EFFECTS OF SINGLE-PARENTHOOD ON SCHOOL-GOING ADOLENSCENTS IN GABORONE DISTRICT OF BOTSWANA

PORTIA GOBONA MOREBODI

Mini-dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY
A33641200167310C

In

The Department of Foundations of Education in the School of Education of the

North West University(Mafikeng Campus)

SUPERVISOR: Mr T.E.B. Assan

2005

i 11502587

b1100D314
LIBRARY
MAFIKENG CAMPUS
Call No.: TH 305.23509688 3 MOR
2006 -02- 21
Acc. No.: 06 80364
NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY

TH 305.23509688 3 MOR

Acknowledgements

I sincerely dedicate my gratitude to the following:

My late father Kgakgamatso Sethunya Morebodi who taught me the value of education, my supervisor, Mr. T. E. B. Assan who supervised the project, Mr. Tadios Munodawafa who helped me with statistical analysis, my family, especially Lotlhe, my friends, especially Oteng, Emmah and Olebogeng. Last but not least I am grateful to the Almighty who gave me the strength to persevere.

Declaration

I, Portia Morebodi, hereby declare that the mini-dissertation for the degree of Master in Education in the Department of Foundations of Education in the Faculty of Education at the University of North-West hereby submitted, has not previously been submitted by anyone for a degree at this or any other university, and this is my own work in design and execution and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

.....	.....	.....
Portia Morebodi	Student Number	Date

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1		PAGE
TOPIC		
Introduction/Orientation		1
1.1	Background of the study	4
1.2	Impact of single parenthood on female-headed families	4
1.3	Statement of the problem	5
1.4	Specific questions	5
1.5	Hypotheses	6
1.6	Significance of the study	6
1.7	Conclusion	6
1.8	Limitations	7
1.9	Delimitations	7
1.10	Access and ethical considerations	8
1.11	Definition of terms	
CHAPTER 2		
Literature Review		11
2.1	Introduction	11
2.2	Theories of adolescence	12
2.2.1	Freud's psychosexual stages	13
2.2.2	Erikson's psychosocial stages	15
2.2.3	Piaget's periods of development	17
2.3	Aspects of adolescent development	17
2.3.1	Physical development	19
2.3.2	Cognitive development	20
2.3.3	Emotional development	22
2.3.4	Social development	25
2.3.5	Behavioral development	27
2.4	Theories of parenting	27
2.4.1	What is involved in parenting?	31
2.4.2	Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems	32
2.4.3	Family types and theories	35
2.4.3.1	Single-parent families	33
2.4.3.2	Single-divorced-parent families	33
2.4.3.3	Never-married single-parent families	34
2.4.4	The challenges of single parenting	35
2.4.4.1	Facts on fatherless ness	42
2.5	Parenting styles	43
2.5.1	Authoritarian	43
2.5.2	Authoritative	44
2.5.3	Permissive	44
2.5.4	Uninvolved	45
2.5.5	Applications in the classroom	46
2.6	The role of parents in children's moral developments	

NWU LIBRARY

2.6.1	Domains of social knowledge	47
2.6.2	Experiential origins of morality	50
2.6.3	The role of affect	52
2.6.4	Cognitive aspects of parents interactions	53
2.7	Summary	59

CHAPTER 3
Research Design and Methodology

3.1	Introduction	60
3.2	Research design	60
3.3	Population	61
3.4	Access and ethical considerations	61
3.5	Sampling and sampling techniques	63
3.6	Instruments	66

CHAPTER 4
Data Analysis and Interpretations

4.1	Demographic data	65
4.2	Description of home background	66
4.3	Feedback from schoolwork	70
4.4	Feedback on social life	73
4.5	How children from single parenthoods receive different treatment at school as a result of their family setup	76
4.6	How children from single parenthoods experience problems as a result of their family setup	78
4.7	How children from single parenthoods find it difficult to balance schoolwork and social life as a result of their family setup	79
4.8	Guidance and counselling for children from single parent households at school	80
4.9	Action to be taken by school administrators to assist single parent children	81
4.10	Challenges faced at home and school regarding family support and schoolwork	83
4.11	Hypothesis	84
4.12	Summary of findings	87

CHAPTER 5
Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1	Summary of conclusions	89
5.2	Implications	89
5.3	Recommendations	90
5.4	Issues for further discussion	91

Bibliography 93
Appendix A – Letter from Department

Appendix B – Letter from Ministry
Appendix C – Request to School Heads
Appendix D - Questionnaire

Abstract

The study was aimed at investigating the effects of single parenthood on school-going adolescents on a group of male and female children schooling in Gaborone District of Botswana.

The research questions focused on investigating the effects of single parenthood on the social interactions of school-going adolescents, effects on their performance in class, the attitude of the community on such adolescents and whether single parenthood affected boys and girls differently.

To start the investigation, a sample of 80 adolescents was randomly selected from a total of 2 000 form 4 and form 5 students.

The findings revealed that the majority (91.3%) of school-going adolescents from single parenthood stay with their mothers. The survey findings also revealed that school-going adolescents from single parenthood do not get along with their single parent, single parents are not always around to attend to the needs of their children and they are not always happy at home. The survey findings showed that there are poor child-parent relationships and this adversely affects the children's performance at school. The study revealed that the majority of adolescents from single-parent households have fallen behind in some of their subjects (77.5%), have problems getting their homework done on time (46.3%), have unsatisfactory school reports and they have failed some the subjects they are doing (78.8%).

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION/ORIENTATION

1.1 Background of the study

The society as a whole has experienced a sharp increase of single headed households. For example in the USA single parenthood has increased by 50% (Learner, 1990). In Botswana the situation is not different. 46% of Botswana households are female-headed (Population and Housing Census Dissemination Seminar, 2003). This has occurred as a result of many reasons. According to literature, the following are some of the major causes of single parenthood:

a) Divorce

Divorce has been cited as one of the contributing factors towards an increase in single-parent households. According to Learner (1990), given the 50 percent divorce rate in America, it is estimated that the majority of all American youth born in the 1990s will spend some amount of time in single-parent families before the age of sixteen years.

According to Botswana Daily News (2004) the divorce rate in Botswana is very high particularly among young couples. Young couples are too impatient with each other and the impression created is that they entered the marriage without understanding that the marriage journey can be long, tough and requires patience.

b) Out-of-Wedlock Births

Having children born out of wedlock is also one of the contributing factors towards single parenthood worldwide. Two thirds of women had out-of-wedlock children in Sweden in 1971. Illegitimate birth in Denmark, which in 1940 comprised of 8 percent, increased to 11 percent in 1970 and 22 percent in 1975, Thomas (1990).

Although there are no clear statistics in Botswana, out-of-wedlock births are prevalent. According to Botswana Daily News (2005), many couples prefer to have children out-of-wedlock for fear of paying a high bride price. Such couples end up cohabitating.

c) Teenage Pregnancy

When we talk of teenage pregnancy, we refer to a moment of life, between the ages of 13 - 19 years, when young people, as a result of biological change begin to discover and experiment with sexual activity without realising its consequences, (The Independent, 2004).

Teenage pregnancy has a major role to play in the increase of single-parent households. Teenagers are warned against the dangers of pre-marital sex. The society, however, is still having a lot of single parents who come about as a result of teenage pregnancy. Statistics in Botswana have revealed that teenage pregnancy has become a major public concern. The 1971 census found that 15.4 percent of girls aged 15 – 19 were pregnant, the rate increased to 22.6 percent in 1981 and 23.5 percent in 1988. Teenagers account for 18 percent of all births in Botswana; they are less likely to be in stable unions and are more likely to seek illegal abortions, since 85 percent of their pregnancies are unplanned, (Mid-term Review of National Development Plan, 1994).

d) Death

Children are sometimes left with one parent through many causes like death. Death may occur as a result of natural causes, through accidents or diseases. HIV/AIDS has been pointed out as the highest single cause of death in Sub-Saharan Africa, (Phiri, 2003). With high prevalence of HIV/AIDS most parents are lost through that manner.

In Botswana 77% of all orphans are attributed to the death of one or both parents due to HIV/AIDS (http://www.avert.org/aidsorphans.htm, 2005). It is estimated

that 110,000 children in Botswana had lost their parent(s) to AIDS by the end of 2003.

e) Matter of Choice

Certain cultures and groups of people have come to embrace single parenthood as a matter of choice. This is more prevalent in western cultures than in African cultures. This is also more prevalent amongst women than men as will be explained later below. For a lot of women today, being a single mother is a reality, and one that not many of their mothers had to face. If someone of their mother's age was a single mother, it was generally due to death or scandal, and not a way of life brought on by divorce or choice when the father of the child was deemed unsuitable for a lifelong romantic partnership. The situation has, however changed nowadays and a number of women are adopting single motherhood as a choice, (PageWise Inc, 2002).

There is a wide range of reasons why women would choose to raise families on their own. Traditionally, women depended on men for economic sufficiency but modern women are better educated and better able to support themselves—so marriage is no longer a financial prerequisite to motherhood. Also, unwed motherhood has lost much of its stigma and has even been glamorized by celebrity role models, (Watch Tower Bible and Tract Society of Pennsylvania, 2003).

A recent survey in Gaborone city of Botswana showed that single parenthood is common (Campbell, E. K. & Ntsabane, T, 1995). Such single mothers have chosen single motherhood as a way of life and the majority has jobs which earn them medium to fairly high incomes to support their children and themselves. The survey noted that the family forms and structure are changing and divorce, remarriage, single parenthood, rising number of female-headed households and teenage motherhood, all are a part of these changing family forms and structures

As a result, women in Botswana have assumed greater responsibility for the economic support of their families.

1.2 Impact of Single Parenthood on Female-Headed Families

According to Mid-term Review of National Development Plan (1994), national population census has reported an increase in proportion of households headed by females. In both rural and urban areas of Botswana, the proportion of families headed by females increased between 1981 and 1991. Nationally the proportion was 45.2 percent in 1981 and 47.1 percent in 1991, but in rural areas in 1991 over half of the households (52.1 percent) were female headed. This placed enormous responsibilities on women as sole breadwinners and justifies government emphasis on training and job creation for women.

The term family has been redefined. It is no longer made of father, mother and children only. Some families are made up of just mother and children or in some very rare cases more especially in this part of the world; it is made up of father and children.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Throughout the world, the family is being redefined. A family is no longer defined through a bond established by marriage only. New types of family systems have recently been emerging and these are not just based on marriage union. As noted earlier on in this preliminary literature review, one type of family system which is gaining ground is the female-headed family. It is important to investigate the impact such a system can have as far as the welfare of children who grow in such a system are concerned. Such children may be deprived of parental care and guidance in their formative and school years. The consequences can be negative social and physical developments for the child and the wider society.

Little or no research has been conducted in Botswana in connection with children who grow up in a female-headed system. Whilst a wide range of research papers, censuses and surveys have been published on female-headed households, they do not directly target their investigations on the effects of single parenthood on school-going adolescents in Botswana. (Mid-term Review of National Development Plan 1994; Population and Housing Census Dissemination Seminar, 2003).

Based on the title and the background discussions, the purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of single-parenthood on adolescents in schools. The study will also establish how single-headed parenthood affects learning of adolescent students. It will also assess whether single-parenthood affects school-going adolescents in the same manner regardless of gender, parent/guardian's educational status and school location.

1.4 Specific research questions

In order to address the purpose of the study and the literature review, the following specific questions/issues were investigated:

(a) Does single parenthood have negative effects on social interaction of school-going adolescents?

(b) Do school-going adolescents who come from single parent households perform poorly in class?

(c) Do school going adolescents who come from single parent households face any discrimination from the community?

1.5 Hypotheses

Based on literature and purpose of study, the following hypotheses will be investigated.

- There is no significant difference between male and female adolescent students on effects of single parenthood.
- There is no significant difference between school going adolescents of parent /guardian with different educational status on effects of single parenthood

1.6 Significance of the study

The study adds to scholarly research and literature in the field, but a lot of work and research has not been done in the area of single-parenthood in Botswana. The information is necessary in filling the gap.

The study will shed light on how school-going adolescents view single-parenthood. The study will expose the kind of perceptions held by adolescents as far as single-parenthood is concerned. The study will also expose problems experienced by adolescents as a result of single parenthood.

The information obtained from the study is necessary for the formulation of policy on single-parenthood and their adolescent children. The information will be used in strengthening the single parent household.

The adolescents' views may be used by educationists in analyzing how such a group can be assisted academically at school. The guidance and counseling curriculum can be redesigned to also cater for adolescent learners who come from single-parent families. Single-parents, some of who may be unaware of the problems affecting their children, can also learn from the survey and assist their children in coping with their situation.

1.7 Conclusion

The findings determined the conclusions and recommendations.

1.8 Limitations

Generalisation to the rest of Botswana might be limited. The population of the study is limited to a small area in Gaborone only. It would, therefore, not give a fair representation of the impact of single parenthood on school-going adolescents in Botswana. Nevertheless, the study provided an indication for further research in this area.

Another limitation is that this study includes students from different social backgrounds and treat their behaviour as the same. The questionnaire that is used is self-developed, and will be used for the first time. It has not undergone rigorous pilot testing, therefore it may have problems of reliability. However the study is valid in terms of the purpose.

1.9 Delimitations

Out of a population of twenty-seven senior secondary schools in Botswana, the study has been narrowed down to schools in Gaborone. All the schools are in the urban area. The study involves government schools only. Only students regardless of whether they are from single-parenthood households or not, will be given the questionnaire to fill.

The study looked only at the effects of single-parenthood on school-going adolescents as seen by adolescents and did not include other stakeholders such as parents and teachers.

1.10 Access and ethical considerations

The researcher protected the rights of subjects thus ensuring ethical practice. No names were used. A code was assigned to each questionnaire. Only gender and age were disclosed. Information obtained and the subjects was treated with confidentiality. A cover letter was issued to every respondent. This enabled the researcher to access the respondents.

The researcher also sought permission from the relevant authorities. These were the Ministry of Education and the headmasters of the targeted schools.

1.11 Definition of terms

i Adolescence

Hill (1904), defined adolescence as a cascade of instinctual passions, a phase of growth so turbulent that it resembles the period in which humans evolved from savages into civilized human beings. Berk and Bacon (1993) defined adolescence as the genital stage, a period in which instinctual drives reawaken and shift to the genital region of the body, resulting in psychological conflict and volatile, unpredictable behaviour.

Operational term: This is a period between the inception of puberty and entry into adulthood and is characterised by physical, biological, social and emotional developments. A person undergoing the process behaves in an erratic, impulsive and volatile manner.

ii Adolescent

Operational term: An adolescent is a youth going through the stages of adolescence (refer to definition of adolescence).

iii Marriage

According to Leonard and Roberts (1998) marriage is the adaptation and overlapping of two entire systems, the husband's and the wife's families, to create a new subsystem. The man is the head of the household, his primary role is to provide for the economic wellbeing of his family. The woman devotes herself to the caring for her husband and children and to creating a nurturant, comfortable home. Giddens (1993) defined marriage as a socially acknowledged and approved sexual union between two adult individuals. When two people

marry, they become kin to one another, the marriage bond also, however, connects together a wider range of kinspeople; parents, brothers, sisters, and other blood relatives become relatives of the partners through marriage. Dow and Kid also defined marriage as a contract by two consenting and competent persons of opposite sexes, undertaking to live together and afford each other sexual privileges exclusively. (Dow and Kid; 1994).

Operational term: Marriage is a union of two different families and is facilitated by the coming together of the husband from one family and the wife from the other family to form their own family.

iv Family

Parke and Buriel (1998) defined a family as a complex social system in which each person's behaviour influences the behaviour of others, in both direct and indirect ways. The family creates bonds between people that are unique. Attachment to parents and siblings usually last a lifetime and serve as models for relationships in the wider world of neighbourhood, school and community. Sarason (1996) defined a family as a self-containing system which, like the human body, has feedback mechanisms that preserve its identity and integrity by restoring homeostasis – the internal status quo – after a disturbance. A change in one part of the family system thus is often compensated for elsewhere. Families have mechanisms for adapting to changed circumstances, and, like individuals, they have biologically and socially determined states of development.

Operational term: A family is a social system where members share common ancestry, culture and beliefs, and such a system lasts a lifetime of a member.

vi Senior Secondary School

Operational term: A Senior Secondary School is a school providing education for children from 15 years and above. In the context of Botswana education, it ranges from grades 11 to 12; that is Form 4 to 5, (Botswana, 2003).

vii Single parenthood

Shostak (1987) defined single parenthood as a situation characterized by an individual not living with an intimate partner. Single parenthood is a multifaceted experience with different meanings. At one extreme are people who choose it deliberately, at the other are people who regard themselves as single parents because of circumstances beyond their control.

Chapter 2 discussed the literature review.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explores, from literature, the various schools of thought in relation to school-going adolescents and single parenthood. Single-parenthood is a trend which has been gaining momentum for various reasons, among them the ever increasing divorce rates between married couples, bereavement of one partner due to natural death, disease or accident and lately some individuals are embracing single-parenthood as a matter of choice (Nucci & Nucci, 1982).

The researcher also examines the literature on how single-parenthood affects school-going adolescents. Single-parenthood is currently a circumstance which is generally looked upon. Adolescents from single-parent families are caught in a difficult situation since they are also at a stage where they are experiencing an identity crisis caused by adolescence, (Erikson, 1965).

2.2. Theories of Adolescence

Theorists and researchers agree that notable development occurs during adolescence in a number of areas. However, there are differing viewpoints about some aspects of adolescence (De Anda, 1995), including:

- whether development is continuous or discontinuous with the preceding and following stages in the life cycle.
- whether the period of adolescence is one of turmoil and stress or is relatively uneventful.
- whether it is critical for adolescents to accomplish specific developmental tasks during this time.

- whether internal or environmental factors have a more significant influence on the experiences and outcomes of adolescent development.

Despite these arguments on adolescence, the following analysis examines the various schools of thought on development.

2.2.1 Freud's Psychosexual Stages

Psychoanalytic theories of human development began in the 1900's with the work of Sigmund Freud. More modern theories of development have now replaced those of Freud. Yet it is still important to be familiar with the basics of Freud's work, as many modern views of human development still have their roots in Freudian theory.

Freud (1915) developed a general theory of psychological development from infancy to adulthood. He believed that the mind of an infant consists only of primitive drives and instincts, such as the need for food and physical comfort, which he called the "id."

During the first few years of life, the self, or "ego" develops. The function of the ego is to find safe and appropriate ways for the id to be expressed. Through the ego, a child finds ways to get what he or she needs within the boundaries of what is acceptable to the parents. After the initial struggle between the id and ego, the child learns to delay gratification in response to external demands, particularly those of parents.

