63; Marsh, 1990:647). Schreirer & Kraut (1979: 403:408) argued that a change in self-concept is likely to be a consequence of enhanced achievement and attendant social approval, rather than the existence of an intervening variable which causes achievement to occur.

Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton (1976) reported that prior academic self-concept influenced subsequent performance but the effects of prior academic achievement were not found to be statistically significant. These findings demonstrate the predominance of academic self-concept over academic achievement.

#### 2.4.3.5 Self-concept and the image of the future

One way to comprehend how an individual estimates his life chances in the future is to study his self-concept. Within it one discovers the person's world view, his self-perceived role in the world and the role assigned to him in society. Harmse (1982:150) offers that the image of the future which the adolescent constitutes is of necessity aligned to his self-concept and his own potentials, on the one hand, and with the nature of the world in which he will have to realise his future, on the other.

The self-concept is not only determined by past and present inputs but also by the child's projection of himself in the future. It is determined by what one can be, what one is now as well as by what is called a "future-focused role image" (Toffler, 1983:17)). The image of the future, therefore, is evolved when the child endeavours to comprehend possible future roles which comprise what Erikson (Sedibe, 1991:35) calls "anticipated selves".

The main antecedents of self-concept are reinforcements and evaluations by significant others as well as attributions of meaning to one's behaviour by the one who endorses a self-concept. Garbers et al. (1983:5) holds that self-concept is the basis for the formulation of an image of the future.

The latter functions like a self-fulfilling prophecy (Behr, 1980:142), and has a retroactive effect on the present in that it ensures the requisite conditions for the future role image. In setting himself a blue-print of his future, the individual establishes a linkage between his self-perceptions and his perspective of his personal future.

#### 2.4.4 Locus of control

Connell (1981:5) defines locus of control as a circumscribed self-appraisal regarding the degree to which individuals view themselves as having some causal role in determining specified events. He argues that individuals who believe in external control are likely to explain what happens to them as being the result of the influence of external factors

or agents such as luck, fate, chance and forces in the social system.

The converse is the case with persons who have an internal control orientation. They believe that most of the events which transpire in their lives are contingent upon their directed behaviour. Couperthwaite (1987:72) conducted research in a Pietermaritzburg high school to assess the locus of control orientation of staff and pupils in that school.

The principal exercised what he called "monistic power" and thereby he controlled all facets of life in the school. The teachers and pupils existed in a no control situation and they then developed a generalised belief in external locus of control which extended beyond the confines of the immediate school situation.

One hundred and twenty standard seven, sixty boys and sixty girls, from randomly selected middle schools in the Ditsobotla region in the North West Province of South Africa served as subjects in a small-scale study conducted by Maqsud, (Maqsud 1991:14). The Clifford Academic Achievement Accountability scale was used to

measure the subjects' internality - externality in relation to their academic achievement. One item of this scale is provided for illustration purposes: "Do you have much control over the grades or marks you get?"

YES, yes, no, NO

The minimum score could be eighteen (low internality) and ninety (high internality). Maqsud (1991:19) found that there was a positive relationship between internality and academic achievement. He found that Batswana pupils were low on internality, hence their low academic achievement.

The notion that individuals set up general expectancies for internal and external control has clear implications for their anticipations concerning the future. An internal person constitutes a positive image of the future because his evaluation of the future is that it follows a preceding behaviour of his own. The internal person sets out purposefully to control and alter the course of events in his life because his system of expectancies and time-span of anticipation enable him to map up his future (Newman, Brown & Rivers, 1983:86).

Byrne (1984:28) notes that individuals who have been reared in a culture that values self-reliance are more internally oriented than those brought up in cultures where group welfare has priority.

Of integral importance is the fact that the future is viewed by externals as unpredictable, uncontrolled and unstructured and, therefore, the regularities of the past cannot be trusted in the future. Externals develop a belief in external control which extends beyond the present context into the future (Geber & Newman, 1980:26).

#### 2.4.5 Academic achievement

According to Matseke (1981:143) and Van Niekerk (1986:11), academic achievement is the progress made by an individual during a course of study. It means success in an examination or any formal evaluation. Failure to achieve progress is regarded as underachievement.

In many educational situations, a positive self-concept is considered a desirable quality that serves as a mediating variable facilitating the attainment of desirable outcomes, such as academic achievement

Marsh, 1990:648). Marsh (1987:280-295) reported that academic self-concept has a stronger relationship with academic achievement than does general self-concept with academic achievement.

The Brookover Self-concept of Academic Ability Scale (BSCAAS) based on six multiple-choice items, and the Barker-Lynn's Academic Self-Image Scale (BLASIS) based on nine multiple choice items, were administered to measure the Batswana children's academic self-concept by Maqsud (1991:27). This research was conducted in middle schools in the Ditsobotla region of the North West Province of South Africa. An illustrative item of the BSCAAS is: What kind of marks do you really think you are capable of getting?

Mostly 10/10, mostly 7/10, mostly 5/10,  
mostly 3/10, mostly 1/10.

Similarly, one of the items of BLASIS is:

When we have tests I get good marks, most of  
the time, sometimes, hardly ever.

The score of the BSCAAS could range from 30 (positive academic self-concept) to 6 (negative academic self-concept)

while the scores on the BLASIS could range from 18 (good academic self-image) to 0 (poor academic self-image). Magsud (1991:27) concluded that academic self-concept is significantly positively associated with academic achievement. Marsh (1990:646) affirms that a result of this type constitutes a systematic demonstration of the fact that prior academic self-concept influences subsequent academic achievements.

Verma & Bagley (1982) point out that expectancies are significant ingredients of academic achievement. What they mean is that the image of the future merges the present and the future in a manner that links the two, the specific (present) to the general and long run, the future. The significance of achievement for the future is highlighted by Matseke (1981:145-146). He remarks that achievement ensures the allocation of learners to statuses within the socio-economic structure. The knowledge, skills and vocations that the learner acquires on completion of a programme is of supreme importance to his future career. Richter & Griesel (1986:13) link gaining grades with planning for the future. An even more direct linkage between academic achievement and the image of the future is formulated by Mkhabela (1986:346). He offers that people with high expectancies of success in their

undertakings usually perform well. Moving to the concept of role, people who have high scholastic achievement expect to fulfil future roles successfully and they ought, indeed, to be more likely to achieve them.

Bar-Tal, Kfir, Bar-Zohar & Chen (1980:54) state that the perception of locus of control is an important personality variable that relates to academic achievement in schools. Internals tend to attain greater success in academic tasks than do externals.

#### 2.4.6 Future orientation

Future orientation refers to understanding and judgement concerning one's future, thus it has a cognitive and evaluative component. Nesser (1985:11) declares that there is a teleological dimension in human life which implies that man can constitute an image of the future. Given this view, orientation to the future involves discharging the duty to wager the future, facing the future and challenging it with intentions and expectations. Dealing with the future in this way is directed at something which is not yet there, something which is still to come and even something new.

These images of the future cannot be predictive in the

sense of presenting some unshakable future reality. They are the nearest approximation of what will constitute the content, affect and the time span of action which is future directed (Mwamwenda, 1989:48). Needs and plans are essential dimensions of future orientation. These components are related to the individual's purposive manipulation of the environment.

Hund (1982: 14-29) remarks that in setting out to conquer a challenging environment, the individual has to deal with the issue of values and means and ends to values when he attempts to map up his future. He is also expected as a contemplator of the environment (Stone & Church, 1984:222) to create values which will determine the design of this future. These values have to do with the need for a decent standard of living, opportunities for children, good jobs, decent housing, a happy home life and better educational facilities (Motshabi, 1993:33).

#### 2.4.7 Future shock

One of the most personal and direct consequences of the rapid pace of change in society is the psychological disorientation which Toffler (1983:16) calls self-society disjunction. Toffler (1983:16) states:

"So profoundly revolutionary is this new civilisation that it challenges all old assumptions. Old ways of thinking, old formulas, dogmas and ideologies, no matter how cherished or how useful in the past, no longer fit the facts. The world that is fast emerging from the clash of new values and technologies, new geopolitical relationships, new life-styles and modes of communication, demands wholly new ideas and analogies, classifications and concepts. We cannot cram the embryonic world of tomorrow into yesterday's conventional cubbyholes. Nor are the orthodox attitudes or moods appropriate" (Toffler, 1983:16).

The problem is, therefore, one in which there exists a gap between the human perceptual, intellectual and emotional ability to adapt to the world and the pace of change (Shane Tabler, 1981). Ginzberg (1980:12) writes that future shock can be counteracted through the structuring of an image of the future which is viable on the basis of basic orientations and world views entertained by individuals.

The conditioned ability to anticipate future eventualities plays a key role in adaptations to change. A person who copes poorly with change is one who exhibits little conscious concern with the future and has restricted conceptual skills for thinking competently about the future. He cannot handle the emergent society of tomorrow in any competent, comprehensive and systematic way (Robertson, 1985:86-87).

## 2.5 The structuring and promotion of an image of the future in educational situations

The focus of this discussion is on how learners are induced by educators to ponder future possibilities in educational situations. The educational situations are structured in, respectively, Western technological societies, traditional societies and societies in which enculturation has taken place.

The discussion of a future-oriented education in the three segments of society referred to in the foregoing, calls attention to a distinction which is made between closed/restricted and open/creative images of the future (Erny, 1981:50). To postulate the existence of a polarity of closed/restricted and open/creative images of the future, is also to admit

that there is a wide variety of images of the future ranged between the two modes of the images of the future. The image of the future of the enculturated man will fall in this category of images along the scale (Wolf, 1985:47).

Developmental considerations will guide the discussion of how images of the future are structured by children. It is imperative to catalogue the course of the child's progression towards maturity during the primary school years, that is, the age-group between six and eleven years. A reasonable consideration of the following categories will provide an index of the conceptions of the future entertained by the children and lead to the identification of some pedagogical approaches which accommodate the characteristics of primary school children. The categories are: awareness of self and a sense of personal identity, cognitive development, opportunities for exploration and play (Mwamwenda, 1989:79-93, Dreyer & Duminy, 1983:38; Harmse, 1982:116-119).

It should be obvious that maturational factors, that is, the existence of a ground plan in the patterning of concepts of the future, admittedly play a significant part in generating an image of the future. It is, however, systematic instruction and specific education which impacts the consciousness of learners

and triggers the protension of thought into the future.

#### 2.5.1 Awareness of self and separate identity

According to Erikson (Mwamwenda, 1987:347) the child's development at this stage is characterised by the conflict of industry versus inferiority. Behr (1980:117) maintains that this is the primary school stage, when the child wants to "win recognition by producing things". This is the stage when the child develops a sense for competence and the perfect foil of this is a sense of inferiority.

The great event is the entry into the school where he is exposed to the technology of his society, books, arts and crafts, microscopes and tape recorders. With the onset of the industrial age, the child now enters the world of knowledge and work (Meece & Blumenfeld, 1988:514). Successful experiences give the child a sense of industry, self-confidence and competence and mastery while failure brings a sense of inadequacy and inferiority (Van Niekerk, 1987:31). Comparison with peers in the school setting becomes increasingly important (Woods, 1983:2-3). A negative evaluation of oneself compared to others is particularly damaging.

In the course of family, peer and school education,

children in Western technological societies acquire needs which influence their orientation to the future. They are the need for approval, the need for achievement and the need for self-assertion (Ferron, 1983:8-9). Through the development of the self, made possible by identification with significant others, the child's need for approval manifests as does his need to avoid disapproval. According to Asendorpf & Baudonniere (1993:88):

"...this capacity for self-awareness sets the stage for self-conscious social emotions such as embarrassment, pride and shame that are triggered by self-evaluation in the presence of others" (Asendorpf & Baudonniers, 1993:88).

Parsons & Kaczala (1982:321) aver that children in Western technological societies are educated on the assumption that achievement is an appropriate educational goal. Among the attitudes that the child learns in this educational context is the notion that with hard work and effort an individual can achieve success and a person's self-worth can be defined by his ability to achieve that success (Harker, 1984:121). Ezewu (1983:14) declares that children from Western advanced countries learn realistic standards of self-appraisal and, thereby, develop the capacity for self-appraisal of successful achievement. The achievement syndrome is reinforced by reward and

approval from home, peers and teachers. As Behr (1988:117) offers "Children need to experience success at this stage, otherwise they may despair and consider themselves doomed to mediocrity or inadequacy" (Behr, 1980:117).

A reasonable consideration of the value system of Western technological societies reveals that the assertion of self is an expected and admired form of behaviour. Especially in the context of the peer-group the individual child at this stage is not accepted unconditionally.

He must prove himself and earn his position as a member of the group. Indeed, within his peer group the primary school child can achieve status on his own merits irrespective of adult approval. The peer group is a temporary prop to help him build a positive self-image (Dreyer & Duminy, 1983:41); Ferron (1983:21).

Through these socio-educational processes the child internalises those attitudes which reinforce his basic need to assert himself or express himself aggressively. Thus random and possibly destructive aggression is directed into channels of usefulness and awareness of achievement. Commitment to a scheme of futures education explains how parents in advanced technological societies apply regimens to their

children. In this cultural context, the future is open and positive. This generates in children preparedness to delay consummation of pleasure in the present in favour of future rewards and elicits the pursuit of excellence and achievement as well as success in the future. This reinforces the child's motivation to constructively engage with goals localised in the future (Grove & Hauptfleisch, 1982:131).

In the traditional context, in order to render children of between six years and eleven years free of objective dependencies on parents and, therefore, self-reliant, they are placed under the tutelage of bigger boys and bigger girls. Under this monitor system, the role of the parent is to apportion praise and censure of the children's activities - no small reinforcer of a positive or negative self-concept. This is an exercise in training the child to accept responsibility (Mahlangu, 1983:6).

Another facet of traditional education which enhances the self-awareness of children is that they are important objects of rites, an exercise in which the child's stages of growth are accentuated in rites de passage to mark development towards adulthood (Ezewu, 1983:52). The aim of this type of education was to instigate an image of the future in children.

It centred around preparation for membership of the tribe and selection of a few of the learners for tribal leadership. This cultural image of the future was endorsed by the young people who competed for places in communal life, roles in ceremonial observances and as pedagogues in tribal schools (Nyakutse, 1985:101).

In enculturated Tswana society parenthood involves dealing with the person in middle childhood with a view to helping him develop an image of the future and adulthood. Child-rearing, therefore, has a substantive goal, the independence of the child in the future domain (Lawrence & Roodt, 1984:16).

According to Ximba (1987:122) elite Batswana children in middle childhood, to a lesser and greater extent, with the aid of educators, learn about the world and gain efficacy and competence in dealing with the world. They are encouraged to view themselves as active, effective and independent individuals and this generates a great degree of self-esteem on the part of primary school children.

Mkhabela (1985:56), Matseke, (1981:139) and Kruger (1990:74) express the view that when the child at this stage discovers that his parents and teachers respond with confidence in his performance, he experiences a

breakthrough from the disturbing confinement to the experience of the present. Therefore, the constitution of an image of the future, is specified here as the behaviour which makes possible progression to adulthood (Van den Berg, 1980:108).

"Thus past experiences, which include the effect of socialisation processes, as well as the individual's actions, cumulate to produce one's world view of which aspiration and expectations are a key component ... aspirations represent, in part, an internalisation of objective probabilities for success - a calculus each individual performs, perhaps more unconsciously than consciously, of the likelihood he or she has of achieving a given role (McClelland, 1990:103).

Garner & Raudenbush (1990:252) declare that some lower class children have not gained exposure to experiences which reinforce their self-awareness, which enable them to reflect the future perspective and to contemplate values in terms of which that perspective is developed. In line with this argument, such children have not been surrounded by images of success, to be able to see the connection between effort and reward and to believe that they are capable of achieving ambitious goals in a similar fashion as their more privileged counterparts (De Clerq, 1984:5).

### 2.5.2 Cognitive stimulation

In middle childhood, children enter the concrete-operational stage during which they learn to make logical inferences, to mentally process physical transformations and theories about the world. The stage is referred to as concrete operational because the child is capable of engaging in a logical process of reasoning on the basis of concrete evidence (Mwamwenda, 1989:66).

Dreyer & Duminy (1983:37) write that this is a typical stage for the primary school child. They elaborate that Piaget (Dreyer & Duminy, 1983) says that the child at this stage is able to conserve, that is, he is capable of reversing a process in his mind and to discern the unchanging quantity of water even if it is poured into glasses of unequal magnitude. Mental operations means action which can be carried out in thought and they are reversible (Dreyer & Duminy, 1983:38). Harmse (1982:116) attributes to the child at this stage a more business-like, gnostic attitude towards the environment.

The process of metacognition, the monitoring of one's thinking, goals and actions, leads to a more sophisticated ability to think about the future.

The pre-operational child is less egocentric but still experiences difficulties with role-taking. His capacity for realistic action is influenced by a variety of educational interventions by adults who provide systematic instruction and undertake the transmission of culturally sanctioned images of the future (Ginzberg, 1980:40).

The entire educational endeavour is organised by parents and teachers, around how children should adapt in an organised way to changes brought about by the immanence of the future. The child's educators guide him to align his conceptions with the collectively shared image of the future (Borghini, 1983). Children are encouraged to integrate successive stimuli in such a manner that they seem to be occurring simultaneously, thus acquiring a time horizon which incorporates the present and the future. The relating of data is viewed by educators as taking place at the cognitive level where the future can be understood in terms of what is reflected in the calendar. It is when the learners have accomplished that, that they are recognised as expressing a viable image of the future (Richie & Bichard, 1988:18).

Williams & El-Khawas (1987:39) and Nel (1980:399) maintain that education in Sub-Saharan Africa involved the imposition of education towards compliance. The

father plays a significant part in educating the boy to acquire skills like mock-fighting and herding cattle. The mother follows a similar regimen in instructing the girl formally in the performance of domestic chores.

The orientation does not compel children at this level of development to be perfect in the discharge of their tasks. During this phase, they are being prepared for what is believed to be their calling in life. Their educators are constantly referring them to their future status as adults and their successes and failures are evaluated in terms of the children's willingness to comply with the educational imperatives (Mwamwenda, 1989:285). Musaazi (1988:102) remarks that there was much cognitive stimulation in this mode of education if its appropriateness for village existence is conceded. Education involved the inculcation of relevant knowledge, appropriate attitudes and the application of the principle of readiness prior to the impartation of knowledge.

Luthuli (1981:81) contends that acculturation has been in operation for long in Black societies, Batswanas inclusive. They have, as a result of cultural diffusion between their cultures and Western culture, acquired a new image of themselves. Education is conducted according to the new need system.

In the Tswana enculturative environment (Lekhela, 1992:11) knowledge that is imparted to children at the primary level of schooling is at a high level of conceptualisation and symbolisation. Lekhela (1992) argues that the more elaborated and vital cognitive tasks demand that the child should isolate himself and subject himself to given logical systems. When 1644 primary school pupils were requested to identify aspects of schooling they liked best in twelve primary schools in two Nigerian urban areas, children from these enculturative milieus endorsed academic tasks. The reason is that their parents had access to disembedded thought, that is, thought about other thoughts, and there was a match between their cognitive skills and the cognitive skills imparted in the schools (Ezewu, 1983:26).

Shane & Tabler (1981:69) indicate that in learning-teaching situations in the school, content-bred competencies are generated. School education helps children develop certain ways of thinking and evaluating which suggest that they can control the future. Harley (1984:201) suggests that good quality schooling places pupils in a better position to conceptualise an image of the future of the kind of world to be sought in the future, including the future - focused role image to identify with (Lindhard, 1993:18-19).

### 2.5.3 Figures for identifications

Dreyer & Duminy (1983:41) aver that parents give the child at this age level educational support both materially and morally. Gradually, however, they withdraw their surveillance and accord more autonomy and independence to the child. They still do serve as models and in this capacity they expect propriety in the behaviour of children and impose punishment and reward. The adulation of the peer group fulfils self-esteem needs which manifest in the desire to be highly regarded by others (Mkhabela, 1981:47). Thus the peer group is a vehicle for self-expression. Group experiences reinforce negative and positive self-image. In a way this depends on parental influences and the degree of social knowledge children have acquired. The three broad areas of social knowledge are social inference, social relationships and social regulation. Inference is the ability to develop ideas about the thoughts of others, their feelings and their intentions. This ability enables children to understand obligations of friendship, authority relations and the relations between the individual and the law (Kagan & Lang, 1991:41-42).

The identity of children at this developmental level typically centres on the future which is displaced into the present.

Identifying with significant others, they imagine themselves in large part to be what they are to become. They expect that others will relate to them on the understanding that they have achieved the wisdom, responsibility and versatility that represent personal goals (Craig, 1986:269). Parents and teachers also see them in terms of their potential. They do not, however, merge the present and the future in their conception of the children. There is an accumulated memory of past images which dominate the adults' anticipations of the future for their children. The images of the future of adults and children have congruence without having consensus - evidence of a crisis of trust (Shane & Tyler, 1986:32).

Geertz (1983:407) and Dreyer (1980:86) allege that children use predecessors as figures of identification in traditional societies. These role models have played a significant part in reign histories, acts of valour and have contributed to the survival of the tribe.

The children, therefore, anticipated an implicit and well-known future. Hero-worship of and apprenticeship to members of the older generation guaranteed the children the expertise necessary for the implementation of an image of the future (Nestvogel, 1984).

In situations where enculturation has taken place identificatory behaviour is not only in relation to predecessors but also vis a vis generalised others. Generalised others are a broad social group immediately surrounding an individual and with whom attitudes and ideals are shared. Among the attitudes of the generalised other which Batswana children at this phase have inherited are the norms and values of Western technological society which are enshrined in achievement orientation (Matseke, 1981:144). The notion that with effort and application, a person can attain high levels of success academically and occupationally is internalised by Batswana children, and it motivates them to act in accordance with an envisaged image of the future (Atkinson, 1979:6).

Mohanoe (1983:226) notes the exceptionally high academic and occupational aspirations of black children and he alleges that these are shared by their parents. Mwamwenda (1989:91) attribute this type of achievement orientation to the influence of parental images of the future than to any academic one they may have acquired in the schools.

#### 2.5.4 Opportunities for exploration

Mahlangu (1983:23) offers that the child who recognizes relationships between himself and the

persons and objects in his world is engaged in the process of significance attribution. The primary school child adopts stances and attitudes in exploring the world (Van Niekerk, 1987:20). The interest demonstrated by the child is in the immediate milieu. Equipped with a gnostic attitude towards the environment and a business-like approach to the world, he engages in a search for meaning. Sonnekus (1985:52) writes that it is peculiar to the secure child that he voyages in his world, encounters things and people, actively enters into relationships with them, and gradually learns to know them.

In this respect the following statement by Langeveld (Sonnekus, 1985:52) is meaningful: "The child and world mean something to each other, on condition that the child is active, goes out of himself, comes to the world - in short, if he explores and experiences it".

According to Grove & Hauptfleisch (1982:356) the child gains insight into situations through actual experience rather than through engaging in rational logical argument. Discovery learning is, therefore, more appropriate at this phase since it permits the learners to make discoveries of phenomena through investigation and experimentation.

Educators in Western technological societies recognise

that the demands of the future beg for an exploratory and adaptive approach to the world. Shane & Tabler (1981:21) offer that active and dynamic experiences, sponsored by the schools but realised beyond their confines, help to satisfy the need to explore the environment on the pupil's part. Service learning, involving contact with real-world situations in the community supplies an added ingredient.

#### 2.5.5 Play

As the child's play develops, so he develops from engaging in play as a sensory experience in and for itself. Ferron (1983:87) reckons that the play of the child at the primary school stage is a means of experimenting with life, accumulating and enriching experience. He observes that the adult world is too overpowering for the child and he can only participate in it in so far as he can represent it in play. He cannot drive his father's truck but he can run along with an old motor car tyre and picture himself driving his car, thereby becoming acquainted with certain mechanical principles of propulsion.

Hoy & Miskel (1982:57), Behr (1980) and Ezewu (1983:100-101) offer that schools in Western technological societies are models or epitomes of the larger societies they serve.

This gives the children themselves a chance to participate in school governance and is a way of incorporating the spirit of play.

Mahlangu (1984:43) maintains that the child learns to differentiate between the objects and specimens he manipulates in play, attributes meanings to them and begins to make predictions and entertain prognostications about them. Parents and teachers enter his world imaginatively and in doing so bring perspectives from their own world, including the future time perspective.

Mwamwenda (1989:289) states that at the developmental phase spanning six to eleven in traditional settings, children engage in make-believe games, for example, warfare, marriage, building and making utensils as well as imitating their elders' recreational activities.

Ferron (1983:4) writes that children often portray such games with a high degree of accuracy, as they happen in the adult world, but sometimes as they would have liked them to happen.

It is plausible to assume that the child takes recourse to enacting adult roles in order to give expression to thoughts and feelings which will be

brought to the fore in the formulation of an image of the future. For example, in this way, the play activity of hunting shaded gradually into the responsibility for which it was a preparation (Dreyer, 1980:85). There was, therefore, as much future orientation in the play as there was in the work of children in middle childhood.

Middle childhood in enculturated society is marked by a high activity level and gradual physiological development which helps the children to develop their motor skills and co-ordination.

Richter & Griesel (1986:1) observe that the Batswana tend to adopt an ascetic attitude to life and consider that it is wrong to enjoy themselves. These attitudes are in turn inculcated with children and they come to believe that enjoyment is bad and the milieu has nothing favourable to offer them.

What seems to be at issue here is that eventually the child is liberated from the fantasies dominating his play and this ushers in reality - oriented and adaptive behaviour patterns which facilitate the image of the future. According to Sonnekus (1985:52) this coming into grips with the real world as it is, is a strong indication that the child is becoming more mature.

## 2.6 Conclusion

An exploration of the role of self-concept and other relevant variables, on the evolution of an image of the future has been undertaken. A systematic demonstration of similarities and differences in the forms of procedure in the implementation of a future-oriented education in Western technological societies, traditional societies and enculturative societies, has occurred. It has been established that developmental characteristics of childhood such as the development of the self, the disposition to explore and play, inter alia feature prominently in the development of images of the future. These categories are targeted by educators in their cultivation of an image of the future in children.

FAMILY AND SCHOOL INFLUENCES ON THE FUTURE

IMAGE OF BATSWANA ADOLESCENTS

3.1 Orientation:

A consideration of futures education as dispensed in the home and family requires that a fresh look be taken at the whole issue of salient characteristics of the developmental stage of adolescence as it manifests in groups of children in Western technological, tradition-orientated and enculturated societies. The developmental perspective provides a view of the adolescent as a future adult, a boy or a girl; (Sonnekus, 1985:54; Ferron 1983:126) who is faced with developmental tasks and particular challenges which must be mastered. The home and the school are viewed as responding to the adolescents to monitor and maintain their proper progression from adolescence to adulthood in accordance with personalised future images and the future imagery collectively shared by society. The analysis of images of societies in differing social settings, namely, Western-orientated, traditional and enculturated, is an attempt at understanding basic orientations in child upbringing in these societies.

The aspect of basic orientations that is of particular relevance to the development of images of the future is presumed rigidity and capacity for change. The polarities of closed/restricted and open/creative images and the rich

diversity of future imagery located along the range of the continuum of closed and open images of the future, has reference here. Traditional societies provide a context in which children are educated to adopt a view of the development of society as rigidly fixed and restricted. On the other hand, in Western technological societies values are not considered as fixed rigidly; man is conceived of as making himself. Education in that context is implemented through the mechanism of drawing the learners' attention to the need to change and adapt to change and the cost of not changing certain modes of doing. A third force comprises individuals who view peoples' and society's possibilities for development as capable of slow evolution and change. This orientation stems from the transition in which an enculturative society finds itself between the cultural values of its cultural group and the cosmopolitanism of Western technological society. Therefore, futures education in enculturative societies is constantly influenced by the historicity of the learners (Van Niekerk, 1987:15). Mohanoe (1983:117) elaborates and observes that even if the black child becomes westernised through exposure to schooling, education and urbanization, his historicity will still affect his future existence. By historicity is meant past progress towards adulthood, that is, the past history of the relationships the learner has been involved in or has participated in. In this chapter the focus will be on the effects of cultural factors and child-rearing on the conceptualisation of the image of the

future. It is clear, however, that to highlight the skills required for implementing a future-orientated education across a variety of cultural settings, the social needs and psychological needs of individuals in these environments must be understood (Kerr & Collangels, 1988; Pedersen, 1987:18; Ivey & Gue, 1990:36). The family as a primary educational institution and the school as a secondary educational agency are viewed as spearheading the development of skills for dealing with futurity in adolescents, in the framework of educational situations.

