

**MEN'S PERCEPTION OF WOMEN AND WOMEN'S SELF-IMAGE
IN LUSAKA, ZAMBIA**

**THESIS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN SOCIOLOGY
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES,
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BY

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1990**

DECLARATION

I, Jovent Kinaheirwe-Obbo, do solemnly declare
that this Thesis represents my own work which has
not previously been submitted for a degree at
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APPROVAL

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ABSTRACT

There has been a growing concern on the situation of women particularly because of the conscientization which resulted from the UN women's decade (1976-85) with its themes, "peace", "development" and "equality". Various reasons have been given for the failure to improve on the situation of women. One of them has been the persistence of traditional attitudes towards them. This study was an attempt to examine the above issue. It looked at both men's perception of women and women's self-image in the Zambian context.

The main objectives of the study were to identify how women are perceived by men in the Zambian context; examine whether men's perception of women is influenced by the variables of age, education, marital status, income and place of residence; identify how women in Zambia perceive themselves; find out the relationship between men's perception of women and women's self-image; and whether women's self-image is influenced by the variables of age, education, marital status, place of residence and income.

The following were hypothesized: men have a negative perception of women in terms of socio-economic status; women have a negative self-image in terms of socio-economic status; men's perception of women and women's self-image are positively related to the variables of age, marital status, education, income and place of residence; men's perception of women is positively related to women's self-image.

The study employed the survey design. Data was collected from 200 male and female residents of Lusaka urban. These were Zambian citizens of twenty-one years and above. The person to person interview was utilized. Computer techniques were used to process and analyse the data. In the analysis frequencies, percentages, cross tabulations and correlations (Pearsons Chi-square) were used.

The main findings of the survey were that women in Lusaka, Zambia are generally positively perceived by men and they have a positive self-image, in terms of socio-economic status. This finding did not support the theoretical hypotheses that (1) "men have a negative perception of women" (2) women have a negative-self-image in terms of socio-economic status". The findings partly failed to confirm the hypothesis that "men's perception of women and women's self-image are related to the variables of age and marital status, education, income and residence as mixed results were obtained.

Finally, it was recommended that more education opportunities for women be promoted; agents of socialization be sensitized to socialize members of the society in a way that will make them have high regard for women; efforts be made to have more women in higher occupations in the public sphere; restrictive policies which hinder women's involvement in the public sphere be removed and that future studies concentrate on how culture affects perception of women in Lusaka, Zambia.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Rationale of Choice of Problem

Women face problems such as being segregated in the sphere of employment, political activities and education system. These problems are of grave consequence. The global overview on women indicates that majority of them are not benefitting from the fruits of development. The impoverishment of women is on the increase (Shanshani, 1985). Women are underrepresented in political and public administration, in educational institutions and in access to economic and social benefits (Salas, 1985). Women are extremely exploited and their domestic and farm work is undervalued (Tembo, 1985). Their legal status is low (Sushila, 1985).

The above is particularly true for Zambia where women are underrepresented in all spheres of national life. For example, although there are more women than men in Zambia there are only three female Ministers (Kaunda, 1988); out of the sixty-eight members of the Central committee (MCCs), only five are female (UNIP, 1988); less than 20 percent of the labour force consist of women (CSO, 1989); and furthermore men account for more than three times the number of women in high status occupations (Zard, 1985).

This situation has aroused concern in governmental and non-governmental bodies about what should be done to integrate women in the development process. To this effect the UNO proclaimed 1975 as an International Year for Women (IYW) and declared 1976-85 as a women's decade with its themes: "peace", "Development", and "Equality". Such fora as the International Conference on Population which took place in August 1984 declared that improving women's status *and enhancing their roles* was an important end in itself and that swift action had to be taken to assist women in improving their social, political and economic life (Salas, 1985).

These goals have largely remained unfulfilled. Various reasons have been given for failure to realise the objectives of these bodies. One of them is the persistence of traditional attitudes towards women. For example, at the end of the UN decade for women, most governments pointed out that attitudes towards women had not changed and had not kept pace with the legislative provisions. Attitudes which regard women as inferior to men have been widely cited as a major obstacle and so is the attitude which regards women as passive subordinate human beings (Shanshani, 1986).

In Zambia women are characterized by low status - as they are neglected by the law, their domestic and farm roles are unpaid, underpaid and undervalued. Even of the few who are in the public sector majority occupy low-status jobs such

as clerical and secretarial jobs (Zard, 1986). This situation promotes the attitude which regard females as inferior and passive in Zambia.

Like other nations Zambia is faced with the concern of improving the situation of women. To this end she has legally established the equality of men and women but differential treatment of men and women still exists in most areas of social life. It has been realized that attitudes of both male and female members of the community have made it difficult to improve women's status (American Friends' Service Committee, 1985; Shifferaw, 1982 & Bardouille, 1981). The effect of cultural values has also resulted in female under-representation in educational institutions (Brooks, 1985). Women have been conditioned to accept this male dominance and help to impart this ideology. For example, Kankasa (1974), Secretary of the Women's Brigade, revealed the aims of the brigade as mainly geared at encouraging women to accept and enjoy their roles of mother and housewife.

It is hoped the information acquired from the above investigation would give insight on how women are perceived in Zambia. The information obtained would also help us to relate the socio-psychological views on male perception of women and women's self-image by authors such as Mead (1934); Koch (1944); Cantril (1968); Jackson (1968); Birren (1970); Chiet (1970); Odebala (1972); Erhunmwunsee (1983); Vicente, et. al. (1983) and Ebdargeeri (1986) to the Zambian situation.

Statement of the Problem

Based on the above, the study focuses on the way women are perceived in the Zambian context. It investigates male and female perception of women. The relationship between male perception of women and women's self-image. It also investigates the relationship between male perception of women and women's self-image, and age, education, marital status, residence and income. It was hoped these would help us understand more about males' perception of women and women's self-image in Zambia.

Study Objectives

In view of the above research problem, the study objectives are to:

1. Identify how women are perceived by men in Zambian context.
2. Examine whether men's perception of women is influenced by variables of age, education, marital status, income and place of residence.
3. Identify how women in Zambia perceive themselves (their self image).
4. Find out the relationship between men's perception of women and women's self-image.
5. Examine whether women's self-image is influenced by the variables of age, education, marital status, place of residence and income.

Literature Review

(a) Male Perception of Females

Many studies have been carried out on perception and self-image. A number of these had revealed that different groups perceived events and things differently. Koch (1944) noted that groups have differing sensitivities to personal characteristics and these may be related to socio-cultural conditions. Bakare (1975) argues that there is not only divergent stereotyping in person perception but that there is an unexpectedly high degree of agreement between the perception of the self by members of one's own group and those of another ethnic group. Odebala (1972) relates perception to early socialization and contends that males tend to be both more "traditional" and more field dependent than females and this accordingly affects their perception of females. Erhunmwunsee (1983) concludes that male and female students tend to perceive the other group less favourably than their own and that there is a discrepancy between the perception of the self by one's own and the other sex. On the other hand O'leary, et. al. (1975), argues that females perceive themselves as significantly brighter and more responsible than males - whereas males perceive the ideal female as significantly more competent, adventure-some and independent.

