An Investigation into the Relationship Between Social Background and Inappropriate Motor Behaviour of School Pupils in Selected Western Schools

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1993
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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, do hereby solemnly declare that this dissertation represents my own work: that it has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or another university.

Signed ..............................................

Date ................................./............
This dissertation of Fredrick Simate is approved as fulfilling part of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education by the University of Zambia.

Signature: ........................................ Date: ..............................

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DEDICATION

To my dear sister, Monde, who made it possible for me to be educated.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

my sincere gratitude and indebtedness go to my supervisor, Dr. O.C. Chakulimba for his invaluable advice and encouragement during the writing of this dissertation. His patience and tireless effort helped to make this work materialise.

I would like to thank the Chief Education Officer for Lusaka region for giving me permission to do my research in schools in this region. My appreciation also go to the headmasters, headmistresses and senior teachers of the schools I visited for the assistance they gave me. I am indebted also to the Directorate of Manpower Development and Planning for making it possible for me to study under their sponsorship.

Special thanks and appreciation go to my wife, Hilda, who has been a source of inspiration and for her patience. I extend my thanks to my children, Sepiso, Joseph, Abel and Ruth who missed my love during the many times I was away from home.

To each of these and friends too many to mention who had a part to play in the production of this work, I say thank you.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not there was a relationship between home-background of pupils and indiscipline in selected Zambian secondary schools. The sample consisted of 102 Grade Eleven pupils aged from 17 to 18. It was subdivided into two groups of 51 each. Group 1 comprised the problem pupils and Group 2 the non-problem pupils. Participants were drawn from five day secondary schools in Lusaka. Data for this study were collected through a questionnaire administered to pupils to provide information on the following aspects of the home-background: parental occupation, housing conditions, overcrowding, family size, family disruption, family tension and frequency of physical punishment. Data were analysed by the use of the mean, standard deviation and percentages. Statistical significance was tested by the use of the chi-square and the z test.

The study found that there was a significant relationship between indiscipline among secondary pupils and all, except one home-background variable, namely: frequency of physical punishment.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background to the problem

There has been much talk for some time now on the problem of indiscipline in Zambian secondary schools. Mwanakatwe (1974), for example, has observed that this is one phase in which educational development has followed an unworthy course since independence. He points out that there have been numerous acts of indiscipline among our pupils. A report in the Sunday Times of Zambia of January 3, 1984 also points out that lack of order and discipline has become the biggest problem in the classroom.

Indiscipline among pupils has become a major cause of concern to educational authorities because of the increase in the number of suspensions and expulsions from school. These punitive measures meted out to offending pupils, have, in most cases, failed to deter pupils from indulging in acts of indiscipline. The Daily Mail of September 15, 1989 reports that between January and September 1989, as many as seventy-two pupils were expelled from schools in Chipata alone for committing various offences. The Daily Mail of November 28, 1989 also reports that ten pupils from schools in Mongu district died while trying to terminate pregnancies since January of the same year.

Discussions concerning indiscipline among pupils have mostly centred on aggressive and disruptive behaviour,
acts of vandalism, drug abuse, drunkenness, strikes, smoking, stealing, promiscuity and other offences against school rules and regulations. Such acts of indiscipline are discredited for they tend to undermine the very purpose and function of schooling which is to develop the potential of each citizen to the full for his own well-being as well as that of society and for self-less service to his fellow men" (Zambia Educational Reforms: proposals and recommendations, 1977: 1).

This study is based on the assumption that indiscipline among pupils is a result of the influence of an unfavourable home environment. Researchers have generally argued that troublesome pupils usually come from the lower socio-economic strata of our society, with its greater incidence of disrupted homes. Notwithstanding divergent trends in research findings many researchers have clung to the premise that tightly knit and intact homes will most often produce well adjusted children who will remain free from trouble (Sybouts, 1967). A report in the Sunday Times of Zambia of June 13, 1989 entitled: 'Causes of delinquency' also attributes delinquency among pupils to home-background factors such as disharmony in the home, faulty methods of discipline and parents' failure to set good examples of behaviour for children to emulate.

The Problem

The purpose of this study is to examine the
relationship between the home-background of pupils and indiscipline in Zambian secondary schools. The study seeks to answer the question: is there a relationship between indiscipline and the home-background of pupils? In trying to answer this question, the study attempts to measure the following aspects of the home environment and discover the extent to which each is correlated with indiscipline among secondary school pupils: (a) material and economic factors - parental occupation, housing conditions, overcrowding and family size, and (b) emotional factors - family disruption, family tension, and frequency of physical punishment.

**Hypothesis**

On the basis of the problem above, the following hypothesis was constructed: there is a relationship between pupils' home environment and indiscipline in school.

**Significance of the study**

A study of the pupils' home environment is important to teachers and policy makers because the home is an important factor in the learning process. Some of the behavioural problems which, hitherto, have been thought to be hereditary, have been shown to be due to emotional stress and other problems emanating from the home (Classey and Weeks, 1950). Therefore, it is hoped that the findings of this study will provide information that will help teachers and administrators in dealing with undisciplined
pupils. Additionally, the findings of this study may form the basis for policy makers' introduction of behaviour modification techniques in schools.

Limitations of the study

The study has two major limitations. Firstly, indiscipline among pupils may be a result of many home-background factors. However, not all home-background factors were investigated. Ideally, it would have been better to examine all the factors which may affect the behavioural development of children in the home, including for example, birth order, parental education and mother at work. Therefore the findings of this study may not give a complete picture of the influence of the home environment. Secondly, the study was only conducted in five secondary schools and its findings are based on a relatively small sample of 10% subjects. Therefore, this study cannot claim to have found results that can be applied to all secondary schools in Zambian. Thus, the findings of this study should be applied with caution to the question of indiscipline in Zambian secondary schools.

Definitions of terms as used in the study

Social class refers to a category of people within a system of social stratification who have a similar socio-economic status in relation to other segments of their community or society.

Family size refers to the number of living children (including the sample pupil) in the family irrespective of whether they were staying at home or not.
home-background refers to the type of home environment (incorporating the family and the community) that a pupil comes from.

overcrowding refers to high density conditions of more than three persons per room in a given house regardless of the size of the rooms.

deviance refers to failure to conform to institutional rules, norms or regulations.

unfavourable home environment refers to:

a) a broken home, i.e. a home characterised by the absence of both or one of the pupil's natural parents.

b) a home situated in a high density area or shanty compound.

c) a home in which the parents or the guardians are employed in unskilled and low paying manual occupations.

d) a home which has a family consisting of more than six children.

e) a home in which there is family tension characterised by quarrelling and fighting among parents.

f) a home in which physical punishment is frequently employed to discipline children.

organisation of the remaining chapters

Chapter two is a review of related literature. The methodology used to test the hypothesis, characteristics of the sample, instruments used to collect data, scoring procedures, data collection procedures and data analysis are all discussed in chapter three. Chapter four contains the presentation of results. The discussion of results is done in chapter five and chapter six gives the
conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURES

This chapter reviews literature concerning

a) material and economic factors - parental occupation, housing conditions, overcrowding, family size and b) emotional factors - family disruption, family tension, and frequency of physical punishment in relation to indiscipline.