### 3.2 The influence of the family

#### 3.2.1 Cognitive development

In Piaget's (Dreyer & Duminy 1983:61) developmental scheme the hallmark of the adolescents' cognitive changes is the development of formal operational thought. The emergence of new cognitive abilities enables the adolescent to assimilate abstract propositions and solve abstract problems in terms of all-inclusive hypothetical possibilities rather than in terms of possibilities as constrained by the here and now (Behr, 1980:25). For example, if an adolescent is presented with a pendulum problem, he considers all possible determinants of the rate of oscillation before he begins. He systematically varies the factors one by one, observes results and

draws appropriate conclusions, that is, identifies the factor which controls the rate of oscillation. The intellectual processing is not only abstract but also speculative and free from circumstantial and evanescent stimuli in the environment. It entails thinking about possibilities and the contemplation of what might be. Adolescents, therefore, show an ability to think ahead and plan.

The processes depicted above do not happen in a vacuum. Many of the dynamics within the family, especially the parenting techniques of the parents, the structure and social circumstances of the family, are important influences on cognitive development (Lindhard, 1992:19). Three broad sets of influences can be put forward. Firstly, psychological studies have shown that some types of home environment are associated with certain personality characteristics that predispose individuals to respond in various ways to education (Moulden, 1980). The family is a contextual effect on the cognitive development of the adolescent through the influence on personality development and response to the educational process. The cognitive advances and the direction cognitive development takes is strongly dependent on the ways of perceiving and thinking and symbolically elaborating that is induced and encouraged in the child by the parents (Ezewu, 1983:14-15). Aspects of parental

behaviour like providing reading materials, encouraging the adolescent with homework, furnishing him with video-taped and tape recorded educational cassettes and discussing stimulating and controversial topics of social, economic and political significance, condition and give direction to the course and rate of cognitive development of adolescents in Western technological societies (Nyakutse, 1985:185). Educational attainment tends to be influenced by individualist competitiveness and in "good" home backgrounds adolescents are sensitised to the survival value of scientific enquiry in a Western technological context. Behavioral roles are upheld to the adolescent which stress individual potential, intellect and aptitudes as well as competition as processes that operate on the basis of these characteristics of the individual (Garner & Raudenbush, 1991:252).

The home background of most adolescents in Western technological societies facilitates interactions among individuals. The quality and frequency of interactions influence cognitive development. Predominantly, families in Western technological societies have the following distinctive characteristics: parents have high educational and income levels and have the ability to engage in rational cognition, that is, cognition that is ultimately concerned with establishing inherent

relationships between phenomena. The parent - child discussions, extra reading material and recreational facilities facilitate adeptness in specifying, differentiating and generalising personal experience on the part of adolescents. A whole attitude toward knowledge and "getting to know" is established (Ginzberg, 1980:12). Specifying, differentiating and generalising personal experience means that the adolescent attributes significance to things he encounters and reacts to. His insight is deepened and he attains knowledge based on personal experience, a basis for continued education (Nyakutse, 1985:104). Thirdly, economic security which prevails in many families in Western technological societies, material and experiential prosperity, enables parents to send their children to the best schools and these are "gateways to university education which, in time, lead again to high educational qualifications" (Ezewu, 1980:27). Amatewee, (1991:23) refutes Ginzberg's (1980), view that academic aspirations are an irreversible process which coincides with the individual's development and which ends up in a compromise between interest, capacities, values and opportunities at age eighteen. Amatewee, (1991:23) maintains that adolescents tend to imitate their parents and so aspire to be as educated as or more educated than their parents. The opportunity for pursuing academic studies, of attaching significance

to pursuing knowledge for knowledge's sake, is contingent on how rich or poor a person's family is. In cases where the level of income is such that mere survival is all-important, the child is hampered in his cognitive development (Isralowitz & Singer, 1987:227; Garbers, 1981:90).

It is the capacity to appreciate reasons for and consequences of action which are cultivated by parents in adolescents which enables adolescents to set themselves long-term goals. They are guided by parents to rigorously work out the connection between the present and the future by coming into terms with the fact that hard work and present activity result in the attainment of goals localised in the future (McClelland, 1990).

Dreyer (1979:43-44) argues forcibly that if the attainment of adulthood is the ultimate concern of the child, then the child needs guidance on how to proceed in order to achieve adult status. The adolescent needs to be helped to develop an independent life pattern and to contemplate and structure a future role. A "clear future perspective, a clear aim in life and definite future investment" (Dreyer & Duminy, 1983:200) is involved in the educational acts of both the adolescent and the educators. The child is pulled and pushed towards adulthood by his educators who

invite him to responsibility (Garbers et al, 1983:9). Thus the parents of the adolescent act by involving themselves in his vocational preparation and his formulation of ideals. They provide him with political socialisation, help him evolve a philosophy of life and give him space to plan his future. Gradually a plan, a sense of direction and an aim loom large before him.

With supportive upbringing by significant others, the child formulates a spontaneous frame of reference in terms of which he interprets experience. The child encounters the world from a position of strength in that he is equipped with intentionality, views the environment as the context for the realisation of his potential and determines what phenomena in the milieu can be accommodated within his frame of reference (Sonnekus, 1985:85).

Dreyer (1980:83) remarks that in the education of the adolescent, a supportive and creative atmosphere were created for the pedagogical forming of sentiments and attitudes in traditional societies. The stimulation of the intellectual capacity tends to be motivated by individualistic competitiveness and it is less important to individuals who live in environments where adherence to group norms and the attainment of group cohesion are of paramount importance (Van den

Berg, 1980:108). In similar vein, Luthuli (1981:44) alleges that traditionally, adults set out to consciously and deliberately restrain their children from asserting their intellectual independence. Parents set upon the child to discourage him from engaging in flights of imagination and spontaneous self-expression until they almost achieved their end by the time the children reached adolescence. Deliberate and systematic influence is exerted by the mature person on the immature individual to confine his cogitations on future imagery to the Tswana traditional contexts. Sanders, Mckim & Mckim (1988:439) allege the existence among African groups of polygamous family aggregations and in this structure a man usually has several wives who occupy amalapa (homesteads) which are part of a bigger whole, the kraal. Although the direct parents are firstly responsible for the upbringing of the children, the whole kraal takes collective responsibility for the children in the kraal (Hlatshwako 1989:56).

The most important educational event in the life of the Motswana adolescent in traditional society was the initiation ceremony. According to Nxumalo (1988:102) the contents of education in the initiation school, were geared to the cultivation of ideal personality traits. They were a preparation for marital responsibilities, for child-rearing and training,

effective participation in tribal society and the acquisition of future status as an adult (Nestvogel, 1984:112). The nature of these curricular offerings suggest that traditional education, as implemented in the initiation school, was not directed at the transmission of knowledge for knowledge's sake but it was the instrument of fitting the individual in the community (Mohano, 1983:139). The curriculum, enshrined in the folk-tales, legends, myths and proverbs could not achieve its maxi-efficiency without the proper orientation of the adolescents to their traditional roles in society. In the bogwera (initiation school) for boys and bojale for girls, the child's humanisation, that is, the development of human attributes in him or her, was achieved through educational help from adults (Maqsood & Rouhani, 1990:829-830).

The Motswana adolescent traditionally was not a person who "knows that he knows", who would penetrate his consciousness into the past, present and future. Boateng (1979:17) argues that traditional African societies did not have open to them the different occupations and specialisations that Western science and technology have made available. The institution of initiation, sponsored by local families acting in concert, was futuristic in orientation in so far as it provided an education aimed at survival. The

privations, the endurance of pain and seclusion were a necessary means to attaining social adulthood (Petje, 1985:19). In this perspective, Batswana adolescents were guided towards full adulthood and became progressively conscious of the mode of existence of their compatriots (Luthuli, 1981:2).

The summary and essence of this educational endeavour is that provided by Hauser & Anderson (1991:263) who view a functional family as a context in which parents prepare the becoming child (ontwikkelende kind) for the demands of the future. Education is instituted for the future. What parents do for the children is future directed. Mohanoe (1983:146) alleges that black culture lies somewhere between the old traditional and the modern technological western cultures. He regards this development as one of socio-cultural ambivalence, a situation in which the adolescent is unsuccessfully trying to make the best of black and white worlds.

Dreyer & Duminy (1983:54) concur that black adolescents are faced with serious adaptation problems as they try to come to terms with conflicting norms, principles and values which come in the wake of enculturation. Somewhat more pragmatically, Nel (1981:397) argues that it is imperative to reflect on the issue of what the cognitive orientations are of

learners who are involved in a situation of enculturation. Such reflection has far reaching consequences for a conception of the role of the family that conducts futures education for children reared in an enculturative environment.

Luthuli (1981:61) states that the family structure of black societies in Southern Africa has been transformed as a result of urbanisation, modernisation and industrialisation. The adolescent responding to transformations in the family and reflecting the ever increasing influence from other systems in the environment, demands that the family help him conquer and know the new and challenging world (Becvar & Becvar, 1982:215). Mahlangu (1983:51) writes that the enculturated Pedi and Tsonga families, give their offspring the greatest guarantee of security, happiness and welfare. They support the child in cognitive growth.

Lekhela (1992:7) offers that Batswana parents motivate adolescents and young adults to show more conscious concern for the scholastic facets of existence. McClelland (1990:103-104) argues that adolescents and their families internalise the life chances offered by the opportunity structure and give attention to the scholastic and intellectual dimensions of their lives. Lawrence & Roodt (1984:68) attribute to the cognitive

engagement patterns of Batswana adolescents, that is, their view of school assignments as important, to the efficacy of their parents in parenting. The upbringing of the adolescents involves the fostering of decision-making skills, personal independence, self-reliance, initiative and critical thinking (Harley, 1983:201; Holloway, Gorman & Fuller, 1987:499-500).

An important consideration is that adolescents in enculturated Batswana environments do not demonstrate high scholastic achievement because they are brighter genetically than children in a traditional setting. The accelerative cognitive development occurs largely as a response to a variable range of stimulation which demands from them incorporation, accommodation, adjustment and reconciliation. Incorporation, accommodation and reconciliation mean the processing of those events, facts and concepts that fit in the already existing cognitive networks but which are not different in some respects from them. This novel information is reconciled and/or assimilated into images which have already been consolidated. So to speak, the information "anchors on" and "hooks into" (Olivier, 1981) an already existent cognitive structure.

Characteristics of enculturated situations are the

existence of an expanded range as well as an adequate range and a systematic ordering of stimulation sequences (Ghaffarian, 1987:565; Armes & Ward, 1989:73; Crouter & McHale 1993:200).

It is in the area of language development, particularly with respect to the abstract dimension of verbal functioning, that the enculturated Motswana family manifest the greatest degree of cognitive stimulation of their offspring. Fundamental to the learning of the other subjects in the curriculum is the mastery of good English as it is the medium of instruction in high schools. The most striking phenomenon is that Setswana does not have many of the technical terms required to gain mastery of cognate disciplines and there is an abundance of these in English (Weeks, 1993:56). Parents in enculturated situations not only provide good models of written and spoken English, they also use language primarily as a means of communication. Thus the family is a dynamic system which is marked by change as information flow is shifted within (De Bruin, 1991:36; Becvar & Becvar 1982:13).

The following illustration of the reciprocal communication between a father and an adolescent illustrates how strong family contextual effects are on cognitive development. A father requests his son

to carry his chair to an open community meeting. Before the meeting starts, the boy is instructed to sit at some distance from where the meeting is held within hearing range. On the way home the father interrogates the boy on what he remembers about the deliberations, questions him on his opinion about the different arguments presented and the solutions he considers appropriate and the lines of action he would prefer in certain situations. From the boy's responses, the father draws his conclusion about the boy's areas of concern, his powers of reasoning and his ability to abstract from concrete situations and to analyse (Nestvogel, 1984:113).

Adolescents' personal clarification, discovery and invention of these values enables them to construct images of the future by deliberate design.

Mohanoé (1983:149) opines that instead of the enculturative and educative situation one would expect, one finds a directionless and frustrating contra-pedagogical situation which contributes to the fund of problems encountered by the black adolescent in his attempt to get education on his way to adulthood. (Uchendu, in: de Vos & Romanucci-Ross, 1975:271) asserts that modernisation inevitably leads to dramatic ecological, cultural, rearrangement. The shifting loyalty is called detribalisation.

This concept implies the existence of a tribal order of society which is the desirable state. The logical implication is that detachment from the tribal order results in normlessness. The image of the detribalised African - the counterpart of the marginal man - who "stands in the corridors of two cultures but belongs to neither is an ethnographic myth" (Uchendu, in: De Vos & Romanucci-Ross, 1975:271). Gluckman (1988:1) argues that the outlook on life is situation-orientated. Batswana families have derived from the condition of enculturation an educational approach which cultivates an adaptive pattern of life. Murray (1980:16) argues that radical cultural transformations have taken place in the fabric of Tswana society but the Batswana remain stubbornly Tswana and, therefore, tradition-orientated. His characterisation of the cultural evolution of the Batswana is that their culture is constantly being redefined according to new criteria with greater modernisation occurring but this does not mean that individuals reject the laws from which they derive a certain measure of security.

The purpose of this analysis is to provide a tool for the explanation of the complex network of assumptions which are appropriate in examining the future imagery of adolescents in an enculturated situation. These images are incited by parents and are conceptualised in terms firstly of universal values: a decent

standard of living, opportunities for children, technological advances, good health, good careers and better educational facilities.

A situation obtains in which adolescents must learn what to want the way they learn anything else. They are challenged by adult family members to learn the range and quality of experience which are theirs if they are willing to connect their cognitive engagement with academic tasks and other learning experiences, with the demands of the future. Confronted with the intellectual challenges soon to come with adulthood, adolescents are encouraged by adults to impose on future challenges an interpretational code which is based on stable values derived from values education at home. Education at home emphasises the importance of values which must be developed if the learners are to master and control the future (Becvar & Becvar 1982:36).

### 3.2.2      **Autonomy and independence**

Verstraeten's (1980:178) view is that adolescence is that phase during which there is generally a first grasp of the idea that one's own life belongs to oneself and represents a time unit with a future that must be accounted for. It is at this period in life that primary status becomes more significant than

derived status which is possessed as a consequence of belonging to the family of origin. Primary status gives the adolescent a sense of adequacy as a person. The adolescent is less dependent on parental approval than he was earlier on as a child. He is persistent in the formulation of goals and decisions and perseveres in the postponement of present pleasure for future gratifications and long-range rewards. The adolescent exercises more initiative, more planfulness, responsibility and executive independence in decision-making. He has respect for the demands of reality (Garbers et al., 1983:8-9).

Becoming independent requires separation. The adolescent closely re-examines and re-evaluates the family's interpretative system, that is, the rules, values and boundaries set up through parental instructions. He then channels his behaviour along lines which are appropriate to him as an individual and not in accordance with parental coercion and persuasion. To accommodate developing autonomy in adolescents the educational situation is structured in such a manner that there is increasing flexibility of the family boundaries. There is a shift in the parent-child relationship to balance independence and limits (Becvar & Becvar, 1982:36).

Schmidt-Low-Beer, (1991:181) declares that the

transition from adolescence to adulthood is accompanied by prolonged conflicts which are marked by varying degrees of guilt, frustration and, at times, a total breakdown in intergenerational communication. Ferron (1983) alleges that when faced with situations of confrontation with the parents, the adolescents in Western technological societies adopt an aggressive stance towards the parents. This form of behaviour in adolescents is viewed by Ferron (1983:132) as a function of the extended period of adolescence in Western technological societies where acceptance as adults is not readily given to young people.

Josselson, (in: Craig, 1986:386) postulates five watersheds of adolescence which throw light on the phenomenon of achieving greater autonomy by the adolescent. They are completion of education, entry into the labour market, departure from the parental household, marriage and establishment of one's own household. All of these changes reduce parents' supervision and responsibility and increase the responsibility of the adolescent. Emancipation essentially means gains in the freedom to actualise the potential as a person.

Ferreira, (in: Sonnekus, 1985:49; Van Niekerk, 1987:23) observe that just at the time the adolescent is questioning the goals that society offers him and seeks guidance and assurance in making crucial choices

and commitments in life, his parents have typically reached a stage of reassessment, doubt and even despair regarding the goals which they formulated during adolescence and which have shaped their lives. The strongly futuristic orientation of the educational enterprise, however, mitigates the strain in the educational relationship between the parent and the adolescent. Under appropriate conditions for the educational process, parents are qualified to inculcate an image of the future, because the situations of the future which are targeted for attainment by the adolescent are those of adulthood in which parents are most recently experienced. Parents, on whom rests the task of informing the adolescent about the world, encourage independence and open wide the range of life's possibilities so that the adolescent may exercise the right to constitute his own world until it approximates the adult world for which he is being prepared (Ginzberg, 1980:3; Sedibe 1991:31).

Adults in the family context, are circumspect about the life premises they communicate to their adolescent offspring. They educate them in articulating their future images with consistency, coherence and accuracy because they will be required to make autonomous and rational decisions in the face of changes that are sweeping Western technological societies. Adolescents are challenged by adults to invent new means for

attaining outcomes and to apply them to novel futural situations.

Brooks-Gunn, Rock & Warren (1989:58) note that the initiation ritual is usually preceded by mounting friction between parents and the filial generation. The areas of conflict are two-fold, namely, the young man and the woman are getting ready to leave the family of origin and establish the family of procreation. There may be a difference about the choice of a partner and the degree of autonomy that the new family is to be granted. The critical situation was mastered by the provision of moral facilitators. Securing conformity, compliance and conviction towards societal values and norms was an important aim of education. The principle of moral facilitation presupposes that adolescents will conform to social dictates in the presence of an unchallengeable authority. Bureaucratic orientation, that is, quiescence to authority and discipline, is secured by means of "ritual flogging" (Mwamwenda, 1989:307).

Walters (1985:25) attributes the absence of aggression in Pedi-adolescents to the fact that they receive recognition as men and women after initiation. After this ceremonial observance and the pedagogic effort that attends it, Pedi adolescents achieve greater autonomy and are no longer hemmed in by boundaries

absorbed earlier in life from parental education.

The ritual isolation of the initiates has tremendous pedagogic significance. The reason for the isolation was the fostering of independence and autonomy in adolescents, making them men by taking them away from familial support systems (Mohano, 1983:139).

The educational significance and intergenerational communication value of initiation are clear. The father found the imminent manhood of his son a threatening prospect (Omari, 1982:58). The initiation ceremonial observance was made easier for him through having the responsibility assumed communally by the assembly of all fathers. Since his agemates attended the school with him and since the ceremonial observance was supervised by all adults in the community, the adolescent's psychic resentment against his father was reduced or eliminated. The problem of the boys's demand for independence from his mother was addressed in the ceremonies. Among the Nguni when the initiates, abakhwetha, by chance saw a married woman, they were required to run for dear life because any social interaction with that category of woman, isigqwathikazi, would render them effeminate. In modern scientific terminology boqwera and bojale, had the educational psychological aim of preventing mother and father fixations, respectively.

Petje (1985:13) holds the view that for the adolescent the initiation rites signified the culmination of an epoch in his life. The ceremonial observance impressed upon him his new status position as an adult. The educational system implemented in the traditional situation was a means of guaranteeing expectations of the future. Certainly, for most of the Batswana boys and girls in adolescence, the experience in the initiation school had the consequence of aligning them to the ways of their fathers. The image of the future reaffirmed old values on both tribal and significant aspects of existence. For example, traditional upbringing of the adolescent used work experience with his father on farming and crafts and in the case of the girl, with her mother in domestic arts - to teach them skills and vocations which they would need in the immediate future (Nxumalo, 1988:81).

There was another mechanism by which an image of the future was inculcated and it was through the system of apprenticeship. A special educational relationship was created between a master craftsman in a particular field and a young person who wanted to specialise in that field. Gradually, the learner was introduced to the craft of his mentor. The apprenticeship not only applied to men but also to girls in the domains such as weaving, dyeing, palm-oil making and the observance of rituals (Petje, 1985:12).

This is a circumstance in which the adolescent learns from someone who has the status of craftsman or woman who is charged with the responsibility to impart an occupational image of the future. One major expectation of the future is that the apprentices will continue the practices learned within the educational situations between mentor and protegee but with improving levels of living, technology and standards of performance.

In enculturative environments the human dignity of the adolescent is recognised. Dreyer & Duminy (1983:156) state that parents are aware of what the child ought to become and they gradually withdraw from directly influencing him, preferring rather to distance themselves and allow for independence for the adolescent.

Luthuli (1981:57-58) says that acculturation has introduced a new development in the black family, the phenomenon of educated women who possess equality with men. This balance of power, a byproduct of the tenets of the Christian ethic and the demands of the capitalist economy on adults, has altered the nature of the relationships between adolescents and parents within the educational context. Luthuli (1981:63) maintains that structural changes in the family as the primary educational institution mean that there will

be changes in the way the educational process is conducted in that context. The relative dominance of the Motswana woman may be explained, to a larger and lesser extent, in terms of the fact that she can sell her labour to the highest bidder on the labour market.

Flowing from this development there is greater accessibility (availability and approachability) of the father to the adolescent and much communication transpires between the two. Gluckman (1988:111) argues that the need for achievement which kept the man from the family also keeps the woman away from home. She is now committed to the world of work and is not "readily available at home". Mohanoe (1983:127) agrees that the net result of the modernisation of black societies is that parents tend to be drawn away from home to places where they can find lucrative and "remunerative employment". Mohanoe (1983:127) elaborates that when the parents do come back, their chores claim most of their time and, therefore, they delegate their educational functions to the school.

In doing this, the black family is implementing the classical theory of schooling which stipulates that the work of the school is determined by areas neglected by the family (Woods, 1983:182). According to this view, the school ought to do what needs to be done which no other agency is doing. Abucar (1993:75)

writes about the general experience of transition "from traditional society to a westernised mode of living". He writes about the conflict of cultural values adolescents are confronted with (Duminy, 1983:54). Abucar (1993:75) claims that there is a clash between a village economy and a monetary one, between an extended family and a nuclear family, between a polygamous attitude and a monogamous substitute. There are also conflicts between comprehensive living and occupationally-orientated existence, between imported secular religion and the traditional belief system and between group living with its authority structures and a self-oriented existence.

As Weeks (1993:49) expands his view of the problems of acculturation and the way they impact on adolescent awareness, he says that one form of adaptation to the transitional situation is the formation of clubs for extra-mural activities. These are sporting clubs, picnic groups, debating societies and community development associations. This phenomenon is not peculiar to African adolescents and it does serve the function of providing serendipity (the ability to find things that interest and absorb one) and the opportunities for the exercise of autonomy. The interest groups are an appropriate stepping stone from adolescence to the performance of adult functions in

society. They serve as temporary props which help the adolescents make sense of the apparent contradictions in transitional society which have been categorised above (Duminy & Dreyer, 1983:53; Ferron, 1983:126).

When the relationships between parents and adolescents in the educational situation are dysfunctional, adolescents seek redeeming wholeness in closer relationships with their peers. Durojaiye (1976:66) concluded a survey of adolescent response to family and peer influencing. He noted that adolescents who were accepted as autonomous and free engaged in exchange of opinions with the family, did not identify with the peer group as much as those from whom unquestioning obedience to parental injunctions did. Ferron (1983:126) notes, therefore, that where adolescents rely disproportionately on peer norms, there is usually a situation at home in which they are not given social recognition and the responsibility which goes with the recognition (Walters, 1985:118).

The adolescent in transitional society is educated in a manner which prepares him for long-run purposeful behaviour. He is implored to be serious with his studies which are allegedly a preparation for employment (Walters, 1985:116). As the adolescent grows older, the purpose side of his life becomes

clearer to him and he adapts to fit in with his image of the future and his capacity to adapt enables him to fit in with the world. Mohanoe (1983:148) declares that enculturated black adolescents provide leadership to their parents so that they may attain Western-type adulthood. The parents defer to the young people in the hope that they will not abuse the autonomy granted to them. Consistent with this argument is the fact that Batswana adolescents in analogous situations, carry a heavy investment of expectations for future success, particularly if they are first generation intelligentsia.

The cultural matrix of developing an image of the future is categorised by Bauer (1986:34-35) and Toffler (1983:17) as follows:

Social and cultural changes, under the impact of technological advancement and enculturation of people with dominant cultures have radically interfered with images of the future entertained by individuals and society. Being in enculturative environments, Batswana adolescents seek to use their freedom of choice to take the responsibility for creating new images of the future based on perceived acceleration of change and revolutionary changes in all facets of life. Appropriate educational intervention from the parental front help the adolescents to meet this

challenge by liberating them from subservience to unrealistic future imagery. Bilsker & Marcla (1991:76) opine that the need for achievement and the development of the modern sector of society does, indeed, produce an emphasis on a future image that is populated with achievement motivation.

### 3.2.3 Establishment of identity

Garbers et al. (1983:15) postulates that the spontaneous dimension, inter alia, encompasses the establishment of identity. Erikson (Behr, 1980:63) views identity-formation as being rooted primarily in adolescence. It is the "unique product" generated to enable the adolescent to confront the crises of adolescence and as a response to the pressures and needs generated in adolescence. Erikson (Miller, 1983:169) argues that identity resolution during adolescence involves the attainment of inner sameness. Inner sameness means that a person retains the same self continually and differs from the person who has role variability as a consequence of lack of a stable identity.

Erikson (Craig, 1986:44-45) calls this wholeness, inner sameness. For the adolescent to experience progressive continuity between what he has come to be during the long years of childhood and that which he

promises to be in the anticipated future, he has to experience wholeness. Erikson (Craig, 1986:201) declares that identity can be viewed as encompassing a continuity between the past and the future, and, more significantly aspects of the self and the environment. Thus to Erikson (Behr, 1980:119) there is a social modality to the process of identity. The issue of identity entails processes which are located at the core of the individual as well as the core of the adolescent's communal culture. It is a process which establishes the identity of those two identities. As a developmental stage adolescence is marked by a diversity of changes in physical growth, unfamiliar sexual urges and self-awareness, inter alia. Thus identity becomes the wherewithal to meet the pressures to make occupational decisions and a variety of social and avocational roles.

Garza & Herringer (1987:299) state that the process of identity formation requires that the adolescent establish greater autonomy from parents and relatives. Becvar & Becvar (1982:38) suggest that boundaries between parents and children be renegotiated since to the same extent that the adolescent needs responsibility to that extent he seeks to give up parental protection. The feelings of mastery and competence which come with assuming responsibility for academic, social and physical tasks help the

adolescent in defining his identity. Parents in Western technological societies recognise the peer group as an educational agency and the peer culture and peer patterns of behaviour are respected (Ferron, 1983:21). In their educational support of identity formation in the context of the peer group, parents take the evaluation of the adolescent by his peers seriously and into consideration.

Erikson (Mwamwenda, 1989) declares that the adolescent must be most to himself in all those aspects where he means most to others. Adolescents, therefore, derive many of their ideas of suitable roles and values from reference groups. A reference group is a broad social group or narrow collection of people immediately surrounding an individual, with whom attitudes, ideals or philosophies are shared. There are times when the adolescent is drawn to the values of one person rather than those of a group. This person is a significant other. A significant other is anyone whose opinions an individual values highly. The adolescent then refines such interpersonal skills as manipulating of the assignment of roles by the significant other and the emulation of the roles he enacts and to which he aspires (Tajfel: 1981:248).

Mohano (1983:620) opines that the didactical

situations in which the adolescent is educated at home are decisive for this future. He is helped to discover enterprise, initiative and diligence and he can only become what he wants to be through application. By pulling himself with his bootstraps he can realise the occupational image of the future, as well as the future imagery of social roles and leisure.

Identity is not grounded in the past but is made of what Erikson (Behr, 1980:118) calls anticipated selves. The search for a new but reliable identity is observable in the adolescents' persistent endeavour to comprehend possible future roles or, at any rate, to understand what roles are worth imagining. Their learning leads away from their own limitations and into future possibilities. Erikson (Connell, 1981:5) perceptibly points out that the role models emulated by the adolescents currently will not be the future's role models. The explanation for this development is that the family as an educational institution will not have confronted adolescents with the possibility of phenomenal social change and sociological inputs which affect perceived continuity of self. He contends that cultural and social change can prove so traumatic to identity formation that it can break the inner consistency of a child's hierarchy of expectations.