(b) Female Self Perception and Environment

Other studies have been carried out on the relationship between environment and self-image. The general picture emerging is that people brought up in different socio-psychological environment have different self-images. According to a study by Marjoribanks et. al. (1983), families provide different environmental experiences for children of differing ordinal positions. Ebdargeeri (1986) in his study agrees by concluding that school environment has an effect on the self-concept of female students. Vicente, et. al. (1983) also argue that first born females exceed later-born females in both need of approval and empathy. Birren (1972) and Cheit (1972) view difference in age as bringing about differences in perceptions while Alvin, et. al. (1970), consider housing as affecting perceptions.

According to Cantril (1968), perception is viewed as an implicit awareness of the probable consequences an action might have with respect to carrying out some purpose. He maintains that some perceptions are "social" while others are "non-social". In "social" perception the functional activity giving rise to a stimulus has the potential of affecting and being affected by us whereas in non-social perceptions we are not aware of the potential cross-effects of our purpose or that of other organisms. Our interest here is in "social" perception.

According to Cantril (1968) since man's specific purposes are largely derived from group loyalties and the social norms he acquires, what are social perceptions for some people may not be social perceptions for others. He goes on to say that as new group loyalties are acquired or as loyalties change the pattern of social perception also changes.

Mead (1934), Cooley (1964) Hobbs and Blank (1978) and Faunce (1982) contend that self-concept or self-image is an aspect of human personality that consists of the individual's concept of self. The concept of self consists of self awareness and self-esteem. The sense of self-esteem answers the question "what am I worth", while the sense of self-identity answers the question "who am I?" These two senses are acquired through interacting with others. This means that we learn by imagining how others perceive us. It is in this context that Jackson (1968) argues that apart from work, life in the family and participation in community activities are likely to provide the main arenas where a man can see how he is treated by others and that on the basis of the treatment he receives he is likely to define not only his aspirations but also his attitudes and expectations.

Thus, Mead (1934), Cooley (1964), Hobbs and Blank (1978), and Faunce (1982) imply that one's self-image is acquired from the way one is perceived by the others in her society. It also means that one's self-image is determined by one's ability to see oneself as an object by stepping outside

oneself. That is, one has to see one's self from view point of others, in order to view one's own thoughts, feelings and behaviour from the perspective of other people. Thus, one develops the self-concept by internalising the social norms of one's society. This view is supported by Bardouille (1981) and Shifferaw (1982) who contend that in Zambia girls learn that husbands are heads of households and that wives must play subservient positions. Similarly Sayar (1970) argues that it is through the educational system that people internalize their perceptions.

It must be noted that little research has been done on male's perception of female and female self-image in Zambia. One study in the Zambian setting which had attempted to tackle this issue was that carried out by Chikweya (1982) in which attitudes of male managers towards female employees were investigated. However, the results of the above study were not conclusive enough due to the fact that:

1. her respondents were from parastatals which made it not representative enough; and
2. she said nothing about women's self-image.

Other studies by Bardouille (1982), Chilivumbo and Kanyangwa (1982), Shifferaw (1982) and Martin (1983) carried out in Zambia were more peripheral to the issue in that they had concentrated on the situation of women in Zambia and attributed this situation to sex-typing and discrimination.

Secondly, some of the studies done outside Zambia such as Koch (1944), and Bakare (1975), O'leary, et. al. (1975) and Erhunmwunsee (1983) on perception and self-image contradicted each other and we do not know whether the differences in the above results were an indication of change in attitudes over time and space.

Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that

1. Men have a negative perception of women in terms of socio-economic status.
2. Women have a negative self-image or negative self-perception in terms of socio-economic status.
3. Men's perception of women and women's self-image are related to the variables of age, marital status, education, income and place of residence.
4. Men's perception of women is positively related to women's self-image.

Operational Definition of Key Concepts

Woman and man, respectively, refer to an adult female and an adult male human being, twenty-one years of age and above. The age of twenty-one years was chosen in line with the Zambian statutory law which takes twenty-one years as a minimum age of consent (Northern Rhodesia, 1964).

Adults are divided into three categories: the young adults; twenty-one years to thirty-five years; middle-aged, thirty-six years to fifty-five years; the aged, fifty-six years and above. These categories were borrowed from Birren (1972) and Chiet (1972). They see differences in the psycho-social and economic behaviour of adults aged below thirty-five and those aged above fifty-five years. Therefore those below thirty-six years were termed the young adults, those aged thirty-six years to fifty-five years were termed the middle aged and those aged fifty-six years and above were termed the aged.

Male's positive perception of women refers to male's views and opinions about women as people who deserve and are capable of attaining high socio-economic status (see Hobbs and Blank, 1978; Basow, 1980 and Zard, 1985). Positive perception views women as capable of performing more than one role such as being a home-maker and a public worker, able to acquire and use an independent income, as well as leisure time such as study leave, maternity leave and holidays; managing leadership or supervisory roles as well as deserving reputational roles such as being a university lecturer, a professor, a doctor, a pilot, an engineer, an importer/exporter, and others. They are seen as capable of attaining and able to use higher education such as university and/or college training so long as they have the necessary pre-requisites such as medically approved physical fitness, professional and academic qualification, income and time to spare.

Male's negative perception of women refers to male's

views and opinions about women as people who are not capable of achieving and who do not deserve the statuses mentioned above so long they are not based on physical or medical inability, lack of professional and academic qualification and lack of income, but based on the belief that women are subordinate and passive creatures, or are already very involved as house-wives and mothers.

Women's positive self-image refers to women viewing themselves and their fellow women as people capable of achieving and deserving the statuses mentioned above as long as the necessary pre-requisites are present.

Women's negative self-image refers to views and opinions about themselves and their fellow women as people who are incapable of achieving and/or not deserving the roles and statuses mentioned above which are not based on lack of the necessary pre-requisites mentioned above but are based on passivity and subordination of women, or because they are already very involved as house-wives and mothers.

Types of Responses

The responses are categorized into those reflecting women as having extra advantages and/or qualities to make them achieve and/or deserve a given social economic status in whatever situation (greater positive perception); those

reflecting that women are human beings with normal/average qualities to make them achieve and/or deserve a social economic status in most situations (medium positive perception); and those reflecting that women cannot achieve and/or do not deserve a social economic status because they are very involved as house-wives and mothers (medium negative perception). Finally responses about women not being able to achieve and/or deserve a given social economic status because of being passive and/or subordinate creatures are regarded as greater negative perception.

Methodology

The Research Design

For this study the survey design was employed. It was seen as being useful in covering a wider area, and therefore having greater utility where gathering various views was concerned. The study area was Lusaka Urban and the study population were adult men and women living in Lusaka. This was thought ideal as Lusaka urban was occupied by all categories of Zambians, particularly, in terms of education, income, sex, marital status, residence, the socio-demographic features whose influence the study intended to investigate. A sample survey was used as it would solve the problems of wide coverage. The population was sampled randomly, that is, systematic sampling and simple random sampling (SRS) procedures were both employed.

The Sample Design

A systematic sample of two hundred (200) men and women was drawn from the urban area of Lusaka. Stratification according to areas of different residential densities was deemed necessary as it would cater for the variations in the demographic characteristics. Lusaka urban, therefore, was stratified according to the areas of different average residential densities. These were the low density, the medium density and the high density residential areas, alternatively known as the high cost, medium cost and low cost residential areas, respectively.