In the late preschool years, the child develops a conscience, which Freud called the "super ego." The child has now internalized the parents' values. He or she feels guilty for misbehaving and will try to behave even when adults are not around.

Freud (1915) believed that a single motive governs human behavior — the desire to satisfy biological needs and thereby discharge tension. He defined stages of development in terms of the organs he thought were used to discharge tension at

that age. From birth to adulthood, a child develops through these stages in sequence: oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital. Failure to experience gratification for basic drives during a given stage could cause an individual to become "fixated" in that stage, stuck forever in that particular psychological mode.

Freud (1915) believed that adolescence is fraught with internal struggle. He viewed the pre-adolescent "latency" period as a time when the child develops a balance between the ego and id. Upon entering the "genital" phase of adolescence, the child is bombarded with instinctual impulses that disrupt this balance. The ego is torn between the strong impulses of the id and the restrictions of the superego. This conflict makes adolescence a time of tremendous stress and turmoil.

From Freud's analysis of child development, it can be deduced that both parents play an important role in child development and if there is a missing link (like the absence of one parent), a child's development will not be complete. Freud asserts that failure by children to complete certain stages may give children confusion in sexual identity, the choice of an occupation and the roles they perform as adults.

2.2.2. Erikson's Psychosocial Stages

While based on Freud's psychosexual concept of development, Erik Erikson's psychosocial theory takes a broader view of the factors that impact human development. He places importance on the social and cultural components of an individual's developmental experiences.

Erikson (1987) proposes a series of developmental tasks that all people face and resolve in some way. Previous developmental outcomes set the stage for upcoming issues, but an individual does not become "stuck" in a phase, as Freud believed. Instead, the old issue is reworked in the context of current tasks. A

comparison of Freud and Erikson is outlined in Table 1, (Stroufe & Cooper, 1988).

Table 1: A Comparison of Freud's Psychosexual Stages with Erikson's Broader Psychosocial Stages

Age	Freud's Psychosexual Stages	Erikson's Psychosocial Stages	Erikson's Developmental Issues
Birth to 1 Year	Oral	Basic trust vs. mistrust	Infants learn to trust others to satisfy their needs and therefore develop self-worth. Infants receiving inconsistent care may grow to mistrust the people in their world.
1 to 3 Years	Anal	Autonomy vs. shame and doubt	Children learn to be self-sufficient by mastering tasks such as feeding and dressing themselves. Children who do not develop autonomy may doubt their abilities and their capacity to act on the world. As a result, they may develop feelings of shame.
3 to 6 Years	Phallic	Initiative vs. guilt	Children initiate pretend play with peers and accept responsibilities such as helping with household chores. Sometimes these activities create conflicts with others, which create guilt. Children can resolve these crises by learning to balance initiative against the demands of others.
7 to 11 Years	Latency	Industry vs. Inferiority	Children must master increasingly difficult skills, particularly social interaction with peers and academic performance. Children whose industry enables them to succeed in these areas develop a sense of mastery and self-assurance. Those who do not feel inferior and may shun new activities.
12 to 18 Years	Genital	Identity vs. role confusion	Adolescents build on all earlier experiences to develop a sense of self-identity. Failure to reach this goal may cause confusion in sexual identity, the choice of an occupation, and the roles they perform as adults.

Like Freud, Erikson viewed adolescence as a time of turmoil and stress. He thought that the turmoil resulted from an identity crisis rather than a struggle between the id and ego. He saw adolescence as a necessary and productive period — as a time of life when one works to form one's own identity. In this period of turmoil and stress, both parents would be required to provide balance in a child's development.

2.2.3. Piaget's Periods of Development

Piaget (1965) described development in terms of sequential changes in how children think. He proposed that children grow through three periods of development, each distinguished by a different way of thinking. Piaget's periods of development are summarized in Table 2, (Stroufe & Cooper, 1988):

Table 2: Piaget's Periods of Development

Age	Period of Development	Cognitive Structures
Birth to 2 Years	Sensorimotor	Infants understand the world through perception and action. Abilities expand throughout this period, so that by age two, toddlers can purposefully combine their actions.
2 to 11 Years	Concrete Preoperational Subperiod	Children master independently acquired skills. Children are able to form mental representations of objects and imagine actions related to them. Thought is egocentric.
7 to 11 Years	Concrete Operational Subperiod	Children are capable of logical thinking. Their imaginations are constrained by reality, and they can perform logical operations on concrete objects.
12 Years Through Adulthood	Formal Operational	Children develop the ability to reason abstractly.

According to Piaget (1965), cognitive development through adolescence involves:

- movement from concrete to abstract thinking, and
- a decrease in egocentric thought.

Piaget (1965) suggested that prior to adolescence, the thinking of a child is concrete. The acquisition of formal reasoning skills allows older adolescents (about age 15) to think about many possible outcomes of a situation that do not

exist now. They can construct possibilities and assess probabilities. Imagine, for instance, that you pose the hypothetical situation of an adolescent pregnancy. An adolescent with formal reasoning skills (with appropriate guidance) could try to think through the full implications of parenting a newborn (Stroufe & Cooper, 1988).

According to Stroufe and Cooper (1988), the transition from concrete to completed formal operational thinking occurs in stages between the ages of 11-14. According to Piaget (1965) and other cognitive theorists, the predominance of egocentric thought during this period leads to some particular views and behaviors, including:

- self-consciousness
- the imaginary audience: feeling as though one's actions and appearance is being constantly scrutinized
- the personal fable: viewing one's thoughts and feelings as unique experiences, and
- feelings of invulnerability, leading to risk-taking behaviour.

By sharing experiences with peers, adolescents learn that many of their thoughts and feelings are shared by almost everyone. This realization helps them to feel less unique — or less "abnormal" — and more like others. The egocentric thinking of early adolescence thus diminishes by about the age of 15 or 16.

There are definitely limitations in Piaget's theory and there has been new ways of explaining cognitive development. Two significant researchers in this area are Sternberg and Gardner (1987). Robert Sternberg has designed a "Triarchic Model of Intelligence". The "Triarchic Model of Intelligence" has three major categories: the component of intelligence, experience and intelligence, and the context of intelligence. However, Sternberg (1987) does not apply his theory to children. Gardner (1987) explains cognitive development with his theory of

multiple intelligence. He explains that there are eight identifiable intelligences. They are linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist. Gardner's study recognized that we all have different abilities.

It seems that some of Piaget's work and assumptions have been highly criticized. However, this is to be expected in the field of science with something as complex as the theory of cognitive development.

Piaget's theory is important because the stages of development categorised by him provide the reference space in which to place this study, namely the focus on adolescence.

2.3. Aspects of Adolescent Development

According to the American Psychological Association (2002), the many changes experienced by an adolescent can be grouped into five major categories:

- physical
- cognitive
- emotional
- social
- behavioural

The discussion below expands the above five categories as stated by the American Psychological Association (2002).

2.3.1 Physical Development

According to the American Psychological Association (2002) adolescents experience a growth spurt, which involves rapid growth of bones and muscles. This begins in girls around the ages of 9-12 and in boys around the ages of 11-14.

Sexual maturation (puberty) also begins at this time. During puberty, most adolescents will experience:

- oilier skin and some acne.
- increased sweating especially under arms.
- growth of pubic and underarm hair, and facial and chest hair in boys.
- changes in body proportions.
- masturbation and fantasies about sexual intimacy.
- in boys, enlargement of testicles, erections, first ejaculation, wet dreams, deepening voice.
- in girls, breast budding, increased vaginal lubrication and the beginning of the menstrual cycle.

The physical changes of early adolescence often lead to:

- **New responses from others.**
  In response to these physical changes, young adolescents begin to be treated in a new way by those around them. They may no longer be seen as just children, but as sexual beings to be protected — or targeted. They face society's expectations for how young men and women "should" behave.
- **New concern with physical appearance and body image**
  Both adolescent boys and girls are known to spend hours concerned with their physical appearance. They want to "fit in" with their peers yet achieve their own unique style as well.

The study by the American Psychological Association further states that many adolescents experience dissatisfaction with their changing bodies. Weight gain is

a natural part of puberty, which can be distressing in a culture that glorifies being thin. In response, some adolescents begin to diet obsessively. About 20% of all females aged 12-18 engage in unhealthy dieting behaviors. Some of these adolescents develop eating disorders such as anorexia nervosa or bulimia.

Risk factors for girls developing eating disorders include:

- low self-esteem
- poor coping skills
- childhood physical or sexual abuse
- early sexual maturation
- perfectionism

(American Psychological Association, 2002)

The study by the American Psychological Association shows that adolescents require the presence of both parents during their growth. There are certain issues which can be better accomplished by fathers during a male adolescent's transition to adulthood. Similarly mothers also pay an important role during a female adolescent's transition to adulthood. Key tasks which parents can play include guidance and counselling and discipline. Hence this study utilised the American Psychological Study to highlight the importance of adolescence development.

2.3.2. Cognitive Development

A dramatic shift in thinking from concrete to abstract gives adolescents a whole new set of mental tools (American Psychological Association, 2002). They are now able to analyze situations logically in terms of cause and effect. They can appreciate hypothetical situations. This gives them the ability to think about the future, evaluate alternatives, and set personal goals. They can engage in

introspection and mature decision-making. As a result of their growing cognitive abilities, most developing adolescents will:

- Become more independent.
- Take on increased responsibilities, such as babysitting, summer jobs, or household chores.
- Shift their school focus from play-centred activities to academics.
- Begin to consider future careers and occupations.
- Look to peers and media for information and advice.
- Begin to develop a social conscience: becoming concerned about social issues such as racism, global warming and poverty.
- Develop a sense of values and ethical behaviour: recognizing the value of traits such as honesty, helpfulness, caring for others.

(American Psychological Association, 2002)

As adolescents begin to exercise their new reasoning skills, some of their behaviors may be confusing for adults. It is normal for them to:

- Argue for the sake of arguing.
- Jump to conclusions.
- Be self-centred.
- Constantly find fault in the adult's position.
- Be overly dramatic.

(American Psychological Association, 2002)

2.3.3. Emotional Development

Adolescents are faced with the large task of establishing a sense of identity. The new cognitive skills of maturing adolescents give them the ability to reflect on who they are and what makes them unique. Identity is made up of two components (American Psychological Association, 2002):

- **Self-concept**
  The set of beliefs about oneself, including attributes, roles, goals, interests, values and religious or political beliefs

- **Self-esteem**
  How one feels about one's self-concept

The process of developing a sense of identity involves experimenting with different ways of appearing, sounding and behaving. Each adolescent will approach this exploration in his or her own unique way.

Adolescents must also develop relationship skills that allow them to get along well with others and to make friends. The specific skills that they need to master as part of their emotional development include:

- Recognizing and managing emotions.
- Developing empathy.
- Learning to resolve conflict constructively.
- Developing a cooperative spirit.

The course of emotional development will be unique for each adolescent. Yet some tendencies are seen in specific groups of adolescents.

- **Gender Differences**
  Boys and girls face different challenges in our culture and may have

NWU LIBRARY

different emotional needs during adolescence. Girls tend to have lower self-esteem than boys (Bolognini, Plancherel, Bettschart & Halfon, 1996).

Some girls may need help learning to express anger and to be more assertive. In contrast, boys may need to learn to be more cooperative and that it's okay to express emotions other than anger (Pollack & Shuster, 2000).

- **Cultural Differences**

  For many adolescents, this may be the first time that they consciously recognize their ethnic identity. Ethnic identity includes the shared values, traditions and practices of a cultural group.

  Feeling positive about one's ethnic identity is important to the self-esteem of an adolescent. This can be a difficult challenge for adolescents from minority cultures in the United States, given that they are often faced with negative stereotypes about their culture.

Parents are important in guiding adolescents on how to handle issues like anger, emotions and confidence. The presence of both parents is critical if issues which relate to boys and girls are to be dealt with separately. Parents can share responsibilities. In this study, the effect of both parents on adolescents was explored.

2.3.4 Social Development

The social development of adolescents takes place in the context of all their relationships, particularly those with their peers and families. Key features of adolescent social development are summarized in Table 3 (American Psychological Association, 2002):

Table 3: Key Features of Adolescent Social Development

Social Group	Early Adolescence (ages 9-13)	Middle Adolescence (ages 14-16)	Late Adolescence (ages 17-19)
Peers	• Centre of social world shifts from family to friends. • Peer group tends to be same-sex. • Strong desire to conform to and be accepted by a peer group.	• Peer groups gradually give way to one-on-one friendships and romances. • Peer group tends to be gender-mixed. • Dating begins. • Less conformity and more tolerance of individual differences.	• Serious intimate relationships begin to develop.
Family	• Increasing conflict between adolescents and their parents. • Family closeness most important protective factor against high-risk behaviour.		• Family influence in balance with peer influence.

One of the greatest social changes for adolescents is the new importance of their peers. This change allows them to gain independence from their families. By identifying with peers, adolescents start to develop moral judgment and values, and to explore how they differ from their parents (American Psychological Association, 2002).

Young adolescents are very concerned with being accepted by a peer group. This great desire to belong can influence some to engage in activities that they normally would not consider.

By middle adolescence, the intensity of involvement with a peer group gives way to more intimate friendships and romances. Peer groups may remain important longer for adolescents belonging to ethnic minority groups. For these teens, peer

groups provide a much-needed sense of belonging within the majority culture (American Psychological Association, 2002).

The relationship between adolescents and their parents is changed by the adolescent's social development. However, the shift in the adolescent's social world from family to peers does not lessen the importance of the family in the adolescent's life. Family closeness has been confirmed as the most important protective factor against certain high-risk behaviors such as smoking, alcohol and drug use, and early initiation of sexual intercourse (Resnick, Bearman & Blum, et. al. 1997).

The adolescent's new desire for independence leads to increasing conflicts between adolescents and their parents. Minor conflicts and bickering are considered to be normal as teens and their parents adjust to their changing relationship.

The characteristics of an adolescent's community can also have a great impact on his or her social development. Communities include features such as:

- Neighbourhood socioeconomic status.
- Support networks for families in low socioeconomic status neighbourhoods.
- Schools.
- Religious organizations.
- The media.
- People who live in the community.

Inference made from the above literature shows that family closeness is the most important protective factor against certain high-risk behaviours. Parents can play a role in protecting an adolescent child from such vices. A single

parent is likely to ineffectively protect adolescents under such circumstances. As a result, adolescents from single-parenthoods are likely to be more vulnerable to such vices that their counterparts from both families would experience. The study therefore investigated parents role to build social development of the adolescent.

2.3.5. Behavioral Development

All of the developmental changes that adolescents experience prepare them to experiment with new behaviors. This experimentation results in risk-taking, which is a normal part of adolescent development (Dryfoos, 1998; Hamburg, 1997; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). Engaging in risk-taking behavior helps adolescents to:

- Shape their identities.
- Try out their new decision-making skills.
- Develop realistic assessments of themselves.
- Gain peer acceptance and respect.
  (Ponton, 1997; Jessor, 1991)

Unfortunately, some of the risks that adolescents pursue may pose a real threat to their health and well-being. These include motor vehicle accidents, pregnancy, alcohol and drug abuse, and cigarette smoking. Adolescents need guidance to channel the drive toward risk-taking behavior into less dangerous and more constructive pursuits.

First, adults who work with adolescents must be able to talk with them about the process of decision-making regarding sex, drugs, alcohol and other safety concerns. The goal is to help the adolescent weigh the dangers and benefits of a particular situation, consider his or her own strengths and weaknesses that may

affect decision-making, and then make the best decisions possible (Ponton, 1997).

Second, adults must be aware of positive pathways that teens might take to satisfy the need to take risks: becoming involved in a school play, learning to play a musical instrument, taking up a sport. A simple stretch beyond one's former capacities constitutes a risk and can satisfy many adolescents' need for risk taking (American Psychological Association, 2002).

Most adolescents will take risks. Eventually most will learn how to realistically assess risks and then will change their behavior accordingly. For others, risk-taking behavior may signal a problem that is a serious threat to their well being. Signs that an adolescent's risk behaviors are beyond normal experimentation include behaviors that:

- Begin early, age 8 or 9.
- Are on-going rather than occasional.
- Occur in a social context with peers who engage in the same activity.

Theories by Dryfoos (1998), Hamburg (1997), Roth & Brooks-Gunn (2000), Ponton (1997) and Jessor (1991) suggest that adolescence is a period where children engage in high-risk taking. In some cases, such high risk may impact negatively on the adolescents. Adolescents need guidance from both parents in order for them to make right decisions. High-risk behavior like smoking, alcohol and drug abuse and premature sexual intercourse may result in school-going adolescents dropping out of school prematurely if proper guidance is lacking from parents.

According to the American Psychological Association (2002), the areas of most concern for youth at risk of developing problem behaviors are:

- Drug and alcohol abuse.

- Pregnancy and sexually transmitted disease.
- School failure and dropping out.
- Crime, delinquency and violence.

There are several factors that can help prevent the development of problem behaviors in adolescents, even under adverse circumstances such as poverty:

- Stable, positive relationship with at least one caring adult.
- Religious and spiritual anchors.
- High, realistic academic expectations and adequate support.
- Positive family environment.
- Emotional intelligence and ability to cope with stress.

Unfortunately, these factors are not ones that an individual can create alone. A community must be able to offer the resources to build these elements into its structure. In order for this to happen, the needs of youth must be given priority (American Psychological Association, 2002). The purpose of this study was to examine effects of single parenthood on school-going adolescents. The discussion below focuses on various theories of parenting and how the type and nature of parenthood affects adolescents.

2.4. Theories of Parenting

2.4.1. What is Parenting?

Freud (1936) saw parents as mainly responsible for a child's developmental outcome and this impacted many early parenting programs. Erikson's (1965) theory of psychosocial development (1963) placed more emphasis on the inner biological and additional societal factors impacting children's growth and

development than on the primacy of parental influences at all stages over the life span.

The behavioural genetics theory of Gesell (1988) described by Thelen & Adolph (1992) suggested that a parent's central role was to support the unfolding of a child's inherited pre-dispositions and provide an environment matched to the child's maturational readiness. Today, behavioural geneticists also look to the impact of the environment to account for child outcomes.

Piaget and Inhelder's (1969) research on children's different stages of cognitive development continue to inform theories of how parents might or should relate to children to maximize development based on understanding how they are capable of thinking and reasoning at different ages. We learn from Vygotsky's work (1978) that social interactions between active, thinking children and their caregivers are key for a child's development. His zone of proximal development has to do with adults facilitating a child's more mature behaviour by being with them as they are challenged by more advanced tasks. It has been defined as the distance between what the child can accomplish alone (the level of actual development) and what the child can do when helped (the level of potential development). The image is the scaffold. A parent erects a structure (parent support and guidance) around a child's behaviour. As children gain more skills, the parents can dismantle the scaffold.