Erikson (Mwamwenda, 1989:258-259) says that the family's educative enterprise should produce human beings who are fully adaptive to the swift arrival of the future. Its learner products should possess the competencies required for survival in an environment where there is "an accelerative thrust". This will help the adolescents to avoid the self-society disjunctions (Toffler, 1983:24), alienation and disorientation of individuals who do not have the perceptual and intellectual capacity to adapt to changes brought by the future.

Lindhard & Oosthuizen (1985:5-6) allege the existence of many identities in the make-up of individuals. The basic task facing the adolescent is how to juggle the multitudinous commitments and demands which flow from his role identity hierarchies. The economic, earner, social, marriage and other identities exert persistent pressure for the adolescent to incorporate them in his extrapolation of an image of the future. As the adolescent expresses himself in a variety of situations, the encouragement from the family members and his appraisal of the opportunity structure (Harley, 1984:199) tends to impel him to articulate an image of the future in which he sees himself doing better for himself.

Hlatshwako (1989:138) and Petje (1985:16) report that

traditional education did not exist to be acquired but to be lived. Children acquired education through participation in socio-political and religious institutions which ensured effective intergenerational communication. Ximba (1987:102) maintains that the attainment of this educational objective would not occur through the stimulation of intellectual endowment, certainly not as it would lead to imaginative and creative critical thinking. The educational system attributed survival value (for the group) to the fostering of conformity, compliance and subordination of the younger generation to the elders.

Membership of an African group, Tswana in this case, was therefore, a matter of social survival and resulted in the member's definition of his identity in that context. Spiegel & McAllistar, (1991:1) observe that the experience of identity resolution happens during adolescence. This may be so at the personality level but the establishment of identity which comes as a result of affiliation to a tribal group transpires long before adolescence. Nestvogel, 1984:111; Siann & Ugwuegbu, 1985:154; De Saxe, 1986:145; Bauer, 1988:17 emphasise the social dimension in identity-formation. In particular Erikson's (Connell, 1981:8) thesis is that the establishment of identity is a life-long process. He sees the term "ego identity" as denoting certain comprehensive gains which the

individual in adolescence must have derived from all his pre-adolescent experiences in order to be ready for the task of adulthood. Stones (1979:XIX) contradicts this view. In her view, identity formation is a process that builds up the ability to preserve continuity of self and personality integration. Despite its growing complexity, it is a highly individualised but coherent entity.

On the other hand, (Patthey-Chavez, 1993:33) points out that in a dynamic world, man as a culture-bearing and culture-creating being cannot take his identity for granted. Because man is animal educandum, he acquires and inherits an existence with self-defined and self-created identity. This brief survey demonstrates that the identity of the Motswana adolescent lends itself to Erikson's (1981) and Patthey-Chavez's (1993) psychosocial analyses, in which the identity of the individual and group identity can be related. Thus the adolescent's identity can be divorced from neither his cultural background nor from subjective experience (what is located at the core of the individual). Sedibe (1991:48) iterates a similar view when he sees identity as a concept which is positively related to a group consciousness. It refers to a particular awareness of ethnic and cultural sameness, of being with others having the same awareness.

Adolescents are educated to identify themselves with the family and the clan by senior agnates. They are interladed with advice as to what measures should be taken in defending such claims. Those claims are of absorbing interest to the young since the realisation of their ambitions is closely intertwined with them. The provision of qualifying attributes to identity status by the adolescent in the traditional context and his validation of ethnic status, his "instancing" of the selected role is very much the concern of the mosaic of ethnic groups.

The adolescent proves to himself as well as to other audiences who he is or who he seeks to be in the future, within the limits of tribal constraints and he experiments on and tries new identities. This is the stage where the family and tribal elders provide him with formative occupational training in accordance with the image of the future they envisage for him. One, therefore, succeeds in the future through successive generations of others in very meaningful and useful ways.

Lindhard & Oosthuizen (1987) tie identity to the future role image and consider, therefore, that people have a series of different identities - one at home, one at work and still one at play. The cultural affiliation to a totemic group creates a plurality of

identities which are set apart by the totemic perception. Adolescents recognise the process by which their group constructs models which help it to come to terms with and explain behavioural patterns which they cannot in simple normative terms. Batswana adolescents use the images of the past of their group and they use these to construct models for apprehending the future. Through creating, re-enacting and representing images of the past, they give a sense of legitimacy to the future images they endorse. They, thereby, implicitly endorse a sense of their own cultural identity by participating in building and shaping it (Spiegel & McAllister, 1991).

The Tswana group are pluralistic with respect to the images of the future inculcated by adults. There are totemic affiliations which result in further segmentation of society. Being a Motlaping, Morolong, Segoja and Mokubung is a significant basis of identity which in turn is the basis for totemic perception of the image of the future. For example, the Barolong saw themselves in the future as pursuing the trade of iron production. Barolong tota badira tshipi entsho. This means that the Barolong have made and will make a livelihood out of the iron industry and this has become part of their identity. The totemic clarification provides a key and a model for the future role system of the different Tswana groups.

The adolescent is educationally induced to confront the issue of his identity and to stand his ground when challenged. With their present form of identity definition, adolescents are pedagogically instigated to conceive of future roles in terms of those which have been proven to work and have been enacted by their elders.

In an enculturative environment, ethnicity is thrown into question as a significant basis of identity. Mungazi (1982:111) writes that an important transformation in enculturating Africa was the way Africans came to view themselves in relation to their society. In previous generations, that is, before and during the period of colonialism, the concept of self identity on an individualised basis was almost unknown. In this respect, the family as the most important of African institutions, educated the young people not to put their own interests before those of family and society. This system of education had the effect of reducing or eliminating entirely the personal drive and motivation which are important aspects of established identity.

Ximba (1987:29) declares that in most families in enculturated situations socio-cultural patterns have changed. Emulation of Western culture, inspired by higher technology, permits the reversal of roles by

adolescents and their parents, with the former functioning as educators and the latter as learners. Mohanoe (1983:147) endorses this view and alleges that enculturation gives rise to an untenable situation in which adults are less knowledgeable than the adolescents about the norms and values that they should be inculcating with their children. In the Zulu social fabric, Zulu children are alleged by Dreyer (1980) to know more about Western norms and values than do their parents.

Among the Batswana, there has arisen what Mungazi (1982:112) calls "primary symbolisation of subjectivity" which is exhibited through the emergence of new social and cultural institutions. Institutions, such as the government of the North West Province of South Africa, the parastatal agencies, the defence force, the instant mushrooming of whole cities, the mining corporations and so forth, retain their symbolic power and meaning primarily because they clarify for modern Batswana their own cultural identity which precludes that of other nations.

Parents and adolescents are being educationally enlightened not to try out different identities, never sure. They are summoned through community development agencies, youth programmes (Bothanya) and Adult Education sectors, under current conditions of

enculturation and modernisation to acknowledge that they have attained authenticity in identity. In order to terminate the search for identity, it is considered pedagogically imperative to motivate the young people to assign meaning to cultural and social institutions in the society, to achieve symbolisation of them and thereby on that score, to articulate their identities.

Kwelagobe (1992:136) points out that in modern and urbanising society, the family has become more differentiated from other social units and agencies and, therefore, is more specialised in its functions than the family in the past. The effect is a "sharp concentration" on two functional areas of: the education of children and adolescents and the management of tension between adults. Through whole educational efforts the essential stability of children are ensured. During periods of rapid social changes and the development of new attitudes and behaviour patterns, the family, however, is an effective agent in encouraging the individual adolescents to reach out for personal future goals. Batswana adolescents who have been raised and educated within the "contact culture" implement their images of the future by learning attitudes.

The development of a modernised outlook by adults

leads to a re-definition of the image of the future, a re-direction of cognitive categories and new capacities for educating young people in handling futurity. These capacities are firmly developed in Batswana adults on whose initiative and persistence adolescents are led to articulate an image of the future which is appropriate to a changed and changing North-Western Province of South Africa (Manson, 1992:15).

#### 3.2.4 Orientation to adulthood

Klausmeier (1980) in his research on human life and the life cycle found that with the attainment of adolescence, the individual conceptions of the future undergo significant change. As he approaches adulthood, he learns to recognise links between the present and future and in this way acquires a realistic image of the future. According to Verstraeten (1980:181) behaviour which is governed by realism involves the sacrifice of immediate autistic gratification in the service of a later, realistic adaptation. Doing this establishes a new future course and intending, planning and expecting become significant mechanisms for attaining the coveted adult status or role.

In Western technological society the adolescent is

viewed as being on the threshold of leaving the home to study, do national service or to start work. Du Plooy (1980:4), (Hlatshwako, 1989:5) and Nxumalo (1981:50) depict adulthood as a status position targeted for attainment by adolescents. Hence Sedibe (1991:30) asserts that the child and adolescent are being orientated to adulthood in order to realise an independent view of life, pursue a career, have a social norm orientation and pursue leisure.

#### 3.2.4.1 Independent view of life

Sonnekus (1985:53) offers that parents welcome the adolescent's disposition to seek emancipation from parental tutelage because it is a positive sign that he is becoming an adult. The adolescent is pulled by adults in the family towards adulthood by the invitation to assume responsibility for his life and for certain aspects of communal significance. He is expected to take an independent position towards the world around. His educators also issue a summons to which he is obliged to respond by serving the community without expecting any material rewards. This sense of calling entails "experiencing a summons to carry out a particular assignment in the community without consideration of personal gain" (Harmse, 1982:50).

The adolescent is simultaneously "pushed" towards adulthood by the inevitable maturation of his body, the social pressures to commit to a career and the duty to judiciously choose from a variety of future role identities.

Thus the principal task of adolescence can be regarded as the development of a sense of independence from the family, successful integration into the dominant society and the acquisition of a sense of self-confidence and purposefulness that leads into a constructive adult life. Becvar & Becvar (1982:5) point out that a basic assumption in caring educational upbringing is that there is trust in the adolescent and that he is given the opportunity to demonstrate his capacity to be responsible and autonomous in his actions.

Adulthood is represented by Erikson (Sedibe, 1991:191) as representing the polarities of generativity versus stagnation. Generativity means "the interest in establishing and guiding the next generation through child-rearing or creative endeavour". Faith in the future and the ability to help others are prerequisites of the adult development. A lack of generativity is expressed in stagnation, self-absorption, boredom

and lack of creativity.

The image of the future articulated by the adolescent focuses on the striving to develop an independent view of life and this is shared by both parents and adolescents.

Fordham (1993:19) and Erikson (1981:250) state that individual mastery and the development of a sense of a unique sense of identity which the adolescent achieves are significant aspects of the adult development. At the adolescent stage the child comes out as someone who himself more sharply analyses phenomena in the environment, makes finer distinctions and maintains an independent viewpoint (Ferreira, in: Sonnekus, 1985:54).

In Western technological societies, the characteristic of being independent, being one's own person, is associated with successful adaptation.

#### 3.2.4.2 Social norm orientation

Ferreira, (Sonnekus, 1985:50-51) writes that the necessity for normative education arises because the child's course of becoming also

manifests itself with respect to the demands of propriety and the values of a view of life which must be conformed to. Organization and education in the family are distinctive because there is an assumption that adult-adolescent relationships are deliberately shaped to promote the social norm orientation of the latter. Moral judgement is an important area of social norm-orientation. The sense of right and wrong is an area of social knowledge that involves social inferences, understanding of social relationships and knowledge of social inter-relationships.

Education at home plays an important role in the social norm orientation of adolescents. This orientation is a byproduct of parental involvement in the adolescent's educational experiences in making choices in the face of moral dilemmas. If the parent presents the adolescent with safe but challenging opportunities for considering moral dilemmas at high levels, then he or she is receiving an upbringing which brings about considerable moral reasoning. The highest level of moral development in Kohlberg's (Craig, 1986:345-347) scheme is the occurrence of meaningful solutions to moral issues which leads to conformity to moral conventions to avoid self-condemnation or

the pangs of conscience. According to Kohlberg (Kruger & du Toit, 1991), presenting adolescents with increasingly complex moral issues creates disequilibrium in the child's mind. Parents in Western technological societies acknowledge the fact that the consideration of moral paradoxes (conflicts) sets up a disturbance and forces the adolescent to make increasingly mature analyses and judgements about situations.

Developing social norm-orientation involves understanding social roles and gaining experience in social relationships. Sedibe (1991:31) offers that although social norms differ from society to society, basically they are universal. He maintains that as far as education directed at inculcating values is concerned, in Western advanced countries the created experience is basic and remains a point of reference for further educational acts. A created experience is a contrived or derived educational relationship between the educator and the learner which is designed to bring about the acceptance of the educator by the learner as his model. In other words, social norm orientation, inter alia, is acquired by modelling. The parent presents a set of rules in a much more absolute form that they are practised. As a model he tries to

exemplify them to perfect form himself.

De Bruin (1991:35) declares that the institution of the family as our space for the future (ons ruimte) suggests a change in the direction of the ought to be. He writes of the provision of normative guidance indicating that the child is supported by the adult in the process of the acquisition of moral rectitude. For the child to reach adulthood, requires that parents give guidance and it happens through norms. This implies that the image of the future disseminated by parents is premised on values, norms, conventions and other cultural elements in the larger adult society. The content or focus of concern or the unit of analysis of the future image imparted to the adolescents is what is conceived as probable values of the future extrapolated on the basis of existing social values. The educational practice from which the image of the future inculcated is programmed is designed to strengthen the adolescent's purpose and motivations in evolving new attitudes, new convictions and norms which will govern the society in which he will live (Robertson, 1985:15).

Individuals who are presently adolescents are

tomorrow's middle-aged shapers of the twentieth century world. For many of them, experience with a radically changed society will have the radical consequence of moving them away from the hierarchy of values accepted as normative by parents. In this eventuality, the image of the future entertained by the adolescents is different from that of the parents because it serves as a system of values which it is anticipated will be different from the currently prevailing one (Motshabi, 1993:36).

#### 3.2.4.3 Career directedness

Lindhard (1992:18-19) and Dovey & Mathabe, (1987:3) suggest that by age fifteen people have made tentative choices and organise their time and effort to fulfil their career ambitions. Cognitive and emotional development, the acquisition of a mature attitude to work and achievement orientation, contribute to later career formation. Part of the education provided by the family involves investigating in the adolescent a change in intellectual mode from episodic intuitive insights to systematic effort, goal orientation and commitment to the future. Schoderbek, Schoderbek & Kefalas, (1982:301) and Borg (1990:105) emphasise the family's

educational role in re-channelling youthful impulses into fruitful and goal-orientated activities. Within the family educational context, the adolescent's inspiration is ideally transformed, refined and moulded into a realisable and attainable goal. Parents help the adolescent to link the excitement and challenge of the youthful dream to reality and this makes it possible for him to invest time and effort in a career. Parents evaluate the adolescent's image of the future to see if it elaborates a desirable condition which is aligned to the image of adulthood upheld in advanced technological societies. Materially, the adolescent remains dependent on his parents because his legal status keeps him dependent on their sponsorship in many basic realms of activity. Craig (1986:447) observes that the launching of children into the adult world is a crucial educational act. De Bruin (1991:36) states that an adolescent assuming adult roles is best supported by parents who increasingly trust and respect the judgements, decisions and budding maturity of individuals in late adolescence.

In most families in Western technological societies the new pressures created by the adolescent's quest for adulthood and a "job of my

own" and the erratic resurgence of dependency which he exhibits are accommodated and adapted to. It is conceded that this constitutes an attempt to achieve adult status by implementing the image of the future through change-producing action. Thus the parents of the adolescent often act to modify or restrict the rate at which change takes place in the family (Becvar & Becvar, 1982:17). But, by and large, the family system is disposed to help in the achievement of the goals inherent in the adolescent's image of his future career.

#### 3.2.4.4 Leisure

The parental generation favour active leisure which mixes work and play, in the manner of an executive luncheon, for example. Their leisure also tends towards healthy, outdoor activities, community improvement organisations and art. Adolescents are initiated by their parents into scheduled leisure, that is, that involving do-it-yourself work (Toffler, 1983:288). Voluntary leisure is engaged in by adolescents and their parents in simpler or more primitive activities like fishing, camping or picnicking (Robertson, 1985:93). Families in Western technological societies cherish occupational structures which

emphasise the Protestant work ethic values and these feature in the image of the future conceptualised by their offspring. The tenets of the Protestant work ethic are those principles which stipulate that with effort an individual is bound to succeed. Parents inculcate with adolescents leisure images of the future which are indistinguishable from values entertained in work. Toffler (1983:283) states that this calls in question the whole issue of leisure and puts it in a new light, since it is realised that the so-called distinction between leisure time and work time is spurious. Poole & Cooney (1987), Robertson (1985:17) and Ferron (1988:84) maintain that if a distinction is to be made between work and leisure, it should be contended that all activities which are engaged in because it is compulsory to do so are work. That which is undertaken voluntarily out of interest should be categorised as play. Toffler (1983:89) declares that leisure time is spent in Western technological societies in producing goods and services for own use - prosuming. Therefore the old distinction between work and leisure falls off.

There are a variety of ways in which adolescents conceptualise possibilities for future leisure.

They extrapolate on the basis of current trends in leisure pursuits, that there will be an increase in leisure services which provide leisure goods and leisure facilities. Their vision of post-industrial society foresees people spending most of their extra time consuming leisure products and on leisure produced by leisure industries. The vision of adolescents foresees people (themselves as young adults and middle-aged people) utilising their free time in accordance with their own perceptions of value and need. It will hardly be any wonder if the present adolescents who are still mainly in the industrial era code book of leisure, will opt for the new twenty-first century leisure tastes and preferences presaged above. Leisure activities of adolescents will shade into a much wider range of work and activity options that they will have in the future (Ringle & Savickas, 1982:1-10).

In the traditional situation, orientation to adulthood occasioned the adolescent to conform to the image of adulthood held up by his society, "what is generally regarded as the characteristics of adulthood" (Hlatshwako, 1989:18).

Du Plooy & Kilian (1980:19) offer that the image of adulthood to which the young person was introduced was the basis on which he was guided to the future. Abucar (1993:63) declares that parental guidance and support is throughout the educational situation in the family directed to adulthood as futurity. The image of the future presented by both the indigenous pedagogues and their charges concentrated on a particular socio-geographic unit such as a village, a regional unit and a kingdom.

The aim of education centred around preparation for future membership of the tribe (Petje, 1985:106). Thus the unit of analysis of the future image, the core of it had reference to the personal, the concrete and the local. It was embodied in the idea of first the family, then the neighbourhood, the village and the compound. The future image to which the adolescent was educationally directed reflected values that are traditional, religious and patriarchal. The image of the future which was the basis for the educational guidance of adolescents focused on particular institutions or a set of institutions.

Because the focus of the image was general, it dealt with such institutions as the subsistence economy, polity, religion and the military (Nestvogel, 1984:108).

The projected image which was the reference point for educational endeavour, dealt primarily with discouraging changes in individuals, norms, organisation of social institutions, roles and other cultural elements in the institutions which threatened to change the status quo.

In enculturative environments, one gets a glimpse of the adaptations African societies have had to make in educational emphasis under the full impact of a western scale of values and behaviour patterns. But the family as the primary educational milieu "is fully directed and established to actualise the obligations toward adulthood, hence it is completely future-directed". The home is still the place in which the boy or girl acquires those attitudes which determine his or her adult development in later life, in large measure. According to Erikson (1981:205) adult status is characterised by specific areas of conflict called generativity versus stagnation. Unlike their traditional counterparts, adolescents in enculturated situations demonstrate a need to be competent in helping their children. Effective parenthood is an adult characteristic they aspire to. Luthuli, (1981:17) reports that the majority

of adolescents in high schools and teacher-training colleges state their preference for bringing up their children rather than depending on membership of the extended family in traditional fashion. They are concerned whether in matters of discipline, diet and emotional needs, grandparents or other relatives will treat their children as they believe right.

The major influence of the family in the determination of the orientation of girls to adulthood, is the education it provides in encouraging them to make an effective demand for equal status with men on the pattern of Western technological society. The adolescent in an enculturative situation aspires to future independence from her husband through a career or a trade. On the other hand, she may seek a relationship with her husband in which they subscribe to ideals of loyalty and affection with a view to supporting each other come what may (Vadi, 1992:52). This image of adulthood involves the pursuit of happiness rather than the interests of parents, the family or the clan.

Kruger (1990) declares that at the stage of adolescence the individual realises that what he would like to do by way of a career in his

fantasies about adulthood, is not possible. He, therefore, makes a compromise between what he wants and the choices that will be available to him. In their study of adolescents in the North West Province of South Africa, Lawrence & Roodt (1984:68) suggest that the expansion of government bureaucracy and the availability of clerical jobs has led to a perception by adolescents that there is a prevalence of opportunities which never existed before independence. This career orientation is typical of adolescents in urban areas. Batswana adolescents in rural environments have difficulties structuring a future vocational existence in an economy which is strongly biased in favour of urban rather than rural interests, as well as one which is biased in favour of high level professional skills rather than middle-level technical ones (Rosseel, 1989:73).

In accordance with these considerations, then, Batswana adolescents demonstrate an orientation to adult status which takes cognizance of the opportunity structure in the socio-economic structure. They are conditioned by adult members of the family to adopt a utilitarian attitude to education, evaluating it in terms of its market value (Harley, 1984:199; Thembela, 1987:306; Zaleski 1988:567).

Lekhela (1992:12) reports that Batswana adolescents, due to lack of adequate parental guidance, tend to articulate exaggeratedly high occupational aspirations, which are realistically impossible to attain. Their vocational preferences reveal that they do not really comprehend the real contents of and do not have understanding of the preconditions for entering the vocations. The consequence of this is that the image of the future conceptualised by them is a vague and inaccurate one.

Harley (1984:21) declares that Zulu pupils felt that their career choices were realistic and likely to be fulfilled. They are realistic in light of the range of jobs which are made accessible by success in school. The anticipations are said to provide a realistic occupational role since in all probability the job opted for will be available (Nurmi, 1987). The barrage of conditioning at home discourages the young from aspiring to occupational roles which are not "traditionally black". Such consistent pressures, continually narrowing Zulu adolescents' vocational futures, have an effect on their orientation to adulthood. The adolescents' world view and their view of their future lives result in their articulation of

fewer future possibilities and lack of consistency in the image of the future entertained.

In the sample, taken in the North West Province of South Africa, in contradiction to trends in the occupational orientation of black groups referred to in the foregoing, Lawrence and Roodt (1984:16) found that, in the schools where they conducted research, the occupational aspirations of adolescents showed a clear perception of the occupational hierarchy. Where there was a discrepancy between the ideal choice (aspirations) and what they thought they would end up doing (expectations) it was a demonstration of the clarity of perception of the occupational structure. They were only too aware of the difficulties facing them. As a consequence of positive educational influences, adolescents in enculturative societies, have perceptions of the occupational structure which are similar to those of their counterparts in industrialised capital societies.

Parents in enculturated societies specify to and educate their offspring on images of the future and they indicate the values, norms and conventions by which these images may be

fulfilled (Pedersen, 1992:5). This brings with it a heightened concern with social norm orientation on the part of the adolescents. The value of enculturation lies not so much in the evolution of a new culture that incorporates two or more world views, the traditional and western, but in the limitless creativity and potential it releases for discovering how to develop values. As educators parents model the values they want the adolescents to subscribe to. But, most significantly, they have the insight and skills to structure learning environments in which young people learn processes for clarifying and developing their own values. The process involves prizing (cherishing), choosing and acting out values. Thus the images of the future elaborated for adult life contain goals consistent with personal and social values and norms. The processes by which the values are formulated are consistent with and legitimised by existing social norms (Lekhela, 1992:12); Floresca-Cawagas, in: Carson, 1983:131).

Fordham (1993:3-6) argues that women in Western advanced countries intend gradually to dominate public institutions to ensure that they are not used against them. Along similar lines, adolescents in enculturated Tswana societies seek

to achieve the power necessary for self-definition, predicated on direct control of worldly institutions.

Leisure images among the masses of Batswana adolescents take the form of spontaneous escape from the constraints of work and routine. For those whose parents are affluent, social leisure is a more formalised activity. But no matter how materially advantaged their families, adolescents in the developing North West Province of South Africa, realise that their working lives will make such demands on them, that they may not be permitted the future leisure images of their Western counterparts. It seems certain that though their families of origin will continue to experience improved levels of living, adolescents will continue to hold on rather strongly to their lower-middle class leisure life styles, that is, relaxing by producing goods and services and doing voluntary work in community service.

### 3.3 The influence of the school as an educational milieu.

#### 3.3.1 Orientation

Garner & Raudenbush (1991:253) remark that carrying out education in schools where learning and teaching

proceeds on an institutionalised and systematic basis, has a profound effect on children's development. Since school contextual effects cannot be captured immediately, the predominant pedagogical approach accentuates future reference with children. The argument, then, is that there are effects that membership of an individual in a school brings into being which are externalised in an image of the future (Willms, 1985:35; Willms, 1986:233).

Embodied in this view is that commitment to guiding children and adolescents is the central function of the school. When a consideration of the development of the child is under way, the assumption is that he is an individual who has ambition, aspirations, decisiveness as well as purposefulness in manipulating the world. Harmse (1982:148-149) says developing refers to the total involvement of an individual purposefully to adulthood.

In the process of development a person needs educational help. Shane & Tabler (1981) assert that education and schooling are not synonymous. But schools have been viewed as a means for the attainment of educational ends. Adulthood is, therefore, identified as the primary aim for schooling and this makes it imperative to elaborate some aspects of the school as an educational milieu where futures education and the attainment of adult status have

priority. The phenomena to be considered are those of schooling, although the more general phenomena of education have reference in any discussion of the effect of school variables on children's development. Schooling is considered a narrower process linked to a more or less formal institution. When school effects are translated into adult roles that adolescents purport to play, then the school is of real significance in determining the future life chances of young people (Garner & Raudenbusch, 1991:252).

### 3.3.2 Cognitive development

Engelbrecht, Kok & van Biljon (1982:213) categorise the cognitive forming of children as the most important function of the school.

Byrne (1984:248) submits that the school prepares its young for future participation as adults through initiating them to highly abstract systems of thought. Byrne (1984) further writes that the struggle to fulfil the requirements of the school channels the cognitive development of adolescents (children) in a direction stipulated by Western society. The modes of thinking required in the school involve "categorising, inferring, abstracting, grouping and ordering" arrays of information. The cognitive and learning tasks of the school demand the use of disembedded thought which

is defined as the capacity to isolate within a tight logical system, the problems and tasks of the schoolroom. This type of thinking is applicable to subjects within the formal educational system, for example, science, mathematics and technology. Children in Western schooling situations tend to order and classify the world in different ways (Kerr & Collangelo, 1988:46).

The main characteristic of this approach is the search for rules and principles of taxonomic class membership, whereas children who do not attend school often employ other means for grouping or classification. Taxonomic class grouping means defining the attributes of phenomena and apprehending their most important characteristics. Omoding-Okwalinga (1991:34) stresses the fact that the ideological components and value positions inculcated in schools have an important role in the constitution of an image of the future. This strand of analysis emphasises the critical importance of planning and the critical role, images of the future inculcated in the school play in the adolescent's progress towards adulthood. The school's emphasis on rational planning and future orientations in the school milieu has the educational value of making the would-be adult into a rationally autonomous individual who can make judicious choices among alternatives.

Finn (1989:123) writes that the school makes the local community an object of special study, accepting as one of the chief measures of the school's work, its ability to improve the community's way of living. Groups of students are organised into problem-solving or work teams and they do something useful and productive in the larger society (Patterson & Rouhani, 1989:38). From this, a goal-setting process emerges with a set of future-oriented plans which are translated from abstract images into concrete images that guide the school's action. In the process of translation from abstract to concrete, images of the future undergo important changes. Thus learning under conditions of high novelty requires a move back and forth from theory to practice, from the classroom to the community. The ability to measure abstractions against reality makes for realism in the image of the future formulated.

Mahlangu, (1980:3) notes that traditional societies based their routines of living on principles of causation which link events. Thus, according to Mahlangu (1983:135), it is religion which colours the African's participation in the universe. Siann & Ugwuegbu (1985:208) write that in African thinking the universe consists of a network of living forces. Man and woman, dog and stone, even yesterday, beauty and laughter - all those forces relate to each other and

are in continuous interaction. The totality of these living forces is NTU, Being which is never separable from their manifestations. The individual elements fall into four groups, within each of which there is a hierarchical ordering, Muntu, Kintu, Hantu, Kuntu. Children and adolescents are taught, with varying degrees of articulation, these ontological distinctions between man, nature and gods.