A list of these areas of different residential densities was obtained with the help of the survey section of Lusaka Town Council offices. This constituted the sampling frame for the primary sample. Using the Simple Random Sampling procedure three areas were selected to represent the different areas of Lusaka reflecting different residential densities. These were Saningdale (high cost or low density areas), Kabwata Estate (medium cost or medium density areas) and Garden Site 4 (low cost or high density areas).

The aim was to have at least each of the three areas of different average residential densities represented. This was because these areas have different socio-demographic characteristics which had to be represented in the sample (William, 1986).

From the three housing areas, 200 households (i.e. sixty-six from high cost; sixty-six from medium cost and sixty-eight from the low cost area as this has larger population than the former two) were included in the sample using systematic sampling. The house/plot numbers were used to construct a list from which interviews were conducted. With regard to Saningdale and Garden Site 4, the house/plot numbers were obtained from the residential maps provided by the Survey Section of Lusaka Town Council offices. In respect to Kabwata Estate, the sampling frame was constructed, using a housing list obtained from the Estates Manager's office, Kabwata Estates.

To ensure sexual representativeness, of the house/plot numbers selected, half (100) were for female respondents and the other half (100) were for male respondents.

In order to select households from which the female respondents were to be sampled the simple random sampling procedure was utilised. Having selected 100 house/plots for females out of the 200 sampled houses/plots, we proceeded to sample the remaining 100 which were for male respondents. From each household, one respondent was selected for interview. The subjects that were selected for inclusion in the sample were males and females aged twenty-one years and above. They had to be Zambian citizens.

Nature and Sources of Data

Main source of data was primary sources. Person to person interviews were utilized. Questionnaires were constructed and administered in the form of structured interview schedules. The interview schedule consisted of two sections. Section I was about personal data such as sex, age, education, marital status, income and place of residence. Section II of the schedule was about general information such as, the respondent's views, opinions and expectations about women's ability to achieve and their deservability for high statuses such as leadership or supervisory positions, higher education, reputational titles, higher incomes and multiple roles (See Appendix 1a and 1b).

The Pre-Test

This was deemed necessary because the research instrument had never been used before and therefore had to be tested to ensure its suitability. This was done on a sample of 50 respondents selected from three areas of different residential densities (16 from high cost areas and medium cost areas, respectively and 18 from low cost areas).

This helped to ensure the items' suitability and to foresee the possibility of processing and analysing the

data using the SPSS-X computer package available at the UNZA computer centre.

The pre-test also helped the researcher to familiarise herself with the field situation, modify the questions which appeared ambiguous and to construct a code book for the open-ended questions (see Appendix 2).

Data Collection

As it had been decided to use person to person interviews, the researcher had to avail herself with a letter of introduction from her Department (Social Development Studies, SDS, University of Zambia). This was to reduce the likely suspicion and to maximize cooperation from both the local authorities and the respondents (i.e. gain entree). With that letter of introduction she went from house to house. Besides the letter of introduction, she had to request for a guide who was well acquainted with English language and the local language.

Most of the interviews were carried out on week-ends as most of the respondents were public workers who could not be found during week days. For those who it was difficult to interview in their homes, arrangements were made to interview them from their places of work. Those who were on short visits, call-backs were made. Besides the problems caused by unreliable sampling frames, the

whole exercise was very interesting as almost all respondents were both friendly and willing to cooperate. The problem of non-response was encountered on only five respondents. This problem was solved by replacing these respondents with similar types of people.

Data Processing and Analysis

Computer techniques (SPSS-X) were used to process and analyze the data.

Data was analysed using correlations (Pearsons Chi-square correlation) and cross tabulations to compare responses according to age, sex, education, marital status, income and place of residence on selected socio-economic status variables. Frequences and percentages were also used. This type of analysis was thought adequate as data was of the nominal type. Decision was to be made at .05 level of significance.

Constraints of the Study

The study was mainly constrained by lack of reliable sampling frames. For example, some plot/house numbers indicated on the residential maps happened to be empty spaces, uncompleted houses, vacant houses, public buildings or occupied by foreigners. This was particularly so in Sanningdale which is primarily occupied by expatriates.

However, this was overcome by replacing these plots with similar plots without affecting the composition of the sample.

Another major constraint was brought about by poor communication, both in terms of language and transport. The researcher being a non-Zambian was not very familiar with the local languages. Therefore it was difficult for her to communicate with respondents who did not know English. Having foreseen this problem in the pre-test period, the researcher minimized this constraint by having some of the questionnaires interpreted in the local language (Nyanja) and these were administered to respondents who did not speak English with the help of an interpreter who carried out the interviews in the local language and wrote the responses in the English language.

With regard to the problem of transport, some of the locations were not well served by roads. This resulted in unnecessary delays. The delays were minimized by resorting to all possible means of road transport - such as special car-hiring, use of public transport and, where these could not work, resorting to foot transport.

In addition to the above, this study was limited to Lusaka only as it was difficult to cover the whole of Zambia. Most of the individuals interviewed were youth, reflecting Lusaka's demographic situation. Finally, some

concepts such as education were loosely operationalised. Thus, college included even skills training and elementary school teacher training.

Outline of Chapters

The thesis consists of four chapters. Chapter one introduces the subject matter of the thesis. It has eight sections dealing with rationale of choice of the problem; statement of the problem; objectives of the study; review of literature on the subject; the study hypotheses; operationalisation of the key concepts in the study; outline of the study design and the outline of the chapters.

Chapter two analyses and presents the findings on the demographic characteristics of the sample and the study area. It is divided into two sections: (a) analysis of the findings on age, marital status, education and income of the respondents; and (b) analysis of the relationship between sex, age, marital status, education, income and residence of the respondents.

Chapter three analyses findings on men's perception of women and women's self-image, and the relationship between men's perception of women and women's self-image and the variables of age, marital status, education, residence and income. The chapter is divided into two sections, the one

which analyses men's perception of women and women's self-image on the socio-economic status indicators of ability and deservability for multiple roles, administrative roles, reputable titles, higher education, independent income and general ability in all social and economic spheres in society. The second section analyses the influence of the variables of sex, age, marital status, education, residence and income on men's perception of women and women's self-image on selected socio-economic status variables.

Chapter four of the thesis deals with conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

The Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

The chapter examines the socio-demographic variables of sex, age, marital status, education, income and residence. This was deemed necessary as the study is interested in finding out the relationship between perception of women in terms of socio-economic status and the variables of sex, age, marital status, education, income and residence. The analysis took account of the views of William (1986) who saw differences in the socio-demographic characteristics of Lusaka urban population

Age, Marital Status, Education and Monthly Income of the Respondents (Table 1.1)

In the analysis, sex and residence are not considered as the distribution was a factor of the sampling. The findings show that a majority (55.5%) of the respondents are in the young adults age group (21-35 years) whereas a minority (5.0%) belong to the 56 and above years age-group (see table 1.1).