Bell (1968) expands our understanding of these interaction processes and builds on Lewin's (1935) transactional theory, which is that behaviour is a function of the person and the environment. His "child effects approach" suggested parents and children regulate each other's behaviour. This was in contrast to Freud's parent effects approach. Parents have a certain level of tolerance regarding their children's behaviour, which could either call forth some structure or be within their tolerance level. Child- effects theories differ from trait theories that have informed so many parent programs.

Trait theories focus on a parent's personality or style rather than on a parent's ability to adjust to different children of different ages, genders, temperaments and times. Most popular are Schaefer (1959) who discussed the now familiar parenting continua of warmth and control. Baumrind (1989; 1996) described three parenting styles as authoritarian, permissive or authoritative, some of which included warmth and control.

Bandura's (1997) social-cognitive theory emphasizes the cognitive and information processing capacities of an individual like a parent that mediate social behaviour. This work adds to the knowledge base that must be shared in parent programs. In particular, Bandura proposes that individuals' feelings of self-efficacy, or beliefs about their ability to actually effect changes in the environment, constitute one of the key ingredients to understanding human behaviour (Grusec, 1992). Thus, we are not just looking at the behaviour that flows from certain parent-child interactions but how parents and children think about these interactions as key to outcomes. The underlying assumption to this and other viable parenting models is that there are processes directing how parents think about child-rearing and how their thinking combines with child characteristics and other environmental influences to affect a child's ultimate growth.

Sigel et al.'s (1992), parent beliefs approach is also helpful. It emphasizes the important cognitive mediation of behaviour or how immediate and ongoing thinking processes influence parent-child interactions. Child- rearing, they believe, is multiply influenced by parental values and beliefs, previous experiences of parents, information sources and other people. The beliefs approach holds the promise of providing a way to change child-rearing behaviour through cognitive restructuring i.e. providing new information about children or child-rearing techniques, revising perceptions, correcting erroneous attributions or expectations or training in problem-solving techniques. While this sounds like

"Experts know best" this approach takes parents own beliefs as the starting point. The process of reflection on these beliefs may result in change and may not.

Minuchin (1985) added another dimension to understanding parent-child processes...family systems theory. Here, the relationship amongst all members of the family must be recognized in order for family functioning to be fully understood. Researchers have found e.g. that fathers are more demanding of sons when wives are present than when they are absent. (Buhrmester et al., 1992). Holden et al. (1992) found that the stress of domestic violence results in more maternal aggression on children. Werkele & Wolfe (1993) concluded that we need to optimize development of all family members and recognize the importance of empowering the parental subsystem to engage other subsystems adaptively (Dunst, Trivette & Deal, 1988) This too must be part of parent education.

Hinde (1989) explored parents' adaptations to changing children and changing environments over time. While adapting takes skills it is more than merely a bag of skills; parenting becomes a dynamic process. Hinde's (1989) social relationships theory, holds that ongoing human interactions forming interpersonal relationships represent the most important aspect of the environment for parenting. These dynamic interactions between parents and children are embedded in long-term relationships; are affected by both preceding interactions and expectations about future ones. Parent programs need to address these complex issues. Werkele &Wolfe (1993) concur. They define parenting competence as more than a set of skills; it involves using them appropriately during interactions within an enduring and unique relationship. The way parents adapt and adjust to a changing child, changes in themselves, or changing life situations is not captured by any static approach of parenting (Holden, 1997).

In summary, the way parents interact with their children will determine the future characteristics and behaviour of such children. Parents need to be educated

about the important role they play in the growth of their children. The above literature has shown that the presence of both parents is necessary to reinforce discipline in children (Buhrmester et al., 1992).

2.4.2 Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems

Bronfenbrenner (1979) in his ecological systems theory sees child development as occurring within a nested series of contextual levels from the immediate setting e.g. parents and families to the level that links to other systems e.g. home to school. A question then might be "How might domestic violence at home impact a child's performance at school?" The third level of influence might impact the child indirectly e.g. "what is the effect of work on parents and on their child-rearing?" The final system even more removed but yet influential has to do with the larger culture and institutions. "How does social policy in the U.S. affect children?" To sum, to understand how effective parents would need to operate, the ongoing parent-child environment interaction process must be the focus of attention for educators and the future parents to whom they are teaching parenting education.

Belsky's work (1984) nicely delineates what theorists above believe should be addressed in parenting programs. He focuses on the ecological systems and parental competence approach. He defines competence as sensitivity to the child's developing abilities and communications. It is influenced by such factors as parental resources (previous experience, education, attitudes and expectations about child-rearing, etc.) the child's characteristics (e.g. temperament, health status, developmental level, size, gender, etc.) and the family context (e.g. quality of the marriage, social networks, support systems, culture, etc.) Individual characteristics of the parent and the child can mediate the impact of a process in each particular context. Luster and Okagaki (1993) explain : "individuals carry forward from their prior relationships experiences, attitudes, expectations, emotions, behavioural patterns that shape the way they

function as parents and spouses-in the families they establish. According to Belsky (1984) a parent needs a buffer if one of these areas is weak. For example, if a parent is living in poverty but is motivated to do well and has an easy child they might be more effective than if all systems were weak. An example here would be an uneducated, poor teen parent with a difficult infant and no societal support. Outcome is more negative here than with a teen with a supportive boyfriend, extended family, school and community and a temperamentally easy child.

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) findings suggest that child development occurs in a series of contextual levels beginning from family to other systems like school. A child's performance at school may, for instance, be influenced by domestic violence and parental resources.

2.4.3. Family Types and Theories

Children's growing competence and development is largely influenced by family life and family relationships. Children's well-being continues to depend on the quality of family interactions. Children of today are growing up in a variety of households and different family systems. A number of these different families will be examined: Family type plays an integral role in children's development. Family theories outline the interactions which occur between family members.

2.4.3.1 Single-parent Families

The number of one-parent families has become more common in recent years(mid term Review of National Development Plan, 1994). There are a number of varieties of one-parent families; those resulting from divorce, parents who never-married, as well as a widowed parent. In single parent families the other parent not living with the family may have little or no involvement in the child's life or may be highly involved. The following is a discussion on single divorced parents and never-married single parents.

2.4.3.2 Single-divorced-parent Families

In Botswana, the largest percentage of single-parent families are headed by divorced female parents (mid-term Review of National Development Plan, 1994). "The assumption has been made that the trauma from divorce is likely to result in poorly socialised, cognitively deficient children who experience poor parent-child relationships" (Hammer & Turnover, 1990). In many situations this may be the case but no relationship can be generalised. Research on healthy single-parent families established in general that the physical and mental health of the children appeared to be good (Hammer & Turnover, 1990). It has been suggested that children living with their mothers are more healthy than those living with fathers (Hammer & Turnover, 1990). The majority of children show improved adjustments by 2 years after divorce. Yet for a few, persisting emotional distress and declines in school achievement still exist (Berk 2000, Hammer & Turnover 1990).

2.4.3.3 Never-married Single-parent Families

It is believed that a cultural shift towards later marriage has contributed to a rise in never-married motherhood. "It has been thought that children in these kinds of families are shielded from marital strife, children of never-married mothers show slightly better academic performance and emotional adjustments than do children of divorced or remarried mothers. But they do not do as well as children in first marriage families compared with children of two parent reared families" (Berk, 2000). Although compared with children of two parent families, these children may experience less attention, difficulties in interactions with other children, a lack in school performance and behaviours associated with the lack of a male parental influence (Berk 2000, Hammer & Turnover 1990).

The literature in the two sections above shows that adolescents from single parenthood feel traumatized from divorce and this results in poorly socialized and

cognitively deficient children. They also experience persisting emotional stress and declines in school achievement. Such children also feel less attended to, they meet difficulties when interacting with others and display behaviour associated with the lack of a male parental influence.

2.4.4. The Challenges of Single Parenting

As stated earlier, many single parents are forced to become single parents due to, for example, divorce, out-of-wedlock births, teenage pregnancy and death of the spouse.

The real problem of a single parent arises with a separation or divorce. The children in such cases have already suffered due to the disagreements, fights and ill will of parents towards each other. In many cases, children are too young to understand what is going on and become unstable for many years when they cannot see their parents working out a healthy relationship. Older children are often forced to take sides, around which battles for custody are fought in courts (Terry-Humen, Manlove & Moore, 2000).

Due to the animosity between the estranged parents, the children are very often cheated out of the love and care of the other parent. In extreme cases, a child does not even see the other parent for years and grows up with unnecessary prejudices and deep-rooted complexes. The parent who has the custody of the child is also dejected and cannot bring any joy to the child's life. In some cases, the mother and children lose valuable decades seeking justice and property rights. While the legal battle is on, the single mother faces severe problems if she has no support from her family, no income of her own, no home to stay and no one to take care of the children if she goes out to work (Terry-Humen, Manlove & Moore, 2000).

Many women are forced into single parenting due to husbands who are

alcoholics, gamblers or engage in other antisocial habits. A child naturally becomes dependent on the mother for succour when it is mortified of the father. In more positive cases, a mother acts as a single parent when the father of the child travels constantly for his job or profession or when he is away to another country or city due to transfers or a job abroad. Such children remain in communication with their father, but look to the mother for all their needs. Single parenthood thus falls, more often, into the hands of women, than into that of men (Terry-Humen, Manlove & Moore, 2000).

Realisation has dawned on more and more parents that their negative feelings should not be passed on to the children. Children also realise these days that parents are doing their best to make their lives successful. Hence a healthy relationship between a child and a single parent is soon turning into a reality. This research focused among other things, on the effect of single parenthood on adolescence.

2.4.4.1. Facts on fatherlessness

Fatherlessness is a growing problem all over the world. Whether caused by divorce and broken families, or by deliberate single parenting, more and more children grow up without fathers. Indeed, 85 per cent of single parent families are fatherless families (Nicholi, 1985). A father's absence has been shown to be a major disadvantage to the well being of children. The following is a summary of the evidence for the importance of fathers and the need for two-parent families.

a) Fatherlessness brings poverty

In America, among families with dependent children, only 8.3 per cent of married couples were living below the poverty line, compared to 47.1 percent of female-headed households (US Bureau of the Census, 1991).

In Australia, a recent study of 500 divorcees with children five to eight years after the separation found that four in five divorced mothers were dependent on social security after their marriages dissolved (Funder, 1993). Figures from Monash University's Centre for Population and Urban Research show that family break-up, rather than unemployment, is the main cause of the rise in poverty levels in Australia (Birrell & Rapson, 1997).

In Botswana, the Ministry of Finance Development and Planning acknowledges that " poverty in Botswana is characterised by gender disparities and has been found to be prevalent among female-headed households than among male-headed ones" (Botswana Daily News,2002).

b) Fatherlessness lowers educational performance

American children from intact families have a 21 per cent chance of dropping out of high school whereas children from broken families have a 46 per cent chance (McLanahan & Sandefur, 1994).

American school children who became father-absent early in life generally scored significantly lower on measures of IQ and achievement tests (Davidson, 1990).

A study of Australian primary school children from three family types (married heterosexual couples, cohabiting heterosexual couples and homosexual couples) found that in every area of educational endeavour (language; mathematics; social studies; sport; class work, sociability and popularity; and attitudes to

learning), children from married heterosexual couples performed better than the other two groups. The study concludes with these words: "Married couples seem to offer the best environment for a child's social and educational development" (Sotirios, 1996).

A Melbourne University study of 212 children found that fathers, even more than mothers, had a major beneficial influence on children in their first year of school. The study found that kids with regular father involvement were more cooperative and self-reliant in school than kids who did not have father involvement. The more regular involvement the father has with the child, the study's author said, the better the child does in his or her first year of school (Milburn, 2002).

According to a survey by Campbell and Ntsabane (1995) in Gaborone city in Botswana, children from lone-parent families are more likely to score poorly on tests of reading, mathematics, and thinking skills. After controlling for other demographic factors, children from lone-parent households were 3.3 times more likely to report problems with their academic work, and 50% more likely to report difficulties with teachers.

c) Fatherlessness increases crime

A British study found a direct statistical link between single parenthood and virtually every major type of crime, including mugging, violence against strangers, car theft and burglary (Sampson & Groves, 1989).

One American study even arrived at this startling conclusion: the proportion of single-parent households in a community predicts its rates of violent crime and burglary, but the community's poverty level does not. Neither poverty nor race seem to account very much for the crime rate, compared to the proportion of single parent families (Smith & Jarjoura, 1988).

In Australia, a recent book noted the connection between broken families and crime. In a discussion of rising crime rates in Western Australia, the book reported that "family breakdown in the form of divorce and separation is the main cause of the crime wave" (Tapper, 1993).

In Botswana, Campbell and Ntsabane (1995), in their survey, concluded that children in single parent families are more likely to be in trouble with the law than their peers who grow up with two parents. In a study using a national probability sample of 1,636 young men and women, it was found that older boys and girls from female headed households are more likely to commit criminal acts than their peers who lived with two parents.

d) Fatherlessness increases drug abuse

One American study pointed out that inadequate family structure makes children more susceptible to drug use "as a coping mechanism to relieve depression and anxiety" (Christensen, 1991).

Another US study found that among the homes with strict fathers, only 18 per cent had children used alcohol or drugs at all. In contrast, among mother-dominated homes, 35 per cent had children who used drugs frequently (Davidson, 1990).

A New Zealand study of nearly 1000 children observed over a period of 15 years found that children who have watched their parents separate are more likely to use illegal drugs than those whose parents stay together (Fergusson, 1944).

According to the Botswana Gazette (2003), "Fatherless children are at a dramatically greater risk of drug and alcohol abuse". Children growing up in single-parent households are at a significantly increased risk for drug abuse as

teenagers. Children who live apart from their fathers are more likely to smoke cigarettes as teenagers than children growing up with their fathers in the home.

e) Fatherlessness increases teen pregnancy

Studies from many different cultures have found that girls raised without fathers are more like to be sexually active, and to start early sexual activity. Father-deprived girls "show precocious sexual interest, derogation of masculinity and males, and poor ability to maintain sexual and emotional adjustment with one male" (Draper & Harpending, 1982).

An American study found that girls who grow up without fathers were "53 percent more likely to marry as teenagers, 111 percent more likely to have children as teenagers, 164 percent more likely to have a premarital birth, and 92 percent more likely to dissolve their own marriages" (Garfinkel, 1986).

New Zealand research has found that the absence of a father is a major factor in the early onset of puberty and teenage pregnancy (Early Menarche magazine, 2003).

A British study found that girls brought up by lone parents were twice as likely to leave home by the age of 18 as the daughters of intact homes; were three times as likely to be cohabiting by the age of 20; and almost three times as likely to have a birth out of wedlock (Kiernan, 1993).

The same article in the Botswana Gazette (2003) further states that "...adolescent females of school-going age reared in homes without fathers are significantly more likely to engage in premarital sex than adolescent females reared in homes with both a mother and a father. Children in single parent

families are more likely to get pregnant as teenagers than their peers who grow up with two parents. "

f) Fatherlessness increases mental health problems

From nations as diverse as Finland and South Africa, a number of studies have reported that anywhere from 50 to 80 per cent of psychiatric patients come from broken homes (Davidson, 1990). A Canadian study of teenagers discharged from psychiatric hospitals found that only 16 per cent were living with both parents when they were admitted (Davidson, 1990).

A study of nearly 14,000 Dutch adolescents between the ages of 12 to 19 found that, "In general, children from one parent and stepparent families reported lower self-esteem, more symptoms of anxiety and loneliness, more depressed mood and more suicidal thoughts than children from intact families" (Garnefski & Diekstra, 1997).

A massive longitudinal study undertaken in Sweden involving over one million children found out that children from single parents showed increased risks of psychiatric disease, suicide or suicide attempt, injury and addiction. The authors, writing in *The Lancet*, concluded that growing up in "a single-parent family has disadvantages to the health of the child". (Bear in mind that Sweden is one of the most highly advanced welfare states on earth). Thus even with a comprehensive welfare net, children still suffer when not in two-parent families (Gunilla et al, 2003).

According to the survey conducted in Gaborone city in Botswana by Campbell and Ntsabane (1995) school children from divorced families are absent more, and more anxious, hostile, and withdrawn, and are less popular with their peers than those from intact families.

g) Fatherlessness increases child abuse

A 1994 study of 52,000 children found that those who are most at risk of being abused are those who are not living with both parents (Malkin and Lamb, 1994).

A Finnish study of nearly 4,000 ninth-grade girls found that "stepfather-daughter incest was about 15 times as common as father-daughter incest" (Sariola and Uetela, 1996).

In Australia, a former Human Rights Commissioner reported a 500 to 600 percent increase in sexual abuse of girls in families where the adult male was not the natural father (Pirrie,1993).

In Botswana, child abuse is a problem which is well known and an organization dealing with issues of child abuse (Child-Line Botswana) has been operating in the country since 1990. The organisation also helps parents who have difficulties with their children, as well as parents who were victims of abuse during their childhood. Statistics from Child-Line Botswana show that both single fathers and single mothers physically abuse their children more that the children from intact families (Botswana Daily News, 2003).

h) Fatherlessness and family breakdown are the major problems of our society

Wade Horn, the head of the National Fatherhood Initiative in the USA summarises the evidence in this fashion: "The news is not good when large numbers of children are growing up disconnected from their fathers. It's not that every child who grows up in a fatherless household is going to have these kinds of difficulties. But it is true that there's an increased risk of these negative outcomes when kids grow up without fathers", (Horn, 2002).

In summary, children and adolescents from fatherless families come from poor families, have lower educational performance, have higher chances of engaging in criminal activities and drug abuse, engage in premature sex resulting in teen pregnancy, have mental health problems, and are sexually abuse. In this study, the data on types of single-parenthood was explored.

2.5 Parenting Styles

Parents play a large role in fostering their child's growth and development. Many writers have noted that the broad pattern of parenting is important in predicting child well-being. Parents may differ in how they try to control or socialise their children and the extent to which they do so. It's the overall pattern of interactions rather than one single act that shapes a child's behaviour. Parents develop various styles of interacting with their children. Research has identified a typology of four parenting styles; authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and uninvolved each of which influence how the child develops (Berk, 2000).

These varying parenting styles greatly influence not only how a child develops and socialises but also how they learn. The different styles dictate how children adapt to teaching approaches and methods in schools and how they interact in the classroom.