Material and Economic Factors

So far very little seems to have been done in Zambia concerning the home-background of pupils and indiscipline. Because of this, very little is known about the relationship between the home-background of pupils and indiscipline. However, much has been said about this subject, especially in the Zambian mass media. For instance, a report in the Sunday Times of Zambia of January 8, 1984 entitled 'Teachers Need Help From Parents' has shown that problems of indiscipline emanate mainly from the home environment. Another report in the same paper of June 18, 1989, also attributes delinquency and indiscipline among pupils to home-background factors.

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Elsewhere, especially in the West, a number of studies have been done about the behaviour of adolescents and their home environments. For the most part, these studies have tended to employ the socio-economic status construct. There is considerable evidence in the literature that shows that problem pupils usually come from the lower socio-economic classes. This is mainly due to the failure of parents to satisfy material needs for children (Cragoey, 1959; Glassley and Weeks, 1950; Clark and Wenninger, 1962; Reiss and Rhodes, 1961; Willie, 1967 and Becker, 1968). Since the present study was conducted in Lusaka, one of the country's most urbanised areas, it was felt that these studies could be applicable to Zambia as a whole and have, therefore, been reviewed here.

**Parental Occupation**

The most important determinant of a person's adult status in Western societies is generally his occupation. Parental occupation is important in the behavioural development of a child because it determines the parents' ability to feed, clothe and to house him adequately. Poverty tends to be correlated with the development of bad habits and attitudes of mind among children (Becker, 1968). Many studies comparing rates of juvenile delinquency and
other forms of anti-social behaviour seem to provide
evidence to support theories based on economic deprivation.
According to these theories, the lower classes are
disadvantaged in their struggle for legitimate goals.
Consequently, they resort to deviant ways of obtaining
them (Becker, 1963).

In a study conducted by Galloway (1982) in the city
of Sheffield, information was obtained from thirty
comprehensive schools and their feeding primary schools
on undisciplined pupils who missed about fifty per cent
of possible attendance in an autumn term. He found that
persistent absenteeism was closely associated with
socio-economic hardship in the schools' catchment area.

Housing conditions and overcrowding

Social scientists have generally expressed concern
at the effects of over-population on human behaviour.
Evidence from research by Galle, et al (1972) has shown that
high density living conditions are related to social and
psychological pathology. A number of other studies have
shown that children are more aggressive in high density
environments and tend to display withdrawal behaviour
(Scree, 1972; Smith and Connoly, 1972 and Modin, 1976).

Shaw and McKay (1942) have shown that in the United States
and presumably elsewhere, juvenile delinquents usually
come from places which are characterised by bad housing
and lack of social amenities.
Psychologists have also examined the effects of overcrowding in some environments such as classrooms, play rooms and play grounds and have found that children when placed in overcrowded environments engage in less social interaction and exhibit more solitary behaviour (Hutt and Vanizey, 1966; Loo, 1972 and McGrew, 1970).

Family size

This is another potent factor that has been noted repeatedly as a correlate of misbehaviour in children (Heid, 1982; Clausen, 1966; Stott, 1966 and Moore et al, 1984). Rossard (1955) describes the large family as one with six or more children. This matches with United Nations specifications. The size of the family has an effect on the quality of interactions and relationships among members. Within the large family the amount of time and attention parents devote to any given child is lessened, making effective socialisation almost impossible (Clausen, 1966). Furthermore, the strain on economic resources is greater in the larger family. This may force children to resort to deviant means of satisfying material needs. Studies have also shown that parents in large families are more likely to use physical punishment and less likely to use symbolic rewards as techniques of control and discipline. Children from such homes tend to be stubborn.

Emotional Factors

A pupil is not only affected by the material conditions of his home, but the emotional atmosphere of
his home as well. Trojanowicz (1973), for example, has shown that emotional problems directly related to misbehaviour among the youth and adolescents may be traced back to childhood deprivations in the family. Aichorn (1969) has also stressed the importance of the family in providing love, security and acceptance for the child. He contends that hostility, shallow family relationships, little concern for the child and the absence of adequate role models are likely to result in behavioural problems. Hollingshead (1960) has also shown that the home an adolescent comes from conditions in a very definite manner the way he behaves in his relationship with the school, his peers and the family. He argues that the behaviour patterns and conceptions of right or wrong, of self, of others and of society learned by the child in the home and neighbourhood, are carried into the school and other areas of the community life.

Family disruption

A number of researchers subscribe to the thesis that problem children come more often than not from broken homes (Short, 1966; Miller, 1953; Farnsworth, 1934; Gardner, 1974; Kalter, 1977 and Metherington, 1976). The loss of a parent through death, desertion, divorce or separation has negative consequences on children (Gardner, 1974; Metherington, 1976; Kalter, 1977 and Mohanan, 1966).
marital disruption, whether by death or separation, also alters the life situation of the remaining parent or custodial parent (Ambert, 1932). In both instances, it is the mother who usually faces financial problems (Janes, 1976). With the failure to satisfy their material needs children in such circumstances tend to fend for themselves and may get into trouble.

Gregory (in Nutter, 1972) in his findings concluded that delinquency rate was higher in boys if father was absent but higher in girls if mother was the absent parent. Nutter (1972) also reports other findings that associate parental death with a slight rise in delinquency among the affected children. These findings concur with the findings of Lynn and Sawrey (1959) in a study conducted in Norway. They found that in most cases father-absence had a significantly negative effect on boys and girls.

This problem was also noted by Miller and Davids (1973) who demonstrated that boys from father-less households lacked maturity and exhibited inadequate peer adjustment, lack of social responsibility and tended to avoid competitive games. Watts (1984) also argues that a broken home may disturb the child psychologically and emotionally and deprive him of valuable parental help, encouragement and guidance and lead him to seek psychological sustenance and security outside the family, for example, with the peer group of drop-outs which is considered to be a breeding ground of juvenile delinquency.
Researchers have also tried to show the effects of father-absence on the level of boys aggression. Trunell (1968), McCord et al (1962), and Sylie and Belagado (1959) have demonstrated over expression of aggression, antagonistic and anti-social behaviour among father-absent boys.

The absence of either parent may also cause a certain amount of affectional loss for the child. In addition, the complimentary control, example and guidance given by both parents is lacking and effective socialisation of the child may be rendered more difficult (Mohanan, 1966). In cases of desertion, the child may be exposed to a highly emotionalised atmosphere of discontent and discord; the parents may fight over the child's custody and the child may be torn between two warring factions. Children from such homes tend to be undisciplined. Oloruntumehin (1974) in a study of 91 delinquent pupils and 91 non-delinquent pupils in various approved schools in Lagos, concluded that broken home was an important factor in the explanation of juvenile delinquency.