The age structure as presented in table 1 above reflects the fact that there is an age imbalance in the Lusaka Urban population, whereby the young adults dominate the other adult age groups. The explanation for the age imbalance is that

the young normally drift from the rural areas in search of education and job opportunities, while the aged retire to the rural areas. More importantly most people in Zambia were born after independence (1964) and are therefore less than thirty-five years. For example, the census data for Zambia as a whole indicates that there were 4,056,995 and 7,818,447 people in 1969 and 1990 respectively. Similarly the population of Lusaka for 1963 and 1990 was 186,960 and 207,980 respectively (CSO, Dec. 1990 and Sept. 1985). The above data implies that the population of Zambia as a whole and Lusaka in particular is youthful. The age structure of Lusaka urban population is therefore typical of the country's population which is youthful.

The data also shows that a majority (71.5%) of the respondents are married and a minority (3.5%) are widowed. The marital status structure as shown in Table (1.1) is not surprising since all the members of the sample had to be 21 years and above which is an accepted age of consent in Zambia (Northern Rhodesia, 1964). This portrays the general picture of marital status expected of the adult population of Zambia as a whole. Population figures show that people marry at an early age in Zambia.

It is also observed that University and/or college education level has more respondents than the other educational levels. For example, 40.5 percent respondents have University and/or college education. This is an indication of the rising educational levels especially after independence,

with the introduction of universal free education in Zambia (see table 1.2). As shown in table 1.2, all occupational categories are demanding higher and higher educational qualifications. Even the national mean of education is rising. Even unemployed levels are rising. This table reflect the situation in the mid 1970's. The situation now is even more clear as even those who have graduated from form five cannot get jobs. The higher percentage of respondents with university or college education is due to the fact that the term college was used rather loosely to refer to all those respondents with professional training including primary school teachers and graduates of agriculture training colleges such as those in Mpika and other training institutions. It is also due to Lusaka being the seat of the party and the government. The educated flock into Lusaka urban area in search of white collar jobs offered by both government and party bureaucracies.

A majority of the respondents (27.0%) are in the K501-1000 monthly income level whereas a minority (12.5%) have incomes ranging from K1501-K2000. The above income structure, with majority of the respondents earning some monetary income monthly, is not typical of a third world country like Zambia where majority depend on subsistence farming, rather it is typical of an urban area where majority of population depend on paid labour, and this is true of Lusaka urban population. This shows Lusaka urban population as an estimate rather than representative of Zambia population.

**Table 1.1 Respondents' Age, Marital Status, Education And
Income. N=200**

Variables	No. of Respondents(n)	Percentage
1. Age	111	55.5
21-35	79	39.5
36-55	10	5.0
56+		
2. Marital status		
Married	143	71.5
unmarried	34	17.0
divorced	10	5.0
separated	6	3.0
widowed	7	3.5
3. Education		
uneducated	4	2.0
lower primary	13	6.5
upper primary	34	17.0
junior secondary	28	14.0
senior secondary	40	20.0
university/college	81	40.5
4. Monthly income		
below K500	38	19.0
K500-K1000	54	27.0
K1001-K1500	42	21.0
K1501-K2000	25	12.5
K2000+	41	20.5

**The Relationship Between the Variables of Sex, Age, Education,
Marital Status Income and Residence (Tables 2.1-2.5)**

The aim of the section is to see whether the above
Socio-demographic variables are related. Sex is respectively

Table 1.2: Showing Mean Years of Education attained by Male Cohorts by Occupational Category in the Three Urban Centres of Lusaka, Ndola and Kitwe in the early 1970's

Cohort	National Mean	Professional Technical	Administrative Managerial	Clerical	Sales	Service	Production & transport	Agriculture	Unemployed	Total Sample
Old (representing Early 1960's)	4.9	9.1	-	7.3	3.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	1.7	228
Middle (Representing Mid 1970's)	6.5	9.5	9.5	7.5	5.6	4.1	4.5	3.3	4.8	248
Young (Representing Mid. 1970's)	6.8	11.2	11.2	10.5	7.8	6.5	6.0	4.7	7.7	227

Source: P. Mufune (1989)

related to age, marital status, education and income (table 2.1). Age is similarly related to education and residence, respectively (table 2.2) while marital status is related to education income and residence, respectively (table 2.3), education is related to income and residence (table 2.4), and finally income and residence are related.

The Relationship Between Sex And Age, Marital Status,
Education And Income. (Table 2.1)

A majority (69.0%) of the female respondents are in the 21-35 years age group while males (51.0%) dominate the 36-55 years age group (see table 2.1). The explanation for the age differences between the male and female respondents is that unlike their male counterparts women were not allowed to live in the city until after independence. This makes them younger than their male counterparts some of whom had settled before independence. Additionally in most African cultures it is taken as disgraceful for a woman to reveal her age publicly and those who do tend to minimize their age. The study also shows that there are no substantive differences between men and women with respect to marital status for both have their majorities (74.0% and 69% respectively) married (see table 2.1) this could be because of the fact that they are exposed to similar marriage laws, customs and norms.

It is also observed that there are more males in the higher education levels than females. 49.0 percent of the

male respondents have university and or college education, while only 33.0 percent female respondents have the same level of education. The above finding suggests that most women may occupy low level occupations because of lack of the relevant qualifications rather than because of being taken as passive and subordinate people who cannot manage such positions.

It is also observed that there are more males in the higher income levels than there are females. For example, 33.0 percent of males are in the K2,000+ monthly income level whereas there are only 8.0 percent of females in that income level. Such a finding implies that men have a higher income status than women because they are more educated and consequently have greater opportunity to be recruited in higher occupations which are better paying.

The Relationship between Age and Education and Residence
(table 2.2)

The data (table 2.2) shows that on the whole the younger (21-35 years) age group has had better educational opportunities. This is attributed to the fact that there has been more emphasis on education in Zambia during the post colonial years. The finding also suggested that the relative increase in the number of women in higher occupations has been due to increased education opportunities.

Table 2.1: The Relationship between Respondents' Sex and Age, Marital status, Education & Income (N=200)

Variables	Male	<u>Sex</u> Female	Total	Pearsons Chi square value
1. <u>Age</u>				
21-35 years	42(42.0%)	69(69.0%)	111(55.5%)	$\chi^2 = 14.9,$ $P/.0006$
36-55 years	51(51.0%)	28(28.0%)	79(39.5%)	
56+	7(7.0%)	3(3.0%)	10(5.0%)	
2. <u>Marital status</u>				
married	74(74.0%)	69(69.0%)	143(71.5%)	$\chi^2 = 7.4,$ $P/.12$
unmarried	17(17.0%)	17(17.0%)	34(17.0%)	
divorced	1(1.0%)	9(9.0%)	10(5.0%)	
separated	4(4.0%)	2(2.0%)	6(3.0%)	
widowed	4(4.0%)	3(3.0%)	7(3.5%)	
3. <u>Education</u>				
uneducated	1(1.0%)	3(3.0%)	4(2.0%)	$\chi^2 = 12.5,$ $P/.03$
lower primary	3(3.0%)	10(10.0%)	13(6.5%)	
upper primary	14(14.0%)	20(20.0%)	34(17.5%)	
junior secondary	10(10.0%)	18(18.0%)	28(14.0%)	
senior secondary	24(24.0%)	16(16.0%)	40(20.0%)	
univ./college	48(48.0%)	33(33.0%)	81(40.5%)	
4. <u>Income</u>				
below K500	16(16.0%)	22(22.0%)	38(19.0%)	$\chi^2 = 19.6,$ $P/.05$
K500-K1000	24(24.0%)	30(30.0%)	54(27.0%)	
K1001-K1500	16(16.0%)	26(26.0%)	42(21.0%)	
K1501-K2000	11(11.0%)	14(14.0%)	25(12.5%)	
over K2000	33(33.0%)	8(8.0%)	41(20.5%)	

The data also shows that a greater number of the 21-35 years age-group are in the medium cost (39.6%) and low cost (36.9%) areas while a majority (46.8%) of the 36-55 years age group are in the high cost area.