A very real issue is the educational milieu of the Motswana adolescent is the community comprised by ancestors (Breutz, 1975:41). It is generally believed that gods and spirits, directly influence everyday occurrences and, therefore, past, present and future. Such cosmological beliefs provide the background for understanding not only the people's systems of thought but also their image of the future.

In a cultural environment in which the future bore a close resemblance to the past, imposing an image of the future by invoking the authority of the spiritual beings, the senior agnates, the mores and folkways of a people, was a relatively effective means for transmitting an image of the future (Erny, 1981:95). The traditional pedagogues agreed with the parents, elders and deities that the vision of the future should tally with all that was held as having had survival value in the past. What had not happened or

what had no probability of occurrence falls in the category of "no time" and is not incorporated into the contents of the image of the future collectively shared by tribal society. The type of education provided in the bogwera and bojale institutions is an instance of definite formal education which resembles more closely the education of the schools. Pupils of a particular age were assembled at a particular educational milieu for the express purpose of giving instruction of a particular kind. In the circumcision schools boys as well as girls were initiated into the responsibilities of manhood and womanhood (Farrant, 1980).

Floresca-Cawagas (1988:70) observes that the manner in which enculturated people approach knowledge and its acquisition is typical of the dominant values and ideology in western cultures. In this context, dominant ideology means the attitude to knowledge held by powerful groups in society. The dominant ideology is a significant part of what is taught at school. Patthey-Chavez (1993:33) argues that in enculturated situations, schools concentrate on knowledge which is not relevant to indigenous cultures. Their cultural agendas are shaped by completely Westernised perceptions of society. Ogbu (1986:29) notes that the dominant message communicated by schools in enculturated contexts is that it is precision of

reasoning that is paramount. The knowledge imparted in schools is not based on a realistic marriage of the traditional knowledge systems and those aspects of knowledge from Western technological contexts which should form the basis of the new images of the future which are appropriate for the enculturated man.

As a consequence of this, according to Mkhabela (1985:47) and Dreyer (1980:86), black adolescents have problems with articulating an image of the future. Mkhabela (1985) and Dreyer (1980) further argue that black adolescents experience problems in carving directions for their lives. This process depends, to a lesser and greater extent on interaction with a society with marginal status, in that it has not achieved the proper synthesis that sinks cultural paradoxes where there has been an institutional union of different cultural systems.

Despite the fact of the inadequacies of the use of reasoning as a means of structuring an image of the future, schools in enculturated societies endorse the idea that future projections should be made on the basis of rational choice. Thus schools which are favourably disposed to the rational approaches of Western schooling, continue to portray to adolescents a view of mankind (the learners) as existing at the present moment but reaping the fullness of that

existence in future moments. Underneath the adolescents' plans of the future lie an awareness that present activity will have its future outcomes. Cognitions, therefore, that is, thoughts about other thoughts, contribute to cognitive growth and become elicitors of future imagery.

### 3.3.3 The school's aid in the learner's organisation of his life

Du Toit (1981:22) makes the point that the school not only teaches but also educates. In so far as the school helps the learners to know how to live, it is an important aspect of the educational process (Borg, 1990:111). Commins & Miramontes, (1989:444) state that participation in a school environment helps the adolescent to acquire new skills, knowledge and vocations. It also teaches him the organisation of his life, planning, time management and how to engage in community service that influences personality characteristics. The school contributes towards the personality development of the adolescent by encouraging completion of tasks. He learns to apply himself to tasks and to derive pleasure from completing them. This experiencing of pleasure precedes the disposition to find pleasure in a career later in life (Engelbrecht et al., 1982:90).

Harmse (1982:155) remarks that the curriculum in most Western technological societies includes both

practical subjects and problem-solving experience which enable learners to learn basic technical skills and to acquire new insights and interests. The success of the schools in helping pupils to organise their personal, public and occupational lives, is linked less to the direct inculcation of images of the future than to the development of an attitude towards planning and the time perspective required to analyse the past, supervise the present and manage the future. The educators are seen by the learners as capable of differentiating school events from a temporal point of view. They observe administrators and other school personnel viewing the institutions prospectively and retrospectively, integrating events within a framework of continuity. To develop a successful planning model for their lives, adolescents announce a public vision of what their future will be like and view their decisions as not being programmed by the past or forced by contemporary pressures. They integrate their present academic, extra-mural and leisure activities within a framework of continuity and see these as instruments for exploring the future (Floresca-Cawagas, 1988:70).

A practical way in which administrators and educators in the school elicit an image of the future is their insistence that the subject matter, the educational guidance provided and the pupils' exploration of the surroundings be viewed in terms of their implications

for the future. There is an attempt by educators to portray time as a dynamic and moving energy and to engender an awareness that certain disciplines, for example, social studies, environmental studies as well as history and civics, provide those who study them with temporal orientations (Pringle & Slavikas, 1982).

The process of traditional education consisted of precept, example and practice supported by rivalry between the secret societies which organised the indigenous schools. The matter taught included manners, ceremonial, military and customary training. The application was made by the boys and girls upon their return to their districts and upon becoming members of adult society. The educational milieu, with its atmosphere and facilities had a relationship through the village with the larger society (Nestvogel, 1984:112).

The close linkage between the traditional schooling system and social life implies that learning had two functions, that is, that of qualifying for full membership of the tribe and that of integrating the filial generation into tribal society. As there was no literary heritage in African societies, knowledge imparted and acquired in educational institutions was much closer to everyday experiences and necessities. Owing to the intimate ties of schooling with the

processes of production for group survival and sustenance, traditional learning had the function of helping the learners to survive in the indigenous culture. It was appropriate education because it was "essentially equated with addressing ecological considerations" (Bisheuvel, 1991:136) and Bodibe (1993:53)).

The fact of living education was accomplished through the proper identification, allocation and enactment of roles by adults and learners. If the role adopted by the adolescent was acceptable to significant others, the learner began to strive to acquire more of the idiosyncratic aspects of the role identity thus legitimated. Schooling elicited in young people notions of what constitutes a viable future imagery from the parental generation (Van Arsdale, 1992:94). Relevant to the analysis of images of the future mooted here are the goals and long-range commitments of the learners. Their image of the future, albeit grounded on the traditional network of values, incorporated new goals and new orientations because the adolescents would be contributors to a society comprised by a new generation. Confronted with the challenge to organise their personal lives and the life of the communities, they contributed inputs to society and this brought about a concomitant change in the image of adulthood. Siann & Ugwuegbu (1985:154)

argues that if these inputs were not accepted by the adults, a breakdown in intergenerational communication led to the emergence of conflicting values and a rebellious youth.

Nel (1980:397) characterises the school as the second milieu. Delius (1992:13) remarks that the school exists to ensure that the child will be able to apply wisdom in the management of situations that will develop in the future. To attain this objective, the school performs the functions of enculturating the child in the values that will serve in existence in adulthood. The school helps the adolescents make the adaptations required when they are endeavouring to assign meaning to the variety of norms, values, views, laws and rules that emerge as a result of the encounter between their culture complex and Western culture (Dreyer & Duminy, 1983:55).

In many enculturative environments, the school accordingly as an institution of special significance, has responsibilities which extend beyond the custodial function, selection for prestige and statuses in the occupational structure, socialisation and cognitive development. The school in an enculturated context has the responsibility to train children in societies where social attitudes are changing with great rapidity. It empowers its

graduates to make syntheses between converging and often conflicting cultures not only at the moral level but also between the practices of a traditional way of life limited to a subsistence economy and the demands of a wage earning economy and society. The education of adults by community developers can make possible this type of reconciliation - between authority exercised on a tribal basis and power wielded through distinctly western institutions.

For McClelland (1990:104-105) educational and occupational aspirations represent the "internalisation of objective probabilities for success". For people in enculturative societies, the purpose of schooling is to prepare them to have a job. The school is, therefore, under strong pressure to provide the right and appropriate education for persons who seek to enter the labour market. The belief is that the more the education, the better the job they are likely to get (Robertson, 1985:47). The ideas that characterise the career image of the future of adolescents emanates from a positive response to the avowed mission of the school to provide "different sectors of the labour market with appropriately educated manpower" (Robertson, 1985:48). The school's goals and images of the organisation's future, are used by the pupils as the basis and model for organising their lives in the occupational sphere.

The personal goal-setting process set by the learners emerges with a set of future oriented plans which are an outcome of school contextual effects. Through the writing of scenarios, modelling and participation in community service projects, pupils gain a sense of power and control of their destinies.

#### 3.3.4 School effectiveness in promoting co-operative activity and living together.

The school is where people congregate for educational purposes and such congregation demands from them a spirit of co-operation. As members of the school population, in their daily endeavour, school people are expected to play their roles towards the attainment of goals of the school, (Ezewu, 1986:54). Musaaazi (1988:5) declares that it is important to realise that in the view of the co-operating person every co-operative effort has two dimensions, that is, the co-operative aspect and the subjective aspect. Co-operation involves some surrender of control of personal conduct. Its effect is commission of efforts, a striking together of persons who are working together. Without this, there can be no sustained personal effort as a contribution to school projects (Ezewu, 1986:13).

Dreyer and Duminy (1983:53) maintain that the school is in a position to function as a small society in which

individuals learn how to get along with others. Hoy & Miskel (1982:58-59) regard this as the institutional element of the school in which people share their tastes and preferences as well as their differences in order to play out their roles according to organisational expectations with a view to meeting the particular goals of the school. From the point of view of the individual pupil, the subjective aspect operates strongly to create an anticipation of need-satisfaction through exploiting alternative opportunities presented by the school context.

For the adolescent the school is a place where he is assisted to become independent and to come to an understanding of himself in terms of his limitations and strengths. The needs for achievement, security, acceptance and self-expression determine his willingness or reluctance to co-operate with the goals of the school (Hoy & Miskel, 1982:60).

Certain institutional experiences increase the likelihood of co-operative living by adolescents in later life. These are teaching approaches which involve pupils in the learning process, co-operative learning strategies (Slavin, 1983) and a vocational component in the school curriculum which helps pupils become knowledgeable about labour market forces. In addition, positive teacher attitudes and teaching procedures which are democratic maximise pupil-

participation in the school milieu. With regard to education in and for the future image, it is noteworthy that schools have goals and long-range commitments to turn out human beings. The school is confronted with the pedagogical imperative to set in motion processes of enculturation and educational processes which enhance effectiveness of communication, promote greater cohesiveness and bring about awareness about life outside the confines of the school (Dreyer & Duminy, 1983:35).

Secondary schools in Western technological societies deliberately tinker with the future and announce a public image of the future which gives the schools a definite character and ethos. The school is utilised by the learners for translating their own images of the future and their own values into a stabilised structure which works in the real world (Woods, 1993:78). One of the most important and pervasive consequences of the emphasis on group dynamics, shared experiences and working alongside one another, is the continued adjustment and readjustment of the personal imagery to accommodate the collective images of the future expressed by groups of high school pupils and educators, jointly or severally (Hauser & Anderson, 1991:263).

Communalism, as distinct from communism, is the hall-

mark of African traditional life. The cornerstone is the educational system derived from it. Some of the features and consequences of the educational enterprise are seen in how it inspires co-operation between and among individuals, not competition. Educational upbringing in the context of the educational milieu structured in African communities enables individuals to cope with crises by marshalling the resources of the community to help those in trouble and in a position to claim united action. Typically, then the adolescent in a traditional setting should be seen as the "product of the reciprocal" interaction between the metaculture and the educational milieu in which he is nurtured (Bodibe, 1993:54).

In Sub-Saharan Africa, there was never any provision for individually, autistically and idiosyncratically attaining an image of adulthood. There was what is characterised by Erny (1981) as vertical integration which refers to entrance into the extended family by accepting communal responsibility. Horizontal integration ushered the adolescent into the larger society, for example, the age regiment. Such traditional structures are geared towards self-help, mutual co-operation and volunteerism. The educational system had the capacity for serving as a conduit for ideas, information and practices which assisted the

traditional African people in improving living conditions in what would otherwise have been an isolated environment.

The tribal pressure to educate in ways that ensure a common orientation to values entrenched a compliance emphasis in education (Nxumalo, 1988:20). The adolescents prepared themselves and were educated for a well-known and well-defined future. To the adolescent, hero-worship of and identification with heroic figures were elicitors of affective experiences which gave focus on the image of the future. The future-focused identity was a certain process which depended on role models who had tenure in society. Predecessors who had lived and worked in solidarity with their compatriots had tremendous influence on images of the future entertained by their successors (Ximba, 1987:24). According to Geertz (1983:408) "The close and immediate interdependency between conceptions of persons, time and conduct ....." is a laudable phenomenon because such an interdependency is inherent in the way human experience is organised, a necessary effect of the conditions under which life is lived.

In an enculturative environment, the adolescent has the greatest exposure to co-operative and communal activities. Learning how to live and work with others

entails the social processes of incorporation by which people have contact and interdependence despite changing social circumstances and modernisation (Uchendu, in: De Vos & Ramanucci-Ross, 1975:178).

For example, the persistence of setlamo (wedding, burial and unveiling of tombstones societies), ethnic enclaves in urban areas and political organisations concerned with tribal polity, lends support to this proposition. Aggregations of people who share a common culture in urban areas do not depend on the presence of social interaction and acceptance. Quite the contrary, they are often the bases on which new social systems are built.

In educating adolescents to develop skills in human relations and living with others, teachers focus on the manipulability of the social world (Woods, 1983:43). The causal role of the pupils in contributing to school projects and school governance and ultimately living and working harmoniously in working situations in community service, are emphasised in educational situations which promote a sense of togetherness and living together (Ezewu, 1983:13). The assumptions underlying these educational procedures are that learners are shapers of tomorrow's society. The belief in the relevance of youth values and social responsibility leads to the

discovery of causes that explain social events which are phrased in terms of future variables which are amenable to control by adolescents. The latter are educationally induced to go beyond the description of and prediction of future events by the educators, to ideas of control of future events as criteria of self-determination and desirable goals of knowledge acquisition. There is, therefore, more to the adolescent's relationship with his environment than merely experiencing gratification or frustration or learning a set of reactions. The adolescent manipulates the environment, learning ways to take advantage of it and exercise control over it. Adolescents know that their collaborative efforts to serve the community and their interpretation of social interaction will affect their future social action. Awareness of this fact sharpens their commitments to positive human relationships and promotes their willingness to explicit their societal images of the future (Couperthwaite, 1989:22).

### 3.3.5 Identity-formation within the school educational milieu

According to Schmidt-Low-Beer, (1991:181), the adolescent already has a sense of identity that develops from earlier stages, provided these were successfully negotiated. A sense of identity is

formed by the integration of all earlier stages into a whole, via a process called ego-synthesis. Erikson (1981:258) describes identity as the adolescent's knowledge of who and what he/she is and what he/she can become. It is a sense of self-confidence and sameness as well as a sense of continuity.

The focal point of adolescence is a crisis of identity and the failure to achieve a coherent sense of identity which Erikson calls the syndrome of identity diffusion. When the ability to form a stable and integrated sense of who one is, is lacking the adolescent is overwhelmed by confusion. (Schmidt-Low-Beer, 1991:182).

An adolescent's future identity may be viewed as the moving perspective in which he sees his life as a whole and interprets the meaning of his various attributes, actions and the things which will happen to him (Becvar & Becvar, 1982:17). The school offers a means of linking the individual's experience (subjective experience) (Hoy & Miskel 1982:67; Ezewu 1986:13; Musaaazi, 1988:8) and institutional provision of roles, and, ultimately, society.

Participation in academic and extracurricular activities are the stanchions of identity.

Adolescents acquire an array of identities from the spread of roles available in school-related tasks as well as those believed to be available in society. In the school milieu adolescents are surrounded by a bewildering array of role models provided by educators, administrators and peers. They then project images of the future in the process of "self-lodging" whereby "humans translate crucial features of their identity into the selves, memories and imagination of relevant others." (Ximba (1979:95).

The roles derived from identification with significant others are integrated into a personal identity and the conflicting ones are reconciled and discarded. The process becomes different when there is a conflict between roles, for example, between a popular pupil and a peer, a teacher and other educators.

Lindhard & Oosthuizen (1985:13) state that identity-formation in adolescence of necessity takes place not only within the educational milieu of the school but also when the adolescent moves out of the school situation and enters adulthood. This happens when the child becomes "what he can become and what he should become" (Lindhard & Oosthuizen, 1985:3). Education in the school, therefore, focuses on the learner's becoming "somebody special, sufficiently different from his fellows to save him from anonymity and

different in ways that enable him to command admiration, respect and affection (Woods, 1983:14). Lindhard & Oosthuizen (1985:5) allege the existence of what is called a totally integrated personality. Lindhard & Oosthuizen (1985), however, argue that when adolescents are educated with future undertakings and projects in mind (for example careers), classifications of identity should be made for the sake of specificity in the analysis of the educational process. In the schooling situation adolescents are guided in taking up some or all of the following identity options:- a self identity, a trainee identity, an economic identity, an occupational identity, a decision-making identity, an employer and an attitude or values identity. Dovey & Mathabe (1987:5) endorse this view of identity. Dovey & Mathabe (1987) assert that future education involves the exploration of the various social identities.

The experiential content in a future-orientated educational situation at school creates for the adolescent an optimistic (positive) view of his identity, in keeping, of course, with the demands of reality. It is the image of future identities that strongly affects his motivation and performance in tasks of an academic nature. Such an image delineates in the emerging out-of-school world into which he is moving what the learner should become. The type of future image envisaged here strengthens the learner's

purposes and motivation as he copes with the subject-matter taught at school. Among the Batswana, there is an ethnic identity which overrides all other class identities. Indeed, the achievement of collective distinctiveness leads to the obliteration of all other identities deriving from any other affiliations.

Kwelagobe (1990:135), however, mentions that educational institutions such as bogwera and bojale played a very important function in the establishment of the identity of adolescents. More importantly, the ceremonies served to confirm the self-identity of young people. Boateng (1979:14) writes that initiation procedures earned the initiates increased respect from others and, thereby, enhanced the development of ego-strength. Boateng (1979) remarks that in some Ghanaian ethnic groups, after a girl has been initiated she is designated as "mother" by all those who have not been initiated.

The point to note is that all ceremonies were a tremendous pedagogic effort, mostly marked by tests of endurance which pushed childhood behind and the change in status to adulthood accelerated the process of identity resolution. (Geertz, 1983:48) observes that among African traditional people there was a strong mother-son bond. Geertz (1983) notes that the education received in the initiation school served

psychologically to brainwash the initial feminine identity and to firmly establish the secondary male identity. Siann & Ugwuegbu, (1985:152) relate the rigorous initiation experiences of initiates in traditional societies (the Iatmul, for example) to the sex-role identity which was elicited in the initiates. Men in traditional societies were requested to assert their autonomy and dominance over women.

Consistent child-rearing practices of this nature narrowed the girl's image of possible futures. A womanly woman is defined in this context as one who succeeds in the roles of mother and home-maker. Motshabi (1993:68-69) calls this role an instrumental role as opposed to the executive role assigned to men. Apart from the narrower range of future possibilities they conceptualise, girls in the traditional situation tend not to think ahead. They are lumpy in the sense of focusing on a few key futural events like marriage and the birth of children rather than a rich imagery at each stage of the life cycle.

On the other hand, boys have been schooled to concentrate on what is regarded as executive tasks, for example, hunting, fighting, warring and decision-making. They are required to be proficient in tasks that will be more relevant to the roles that they are expected to fill in the future.

According to Witkins (Siann & Ugwegbu, 1985) individuals basically fall somewhere between two extremes of cognitive styles. These are field dependence and field independence. In this conceptual framework, field independent individuals are highly differentiated, by which he means that they have a number of different independent subsystems in their functioning which allow them to be discerning and flexible in their mental responses. Field dependent individuals, on the other hand are less differentiated, are more global in their approach to situations and problems and they do not have well developed sub-systems of functioning which allow them to be flexible and cognitively discriminating.

Therefore, when girls articulate future imagery, they engage in contextual imagery which is a byproduct of contextual thinking. They do not have the spatial ability (Malan, 1985:8-13), the analytical style and the ability to break set like their male counterparts. The child-rearing practices which are applicable to the former are conducive to conformity, dependency and modesty which mitigate against the assertion of self-identity beyond the domestic domain. Thus the future image extrapolated by girls is not structured within maximum intellectual development and confidence in ego-identity. The future education system organised for girls in the traditional situation produces

fatalism and passivity which weaken the innovation of women and results in a constricted future image. In contradistinction, boys were motivated in the educational milieu to think of a future in adulthood in terms of a variety of possible roles and thus to amass future data into as many categories as possible. Their future imagery, therefore, tended to be populated with notions of success in the military, the paramount chief's court, knowledge of ritual intercession and creative performance in the conservation of village resources.

Enculturated society in the North West Province of South Africa is one in which cultural distinctiveness, translated into national identity, is important in determining the process of education. Kwelagobe (1990:135) comments that the Tswana nation "selects those elements which will produce for it a rich and dynamic culture. The process of selection is done unwittingly by a sufficient number of people so that eventually new customs become normal behaviour" (Kwelagobe, 1990:135).

The educational system via the school is an agent of enculturation. Through positive educational intervention by educators and by dint of a conducive educational milieu, adolescents are empowered, (as a reaction to cultural influences from Western

societies) to establish new identities. As a result of this type of educational forming, adolescents thread their way through intricate networks of modern social structures and they are able to opt for future paths which accommodate their needs, reward their aspirations and justify the identity they have established. It is in this respect that the provision of educational opportunities directed at promoting the image of the future takes on a practical significance and that the role of the school in confirming self-identity, its maintenance and manipulation, assumes critical importance.

## CHAPTER 4

### THE METHOD OF RESEARCH

#### 4.1 Introduction

The study and the outline of the theoretical discussions undertaken so far provide the background for elucidating problems appertaining to the image of the future and put it in sharp focus. The identification of the research problem and the rationale for its selection as a topical educational research issue have been established for the reader in the theoretical excursion in the initial portion of this thesis. At this stage, the treatment of the research design is essentially a matter of indicating the procedure and methods concerned with the data base, the study population, the research instrument and techniques for gathering information about the conceptions of the future which the adolescents in the North West Province of South Africa entertain. Thus the interpretation of data will be based on theoretical assumptions regarding the image of the future and such variables of this image as have been categorised in the initial part of the study.

The factors that are dealt with in this research were first suggested by the literature studies and the researcher's experience as a teacher which made her aware of the problem and the need to investigate it. This experience will give the researcher access to schools, pupils and teachers in both rural and urban environments.

#### 4.1.1 The aims of the research

1. The research sets out to establish the influence of the self-concept on the future image of Batswana adolescents.
2. The study aims at exploring to what extent factors such as locus of control, academic achievement, future orientation, future shock and choice of career influence Batswana adolescents' future image.
3. It is the aim of this study to probe if the future image of Batswana adolescents has educational implications.

#### 4.2 Sample

Given the constraint of time and cost and the randomness with which the schools were selected for investigation, it is obvious that the sampling technique employed here is determined rather by practical applicability than by considerations of statistical rigour. The time factor and financial constraints imply that there is a definite limit to

the magnitude of the sample which is surveyed. The pre-selection of the schools took cognisance of the existence of inspectorial circuits which were instituted in the rationalisation of the educational system implemented for Batswana in the North West Province of South Africa. Utilising the circuits as a unit of analysis, it was possible to identify three schools in urban areas which would function as the locus for the writer's research activities in the pilot study. The relevant universe in this study will be six schools in Odi, Molopo, Lehurutse and Mankwe. The sample frame will be random and, therefore, consist of 600 pupils of which three hundred are boys and three hundred girls, drawn from six high schools in the types of localities categorised above.

A stratified random sampling technique will be employed to increase the efficiency of the sample. The intended stratifications for sample are in terms of gender and locality. It will serve a useful purpose to focus on the factor of locality as it enables one to identify milieu contextual effects on the development of attitudes to the future by the respondents. The Lehurutse area is predominantly rural, with minimal urban influences except

that some male members of the community are employed in urban areas and they return with a modicum of urban sensibilities.

The other area is the Odi region, a peri-urban area, with schools which service children of people who work in the industrial areas in the metropolitan cities of Pretoria and Johannesburg as well as the suburban areas. To ensure that the study is as representative as possible, respondents will be drawn from institutions in ultra-urban areas, to give the data a vestige of an urban bias.

There are expected to emerge gender dichotomies in the image of the future as an index of the differential conditioning and futures education of boys and girls. Upbringing and the future imagery are consistent. The convergence of these two suggests that girls' images may well be more cohesive, more internally consistent but less elaborate than boys' in terms of choices. If this is proven empirically, this could help account for certain gender differences in world view.

Considering the ethnic homogeneity of the respondents it is thought that the issue of ethnic identity does not arise at all and will, therefore, not exert an undue influence or bias on the results. The following is a break down of the sample by institution.

Table 4.1 Breakdown of sample by institution

Name of Institution	Number of males		Number of females		Total
	Std. 9	Std. 10	Std. 9	Std. 10	
School					
Mmabatho High	25	25	25	25	100
Kebalepile High	25	25	25	25	100
Mabopane High	25	25	25	25	100
Mocwedi High	25	25	25	25	100
Thlabane High	25	25	25	25	100
Tswelelopele High School	25	25	25	25	100

#### 4.3 Hypotheses and rationale for their selection

Drawing on the theoretical framework developed in the preceding portions of this work, three hypotheses will be tested with respect to the conceptualisation of the image of the future by Batswana adolescents as reflected by its interaction with a class of relevant variables. Variables discovered from the literature surveyed which have some bearing on the image of the future, inter alia, are: identity, orientation to adulthood, creativity, self-concept, locus of control, extraversion/neuroticism, academic achievement, occupational aspirations and future shock. Hypotheses formulated will also be based on home background, age and gender variables. The following hypotheses have been formulated:-

Hypothesis one:

Self-concept has a meaningful influence on the future image of Batswana adolescents.

Self-concept determines the nature of the future image conceptualised by an individual. Thus a healthy self-concept is projected forward to develop in a person a wholesome and achievable future-focused role image. A negative self-concept is exhibited through future avoidance, an immediate temporal focus and consummatory behaviour.

Hypothesis two:

Batswana adolescents' future image is also influenced by culture, locus of control, academic achievement, future orientation and choice of career.

Understanding the relationship between these variables and conceptions of the future gives helpful insights into how adolescents make evaluative decisions about the form and substance of preferable futures.

Hypothesis three:

Batswana adolescents' future image has educational implications.

There is a need to establish systematically how futures and career education does bring an influence to bear on the development of adolescents' attitudes to the future.

#### 4.4 Instrument construction

The variables incorporated in the data collecting instrument were selected on the basis of theory which hypothesised relationships between socio-cultural and educational situations and the image of the future. The demographic variables selected for analysis are home background, gender, location or area of residence and age. The construction of the instrument followed the ensuing developmental phases: the preliminary and pilot scheme and preparation, the development of a structured questionnaire for the collection of data. This involved the construction of appropriate questions and rating scale techniques. The issues of pilot collection of data, the main phase of the data collection and the coding of the questionnaire received priority of attention.

##### 4.4.1 Pilot work

###### 4.4.1.1 The questionnaire

After the compilation of theoretical data from literature, interviews with the teachers, consultation with the principals, a pilot study questionnaire had to be constructed. The questionnaire schedule of the pilot study is a miniature duplicate of the final schedule and it utilised all the salient aspects of the major project.

All pilot work interviews were conducted in the Molopo inspectorial district. The initial questionnaire was divided into four sections. Part one was constituted by four general questions which were concerned with the personal background of the respondent, including area of domicile. It has already been established that this research will contain an urban and rural component directed at finding out whether or not location in these environments exerts a divergent influence on the image of the future projected by the respondent.

Questions two (form), three (age) and four (gender) are the general independent variables which it is essential to keep an eye upon in an investigation of this nature. These factors impact on such relationships as motivation, time perspectives and the development of world views.

#### 4.4.1.1.1 Home-based items

##### 4.4.1.1.1.1 Home background questionnaire

The questionnaire items are designed to extract factual information among the subjects, their parents and their home. Items five to eight seek to elicit information about the highest educational level of the father and mother or guardian. Items nine to nineteen

are designed to extract information about the father's income, parents' occupational status and material conditions at home. Items twenty to twenty-six inquire into the educational milieu at home, assessing whether or not there is educational deprivation. The latter items derive factual information which reflects attitudes towards education. This is not easy to measure since attitudes are externalised in observed behaviour, which is measurable.