The type of parenthood is likely to influence the parenting style adopted by a parent or parents. Literature has shown that intact families are more likely to adopt firm but fair ways of instilling disciplining adolescents and adolescents from such families have both parents to guide them in making good decisions (Berk, 2000). Single parents are less likely to have time to monitor their children and hence are more likely to be uninvolved. Intact families are more likely to be authoritative(Berk, 2000). The literature review below outlines each of the four parenting types and the characteristics of children and adolescents from each type. These inferences can be made after a comparison of characteristics of

children from different parenthoods against those of children under different parenting styles.

2.5.1 Authoritarian

This approach is highly controlling in its use of authority and places a high value on conformity. "These parents provide well-ordered and structured environments with clearly stated rules" (Darling, 1999). The parent pours the 'right' information into the child who is considered an 'empty vessel'. As a result, they engage in very little give-and-take with children, who are unquestioning in manner.

"It was found that children and adolescents of authoritarian parents tend to lack social competence, have lower self-esteem, are anxious and rarely take initiative in activities" (Goodman & Gurian, 1999). Boys showed high rates of anger and defiance while girls were dependent and lacking exploration.

This style is inconsistent in a rapidly changing society which values choice and innovation. Most children and adolescents of authoritarian parents do not feel as if they have a close relationship with their parents (Berk 2000, Darling 1999, Dinwiddie 1995, Goodman & Gurian 1999, Huxley 2001).

2.5.2 Authoritative

This style is both demanding and responsive. "Parents retain their authority, stay in control and expect mature behaviour from their children" (Goodman & Gurian, 1999). They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitive.

Authoritative parents permit the child enough freedom of expression so that he or she can develop a sense of independence. Researchers have found that the best adjusted children, particularly in terms of social competence, had parents with an authoritative parenting style. "Children were seen to have higher self-esteem, social and moral maturity, involvement in school learning, self control and be less

gender typed" (Berk, 2000, Pg 563).(Berk 2000, Darling 1999, Dinwiddie 1995, Goodman & Gurian 1999, Huxley 2001).

2.5.3 Permissive

Children and adolescents involved in this style are encouraged to think for themselves, avoid inhibitions, and not value conformity. These parents are warm and accepting, but mainly concerned about not stifling their child's creativity. The parents are highly attuned to their child's developmental and emotional needs but have difficulty setting firm limits. "Permissive parents allow children to make many of their own decisions at an age when they are not yet capable of doing so" (Berk, 2000).

Different literature has found that children and adolescents of permissive parents are very immature, have difficulty controlling their impulses, and are reluctant to accept responsibility. They are found to be disobedient, rebellious and show less persistence at tasks in preschool than children of parents who exert more control (Berk 2000, Darling 1999, Dinwiddie 1995, Goodman & Gurian 1999, Huxley 2001). "The link between permissive parenting and dependent, non-achieving behaviour was especially strong for boys" (Berk, 2000).

2.5.4 Uninvolved

Uninvolved parents are low in both responsiveness and demandingness. They show little commitment to providing care for their child. They provide only the bare essentials (Berk, 2000). "In extreme cases, this parenting style might entail neglect and rejection" (Goodman & Gurian, 1999). Often these parents are emotionally detached and depressed having little time and energy to spare for children. They may respond to the child's demands for easily accessible objects, but any efforts that involve long term goals, such as establishing and enforcing rules about homework and acceptable social behaviour, are weak and fleeting.

Different literature suggest the following as signs of uninvolved parenting: deficits in attachment, cognition, play, emotional and social skills and may display aggressive and acting-out behaviour (Berk 2000, Darling 1999, Goodman & Gurian 1999).

In response to these different parenting styles, one should be aware that parenting is not a one-sided activity. It's a dynamic, interactive situation, and children have their own styles or temperaments that in turn affect their parents' styles and elicit different responses. "Obviously, parents don't fit neatly into the parent style categories. Most parents use a combination of styles, however, one style usually predominates" (Goodman & Gurian, 1999).

2.5.5 Application in the Classroom

The way a child has been raised and reared has a big consequence on their behaviour in later years and particularly in their behaviour and interactions at school. Parenting style has been found to predict child well-being in the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development, and problem behaviour.

Consequences for the classroom inflicted by the variety of parenting styles will be in the form of interactions between children, responses to authority (the teacher), behaviour and learning (Berk, 2000).

Classrooms are a dynamic environment made up of children from a variety of backgrounds. All of the above factors need to be taken into consideration when dealing with different children. Teaching styles often have to be varied to accommodate different children. One method of behaviour management may be suitable to discipline a number of children but may be inappropriate when dealing with other children. Behaviour that their parents have instilled in them as being appropriate may not be accepted as appropriate in the classroom environment.

Children's behaviour towards adults varies according to the different parenting styles and this behaviour is continued in the classroom in interactions with the teacher. The behaviours displayed will not always be acceptable. Teachers need to develop ways of dealing with children by setting guidelines, indicating that behaviour in the home environment is different from the way they behave at school.

2.6 The Role of Parents in Children's Moral Development

Although socialization theorists have viewed moral internalization as stemming primarily from parents' influence on children through their parenting practices, structural-developmental theorists (Colby & Kohlberg, 1987; Damon, 1977; Kohlberg, 1969; Piaget, 1932/1965) generally have proposed that the hierarchical nature of parent-child relationships constrains children's moral development. This has led to a predominant focus on the formative role of peers and social institutions such as schools in moral reasoning development and a relative neglect of the role of the family. In this article, parents' role in moral and social development is discussed from the perspective of social domain theory, an approach that is structural-developmental in origin but that departs in significant ways from previous theorizing (for other reviews of this approach, see Nucci, 1996; Smetana, 1995a, 1997; Tisak, 1995; Turiel, 1983, 1998).

According to social domain theory, children construct different forms of social knowledge, including morality as well as other types of social knowledge, through their social experiences with adults (parents, teachers, and other adults), peers, and siblings (Colby & Kohlberg, 1987; Damon, 1977; Kohlberg, 1969; Piaget, 1932/1965). In keeping with the focus of this special issue, Colby et al (ibid) focused primarily on moral development. But to understand social domain theory, morality must be described in the context of, and as distinct from, other social-cognitive domains. Therefore, in the following sections, the broader framework of social knowledge domains is described briefly. Then, two propositions about the role of parents are elaborated in subsequent sections. First, it is proposed that

the affective nature of parents' interactions may facilitate children's moral development, and specific affective mechanisms are described. Second, it is proposed that cognitive aspects of parents' interactions also facilitate children's moral development; the importance of providing domain-specific feedback regarding the nature of children's social interactions is discussed.

2.6.1 Domains of Social Knowledge

According to social domain theory, the social world is not unitary (Grusec and Goodnow, 1994). Children have qualitatively different social interactions that lead to the construction of different types of social knowledge systems, or domains of social knowledge. Thus, children's thinking about and actions in the social world are characterized by heterogeneity and the coexistence of different social orientations, motivations, and goals.

Parents are concerned with ensuring children's welfare, protecting their rights, and helping children learn how they ought to relate to others. According to social domain theory, these concerns are all aspects of the moral domain. Morality pertains to the system of rules that regulates the social interactions and social relationships of individuals within societies and is based on concepts of welfare (harm), trust, justice (comparative treatment and distribution), and rights. Morality is defined here as individuals' prescriptive understanding of how individuals ought to behave towards each other. Moral judgements are proposed to be obligatory, universalizable, unalterable, impersonal, and determined by criteria other than agreement, consensus, or institutional convention. (For greater elaboration of the criteria defining the domains and related empirical research, see Nucci, 1996; Smetana, 1995a, 1997; Tisak, 1995; Turiel, 1983, 1998.)

Although morality is constructed from children's reciprocal social interactions, not all social concepts are moral. Parents are also concerned with maintaining appropriate social behaviour and facilitating the smooth and efficient functioning of social interactions. According to social domain theory, these concerns are

aspects of individuals' understanding of social systems, social organizations, and social conventions, which are viewed as conceptually and developmentally distinct from an understanding of morality. Social conventions have been defined as the arbitrary, consensually determined rules, uniformities, and behaviours that coordinate the interactions of individuals within social systems and a set of expectations regarding appropriate behaviour. Conventions are hypothesized to be alterable, contextually relative, and contingent on the rules and dictates of authority.

Social interactions also may require an understanding of self and others as psychological systems. The psychological domain pertains to an understanding of self, identity, personality, and attributions regarding the causes of one's own and others behaviour. Two aspects of the psychological domain have been distinguished. Prudential issues pertain to harm to the self, safety, comfort, and health. Like moral rules, prudential rules regulate acts that have physical consequences to persons. Whereas morality pertains to interactions among people, prudence pertains to acts that have immediate and negative consequences to the self. Personal issues pertain only to the actor and fall beyond the realm of conventional regulation and moral concern. Personal issues entail preference and choice pertaining to such issues as friends or activities, the state of one's body, and privacy. Personal issues are an aspect of the self that forms the boundary between the self and the social world, and these boundaries may be actively negotiated within families. Maintaining an arena of personal discretion is seen as representing an important aspect of the individual's autonomy or distinctiveness from others.

Traditional structural-developmental theories (Colby & Kohlberg, 1987; Kohlberg, 1969; Piaget, 1932/1965) have described moral development as a process of increasing differentiation between moral and non-moral concepts, such as convention, prudence, and pragmatics. Social domain theory departs from this view by proposing that the moral, conventional, and psychological domains are separate, self-regulating developmental systems that are not developmentally

ordered. Rather, they are hypothesized to coexist from early ages on, although concepts in each domain are seen to change qualitatively with age. A great deal of research (reviewed extensively in Nucci, 1996; Smetana, 1995a, 1997; Tisak, 1995; Turiel, 1983, 1998) has indicated that from early childhood through late adolescence, children distinguish the domains using the theoretical criteria outlined above. Although most of the available research has focused on white, middle-class children, there is a growing body of research in a range of cultures (including Brazil, Columbia, Israel, Hong Kong, China, Japan, Korea, India, Indonesia, Nigeria, and Zambia), as well as research on children from varying social classes, religions, and ethnicities within the United States (Smetana, 1995a; Turiel, 1998) that provides broad support for these theoretical distinctions (while still allowing for cultural variations in the boundaries and content of the domains; Nucci, 1996 and Turiel 1998 for discussions of cultural issues).

Most of the theorizing from the social domain perspective has focused on children's development. A corollary assumption, however, is that parents' understanding of social rules, their child-rearing goals, and their views of and responses to children's transgressions likewise are differentiated by conceptual domain. Evidence for this assertion comes from a number of studies of adult and child responses to transgressions (reviewed in Smetana, 1995a), which indicates that parents respond differentially to transgressions in different domains, as well as from research indicating that parents' choice of discipline strategy depends on the nature of the misdeed (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994).

Social domain theory reveals that parents are responsible for teaching adolescents issues relating to morality. Morality is defined as a prescriptive understanding of how individuals ought to behave towards each other. It is the duty of parents to teach adolescents what is socially acceptable and what is not. Such social teaching, just like guidance and counseling at home, requires two parents since each parent can play a different role in the process. Adolescents from single parenthood are more likely to receive less moral education that their

counterparts from intact families. The study attempted to investigate the impact of moral education on adolescents from single parenthood.

2.6.2 Experiential Origins of Morality

Social domain theory focuses on children's active construction of knowledge from varied social experiences and different interaction partners, including parents as well as peers. Numerous studies have documented that young children have ample social experiences with physical and psychological harm, fair distribution, and the violation of rights through their experiences of rules, rule violations, misdeeds, and peer conflicts. These types of experiences are hypothesized to lead to the construction of moral concepts.

More specifically, children's experiences as participants in moral conflicts and as victims of and observers to moral transgressions lead to the construction of abstract notions of fair and unfair, right and wrong. Children generate an understanding of the wrongness of moral conflicts and rule violations from their experiences of the intrinsic features of those acts, such as their harm or unfairness. The proposition that social interactions form the experiential basis for the development of social knowledge has been tested by examining responses to children's naturally occurring social interactions. Researchers have looked for systematic patterns of social interactions that parallel hypothesized distinctions in social concepts. Correspondences between social interactions and social judgements are seen as demonstrating that social interactions provide the experiential basis for the construction of social knowledge (Smetana, 1995a; Turiel, Smetana, & Killen, 1991).

The results of numerous observational studies (again, reviewed in Smetana, 1995a, 1997) are consistent with Piaget (1932/1965) in demonstrating that children's conflicts over moral issues such as object possession (taking a toy or not sharing), rights, turn-taking, hurting, aggression, psychological harm (such as teasing and name-calling), and unkindness --all moral issues -- do occur primarily

in interactions with peers (see Ross & Conant, 1992, for a review), often in free-play settings (Nucci & Nucci, 1982; Smetana, 1989). Furthermore, as Dunn and her colleagues have high-lighted, moral conflicts and interactions frequently arise between siblings (see Dunn & Slomkowski, 1992 for a review), whereas the available research has demonstrated that moral conflicts are relatively infrequent between parents and children (Ross & Conant, 1992; Smetana, 1989).

Moral conflicts are often resolved without adult intervention, leading some researchers to propose that peer conflicts play a positive role in children's moral development (Killen & Nucci, 1995). Research on naturally occurring social interactions among toddlers and school-age children (reviewed in Smetana, 1997) demonstrates that children (primarily the victims) respond to moral transgressions with statements of injury or loss, emotional reactions, and evaluations of rights, as well as with physical retaliation and commands to cease the offending behaviour. When adults do respond to moral breaches and conflicts, however, the research indicates that mothers (as well as teachers) typically focus on requests to take the victim's perspective and evaluations of rights. As elaborated in the following sections, both the affective context of these interactions and the cognitive features of parents' responses are important in the construction of more mature moral concepts.

The discussion above pointed out that children draw knowledge from their environment, parents and peers. All these factors can affect the way adolescents construct knowledge. Social interactions result in adolescents' conflicts over moral issues. It can be thus be inferred that the type of environment, parenthood and peer influence all have an impact on the way children gather knowledge. The study explored the effect of single-parenthood on adolescence.

2.6.3 The Role of Affect

Affect may inform moral development in two ways. First, moral conflicts and misdeeds occur in the context of the broader affective climate of parent-child

relations. A great deal of research suggests that the quality of the parent-child bond and the degree of warmth in the parent-child relationship (Bretherton & Waters, 1985) affect many different facets of children's development. Indeed, one of the most consistent (and least anticipated) findings from research examining the family interactions that facilitate Kohlbergian moral reasoning stages is that the affective components of those interactions, such as parental warmth, involvement, and support, are related to moral reasoning development (Hart, 1988; Powers, 1988; Walker & Taylor, 1991). Therefore, a warm, supportive bond between parents and children may enhance the likelihood that children are motivated to listen to and respond to parental messages.

Second, affective reactions are an inseparable aspect of children's experiences of transgressions, and social interactions regarding moral rules, rule violations, and conflicts may be highly affectively charged. Parental affective reactions, in conjunction with reasoning, may facilitate children's understanding and encoding of moral and social rules. Research by Arsenio (reviewed by Arsenio & Lover, 1995) has shown that children may employ affective responses to transgressions to understand, differentiate, and remember moral and social events. Indeed, previous research indicates that maternal responses to moral transgressions accompanied by intense feelings leads to greater reparation among children than when cognitive messages are not so embellished (Grusec, Dix, & Mills, 1982; Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarrow, & King, 1979). Parents are more likely to employ negative affect, including dramatizations of distress (Zahn-Waxler & Chapman, 1982) and greater anger (Grusec et al., 1982) in response to moral than other transgressions. Such affective responses, used in conjunction with explanations that focus on others' welfare and rights, may increase the effectiveness of reasoning because it helps focus children on the harm or injustice they caused.

However, research also indicates that there are optimal levels of affective arousal. Too much anger may be too negatively arousing and therefore may inhibit children's focus on others' feelings. For instance, a great deal of recent work on vicarious emotional arousal has indicated that too much emotional

arousal leads to self-oriented, aversive emotional reactions rather than other-oriented reactions such as sympathy (Eisenberg, Fabes, Bustamante, Mathy, Miller, & Lindholm, 1988).

The assertion that affect may be an important component of moral development is consistent with Hoffman's (1991) proposal that witnessing another individual in distress leads to empathic arousal. However, Hoffman has proposed a developmental sequence wherein empathy is transformed with age. In contrast, the view articulated here is that children's affective experiences are part of and influence children's understanding and encoding of moral transgressions, but that conceptual knowledge, not emotional responses, is transformed with age.

The research focuses on the effect of single parenthood on school going adolescents. The absence of sexual complementarity creates obstacles in the normal development of such adolescents since they would be lacking the support and warmth found in child-parent relationships in intact families and such circumstances would place them in an environment that is not conducive to their full human development (Grusec et al., 1982).

2.6.4 Cognitive Aspects Of Parents' Interactions

There is also an important cognitive component to parents' interactions with their children that may facilitate children's moral development. Research indicates that children may obtain information about transgressions from varied sources, including observations and direct experiences with moral transgressions. However, direct experiences are not the only sources of moral and social development, nor are they always the most desirable or effective source. In the social domain view, parents' communications with their children are one aspect of children's social experiences that may be used in the construction of moral knowledge. By explaining the reasons for rules and responding appropriately to moral violations, parents can facilitate moral development by stimulating children to think reflectively about their actions.

This assertion implies that the more explicit parents are about the nature of the event and why a behaviour is expected or a misdeed is wrong, the more effective such messages might be, particularly for young children (but see Grusec & Goodnow, 1994, for an analysis of situations when more indirect approaches may be more effective). This suggests, in turn, that reasoning, explanations, and rationales will be more effective than other types of disciplinary strategies in facilitating children's moral development, as well as development in other domains.

Although a great deal of developmental research has advocated the use of reasoning as a disciplinary strategy, others have asserted that reasoning is a broad and poorly defined category (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994). The social domain view adds specificity to our understanding of reasoning as an effective parenting practice by suggesting that reasoning will be effective only if it is coordinated with the domain of the act under consideration, because only such explanations would provide the child with domain-relevant information.

More specifically, to effectively facilitate moral development, explanations of moral rules and responses to moral violations need to highlight the consequences of the acts for others' rights and welfare. Support for this assertion has been found in previous research, which indicates that parental reasoning, and in particular, other-oriented reasoning (Hoffman, 1970), is associated with greater moral internalization and the development of concern for others (Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967; Zahn-Waxler & Chapman, 1982; Zahn-Waxler et al., 1979), as well as greater resistance to temptation (Kuczynski, 1982).

Observational studies of responses to transgressions (reviewed in Smetana, 1995a, 1997) indicate that mothers (and other adults) naturally coordinate their explanations with the nature of the misdeed. They rarely focus on the intrinsic consequences of acts for others (a moral concern) in response to conventional events, nor do they reason about social order (a conventional concern) in response to moral transgressions. Considered alone, these findings do not

definitively support the assertion that responses that are coordinated with the domain of the transgression are perceived as more appropriate by children. However, several experimental studies have tested this proposition more explicitly.