Bagley (1972) in a study of immigrant children in maintained primary and secondary schools in England and Wales also found that children who had experienced separation had much higher behaviour problems than children who had no such experience. Metherington et al. (1979) have indicated that compared with children from intact families both boys and girls whose parents had divorced a year before showed more dependent and acting-out behaviour.
Studies of juvenile delinquents who have made confessions, however, have tended to produce conflicting results. Farnsworth (1934) in her study of black males and females from low income families in New York found that few family factors were related to juvenile delinquency. Hyde (1953) also suggests that broken but happy homes produce less delinquency, better parental relations and fewer psychosomatic symptoms than do unbroken but unhappy homes.

These findings seem to be supported by Hiller's findings (in McCord et al. 1962) in a study conducted among Norwegian mothers. He found that mothers whose husbands were away tended to be overprotective and stressed the importance of obedience. This implies that the behaviour of children from such homes may not be affected by the absence of the father. These findings seem to weaken the cogency of the broken home thesis to explain indiscipline among Zambian secondary school pupils.

Family tension

Considerable research evidence has been presented to support the contention that family tension and conflict play an important role in the development of indiscipline among pupils. Studies suggest that the family's failure to provide the child with a proper degree of security and affection affects the child adversely and may result in improper forms of behaviour (Griffin and Griffin, 1973; Uloruntunshin, 1974 and Moore et al, 1984). Thurston
et al (1964) have presented evidence to show that the following factors appear repeatedly in the home situation of children who are constant classroom deviants: the parents are either indifferent or even hostile to the child, the husband-wife relationship lacks closeness and equality of partnership and the parents may have many things to complain about the child.

Hostility and rejection make it difficult for children to accept parents as role models from whom to learn appropriate behaviour patterns (Griffin and Griffin, 1973). A child who grows up in such a home may not learn or develop the inner controls needed to inhibit anti-social behaviour and may not develop a positive image of himself. A low self image may lead to alienation, frustration and misbehaviour.

One of the theories used to explain misbehaviour among the adolescents is the social bonding theory. This theory focuses on the role of social institutions and institutional relationships in constraining deviant behaviour (Massey and Krohn, 1936). Hirschi (1969) identifies four elements of the social bond - attachment, commitment, involvement and belief. When any of the elements of the social bond is weakened, the probability of involvement in misbehaviour is increased. The parental attachment element includes ties to both mother and father and a measure of parental supervision. According to Massey and Krohn (1936), children who have a great deal of regard for their relationship with their parents are
aware of the harmful effects that deviance would have on those ties.

Research on adolescent deviance has repeatedly shown that there is a relationship between the quality of effective ties to the family and deviant behaviour (Datesman and Scarpetti, 1975; Nutter, 1975; Hirschi, 1969; Roole and Negoli, 1979 and Wiatrowski et al, 1981). It is also argued that poor relationships with parents may reduce the barrier against peer influence on adolescent smoking. Gibson (1969) has shown that there is a tendency for bad behaviour in school to be associated with underconcern among mothers and with high authoritarianism among fathers. Bandura and Walters (1959) have also shown that highly aggressive boys have parents who strongly disapprove, reprimand and punish aggression in the home. They report that non-aggressive boys exhibit greater father preference and more frequently perceive themselves as thinking and acting like their fathers than do aggressive boys. Other studies have shown that the fathers of aggressive boys are relatively non-nurturant and do not reward their sons’ good behaviour in the home.

In a study conducted in Zambia to determine the extent to which the generation gap existed between secondary school youths and their parents, Mwanalushi (1980) pointed out that University of Zambia students identified the following problems as being characteristic of youths in Zambia: a) lack of parental guidance; b) confusion;
'trying to adjust to a changing world and not knowing what to do due to adult demands', and c) being misunderstood by elders. It was believed that the young people felt misunderstood, confused, and perceived their parents as inadequate role models because they were caught up in a conflict of values. On the one hand were the traditional values espoused by most of their parents and on the other hand were new values ushered in by rapid social change, urbanisation, western type of education and industrialisation.

These differences generate misunderstandings and ultimately give rise to tension and conflict between the youths and adults. New values and life-styles which have emerged as a result of modernisation are not in harmony with traditional values and life-styles espoused by most parents of today's youth in Zambia. Youths in secondary schools and in institutions of higher learning are beginning to challenge these traditional values and modes of life as they are perceived to be irrelevant to the present.

Maanalushi (1980) investigated evidence for a) locus of control and authority, and b) inter-personal relations. The results showed that, whereas only a few adolescents quarrel with their parents, a large proportion experiences some difficulties in communicating with their parents and many of them do not agree with their parents over their choice of friends. This may lead to alienation and lack of
control which in turn may lead to misbehaviour.

Coombs et al (1991) found similar results in a study conducted among Hispanic and Anglo children and youths. The findings showed that youths, regardless of drug use behaviour, generally reported stronger affiliations with their parents than with their peers. A greater proportion of drug users felt that they were better understood by their friends and respected their views than their parents views.

These results support the increasing arguments that family factors underlie youthful drug use (Glynn, 1981; Hawkins et al, 1985; Kandel, 1985; Coombs (1988). Although both drug users and abstainers value peer acceptance, this does not lead to drug use when positive inter-personal relationships exist between parents and youths. These findings are similar to the findings of Zarb (1990) in her study of referred girls with family problems in a Canadian working class area. Referred subjects tended to give negative descriptions (e.g. abnormal) of their parents. In contrast the controls used a significantly higher percentage of positive descriptions (e.g. patient).

Frequency of physical punishment

Parents' inability to provide consistent and appropriate discipline is often cited as a major cause of indiscipline among the adolescents (Kutter, 1975; Bandura and Walters, 1959; Moore et al, 1984 and
Glassey and Weeks, 1950). When parents are inconsistent in the administration of discipline, adequate behavioural controls may not be established (Glueck and Glueck, 1930).

According to Griffin and Griffin (1978), erratic and inefficient discipline is evident when punishment is unevenly applied. It may involve the use of inconsistent methods for a single type of behaviour, or it may be inconsistent punishment where the child is disciplined only occasionally for a particular misdeed. Erratic punishment may also involve the inability of parents to agree on proper disciplinary techniques. One parent may be lax while the other may be severe. Whereas some parents may be weak and try to enlist obedience from their children by threats and noisy outbursts, some parents may be too strict. Where a rigid attitude is taken up and the child is made to conform to strict rules, there is a tendency to be rebellious and obstinate (Glassey and Weeks, 1950). On the other hand, some parents may be too lax and allow their children to go their own way without any form of control.

A common finding of many studies is that moral behaviour in children is stronger where parents employ psychological techniques and where there is little recourse to physical punishment (Bandura and Walters, 1959 and Morrison and McIntre, 1971). McCord et al, (1962) have argued that non-delinquent behaviour is common among children who have experienced consistent,
well reasoned out, love oriented disciplinary measures than among children who have received erratic discipline. Bandura and Walters (1959) have indicated that the aggressive boys' fathers are much more punitive than those of the non-aggressive boys. This finding suggests that the punitive coercion favoured by the former group of fathers has in most respects decreased their effectiveness as models for their sons to emulate.