I attributed this to the fact that the middle aged (36-55 years) are more educated (51.9%) with university and/or college education and therefore are employed in higher occupations whereby their employers have to rent them better houses in the high cost areas. On the other hand the young age group (21-35 years), more probably, are mostly junior civil servants who have to be rented or rent for themselves cheaper houses.

The Relationship between Marital status^a And Education,
Income and Residence (table 2.3)

The study findings show that on the whole the married and the unmarried respondents have their majority, 39.2 percent and 44.1 percent, respectively with university and/or college education. However, on the whole the unmarried respondents have received better education opportunities than the married (see table 2.3). This is attributed to the fact that the unmarried are relatively younger and were born at the time when educational facilities had been improved upon.

Table 2.2 The Relationship Between Respondents' Age and Education and Residence (N=200)

Variables	21-35 yrs	36-55 years	56+ years	Total	Pearson's Chi-square values
1. <u>Education</u>					
uneducated	0(0.0%)	2(2.5%)	2(20.0%)	4(2.0%)	$\chi^2 = 47.8,$ $P/.000$
lower primary	5(4.5%)	4(5.1%)	4(40.0%)	13(6.5%)	
upper primary	22(19.8%)	11(13.9%)	1(10.0%)	34(17.0%)	
junior secondary	20(18.0%)	8(10.1%)	0(0.0%)	28(14.0%)	
senior secondary	26(23.4%)	13(16.6%)	1(10.0%)	40(20.0%)	
univ/college	38(34.2%)	41(51.9%)	2(20.0%)	81(40.5%)	
2. <u>Residence</u>					
High cost	20(23.4%)	37(46.8%)	3(30.0%)	66(33.0%)	$\chi^2 = 19.0,$ $P/.008$
medium cost	44(39.6%)	22(27.8%)	0(0.0%)	66(33.0%)	
low cost	41(36.9%)	20(25.3%)	7(70.0%)	68(34.0%)	

Data in table 2.3 also shows that the married, respondents are almost equally spread in the different income levels unlike the unmarried who have only 2.9 percent of their respondents in the K2,000+ income level.

The finding is due to the fact that most of the unmarried are younger and therefore still in junior positions which could not entitle them to higher salaries.

Table 2.3 The Relationship Between Respondents' Marital status and Education, Income and Residence (N = 200)

Variables		Marital status						
1. <u>Education</u>		Married	Unmarried	Divorced	Separated	Widowed	Total	Pearson's square val X ² = 44.1
Uneducated lower primary upper primary junior secondary senior secondary univ/college	Uneducated	2(1.4%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	2(28.6%)	4(2.0%)	P/_.00015
	lower primary	11(7.7%)	0(0.0%)	1(10.0%)	1(16.7%)	0(0.0%)	13(6.5%)	
	upper primary	26(18.2%)	7(20.3%)	0(.0.0%)	1(16.7%)	0(0.0%)	34(17.0%)	
	junior secondary	21(14.7%)	5(14.7%)	2(20.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	28(14.0%)	
	senior secondary	27(18.9%)	7(20.3%)	5(50.0%)	0(0.0%)	1(14.3%)	40(20.0%)	
		56(39.2%)	15(44.1%)	2(20.0%)	4(66.7%)	4(57.2%)	81(40.5%)	
2. <u>Monthly Income</u>								
below K500 K500-K1000 K1001-K1500 K1501-K2000 K2000+	below K500	26(18.8%)	9(26.5%)	1(10.0%)	1(16.0%)	1(14.3%)	38(19.0%)	X ² = 14.1, P/_.59
	K500-K1000	37(25.9%)	12(35.3%)	4(40.0%)	0(0.0%)	1(14.3%)	54(27.0%)	
	K1001-K1500	30(21.0%)	7(20.6%)	2(20.0%)	1(16.7%)	2(28.6%)	42(21.0%)	
	K1501-K2000	17(11.9%)	5(14.7%)	1(10.0%)	1(16.7%)	1(14.3%)	25(12.5%)	
	K2000+	33(23.1%)	1(2.9%)	2(20.0%)	3(50.0%)	2(28.6%)	41(20.5%)	
3. <u>Residence</u>								
High cost medium cost low cost	High cost	45(31.5%)	12(35.2%)	2(30.0%)	3(50.1%)	3(42.8%)	66(33.0%)	X ² = 6.2, P/_.63
	medium cost	45(31.5%)	12(35.2%)	6(60.0%)	1(16.7%)	2(28.0%)	66(33.0%)	
	low cost	53(37.1%)	1(29.6%)	1(10.0%)	2(33.4%)	2(28.6%)	68(34.0%)	

It is evident (see table 2.3) that marital status is more or less equally distributed in the areas of different average residential densities. For example, the high cost, medium cost and low cost residential areas have 31.5 percent, and 37.1 percent of the married respondents, respectively. The above may be attributed to the fact that the residents of each of the above areas of different residential densities have been exposed to similar marriage laws, values and norms which are bound to affect them more or less equally.

The Relationship Between Education and Income and Residence (table 2.4)

The data shows that a majority (30.0%) of the Junior secondary level respondents were in the below K500 income range. However a majority (39.5%) of the university and/or college level respondents are in the K2,000+ income range (see table 2.4). The above differences are attributed to the fact that incomes are positively related to education. Those with high education are normally employed in technical jobs or higher levels of civil service which earn them better incomes.

The data also shows differences between residence groups with respect to education. For example, a majority (79.4%) of the respondents with upper primary level of education were in the low cost area whereas a majority (70.4%) of university/college respondents were in the high cost area (see table 2.4). The reason that can be given for the above observations is that it is mainly the highly educated with good jobs who can be

Table 2.4: The Relationship between Respondents' Education and Income and Residence(N=200)