The results of several studies suggest that children actively evaluate social messages in terms of their domain appropriateness and reject messages that are domain inappropriate and inconsistent with the nature of the event (Killen, Breton, Ferguson, & Handler, 1994; Nucci, 1984). In one study, children evaluated teacher responses to moral and conventional transgressions that were concordant, discordant, or undifferentiated with respect to the domain of the transgression (Nucci, 1984). For instance, children evaluated statements focusing on the intrinsic features of acts (for example, the harm or injury they caused) in response to moral or conventional transgressions (considered a domain-appropriate or domain-inappropriate response, respectively). Conversely, they evaluated statements indicating that the act was creating disorder in response to moral transgressions (domain-inappropriate) or conventional transgressions (domain-appropriate). Children rated domain-appropriate teacher responses (and the teachers themselves) more favorably than domain inappropriate or domain-undifferentiated teacher responses (and teachers). Similar findings were obtained in a more recent study of preschool children's evaluations of teacher responses to peer conflicts (Killen et al., 1994) and replicated in a study of Japanese preschoolers in Tokyo (Killen & Sueyoshi, 1995). Therefore, these studies indicate that across ages, children make prescriptive judgements about adults as social agents and evaluate adult messages in terms of their domain appropriateness.

According to Dunn and Munn (1987), social domain theory also suggests that effective parental reasoning needs to consider the child's developmental status. At the most basic level, parental reasoning may not be effective until young children develop the verbal capacities to comprehend such messages. Studies suggest that during the second year of life, parents shift from employing physical

strategies for intervening in children's transgressions to employing verbal strategies (Dunn & Munn, 1987). These findings suggest that parents naturally respond to developmental changes in children's comprehension, but they also may reflect parents' increasing expectations for morally and conventionally appropriate behaviour (Kuczynski, 1984; Smetana, 1989).

Structural-developmentalists have provided evidence that reasoning slightly above the child's own level stimulates development, although research has varied as to the degree of discrepancy that is optimal. The findings suggest that parents' messages need to be somewhat more sophisticated than children's level of understanding, but not so much above that children will assimilate parental messages to their own level. Research also indicates that parents typically do accommodate their level of reasoning to their child's level when reasoning about actual moral dilemmas in their children's lives (Walker & Taylor, 1991).

These findings and the research reviewed previously on reasoning provide an additional explanation for the consistent associations found between authoritative parenting and moral internalization (Baumrind, 1989; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1991). Recent research indicates that authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parents differ in the domain appropriateness of their social judgments (Smetana, 1995b). In contrast to other parents, authoritarian parents of adolescents (as assessed by a global parenting inventory) were found to moralize social-conventional acts in their judgments and justifications; for instance, they treated conventional transgressions such as cursing and putting elbows on the table as prescriptive acts that were obligatory and universally wrong. Authoritarian parents also were more likely than other parents to treat personal issues (such as choice of clothes and hairstyle and how to spend allowance money) and friendship issues (such as choice of friends) as conventional and legitimately subject to their authority (rather than as personal and up to the child). Taken together findings are consistent with Baumrindís description of authoritarian parents as moralizing, overintrusive (especially in terms of the child's personal domain), and valuing obedience as a virtue

(Baumrind, 1989). Permissive parents, in contrast, were more likely than other parents to construct broad boundaries of personal discretion for their children and treat a range of issues, including personal, prudential, and friendship issues as personal for the child.

Only authoritative parents drew clear boundaries between moral, conventional, and personal issues in ways that were consistent with domain-theoretical expectations. These parents clearly distinguished moral and conventional regulations, but they also were responsive to the child's need for an arena of personal control and choice, treating personal issues as adolescents' personal prerogatives. At the same time, they treated friendship and multifaceted issues, defined as issues containing both conventional and personal components (such as the child's room, which can be seen as either the child's personal territory or part of the household) as conventionally regulated. These findings are consistent with Baumrind's (1989) assertion that authoritative parents negotiate more with their children, but they also suggest that parents negotiate primarily over personal issues.

Social domain theory also accounts for the consistent finding (Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967; Zahn-Waxler et al., 1979) that power assertion is associated with poorer moral internalization. Some forms of power assertion, such as commands, statements of rules, references to parental authority, and some types of sanctions may be ineffective in inhibiting antisocial behaviour or facilitating moral development simply because they fail to communicate the reasons for the rule or prohibition. This may explain why power assertion successfully terminates unwanted behaviour and induces short-term compliance but does not facilitate moral maturity (Kuczynski, 1984). More extreme forms of power assertion, for instance, responses that are extremely negative, angry, or coercive, may scare the child and threaten the child's sense of security (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994), thereby hindering the child's moral development.

Parent-child relations also may influence children's social understanding in more subtle ways. As others have noted (Okin, 1989; Turiel, 1998), families consist of complex social arrangements that entail hierarchical social roles and power relationships. In most families, there are gender (as well as parent-child) inequalities in the distribution of power, the way resources are allocated, and how opportunities (for instance, for work or recreation) are encouraged or discouraged (Okin, 1989; Turiel, 1998). Children (and adults) do not necessarily accept these structural arrangements as given. An emerging body of research (reviewed in Turiel, 1998) suggests that children and adults also construct notions of the fairness of different social arrangements and that these evaluations depend on one's position in the social hierarchy. Those in more subordinate roles (for example, females), who may experience greater restrictions in their choices and freedoms as a function of their social position, tend to evaluate social practices as more unfair than do those in more dominant positions, who may be accorded greater entitlements and choices (Wainryb & Turiel, 1994). Thus, children receive many tacit social messages that may be used to construct moral knowledge. Furthermore, the results indicate that individuals do not unquestioningly accept the social messages they receive.

In summary, exposure to both sexes is vitally important to the developmental needs of children because it helps them to form their sexual identity, but there are many more areas where children are affected by the parenting of a mother and father. Even if the father and mother behave in generally similar ways, they provide contrasting images for the infant. Mothers and fathers have different verbal styles when communicating. The father and mother offer the child two different kinds of persons to learn about as well as providing separate sources of love and support. (Wainryb & Turiel, 1994). This means that in single parent families, children lack something that they could have obtained from the missing parent. The study therefore explored the effect of single-parenthood on school-going adolescence.

2. 7 Summary

The literature review focused on issues ranging from theories of adolescence to the effects of single parenthood on adolescents. The literature review observed that it is mainly adolescents from single parents who are negatively affected academically, socially and psychologically. Their situation is made worse by the fact that the majority of single parents (85% in some cited cases) are women who have to bear the brunt of child rearing despite their lower economic status. Typical problems encountered by adolescents from single parents include low academic performance, poor socio-economic background, abuse from the single parent, drug and alcohol abuse, crime, teenage pregnancy and low self-esteem.

Chapter 3 focused on the design and methodology for this research study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The focus of this study is on research design and methodology. This chapter outlined among other things the population and data collection procedure.

3.2 Research Design

A combination of descriptive and survey research designs were used. Descriptive research involves either identifying the characteristics of an observed phenomenon or exploring possible correlation among two or more phenomena. In this case, descriptive research examines the researcher's study as it is. It does not involve changing or modifying the situation under investigation, nor is it intended to detect cause – and – effect relationships (Leedy and Ormrod, 1985). This is because descriptive statistics involve the collection of data without focusing on how the data evolved.

According to Pedazhur and Schmelkin (1991), descriptive statistics are usually the first step in the analysis of the data gathered in research, particularly when data are quantitative (numbers). They are very straightforward to calculate and provide an easy-to-manage summary of data. They will often form the basis for the calculations that may be performed later on, when inferential statistics is used. Despite their simplicity, descriptive statistics are very useful because they can extend an understanding of the data gathered in a number of ways (e.g. they can be used to determine the variance of responses on a particular question like ages of adolescents in this research survey). In this study, descriptive statistics were also used as a starting point in investigating the effects of single

parenthood on school-going adolescents. Later in the study, other methods like t-tests were used to make some in-depth analysis of the gathered data.

The research design chosen involved the measurement of all variable(s) for all cases within a narrow time span so that the measurements could be viewed as contemporaneous. Essentially, data was collected at only one point in time, comparing different participants using various parameters. (Baltes, Reese, Nesslroade, 1988; Creswell, 1994). One advantage of this method is that it is more economical in time and cost than other designs. For the participants, there is only one period for data collection, and the researcher is not faced with the difficulty and cost of maintaining contact with subjects over a long period of time. (Baltes, Reese, Nesslroade, 1988; Creswell, 1994). This method saved the researcher time since data was collected within the same time period and no further contacts were made with respondents after the data collection. The system also allowed minimum disruption to the activities of the respondents.

3.3 Population

There are twenty-seven government senior secondary schools in Botswana. Gaborone area has four senior secondary schools and all four were selected for the purpose of this research. From these schools, only adolescents between 15 and 19 years of age. This was the school-going age in senior secondary schools. This was also the group that was likely to have a clear understanding on what single parenthood was and had an understanding of its possible effects on the life of a school-going adolescent. Students found in forms four and five are between 15 and 19 years of age, and are adolescents.

3.4 Sampling and sampling Techniques

The sampling technique used in the survey was simple random sampling. In simple random sampling, each member of a population has an equal chance of

being included in the sample (Gay & Airasian, 1999). Also, each combination of members of the population has an equal chance of composing the sample. Those two properties are what define simple random sampling. To select a simple random sample, all units in the survey population must be listed.

Using simple random sampling often results in samples that are widely dispersed, causing considerable travel expense, and leave some areas totally unsampled. Therefore, the most successful use of simple random sampling is in relatively small geographical areas where a degree of homogeneity is known to exist. In this survey, the population comes from Gaborone city with all the four schools within the same vicinity.

Simple random sampling is mainly suitable for respondents within the same ecological area instead of across multiple ecological areas. This precaution will tend to reduce the variability and increase the precision of parameter estimates (Gay & Airasian, 1999). In this regard, the researcher opted for this sampling method.

In the survey, a random sample of 80 participants was selected from a total population of 2000 form 4 and form 5 students. Students found in form 4 and form five are adolescents whose ages range from 15 and 19. The purpose of choosing this method was to ensure that all variables were evenly spread throughout the entire sample and that the sample represented the entire population. This was also done to eliminate an element of biasness. The sample consisted of participants ranging between 15 and 19 years.

There are four Senior Secondary Schools in Gaborone and the researcher used the four of them because they were accessible to the researcher. Twenty students were chosen from each school. The researcher arrived at the figure of twenty students per school after using the 'Square root of (n + 1) sampling rule', where n is the sample size, (Taylor Enterprises Inc, 2003). Each school had, on average two thousand students. The square root of two thousand is

approximately 44.7. From previous figures on single parenthood households about half of them are headed by single parents (Mid-term Review of National Development Plan, 1994), which gives a figure of roughly 20 if 44.7 is divided by 2.

3.5 Instruments

A self-devised questionnaire (see Appendix C) with closed and open-ended questions was designed and written in English, eliciting the following information: biographical and demographic data, home background, feedback on schoolwork, and feedback on social life.

Self-administered questionnaires were used in this survey for the following reasons:

a) Questionnaires are very cost effective when compared to face-to-face interviews. This is especially true for studies involving large sample sizes and large geographic areas. Written questionnaires become even more cost effective as the number of research questions increases. In this research, the sample size was large enough (80) to warrant the use of a questionnaire.
b) Questionnaires are easy to analyze. Data entry and tabulation for nearly all surveys can be easily done with many computer software packages. In this research, data from the questionnaire was captured using a spreadsheet and analysis done using the same spreadsheet and a statistical analysis program.
c) Questionnaires are familiar to most people. Nearly everyone has had some experience completing questionnaires and they generally do not make people apprehensive. The respondents in this survey meet questions in their day-to-day classroom activities.
d) Questionnaires reduce bias. There is uniform question presentation and no middleman bias. The researcher's own opinions will not influence the

respondent to answer questions in a certain manner. There are no verbal or visual clues to influence the respondent. In this survey, the researcher was not present to influence the responses from the selected students.

e) Questionnaires are less intrusive than telephone or face-to-face surveys. When a respondent receives a questionnaire, he/she is free to complete the questionnaire on his/her own timetable. Unlike other research methods, this research instrument did not interrupt the respondent because the respondent can complete the questionnaire at his/her own time.

3.6 Data Analysis

(a) A spreadsheet coupled with both descriptive and inferential statistics was used to analyse and interpret the data. A statistical analysis package was used to compute an independent T-test to determine whether there was a significant difference on the effects of single parenthood between males and females among the different age categories in different forms. Other areas of investigation using these T-tests were whether or not single parenthood had any negative effects on social interaction on school-going adolescents; whether or not school-going adolescents who come from single parenthood households perform poorly in class and face any discrimination from society, and whether or not there is significant difference in attitude towards social behaviour between an adolescent whose parent or guardian are educated and those who are not educated. These areas of analysis form the basis of the hypotheses mentioned in chapter 1.

Chapter 4 discusses the detailed data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Introduction

This chapter focused on data analysis and interpretation. The main focus is to examine the data in relation to the purpose of the study, the hypothesis and the specific questions.

4.1 Demographic Data

Item			Frequency	% Frequency
der	Male		40	50.0
	Female		40	50.0
Category	Below 16	Boys	19	23.8
		Girls	24	30.0
		Total	**43**	**53.8**
	Between 16 and 18	Boys	18	22.5
		Girls	16	20.0
		Total	**34**	**42.5**
	Above 18	Boys	3	3.8
		Girls	0	0.0
		Total	**3**	**3.8**
m	Form 4	Boys	22	27.5
		Girls	26	32.5
		Total	**48**	**60.0**
	Form 5	Boys	18	22.5
		Girls	14	17.5
		Total	**32**	**40.0**
ool Location	Town	Boys	40	50.0
		Girls	40	50.0
		Total	**80**	**100.0**
	Village	Boys	0	0.0
		Girls	0	0.0
		Total	**0**	**0.0**
rson Staying With	Mother Only	Boys	36	45.0
		Girls	37	46.3
		Total	**73**	**91.2**
	Father Only	Boys	4	5.0
		Girls	3	3.8

		Total	**7**	**8.8**
mic Qualification of Guardian	Primary School Certificate	Boys	1	1.3
		Girls	6	7.5
		Total	**7**	**8.8**
	Junior Certificate	Boys	10	12.5
		Girls	11	13.8
		Total	**21**	**26.3**
	'O' Level Certificate	Boys	6	7.5
		Girls	6	7.5
		Total	**12**	**15.0**
	Tertiary Qualification	Boys	22	27.5
		Girls	14	17.5
		Total	**36**	**45.0**
	No Qualification	Boys	1	1.3
		Girls	3	3.8
		Total	**4**	**5.0**

Approximately 91.2% of school-going adolescents stayed with their mothers only. This is in agreement with the literature review, which states that the majority of school-going adolescents stay with only their mothers (Mid-term Review of National Development Plan, 1994). Hammer and Turnover (1990) state that the trauma from divorce is likely to result in poorly socialized, cognitively deficient children who experience poor parent-child relationships, with one parent, usually the mother.

4.2. Description of Home Background

The following key was used to interpret the responses:

F – Total number of students (row total = 80)

%F – Percentage number of students (row total = 100%)

1 – Strongly Agree

2 – Agree

3- Undecided

4- Disagree

5- Strongly Disagree

Table 4.2

Item		1		2		3		4		5	
		F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F
get along with my ent/guardian very well	Boys	28	35.0	10	12.5	0	0.0	1	1.3	1	1.3
	Girls	16	20.0	15	18.8	6	7.5	1	1.3	2	2.5
	Total	**44**	**55.0**	**25**	**31.3**	**6**	**7.5**	**2**	**2.5**	**3**	**3.8**
t enough attention from parent/guardian	Boys	21	26.3	15	18.8	4	5.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Girls	19	23.8	14	17.5	4	5.0	1	1.3	2	2.5
	Total	**40**	**50.0**	**29**	**36.3**	**8**	**10.0**	**1**	**1.3**	**2**	**2.5**
parent/guardian is ways around to help me	Boys	18	22.5	15	18.8	2	2.5	5	6.3	0	0.0
	Girls	13	16.3	14	17.5	9	11.3	3	3.8	1	1.3
	Total	**31**	**38.8**	**29**	**36.3**	**11**	**13.8**	**8**	**10.0**	**1**	**1.3**
y parent/guardian does ot abuse drugs/alcohol	Boys	25	31.3	10	12.5	1	1.3	2	2.5	2	2.5
	Girls	30	37.5	4	5.0	1	1.3	1	1.3	4	5.0
	Total	**55**	**68.8**	**14**	**17.5**	**2**	**2.5**	**3**	**3.8**	**6**	**7.8**
ly parent/guardian does ot fight/quarrel	Boys	22	27.5	8	10.0	4	5.0	4	5.0	2	2.5
	Girls	18	22.5	13	16.3	3	3.8	2	2.5	4	5.0
	Total	**40**	**50.0**	**21**	**26.3**	**7**	**8.8**	**6**	**7.8**	**6**	**7.8**
am comfortable to invite ny friends at home	Boys	15	18.8	14	17.5	5	6.3	3	3.8	3	3.8
	Girls	12	15.0	11	13.8	6	7.5	9	11.3	2	2.5
	Total	**27**	**33.8**	**25**	**31.3**	**11**	**13.8**	**12**	**15.0**	**5**	**6.3**
am always happy when I am at home	Boys	22	27.5	12	15.0	2	2.5	3	3.8	1	1.3
	Girls	10	12.5	12	15.0	10	12.5	7	8.8	1	1.3
	Total	**32**	**40.0**	**24**	**30.0**	**12**	**15.0**	**10**	**12.5**	**2**	**2.5**
My parent/guardian does not abuse me physically.	Boys	29	36.3	9	11.3	0	0.0	1	1.3	1	1.3
	Girls	25	31.3	9	11.3	2	2.5	1	1.3	3	3.8
	Total	**54**	**67.5**	**18**	**22.5**	**2**	**2.5**	**2**	**2.5**	**4**	**5.0**
Home is quiet and conducive to study	Boys	15	18.8	14	17.5	2	2.5	6	7.5	3	3.8
	Girls	12	15.0	11	13.8	6	7.5	8	10.0	3	3.8
	Total	**27**	**33.8**	**25**	**31.3**	**8**	**10.0**	**14**	**17.5**	**6**	**7.5**
I have support from my parent/guardian with schoolwork	Boys	24	30.0	13	16.3	0	0.0	2	2.5	1	1.3
	Girls	15	18.8	12	15.0	5	6.3	5	6.3	3	3.8
	Total	**39**	**48.8**	**25**	**31.3**	**5**	**6.3**	**7**	**8.8**	**4**	**5.0**

The following analysis relates to table 4.2:

a. 55.0% of adolescents from single parenthood strongly agreed that they get along with their parent/guardian, 31.3% agreed, 7.5% were undecided, 2.5% disagreed and 3.8% strongly disagreed.

b. 50.0% of adolescents strongly agreed that they get enough attention from their parent/guardian, 36.3% agreed, 10.0% were undecided, 1.3% disagreed and 2.5% strongly disagreed.

c. 38.8% of adolescents strongly agreed that their parent/guardian is always around to help them 36.3% agreed, 13.8% were undecided, 10.0% disagreed and 1.3% strongly disagreed.

d. 68.8% of adolescents strongly agreed that their parent/guardian did not abuse them, 17.5% agreed, 2.5% were undecided, 3.8% disagreed and 7.8% strongly disagreed.

e. 50.0% of adolescents strongly agreed that their parent/guardian did not fight/quarrel, 26.3% agreed, 8.8% were undecided, 7.8% disagreed and 7.8% strongly disagreed.

f. 33.8% of adolescents strongly agreed that they are comfortable to invite their friends at home, 31.3% agreed, 13.8% were undecided, 15.0% disagreed and 6.3% strongly disagreed.

g. 40.0% of adolescents strongly agreed that they are always happy when they are at home, 30.0% agreed, 15.0% were undecided, 12.5% disagreed and 2.5% strongly disagreed.

h. 67.5% of adolescents strongly agreed that their parent/guardian do not abuse them physically, 22.5% agreed, 2.5% were undecided, 2.5% disagreed and 5.0% strongly disagreed.

i. 33.8 of adolescents strongly agreed that home is quiet and conducive to study, 31.3% agreed, 10.0% were undecided, 17.5% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed.

j. 48.8% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have support from their parent/guardian with schoolwork, 31.3% agreed, 6.3% were undecided, 8.8% disagreed and 5.0% strongly disagreed.