These views concur with the findings of Part (1990) in her study of referred adolescent girls with family problems in a Canadian working-class area. With regard to typical disciplinary styles, referred subjects reported a higher incidence of disciplinary styles falling into the combined category of physical punishment and lax-inconsistent/threats to harm/neglect. Included in the category of threats to harm/neglect were reports of parents' threats to kill the daughter or to expell her permanently from the home. Responses in the latter category have been grouped together as techniques that, apart from physical abuse have been deemed ineffective in the literature, and linked to child and adolescent psycholocal disorders (Becker, 1964; Herbert, 1990).

In contrast, control subjects reported a higher incidence of responses in the problem solve/withdrawal privileges category. This is consistent with the literature linking successful fostering of internalised rule formation in children to disciplinary techniques based on
threatened withdrawal of approval and love, and reasoning and explanations to back up parental decisions (Patterson, 1975; Wright, 1971).

Larsen (1990) also found that with respect to the adolescent inter-personal response styles in typical stressful situations approximately one third of the referred subjects gave an example of a typical upsetting situation involving a parent's use of physical punishment. Another third of the referred subjects gave an example in which they referred to the parents swearing or use of abusive language (e.g. "stupid mental case"). In comparison, only 9 per cent of the control subjects' responses fell into this combined category.

Summary of reviewed literature

The literature that has been reviewed demonstrates that the homes in which children grow up have a great influence on children's behavioural development. The influence of home-background factors such as parental occupation, housing conditions, overcrowding, family size, family disruption, family tension and frequency of physical punishment in relation to indiscipline among pupils has been noted by many researchers. There is considerable evidence in the literature to show that troublesome pupils usually come from lower socio-economic classes and from homes fraught with emotional problems.

Although much has been said, especially in the Jamaican mass media, in support of these views, it seems, however, that this has remained an assumption. No systematic study has been done in Jamaica to validate these
findings. In view of this, it is imperative that an investigation should be made along these lines. The present study, therefore, attempts to find out the relationship between indiscipline and pupils' home-background in Zambian secondary schools.

The next chapter presents the methodology of the study.
CHAPTER THREE

METODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the characteristics of the sample, research instruments, independent variables and scoring procedures, data collection procedures and data analysis.

Characteristics of the sample

The subjects for the study comprised a sample of 102 grade eleven pupils aged from 17 to 18. The sample was subdivided into two groups of 51 each. Group 1 comprised the problem pupils and group 2 the non-problem pupils. The homes and neighbourhoods of participants were quite varied, both socially and economically.

Participants were drawn from five different day secondary schools in Lusaka urban. These schools included one all-girls school, two all-boys schools, and two co-education schools. Three of these schools were grant-aided mission schools (see Table 1 on page 24). Boys are generally over-represented in secondary schools compared with girls. Hence, the larger number of boys in the sample as compared with girls.
TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS FROM EACH SECONDARY SCHOOL BY SEX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of school</th>
<th>No. of boys</th>
<th>No. of girls</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mbwani (boys)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matero (boys)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matero (girls)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libala (co-education)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamwala (co-education)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Totals**          | **67**      | **35**

**Research Instruments**

Data for this study were collected through a questionnaire administered to pupils (see Appendix A). It was designed in such a way that it would take into account all the independent variables mentioned in the problem. It was not felt necessary to prepare a separate questionnaire for the parents because the pupils were attending secondary schools and as such it was felt that they were old enough to provide all the necessary information on the home-background.

Apart from the general and specific questions asked in the questionnaire, a blank space was provided on which pupils were requested to write general comments about their
homes. These comments were to include specific things about their homes which were troubling them or things which were nice about their homes. The same questionnaire which was administered to the problem group of pupils was also administered to the non-problem group of pupils simultaneously.

**Independent variables**

There were seven independent variables altogether. Below is a discussion of the independent variables and their categories and scoring procedures.

a) **Parental occupation**

In this study parental occupation refers to the type of employment or business the parents are engaged in. Data on this variable were classified into two broad categories of manual and non-manual occupations. Instead of limiting parental occupation to fathers and male guardians only, it was decided to include mothers and female guardians in the assessment because of the prevalence of working mothers in Lusaka.

This variable was more difficult to assess than other variables for a number of reasons. Firstly, some of the pupils were not specific about the occupations of their parents. In such cases, to obtain a rough estimate of the category in which the parents' occupation belonged, the occupation was
matched with what the respondent considered to be the economic status of his parents. Since some studies have shown that in developing countries a modern education is a common prerequisite to obtaining a place among the elite, occupation was also matched with the parents' level of education. Secondly, the reader needs to be aware that when employing any means of categorisation such as this, there will be some overlap and disagreement in the placing of certain occupations. Some manual occupations may be more highly paid than some non-manual occupations. Measures were taken to curb against anomalies of this nature by giving such occupations higher scores.

Thirdly, some occupations such as those which fall in the managerial category were quite difficult to categorise because of the wide range of functions they covered. Therefore, caution was exercised in awarding points so that a poor business was not awarded more points and vice-versa.

Points on the occupational scale were awarded on Miller's (1970) eight-point occupational status hierarchy scale (see Appendix B).

b) housing conditions

This variable was investigated by determining the distribution of problem pupils and non-problem pupils among the four categories of residential areas in Lusaka, namely, low density, medium density,
high density and shanty compounds. Since one of the respondents did not indicate his place of residence, only fifty pairs were used. Points were awarded on a four point scale. The highest score was four for low density areas while the lowest score was one for shanty compounds.

c) **overcrowding**

This variable was assessed by determining the degree of overcrowding in the home taking into account the number of rooms in the house in relation to the number of occupants regardless of the size of the rooms. Points were awarded on a five-point scale at the rate of five points for a room which was occupied by only one occupant and one point for a room which had more than four occupants as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of occupants</th>
<th>No. of rooms</th>
<th>Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) **family size**

This variable was assessed by the number of living children (including the sample pupil) in the family irrespective of whether they were staying at home or not. **Family size was divided into two**
categories, i.e. those families with six children or less and those families with more than six children. In attempting to analyse the influence of family size on the behaviour of children one needs to be aware of some fundamental methodological problems. One of the limitations of statistical surveys aimed at isolating the influence of different factors is that the influence of any one factor may depend upon the total social context in which it operates. Family size, therefore, may have different implications for children of manual workers as compared with children on non-manual workers. Thus, while family size may be independently associated with behaviour, it must be pointed out that it may also be associated with other factors such as income.

e) family disruption

Parents' marital status was classified into three major categories, namely: married, separated and divorced. The aim was to ascertain whether or not there were significantly more broken homes among the families of the problem group of pupils than among families of the non-problem group of pupils. Two points were given if parents still lived together, one if they were separated and zero if they were divorced. Only fifty pairs were used since one respondent did not indicate the parents' marital status.
f) **Family tension**

Factors taken into account in the assessment of this variable included, (a) the degree of happiness demonstrated by parents as husband and wife and (b) the degree of unhappiness demonstrated by the sample pupil at home. For item (a) points were awarded on a five-point scale ranging from very happy to very unhappy. The highest possible score was five points for a very happy relationship and the lowest score was one point for a very unhappy relationship. There were only twenty-seven problem pupils and thirty non-problem pupils who came from homes where parents or guardians were married or remarried and living together happily or unhappily. For item (b) points were also awarded on a five-point scale which ranged from five points to one point which indicated great unhappiness.

g) **Frequency of physical punishment**

This variable was assessed by the frequency of physical punishment. Points were awarded on a five-point scale with parents who frequently resort to physical punishment to discipline their children getting less points and those who rarely resort to physical punishment getting more points. The aim was to ascertain whether or not there were more parents of the problem pupils who resorted to physical punishment as compared with the parents of the non-problem pupils.
Data collection procedure

Data were collected during the months of May to July 1980. It was not possible to collect data from all the schools on the dates which were set. At some of the schools the survey was interrupted by co-curricular and extra curricular events such as tests, club and sports meetings. At one school the administration of the questionnaires could not take place on the appointed date because all the chairs in the school were taken to a political rally. The survey was also interrupted by the outbreak of cholera in the city which led to an abrupt closure of all the schools in Lusaka.