Use was made of structured questions to derive information about the nature of the educational environment in the homes of the pupils. The class of behaviours like helping with the pupils' homework, providing reading material, discussion of future careers and events of contemporary significance, constitute guidelines for the construction of relevant questions. These relations govern such educational categories as insight, motivation and cognitions concerning the future. In other words, the analysis of the exploration of the future imagery by adolescents is conducted through the exploration of the future time perspective endorsed in the parental home, spatial elements (neighbourhood contextual effects) and demographic characteristics. It is assumed that the general cultural and educational experiences in the home as well as motivations and aspirations of parents for their offspring, affect the latter's facility in constituting images of the future.

#### 4.4.1.1.2 Validity and reliability

Validity was difficult to guarantee and yet some mechanism for rendering the instrument valid had to be devised. The jury opinion methodology was employed. This method is an extension of validity with the difference that confirmation of the logic is obtained from a group of persons who are experts in the field in which the instrument is utilised. Accordingly, the items of the questions for purposes of assessing validity, were sent to experts in the field of Educational Psychology and the Sociology of Education at the University of Zululand.

#### . Scoring:

It was decided that a high scale score should mean a favourable attitude and a low one, an unfavourable attitude. Favourable statements scored five for strongly agree down to one for strongly disagree, along a three point scale.

Reliability in the home-background scale was ensured by selecting thirty respondents and interviewing them and comparing their interview scores with the scores they obtained in their responses to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered in three high schools. The correlation between the sets

of scores from the questionnaire and the interviews were as follows:

Parents' educational level is  $r = .86$ ;

parents' socio-economic status,  $r = .93$  and,

educational environment of the home,  $r = .89$ .

#### 4.4.1.1.1.2 Occupational aspirations

For purposes of this study, the view is expressed that the individuation task of adolescence implies that the adolescent takes increasing responsibility for his actions in society and achieves a sense of purpose and commitment in relation to work.

Items 27 - 33 inquire into what the vocational preference of the pupil is. He has to give a rating of the importance of this occupational choice by allocating points which are placed in gradations along a five-point scale. Following an analogous procedure, the respondent is required to provide responses in the scale, namely, one to five.

#### • Reliability and validity:

Test-retest reliability measures were conducted for this scale on a sample of forty pupils. The reliability co-efficients range from 0,65 to 0,76. These figures are as high as can be expected when one considers the level of internal consistency of the scale. It can be seen that the information extracted

by the questionnaire pertained to the choice and implementation of an occupation as well as to the measures of the possibility of a career choice. Content and face validity is assumed because the questions deal with aspects related to pupils' aspirations.

#### 4.4.1.1.1.3 The cultural dimension scale

This is a Likert-type instrument designed to derive information not only on how adolescents view the cultural world of values which are universal to the Batswana but also data concerning their plans and aspirations. These provide useful and valid clues about their social and economic futures. For example, items like "belief that one can improve one's lot" are culturally not acceptable but at the same time they have an import for one's high aspirations to positions in the occupational structure in the modern sector of society. Items 34 - 48 were found relevant and were selected for administration. They were structured in a manner that would externalise the pupils' attitudes to their cultural complex.

This study of cultural orientations of Tswana communities can be considered a preliminary attempt to derive information about the cultural calendar

which may have infiltrated the future imagery articulated by Batswana adolescents.

#### **4.4.1.1.1.5 Reliability and Validity**

Reliability was ascertained, using a small population of standard nine and ten pupils in four high schools by a test-retest method with an interval of three weeks between administrations. When the results for the two occasions when the test was administered were compared, the two sets of scores were similar. Use was made of the Pearson product moment correlation:  $r = .88$  (Sommer & Sommer, 1980:91).

Although validity is difficult to ascertain, several steps were taken to make the instrument acceptable.

The considered opinions of people with an examined understanding of Tswana cultures and ethnic origins were sought. The questions were structured simply and, if the responses are a true reflection of the findings and perceptions of the respondents, their face validity will have been established.

#### **Scoring:**

This is a summated scale in which scores are derived by adding the scores obtained from responses to items.

The scores range from one to five with strongly agree assigned the highest score and strongly disagree, the lowest. Since there are no statements with a negative valency in the instrument, the scoring is not problematic.

#### 4.4.2 Standardised instruments

4.4.2.1 The Eysenck Personality Inventory was devised by Eysenck (1985) who used an objective assessment questionnaire for studying personality. This test is designed to measure the personality of subjects especially intra-personality adjustment, extraversion and neuroticism. Only forty items were administered to derive information on emotional issues of stability and adjustment and extraversion. It should be pointed out that neuroticism, in the context of this inventory, should not be seen as synonymous with neurosis which describes a collection of abnormal conditions, including obsessions and hysteria. Eysenck (1990:6) declares that the unstable individual is moody, touchy, anxious, restless and rigid while the stable person is calm, carefree, easy-going and reliable.

#### 4.4.2.1 Reliability

Eysenck & Eysenck (1985:6) reported a test-retest (six-month intervals) reliability of the three scales from .66 for neuroticism (N) to .76 for extraversion.

The instrument was tested (by the researcher) for reliability at Barolong high school. The items measuring the different constructs were split into odd and even halves and scores were correlated. A randomly selected group of standard 9 pupils at the school, at a two-week interval, undertook the test and the scores for the split halves were as follows:

Extraversion:  $r=.71$

Neuroticism:  $r=.77$

#### 4.4.2.2 The Rosenberg self-esteem scale

A measure of self-esteem which fulfils certain requirements was implemented. A measure requiring a minimum of interpretation was sought with a view to eliminating or reducing researcher bias. A research decision to use a pencil and paper test which could be administered by research assistants and guidance teachers without special and intensive training, was made.

Furthermore, it was fit and proper to take a measure of global self esteem and then to concentrate on measuring domain-specific determinants of self-esteem. Finally, it was necessary to choose a measure with good validity, but which could still be easily accessible to Batswana high school pupils, with English as a second language. Since the Rosenberg self-esteem scale did not violate these requirements, it was selected for administration on the respondents. This is a 12-item Guttman scale of the Likert form with no neutral category. It is self-explanatory to subjects and they are required to circle one out of four choices of the twelve-items. The choices are:

- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Disagree
- Strongly disagree.

Rosenberg (Ximba: 1987) devised the scale to rank people on a single continuum ranging from individuals with low self-esteem to those with high self-esteem. The Guttman scale ascertains that there is a unidimensional continuum by establishing a pattern which must be conformed to before the scale can be accepted. The patterned relationship among items determines the efficacy of the scale. Rosenberg & Simmons (1972:101) claim that the reproductivity of the scale is 92 percent while its scalability is 72

percent. They regard these co-efficients as satisfactory in terms of the criteria of Guttman & Mengel (Connell, 1981).

#### 4.4.2.2.1 Validity of the scale

Maqsud (1991:37) noted that no solid, pragmatic performances or consensually arrived at clinical procedure exists against which to check operational techniques. Such methods as the "known groups" method of concurrent validity cannot be applied to self-esteem scales. Certain validity requirements, however, are fulfilled by this scale.

##### ● Face validity

In the construction of the scale, the author sought to expressly and overtly deal with the concept of self-esteem. A look at the items reveals the manifest content that deals with global self-esteem.

##### ● Construct validity

This entails the validation of a measure by relating it to measures of concepts other than self-esteem in a theoretically meaningful manner. Using Guttman scales designed to measure depression and anxiety and relating these to the self-esteem scale, Rosenberg (Ximba, 1987) found  $\gamma = 0,3092$  and  $0,3398$  respectively. These results are consistent with

theory. Similarly on an interpersonal level, Rosenberg (Ximba, 1987) was able to relate peer group reputation and ability to criticise self to his measure of self-esteem. Statistics have not been provided for the relationships.

#### **4.4.2.3 Connell's multidimensional measure of children's perception of control**

This 96-item, self-report measure addresses the reasons children have for their and other children's successes. Scale construction is based on a conceptualisation of locus of control which emphasises the construct's development and situationally specific aspects. Developmental aspects of self-esteem are those which highlight characteristics which appertain to a certain developmental stage. Situationally specific aspects are those aspects which are assessed in light of the subject's involvement in situations. These sources of control are assessed by this measure - internal (I control this outcome), powerful others (other people control this outcome) and unknown (I don't know who controls this outcome). Each of these sources of control is assessed for two types of outcome - success and failure. The scale also includes an assessment of children's perception of control over successes and failures in general. Some of the items ask about the child's own successes and failures and others (of the

items) ask about other children's successes and failures. Only 25 items were utilised for the assessment of the respondents' locus of control orientation.

The items themselves are presented in the form of statements such as: "When I get bad grades, it is usually because I didn't try hard enough". The subjects are required to indicate whether or not this statement is very true, sort of true, not very true, not at all true. These responses are scored, 4, 3, 2, 1 respectively. Thus the score will be the number of items which the subject answered in the direction of expressing greater sense of personal responsibility for outcomes.

#### **4.4.2.3.1 Reliability**

Test-retest reliability co-efficients of .26. (N=46) and .64 (n=54) were obtained in a pilot study in four high schools in Molopo.

#### **4.4.2.3.2 Validity**

As far as construct validity is concerned, correlations between .67 scores derived from the CPC responses and criterion variables were considered by Marsh & Gouvernet (1989:65). They found that criterion variables were

more highly correlated with success scales than with failure scores or the average of failure and success scales. The outcome variables were generally more significantly correlated with the augmented internal/external scales (internal minus powerful other and unknown causes). These findings support the construct validity of the scales defined by the three sources of control but, according to Marsh & Gouvenet (1989:65) "all three may be parsimoniously incorporated into a single internal-external score" (Marsh & Gouvenet, 1989:65).

#### 4.4.2.4 The Wallace Future Opinions Age Task

The task was introduced by Wallace to obtain a measure of what age the subjects expected each of ten common life experiences to transpire in their lives. They were required to estimate the time of occurrence of the future events indicated in the inventory. For example, how old will you be when you retire?

Responses to the questionnaire tapping future opinions age were scored by assigning arithmetic weights to each possible response in such a manner that the choice indicating the time furthest from now received the maximum weight of ten. Each successive response closer to the present received a smaller fraction. In effect, each item on the inventory provides for a range of

possibilities from "now" represented by 0 to the time furthest from the present, assumed to be 10. The foregoing is illustrated below:

16 - 20	=	1
21 - 25	=	2
26 - 30	=	3
31 - 35	=	4
36 - 40	=	5
41 - 45	=	6
46 - 50	=	7
51 - 60	=	8
61 - 65	=	10

It should be noted that death does not enter into the scoring as this would tend to equalise all scoring. Instead the furthest specific event is accepted for purposes of scoring. The final scale was the scores from 1 - 10.

#### 4.4.2.4.1 Reliability

Heimberg (cited by Wolf, 1985) reported an odd-even correlation of .25 (.40 if corrected by the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula) for an FTP (future time perspective) score approximating the median measure just described. The pilot data collected for the present study yielded corrected odd-even correlation of .94 (N=44) and .89 (N=51) and test-retest reliability coefficients of .59 (N=44) and .55 (N=46). These pilot

data were collected from 46 standard 9 pupils and 52 standard 10 pupils who were tested twice, with a month intervening.

#### 4.4.2.5 Attitude to school as a social system

To derive information on the issue of attitude to the schooling system, respondents were asked to register their attitudes to the school as a social system by responding to 10 items on a questionnaire designed by Buxton. They had to do so by endorsing categories: very true, undecided, very untrue in response to items tapping attitudes to the school as a social system.

##### 4.4.2.5.1 Reliability

Reliability was tested with a sample of pupils in Barolong and Modimola high schools (N=83) and a coefficient alpha of .909 suggests a high degree of reliability for the index. The construct validity of these items has been evaluated by Mohanoe (1983:170) who writes that the items in the Buxtonian questionnaire "belong together" because of their high intercorrelation and because, based on an acceptable rationale.

"Such composite variables may generally be expected to have the merit of having higher reliability than the relatively low reliability of the elements of which they are composed" (Mohanoe, 1983:170-171).

#### 4.4.2.5.2 Validity

It is likely that since the reliability of the whole index is extremely high, its validity should be assumed.

The categories that Buxton presents in the questionnaire on attitudes to school as a social system, are sources of concern for Batswana adolescents. In other words, they reflect the perceptions and concerns of the pupil population in the North Western Province of South Africa.

#### 4.4.2.6 The achievement value inventory

The achievement value inventory was administered to determine whether valuing achievement is the mainspring of an image of the future. The inventory was designed by Strodtbeck (Freire, Gorman & Wessman, 1982:247-255) on the theory that achievement motivation generated in the individual, independent decision-making, a willingness to structure an image of the future and holding specific perceptions of past, present and future. Respondents were instructed to agree or disagree with each of the seven items on the inventory. According to the instrument, to value achievement means to disagree with all seven items.

#### 4.4.2.6.1 Reliability

Test/retest reliability for the VaCH scale is .80 at the individual level. Scale homogeneity was found to be positive but low. Strodberg (Freire, Gorman & Wessman, 1982) reports that a correlation of, 50 was found between motivation to achieve and future orientation.

A split-half reliability test was conducted for a sample of high school pupils in four schools. The Spearman-Brown correlation coefficient was calculated to be 59.

### 4.5 Rationale for the choice of the questionnaire items

#### 4.5.1 PART I

##### Locality, gender, form and age

This research includes an urban and rural component, with a view to finding out if these environments have contextual effects on subjects' orientations to the future. Gender is of utmost importance in determining perceptions and perspectives of the future. The inquiry seeks to establish differential futures thinking, as a function of the barrage of conditioning to which girls and boys are exposed. It is essential to establish whether or not boys are conscious of the existence of a limitless array of possibilities for the contemplation of a future image. Simultaneously, there is need to inquire into whether or not the image of the future

is constricted by their contextual modes of thinking.

With regard to age-related differences in the future imagery, there is expected to emerge a pattern in which younger adolescents articulate a more foreshortened phenomenological future than individuals in later adolescence. Older adolescents are predicted to demonstrate a longer-range future reference than their younger counterparts in late adolescence. Thus the Matric pupils will, it is conjectured, be more aware of the need to think ahead towards post-schooling events (Greene, 1986:102). Related to this line of reasoning is the issue of the form or grade class placement of the subject. The preliminary expectation is that the adolescents in standard nine will perceive themselves as less under pressure to extrapolate an occupational image of the future than their standard ten contemporaries. The latter are required to extrapolate a rich and complex imagery, characterised by a longer time-span, with contents such as an occupation, national service, marriage and so forth.

#### 4.5.2 PART 2

##### The home background questionnaire

The general cultural and educational atmosphere which prevails in the home is likely to affect the attitudes of the adolescents to future. Therefore, the cultural and educational experiences were assessed through observation

and study of the subjects' characteristics as reflected in the responses to the questionnaire. Education in this context was interpreted broadly to include both the formal and informal aspects. The formal aspects comprised the parents' occupational and educational level, their awareness of their children's educational needs and the time spent in studying. The informal educational aspects took into consideration the parents' reading habits, radio and television programmes preferred by children and discussions about current affairs by parents and children. In focus here is the parents' behaviour towards the children that then conditions the development of future-time perspective, aspirations and the necessary and normative behaviour to achieve them.

#### 4.5.3 PART 3

##### Occupational aspirations

This questionnaire, which purports to measure occupational aspirations, is based on the assumption that occupational aspirations and mobility orientations are aspects of motivation which exemplify the image of the future. The underlying assumption of this inventory is that the discrepancy between the present scholastic activities and the ideal occupation is the description a person gives to a possible occupational future image.

#### 4.5.4 The Cultural Dimension Scale

One expects to find interesting future orientations subsequent to the administration of this inventory. It has been shown that different societies place different values on the past, present and the future (Richie and Bichard, 1988:14) and Erny (1981).

Batswana adolescents, facing the universal developmental tasks of deciding about preferred future roles, might be expected to reflect the values inherent in the Tswana cultural complex.

#### 4.5.5 The Eysenck Personality Inventory

The items on the questionnaire formulated by Eysenck & Eysenck (1985) have been incorporated for use because they could highlight the fact that differences in personality characteristics contribute to variations in individuals' anticipations concerning the future. The prediction of the researcher is that pupils high on neuroticism, in their fear of the future will perceive the future as too potent to be assailed.

According to Eysenck & Eysenck (1985), the high N scorer remains worried about his future work, has high levels of dread of situations where his competency will be tested and allows his "nerves" to interfere with the formulation of realistic future images. Individuals with a predominantly extravert style of consciousness, with their outgoing outlook, may predictably challenge the future with their intentions and expectations. It is the extraverts who might populate the future with a more substantial volume of contents.

#### 4.5.6 Rosenberg Self-esteem scale

Sense of control over the environment is viewed here as having a strong relationship with the image of the future. A person is likely to visualise diversified images of the future, and have a future time perspective with a remote focus, if his system of expectancies empowers him to believe that he has control over future outcomes. If a person believes that future consequences are not contingent upon his personal intervention, his effort and his agency, his image of the future, will have a more immediate focus. For the former, constituting an image of the future evolves into a controlling process in which people believe they can govern their destinies. Externality causes the people to exaggerate the potential dangers of the future and to

ascribe to it greater potency.

#### 4.5.7 Wallace's Future Opinions Age Task

This is a test of planning ability which is closely related to the image of the future. The planning process has obvious connection with the individual's choice of behaviour in his attempt to realise his future image in the environment. In formulating an image of the future, the individual draws up a model of what the future might be. The planning process involves confining himself to that self-defined framework.

#### 4.5.8 Buxtonian questionnaire: Attitude to school as a social system

For purposes of this investigation, it is of cardinal importance to determine what the structural variables and value orientations are in the schools which promote or hamper the development of images of the future. By examining school contextual effects more directly, it becomes possible to include characteristics in the schools which are predictive of the future success or failure of the learner members of the school population. It is anticipated that administrators and staff will orient their perception of time in the schools towards the future and

announce a public vision of what they think the future should be.

#### 4.5.9 The Achievement Value Inventory: Strodberg (McClelland, 1990)

There is a linkage between valuing achievement and planning for the future. What is called the "achievement syndrome" is the precursor of an image of the future. It stands to reason that the determination to achieve must be the focus of analysis if the future imagery which is essential in developing expectations, is to be apprehended.

#### 4.6 Description of the coding procedure

A good number of 148 questions were formulated and included in the questionnaire. Since the punch and machine is to be used in calculating frequencies, each question is allocated a column number C which corresponds with a column in the punch card. Questions have been structured in such a fashion that a respondent can choose one from two or more alternatives. Each alternative is assigned the code number D. The illustration below of the coding procedure which serves as an example is not exhaustive in that it does not contain all the elements in the questionnaire.

TABLE 4.2. CODING PROCEDURE

A	B	C	D
1	Place of residence	7	Urban 1    Peri-urban 2    Rural 3
2	Form	8	Std. 9 1    Std. 10 2
3	Age	10	Below 15 1    Below 20 2    Above 20 3
4	Sex	12	Male 1    Female 2
5	Primary School	13	Not at all 1    1-4 years 2    More than 4 3
6	Post primary school education	16	None 1    Diploma 2    University 3    Other 4
7	Income level	17	None 1    Grade Level 0-6 2    7 & above 3
8	Occupation of father	18	Not employed 1    Farmer/Jnr staff 2 Trader/small contractor : 3
9	Material condition of home	19	Poor 1    Satisfactory 2    Well off 3
10	Area of residence	22	Village 1    Township 2    City 3
11	Food situation	23	Not enough 1    Adequate 2    Plenty 3
12	Parents' reading habits	24	Newspapers 1    Library (Fiction) 2 Educative Books : 3
13	Discussion of topical issues	27	Nothing 1    Politics 2    State of Nation 3
14	Educational motivation	29	Uncertain 1    A good Job 2 to Educate Children : 3

#### 4.7 Statistical technique used

##### 4.7.1 Two way frequencies

The data of research consist of frequencies in discrete categories and the plotting of two-way frequencies to

determine the significance of similarities and dissimilarities between two independent groups, was the indicated statistical method. The hypotheses selected for testing postulate that two groups differ or converge in the matter of the relative frequency with which they endorse certain categories broached in the questionnaire. Groups may be constituted by the following polarities: girls/boys, rural/urban residents, Standards 9/10 and younger/older adolescents. To assess the veracity of the hypothetical postulates, the number of cases which fall within various categories are counted and comparisons of proportions of cases from selected groups with the proportions of comparable groups, will be undertaken.

#### 4.7.2 Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r)

For purposes of the correlation of continuous data, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient will be employed (Oppenheim, 1992:286). Correlation is an issue of concern in this research as it is crucial to determine the association between pairs of sets of scores derived from the data proffered by the respondents. It is anticipated that there will be positive relationships between variables. It is also possible that some of the variables will be negatively correlated, that is, with increase in one set of variables, there will be an accompanying decrease in other variables. For purposes of the

establishment of the existence and strength of these relationships, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient provides a precise indication of the relationships, and the degree of the relationships (Welkowitz, Ewen & Cohen, 1971: 152-161). If the probability level of the coefficient is less than 0,05 (or 0,01 to be more conservative) the null hypothesis will be rejected and proof will have been furnished of the existence of a correlation between the two variables.

#### 4.7.3 Analysis of variance: ANOVA

Analysis of variance will most appropriately be used in cases where more than two sets of scores are involved. Where it is essential to compare differences among three or more groups, the resources which inhere in the ANOVA test will be exploited to good account to illumine the variance there is in data provided to illumine the image of the future. It will serve a useful purpose to apply ANOVA to data derived from the respondents because it (ANOVA) takes into account the amount of overlap in the distribution of the scores. This facilitates the decision making involved in making judgements about the significance of the difference between means. In the SAS/STAT USER'S GUIDE it is suggested that there is an important condition that must be met. The distribution of the scores in the population from which scores are drawn should approximately constitute a normal curve (SAS/STAT USER'S GUIDE, 19:1432).

It is expected that many of the sets of scores in the population from which scores were drawn in this research will constitute a perfectly normal curve. Since the characteristics measured in this research may produce the kind of frequency distribution described in the foregoing, analysis of variance seems to be the indicated statistical technique.

#### 4.7.4 Multiple regression analysis

The present study sets out to predict the formulation of the image of the future by adolescents by considering a number of possible predictor variables. This statistical method involves an analysis of the collective and separate contributions of the independent variables identified in the study, to the variance of the dependent variable (SAS/STAT USER'S GUIDE, 1992:1430). The relationship between the dependent and independent variables is set out in this manual.

The principle of least squares has been adopted. In terms of this tenet, data should be analyzed in such a manner that the squared errors of prediction are reduced to a minimum. The relationship between the least squares aggregation of independent variables is designated the multiple correlation coefficient. The squared value of this coefficient is  $R^2$  and it indicates the portion of the variation of the dependent variable which is contributed by the combination of independent variables.

The independent variable that explains the greatest amount of variance in the dependent variable is entered first. The second variable that enters the regression will be the one which, when combined with the variable initially entered into the equation, will account for the greatest amount of variance in the dependent variable, and so forth.

The level of significance will be determined in the following manner: The F value will come under consideration. If the F ratio is greater than the appropriate tabled value at the 0.05 level of confidence, the variable will be regarded as significant.

#### 4.8 Test administration

4.8.1 Three schools from the urban area of Mmabatho and three schools from the rural areas of Modimola and Ramatlabama were selected as the locus of the pilot study. Pupils from two levels of class grade placement, that is, standards nine and ten were targeted as respondents to evaluate the meaningfulness of questions constructed for purposes of the research. Table 4.4 gives an indication of the forms, schools and respondents chosen for participation in the pilot study.

Care was exercised not to involve the classes which had participated in the pilot study, in the actual research. The pilot study was implemented

during the last two months of 1993. The intent was to conduct the actual research during May and June 1994.

TABLE 4.3 Classes used for pupil study

Form	Urban School	No. of Pupils	Rural School	No. of Pupils
Standard 9	Barolong High	50	Modimola High	50
Standard 10	Tswelelopele High	25	Batloung High	25
	Lapologang High	25	Tsetse High	25

Certain research decisions were made as a result of the pilot study experience.

1. The services of the guidance teacher would be enlisted in the administration of the questionnaire.
2. Questions would be read out aloud and explained to ensure that the respondents understood them.
3. Enough time, an hour and a half, would be allocated to the answering of questions.
4. Pupils were given the latitude of asking questions as individuals if they need more explanation of the concepts and indicators in the questionnaire.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Description of the form of the analysis

The salient thematic element of this research is an analysis of the content, affect and time span of the image of the future conceptualised by Batswana adolescents in high schools in the North West region of South Africa, as it is influenced by a number of factors. In the discussion of the results of the categories set out in the questionnaire, the issues raised in this research will be dealt with as they appear in the inventory.

It was deemed appropriate that the items to which the pupils responded be classified into two main categories, that is, the dependent and independent variables. For purposes of this research, the dependent variables are those which are presumed to externalise the components of the image of the future. They are items comprising the respondents' evaluation of the importance of career choices in terms of alternatives provided by the researcher and items added by the respondents. A set of items was presented to the respondents and in terms of these they were required to undertake an assessment of the possibility and/or probability of attaining the career goals stipulated by the researcher and those volunteered by the respondents.

The Wallace Future Opinions Age Task represents predictive categories in the form of age brackets which the respondents utilised for making projections of when the milestones of their existence in the future would materialise. Achievement orientation is a dependent variable which reflects the motivation to achieve that the respondents have. It is regarded in this research as the behavioural evidence of a future orientation made possible by the pursuit of goals located in the future and the attainment of autonomy. For the items which reflect the occupational image of the future, the abbreviations CA (ratings of importance of occupation) and CB (ratings of possibility of attainment of a career), will be utilised. The abbreviation WFO will be used with reference to the Wallace Future Opinions Task. ACH will be used to refer to achievement orientation.

The independent variables are those which are assumed to influence the respondents' image of the future. Such variables are isolated in the questionnaire and each of them, as reflected in the tables, is taken out, held constant and the manner in which it impacts the image of the future, is established. The study is comparative in so far as it sets out to juxtapose and dichotomise pupils' responses in terms of such criteria of comparability as area of residence or locality, form or school grade placement, age, gender and socio-economic level, inter alia, (Mohano, 1983:226-283; Connell, 1981:111).

In other words, the analysis of the image of the future of Batswana adolescents in the North West region of South Africa, was pursued through specific future time perspectives, spatial elements and demographic characteristics and their combined interactions.

## 5.2 Analysis of results

### 5.2.1 Main effects of demographic variables on the evaluation of the probability of achievement of occupational goals

#### 5.2.1.1 Socio-economic level versus possibility of occupational tenure

The variable which was employed to measure socio-economic level was father's occupation. In the absence of a father, the mother or guardian was used. The occupational status of the father has been found to be an indicator of socio-economic level (Ametewee, 1991:32). It has also been found to significantly correlate with family income and educational level of the breadwinner, (Omoding-Okwalinga, 1991:29).

In terms of socio-educational experiences resulting from the occupational differentials, occupational status is related to the parents' aspirations for the future of the adolescents. The economic import of the

father's occupation is not as important as the status implications.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine the effects of socio-economic level on predictive certainty about occupational tenure. The SAS procedure was employed in the performance of the ANOVAS (SAS Stat User's guide, 1992:1400).

**TABLE 1**  
**Summary of results for socio-economical level (independent variable) and ratings of possibility of attainment of occupational goal (dependent variable)**

**Analysis of Variance**

Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
C1B	19.549	2	9.775	6.24	0.0021
C2B	25.599	2	12.799	8.59	0.002
C3B	7.970	2	3.985	2.09	0.1255
C4B	0.803	2	0.402	0.29	0.7468
C5B	9.4	2	4.7	2.72	0.0673
C6B	8.015	2	4.008	2.46	0.08
C7B	3.77	2	1	0.96	0.3826

$p < 0.05$

Table 1 includes an ANOVA summary table and descriptive information for the socio-economic level. The analysis of variance revealed that only C1B and C2B have significant socio-economic effects wielded on them since the relevant p values were  $< 0,05$ . The F values of C3B, C4B, C5B, C6B

and C7B were 0.1255, 0,7468, 0,0673, 0,08 and 0,3826 respectively.