From the above analysis, the following conclusions could be made:

6.3% of adolescents from single parenthood admitted that they do not get along with their parent/guardian, 11.3% admitted that their parent/guardian is not always around to help them, 7.5% admitted that they were physically abused by their parent/guardian, 15.6% admitted that their parent/guardian fought, 21.3% admitted that they are not comfortable to invite their friends at home, 15.0% admitted that they are not always happy at home, 25.0% admitted that home was not quiet and conducive to study and 13.8% admitted that they did not receive support with schoolwork at home.

Whilst the majority of school-going adolescents from single parenthood paint a fair picture about their home background, some confirm that there are some problems which they face at home. The above findings show that some school-going adolescents come from backgrounds that are not conducive to study. This impacts on their school performance since they cannot attend to issues like homework and preparations for tasks like tests and examinations. Socially, they face problems of fighting/quarrelling parent/guardian and are not comfortable to invite friends home. Some of these parents abuse them physically and are not happy at home as a result. Even though the study shows that a significant number of respondents are used to single parenthood, there are others who derive negative attitude towards it which could not be ignored.

The above findings are also in line with the literature. Berk (2000), states that the way a child has been raised and reared has a big consequence on their behaviour in later years and particularly in their behaviour and interactions at

school. Sotirios (1996), in his study, concluded that married couples seem to offer the best environment for a child's social and educational development. Milburn (2002) found that kids with regular father involvement were more cooperative and self-reliant in school than kids who did not have father involvement.

4.3 Feedback from Schoolwork

Table 4.3

Item		1		2		3		4		5	
		F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F
ave problems getting my mework done on time	Boys	7	8.8	5	6.3	4	5.0	11	13.8	13	16.3
	Girls	7	8.8	18	22.5	4	5.0	9	11.3	2	2.5
	Total	**14**	**17.5**	**23**	**28.8**	**8**	**10.0**	**20**	**25.0**	**15**	**18.8**
ave fallen behind in some my subjects	Boys	12	15.0	17	21.3	3	3.8	3	3.8	5	6.3
	Girls	14	17.5	19	23.8	2	2.5	2	2.5	3	3.8
	Total	**26**	**32.5**	**36**	**45.0**	**5**	**6.3**	**5**	**6.3**	**8**	**10.0**
/ school reports are ways satisfactory	Boys	6	7.5	14	17.5	8	10.0	8	10.0	4	5.0
	Girls	3	3.8	5	6.3	8	10.0	13	16.3	10	12.5
	Total	**10**	**12.5**	**19**	**23.8**	**16**	**20.0**	**21**	**26.3**	**14**	**17.5**
have failed some of the bjects I am doing	Boys	13	16.3	16	20.2	4	5.0	0	0.0	7	8.8
	Girls	16	20.0	18	22.5	1	1.3	4	5.0	1	1.3
	Total	**29**	**36.3**	**34**	**42.5**	**5**	**6.3**	**4**	**5.0**	**8**	**10.0**
have repeated a Form irade	Boys	6	7.5	4	5.0	5	6.3	7	8.8	18	22.5
	Girls	1	1.3	4	5.0	0	0.0	4	5.0	31	38.8
	Total	**7**	**8.8**	**8**	**10.0**	**5**	**6.3**	**11**	**13.8**	**49**	**61.3**
ave a feeling of rejection ecause I am from a single arent/guardian household	Boys	6	7.5	3	3.8	3	3.8	8	10.0	20	25.0
	Girls	3	3.8	2	2.5	7	8.8	12	15.0	16	20.0
	Total	**9**	**11.3**	**5**	**6.3**	**10**	**12.3**	**20**	**25.0**	**36**	**45.0**
have always felt like uitting school	Boys	1	1.3	3	1.3	3	3.8	8	10.0	25	31.3
	Girls	1	1.3	3	1.3	0	0.0	10	12.5	26	32.5
	Total	**2**	**2.5**	**6**	**7.5**	**3**	**3.8**	**18**	**22.5**	**51**	**63.8**

Below is an analysis of the above findings:

a. 17.5% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have problems getting their homework done on time, 28.8% agreed, 10.0% were undecided, 25.0% disagreed and 18.8% strongly disagreed.

b. 32.5% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have fallen behind in some of their subjects, 45.0% strongly agreed, 6.3% were undecided, 6.3% disagreed and 10.0% strongly disagreed.

c. 12.5% of adolescents strongly agreed their school reports are always satisfactory, 23.8% agreed, 20% were undecided, 26.3% disagreed and 17.5% strongly disagreed.

d. 36.3% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have failed some of the subjects they are doing, 42.5% agreed, 6.3% were undecided, 5.0% disagreed and 10.0% strongly disagreed.

e. 8.8% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have repeated a Form/Grade, 10.0% agreed, 6.3% were undecided, 13.8% disagreed and 61.3% strongly disagreed.

f. 11.3% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have a feeling of rejection because they are from a single parent/guardian household, 6.3% agreed, 12.3% were undecided, 25.0% disagreed and 45.0% strongly disagreed.

g. 2.5% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have always felt like quitting school, 7.5% agreed, 3.8% were undecided, 22.5% disagreed and 63.8% strongly disagreed.

From the above findings, 46.3% of school-going adolescents from single parenthood agreed that they have problems getting their homework done on time, 77.5% agreed that they have fallen behind in some of their subjects, 43.8%

agreed that their school reports were not always satisfactory, 78.8% agreed that they have failed some of the subjects they are doing, 18.8% agreed that they have repeated a Form/Grade, 17.6% agreed that they have a feeling of rejection because they are from a single-parent household and 10.0% agreed that they have always felt like quitting school. Compared to the issue of home background, there appears to be some contradictions. Nevertheless, the issue still stands out that single parenthood has negative influence on school performance.

This section addresses the second research question (Do school-going adolescents who come from single parent households perform poorly in class?) The above findings show that a large proportion of school-going adolescents from single-parenthood face serious problems with their schoolwork. These problems cover issues like not getting homework done on time (46.3%), falling behind and failing in some subjects (77.5%), unsatisfactory school reports (36.3%), repeating a Form/Grade (18.8%), having a feeling of rejection because they come from single-parenthoods (17.6%) and feeling like quitting school 10.0%). Even though the majority of students receive support from parent and the home backgrounds are conducive to academic work, this is not translated into effective academic performance.

This finding relates to the literature. McLahanan and Sandefur (1994), state that children from broken families are two times more likely to drop out of school than children from intact families. Adolescents who drop out of school are likely to be involved in criminal activities and vices like alcohol and drug abuse, teenage pregnancy (Sampson & Grooves, 1989). The feeling of rejection by such adolescents may result in mental health problems at an early age (Davidson, 1990).

4.4 Feedback on Social Life

Table 4.4

Item		1		2		3		4		5	
		F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F
I am satisfied with the amount of pocket money I get from my parent/guardian	Boys	18	22.5	11	13.8	3	3.8	3	3.8	5	6.3
	Girls	13	16.3	4	5.0	3	3.8	8	10.0	12	15.0
	Total	**31**	**38.8**	**15**	**18.8**	**6**	**7.5**	**11**	**13.8**	**17**	**21.3**
I do not have difficulties making friends	Boys	13	16.3	18	22.5	4	5.0	5	6.3	0	0.0
	Girls	8	10.0	20	25.0	3	3.8	6	7.5	3	3.8
	Total	**21**	**26.3**	**38**	**47.5**	**7**	**8.8**	**11**	**13.8**	**3**	**3.8**
My classmates do not call me names or joke about me	Boys	8	10.0	13	16.3	3	3.8	5	6.3	11	13.8
	Girls	9	11.3	13	16.3	2	2.5	10	12.5	6	7.5
	Total	**17**	**21.3**	**26**	**32.5**	**5**	**6.3**	**15**	**18.8**	**17**	**21.3**
I have bullied others at school	Boys	2	2.5	2	2.5	3	3.8	15	18.8	18	22.5
	Girls	1	1.3	2	2.5	1	1.3	9	11.3	27	33.8
	Total	**3**	**3.8**	**4**	**5.0**	**4**	**5.0**	**24**	**30.0**	**45**	**56.3**
I have bullied others outside the school grounds	Boys	2	2.5	2	2.5	3	3.8	15	18.8	18	22.5
	Girls	1	1.3	1	1.3	3	3.8	8	10.0	27	33.8
	Total	**3**	**3.8**	**3**	**3.8**	**6**	**7.5**	**23**	**28.8**	**45**	**56.3**
I have fighting/quarrelling problems with teachers/administrators	Boys	1	1.3	2	2.5	4	5.0	11	13.8	22	27.5
	Girls	3	3.8	2	2.5	1	1.3	8	10.0	26	32.5
	Total	**4**	**5.0**	**4**	**5.0**	**5**	**6.3**	**19**	**23.8**	**48**	**60.0**
I feel shy or awkward about myself	Boys	8	10.0	4	5.0	4	5.0	11	13.8	13	16.3
	Girls	2	2.5	9	11.3	4	5.0	7	8.8	18	22.5
	Total	**10**	**12.5**	**13**	**16.3**	**8**	**10.0**	**18**	**22.5**	**31**	**38.8**

Below is an analysis of the above findings:

a. 38.8% of adolescents strongly agreed that they are satisfied with the amount of pocket money they get from their parent/guardian, 18.8% agreed, 7.5% were undecided, 13.8% disagreed and 21.3% strongly disagreed.

b. 26.3% of adolescents strongly agreed that they do not have difficulties making friends, 47.5% agreed, 8.8% were undecided, 13.8% disagreed and 3.8% strongly disagreed.

c. 21.3 of adolescents strongly agreed that their classmates do not call them names, 32.5% agreed, 6.3% were undecided, 18.8% disagreed and 21.3% strongly disagreed.

d. 3.8% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have bullied others at school, 5.0% agreed, 5.0% were undecided, 30.0% disagreed and 56.3% strongly disagreed.

e. 3.8% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have bullied others outside the school grounds, 3.8% agreed, 7.5% were undecided, 28.8% disagreed and 56.3% strongly disagreed.

f. 5.0% of adolescents strongly agreed that they have fighting/quarrelling problems with teachers/administrators, 5.0% agreed, 6.3% were undecided, 23.8% disagreed and 60.0% strongly disagreed.

g. 12.5% of adolescents strongly agreed that they feel shy or awkward about themselves, 16.3% agreed, 10.0% were undecided, 22.5% disagreed and 38.8% strongly disagreed.

From the above findings, 35.1% of school-going adolescents from single-parenthood are not satisfied with the amount of pocket money they get from their parent/guardian, 16.6% admitted that they have difficulties making friends, 40.1% admitted that their classmates call them names, 8.8% admitted that they have

bullied others at school, 7.6% admitted that they have bullied others outside school, 10.0% admitted that they have fighting/quarrelling problems with teachers/administrators and 28.8% admitted that they feel shy or awkward about themselves.

This section addresses the first research question (Does single parenthood have negative effects on social interaction of school-going adolescents?)

The findings above reveal the issues that impact negatively in the daily lives and education of school-going adolescents from single-parenthood. The majority of families which live below the poverty datum line in America come from female-headed households (US Bureau of the Census, 1991). Children from such families are not likely to receive adequate pocket money because of family poverty. Garnefski and Diekstra (1997), in their study, found that children from one parent and stepparent families reported lower self-esteem, more symptoms of anxiety and loneliness, more depressed moods and more suicidal thoughts that children from intact families.

4.5 Do children from single-parent households experience problems as a result of their family setup?

Table 4.5

Response		Frequency	% Frequency
Yes	Boys	12	15.0
	Girls	29	36.3
	Total	**41**	**51.3**
No	Boys	28	35.0
	Girls	11	13.8
	Total	**39**	**47.7**
Total		**80**	**100.0**

This section addressed the first research question (Does single parenthood have negative effects on social interaction of school-going adolescents?)

Below is a summary of the nature of problems faced by those who said 'Yes'.

- Children from single parent households feel sad and uncomfortable when children with both parents start discussing about their families.
- They feel guilty from their parents' separation.
- At times they are caught in between both parents who have separated.
- Those staying with their mothers are aware that their mothers often get little remuneration and they get tempted to drop out of school to assist her.
- Some face physical abuse and long for a situation with both parents together.
- It is normal for children to have both parents, so living with a single parent has its own pressures.
- Those staying with single mothers are difficult to control. The mother is weak over control of the children.

- Some children resort to drugs and alcohol abuse because of their situation.
- They tend to neglect their homework because of too many household chores.

The above findings portray the effects of single parenthood on school-going adolescents. The study's aim was to investigate the impact of single-parenthood on school-going adolescents. These findings show that single parenthood has a negative effect on social interactions of school-going adolescents. These findings also relate to table 4.2 which revealed that some school-going adolescents from single parenthood have a feeling of rejection because they are from a single parent/guardian household and they have always felt like quitting school.

This section also addresses the research hypothesis (There is no significant difference on the effects of single parenthood between male and female school-going adolescents). Table 4.5 shows that girls (36.3%) from single-parent households experience more problems that boys (15.0%) as a result of single parenthood. Using the t-test on page 80, it was realised that statistically there is no significant difference on the effects of single parenthood between male and female school-going adolescents at 5% level of significance.

4.6 Do children from single parent households receive different treatment at school as a result of their family setup?

Table 4.6

Response		Frequency	% Frequency
Yes	Boys	8	10.0
	Girls	5	6.3
	Total	**13**	**16.3**
No	Boys	32	40.0
	Girls	35	43.8
	Total	**67**	**83.7**
Total		**80**	**100.0**

The reasons given by the 'Yes' respondents included:

- Some teachers look down upon them.
- Those who come from very poor backgrounds have school uniforms bought for them by their school.

This section addressed the third research question (Do school going adolescents who come from single parent households face any discrimination from the community?)

The study also sought to find out if school-going adolescents who came from single-parenthood face any discrimination from the community. The above findings show that 16.3% of these adolescents are looked down upon by some teachers because they come from single parent families. While the purchasing of school uniforms is done with the intention of alleviating their problems, it reflects the poverty of the single parent/guardian and such adolescents feel that their situation is so desperate that they have some items bought for them by their schools.

4.7 Do children from single households find it difficult to balance schoolwork and social life as a result of their family setup?

Table 4.7

Response		Frequency	% Frequency
Yes	Boys	7	8.8
	Girls	18	22.5
	Total	**25**	**31.3**
No	Boys	33	41.3
	Girls	22	27.5
	Total	**55**	**68.7**
Total		**80**	**100.0**

Below is a summary of responses from those who said 'Yes'.

- Adolescents from single households do not have resources at home, like fuel for lighting, to do their homework.
- Relations between adolescents' single mothers and their boyfriends sometimes become sour and this affects their children performance at school and mental well-being.
- Those who stay with fathers only have much work to do at home and they cannot do their homework.
- The fact that they are 'different' means that they are always thinking about their social problems and as a result they tend to forget schoolwork at times.
- People they socialize with are always asking them where their other parent is and this becomes a mental burden.
- They are not adequately catered for in terms of pocket money for stationery, transport and snacks.
- Boys have to take masculine roles if they are staying with mothers only.

The first research questions wanted to show whether or not single parenthood has any negative effects on social interactions of school-going adolescents, and

to find out whether or not they perform poorly in class because of their status. The above findings show that single parenthood has some negative effects on the social interactions of school-going adolescents and those negative effects, in turn, affect their performance in the classroom. Too many household chores, neglecting homework and little pocket money result in such adolescents' poor performance at school. These findings also relate to table 4.2 and table 4.4 which revealed that some single parents/guardians of school-going adolescents fight/quarrel and that these adolescents do not get enough pocket money from their single parents/guardians.

Only about 31% of respondents find it difficult to balance their school work and social life. However there is gender difference to this effect. For instance boys (8.8%) find it easier to balance schoolwork and social life than girls (22.5%).

4.8 Do you think children from single households need more guidance and counseling at school?

Table 4.8

Response		Frequency	% Frequency
Yes	Boys	25	31.3
	Girls	26	32.5
	Total	**51**	**63.7**
No	Boys	15	18.8
	Girls	14	17.5
	Total	**29**	**36.3**
Total		**80**	**100.0**

Below is a summary of responses from those who said Yes.

- Adolescents from single households need more guidance and counseling at school since most are not in touch with the other parent or extended family members who can give them advice.
- They need guidance and counseling to help them get over the loss of the other parent.

- They come from unbalanced families and have low self-esteem. Guidance and counseling will help them overcome these negative feelings.
- Sometimes they feel like dropping out of school and guidance and counseling will reverse those ideas.
- Because of frustration over coming from single parent households some may end up abusing drugs and alcohol. Guidance and counseling will help them to overcome such temptations.
- Single parents do not have time to regularly check what their children are doing at school. Guidance and counseling will help children from such families to improve in school if they are lagging behind.