It was felt that class teachers were in a better position to assess their pupils' behaviour. Each class teacher, therefore, was given a list of pupils in his/her class and discipline test questionnaires for each pupil. Information on how to complete the questionnaire appeared at the beginning of the questionnaire (see appendix C) but verbal explanations were given with examples on how to go about the exercise.

All the ticks appearing under 'often' were given two points each and those under 'sometimes' were given one point each. The maximum a subject could score was twelve points and the minimum was zero. In this way fifteen subjects with the lowest scores and fifteen with the highest scores were selected to form the non-problem and problem group of pupils respectively.
The researcher travelled personally to the selected schools and requested the deputy headmasters and senior teachers at each school to compile a list of fifteen problem pupils according to sex and fifteen non-problem pupils also according to sex. The selection of pupils for each group was done by class teachers and was based on information from official discipline registers such as punishment registers and records of suspensions and their own knowledge of the pupils.

Initially, 150 pupils were selected for the study, however, it turned out that some of them could not take part in the study for various reasons. In this way 100 pupils, 51 problem and 49 non-problem, were available for the study. The subjects were gathered in one room and the questionnaires were administered. The subjects were given forty-five minutes in which to complete the questionnaires; however, extra time was given to the slow pupils. The researcher personally supervised the exercise in order to answer any queries that might arise concerning the items in the questionnaire. The purpose of the study was explained and instructions were given.

In most cases pupils appeared to be apprehensive probably due to the involvement of deputy headmasters in the initial stages. Therefore, it was necessary for the researcher to assure them that the research had nothing to do with the teachers and the school authorities. In all cases, this proved to be helpful as pupils appeared to be at ease.
Data analysis

Data were analysed by the use of the mean, standard deviation and percentages. Since the data were measured in nominal categories, the chi-square and the Z test were employed to test statistical significance.

The next chapter presents the results.
CHAPTER FOUR
Presentation of results

This chapter presents the results of the statistical tests employed for each variable.

Parental occupation

In this study parental occupation refers to the type of employment or business the parents are engaged in. This variable was assessed by four items. The first item required the subjects to describe the occupation of their parents and guardians. The second item required the subject to describe the economic status of their parents or guardians on a five-point scale which ranged from very rich to very poor. The third item was also assessed by a five-point scale. Subjects were required to describe the parents or guardians' borrowing habits from very 'frequently' to 'never'. Parents or guardians' eligibility to mealie meal coupons was also investigated. The occupations of the parents or guardians were grouped in two general categories of manual and non-manual occupations according to Miller's eight-point occupational scale (see Appendix A).

The results showed that a higher proportion of problem pupils came from homes where parents were engaged in manual occupations as compared with the proportion of non-problem pupils whose parents were engaged in such occupations. The findings also showed that borrowing was prevalent among the parents of the problem group of pupils most of whom were recipients of mealie meal coupons.
This variable was subjected to the $z$ test. This is a two-tail test at 0.05 level of significance. The critical value of $z$, therefore, is 1.96. The results are presented below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DISTRIBUTION OF PROBLEM AND NON-PROBLEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUPILS ON THE VARIABLE OF PARENTAL OCCUPATION</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pupils' group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem (1)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-problem (2)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 above shows that the mean for the problem group is 3.0 and the standard deviation is 2.9 while the mean and standard deviation for the non-problem group of pupils are 12.1 and 5.43 respectively. The computed value of $z$ is 3.34 which is greater than the critical value of 1.96. Hence $z$ is statistically significant. This means that there is a significant relationship between parental occupation and pupils' indiscipline at school.

Housing conditions

This variable refers to the four categories of residential areas, namely: low density, medium density, high density and shanty compound. Percentages of pupils staying in particular localities were calculated. The results are shown in table 3.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residential Area</th>
<th>Pupils' Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low density</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium density</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High density</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shanty compound</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 above reveals that whereas 36 per cent and 40 per cent of the non-problem pupils live in low and medium density areas respectively, only 33 per cent and 24 per cent of the problem group of pupils live in such areas respectively. Whereas only 12 per cent and 2 per cent of the non-problem group of pupils live in high density and shanty compounds respectively 5 per cent and 22 per cent of the problem pupils live in such areas respectively. There is a marked difference in the percentage of non-problem pupils who live in shanty compounds (22%) and the percentage of problem pupils who live there (22%). The other sharp contrast is between the percentage of non-problem pupils who live in medium density areas (43%) as compared to the percentage of problem pupils who live there (24%).
This variable was also subjected to the chi-square test. The results are shown in Table 4 below.

**Table 4**

**Comparison of the Distribution of Non-problem and Problem Pupils Across the Four Main Residential Areas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residential Area</th>
<th>Problem Pupils</th>
<th>Non-problem Pupils</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low density</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium density</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High density</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shanty compound</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 10.028, df = 3, \( p < 0.05 \)

Table 4 shows that the computed value of chi-square is 10.028. This value is greater than the critical value of chi-square for three degrees of freedom which is 7.8 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, chi-square is significant. These data do establish a connection between type of residential area and indiscipline at school.

**Overcrowding**

This variable refers to the degree of overcrowding in the family, taking into account the number of rooms available in relation to the number of occupants. The \( z \) test was adopted as the most appropriate statistical test.
to employ in the analysis of this variable. This is a two-tail test. Therefore, the critical value of $z$ is 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. The results are given in table 5 below.

### Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupils' Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem (1)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-problem (2)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows that the computed value of $z$ is 3.07. This value is greater than the critical value of 1.96. Therefore, $z$ is statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance. These data do establish, at the 0.05 significance level, that there is a relationship between overcrowding and indiscipline at school.

**Family size**

This variable refers to the number of living children (including the sample pupil) in the family. Percentages of pupils coming from large families and pupils coming from small families were calculated. According to United Nations specifications a large family consists of six or more children. The results are given in table 6 on the next page.
**Table 6**

**Distribution of Problem and Non-problem Pupils on the Variable of Family Size**

| Pupils' Group | Family size | six children | more than six
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem (1)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-problem (2)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table six shows that whereas 62 per cent of the families of the non-problem group of pupils consisted of six children or less, only 38 per cent of families of problem children fell into this category. Likewise, 64 per cent of families of problem pupils had more than six children compared with only 37 per cent of families of children in group 2 who fell into this category.