As these are not significant at the 0,05 level, the relationship of the factors referred to in the foregoing and socio-economic level is not statistically significant. It must be inferred that the investment of faith in occupational mobility in this generation of Batswana persists. But the minimal relationship between socio-economic level and predictive certainty about occupancy of career positions demonstrates that vertical mobility is ensured through success in the Matriculation examination and not through the application of criteria of ascription of status.

The results which attest that socio-economic level is only minimally related to predictive certainty about jobs, within the framework of this research, is justified in terms of the inability of the parents to grasp the school-work nexus. Generally, Batswana parents tend not to express specific aspirations for their children, not comprehending the mismatch between the stock of skills produced by the educational system and the requirements of

the labour market. In the prediction of the probability for the achievement of an occupational image of the future, Batswana adolescents are thrown entirely on their resources to engage in appropriate decision-making. Certainty about a future occupation can be seen as part of vocational maturity which, in turn, is part of a broad area of intrapersonality maturity.

A T test procedure was administered to determine the main effects of gender on predictions of certainty about tenure in jobs. This was done in accordance with the forms of procedure in use in SAS.

This test takes into account the amount of overlap in the distribution of scores in order to make a judgement about the significance of the differences between the means of the males and those of the females (SAS Stat User's guide, 1992:1451).

For Table 2 please see next page.

TABLE 2

**Relationships between sex and estimations of possibilities  
for the attainment of occupational goal - Analysis of Variance**

Variable	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	DF	T	Prob T
C1B	Male	3.49557522	1.27974924	0.08512765	474.7	1.2935	0.1965
	Female	3.64157706	1.23812010	0.07412431			
C2B	Male	3.23981900	1.24369244	0.8365981	469.3	0.4390	0.6608
	Female	3.28880866	1.22902003	0.07384466			
C3B	Male	3.36448598	1.40350014	0.09594129	455.6	0.7609	0.4471
	Female	3.26739927	1.38993209	0.08412252			
C4B	Male	2.89320388	1.18866698	0.08281835	434.6	1.2012	0.2303
	Female	2.76153846	1.15784280	0.07180636			
C5B	Male	3.06293706	1.23457687	0.10324050	326.8	0.797	0.9365
	Female	3.07407407	1.38230481	0.09405393			
C6B	Male	3.43604651	1.28940013	0.09831584	364.2	0.8898	0.3742
	Female	3.54958678	1.26541115	0.08134371			
C7B	Male	3.17177914	1.30334372	0.10208576	351.6	1.0992	0.2724
	Female	3.31896552	1.31983954	0.08665171			

\* $p < 0.05$

Although sex differences in predictive certainty of occupancy of occupational positions are not crucial to the execution of the study plan, they, nevertheless, are of immense interest. As reflected in Table 2, sex as a main effect producing differences in the expectancies of the probability of realising self-set occupational goals, yielded results which were not statistically significant in that the means of both males and females were large right throughout.

Because more value is placed on the achievement syndrome in the case of boys, they are more aware than girls of the realities and challenges of the world of work. The tension and seriousness that are associated with the demands of the work-place are well known to the boys, hence the preparedness to deal with it head on, as reflected in the high means. Analysis of the data showed that girls scored high means, in equal measure with the boys. Not having had exposure to the demands and imperatives of a work ethic, the girl adopts a favourable attitude and approaches the prospect of occupancy of an occupational position with less pressure and tension. This explains the high endorsement of job certainty, as reflected in the high means. Any difference of this nature, however, was found to be of doubtful significance in the present investigation.

### 5.3 Hierarchical regressions involving self-esteem on the Wallace Future Opinions Age Task (WFO)- dependent variable.

Step-wise regressions were executed, using the step-wise procedure of SAS. The variables of self-esteem which are the personal self, the behaviour self and moral ethical self were entered into the equation in a specific order. The order of incorporating the independent variables of self-esteem was done through the application of the forward step-wise inclusion. According to this procedure, variables are entered into the regression equation in accordance with the amount of variance contributed to the

dependent variable, accounted for by the independent variable, in a descending order of contribution (SAS Stat User's guide, 1992:1399).

The variable that was assumed to account for the greatest amount of variance on WFO (dependent variable), that is, the behaviour self was entered first. The second variable to enter the equation was the personal self because it was considered that in its combination with the behaviour self, it would explain the most amount of variance in the dependent variable (Buri & Walsh, 1987:583).

When the variables had been included and ordered, the problem of identifying the independent variables of self-esteem which contributed more significantly to the regression sum of squares, emerged. There is no universal solution to the problem of the identification of regressors (Oppenheim, 1992:27-28). The problem of the selection of regressors was further exacerbated by the fact that there are a variety of measures, for instance, the F ratios or beta weights which can be employed in choosing significant predictors.

For purposes of the present study, the following method of interpretation was implemented. If the F value of the variable after the remaining variables had been incorporated into the equation, was greater than the stipulated F value at the 0,05 level of significance, the variable was evaluated as significant. The significance of the variable was also assessed by considering the

contribution it had made to the variance of the dependent variable (Welkowitz, Ewen & Cohen, 1971:162).

TABLE 3

Summary of step-wise linear regression to determine self-esteem effects on WFO (Wallace Future Opinions Age Task) (dependent variable)

Dependent Variable	Independent variable entering equation	Step	Cumulative R <sup>2</sup>	F
WF01	Behaviour self	1	0.0056	3.1608
	Personal self	2	0.0117	3.4545
	Moral ethical self	3	0.0158	2.3522
WF02	Personal self	1	0.0087	4.9108
	Moral ethical self	2	0.0137	2.8832
WF03	Behaviour self	1	0.0070	3.9667
	Moral ethical self	2	0.0120	2.8353
WF04	Personal self	1	0.0187	10.7328
	Behaviour self	2	0.0316	7.4400
WF05	Personal self	1	0.0105	5.9381
	Behaviour self	2	0.0199	5.4207
WF06	Personal self	1	0.0205	11.7656
	Behaviour self	2	0.0304	5.7348
WF07	Moral ethical self	1	0.0152	8.7013
	Behaviour self	2	0.0246	5.3847
WF08	Personal self	1	0.0078	4.3977
WF09	Behaviour self	1	0.007	4.3728
	Personal self	2	0.0152	4.2631
WF010	Behaviour self	1	0.0181	10.3736
	Personal self	2	0.0280	5.7182

\* p < 0.05

Table 3 is a summary of separate regressions, each of which was conducted with the dependent variable Wallace Future Opinions Task. Conventional rigid standards were maintained for the execution of the regression analyses and certain of the self-esteem variables were deleted from the regression equation in order to retain adequate confidence levels. The statistical method adopted, that is, the forward stepwise inclusion permitted a decomposition of the equation. The rationale for this procedure is derived from the SAS Stat user's guide (1992:1392) which stipulates that after the variables have been included in the model, they should be re-examined and deleted if they produce an F statistic which is not significant. Therefore, the convention adhered to for purposes of the current regression analysis eliminated all the variables which did not meet the 0.1500 significance for entry into the model. The variables that were included in the regression involving the operation of S.E. variables on WFO, dependent variable, are included in the summary of the regression analysis in Table 3. Table 3 reflects that the variable that finally entered the equation was personal self, yielding an F value of 5.7182 and an  $R^2$  of 0.0280.

Since the  $R^2$  value of 0.0280 is not larger than the appropriate tabled F value at the 0,05 level of significance, the variance accounted for by the regression is low and insignificant.

#### 5.4 Perceived control and its effects on the Wallace Future Opinions Age Task

Respondents' perceptions of control were measured through the administration of Connell's Children's Perception Scale, designated LCS in the current investigation. On the basis of questions on LCS, respondents were required to respond to 25 items along a four-point scale: very true, sort of true, not very true and not at all true. The design and rationale of the CPC (LCS) can yield a variety of scores which discriminate among self-perceptions of such content domains as the physical, general, academic and social. The main focus of the present investigation, however, was to extract goal dimensions (expectancies of achievement), action dimensions (effort and persistence) and ideas expressed by respondents on attributions for the outcomes of success and failure.

A multiple regression was performed for each of the ten components of the dependent variable WFO 1-10, with the appropriate independent variables, that is, internal and external locus of control orientation. The entering of the variables was by means of a step-wise solution. A summary of the results is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Summary of stepwise linear regression of locus of control for  
the dependent variable WFO - Wallace Future Opinions Age Task

Dependent Variable	Independent variable entering equation	Step	Cumulative R <sup>2</sup>	F
WF0	INTERNALITY			
WF01	LCS2	1	0.0212	9.8412
	LCS4	2	0.0279	3.1222
	LCS13	3	0.0343	3.0067
WF03	LCS13	1	0.0331	15.5404
	LCS1	2	0.0440	5.1656
WF04	LCS22	1	0.0092	4.2330
WF06	LCS22	1	0.0157	7.2544
	LCS4	2	0.0212	2.5182
WF07	LCS13	1	0.0240	11.1429
	LCS16	2	0.0318	3.6700
	LCS25	3	0.0377	2.7735
WF08	LCS7	1	0.0060	2.7307
WF09	LCS25	1	0.0097	4.4607
WF010	LCS4	1	0.0234	10.8793
	LCS13	2	0.0287	2.4829
	LCS22	3	0.0346	2.7362
	EXTERNALITY			
WF01	LCS24	1	0.0134	5.9534
	LCS6	2	0.0204	3.1525
WF02	LCS14	1	0.0244	10.9967
	LCS21	2	0.0387	6.4991
	LCS24	3	0.0477	4.1253

Dependent Variable	Independent variable entering the equation	Step	Cumulative R <sup>2</sup>	F
WF03	LCS1	1	0.0156	6.9755
	LCS4	2	0.0254	4.4077
WF04	LCS23	1	0.0122	5.4015
	LCS5	2	0.0194	3.2420
	LCS9	3	0.0256	3.7761
	LCS21	4	0.0308	2.3351
WF05	LCS23	1	0.053	2.3184
WF06	LCS23	1	0.0174	7.7913
	LCS2	2	0.0282	4.8397
WF07	LCS21	1	0.0127	5.6683
	LCS24	2	0.0196	3.0668
	LCS21	3	0.0259	2.8218
WF08	LCS17	1	0.0073	3.2434
	LCS24	2	0.0138	2.8745
	LCS21	3	0.0189	2.2754
	LCS23	4	0.0262	3.2827
WF09	LCS15	1	0.0112	4.9858
	LCS3	2	0.0178	2.9292
WF010	LCS15	1	0.0158	7.0604
	LCS23	2	0.0244	3.8667
	LCS3	3	0.0292	2.1349

\*p<0.05

The need to establish the internality-externality dichotomy dictated that items corresponding to the causes of success and failure outcomes be consistently defined. The identification of

items in the inventory associated with internal locus of control and external locus of control reinforcement, facilitated the exercise of establishing the aggregate endorsement of external and internal control by respondents.

The hierarchical linear regression procedure applied to locus of control, was executed such that finally LCS22 was included in the regression and it produced an F ratio of 2.7362 and a corresponding low  $R^2$  value of 0.0346. This represents a low contribution to the variance of WFO, dependent variable, by internality. The low  $R^2$  value indicated above renders this contribution insignificant (on a  $p < 0.05$  level).

A low  $R^2$  value of 0.0292 was recorded by WFO, with a negligible increase in variation in the independent variable. With an F ratio of 2.1349, the relationship between externality (LCS3) and Wallace Future Opinions Age Task, dependent variable, is not significant. It can be concluded that the research sample was drawn from a population in which multiple  $R=0$ .

#### 5.4.1 Correlational analysis: relationships between internal locus of control and valuing of achievement-dependent variable

The next logical step was to determine whether or not there

was correlation between internal locus of control orientation and the dependent variable, valuing achievement. As valuing achievement is under personal control, it was predicted that this behavioural dimension would have a positive correlation with internal attributions of outcomes of both success and failure.

Table 5 presents the results of the correlation analysis and the absence of significant correlation between achievement valuing and internal locus of control orientation is evident. Within the framework of this research, the correlation indicated that a high level of achievement valuing is not associated with a high level of internal locus of control reinforcement.

**TABLE 5**

**Correlation between internal locus of control and achievement valuing**

	A 1	B 2	C 3	D 4	E 5	F 6	G 7
F6	0.01064	0.02945	0.12131	0.00910	0.06396	0.02188	0.05264
E5	0.05416	0.06738	0.07509	0.05740	0.03721	0.07635	0.02679
D4	0.12131	0.09028	0.09504	0.00193	0.00274	0.06351	0.06545
C3	0.00910	0.04725	0.10000	0.01336	0.01642	0.02879	0.01810
B2	0.06396	0.02679	0.08137	0.01861	0.10373	0.12756	0.01047
A1	0.01064	0.00000	0.06458	0.00009	0.02994	0.07557	0.11036

$p < 0.05$

H. Achievement orientation. A-G Variables of achievement valuing.

A1=LCS1; B2=LCS19; C3=LCS7; D4=LCS16.

The fact that a respondent is certain that he determines a future outcome does not mean that his certainty is satisfactory in the sense of eliciting in him aspirations to high achievement.

Achievement valuing 1 correlated with internal locus of control 1. From table 5 follows: " $r = 0.01064$  ( $p = 0.8155$ ), which are not significant (on a 0.05 level)". There was a positive correlation between Achievement valuing 2 and internal locus of orientation 19. From table 5 follows: " $r = 0.02679$  ( $p = 0.5607$ ) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

A positive correlation between a measure of internal locus of control orientation 16 and Achievement valuing 4 was obtained. From Table 5 follows: " $r = 0.00193$  ( $p = 0.9666$ ) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Analyses revealed that internal attributions of outcomes (LCS7) and Achievement orientation 6 are positively corelated. From table 5 follows: " $r = 0.02879$  ( $p = 0,5313$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Internal attributions of outcomes LCS16 correlated with Achievement orientation 7. From Table 5 follows: " $r = 0.06545$  ( $p = 0.1557$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The data, therefore, rejected the hypothesis of the influence of internal locus of control on Achievement valuing, dependent variable signifying future orientation.

### 5.5 Personality variables

The Eysenck Personality Inventory was administered to take measures of extraversion and neuroticism. The test of EI consists of 40 selected questions requiring "yes" and "no" answers. A score was derived by counting the number of responses indicating the presence of either extraversion or neuroticism. An index of 10 and above identifies respondents with a disposition of neuroticism and a score of 10 and above in extraversion identifies an extravert style of consciousness in individuals.

**TABLE 6**

**Hierarchical stepwise linear regressions involving personality variables on evaluations of importance of careers: EI versus CA - dependent variable**

Dependent variable	Independent variable entering equation	Step	Cumulative R <sup>2</sup>	F
C1A	EI 8 E	1	** 0.0689	21.9928
	EI 11 E	2	0.1302	20.8546
	EI 1 E	3	0.1618	11.0992
	EI 15 E	4	0.1809	6.8530
	EI 13 E	5	0.1915	3.8686
	EI 6 E	6	0.2022	3.9049
C2A	EI 11 E	1	* 0.0962	31.6197
	EI 8 E	2	0.1578	21.6301
	EI 15 E	3	0.2164	22.0611
	EI 6 E	4	0.2288	4.7257
	EI 12 E	5	0.2358	2.7108
	EI 3 E	6	0.2414	2.1610

Dependent variable	Independent variable entering equation	Step	Cumulative R <sup>2</sup>	F
C3A	EI 11 E	1	* 0.0299	9.1672
	EI 6 E	2	• 0.0444	4.4711
	EI 15 E	3	• 0.0553	3.4162
	EI 1 E	4	** 0.0670	3.6923
C4A	EI 8 N	1	• 0.0487	15.2077
	EI 1 N	2	** 0.0794	9.8602
	EI 11 N	3	• 0.0907	3.6572
	EI 4 N	4	0.1009	3.3591
	EI 3 N	5	0.1113	3.4253
	EI15N	6	0.1181	2.2399
C5A	EI11N	1	• 0.0435	13.5142
	EI13N	2	• 0.0528	2.9146
C6A	EI 11 N	1	** 0.0095	2.8496
	EI 8 N	1	** 0.0170	2.2439
C7A	EI 16 N	1	0.0695	22.1901
	EI 15 N	2	0.1163	15.6616
	EI 1 N	3	0.1369	7.0501
	EI 3 N	4	0.1579	7.3180
	EI1N	5	0.1704	4.4373
	EI3N	6	0.1766	2.1869

\*p<0.05

\*\*p<0.01

The hypothesised influence of personality variables, extraversion and neuroticism (independent variables) on the dependent variable, ratings of importance of future career (occupational image of the future) was verified with hierarchical stepwise linear regressions. "After step 1 R<sup>2</sup> is 0.0689 which is significant (p = 0.001)".

To determine the proportion of variance of ratings of importance of future career contributed by neuroticism EI3 was finally introduced into the equation involving C7A, dependent variable. The "R<sup>2</sup> value for neuroticism was 0.1766 and it was found to be significant on a 0.001 level".

Arguably personality factors associated with the concept of intra-personality adjustment, are related to the vocational maturity which enables the pupils to proffer judgement on the importance or lack of importance of a chosen career. The results from the regression procedure would seem to support this conclusion. Respondents with an extravert style of consciousness were more emotionally stable, constant in their choices and concerned with social standards. The anxiety of the "neurotics" operates as the mainspring of strivings towards an occupational future. Directed along channels of usefulness, it functions, as the results make plain, as a motivator of aggressiveness, tough-mindedness and drive-to-goal behaviour.

#### 5.6 Attitude to school as a social system

The variable, attitude towards school as a social system, was operationalised with an emphasis on assessing the contribution of biographical data to the development of attitudes to school. The overarching assumption in considering these attitudes is that "analysis of the scales

shows that liking for school, consciousness and concern for the future are closely related" (Mohano, 1983:266).

The ten attitudinal statements in the scale representing attitudes to school were converted into functional factors for purposes of maintaining sharpness of focus. Factor analysis is a statistical procedure designed to reduce a set of data by seeking an underlying pattern of relationships by which the data may be rearranged into smaller sets of data. These are regarded as source variables (Oppenheim, 1992:13).

Within the framework of this research, attitudinal factors have been evolved, not for purposes of extracting variables among larger numbers of measures, there being only 10 subtests to consider. The search is for clarity in the issues broached by the respondents.

Thus the attitudinal dimensions inherent in ATT 1, 2, 3 encompass a component called Bureaucratic structure in the school. ATT4 represents the factor of Participation in governance. It refers to the respondents' drive towards active participation in some aspects of administration in the school, especially as it appertains to the selection of subject areas. ATT5 designates strategies employed which have to do with the mechanisms employed in ensuring conformity to rules and regulations by the pupils. Rule constraints are those boundaries set up by the school to

regulate the behaviour of pupils. This factor has the negative connotation of the existence of uniformity and regimentation of pupils. ATT6 has reference to Choosing learning materials, that is, the latitude or lack of it extended to pupils to select some of their learning materials and participate in curriculum development. ATT7 focuses on individualisation which refers to the provision made for individual differences. ATT8 appertains to learning versus schooling, that is, the preference pupils might have for learning experiences outside the confines of the institutionalised schooling system or vice versa. ATT9 accentuates the notion of pupil monitoring which has to do with the surveillance kept over the pupils while they are involved in the educational process. ATT10 refers to the regularity with which classroom activities are scheduled.

#### 5.6.1 Analysis of variance

An analysis of variance was undertaken along the lines laid out in the SAS procedure for such a test. The test was employed to make a judgement about whether or not there were significant differences between the mean scores of the respondents of different age groups.

**TABLE 7**

**Attitude to the schooling system by age**

ATT - Independent variable source of variation AGE ON	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	P Value
ATT 1	29.18538631	2	14.59269316	31.63	0.0001
ATT 2	1.45800089	2	0.72900044	1.08	0.3396
ATT 3	11.66672074	2	5.83336037	8.62	0.0002
ATT 4	2.06062651	2	.03031325	3.25	0.0395
ATT5	8.30149335	2	4.15074668	7.31	0.0007
ATT 6	1.75246108	2	0.87623054	1.18	0.3093
ATT 7	4.21538449	2	2.10769225	3.35	0.0359
ATT 8	7.62540763	2	3.81270381	5.33	0.0051
ATT 9	0.42700944	2	0.21350472	0.41	0.6662
ATT 10	1.60667848	2	0.80333924	1.82	0.1637

\*p<0.05

Table 5 includes a summary table and descriptive information for age-related attitudes to the school as a system. Evidence has been adduced, on the basis of the informational content in the table, that respondents constituted only one age group, age group two, comprising the years "below 20". There emerged, therefore, no discernible differences in attitude to school as a function of age differentials.

The moot issue, then, becomes one of evaluating the attitudes adopted by respondents in late adolescence to the schooling system. The ANOVA analysis reflects main effects for age which are demonstrated in the striving for participation in the governance of the school by the age group in question (below 20). This attitude involves a rejection of the formalised structure of control and communication system in the school - a locus of boundary disputes. From table 7 follows: "F = 31,63 (p = 0,0001), which are significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The respondents demonstrate a basic attitude of conformism, a compliant attitude which is symptomatic of bureaucratic orientation. They profess a willingness to co-operate with staff and administrators in the institutions if their rights of dissent are recognised. From table 7 is reflected the following: "F = 1,08 (p = 0,3396), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The respondents' views on the factor of control mechanisms is evident in their allegation that rules and regulations ensure uniformity (which they reject) and guarantee the disciplined compliance to directives from superiors even if this constitutes regimentation. From table 7 follows: "F = 8,62 (p = 0,0002), which are significant (on a 0,05 level)".

What would have been of research interest in this connection but beyond the brief of this study, would be to identify the effects of age appropriateness or divergent types of peer reputation for given ages for given grade class placements.

Respondents vocalised a preference for democratic imperatives in the choice of subject areas for learning purposes. They expressed a keen interest in making rational choices of the cognate disciplines they studied. Simultaneously they gave voice to acceptance of some of the subject materials and curricular offerings currently pursued in their schools. From table 7 follows: "F = 3.25 (p = 0,0395), which are significant (on a 0,05 level)".

On the basis of the information yielded by table 7, it is possible to extrapolate a future orientation component into the attitudes of the adolescents to the school as a system. From a developmental perspective, the older adolescents alter and adapt their attitudes to subject areas, whether they are tedious or innovative, because they perceive them as gateways to the future. Careers and the requirements of the labour market demand that adolescents structure their conceptions of the future by subscribing to certain knowledge areas in light of realistic possibilities which are located in the future. From table 7 the following result is presented: "F = 7,31 (p = 0.0007), which are significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Worth-noting was the performance of the adolescents in the issue of rule constraints. There was evidence of an unwillingness on the part of the student body to adhere to rules structured to promote (gebondenheid). This is exhibited through a preference for possession of powers of intervention in the matter of the choice of learning materials. From table 7 follows: "F = 1,18 (p = 3.3093), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The factor of learning versus schooling was handled in an analogous manner as was that of subject areas, with the democratising tendency strongly influencing the development of attitudes. From table 7 follows: "F = 3,35 (p = 0,0359), which are significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The responses of the respondents on the category of pupil monitoring make it evident that they would like to dispense with the policing of pupils on the school premises. On table 7 is reflected the following: "F = 5,33 (p = 0.0051), which are significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Recognition of the individuality of the pupils in the educational process received its share of endorsement by the respondents. This attitude is all of a piece with the drive towards the egalitarian approach to education. From table 7 follows "F = 0,41 (p = 0,6662), which are not significant (on an 0,05 level)".

Class-scheduling did not elicit as strong a cluster of negative attitudes as the factors involving boundary disputes between superordinates and subordinates, (Factors 1, 2 and 5 corresponding to participation in governance, control mechanisms and rule constraints, respectively). There emerged a more accommodating and flexible outlook demonstrated through the recognition of the role of educators as managers of classroom situations, in particular, and the educational endeavour, in general. From table 7 follows: "F = 1,82 (p = 0,1637), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

**TABLE 8**

**Attitude to the schooling system by area**

Independent variable ATT Source of variance. AREA ON	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	P Value
ATT 1	0.19363261	2	0.09681630	0.19	0.8304
ATT 2	2.44868790	2	1.22434395	1.82	0.1624
ATT 3	1.65128278	2	0.82564139	1.18	0.3069
ATT 4	0.69613034	2	0.34806517	1.09	0.3377
ATT 5	2.25373766	2	1.12686883	1.95	0.1438
ATT 6	4.54242177	2	2.27121088	3.07	0.0474
ATT 7	0.35910768	2	0.17955384	0.28	0.7560
ATT 8	3.63990289	2	1.81995144	2.52	0.0814
ATT 9	6.53705676	2	3.26852838	6.36	0.0019
ATT 10	0.14636588	2	0.07318294	0.16	0.8483

\*  $p < 0.05$

Location as a main effect does not have the potency ascribed to it. There were expected to emerge radical differences between respondents domiciled in urban, peri-urban and rural areas, as a function of neighbourhood contextual effects. More specifically, rural pupils were expected to express a more favourable attitude to the school as a system because the rural environments have not sustained as much upheaval on the educational front as have the urban areas.

There are no differences in attitudes towards the school as a social system between urban and rural respondents. What emerged is homogeneity of an attitudinal stance. The exercise in the analysis of results in this scale is one of categorising the institutional union of rural and urban sensibilities and showing how this assimilation has informed the development of attitudes.

From table 8 follows: " $F = 019$  ( $p = 0.8304$ ) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level). The attitude endorsed is a positive clamour for greater participation in the governance in the high school institutions. Whereas differences between urban and rural respondents were expected, this research did not demonstrate them. A possible explanation is the dissolving of the cultural divide between individuals in rural and urban and rural areas of residence, a consequence of enculturation.

A willingness to endorse bureaucratic orientation was evident in the subjects' responses. In ATT2 they expressed the claim that they were not "rebels without a cause" and that such pedagogical imperatives as redounded to their educational benefit and progress in the agenda of the school as an organisation, were acceptable to them. From table 8 the following obtains: "F = 1,82 (p = 0,1624) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The mechanisms of control factor reflected the alleged favourable attitudes of the respondents in that the latter professed to accept a situation in which some control measures were implemented. This is evident in the endorsement in a positive direction of statements which extract their preparedness to be controlled through administrative mechanisms. From table 8 follows: "F = 1.18 (p = 0.3069) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Subject areas, ATT4, was not a topical issue in the responses. This is explicable in terms of the preparedness of the respondents to accept the "nitty gritty" of school-related tasks. The instrumental or utilitarian outlook on subject areas is shown in the belief that their mastery will carve them a niche in the world of work and the larger adult world. From table 8 follows: "F = 1.09 (p = 0.3377) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

ATT5, the rule constraints factor, received an analogous treatment as ATT2 (bureaucratic orientation) and ATT3 (control mechanisms) by the respondents. A favourable attitude was expressed, with the reservation that the rules should not be dysfunctional in the sense of not giving scope for influencing behaviour from pupils. From table 8 follows: "F = 1,95 (p = 0.1438) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The school is in question on the matter of mechanisms for the development of curricula. In responding to ATT6 the student body articulated an active seeking for avenues for the expression of their preferences among alternative learning materials. From table 8 follows: "F = 3,07 (p = 0.0474) which are significant (on a 0,05 level)".

In ATT7, the individualising tendency in education, an express declaration of protest against being treated as an amorphous crowd, was made. Provision, respondents submit, should be made for individual differences. From table 8 follows: "F = 0,28 (p = 0.7560) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level).

With regard to ATT8, the learning versus schooling category, there is a severe reassessment of the school as the locus of education. Respondents demonstrate an inclination to divorce learning per se and schooling. A significant part of the sample seem to moot the possibility

of learning experiences derived from other instances than the schooling system. From table 8 follows: "F = 2,52 (p = 0.0814) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The responses of the subjects to ATT9, pupil monitoring, shows that they concede to staff and administrators the right to keep surveillance of the movements and activities of the pupil charges. But over-protective security measures do not meet with the respondents' acclamation. From table 8 follows: "F = 6.36 (p = 0.0019) which are significant (on a 0,05 level).

ATT 10, class scheduling, presents us with a view that the issue of class scheduling does not constitute a boundary dispute between the managers of the institutions and the respondents. The pupils display an attitude of not being doctrinaire about when, where and how class contacts are arranged, within the parameters of the school day. This suggests that there is security which comes from "rule conformity". The form of structuring of classroom activities by the educators seems to create for the adolescents an ordered world of values and discipline. From table 8 follows: "F = 0,16 (p = 0.8483) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

## 5.7 Combination of variables

In order to address crucial issues broached in this

research, it was imperative to juxtapose combinations of variables to assess compatibilities and dichotomies between selected groups of variables. The statistical relationships of variables were explored as a basis for illuminating the image of the future.