Variables		Education						Pearson's Chi-square value
1. <u>Income</u>	Uneducated	Low prim.	Upper prim	Junior sec.	Senior sc.	Univ/col.	Total	
Below K500	1(25.0%)	2(61.5%)	17(50.0%)	5(17.0%)	3(7.5%)	4(4.9%)	38(19.0%)	$X^2=110$, P/.000
K500-K1000	3(75.0%)	3(23.1%)	13(38.2%)	16(57.1%)	11(27.5%)	3(10.0%)	54(27.0%)	
K1001-K1500	0(0.0%)	1(7.6%)	1(2.9%)	4(14.3%)	13(32.5%)	23(28.4%)	42(21.0%)	
K1501-K2000	0(0.0%)	1(7.6%)	0(0.0%)	2(7.1%)	8(20.0%)	14(17.3%)	25(12.5%)	
K2000+	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	3(8.8%)	1(3.6%)	5(12.5%)	32(39.5%)	41(20.5%)	
2. <u>Residence</u>								$X^2=143$, P/.000
High cost	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	1(2.9%)	1(3.6%)	7(17.5%)	57(70.4%)	66(33.0%)	
Medium cost	0(0.0%)	1(7.7%)	6(17.6%)	13(46.4%)	24(60.0%)	22(27.2%)	66(33.0%)	
low cost	4(10.0%)	12(92.3%)	27(79.4%)	14(50.0%)	9(22.5%)	.2(3.4%)	68(34.0%)	

3. Table 2.5: The relationship Between Respondents' Income And Residence N=200

Variables	Income						Pearson's Chi-square
1. <u>Residence</u>	Below K500	K500-K1000	K1001-K1500	K1501-K2000	K2000+	Total	
High cost	3(13.2%)	3(5.6%)	18(42.9%)	11(44.0%)	30(73.2%)	66(33.0%)	$X^2 = 89.5$, P/.000
medium cost	4(10.5%)	26(48.1%)	16(38.1%)	11(44.0%)	8(19.5%)	66(33.0%)	
low cost	20(76.3%)	25(46.3%)	8(18.0%)	3(12.0%)	3(7.3%)	68(34.0%)	

offered residences in the high cost area for employers (companies) provide accommodation for some top level staff. Others have to fend for themselves. In the same spirit high cost residents are also highly educated while on the other hand the low cost residents are also lowly educated.

For the same reasons the data on income and residence is similar to that on education and residence. For example, a majority (76.3%) of the below K500 monthly income level are in the low cost residential area and a majority (73.2%) of the K2000+ monthly income level are in the high cost residence shows differences between residence groups. A majority (76.3%) of the below K500 income level are in the low cost residential area whereas a majority (73.2%) of the K2,000+ income group are in the high cost residential area (see the table 2.5). The reason for this could be that it is the highly educated in higher occupations, which earn them big salaries, who are rented residences in the high cost residential area by their companies while the less educated in low occupational positions which earn them lower incomes, have to find themselves cheap residences in the low cost areas.

The implication that is given by the findings is that generally Lusaka-urban population demographically is similar to the population of Zambia as a whole. The Lusaka urban population characteristics discussed in the study tend to reflect the general characteristics of Zambia's population as a whole to the extent that it reflects the youthfulness of

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS

Introduction:

This chapter analyses and presents findings on men's perception of women, and women's self-image in Zambia. The investigation focuses on perceiving women in terms of socio-economic status such as ability to acquire, and deservability for multiple roles, leadership positions, reputable titles, independent income, higher education and general social and economic position in society. The relationships between the socio-psychological factors of sex, age, marital status, education, income, and residence and the selected socio-economic status variables of ability to acquire and deservability for leadership positions, reputable positions and independent income are considered.

Male and Female Perception of Women

Since the study's main focus is to investigate how women are perceived in terms of socio-economic status, this section is devoted to investigating male perception of women and women's self-image. This is achieved by enquiring on perception of women in terms of the socio-economic status variables of:

1. a woman's ability to manage more than one job.
2. a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss.
3. A woman's ability to be a big entrepreneur.
4. A woman's ability to acquire and use independent income.
5. A woman's ability to acquire and use higher education, a
6. A woman's ability in all social and economic spheres in society. These are analysed in table 3.

As indicated in table 3 a majority (56%) of the respondents have medium positive perception (M.P.P.) of a woman's ability to acquire and use higher socio-economic status and a good number (33.0%) have negative perception (G.N.P.) of a woman's ability to acquire and use higher socio-economic positions. The above means that majority of the respondents in general have a positive perception of women in terms of socio-economic status and a good number have a negative perception of women in terms of socio-economic status.

These findings have implications with regard to the relationship between attitudes and behaviours. Sociologists have grappled with this issue for quite sometime now. Some have argued that changed attitudes lead to changed behaviours. Others believe there is not enough evidence for this assertion as attitudes do not always result in changed behaviour. Our data supports the latter position. These data show that men's perception of women just like women's self image do not readily translate into improved social economic status of women. Thus, while the majority

of the respondents in our Lusaka, Zambia sample have a positive perception of women the situation remains that women occupy social economic positions which are lower than that of men. Thus, while attitude change may be a necessary condition to women improving their social economic status it is not in itself a sufficient condition. Neither are the effects of attitude change immediate. These data in a way point to the influence of other factors (for instance that of education) on women achieving higher social economic status. Thus, for instance these data (like many other studies in Zambia) show that women's educational attainment is for historical and other reasons lower than that of men (see Table 2.1). However, in Zambia higher socio-economic status require higher educational qualifications. Studies by Machungwa (1981) and Wiley (1971) show that for Zambia education is the single most important variable for occupational mobility. It is also implied that the views, opinions, and expectations on women in terms of socio-economic status depend on their current socio-psychological environment and socio-economic positions. These include their interests, needs, responsibilities, family roles and occupational positions. For example, the number of women engaged in both domestic and public duties, leadership and/or administrative positions, reputable positions, high income earning positions and higher academic positions determines people's views and opinions about women's ability to acquire and use such socio-economic positions. If there are few women in the above positions people tend to view

Table 3: Respondents Perception of Women's Abilities to Acquire and deservability for Higher Socio-Economic Positions. (N=200)

Variables	Levels of Perception					
	<u>No. Opin.</u>	<u>G.P.P.</u>	<u>M.P.P.</u>	<u>M.N.P.</u>	<u>G.N.P.</u>	<u>Total</u>
1. Perception of a woman's ability to manage than one job.	0(0.0%)	1(0.5%)	164(82.0%)	14(7.0%)	21(10.5%)	200(100%)
2. Perception of a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss.	0(0.0%)	10(5.0%)	107(53.5%)	2(1.0%)	81(40.5%)	200(100%)
3. Perception of a woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur.	0(0.0%)	9(4.5%)	68(34.0%)	54(27.0%)	69(34.5%)	200(100%)
4. Perception of a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income.	0(0.0%)	3(1.5%)	90(45.0%)	0(0.0%)	107(53.5%)	200(100%)
5. Perception of a woman's ability to acquire and use higher education.	0(0.0%)	3(1.5%)	173(85.5%)	9(4.5%)	17(8.5%)	200(100%)
6. Perception of a woman's ability in all social and economic spheres	4(2.0%)	7(3.5%)	73(36.5%)	15(7.5%)	101(50.5%)	200(100%)
Total	4(0.3%)	33(2.8%)	673(56.1%)	94(7.8%)	396(33.0%)	1200(100%)

G.P.P = Greater Positive Perception

M.P.P = Medium Positive Perception

M.N.P. = Medium Negative Perception

G.N.P = Greater Negative Perception

women both as not capable of being in and deserving such socio-economic positions. However, if there are more women in such positions then there is likely to be a general tendency to think that women can manage and that they also deserve those positions.