Statistical significance was tested by using the chi-square. The results are given in table 7 on the next page.
### Table 7

**Distribution of Problem and Non-Problem Pupils by Family Size**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Size</th>
<th>Problem Pupils</th>
<th>Non-Problem Pupils</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\leq 6$</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt; 6$</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>55</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>115</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 10.4  df = 1  $p < 0.05$

Table 7 shows that the computed value of chi-square is 10.4. Reference to the chi-square table shows that this value is greater than the tabled value of chi-square of 3.341 for 1 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, chi-square is significant. These data do establish, at the 0.05 significance level, that family size differs significantly between non-problem and problem categories of pupils.

**Family Disruption**

This variable refers to parents' marital status. It was classified in three categories, namely: married, separated and divorced. The percentages of parents in each category were calculated. It was found that whereas 70 per cent of parents of non-problem pupils were married,
only 43 per cent of the parents of the problem pupils were married, whereas only 20 per cent of parents of non-problem pupils were divorced, 40 per cent of parents of problem pupils were divorced.

Chi-square was used to test statistical significance and the results are given in table 3 below.

Table 3

A COMPARISON OF PROBLEM AND NON-PROBLEM PUPILS ON THE VARIABLE PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parents' marital status</th>
<th>Pupils' group</th>
<th>problem</th>
<th>non-problem</th>
<th>totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>totals</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 7.93 df = 2 p < 0.05

Table 3 shows that the computed value of chi-square is 7.93. This value is greater than the critical value of chi-square for 2 degrees of freedom which is 5.99 at 0.05 level of significance. Thus, chi-square is statistically significant. This means that there is a relationship between parents' marital status and bad behaviour at school.
family tension

This variable had two items: (a) the degree of happiness or unhappiness demonstrated by the parents as husband and wife and (b) the degree of unhappiness or happiness demonstrated by the sample pupil at home. Item (a) was assessed by an item on a five-point scale which asked the subject to rate the degree of happiness or unhappiness of his or her parents' marriage on an attitude scale ranging from very happy to very unhappy. Item (b) was also assessed by an item which asked the subject to indicate how often, if ever, he or she contemplated running away from home and another item which asked the subject to rate the degree of his or her happiness or unhappiness while at home.

The t test was used to analyse both items. This is also a two-tail test. Therefore, the critical value of t is 1.60 at 0.05 level of significance. The results for item (a) are shown in Table 9 below.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupils' group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem (1)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-problem (2)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Comparison of Problem and Non-Problem Pupils on the Variable of Degree of Tension Demonstrated by Parents.
Table 9 shows that the mean for the problem group of pupils is 6.07 and the standard deviation is 5.0, while the mean and standard deviation for the non-problem group of pupils is 5.76 and 7.6 respectively. The computed value of z is 1.43 and this is slightly greater than the critical value of 1.96. This shows that z is statistically significant. These data, therefore, do show that there is a relationship between family tension and indiscipline.

For item (b) the mean for the problem group of pupils is 6.9 whereas that for the non-problem group of pupils is 5.3. The two groups had a similar standard deviation of 7.14. The computed value of z is 4.5 which is greater than the critical value of z for a two-tail test which is 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, z is statistically significant. This means that there is a relationship between family tension and misbehaviour at school.

**Frequency of physical punishment**

This variable was divided into two categories which included those parents who relied on physical punishment to discipline their children and those who did not. The z test was used to analyse this variable. It is also a two-tail test and, therefore, the critical value of z is 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. The results are shown in Table 10 on the next page.
TABLE 10

A COMPARISON OF PROBLEM AND NON-PROBLEM PUPILS ON THE VARIABLE OF FREQUENCY OF PHYSICAL PUNISHMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupils' Group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem (1)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-problem (2)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 above shows that the mean for the problem group of pupils is 7.1 and the standard deviation is 2.07 while the mean and standard deviation for the non-problem group are 6.4 and 5.48 respectively. The computed value of z is 0.02 which is less than the critical value of 1.96. Hence, z is not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance. This means that there is no relationship between frequency of physical punishment and bad behaviour at school.

**Summary of findings**

This study found significant differences between the problem group of pupils and the non-problem group of pupils on all except one variable, namely: frequency of physical punishment. The results do show that there is a significant relationship between parental occupation, area of residence, overcrowding, size of family, family disruption and family tension on one hand and indiscipline at school on the other hand. The results, however, do not
show that there is a relationship between frequency of physical punishment and indiscipline at school.

The chapter which follows discusses the results.
CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter discusses pertinent issues emanating from the findings of this study on the following home-background factors: parental occupation, housing conditions and overcrowding, family size, family disruption, family tension and frequency of physical punishment.

This study hypothesized that there was a relationship between pupils' home-background and indiscipline in school. The findings of this study seem to confirm our hypothesis. What follows is a discussion of results.

Parental occupation

This study found a significant relationship between parental occupation and pupils' bad behaviour at school. A higher proportion of problem pupils came from homes in which parents were engaged in manual low-paying jobs as compared with the proportion of non-problem pupils who came from such homes. This finding concurs with the findings of other studies (Galloway, 1932; Reid, 1932 and Shaw and McKay, 1942). With fairly large households to support and unskilled low-paying manual jobs, most of the families among the problem group of pupils seem to face extreme difficulties in making a living. Parents who are employed in low-paying manual jobs find it hard to meet the family's material needs. The result may be a disorganised family structure with little discipline and attention for the children.
Such an environment may have serious consequences for children and they may become undisciplined. The findings also reveal that due to small incomes on account of being engaged in poor manual occupations borrowing of money seems to be a common feature among the families of the problem group of pupils. They seem to be ever in debt.

Housing Conditions

This study shows that there is a significant relationship between living in high density areas and indiscipline among pupils. A higher proportion of pupils who come from shanty areas and crowded homes (22%) as compared with those who do not come from such areas and homes (7%) is undisciplined. Families of unskilled manual workers tend to live in small houses crowded together in the most densely populated and socially depressed areas of town with no social amenities. Consequently, many children have no place for their recreation except the streets.

Apart from physical effects, such an environment tends to produce un-matured and unhealthy mental attitudes in children (Closey and Seeks, 1950). The adventurous spirit of children is suppressed and they may seek an outlet in various forms of misconduct.

Another ill consequence of sub-standard housing is the lack of sufficient sleeping accommodation; boys and girls sleep in the same room as their parents. This may lead to unhealthy sexual curiosity and the formation of undesirable
habits which may lead to unwanted pregnancies and eventual expulsion from school.

**Family size**

There were more large families among the families of the problem group of pupils as compared with the families of the non-problem group of pupils who were mainly non-manual managerial workers of high social status. The findings of this study tie in with the views and findings of other researchers (Hodges, 1959; Glassey and Weeks, 1950 and Reid, 1982) which point to the large family as a crucial factor in behavioural development.