Three variables were utilised to measure socio-economic level: the father's occupation, father's educational level and father's income level. Gerber & Newman (1980) and Lawrence & Roodt (1984) used these measures in determining socio-economic level in South African samples. They found the educational level of the head of household to significantly correlate with the family income and breadwinner's occupation.

**TABLE 9**

**Correlations among variables of Socio-economic level**

	B5 1	B9 2	B10 3	B22 4	B23 5
B5 Primary schooling	1.00000	0.32670	0.028767	0.14735	0.20033
B9 Income level	0.32670	1.00000	0.34968	0.17335	0.24019
B10 Occupation status	0.28767	0.34968	1.00000	0.11907	0.15916
B22 Educational discussions	0.14735	0.17335	0.11907	1.00000	0.17798
B23 General discussions	0.20033	0.24019	0.15916	0.17798	1.000022

All co-efficients are Pearson r

\*p<0.05 \*p<0.01

It should be noted that only the significant correlations ( $p < 0.05$ ) were displayed in Table 9. The primary school variable did not correlate with any of the variables of socio-economics level. Predictably, income level was moderately related to occupational status. This corroborates the result reported by Maqsud (1991:37) who found that the income level of the head of household correlated positively with the occupational status of the same. Significant positive correlations between measures of the quality of educational discussions (B22), and father's occupational status (B10) and general discussions between parents and adolescents suggest that all three dimensions of socio-economic level have some common features. There exists a positive correlation between B9, level of income and B23, general discussions. This has points of application to whether or not parents have provided a satisfactory material environment which has information retrieval systems used for purposes of general discussion. Thus the strength of the relationship among variables of socio-economic level is significant and the relationships are in a positive direction.

#### 5.8 The influence of age on the Wallace Future Opinions Age Task, dependent variable.

Table 10 displays the distribution of prediction of age at which it is anticipated that certain events will occur in the lives of the subjects.

**TABLE 10**

**Future Opinions Age Differences**

Age of subjects	Frequency percentage Rowpct Columnpct	Years									Total
		1 16-20	2 20-24	3 25-29	4 30-34	5 35-39	6 40-44	7 45-49	8 50-54	9 55-59	
Below 15	22 3.79 53.66 28.22	4 0.69 9.76 6.67	7 1.21 17.07 3.43	5 0.86 12.20 3.70	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	2 0.34 4.88 11.11	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	1 0.17 2.44 20.00	41  7.07
Below 20	70 12.07 15.05 70.71	56 9.66 12.04 93.33	169 29.14 36.34 82.84	107 18.45 23.01 79.26	30 5.17 6.45 75.00	15 2.59 3.23 83.33	14 2.41 3.01 77.78	1 0.17 0.22 100.00	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	3 0.52 0.65 60.00	465  80.17
Above 20	7 1.21 9.46 7.07	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	28 4.83 37.84 13.73	23 3.97 31.08 17.04	10 1.72 13.51 25.00	3 0.52 4.05 16.67	2 0.34 2.70 11.11	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	1 0.17 1.35 20.00	74  12.76
Total Per-cent	99 17.0	60 10.34	204 35.17	135 23.28	40 6.90	18 3.10	18 3.10	1 0.17	0 0.00	5 0.86	

Inspection of the table reveals that the respondents are divided into three age categories, that is, those who are in the age bracket below 15, below 20 and above 20. Table 10 provides the frequencies, row percentages and column percentages as well as percentages reflecting endorsements of age brackets 1 - 10 provided for in the Wallace Future Opinions Age Task (vide chapter 4, research methodology).

Examination of Table 10 reveals that the respondents in the age category below 15 are more frequently inclined to concern themselves with the age which is in greater propinquity to the present. Contrary to expectation, the respondents are more frequently concerned with the period 16 - 20, their immediate future as reflected in the percentage 3.79. Respondents who are twenty and above exhibit no conscious concern for the years referred to above which to them are the immediate past as indicated by the percentage 1.21. The relative frequency of concern of the subjects in the below 20 age category in the years 16 - 20 is augmented by the fact that, for them that period is the phenomenological present.

The results presented in this analysis clearly show the extent to which respondents in this age bracket are present-oriented. The percentage 12,07 which they have earned points out the relative importance of the 16 - 20 time frame as a period for anticipating and determining the future.

Further examination of Table 10 reveals that younger adolescents do not densely populate the period between the 30's and the 60's with any significant number of events, the zero percent levels predominating their endorsements.

Respondents from the age 2 category, below 20, register a highly

frequent concern with the years 30 and upwards, with heightened concern for the ages 24 - 44. The corresponding percentages are 18.45, 5.17, 2.59 in respect of ages 30 - 34, 35 - 39 and 40 - 44, respectively.

In defining and predicting future consequences chronologically, respondents in category 2, that is the age group below 20, are giving voice to their anticipations concerning the future and these expectations make planning possible. The more distant estimate which extrapolates occurrences in the years 61 and beyond is considered to represent a broad range of reference which is the prerogative of the older adolescents.

Respondents who localise the critical scenes of their personalised future between the period 50 -54 and 55 - 59 are numerically the lowest, one frequency for age category two respondents (below 20). These presumably are the years of stress and strain when individuals are "pressured" to constitute and complete the life projects they commenced years before. Respondents seek to avoid the storm and stress which is reminiscent of the one they are beleaguered with as adolescents.

The relatively evenly balanced concern of the respondents with the periods 30 - 34, 35 - 39 and 40 - 44, leads to the attribution of lowered concern for the distant future. From

Table 10 follows: "0,17% endorsement by subjects below age 15, 0.52% by subjects whose age is below 20 and 0.17 by subjects who are above 20" for the 60 - 65 future zone.

## 5.9 Correlational analysis

Various correlations were undertaken with the data in order to investigate the relationships between achievement orientation and the cultural dimension, achievement orientation and vocational preference and achievement orientation and locus of control orientation. No hypotheses were formulated for these analyses as the research reviewed is not suggestive enough to warrant the formulation of hypotheses.

The zero-order correlations, as reflected in Table 11, indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between achievement orientation and the cultural dimension factor. A negative linear relationship is in evidence between the cultural dimension factors that have been excluded from the analysis (because there was no correlation) and achievement motivation. There is a positive correlation between cultural dimension two and ACH4. From Table 11 " $r = 0,05952$  ( $p = 0,779$ ), which is not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

**TABLE 11****Cultural dimension versus achievement orientation**

A 1	B 2	C 3	D 4	E 5	F 6	G 7
G	0.9247	0.05069	0.00952	.01172	0.05668	0.00684
F6	0.00933	0.02288	0.07373	0.04029	0.02.91	0.04299
E5	0.05462	0.04784	0.04533	0.04507	0.03853	0.04104
D4	0.03303	0.01323	0.02232	0.02315	0.01021	0.00291
C3	0.06929	0.05542	0.02645	0.02639	0.00616.	0.04144
B2	0.02527	0.03522	0.3328	0.02458	0.08688	0.10022
A1	0.00245	0.05220	0.0592	0.3827	0.10022	0.07731

All co-efficients are Pearson r  
 $p < 0.05$

G Achievement valuing; Column A-F = Variables of ACH; A1 = Cultural dimension 2; B2 = Cultural dimension 8; C3 = Cultural dimension 10; D4 = Cultural dimension 11; E5 = Cultural dimension 13; F6 = Cultural dimension 14.

There is a correlation in a positive direction between cultural dimension 8 and achievement orientation 5. From the table follows: "r = 0,02458 (p = 0.5779), which are not significant on a 0,05 level)".

A positive correlation was obtained between cultural dimension 11 and achievement orientation 5. From Table 11 follows "r = 0.2315 (p = 0.6015) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Cultural dimension 10 was found to be correlated with achievement orientation 7. From Table 7 follows: " $r = 0.04144$  ( $p = 0.3585$ ) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

It was found that cultural dimension 13 correlated positively with achievement orientation 3 and achievement orientation 7. From Table 11 follows: " $r = 0.04784$  ( $p = .2799$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level) and " $r = 0.04104$  ( $p = 0.3546$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The results obtained show a positive correlation between cultural dimension 14 and achievement orientation 7. From table 11 follows : " $r=0.04299$  ( $p=0.0332$ ) which are not significant (on a 0.05 level)".

The correlations obtained suggest that there is an association between cultural universalities and achievement orientation but that it is very low. The correlation, not being significant, may fuel the argument that the basic orientation of the culture of the Batswana does not foster the individualism necessary to act in accordance with the demands of the achievement syndrome. In the search for the achievement motivation which generates a future orientation, the trail of this research does not lead to the identification of modal values which support the individual's determination to succeed.

**TABLE 12**

**Ratings of possibility and ratings of importance versus achievement orientation**

I	A 1	B 2	C 3	D 4	E 5	F 6	G 7
G7	0.05662	0.11292	0.2260	0.08132	0.04849	0.03570	0.06422
F6	0.00636	0.09700	0.09582	0.03445	0.13578	0.06290	0.00505
E5	0.02339	0.01622	0.01290	0.13308	0.03525	0.04358	0.02570
D4	0.00616	0.05662	0.04755	0.01074	0.09074	0.05304	0.05595
C3	0.02527	0.05239	0.06098	0.01219	0.14346	0.00429	0.00727
B2	0.03522	0.03636	0.01780	0.00608	0.06527	0.01398	0.01118
A1	0.03328	0.06317	0.00260	0.01514	0.14001	0.03810	0.02454

All the co-efficients are Pearson  $r$   
 $*p < 0.05$

H = Achievement orientation : A-G = Variables of ACH.

A1=C4A; B2=C5A; C3=C7A; D4=C1B; E5=C2B; F6=C7B; G7=C5B.

The correlation indicated that achievement was positively correlated with ratings of importance of careers and with ratings of certainty or possibility of attaining career goals.

As has been discussed earlier (Chapter 4) realism of occupational aspiration and choice, is the prerogative of vocational maturity. The results suggest that attributions of importance of career alternatives and job certainty, amongst Batswana adolescents are related to vocational maturity.

A correlation was obtained between ratings of possibility (C1B) and achievement orientation 2. The direction of the correlation was positive but its magnitude did not reach significance. The correlation suggests that there is no perceived ceiling to occupational aspiration and vertical mobility by Batswana adolescents who believe that the Matric qualification spiral is sufficient to ensure their success in their future careers. The respondents who responded to the questionnaire were different in terms of socio-economic level but they did not see SES as a factor in debarring them from participation in the opportunity matrix. From Table 12: " $r = 0,05662$  ( $p = 0.2210$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Ratings of possibility (C2B) was found to correlate positively with achievement orientation 7. No clear reasons are available to explain this correlation except for those discussed in the foregoing.

From Table 12 follows: " $r = 0.02570$  ( $p = 0,5792$ ) which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

It was found that ratings of importance (C4A) correlated positively with achievement orientation 7. Assessing the importance of a career involves the forming of a judgement regarding the relative importance of alternative careers in terms of logically evolved criteria. This is in line with the suggestion - that ratings of importance involve

decision-making which makes enormous demands on the vocational maturity of the respondents. This correlation indicates the occurrence of moderate maturity levels among Batswana adolescents. No clear reasons can be advanced for the lack of significance in this correlation. From Table 12 follows: " $r = 0.02454$  ( $p = 0.6040$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level of significance)".

A correlation was found between ratings of importance (C5A) and achievement orientation 2. From Table 12 follows: " $r = 0.3636$  ( $p = 0.4984$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

A correlation in a positive direction was obtained between ratings of possibility (C5B) and achievement orientation 4.

From Table 12 follows : " $r = 0.08132$  ( $p = 0.1311$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Ratings of possibility (C7B) correlated positively with achievement orientation 4. From Table 12 follows: " $r = 0,03445$  ( $p = 5031$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

Generally, the results obtained from these correlational analyses suggest that levels of aspirations among Batswana adolescents are high but the cultural complex in which the respondents operate is not conducive to the development of

achievement orientation. Further, it may be conjectured that Batswana parents do not have an enlightened view of the requirements of the labour market and do not generally express their vocational preferences for their offspring.

This deficit, however, redounds to the advantage of the adolescent in that it sharpens their prowess in the decision-making which promotes vocational maturity.

Table 5 (on page 236) presents the results of the correlational analysis for the sample. Achievement I was found to be correlated with internal locus of control orientation I. From Table 5 follows: " $r = 0.01064$  ( $p = 0.8155$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)". The correlation suggests that high levels of internal locus of control orientation, in the context of this research, are not associated with high levels of achievement motivation.

In the case of Achievement orientation 2 and locus of control 19, it was found that there was a positive correlation. From table 5 follows: " $r = 0.02679$  ( $p = 0,5607$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)". The correlation indicates that the strength of the association between the two variables is low.

It was found that achievement orientation 6 was positively associated with internal locus of control 7. From Table 5

follows: " $r = 0.02879$  ( $p = 0.5313$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

A positive correlation obtained between achievement orientation 7 and internal locus of orientation 16. From Table 5 follows: " $r = 0.06545$  ( $p = 0.1557$ ), which are not significant (on a 0,05 level)".

The correlational analyses indicated that a high level of internal locus of control orientation, within the framework of this research, does not necessarily correspond with a high degree of achievement motivation. Therefore, main effects resulting from the outcomes of success and failure were not significant for ability and effort attributions.

## CHAPTER 6

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 Summary

Initially, in Chapter one, a developmental perspective is evolved for a discussion of the factors (changes experienced by the adolescent) which influence the development of the future image. Self-concept, in all its cognitive and emotional modalities, receives priority of treatment, as a prime determinant of the adolescents' anticipations concerning the future.

Other variables also emerge as causative factors in the adolescents' extrapolation of an image of the future. These are culture, locus of control, academic achievement, personality, future orientation and future shock.

It is argued that the concept of the future is closely intertwined with the motivation of the pupil. How the adolescents view their future is bound up with their academic performance as well as the "experiential performance", that is, their ability to live, cope and develop in a society which is undergoing unprecedented and accelerated change. Future conscious education is viewed in the perspective of a key to adaptivity and it is argued that, it is especially significant to children and adolescents in the North-West Province,

which, like the rest of South Africa, is undergoing alteration in the social, economic and political spheres of life.

Chapter Two comprises the delineation of the concepts self, self-concept, self-esteem and self-image as mainsprings of the image of the future. The analysis proceeds to a consideration of the sources of self-concept and adolescents are alleged to derive their ideas for suitable roles, self-evaluation and values from reference groups (family, peers, teachers, ethnic groups and so forth).

Child-rearing practices in the family context and the application of teacher-strategies are accorded an important role in the enhancement of self-concept.

It was deemed appropriate to take into account empirical studies conducted with a view to establishing the relationship between self-concept and school achievement. The findings and conclusions of researchers on this issue were duly catalogued and presented.

A cursory exploration of the influence of other variables on the image of the future was undertaken. These variables are: adulthood, identity, locus of

control, academic achievement, future orientation and future shock.

A model for the evaluation of the educational endeavour involved in the promotion or the development of the future image in children, was implemented. The image of the future is viewed in the perspective of a dimension of adulthood, which in turn, is targeted whenever the educational enterprise gets under way. Educators perform, predominantly, the function of guiding the child, accompanying him in his progression towards adulthood. The child is cast in the role of an active agent in his education and not a passive object of the activities of his educators and certainly not a victim of his milieu.

With an eye upon the developmental characteristics of the child in middle childhood, a theoretical excursion into the structuring of future-oriented educational situations in Western technological, traditional and enculturative societies, was undertaken. Of significance in this discussion was the educational targeting of the following categories: awareness of self and separate identity, cognitive stimulation, figures for identification, opportunities for exploration and play. Differences in the conduct of futures education were posited to be a function of cultural differentials. A fine distinction is made

between educational situations which engender in pupils a closed restricted image of the future (tradition-oriented) and those which elicit an open/creative image (Western oriented). Educational situations structured in enculturative situations were alleged to actualise in their futures educational programmes a synergy of forms of procedure derived from both Western-oriented and traditionalist cultures.

Two institutions, namely, the family and the school, were categorised as dispensing futures education. Holding the developmental characteristics of adolescence intact and focusing on them, an appeal was made to the family in Western technological, traditional and enculturative societies and its educational role in promoting the development of the image of the future. Within the parameters of the categories set up for consideration initially (cognitive stimulation, awareness of self and a separate identity, figures for identification, opportunities for exploration and play) the education directed at promoting the evolution of an image of the future, is evaluated. The polarities of education towards a closed/restricted future image and an open/creative one, and the syncretic educational approach to education in enculturative societies, come under consideration.

The school was seen as conducting futures education with considerable zeal and expectation. To this end, it helps the child in organising his life career-wise, in formulating an identity, promoting cognitive development, developing autonomy and independence and developing skills in social diplomacy.

The empirical methodology explained in Chapter four constituted an attempt at an evaluation of the contribution of the self-concept and other variables to the evolution of an image of the future by adolescents. To this end, hypotheses were formulated which postulated the existence of relationships between the class of relevant variables which, it was presumed, would have an effect on the development of images of the future. These (hypotheses) were designed for verification through the administration of a questionnaire to a sample of  $N = 600$  (all  $\pm 28,000$  pupils in the North West region of South Africa, served as the population). The questionnaire was designed to provide a reliable, valid and objective measurement of adolescents' anticipations concerning the future. On completion of the rationale for the selection of the questions in the inventory, a description of the coding procedure implemented was undertaken. The practical interpretation of the pilot scheme took the form of the administration of the test on a miniature sample in the Molopo/Mmabatho area, in preparation for the major study.

In Chapter five, a description of the form the analysis would take was presented. The analysis of results focused on the main effects of demographic variables (socio-economic level and gender) on ratings of probability of attainment of occupational goals. Hierarchical linear regressions were executed to evaluate the contributions of self-esteem to predictions of age of occurrence of certain milestones in life. A similar procedure was executed to assess the main effects of locus of control on predictions of age at which certain future events will happen.

Hierarchical, stepwise, linear regressions involving personality variables and their effects on evaluations of importance of certain career options, were executed. This was undertaken to determine the proportion of the contribution of personality variables (extraversion and neuroticism) to the variance of the Wallace Future Opinions Task. An inquiry into the attitudes of the adolescents to the school as a social system was undertaken with a view to establishing their reactions to the structural variables of the school. The premise for this exploration was that liking for school was related to consciousness of the future. The biographical data of age and area of residence came to the fore as part of the evaluative component in the judgement of the attitudinal statements endorsed by subjects.

Correlational analyses were embarked upon as a means of determining the nature and strength of the association between independent variables and dependent ones, as well as relationships between independent variables.

Chapter 6 comprises the provision of a summary of theoretical propositions, presentation of findings and conclusions, indication of limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

## 6.2 Findings

### 6.2.1 Association between self-esteem and predictive certainty

There is a weak association between self-esteem and predictive certainty about age of occurrence of future events. The relationship between self-esteem and estimation of realistic vertical mobility possibilities in the life cycle is not as clear-cut and significant as it was originally expected. In this research self-esteem was "posited as [an] intervening process that may lead to desirable changes (Marsh & Gouvernet, 1989:57) in the direction of predictive certainty about when the milestones of life would happen to individuals. Within the framework of this research, however, self-concept has been found to

be a weak motivator for behaviour characterised by predictive certainty regarding when in the trajectory of life, certain events are expected to occur in individuals' lives (paragraph two, page 230).

#### **6.2.2 Locus of control has a minimal influence on predictive certainty about age of occurrence of future events**

The findings of this investigation provide evidence that points to the absence of a significant relationship between locus of control and predictive certainty about the chronological age at which certain events will happen in the lives of individuals. In the context of this research, the notion of autonomy and self-responsibility has not been found to go hand in hand with clarity of vision about points in ones life when certain events will transpire (paragraph number two, page 234).

#### **6.2.3 Personality variables**

Personality variables, associated with the concept of intrapersonality adjustment, are related to vocational maturity as reflected in judgements about the attribution of importance of a career option. The results from the regression procedure involving the

operation of extraversion and neuroticism on ratings of importance of occupation, clearly support this conclusion.

The results of this study tend to refute the findings of earlier studies (Maqsd, 1991:37; Nyakutse, 1985). The fact that high E scorers emerged as mature in their judgements concerning the importance of preferable careers, was easily accessible to the writer. The extravert style of consciousness manifests in emotional stability, constancy in the pursuit of present and future interests and conscious concern about matters of social significance. The result indicating a positive relationship between neuroticism and vocational maturity, as reflected in ratings of importance of career alternatives, is so ambiguous, that it renders the drawing of a clear cut conclusion difficult. By definition, neuroticism generates anxiety in the individual and the evaluation of the future as potent blurs judgements concerning the relative merits of occupational images of the future. (See paragraph number two, page 239).

Wilson et al (1989:419-420) ascribe to neurotic Zimbabwean schoolboys the tendency to articulate exaggeratedly high occupational expectations. On the basis of this analysis, although the ratings of importance were moderately high in the case of the

high N scorers (neurotics), it might be argued the endorsement of high ratings of importance was the prerogative of anxiety. Dread of the future, a behavioural evidence of neuroticism, did lead a moderately significant number of respondents to shroud their fear of responsibility for a career by providing assessments of career choices which demonstrate mature judgement.

#### 6.2.4 Relationship between socio-economic levels and predictive certainty

There is only a marginal relationship between socio-economic level and predictive certainty of attainment of occupational preference. This is explicable in terms of the non-interventionist approach of the Batswana parents in the matter of choice of a career. The inference to be drawn from this is that the child who is not unduly pressured by parental aspirations for his career, is likely to be vocationally mature, because autonomous and independent in his decision-making and planning. Certainty about the prospect of a job can, therefore, be viewed as a byproduct of vocational maturity which, in turn, is part of the broader area of intrapersonality maturity. (Paragraph number four, page 223).

#### 6.2.5      The relationship between attitude to school and area of residence

The relationship between attitude to school and area of residence must be seen in the light of the homogeneity of the norms and standards inculcated in the school and the norms and standards endorsed by a group of adolescents. This conclusion carries a rider which suggests that an "enculturation factor" may be responsible for the observed relationship between attitude to school as a social system and area of residence. This conclusion is based on the results in which children whose homes of origin were in the urban areas and those who were domiciled in rural areas, were found to subscribe to similar attitudes to school. It was argued that the groups of pupils could be characterised by a value orientation which had points of contact with the hierarchy of values espoused by the school. The fact that the school is an agent of enculturation and the adolescents are ensconced in an enculturative environment might account for a positive relationship between the area of residence and attitude to school as a social system. (Paragraph number two, page 247).

#### 6.2.6      Gender

Gender is not related to expectancies of the

probability of realising self-set occupational goals. This is a surprising result in light of repeated research findings indicating sex differences in the adolescents' organisation of their careers (Ametewee, 1991:36-39; Omoding-Okwalinga, 1991:46-49).

The most likely explanation for this result is that this generation of adolescents has been influenced by the tenets of the Women's liberation movement whose dogma promotes equality of opportunity for both sexes in the occupational structure.

Educational conditioning plays a significant role in determining the consistency, coherence and accuracy of prediction in the images of the future held by boys and girls. Both boys and girls in the high schools in the North-West region of South Africa, have a rich array of possibilities open to them and they are encouraged to think of the future in terms of a multiplicity of careers (Paragraph number one, page 227).

#### **6.2.7 Cultural universalities**

There is no significant relationship between the cultural universalities (cultural dimension factor) and achievement valuing.

Zero correlations of the cultural dimension factor and achievement valuing revealed that there is no statistically significant relationship between the cultural dimension variable and valuing achievement (a dependent variable expressing a future orientation).

This, arguably, is attributable to the marginal status to which Batswana adolescents have been consigned. With the least opportunity for participation in the most valued institutions of their society, they are stimulated to make new responses to Western educational settings. Thereby, they are induced to be oriented to norms prevailing in Western societies. Mohanoe (1983:333) reported his finding, which is consistent with the present writer's finding, to the effect that black adolescents experience adaptational problems. They have to come to terms with the infinite variety of norms, values and principles which an enculturative situation foists on them. (Paragraph number three, page 258).

#### **6.2.8 Age and range of reference**

A relationship between age and range of reference to the future, was established. Respondents whose age was below fifteen years demonstrated conscious concern with the immediate future. Respondents whose age was

below twenty years exhibited conscious concern with the years between 30 and 44. Respondents whose age was above twenty focused on a broader range of reference which spanned the years between 60 and 65.

These trends are explicable in terms of differences in the concerns of different age group children. The preoccupation of the younger adolescents with the immediate future is a loud indication of the fact that both academically and occupationally no pressure is exerted on them to articulate an image of the future. On the other hand, the social pressure to make occupational and educational decisions, force the older adolescent to consider a variety of roles and to include a time frame that expresses a remote future focus. (Paragraph number 8, page 277).

#### 6.2.9 Internal locus of control and achievement

The relationship between internal locus of control and achievement orientation is not significant. This result is explicable in terms of basic cultural orientations of the Batswana as a group. If individuals are successful, the success is ascribed to the family, the kinship and the clan. The obverse side of this coin is that if children are involved in failure situations, they do not engage in self-serving attributions because the attributions of failure are

amplified to include significant others who immediately accord them support and acceptance. It is proposed that this communalism does not place a high premium on the individualism and self-reliance which are a prerequisite to the achievement syndrome. (Paragraph number one, page 236).

### 6.3 Conclusions

The linear relationship evidenced between the class of independent variables evolved in this study and the image of the future is by no means a causal one. As the study makes plain, there are varying strengths of the relationship between self-concept, locus of control, extraversion and neuroticism, culture and socio-economic level and the image of the future. It is appropriate to provide a summary of the conclusions arrived at on the basis of evidence adduced on the association between the influencing variables inventoried above and the variable affected, namely, the image of the future.

A significant relationship between socio-economic level and evaluations of chances of attainment of occupational goals, was obtained at low levels of confidence. The egalitarianism which typifies the occupational image of the future projected by the adolescents, could largely be seen as a function of

the examination system which makes similar demands on all, irrespective of social class origins. Ostensibly, there are other aspects of career formation, which are not directly extracted by the occupational aspirations scale. The significance of the relationship between socio-economic level and ratings of the probability of attaining self-set occupational goals is, therefore, within the limits imposed by the instrumentation administered. (See paragraph one, page 272).

The study results endorse the proposal that certain personality factors, associated with the notion of intrapersonality adjustment are associated with vocational maturity. A fine distinction, therefore, is here made between subjects who, in their responses, demonstrated a modicum of emotional stability, constancy in the pursuit of goals and conformed to certain social standards and those who were self-indulgent, allowed their nerves to interfere with their work" (Maqsud, 1991:38) and showed no conscious concern for social propriety. This is a distinction between high scorers in extraversion and neuroticism, respectively. (See paragraph number one, page 272).

It was concluded that individuals raised in a culture that places a high premium on self-reliance and individualism will tend to be more internally oriented

than those brought up in a different set of values. This conclusion is in convergence with Chiu's (1988:411-413) finding which states that American adolescents (because individualistic and self-reliant) are more internal in their attributions of success than their Chinese counterparts (Hsu, 1981).

The situation of the Batswana adolescents is analogous to that of their Chinese contemporaries. The culture of the Batswana is fundamentally communalistic in its emphasis of the interdependence of individuals, inter alia. Contrary to prediction, the evidence in the results points to the existence of low levels of internality in the articulation of future outcomes by Batswana adolescents. There is a bias towards ascriptions to the external reality in the rationalisation of both success and failure. (See paragraph number one, page 271).

Inquiry into the theme of age variations in the future extension variable confirms the notion that developmental considerations do influence adolescents' definition of the magnitude of the future. During the initial stages of adolescence, the child enters the tentative stage, when there is vasilation in the manner of his structuring a future occupational image. The ability to extend his consciousness into an occupational role is limited and he, therefore, has no crystallised image of himself in any role. From an

academic perspective, the pupil is normally in standard nine. He is in a moratorium (Erikson in: Sedibe, 1991:30) and there is no pressure from society to oblige him to make educational and occupational decisions and to consider a variety of future-focused roles (Toffler, 1983:17).