The majority of adolescents from single parenthood families (63.7%) agreed that there is need for them to be given more guidance and counseling at school. Single parenthood has negative effects on social interaction of school-going adolescents and guidance and such adolescents agree that guidance and counseling will help them to overcome those negative effects. Guidance and counseling will also help them to cope with the discrimination they face from the community.

These findings relate to the first and third research questions which investigate whether or not single parenthood has negative effects on social interaction of school-going adolescents whether or not such adolescents face any discrimination from the community.

4.9 Do you think school administrators should take specific action to assist/support children from single households?

Table 4.9

Response		Frequency	% Frequency
Yes	Boys	19	23.8
	Girls	25	31.3
	Total	**44**	**55.0**

No	Boys	11	13.8
	Girls	15	18.8
	Total	**36**	**45.0**
Total		**80**	**100.0**

Below is a summary of responses from those who said 'Yes'.

- Some children need financial support from their school administrators to cater for issues like uniforms and stationery.
- School administrators should assist such children with confidence building so that they do not feel different from other children.
- School administrators can also help to shape some of then in terms of instilling good manners since their parents may not be able teach their children good manners.

The above findings show that adolescents who come from single-parent households perform poorly as compared to their counterparts from intact households.

The findings relate to those of table 4.3 which revealed that some school-going adolescents have a feeling of rejection because of the fact that they come from single parent/guardian households and they have always felt like quitting school.

4.10 Mention the challenges that you face at home and school regarding your family support and schoolwork.

Below is a summary of responses to the above question:

- Adolescents from single households are overworked, have little time for homework and sleep very late. They do not concentrate at school the next day.
- Some children feel they have to work hard at school so that they can get better education and overcome the problems at home.
- These children's parents find it difficult to attend school functions like Parents Day and Speech and Prize Giving Day and their children are affected by their absence.
- Children who stay with mothers only sometimes find themselves being sent to their fathers when they run out of pocket money or when they want to buy items like school uniforms.

These findings also relate to table 4.2 which revealed that some adolescents have problems getting their homework done on time, have fallen behind in some of their subjects, have unsatisfactory school reports and have repeated a Form/Grade.

The above section addressed issues related to the second research question which investigates whether or not school-going adolescents from single parent households perform poorly in class.

4.11 Hypotheses

A t-test was used to test the hypothesis – There is no significant difference between male and female adolescent students on effects of single parenthood. From the data on 4.5 the hypothesis was tested as follows:

$$t = \frac{\text{mean of boys responses} - \text{mean of girls responses}}{\left\{\frac{\text{boys responses standard deviation}}{\text{number of boys}}\right\} - \left\{\frac{\text{girls responses standard deviation}}{\text{number of girls}}\right\}}$$

$$= \frac{X_1}{SD_1/N_1} - \frac{X_2}{SD_2/N_2}$$

Where X_1 is mean of boys' responses and X_2 is mean of girls' responses.

SD_1 is standard deviation of boys' responses and SD_2 is standard deviation of girls' responses.

N_1 is number of boys and N2 is number of girls.

$X_1 = 2.891$ $SD_1 = 5.680$ $N_1 = 40$

$X_2 = 2.758$ $SD_2 = 8.520$ $N_2 = 40$

$t = (2.891 - 2.758)/[(5.680/40) + (8.520/40)]$

$= 0.133/(0.142 + 0.213)$

$= \quad 0.133/0.355$

$= \quad \underline{0.375}$

The level of significance was 5%. At this level of significance, the t-value of 0.375 falls outside the rejection region and a conclusion can be made that there is no significant difference between responses of male and female school-going adolescents on the effect of single parenthood on gender.

The t-value from the statistical tables is $t_{\alpha/2} = 1.990$. This critical value is greater than the test statistic of 0.375, so the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Another t-test was used to test the hypothesis - There is no significant difference between school going adolescents of parent/guardian with different educational status on effects of single parenthood. Two groups were used, those coming from households were the parent/guardian had tertiary qualifications (group 1) and those from households were the parent/guardian had no tertiary qualifications (group 2).

The data was tested as follows:

$$t = \frac{\text{mean responses of group 1} - \text{mean responses of group 2}}{\left\{\frac{\text{group 1 responses standard deviation}}{\text{number of boys}}\right\} + \left\{\frac{\text{group 2 responses standard deviation}}{\text{number of girls}}\right\}}$$

$$= \frac{X_1 - X_2}{SD_1/N_1 + SD_2/N_2}$$

Where X_1 is mean of group 1 responses and X_2 is mean of group 2 responses.

SD_1 is standard deviation of group 1 responses and SD_2 is standard deviation of group 2 responses.

N_1 is number of adolescents in group 1 and N2 is number of adolescents in group 2.

$X_1 = 2.643$ $SD_1 = 8.568$ $N_1 = 36$

$X_2 = 2.346$ $SD_2 = 6.028$ $N_2 = 44$

$t = (2.643 - 2.346)/[(8.568/36) + (6.028/44)]$

$= 0.297/(0.238 + 0.137)$

$= 0.297/0.375$

$= \underline{0.792}$

The level of significance was 5%. At this level of significance, the t-value of 0.792 falls outside the rejection region and a conclusion can be made that there is no significant difference on the effects of single parenthood between responses of school-going adolescents from households with parent/guardian with tertiary qualifications and school-going adolescents from households with parent/guardian without tertiary qualifications.

The t-value from the statistical tables is $t_{\alpha/2} = 1.990$. This critical value is greater than the test statistic of 0.792, so the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

In summary, the results of the two t-tests show that single parenthood affects school-going boys and girls equally. Also, the academic qualifications of parent/guardian have no effects on how single parenthood affects school-going adolescents.

4.12 Summary of Findings

The findings highlighted both positive and negative aspects of the impact of single-parenthood on school-going adolescents. Such positive aspects included the fact that the majority (86.3%) of the adolescents get along well with their single parent/guardian; 86.3% get enough attention from their parent/guardian, 90.0% not abused physically by their parent/guardian and 70% are always happy at home.

However, the results from the survey also painted a negative picture on the impact of single parenthood on school-going adolescents. A significant proportion of school-going adolescents experience a variety of problems of varying magnitudes as a result of their single-parenthood backgrounds. Findings from the survey showed that single-parenthood has negative effects on the social interactions of school-going adolescents. This includes a feeling of rejection because they come from single parenthood (17.6%), home environment is not conducive for learning (25.0%), problems getting homework done on time (46.3%), falling behind in some subjects (77.5%), failing some subjects they are doing (78.8%), feeling of rejection because they come from single parenthood families (17.6%), poverty of their single mothers hence lack of adequate pocket money (45.6%), temptation to drop out of school and engage in crime (10.0%) and feeling shy or awkward about themselves (28.8%). Single parenthood also impact negatively on their performance in the classroom. In some cases, too much work at home results in them being overworked, thus leading them to

neglect schoolwork. Their socio-economic status also results in their poor performance in the classroom as compared to their peers from intact families. Table 4.7 reveals that adolescents who stay with father only have too many household chores to do and they are not adequately catered for in terms of pocket money.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Summary of Conclusions

From the various findings the study showed that the majority (91.3%) of school-going adolescents from single parenthood stay with their mothers (Hammer & Turnover, 1990). They reported that the largest percentage of single-parent families is headed by divorced female parents. Hammer and Turnover concluded that the trauma from divorce is likely to result in poorly socialized, cognitively deficient children who experience poor parent-child relationships. The research findings corroborate with the literature review confirming that adolescents do not get along with their single parents, single parents are not always around to attend to the needs of their children and that they are not always happy at home. The survey findings show that there are poor parent-relationships between the adolescents and their single parents/guardians, adversely affecting their school performance. This study substantiates these views. The study show that the majority of adolescents from single-parent households have problems getting their homework done on time (46.3%), have fallen behind in some of their subjects (77.5%), have school reports which are not satisfactory (43.3%) and they fail some of the subjects that they are doing (78.8%).

5.2 Implications of the findings

The findings of this study have the following implications with regard to the effects of single parenthood on school-going adolescents:

The fact that the majority of single parents are mothers means that it is women who bear the brunt of child rearing. In most cases they have less financial

resources than their male counterparts due to their poor socio-economic status (Funder, 1993).

A large number of adolescents from single parent households have problems with their school work. These problems range from failing certain subjects (78.8%), falling behind in certain subjects (77.5%), not doing their homework on time (46.3%) and unsatisfactory school reports (43.3%). This implies that a large number of school-going adolescents need extra assistance in their schoolwork.

63.7% of adolescents from single parent households admitted that they need more guidance and counseling at school. This implies that there is little assistance from home due to absence of the other parent. They feel that school administrators can put some mechanisms in place to help them in guidance and counseling. School administrators are likely to take an extra role to guide and counsel school-going adolescents from single-parent households.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are made:

1. School administrators, parents and other stakeholders should assist children from single parent households in the following ways:
   i. The guidance and counseling curriculum should be revised to fully cater for children from single-parent households.
   ii. Remedial and special classes should be arranged to support children from single-parent households. This will help them to catch up with lost ground when they are busy with household chores at home.
   iii. The school curriculum itself can be revised so that it embraces technical subjects which are mainly practical and do not let such children carry a lot of homework after school.

NWU LIBRARY

iv. Single parents can form support groups and networks so that they look at their situation positively. This will also help their children who often feel that they are partly responsible for their parents' divorce.

2. The government can also intervene in the same way it is doing to orphans and destitutes. The Department of Social Welfare and District Councils can identify needy cases and assist such children before they think of quitting school due to frustration caused by poverty and other ills. Help can be given in the form of school uniforms, stationery, pocket money and tuition fees where applicable.

3. Non Government Organisations (NGOs) can also mobilize resources to help children from single parent households who are disadvantaged. A lot can be learnt from what the same NGOs are doing for children affected by other social problems like orphan hood due to HIV/AIDS and destitute children.

4. Society should also be made aware of the problems faced by children from single parent households. Such awareness will enable society not to look down upon children from single parent families. Society normally treats such children as a burden since they do not have adequate resources like food and money to use.

5.4 Issues for Further Research

The researcher extracted little information from the subjects on the good side of single-parenthood especially as far as educational performance is concerned. A comparative study of adolescents from single parent households and two-parent households may furnish more data on this issue.

The study was confined to Gaborone city only. A similar study in a rural setting where the extended family is still intact may reflect some different pattern on effects of single parenthood on school-going adolescents.

Bibliography

Ainsworth, B. & Bowlby, J (1954) Psychopathological processes set in train by early mother-child separation. In Proceedings of the Seventh Conference on Infancy and Childhood (1953). New York: Jos Macy Jnr Foundation.

Ambert, F. M. (1997) America's disconnected youth: Toward a preventive strategy. Washington DC, CWDL Press.

American Psychological Association, (2002) Developing Adolescents: A Reference for Professionals, pp. 45-47, Washington DC, Addison Wesley.

Arsenio, W.F. & Lover, A. (1995) Children's conceptions of sociomoral affect: Happy victimizers, mixed emotions, and other expectancies, in: M. KILLEN & D. HART (Eds), Morality in Everyday Life, pp. 87-128 (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press).

Baltes, P. B., Reese, H. W., & Nesselroade, J. R. (1988). Introduction to research methods. Life-span Developmental Psychology. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Bandura, A (1997) Self Efficacy: The Exercise of Control, pp. 50-58, WH Freeman & Co.

Baumrind, D. (1989) Rearing competent children, in: W. DAMON (Ed.) Child Development Today and Tomorrow, pp. 349-378 (San Francisco, Jossey-Bass).

Bell, T (1968) Acts of Meaning, pp. 202-220, Harvard University Press.

Belsky, J (1984) The determinants of parental competence. Towards a Contextual Theory, in Lewis, M (ed.) Beyond the Dyad. Plenum Press.

Berk, K. (2000).Enhancing moral growth. Is communication the key? Adolescence, 27, 145-161.

Berk, K & Bacon, D. (1993) The adaptive nature of cognitive immaturity. American Psychologist, 47, 46 – 54.

Birrell, B & Rapson, V (1997) More single parents equals more poverty. News Weekly, pp. 8.

Blankenhorn, D (1995) Fatherless America. New York: basic Books, 1995, pp.1.

Bolognini, L., Plancherel, E, Bettschart, K. & Halfon I (1996),The adaptive nature of cognitive immaturity. American Psychologist, 47, 57-60

Botswana Daily News (2002) Government implements policy enabling women to work themselves out of poverty, www.gov.bw/cgi-bin/news.cgi?d=20020717

Botswana Daily News (2003) Child-Line Botswana offers parenting skills, www.gov.bw/cgi-bin/news.cgi?d=20030627.

Botswana Daily News (2005) High costs encourage cohabitation, www.gov.bw/cgi-bin/nes.cgi?d=20050513

Botswana Daily News (2005), Infidelity great cause for divorce, www.gov.bw/cgi-bin/news.cgi?d=20050916

Botswana Gazette (2003) A Profile of Street Children in Three Urban Centres of Botswana, www.gazette.bw/ [downloaded 20 July 2005]

Botswana Population and Housing Census Dissemination Seminar, (2003)

Bretherton, I. & Waters, A. (Eds) (1985) Growing points of attachment theory and research, Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, serial no. 29.

Bronfenbrenner, S, (1979) Family structure and the development of autonomy. Journal of Early Adolescence, 11, 38-55.

Buhrmester, L (1992) Towards a strategy for healthy adolescent development. American Journal of Psychiatry, 154, 7-12.

Campbell, E.K & Ntsabane, T. (1995) Street children in Gaborone, Botswana: Causes and Policy Implications, www.uaps.org/rapports/street.htm.

Christensen, B.D (1991) Facing the challenges of fragmented families: The Philanthropy Roundtable 9.2: 21.

Colby, A. & Kohlberg, K. (1987) The Measurement of Moral Behavior (Vols. 1-2) (New York, Cambridge University Press).

Creswell, W. (1998). Qualitative inquiry and research design. Choosing Among Five Traditions. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Damon, W. (1977) The Social World of the Child (San Francisco, Jossey Bass).

Darling, V. (1999) Parent-adolescent relations in retrospect and prospect. Journal of Research in Adolescence, 11(1), 1-19.

Davidson, L (1990) Life without father: America's Greatest Social Catastrophe. Policy Review. Winter, 17, pp. 45-89.

Draper, P & Harpending, H (1982) Father absence and reproductive strategy: An evolutionary perspective. Journal of Anthropological Research, 38 (3), pp. 255-273, pp. 258.

De Anda (1995) Human Growth and Development for Educators. Journal of Adolescence, 15, pp46-54.

Dinwiddie, A. (1995) Adolescence (8th edition). (New York: McGraw-Hill).

Dooley, G. (1991) Cultural bases of risk behaviour. Child Development, 64, 1842 – 1855.

Dow, G. & Kid, K. (1994) Youth risk behaviour surveillance, United States, vol. 49, 1 – 96, Atlanta, GA, Centre for Disease Control and Prevention.

Dryfoos, G, (1998) Interpersonal needs in middle adolescence. Companionship, leadership and intimacy. (New York, Longman)

Dunn, J. & Munn, P. (1987) The development of justifications in disputes. Developmental Psychology, 23, pp. 781-798.

Dunn, J. & Slomkowski, C. (1992) Conflict and the development of social understanding, in: C.U. Shantz & W. Hartup (Eds), Conflict in Child and Adolescent Development, pp. 70-92 (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press).

Dunst, M., Trivette, E. M., & Deal, K. (1988) Constraints to activity participation in early adolescence. Journal of Early Adolescence, 12, 280-299.

Early Menarche (2003) Catalyst, ABC TV.

Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R.A., Bustamente, D., Mathy, R.M., Miller, P.A., & Lindholm, E. (1988) Differentiation of vicariously induced emotional reactions in children. Developmental Psychology, 24, pp. 237-246.

Erikson, E. H. (1990) Human development taxonomy, New York, McGraw Hill

Erikson, E. H. (1965) Insight and responsibility. Lectures on the ethical implications of psychoanalytic insight (New York, HaperCollins).

Erikson, E. H. (1987) Eight stages of psychological development: The Life Cycle Completed, W. W. Norton & Co.

Fergusson, D (1944) Parental separation, adolescent psychopathology, and problem behaviours. Journal of American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 33, 1944, pp. 1122-1131.

Freud, S (1915) Psychosexual stages: Three Essays on Sexuality, McGraw-Hill.

Freud, S. (1936) Theory of Genitality. The problem of anxiety. (New York: Norton).

Funder, K (1993) Settling down. Pathways of parents after divorce. Melbourne, Australian Institute of Family Studies.

Garfinkel, I & McLahanan, S. S (1986) Single mothers and their children. A New American Dilemma. Washington: Urban Institute, pp. 30-31.

Garnefski, N & Diekstra, R (1997) Adolescents from one parent, stepparent and intact families, emotional problems and suicide attempts. Journal of Adolescence, 20, pp. 201-208.

Gay, L. R., & Airasian, Peter. (1999). Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

Gerow, J. R. (1996) Essentials of Psychology. New York: Harper Collins, 1996.

Gesell, C, (1988) Emotions in the practice of psychotherapy. American Psychological Association, 26, 295-302.

Giddens, S. (1993) Teaching students to be peacemakers. Edina, MN, Interaction Book Company.

Goodman, M. & Gurian, K. (1999) Teens and their parents in the 21st century: An examination of trends in teen behaviour and the role of parent involvement. (Washington, DC, White House)

Grusec, J.E., Dix, T., & Mills, R. (1982) The effects of type, severity, and victim of children's transgressions on maternal discipline. Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 14, pp. 276-289.

Grusec, J. E. (1992) Self and identity development. At the threshold: The developing adolescent (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press).

Grusec, J.E. & Goodnow, J.J. (1994) Impact of parental discipline methods on the child's internalization of values: A reconceptualization of current points of view. Developmental Psychology, 30, pp. 4-19.

Gunilla, W. et al (2003) Mortality, severe morbidity, and injury in children living with single parents in Sweden: a population-based study. The Lancet, 9354, pp. 289-295.

Hamburg, M (1997) Industry told family splits cost $1b a year. The Age, vol 26.

Hammer, L. & Turnover, C (1990) Adolescent differences in time alone and time devoted to conversation. Adolescence, 26, 83-87.

Hart, D. (1988) A longitudinal study of adolescents socialization and identification as predictors of adult moral judgment development. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 34, pp. 245-260.

Hinde, J. (1989) Adolescent development. Challenges and opportunity for research, programs and policies. Annual Review of Psychology, 49, 413-446

Hoffman, M.L. (1970) Moral development, in: P.H. Mussen (Ed.), Carmichaelis Manual of Child Psychology, Vol. 2, pp. 261--300 (New York, Wiley).