There seemed to be more concern in limiting family size among the parents of the non-problem group of pupils than among parents of the problem group of pupils. Family planning seemed to be more common among the elite group of parents than among parents from the lower social class who did not seem to have considered it as a possibility. It is evident from the data that the families in the higher social class have deviated from traditional norms in their positive attitudes towards family planning and their preferences for somewhat smaller families. The prime consideration seems to be economic, especially the financial burden of educating children. Such considerations seem to be non-existent among the parents of the problem group of pupils who are mainly from the lower socio-economic class and whose children seem to have a higher drop out rate from school.

There are several implications of a large family for indiscipline among children. Firstly, it is difficult to
satisfy children's material needs in a large family. As a result children tend to fend for themselves and may engage in stealing and other forms of anti-social behaviour. Secondly, effective socialisation of siblings in a large family is difficult. With no proper supervision children tend to learn bad habits from their peers. Furthermore, parents in a large family tend to rely more on physical punishment to discipline children. Children from such homes tend to be rebellious and obstinate (Glasssey and weeks, 1950).

Family disruption

A higher proportion of children from broken homes as compared with those from intact homes was found to be undisciplined. These findings are consistent with the findings of other writers such as Short, 1966; Miller, 1953; Farnsworth, 1984; Gardner, 1974; Matherington, 1976; Nater, 1977; Glasssey and weeks, 1950; Reid, 1982; Galloway, 1976 and Peterson and Zill, 1986.

The loss of a parent through death, divorce or separation may have negative effects on children and adolescents. The economic deprivation that often results from family disruption may affect the psychological and social well-being of children. Following a divorce or separation, most children live with their mothers whose income is likely to decrease markedly (Hoffman, 1977). Under such circumstances, children tend to fend for
themselves and may indulge in such activities as stealing in order to take care of themselves.

In situations where parents have remarried, the relationship between children of former marriages and step parents and their children may be strained. Step mothers sometimes look down upon step children and there is a tendency to regard them as rivals for their husbands' affection and attention (oloruntumehin, 1974). Consequently, they may try to divert their husbands' affection and attention to themselves and their children. In order to please their new wives the husbands may give differential treatment to the children of former wives as compared with the children of the new wives. Sometimes this may be in the form of non-satisfaction of material needs or the application of severe disciplinary measures to children of former wives. Children from such homes tend to be resentful and may develop bad habits and attitudes.

In families broken by divorce, the bitterness of the remaining parent may be transferred to the remaining children. Such children may feel victimised and misconduct may be just a way of expressing their anger and frustration (mohan, 1966). Additionally, the complimentary control, example and guidance given by both parents may be lacking and effective socialisation of the child may be rendered difficult. Children from such homes may develop bad traits of character.
The presence of more undisciplined boys than girls may be explained partly by the father-absence thesis which states that the effects of divorce are more severe and lasting for boys than for girls because more boys lose a same sex role model (Guibaldi and Perry, 1985; Hetherington et al, 1979; Wallerstein, 1984 and Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980). The father-absence thesis implies that the children whose mothers have remarried should show less severe effects of the natural father's absence, as children sometimes become attached to their step fathers (White et al, 1985).

**Family tension**

This study reveals that there is a significant relationship between family tension and indiscipline. A calm and peaceful emotional atmosphere provides the child with feelings of security and well-being. However, if the atmosphere is tense as a result of domestic friction and family differences, the child may be unsettled, unsure of himself and incapable of judging his experiences according to their true worth and may be emotionally unstable (Glassey and Weeks, 1950). When there is friction between parents and when the child is separated from one or both parents or when he is an unwanted child it may be difficult for him to be happy. Such a child is under stress and indiscipline may be just a way of expressing his frustration.

Emotional difficulties may also arise when parents fail to see life from the child's point of view and
impose unreasonable demands on the child. One of the problems facing youths in Zambian secondary schools is that of being misunderstood by elders (Mwanalushi, 1980). One of the problem boys in the sample blamed parents for failing to understand their children. Another girl who had developed a strong hatred against her father was irritated by her father's constant surveillance and claimed that he was so strict that he even followed her to the toilet. Children from homes fraught with emotional difficulties may not develop a correct self image and tend to indulge in acting-out behaviour.

**Frequency of physical punishment**

The findings of this study show that there is no significant relationship between frequency of physical punishment and indiscipline among pupils. The non-significance of the difference in scores between problem and non-problem pupils on this variable implies that this variable, in the manner in which it has been defined in this study, has little or no relevance to indiscipline among pupils. These findings differ significantly from outcomes of studies conducted elsewhere (Bandura and Walters, 1959; Hoffman, 1963 and Glassey and Weeks, 1950).

The only plausible explanation for the non-significance of results in this aspect of the home environment is that whereas this study was conducted among adolescents of seventeen to eighteen years old, most studies of this nature conducted in the west have been done among primary
and nursery school children. Some of the subjects in the present study indicated that their parents no longer relied on physical punishment to discipline them as they used to do when they were children. Alternatively, it could also be argued that the shift away from physical punishment and towards 'psychological' techniques of discipline may be due to a process of modernisation in parent-child relations as a result of urbanisation.

To sum up, all the factors discussed above: parental occupation, housing conditions, overcrowding, family size, family disruption, and family tension were found to be strongly related to indiscipline among pupils. On the other hand, frequency of physical punishment could not be relied upon in trying to explain indiscipline among secondary school pupils.

The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

The evidence presented in this study demonstrates that the homes in which Zambian children grow up have a great influence on their social and behavioural development. While no strong assertions about causality can be made from the data, the indications are that undisciplined pupils usually come from an unfavourable home environment. The study has demonstrated that home conditions and the influence of parents have an important bearing on the child's disposition and behavioural development.

When dealing with disciplinary problems, pupils can only be understood if they are viewed within the context of both home and school. As socialising agencies, both home and school play important roles in the developmental development of children. The more teachers are familiar with these roles, the more they can appreciate that children are only partly responsible for the social inadequacies which their behaviour may reveal. Their bad behaviour may be due partly to the influence of an unfavourable home environment over which they may have no control.

Recommendations

A great deal of the evidence shown in this study is sufficiently precise and generalisable to be of immediate
practical value to policy makers, teachers and student teachers. The following are some areas which need consideration.

1. co-operative consultation and intervention

It is advisable that a problem pupil be dealt with by both the parent and the teacher together, at least in the initial stage of the problem. The child may be only partly to blame for misconduct at school. The problem pupil, therefore, should be interviewed in the presence of his parents. By observing how the parents react to the child and to each other, the teacher may gain insight about the domestic stresses and pressures with which the child has to contend.

2. Provision of professional school counselling services

The present system of guidance and counselling through careersmasters is inadequate as it is biased towards vocational guidance. It is not easy for the teacher to combine the roles of teacher, disciplinarian and counsellor and be successful in all. There is need for trained school counsellors who would devote all their time and energies to counselling.