The realistic stage, based on greater awareness of the world (from eighteen upwards) occurs when careers and future-focused role images generally force the adolescent to define an extended time frame. Within this rational time frame, adolescents "stuff" realistic possibilities which are consonant with the values, traditions and basic orientation of their society. In addition, older adolescents are already suffused with post-college or high school plans vis a vis occupational tenure and upward mobility in their chosen occupations. This egocentric orientation to the future, with its emphasis on the constitution of an extensive phenomenological future is the opposite of the egocentricity of early adolescence which represents solipsistic perceptions and does not symbolise legitimate achievement values. (See paragraph number one, page 277).

The results indicate that there are no significant differences in the predictive ability of males and females in the articulation of vocational preference.

It is alleged that differences exist in the ratings of the probability of realising self-set career goals, because women have been socialised to engage in expressive interactions. Males, on the other hand have been socialised into instrumental interactions. These differences represent polarities in roles and not differences in predictive accuracy about careers. The inference to be drawn from this result is that both boys and girls have creative occupational images of the future and apparent differences in predictive certainty about jobs might be more closely linked with stereotyped definitions of what constitutes intellectual and creative performance. Instrumental interactions foster field independence in males and expressive interactions elicit contextual thinking in females. Both modes of thinking when applied to forming judgements about possibilities for occupational tenure, complement one another and are not mutually exclusive. (See paragraph number two, page 275).

#### 6.4 Limitations of the study

The documentation on the development of orientations to the future as yet lacks the perspectives which emanate from long-term research and professional objectivity. Much of the documentation is in the form of unpublished reports which are available within

psychological, sociological and educational organisations, associations and interest groups.

The use of interlibrary loan facilities to procure documents from overseas resource and information retrieval centres, by reason of dilatoriness in delivering a service, did not constitute much of a solution to the problem. Despite these limitations, there is, in fact, a great deal of valuable documentation being produced and, in time, it could make a valuable contribution to the understanding of the image of the future.

The thesis and the bibliographies it presents was planned to draw upon the academic and social lives of adolescents who lived in a country which was governed in accordance with a political dispensation of yesteryear. When the empirical investigation got under way, events moved so rapidly that there was no time to wait for the maturity of history and leisurely research. Accelerated change meant that the reality depicted by the investigator, even as the research process proceeded, as well as the image of the future entertained by the pupils, were undergoing transformation.

Insights, however useful and valuable in an old order, must be modified and restructured when high levels of

novelty, have been introduced in the environment. Thus, the researcher's personal experiences and those of the pupils, may have to be regarded as a legitimate source of reference in this new field of investigation.

Often an informed educational psychologist, experienced in the study of the development of attitudes in adolescents, becomes an authority in her field of study. Her access to leading figures, educators, politicians and administrators, can provide the background and perspectives essential for the interpretation of documentation and the respondents' protocols.

While this can be an advantage, there is always the danger of so completely identifying with people, and being so influenced by cultural background and the experience of interacting with protagonists, that one loses the detachment that academics strive for. The danger of emotional involvement as the researcher empathised with the aspirations of Batswana adolescents, always loomed large.

## 6.5 Recommendations

The issue of the self-concept as a variable influencing the development of an image of the future

has profound pedagogical significance. It brings to the fore the concept of invitational education which is applied to strategies of educating which are directed at enhancing self-concept and raising self-esteem. The operation of self-esteem as a motivator for behaviour is directly linked to the future image. It operates like a self-fulfilling prophecy. The school must, therefore, negate all that which negative and dysfunctional socio-educational experiences have affirmed, and give the adolescents the positive feedback that they will succeed in life. (See paragraph number 1, page 271).

The present results indicate that self-esteem made a low contribution to the variance of the WFO which represents predictions in terms of age categories, of when certain milestones would take place in the lives of the adolescents. Notwithstanding this generalised modest influence by self-esteem, the personal self, that is, the adolescent's evaluation of his or her personality apart from relationship with others, has the greatest influence on variations in the variable representing predictive certainty.

In light of the search for personal adequacy and worth that occurs during adolescence, there is veracity in other studies which found a sense of personal worth important to pubescents and adolescencents (Maqsud & Rouhani, 1990:829-830). Therefore, the

interrelationship between the personal self-esteem and the future image needs to be determined in order to get a more accurate picture of what educational interventions are appropriate to help adolescents develop healthy, future-focused role identities. Having had exposure to the educational process, adolescents should acquire needs which motivate behaviour and generate emotions.

"Needs refer to internal forces that determine the direction and goals of behaviour" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982:60). (See paragraph number 1, page 271).

The notion that with application and effort, a person can achieve success and that a person's worth can be defined by his achievement of that success, must be inculcated with the pupils. Batswana adolescents should be educationally induced to internalise an orientation to achievement, so that they can act consistently with it. As their self-esteem is heightened and maintained through positive feedback from significant others as well as generalised others, they will then manifest high levels of aspirations. These ambitions will be realised through productive behaviour. In this manner, education will have provided the greatest guarantee of compatibility between motivation/self-esteem relations and future achievement/self-esteem relations.

The attempt to establish a systematic demonstration of a relationship between socio-economic level and predictive certainty of attainment of preferred careers, yielded a result opposite to that anticipated. It was found that the relationship between socio-economic level and predictive certainty about job tenure, was only minimal. The result suggests that higher levels of socio-economic status are not, of necessity associated with higher levels of certainty about jobs aspired to. Only in respect of the first two career options was there evidence of a significant positive relationship between socio-economic level and predictive certainty about future jobs. (See paragraph number 4, page 273).

The results have great implications for the practice of guidance in high schools in the North-West Province of South Africa. It is submitted that the concept of guidance should be replaced with career education, as guidance conveys the notion of meting out advice to a captive audience. School counselling should be more appropriately viewed as a process of leading the pupil to make his own decisions and judgements about preferable careers. The issue is of major significance to the career formation of adolescents as the results of the study have suggested that predictive certainty in occupational choice, is a part of personal maturity. The behavioural evidence of

personal maturity is appropriate decision-making and self-responsibility.

An important aspect of career education, in addition, would be the elicitation of an occupational image of the future in adolescents. It stands to reason that providing the pupils with information about occupations, will not guarantee them a solid foundation for formulating career plans unless they are oriented to the future in a mature way. A career is an integral part of living and not merely a means of earning a living. Career education is a preparation for life "as it leads to enlightened and accountable adulthood" (Mohanoe, 1983:226).

Analysis of the results produced a significant relationship between the personality variables of extraversion and neuroticism and ratings of importance of a career, dependent variable. Judgements of the relative importance of careers were viewed as an index of vocational maturity. (See paragraph number 3, page 272).

To promote maturity in the exercise of choice among alternative career pathways, a comprehensive vocational education enterprise should be implemented. It should not concern itself with the sheer dissemination of knowledge about possible career options but should implement a future-oriented

curriculum. This could take the form of programmes of personal exploration and simulated occupational exercises where decision-making and problem-solving are emphasised.

It is precisely at this point that decisions that affect work and performance converge with future-consciousness. When reference is made to an occupational image of the future, what is at stake are the ramified consequences of currently made decisions. The need to consider career alternatives, to determine if they are suited to individual personality, demonstrates the necessity for careers education.

The results obtained suggest that a crash programme of careers education should be implemented to facilitate adaptive decision-making in a changing, choice-filled environment (Toffler, 1983:16).

The results indicate that meaningful participation in that programme demands that there be high levels of motivation and general maturity. The non-emergence of self-awareness factors in the personality profile of Batswana adolescents, should be the occasion for the accentuation of self-awareness as a component and objective of the career education programme. Depending on the targeted audience of learners, either an intellectually-based and self-analytical approach or a more practical, easily accessible one for pupils who have more practical needs, is appropriate.

Adolescents should be motivated to simulate the career positions they aspire to and teachers, as significant others, should endorse these to accord them legitimacy (Lindhard, 1992:19).

In enacting an occupational role vicariously, adolescents are likely to incorporate into their personality system, aspects of their future occupational status. They develop a cross-section idea of the attitudes, values and behaviour which befit a member of those occupations. Future role playing feeds back on the present through an internalisation by the adolescent of the values and attitudes which are appropriate for the role images.

The motivational explanation for success and failure in this research reveals the absence of a self-serving bias which is exhibited through external attribution for both success and failure. The results also reveal that the communalistic orientation of the attributional styles of Batswana adolescents is a weak motivator for achievement valuing. These findings indicate that, for Batswana adolescents, a realistic inability to accept responsibility for failure and reorientate learning strategies to achieve success, is a great inhibitor of ultimate achievement. (See paragraph number 9, page 278).

These conclusions also suggest that Batswana adolescents should be absorbed into the body politic

of white schools or vice versa. When they interact in a school situation which resembles the world with which they must cope in the North West Province of South Africa, or elsewhere, their sense of control and achievement grows. The stress here is not on perceived control and heightened levels of self-esteem attained by Batswana adolescents intermingling with whites, but how the former are affected by placement in situations which are a photostatic image of what they will find when they leave school. In this perspective, the school becomes an epitome or model of society, approximating life in the larger adult world.

The results on the issue of attitude to the school as a social system reveal homogeneity of attitudes to the school among rural and urban adolescents. Elaboration on causative factors behind this trend, demonstrated the crucial role of enculturation in perpetuating this development. This became cause for the researcher to posit a merger between the values and the ethos of the school and the basic value orientations of rural and urban adolescents. (See paragraph number 5, page 274).

Schools in the North-West region of South Africa must be willing to make the unusual approach and not the usual, the order of the day. Basic Tswana educational values reflect the approach to humanity which does not concentrate upon such relatively unimportant aspects

as structure, administration and specific subjects on the curriculum. Only by recognising this African philosophy of education can the adolescents be empowered to contribute in an idiosyncratic way to all that is of large and human significance in the school, especially in the area of curriculum development.

Ezewu (1986:98) observes:

"Students are not born into a school system; rather they join it by what could be described as an 'accident'."

Within the social system, they could be regarded as both members of the school and clients. This is so when we call to mind that the goal of the school is learning. "Even when the principal and his teachers play their roles well, the goal may not be reached if the students fail voluntarily to play their part".

The intuitive grasp of this by young people is one of the key factors back of the collapse of the schooling system in the North-West Province of South Africa, in particular, and in black South Africa in general. This calls for a reconceptualisation of the role of adolescents with respect to the degree of participation in school governance and decision-making.

Decision-making, so crucial in functioning in a high-change environment (Toffler, 1983:18), becomes a form of a learning process. Adolescents should be summoned, not only to make decisions about themselves, but also to make personal decisions that affect the work or performance of others.

Solving real-life problems trains the participants in decisional skills and familiarises them with the process of a judicious calculation of consequences of personal decisions.

Extending to adolescents the latitude to decide on policy-related issues in the school, is also an exercise in values education. The implementation of decisions and plans for the school, has to do with organisational images of the future and this affords the pupils the opportunity to explore public values. The process of value clarification is a vital part of an education designed to help pupils adapt to change.

There was no statistically significant relationship between cultural universalities and valuing achievement. (See paragraph number 6, page 276). Rationalisation of the result was effected through reference to the marginalisation of Batswana adolescents, as a consequence of enculturation (Dreyer, 1983:55; Dreyer, 1980:86). Centuries of straddling different cultures should impress on the

schooling system the logic of inculcating a larger African culture based on the solid foundation of "a broad South Africanism and on the common humanity of ..... people" (Motshabi, 1994:89).

In the implementation of the educational strategy directed at absorbing culture shock and, consequently, "future shock" knowledge of intercultural communication will have to be disseminated to the pupils in a manner that promotes sensitivity and the skill of "talking and hearing across cultural boundaries" (Motshabi, 1994:91).

The analogy between culture shock and future shock, is calculated and deliberate. The combination of academic learning, enactment of cultural synergy (Motshabi, 1993:36) and the formulation of an image of the future, creates a powerfully motivating learning situation. It helps bridge the gap between the sensibilities of people of different racial origins and rules out dysfunctional behaviours which are symptomatic of culture shock. The invisible architecture of assumptions inherent in a future image, the systematic framework for bestriding differing cultural worlds and the appropriate world view, help the adolescents to survive in varied and fast-changing environments. The ground motive of such an educational practice will be the spiritual and moral forces of brotherhood which will infuse the

learners and will unmistakably justify a truly South African cultural complex.

## 6.6 Suggestions for further research

### 6.6.1 Predictive ability and perceived future extensions

A study of the future image can be undertaken in which the principal focus is primarily on prediction. It would serve a useful purpose to explore the relationships between intelligence and planning models for individual and societal futures. That a future orientation should be associated with high intelligence, is plausible.

In terms of the image of the future, intelligence, operationally defined, is the aggregate or global capacity to think rationally and to deal effectively with the available environment. What could be evaluated, in a study of that nature, is the capability of the individual in the social use of intelligence as well as the application in life situations of "possibilitarian" thinking.

### 6.6.2 Contrastive analyses of global images of the future

A research undertaking of tremendous educational significance would be one that focused on a comparative study of youth's projections of what societal futures will be like. Appeals would be made to the views of adolescents in different continents, on a global level. This would not only externalise the world-view of adolescents but also demonstrate the societal images they seek to vocalise.

### 6.6.3 Relationships

It would be well to determine the relationship between future time perspective and delay of gratification in children who lack emotional stability. The aim would be to give empirical proof to the postulate that the latter demonstrate a relationship between future extension and delay of gratification in their behaviour pattern. Is the deferred gratification pattern the result of weakness or inadequacy of control? Or is it likely that children who are unstable are governed by emotions which do not permit frustration tolerance implied by slow realisation of a project?

## 6.7 General comment

It is hoped that the ideas, conclusions and recommendations discussed in this thesis will stimulate an interest in education for the promotion of the future image. One obvious line of development would be to develop a comprehensive futures education programme, extending over the high school period. It should accentuate self-awareness, social issues, simulation of career positions and other serendipity activities. At the standard nine and ten levels, programmes focusing on interpersonal and decision-making skills, should be launched such that pupils are equipped for the new developmental phase of autonomous adulthood.

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## QUESTIONNAIRE

### BIOGRAPHICAL DATA AND HOME BACKGROUND

Please provide the following information about yourself, your parents/guardians at your home. Your responses will be treated in the strictest confidence so you need not be afraid that someone will see them.

Please put a tick in the box or provide the necessary information in the space provided.

#### PART 1

No	Item	Code	
1	Area of residence	1	
		2	
		3	5
2	Form	1	
		2	
3	Age: Below 15	1	
	Below 20	2	6
	Above 20	3	
4	Sex of pupil: Male	1	
	Female	2	7

#### PART 2

5	How long did your father/guardian attend primary school?		
	Not at all	1	
	One to 4 years	2	
	More than 4 years	3	8

	Diploma	2	
	University degree	3	9
	Other [Specify]	4	
7	How many years did your mother spend in primary school?		
	None	1	
	One to 4 years	2	
	Seven years	3	10
8	What type of post-primary institution did your mother attend?		
	None	1	
	Nursing	2	
	Teacher-training or secondary school or polytechnic	3	11
9	In what category does your parent's/guardian's income level fall?		
	Nothing	1	
	Grade level 0-6	2	
	Grade level 7 and above	3	12
	Not certain: specify the nature of his occupation	4	
10	What is your father's/guardian's occupation?		
	Not employed	1	
	Farmer or junior staff or trader or small contractor	2	
	Company or government job, clerk or executive officer	2	13
	Company director/professional	3	
	Teaching - primary, secondary or post-secondary	3	

11	How would you describe the material condition of your home?		
	Poor	1	
	Satisfactory	2	
	Well-off	3	14
12	Is the house you live in?		
	Rented by your father or guardian	1	
	Government or company house	2	15
	Owned by your father or guardian	3	
13	How many bedrooms are the in your house?		
	One	1	
	Two to three	2	
	More than three	3	16
14	Where is your home situated?		
	Village	1	
	Township	2	
	City	3	
	Government residential area	4	17
15	Do you have a car at home?		
	None	1	
	One	2	
	More than one	3	18
16	Do you have servants at home?		
	None	1	
	One	2	
	More than one	3	19
17	How many people live in your father's/guardian's house?		
	More than ten	1	
	Between six and ten	2	
	Five or less	3	20

18	How many television sets do you have at home?		
	None	1	
	One	2	
	More than one	3	21
19	Which of these words describes the food situation in your home?		
	Not enough	1	
	Adequate	2	
	Plenty	3	22
20	Which of these words describe the reading material (books, newspapers, magazines) in your house		
	None	1	
	Few	2	
	Many	3	23
21	Do your parents read at home the following? [Tick more than one if necessary]		
	Newspapers/magazines	1	
	Library books (fiction)	2	
	Educative books, eg. history, science, controversial subjects etc.	3	24
22.	Do your parents often discuss or debate any of the following issues at home? [Tick more than one if necessary]		
	Nothing	1	
	National politics	2	
	General situation in the country	3	
	International affairs	3	
	State of education in Southern Africa	3	25

23	As a child you have the freedom and opportunity to go to your parents, especially your father, to ask questions about the following. [Tick more than one if necessary]		
	Nothing	1	
	Why some people are poor and others rich	2	
	How a car moves or an aeroplane flies or something new at home	3	26
24	Who has really encouraged/pushed you in your present study?		
	Nobody	1	
	Myself	2	
	Parents/husband or wife	3	27
25	What is your main motivation to come to high school?		
	Uncertain	1	
	A good job with status	2	
	To educate children	3	28
26	How does your house get light?		
	None	1	
	Kerosene lights	2	
	Electricity	3	29

## PART 3

### Occupational Aspirations

Ratings of importance: 1-7

Look at each item below and decide how important it is to you. Using the points system below, give each item a rating. Write the number of points in the box on the right hand side.

- Extremely important - give 5 points
- Very important - give 4 points
- Fairly important - give 3 points
- Slightly important - give 2 points
- Of little importance - give 1 point

Ratings of possibility : 8-23

How possible or how likely is it that these things will really happen? Use the points system printed on the form but according to its possibility for you.

- Extremely possible - give 5 points
- Very possible - give 4 points
- Fairly possible - give 3 points
- Slightly possible - give 2 points
- Not possible - give 1 point

Here is a list of some things that many high school pupils say they would like to be doing [in the next six years]. Please complete the list by adding three (3) items of your own. Be sure that they are different from the ones already listed below.

		Ratings of importance	Ratings of possibility	
1. Having a good job	1			30
2. Graduating from College or University	2			
3. A successful marriage	3			
4. Technical or business training	4			
5. Other [Specify]	4			
	4			
	4			

## APPENDIX B

### The Cultural Dimension scale

#### Part 4

	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
An individual must show humility at all times	1	2	3	4	5	31
One must show excellence in everything one does	1	2	3	4	5	32
Moral strength that is sacrificing everything for a principle is a commendable quality	1	2	3	4	5	33
One must get along with everybody	1	2	3	4	5	34
I usually compare myself with other people	1	2	3	4	5	35
People should be concerned about the welfare of their neighbours	1	2	3	4	5	36
One should often visit relatives and friends	1	2	3	4	5	37
There should be an exchange of gifts between friends and relations	1	2	3	4	5	38
Participation in social ceremonies' such as births and deaths, are important	1	2	3	4	5	39
An individual should be calm in the face of provocation	1	2	3	4	5	40

One should show off one's wealth or achievement	1	2	3	4	5	41
Children should be allowed to ask older folks questions	1	2	3	4	5	42
We believe that one can improve one's lot	1	2	3	4	5	43
An individual should show enthusiasm for his job	1	2	3	4	5	44
We should believe that one's position is destined and that there is nothing that can be done about it	1	2	3	4	5	45
Those with means should help the less able to get on in life	1	2	3	4	5	46

## APPENDIX C

### PART 5

#### Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale

Circle the number next to the statement which you think best describes you. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
1. I feel I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	1	2	3	4	47
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	1	2	3	4	48
3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure	1	2	3	4	49
4. I am unable to do things as well as most other people	1	2	3	4	50

5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of	1	2	3	4	51
6. I take a positive attitude towards myself	1	2	3	4	52
7. I wish I could have more respect for myself	1	2	3	4	53
8. I certainly feel useless at times	1	2	3	4	54
9. At times I think I am no good at all	1	2	3	4	55

## EYSENCK PERSONALITY INVENTORY

### 1. Extraversion

Work through the 40 questions given below, putting a circle around "yes" and "No". If you find it impossible to decide one way or the other for any reason, put a ring around the "?". It will be best if you work quickly and don't dwell too much on the exact wording of the questions. If some of them seem repetitive, remember there are good reasons for getting at the same things in slightly different ways.

1. Do you like going out a lot?	Yes	1	56
	No	2	
2. Do you like to have time alone with your thoughts?	Yes	1	57
	No	2	
3. Do you become restless when working at something in which there is little action?	Yes	1	58
	No	2	
4. Do you quite enjoy taking risks?	Yes	1	59
	No	2	
5. Generally, do you prefer reading to meeting people?	Yes	1	60
	No	2	
6. Are you talkative when you are with a group of people?	Yes	1	61
	No	2	
7. Do you often try and find the underlying motives for the actions of other people?	Yes	1	62
	No	2	
8. Is your anger quick and short?	Yes	1	63
	No	2	
9. Are you inclined to be slow and deliberate in your actions?	Yes	1	64
	No	2	
10. Do you hate being with a crowd who play practical jokes?	Yes	1	65
	No	2	
11. Can you make decisions quickly?	Yes	1	66
	No	2	

12. Are you always on the go when not actually sleeping?	Yes	1	67
	No	2	
13. Do you like to solve brain teasers?	Yes	1	68
	No	2	
14. Would you enjoy fast driving?	Yes	1	69
	No	2	
15. Do you like to play pranks on other people?	Yes	1	70
	No	2	
16. Do people often play pranks on you?	Yes	1	71
	No	2	
17. Would you rather plan things than do things?	Yes	1	72
	No	2	
18. Would you do almost anything you dare?	Yes	1	73
	No	2	
19. Do you read a newspaper regularly?	Yes	1	74
	No	2	
20. Do you prefer holidays that are quiet and restful without a great deal of rushing about?	Yes	1	75
	No	2	

## 2. Emotional Instability - Adjustment

1. Do you think that you are able to do things as well as most people?	Yes	1	76
	No	2	
2. Do you blush more often than most people?	Yes	1	77
	No	2	
3. Do you usually feel well and strong?	Yes	1	78
	No	2	

4. Are you often troubled by feelings of guilt?	Yes	1	79
	No	2	
5. Do you frequently faint?	Yes	1	80
	No	2	
6. In general are you pretty sure of yourself?	Yes	1	81
	No	2	
7. Is life often a strain for you?	Yes	1	82
	No	2	
8. Do you often wish you were someone else?	Yes	1	83
	No	2	
9. Do you often feel that people disapprove of you?	Yes	1	84
	No	2	
10. Do you worry a lot about catching a disease?	Yes	1	85
	No	2	
11. Do you see your future as looking quite bright?	Yes	1	86
	No	2	
12. Do you think that you are quite popular with people in general?	Yes	1	87
	No	2	
13. Do you often feel down in the dumps?	Yes	1	88
	No	2	
14. Would you say you have a high opinion of yourself?	Yes	1	89
	No	2	
15. Do you really take it to heart if someone scolds you?	Yes	1	90
	No	2	
16. Do you smile and laugh as much as other people?	Yes	1	91
	No	2	
17. Can you relax quite quickly when sitting and lying down?	Yes	1	92
	No	2	
18. Are there some members of your family who make you feel you are not good enough?	Yes	1	93
	No	2	

19. Are you a nervous person?	Yes	1	94
	No	2	
20. Is it easy for you to forget things you have done wrong?	Yes	1	95
	No	2	

## APPENDIX E

### Connell's Locus of Control Scale

You are to circle the number that tells you just how true or untrue the sentence is of you. Circle only one.

	Very True	True	Untrue	Very untrue	
1. If I want to do well at school it's up to me	1	2	3	4	96
2. The reason that some pupils find it hard to make friends is that adults don't like them	1	2	3	4	97
3. When I win at sport, a lot of times, I can't find out why I won	1	2	3	4	98
4. When a friend does not do well at something, it's usually his or her fault	1	2	3	4	99
5. When I do well at school, it's because my teacher likes me	1	2	3	4	100
6. If a kid is not popular with his class mates, there is probably nothing he can do about it	1	2	3	4	101
7. I can be good at any sport if I try harder	1	2	3	4	102
8. When something goes wrong for a kid, a lot of times it's somebody else's fault	1	2	3	4	103
9. When I get a good grade at school, I usually don't understand why I did so well	1	2	3	4	104
10. If a kid doesn't have friends, it's the kid's own fault	1	2	3	4	105
11. When I play an outdoor game against another kid, it's probably because the other kid didn't play well	1	2	3	4	106

12. When something bad happens to a kid, there is probably nothing that kid could have done about it	1	2	3	4	107
13. The reasons that some kids do real well at school is that they work hard	1	2	3	4	108
14. If a teacher doesn't like me, I probably won't have any friends in that class	1	2	3	4	109
15. Many times when somebody wins at sport, there is no reason for it	1	2	3	4	110
16. If I try to catch a ball and miss it, it's usually because I didn't try hard enough	1	2	3	4	111
17. The main reason that some kids are good at a lot of things is that they can get the adults in charge to like them	1	2	3	4	112
18. If somebody doesn't like to be my friend there's probably nothing I can do about it	1	2	3	4	113
19. Anyone can be a good athlete if they work hard enough	1	2	3	4	114
20. If an adult doesn't want me to do something that I want to do, I probably won't be able to do it	1	2	3	4	115
21. A lot of times there doesn't seem to be any reason for the kids to do well at school	1	2	3	4	116
22. If a kid doesn't do well at school, it's probably because the kid didn't try hard enough	1	2	3	4	117
23. If a kid wants to have friends, he or she should make friends with popular kids first	1	2	3	4	118
24. When something goes wrong for me, I usually can't figure out how it happened	1	2	3	4	119
25. If somebody is a nice person, they will have a lot of friends	1	2	3	4	120

### The Wallace Future Opinions Task

Here are a series of events which will probably happen in the future. Please write when in the future you think these things might happen. Be sure you answer each question with age or year. You may not skip any question. You may not answer any question with never. You will feel uncertain about some of these questions but please answer every question with either age or year.

1. How old might you be when you own your own home?	Age	
	Year	
2. How old might you be when your child achieves success?	Age	
	Year	
3. How old might you be when you retire?	Age	
	Year	
4. How old might you be when you achieve person success?	Age	
	Year	
5. How old might you be when you get your highest salary?	Age	
	Year	
6. How old might you be when you consider yourself fully mature?	Age	
	Year	
7. How old might you be when your youngest child marries?	Age	
	Year	
8. How old might you be when you say you have most of the things you want?	Age	
	Year	
9. How old might you be when you think you have reached middle age?	Age	
	Year	
10. How old might you be when you become an influential member of the community?	Age	
	Year	

### Questionnaire on Attitude towards the School as a Social System

	Very True	Undecided	Very Untrue
1. More freedom to make my decisions at school would be important to me	3	2	1
2. Our principal treats us as though we were just things	3	2	1
3. I think the school has to have strict control of students in order to know who's doing what, where and when	3	2	1
4. Even though someone else decides on students, I think the subjects we study are the best ones for a good education	3	2	1
5. I feel that schools have to have a lot of rules just to operate	3	2	1
6. I think that, except for a few requirements, the school should relax and let us learn what we want to learn, when we want to learn it	3	2	1
7. I think students are treated very much alike at school, even though we know that each is different from others.	3	2	1
8. I like learning but I don't like school.	3	2	1
9. I object strongly to having to have signed passes for every unusual thing we do.	3	2	1
10. Having a regular schedule of classes makes me feel secure about what's next	3	2	1

### The Achievement Value Inventory - VAI Scale by Strodtbeck.

I more strongly believe that:

1. Planning only makes a person unhappy since plans hardly ever work out anyhow	Agree	Disagree
2. When a man is born the success he is going to have is already on the cards, so he might as well accept and not fight it	Agree	Disagree
3. Nowadays, with world conditions as they are, the wise person lives for to-day and lets tomorrow take care of itself	Agree	Disagree

4. Even when teenagers get married, their main loyalty still belongs to their fathers and mothers	Agree	Disagree
5. When the time comes for a boy to get a job, he should stay near his parents, even if it means giving up a good job opportunity	Agree	Disagree
6. Nothing in life is worth the sacrifice of moving away from your parents	Agree	Disagree
7. The best kind of job is one when you are part of an organisation where everyone works together, even if there is no individual credit	Agree	Disagree