Failure to occupy higher socio-economic positions can bring about a tendency for people to think that women are generally of low intellectual and physical capacity. Similarly concentration of women in domestic duties has also brought about a tendency for people to think that women can only excel in the home. Similarly the fact that women are mostly financially cared for by their husbands or male relatives may also bring about a tendency to view women as people who do not need any high income earning occupations for they do not see the need for the higher earnings. The fact that women mostly occupy subordinate positions both in the home and at the place of work has made some men and women fail to recognise women's potentiality as administrators or leaders.

Women's interests such as exaggeration in maintaining their appearances also make them appear as potentially incapable of handling duties which require a lot of time and prudence in financial matters. Due to this women are at times seen as people who cannot handle finance responsibly. Therefore they are viewed as people who do not deserve independent income as they are taken to be most likely to devote their incomes to non-basic commodities such as

cosmetics rather than basics, such as food and clothing. This view implies that women's socio-psychological environment determine the way they are perceived by men and their own self-image.

The above views, to a large extent support the views of Mead (1934); Cantril (1968), Jackson (1968) and Hobbs and Blank (1978) who argue that one's behaviour and position both in the family and the society at large determine the views, opinions and expectations society holds about him or her.

The Relationship Between Sex, Age, Marital status, Education, Residence and Income and Perception of Women (Table 4-6.2).

Table 3 in the last section indicates that a majority (56.1%) of the respondents have medium positive perception (M.P.P.) of a woman's abilities to acquire and use higher socio-economic status. A substantive number (33.0%) have greater negative perception (G.N.P.) of a woman's ability to acquire and use higher socio-economic positions. This implies that more of the respondents perceived women positively. However, the data did not give us a clear picture on the relationship between male perception of women and women's self-image and the socio-psychological environment. That makes it imperative to investigate the relationship between perception of women and the variables of sex, age, marital status, education, residence and income. The investigation is done by relating the above variables to some selected socio-economic status variables of:

1. a woman's abilities to be administrative boss;
2. a woman's abilities to acquire and use independent income; and,
3. a woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur.

The Relationship Between Sex, Age, Marital Status, Education
Residence and Income and Perception of a Woman's abilities
to be Immediate administrative Boss (Table 4).

Findings with one exception, show that there is no significant relationship between perception of a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss and the variables of sex, age, marital status, education, residence and income, as each of the variables has majority of the responses with medium positive perception (M.P.P.) of a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss and a substantive number with greater negative perception. In the instances where the above is contrary, the differences are very insignificant. The above finding is confirmed by the computed Pearson's Chi-square values which indicate no association at 0.05 level of significance (see table 4). The exception is that those respondents with higher education, higher incomes and in higher cost residences have a positive perception of women's ability to be immediate administrative boss. On the whole, the findings imply that change in the socio-psychological environment has no influence on perception of women in terms of socio-economic status. Consequently the view that change in one's socio-psychological environ-

ment influences his or her perception (Mead, 1934; Cooley, 1964; Cantril, 1968; Alvin et. al. 1970; Birren, 1972; Cheit, 1972; Marjoribanks et. al. 1983, Vincente et. al. 1983 and Ebdargeeri, 1986) is not supported by the data. Thus, for Zambia the view must either be modified or rejected based on the above data. However, the exception implies the likely influence of education on perception as the variables of income and residence are positively related to education.

The Relationship Between Sex, Age, Marital status, Education Residence and Income and Perception of women's ability to Acquire and use Independent Income (Table 5).

The influence of the socio-psychological environment on perception was also investigated by looking at the relationship between sex, age, marital status, education, residence and income and perception of a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income.

Data in table 5 shows that more males than females perceive a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income negatively. The above finding was confirmed by the computed Pearson's Chi-square value of 11.677 which was significant at $P/.0029$. There are no significant differences in the responses of all the age categories as the computed Pearson's Chi-square is $X^2 = 1.6$, $P/.884$ which indicates

Table 4: The Relationship Between Respondents' Sex, Age, Marital Status, Education, Residence Income and Respondents Perception of a Woman's Ability to be Administrative Boss (N=200)

Variables		Levels of Perception				
<u>Sex</u>	<u>G.P.P.</u>	<u>M.P.P.</u>	<u>M.N.P.</u>	<u>G.N.P.</u>	<u>Total</u>	'Pearson's Chi-squar value
1. Male	4(4.0%)	55(55.0%)	2(2.0%)	39(39.0%)	100(50.0%)	$\chi^2=2.6,$ $P/.45$
Female	6(6.0%)	52(52.0%)	0(0.0%)	42(42.0%)	100(50.0%)	
2. <u>Age</u>						$\chi^2=2.1,$ $P/.91$
21-35 yrs	6(5.4%)	56(50.5%)	1(0.9%)	48(43.2%)	111(55.5%)	
36-55 yrs	4(5.1%)	44(55.7%)	1(1.3%)	30(38.0%)	79(39.5%)	
56+	0(0.0%)	7(70.0%)	0(0.0%)	3(30.0%)	10(5.0%)	
3. <u>Marital status</u>						$\chi^2=8.24,$ $P/.77$
Married	5(3.5%)	80(55.9%)	2(1.4%)	56(39.2%)	143(71.5%)	
unmarried	2(5.9%)	15(44.1%)	0(0.0%)	17(50.0%)	34(17.0%)	
devorced	1(10.0%)	4(40.0%)	0(0.0%)	5(50.0%)	10(5.0%)	
separated	1(16.7%)	4(66.7%)	0(0.0%)	1(16.1%)	6(3.0%)	
widowed	1(14.3%)	4(57.1%)	0(0.0%)	2(28.6%)	7(3.5%)	
4. <u>Educ.</u>						$\chi^2=22.72,$ $P/.09$
uneducated	1(25.0%)	2(50.0%)	0(0.0%)	1(25.8%)	4(2.0%)	
lower prim.	1(7.7%)	8(61.5%)	0(0.0%)	4(30.8%)	13(6.5%)	
upper prim.	1(2.9%)	22(64.7%)	0(0.0%)	11(32.4%)	34(17.0%)	
junior sec.	0(0.0%)	8(28.6%)	0(0.0%)	20(71.4%)	28(14.0%)	
senior sec.	4(10.0%)	21(52.5%)	0(0.0%)	15(37.5%)	40(20.0%)	
univ/col.	3(3.7%)	46(56.8%)	2(2.5%)	30(37.0%)	81(40.5%)	
5. <u>Resid.</u>						$\chi^2=7.72,$ $P/.26$
High cost	3(4.5%)	40(60.6%)	0(0.0%)	23(34.8%)	66(33.0%)	
mwsum cost	2(3.0%)	31(47.0%)	2(3.0%)	31(47.8%)	66(33.0%)	
low cost	5(7.4%)	36(52.9%)	0(0.0%)	27(39.7%)	68(34.0%)	
6. <u>Monthly Income</u>						$\chi^2=10.59,$ $P/.56$
Below K500	1(2.6%)	20(52.6%)	0(0.0%)	17(44.1%)	38(19.0%)	
K500-1000	3(5.6%)	27(50.0%)	0(0.0%)	24(44.4%)	54(27.0%)	
K1001-1500	2(4.8%)	19(45.2%)	1(2.4%)	20(47.6%)	42(21.0%)	
K1501-2000	1(4.0%)	13(52.0%)	11(44.0%)	25(12.5%)		
K2000+	3(7.3%)	28(68.3%)	1(2.4%)	9(22.8%)	41(20.5%)	

G.P.P = Greater Positive Perception

M.P.P = Medium Positive perception

M.N.P = Medium Negative perception

no association at .05 level of significance. Similarly there are no significant variations between the responses of the different marital status groups. This is indicated by both the tabulated data and the computed Pearson's Chi-square value, of $X^2 = 2.63$, $P/.96$, for the data, which indicates no association at 0.05 level of significance.