3. The use of the cumulative record in the prediction of behaviour

The researcher is aware of the economic problems the country is facing. However, if the economy picks up the
government should seriously consider the implementation of this recommendation. Essentially, the cumulative record includes reports of teachers' observations of the child's behaviour, test scores and information covering extra-curricular activities, health and family background. Data are entered into the record annually, throughout the pupil's educational history, so that a complete record contains observations of the pupil in a variety of situations, made by a number of different teachers.

If we are to deal adequately with the problems of indiscipline we must know something of the pupils' home-background. The present record card system, therefore, should be widened to have reference to the home environment.

4. *The use of behaviour modification techniques*

The idea of teaching good behaviour has developed into a school of thought. The argument is that the teacher cannot hope to take underlying causes of bad behaviour, but that good behaviour can nevertheless be taught. It is based on the learning theories of Skinner and the emphasis is on the use of social reinforcers such as praise and rewards. This involves planned attempts to change the behaviour of a pupil from that which is undesirable to a desired one through the systematic use of rewards by the teacher each time the correct behaviour occurs. The strengthening of a desired pupil behaviour continues until it is learned.
Recommendations for further research

Regarding further research, there are many topics open for research in this field which the present study has not dealt with. Some of them are presented below.

Firstly, there is need to study the relationships between the independent variables in this study in a prospective study on a larger sample.

Secondly, indiscipline among pupils may be a result of many home-background factors. However, only a selected number of home-background factors were investigated and the study was confined to a limited number of schools in Lusaka. The findings of this study reinforce the need for further research of a comprehensive and longitudinal nature to validate the findings of this study. Related to the home-background are such factors as mother at work and a host of other factors which could yield interesting results.

Finally, it would be interesting to carry out a detailed case study of a problem pupil in relation to his home-background. Such a study would yield a wealth of information which would be useful to teachers.


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APPENDIX A

PUPILS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Part One: Socio-economic factors

Fill in the blank spaces with correct information.

1. What is your father's/male guardian's marital status? (Indicate whether married, single, divorced, separated etc.)

2. What is the occupation of your father/male guardian? (Be specific)

3. If he is unemployed please tick here.

4. What level of education did your father/male guardian attain? (Specify whether primary school, secondary, college etc.)

5. If your father is dead please tick here.

6. What is your mother's/female guardian's marital status?

7. What is your mother's/female guardian's occupation?

8. What level of education did your mother/female guardian attain?

9. If your mother is dead please tick here.
10. with whom do you live? (indicate whether parents, guardian, mother, father, uncle, brother etc.)

11. in which area of Lusaka do you stay? (name the area, e.g. Kambia, Libala, Kabulonga etc.)

12. how many people (including adults and children) do you stay with in your family's house?

13. how many children are there (including yourself and children staying away from home) in your family or your guardian's family?

14. if your family has less than six children, what possible explanation would you give to account for the small number? (put a tick against the appropriate answer)
   a) some of them died
   b) my parents/guardians are still young
   c) family planning to take care of educational and economic matters
   d) any other

15. if your family has more than six children, what possible explanation would you give for the large family? (put a tick against the appropriate answer)
   a) lack of family planning
   b) any other

16. how many rooms does your family's house have?
17. What do you consider to be the economic status of your parents or guardians? (Put a tick against the appropriate answer)
   A. Very rich ________ B. Rich ________ C. Comfortable ________
   D. Poor ________ E. Very poor ________

18. Are your parents or guardians currently entitled to mealie meal coupons?
   A. Yes ________ B. No ________

19. How often do your parents borrow money for food in order to reach the month-end?
   A. Very frequently ________ B. Frequently ________
   C. Sometimes ________ D. Rarely ________ E. Never ________

Part Two: Emotional factors

For questions 20 to 24, put a tick against the appropriate answer and for questions 25 to 28 put a tick in the sections that apply.

20. I believe my parents/guardians find fault with me more often than I deserve and are never satisfied with anything I do.
   A. Strongly agree ________ B. Agree ________ C. Undecided ________
   D. Disagree ________ E. Strongly disagree ________

21. When I am at home I usually feel happy.
   A. Strongly agree ________ B. Agree ________ C. Undecided ________
   D. Disagree ________ E. Strongly disagree ________

22. How often do you discuss your problems with your parents or guardians?
   A. Very often ________ B. Often ________ C. Sometimes ________
   D. Rarely ________ E. Never ________
23. What do you think of your parents' or guardians' marriage?
   A. very happy   B. happy   C. average
   D. unhappy   E. very unhappy

24. Have you ever thought of running away from home?
   A. never   B. rarely   C. sometimes
   D. frequently   E. very frequently

25. What is your attitude toward your...........
    | father/ | mother | step | father | mother |
    | guardian |
  like him/her very much
  like him/her
  mild dislike
  considerable dislike
  very strong dislike

26. How much conflict is there between your........
    | father & | step father | step mother |
    | mother & | mother | mother & father |
  none at all
  a little
  to some degree
  a lot

27. My......................
    | father/ | mother | step | step |
    | guardian | father | mother |
  takes great interest in us
  takes moderate interest in us
  does not take much interest in us
27. continued from page 66.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>takes little interest in us</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>takes no interest in us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part Three: Family Discipline

For questions 28 to 30 put a tick against the appropriate answer.

28. My parents/guardians are not concerned with what I do as long as I stay out of trouble.
   A. Strongly Agree     B. Agree     C. Undecided
   D. Disagree           E. Strongly Disagree

29. My parents/guardians are just too strict.
   A. Strongly Agree     B. Agree     C. Undecided
   D. Disagree           E. Strongly Disagree

30. How often do your parents/guardians resort to physical punishment to discipline their children?
   A. Very Frequently     B. Frequently
   C. Sometimes           D. Rarely      E. Never

Part Four: Blank Space For Your Comments

Below is a blank space for you to write your comments.
APPENDIX B

MILLER'S LIGHT-POINT OCCUPATIONAL SCALE

NON-MANUAL OCCUPATIONS

1. professional and high administrative, e. g. doctors, lawyers, bankers, accountants, teachers.
2. managerial and executive, e. g. men who owned their own business, or who managed a business for the owner.
3. supervisory, white collar, e. g. those in the mass media and publishing industries.
4. routine clerical, e. g. cashiers and clerks.

MANUAL OCCUPATIONS

5. foreman, supervisory (manual), e. g. construction foreman.
6. skilled manual, e. g. men who have served as apprentice in a trade, e. g. motor mechanics.
7. semi-skilled manual, e. g. men in occupations for which some training and skill is necessary, e. g. bus drivers.
8. unskilled manual, e. g. men engaged in unskilled manual labour; requires neither training nor responsibility, e. g. farm workers.

APPENDIX C

CLASS TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir/madam,

Attached hereto is a list of names of pupils in your class. Please do me a favour by rating them on the six discipline problem areas given below. Write the name of the child in the space provided. Basing your judgement on your personal knowledge of the child and on punishment and discipline records available, put a tick against the category of ratings that best describes the child's behaviour in that particular discipline area.

Name of pupil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline Problems</th>
<th>Ratings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Smoking and drug use    |

| Stealing                |

| Rude to teachers        |

| Truancy                 |

| Drinking                |

| Fighting                |

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