Hoffman, M.L. (1991) Empathy, social cognition, and moral action, in: W.M. Kurtines & J.L. Gewirtz (Ed.), Handbook of Moral Behavior and Development, Vol. 1: theory, pp. 275-301 (Hillsdale, Erlbaum).

Hoffman, M.L. & Saltzstein, H.D. (1967) Parent discipline and the child's moral development. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 5, pp. 45-57.

Holden, J. A. et al (1992) The family, marriage and divorce. The Australian Family, 13 (4).

Holden, J. A. (1997) The adolescence in family therapy: Breaking the cycle of conflict and control. (New York: Guilford).

Hamburg, S, (1997) Preadolescent friendship and peer rejection as predictors of adult adjustment. Child Development, 69, 140-153.

Hill, C. E. (1904) Helping skills: Facilitating exploration, insight and action. Washington, DC, American Psychological Association.

Horn, W (2002) Fathers and welfare reform. Public Interest, no 129, Fall 1997, pp. 38-49, pp. 59.

Huxley, N. (2001) Family interaction and the development of moral reasoning. Child Development, 62, 264-283.

Jessor, R. G (1991) Child development. Its Nature and its Course. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Kiely, C. (1996) Dropout rates in the United States: 2000 (NCES 2002 –114) Washington: US Department of Education National Centre for Education Statistics.

Kiernan, K (1992) The bargain breaks. The Economist, vol 63, pp. 23-28.

Kiernan, K (1993) Child rearing and children's pro-social initiations towards victims of distress. Child Development, 50, pp. 319-330.

Killen, M., & Nucci, L.P. (1995). Morality, autonomy, and social conflict, in: M. Killen & D. Hart (Eds), Morality in Everyday Life, pp. 52-86. (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press).

Killen, M., Breton, S., Ferguson, H., & Handler, K. (1994) Preschoolers evaluations of teacher methods of intervention in social transgressions. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 40, pp. 399-415.

Killen, M., & Sueyoshi, L. (1995) Conflict resolution in Japanese social interactions. Early Education and Development, 6, pp. 317-334.

Kohlberg, L. (1969) Stage and Sequence: the cognitive-developmental approach to socialization, in: D. Goslin (Ed.), Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research, pp. 347-480 (Skokie, Rand McNally).

Kuczynski, L. (1982) Intensity and orientation of reasoning: Motivational determinants of children's compliance to verbal rationales. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 34, pp. 357-370.

Kuczynski, L. (1984) Socialization goals and mother-child interaction: Strategies for long-term and short-term compliance. Developmental Psychology, 20, pp. 1061-1073.

Learner, R. (1990) Trends in sexual activity and contraceptive use among teens. Child Trends Research Brief. Washington, DC: Child Trends.

Leedy, P. M. & Ormrod, J. M. (1985). Practical Research. New Jersey, Merrill Prentice Hall.

Leonard, T. & Roberts, A. (1998) The effects of neighbourhood residence on child and adolescence outcomes. Psychological Bulletin, 126, 309 – 337.

Lewin, D (1935) Parent discipline and the child's moral development. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 5, pp. 45-57.

Luster, M & Okagi, L (1993) Empathy, social cognition, and moral action, in: Kurtines, W. M & Gewirtz, J. L (ed.) Handbook of Moral Behaviour and Development, vol 1: theory, pp. 275-301 (Hillsdale, Erlbaum).

Malinowski, B (1962) Sex, culture and myth. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1962, pp. 63.

Malkin, C & Lamb, M (1994) Child maltreatment: a test of socio-biological theory. Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 25, pp. 121-130.

McLahanan, S. S & Sandefur, G (1994) Growing up with a single parent. Harvard University Press.

Mid-term Review of National Development Plan, Botswana (1994).

Milburn, C (2002) fathers as key to success. The Age, pp. 11.

Minuchin, P (1985) The development of justifications in disputes. Developmental Psychology, 23 pp. 781 –798.

Nicholi, A (1985) The impact of parental absence on childhood development. An Overview of the Literature. Journal of Family and Culture, vol 1, no. 3, Autumn 1985.

Nucci, L.P. (1984) Evaluating teachers as social agents: Students ratings of domain appropriate and domain-inappropriate teacher responses to transgressions. American Educational Research Journal, 21, pp. 367-378.

Nucci, L.P. (1989) Challenging conventional wisdom about morality: The domain approach to values education, in L.P. Nucci (Ed.), Moral Development and Character Education: a dialogue, pp. 183-203 (Berkeley: McCutcheon).

Nucci, L, P. (1996) Morality and personal freedom, in: E. Reed, E. Turiel, & T. Brown (Eds), Knowledge and Values, pp. 41-60 (Hillsdale, Erlbaum).

Nucci, L.P. & Nucci, M.S. (1982) Children's responses to moral and social-conventional transgressions in free-play settings. Child Development, 53, pp. 1337-1342.

Okin, S.M. (1989) Justice, Gender, and the Family (New York, Basic Books).

PageWise Inc, 2002, Single Motherhood, It is Possible?, http://txtx.essortment.com/singlemotherhoo_obb.htm.

Parke, M. & Buriel, S. S. (1998) How young people use the Internet for health information. Menlo Park, CA, Kaiser family Foundation.

Pedhazur, E. J., & Schmelkin, L. P. (1991). Measurement, Design, And Analysis, An Integrated Approach (pp. 315-317). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Phiri, S. N,2003, HIV/AIDS and the Consequences on Children, www.children_strategies.org/Sphiri_speech.pdf.

Piaget, J. (1932) The Moral Judgment of the Child (New York, Free Press).

Piaget, J. (1965) The moral judgment of the child. (New York, Free Press).

Piaget, J (1973) Epistemology and psychological functions. Dordrecht: D. Reidel Publishing Company.

Piaget, J & Inhelder, H. (1969) The psychology of intelligence (New York, International Universities Press).

Pirrie, M (1993) Child Abuse Law Alert. The Herald-Sun.

Pollack, V. & Shuster, H, (2000) Self-esteem and mental health in early adolescence: Development and gender differences. Journal of adolescence.

Ponton, S. (1997) Adolescent storm and stress reconsidered. American Psychologist, 54 317-326.

Ponton, S. & Jessor, R (1997) Cultural bases of risk behaviour. Child Development, 64, 1842-1855.

Population and Housing Dissemination Seminar (2003)

Powers, S.I. (1988) Moral judgment development within the family. Journal of Moral Education, 17, pp. 209-219.

Radke-Yarrow, M., & King, R.A. (1979) Child rearing and children's prosocial initiations towards victims of distress. Child Development, 50, pp. 319-330.

Resnick, C, Bearman, T, & Blum, F (1997) Family influences on alcohol abuse and other problem behaviours among black and white adolescents in a general population sample. Journal of Research in Adolescence, 4, 183-202.

Ross, H. & Conant, C. (1992) The structure of early conflict: Interaction, relationships, and alliances, in: C.U. Shantz & W. Hartup (Eds), Conflict in Child and Adolescent Development, pp. 153-185 (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press).

Roth, B & Brooks-Gunn, L (1995) Social and psychological well-being of children from divorced families: Australian Research Findings. Australian Psychologist, vol 31, no. 3, pp. 174-182.

Roth, G, & Brooks-Gunn, L, (2000) Teen pregnancy: Trends and lessons learned. The Guttmacher Report on Public Policy, 5, 7-10.

Sampson, R & Groves, B (1989) Community structure and crime: Testing social-disorganisation theory. American Journal of Sociology, vol 21, pp.94.

Sarason, S. (1996) Grading grown-ups: American adult reports on their real relationships with kids. Minneapolis: Lutheran Brotherhood and Search Institute.

Sariola, K & Uetela, A (1996) The prevalence and context of incest abuse in Finland. Child Abuse and Neglect, vol 20, no. 9, pp. 843-850.

Schaefer, M (1969) Schooling as a credential: Some Suggestions for Change. New York: Garland, 89, 672-677.

Shostak, L. M. (1987) The skin we are in. teaching our children to be: Emotionally strong, socially smart, spiritually connected. New York: Free Press.

Sigel, T et al (1992) Trend in parent and friend influence during adolescence: Preliminary Findings. New York, Oxford University Press.

Smetana, J.G. (1989) Toddlers' social interactions in the context of moral and conventional transgressions in the home. Developmental Psychology, 25, pp. 499-508.

Smetana, J.G. (1995a) Morality in context: Abstractions, ambiguities, and applications, in: R. Vasta (Ed.), Annals of Child Development, Vol. 10, pp. 83-130 (London, Jessica Kinglsey).

Smetana, J. G. (1995b) Parenting styles and conceptions of parental authority during adolescence. Child Development, 66, pp. 299-316.

Smetana, J.G. (1997) Parenting and the development of social knowledge reconceptualized: A social domain analysis, in: J.E. Grusec & L. Kuczynski (Eds), Parenting and the Internalization of Values, pp. 162-192 (New York, Wiley).

Smetana, J G & Killen, V (1991) Perceptions of school violence as a problem: A National Survey of School Social Workers, 42 (1), 55-68.

Smith, D & Jarjoura, R (1988) Social structure and criminal victimization. Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency.

Sotirios, S (1996) Children in three contexts. Journal of Children in Australia, vol 21, no. 3, pp. 23-31.

Steinberg, L., Mounts, N.S., Lamborn, S.D., & Dornbusch, S.M. (1991) Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment across varied ecological niches. Journal of Research on Adolescence, 1, pp. 19-36.

Sternberg, S, Gardner, L. (1987) Beyond Piaget. Journal of Adolescence, 15, 301-306

Stroufe, K, Cooper, M., (1988) Paigetian perspectives on children's cognitive development. Association for childhood education international. 23, 7-19 ((new York, Dutton).

Tapper, A (1993) Welfare and juvenile crime in Mike Nahan and Tony Rutherford, (eds.), reform and recovery. Institute of Public Affairs, 3, pp. 32-40.

Tariel, G. (1983) A longitudinal study of self-esteem: Implications for adolescent development. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 26, 117-142.

Tariel, G. (1998) The collectivist nature of ethnic identity. Adolescence, 31, 645-661.

Taylor Enterprises Inc, 2003, What are the origins of the "square root of n plus one" sampling rule? http://www.variation.com/FAQs.htm.

Terry-Humen, E., Manlove, J. & Moore, K. (2000) Births outside of marriage: Perceptions versus reality. Child Trends Research Brief, (Washington, DC: Child Trends)

The Independent, (2004) Table PC-PS. Single years of age under 30 and sex: 2000.

Thelen, J & Adolph, J. S., (1992) The nature of adolescence (3rd ed.) (New York, Routledge).

Theories and Approaches, 2004: http://www.etr.org/recapp/theories/AdolescentDevelopment/developmentalTheories.htm

Thomas, S. (1990) Beyond appearance: A new look at adolescent girls. Washington, DC: American psychological Association.

Tisak, M. (1995) Domains of social reasoning and beyond, in: R. VASTA (Ed.), Annals of child development, Vol. 11, pp. 95-130 (London, Jessica Kingsley).

Tomaszeski, L, 2001, An Overview of the Psychosocial Issues That Impact Family's Affected by HIV/AIDS, http://www.dcmsonline.org/jax-medicine/2001journals/junejuly2001/psychosocial.htm.

Turiel, E. (1983) The Development of Social Knowledge: morality and convention (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press).

Turiel, E. (1998) Moral development, in: W. Damon (Ed.), Handbook of Child Psychology, 5th Edition, Volume 3: N. Eisenberg (Ed.), Social, Emotional, and Personality Development, pp. 863-932 (New York: Wiley).

Turiel, E., Smetana, J.G., & Killen, M. (1991) Social contexts in social-cognitive development, in: W.M. Kurtines & J.L. Gewirtz (Eds), Handbook of Moral Behavior and Development, Vol. 2: research, pp. 307-332 (Hillsdale, Erlbaum).

US Bureau of the Census, 1991.

APPENDIX A

LETTER FROM DEPARTMENT

YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY
NOORDWES UNIVERSITEIT

DEPARTMENT OF FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

Private Bag X2046
MMABATHO, 2735
Republic of South Africa
Tel +27 18 389 2550/2500/2191
Fax +27 18 389 2485/392 5775
Email: assant@uniwest.ac.za

Date : 04/08/2004

Your reference :

Our reference : STF/TEBA

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Miss Portia Morebodi, student number 19615326 is currently busy with his/her research project for MEd on "Effect of single parenthood on school going adolescence".

It would be appreciated if she is accorded the necessary assistance.

Thank you for your co-operation

Tom Assan
HEAD
DEPARTMENT OF FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH WEST
Head of Department
2004 -08- 04
Foundations of Education
PRIVATE BAG X2046 · MMABATHO 2735

APPENDIX B

LETTER FROM MINISTRY

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

EPHONE: (267) 3901263
: (267) 3975899

REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

CHIEF EDUCATION OFFICER
SOUTH CENTRAL REGION
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION
PRIVATE BAG 00343
GABORONE
BOTSWANA

REO 73452

2nd August 2004

Ms. P. G. Morebodi
P Bag BR164
Gaborone

Dear Madam

RE: YOUR RESEARCH PROJECT

Following your request to conduct interviews with some secondary school children in the South Central Region, the Department of Secondary Education is pleased to inform you that your request has been considered and approved.

You are reminded of the need to ensure that your research does not adversely affect the normal teaching timetable of your subjects.

Yours faithfully,

M P K Mathabathi
For/ CHIEF EDUCATION OFFICER (SCR)

APPENDIX C

REQUEST TO SCHOOL HEADS

North West University
Department of Foundations of Education
Private Bag X2046
Mmabatho, 2735
Republic of South Africa

Tel: +27 18 389 2550/2500/2191
Fax: +27 18 389 2485/392 5775

Date 11/08/2004

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Request for you to participate in my study

I am a Masters Degree student in the Department of educational Foundations at North West University in South Africa. As a partial fulfillment of the Masters Degree requirement, I am planning to conduct a study in your school on ' the effects of single parenthood on school-going adolescents in Gaborone District of Botswana'.

The study will involve students at your school completing a questionnaire for about 10 to 15 minutes.

The distribution of the questionnaire will be arranged such that it will be at your convenience. To maintain confidentiality, respondents will not be asked to give their names. The information gathered will remain confidential and will be used for educational purposes only.

I look forward to your participation in this study.

Regards,

Ms. Portia Morebodi

Cut along this line

Consent Form

I ..... agree that I will participate in your study. I realize that no harm will be done to my school and me and that this information will be used for educational purposes only.

Signed: .....

Date: .....

North West University
Department of Foundations of Education
Private Bag X2046
Mmabatho, 2735
Republic of South Africa

Tel: +27 18 389 2550/2500/2191
Fax: +27 18 389 2485/392 5775

Date 11/08/2004

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Request for you to participate in my study

I am a Masters Degree student in the Department of educational Foundations at North West University in South Africa. As a partial fulfillment of the Masters Degree requirement, I am planning to conduct a study in your school on ' the effects of single parenthood on school-going adolescents in Gaborone District of Botswana'.

The study will involve students at your school completing a questionnaire for about 10 to 15 minutes.

The distribution of the questionnaire will be arranged such that it will be at your convenience. To maintain confidentiality, respondents will not be asked to give their names. The information gathered will remain confidential and will be used for educational purposes only.

I look forward to your participation in this study.

Regards,

Ms. Portia Morebodi

Cut along this line

Consent Form

I ..... agree that I will participate in your study. I realize that no harm will be done to my school and me and that this information will be used for educational purposes only.

Signed: .....

Date: .....

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A - BIBLIOGRAPHICAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Kindly answer the following questions by crossing X on the appropriate block.

1. **Your age category**

1.1	Below 16	☐
1.2	16 to 18	☐
1.3	Above 18	☐ Specify _____

2. **Gender**

Male	☐
Female	☐

3. **Form**

Below Form Four	☐
Form Four	☐
Form Five	☐

4. **School location**

Town	☐
Village	☐

5. **Whom do you stay with at home?**

Both parents	☐
Mother only	☐
Father only	☐
Other	☐ Specify _____

6. **Educational status of parent/guardian:**

Primary Certificate	☐
Junior Certificate	☐
'O' Level	☐
Tertiary	☐
No Educational Background	☐

SECTION B: Effects of single-parenthood on the school-going adolescents.

Please indicate your opinion on the following issues by ticking ✓

Key

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

7. **How do you describe your home background?**

		1	2	3	4	5
7.1	I get along with my parent/guardian very well					
7.2	I get enough attention from my parent/guardian					
7.3	My parent/guardian is always around to help me					
7.4	My parent/guardian does not abuse drugs and/or alcohol					
7.5	My parent/guardian does not fight/quarrel					
7.6	I am comfortable to invite my friends home					
7.7	I am always happy when I am at home					
7.8	My parent/guardian does not abuse me physically					
7.9	Home is quiet and conducive to study					
7.10	I have support from my parent/guardian with schoolwork					

8. Your feedback on your schoolwork

		1	2	3	4	5
8.1	I have problems getting my homework done on time					
8.2	I have fallen behind in some of my subjects					
8.3	My school reports are always satisfactory					
8.4	I have failed some of the subjects I am doing					
8.5	I have repeated a Form/Grade					
8.6	I have feelings of rejection because I am from a single parent/guardian household					
8.8	I have always felt like quitting school					

9. Your feedback on your social life

		1	2	3	4	5
9.1	I am satisfied with the amount of pocket money I get from my parent/guardian					
9.2	I do not have difficulties making friends					
9.3	My classmates do not call me names or joke about me					
9.4	I have bullied others at school					
9.5	I have bullied others outside the school grounds					
9.9	I have fighting or quarrelling problems with teachers/administrators					
9.7	I feel shy or awkward about myself					

SECTION C – PLEASE OUTLINE YOUR VIEWS ABOUT YOUR PERFORMANCE AND INTEREST IN SCHOOLWORK IN THE NEXT SET OF QUESTIONS

10. Do children from single households experience problems as a result of their family set up?

Yes ☐ / No ☐

If Yes please describe the nature of problems.

_____

_____

_____

11. Do children from single parent households receive different treatment at school as a result of their family set up?

Yes ☐ / No ☐

If Yes please explain your answer.

_____

_____

_____

12. Do children from single households find it difficult to balance school work and social life as a result of their family set up?

Yes ☐ / No ☐

If Yes please explain your answer.

_____

_____

_____

13. Do you think children from single households need more guidance and counselling at school?

Yes ☐ / No ☐

If Yes please explain your answer.

_____

_____

_____

14. Do you think school administrators should take specific action to assist/support children from single households?

Yes ☐ / No ☐

If Yes please explain your answer.

_____

_____

_____

15. **Mention the challenges that you face at home and school regarding your family support and schoolwork.**