There are, however, some notable differences in the responses of the educated whereby the high education levels i.e. senior secondary education and above tend to have negative perception and the less educated, i.e. junior secondary education and below tend to have positive attitudes. Despite the above the computed Pearson's Chi-square values of, $X^2 = 7.86$ and $P/.64$ indicate no association between education and perception of a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income.

Both the high cost and low cost residences have a majority, 51.5 percent and 50.0 percent respectively, with medium positive perception (M.P.P.) of a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income, however the medium cost residence has a majority (65.2%) with greater negative perception (G.N.P.) of a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income. But these differences are not significant enough as the computed Pearson's Chi-square value for the data ($X^2 = 5.51$, $P/.23$) indicates no association at .05 level of significance. The lower and

the higher income groups tend to have positive perception of a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income and the middle income groups tend to perceive a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income negatively. A slight relationship is also observed from the computed Pearson's Chi-square value of $X^2 = 15.08$, and $P/.058$ which indicate some diminishing association between the two variables at .05 level of significance. Thus, the tendency is for income to have an effect on the perception of women's ability to acquire and use independent incomes.

The differences between the responses of the medium cost residence and the other two residential areas are attributed to the nature of women in the three residential areas. The women in the medium cost residential area are dominantly employed in clerical and secretarial positions. Although the above positions are less paying they require incumbents to be presentable i.e. well dressed. This makes the women spend a substantial amount of their earnings on cosmetics, expensive clothing and makeup. Unlike the women in the medium cost residential areas, women in the low cost areas are mainly engaged in marketeering and they contribute a substantial amount of their profits to family maintenance. As regards women of the high cost areas, most of them are engaged in well paying administrative posts. Even if they devoted some amount of their earnings to clothing and cosmetics, a substantive amount remains which can be used on other basic needs of the family. This

Table 5: The Relationship between Respondents' Sex, Age, Marital status Education, Residence and Income and Respondents' Perception of a Woman's Ability to Acquire and Use Independent Income: (N=200)

Variable		Levels of Perception					
1. <u>Sex</u>		<u>G.P.P.</u>	<u>M.P.P.</u>	<u>M.N.P.</u>	<u>G.N.P.</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	Pearson's Chi-square values.
Male		2(2.0%)	33(33.0%)	0(0.0%)	65(65.0%)	100(50.0%)	$\chi^2=11.677$, P/.0029
Female		1(1.0%)	57(57.0%)	0(0.0%)	42(42.0%)	100(50.0%)	
2. <u>Age</u>							$\chi^2=1.6$, P/.884
21-35 yrs		1(0.9%)	50(45.0%)	0(0.0%)	60(54.1%)	111(55.5%)	
36-55 yrs		2(2.5%)	36(46.6%)	0(0.0%)	41(51.9%)	79(39.5%)	
56+		0(0.0%)	4(40.0%)	0(0.0%)	6(60.0%)	10(5.0%)	
3. <u>Marital status.</u>							$\chi^2=2.63$, P/.96
Married		3(2.1%)	61(42.7%)	0(0.0%)	79(55.2%)	143(71.5%)	
unmarried		0(0.0%)	17(50.0%)	0(0.0%)	17(50.0%)	34(17.0%)	
divorced		0(0.0%)	6(60.0%)	0(0.0%)	4(40.0%)	10(5.0%)	
separated		0(0.0%)	3(50.0%)	0(0.0%)	3(50.0%)	6(3.0%)	
widowed		0(0.0%)	3(42.9%)	0(0.0%)	4(57.1%)	7(3.5%)	
4. <u>Education</u>							$\chi^2=7.86$, P/.64
Uneducated		0(0.0%)	2(50.0%)	0(0.0%)	2(50.0%)	4(2.0%)	
lower prim.		0(0.0%)	8(61.5%)	0(0.0%)	5(38.5%)	13(6.5%)	
upper prim.		0(0.0%)	20(58.8%)	0(0.0%)	14(41.2%)	34(17.0%)	
junior sec.		1(3.6%)	13(46.4%)	0(0.0%)	14(50.0%)	28(14.0%)	
senior sec.		1(2.5%)	14(35.0%)	0(0.0%)	25(62.5%)	40(20.0%)	
Univ/col.		1(1.2%)	33(40.7%)	0(0.0%)	47(58.0%)	81(40.5%)	
5. <u>Residence</u>							$\chi^2=5.51$, P/.239
High cost		1(1.5%)	34(51.5%)	0(0.0%)	31(47.0%)	66(33.0%)	
medium "		1(1.5%)	22(33.3%)	0(0.0%)	43(65.2%)	66(33.0%)	
low cost		1(1.5%)	34(50.0%)	0(0.0%)	33(48.5%)	68(34.8%)	
6. <u>Monthly Income</u>							$\chi^2=15.08$, P/.058
Below K500		0(0.0%)	25(65.8%)	0(0.0%)	13(34.2%)	38(19.0%)	
K500-1000		1(1.9%)	26(48.1%)	0(0.0%)	27(50.0%)	54(27.5%)	
K1001-1500		1(2.4%)	11(26.2%)	0(0.0%)	30(71.4%)	42(21.0%)	
K1501-2000		1(4.0%)	10(40.0%)	0(0.0%)	14(56.0%)	25(12.5%)	
K2000+		0(0.0%)	18(43.9%)	0(0.0%)	23(56.1%)	41(20.5%)	

finding to some extent supports the view that one's socio-psychological environment influences the way women are perceived as implied by Mead, 1934; Cooley, 1964; Cantril, 1968; Jackson, 1968; Hobbs & Blank, 1978.

The Relationship between Sex, Age, Marital Status, Education
Residence and Income and Perception of a Woman's abilities
to be a Big Entrepreneur (Table 6.1 and 6.2)

The section relates the variables of sex, age, marital status, education, residence and income and perception of a woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur. The data on this variable showed that unlike the findings on the previous variables, there are substantive responses on medium negative perception. Consequently, to facilitate understanding, the results on the above variable are discussed by jointly analysing greater positive perception (G.P.P.) and medium positive perception (M.P.P.); and medium negative perception (M.N.P.) and greater negative perception (G.N.P.) of a woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur, respectively (see table 6). The data in table 6 shows that there is no relationship between the variables of sex, age and marital status and perception of a woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur for all the variables have majority of the responses with negative perception (N.P.) of a woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur and a substantive number of the respondents with positive perception (P.P.) of a woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur. The above

view is also supported by the computed Pearson's Chi-square values of $X^2 = 4.6$, $P/.202$; $X^2 = 6.2$, $P/.390$ and $X^2=11.12$, $P/.52$, respectively, which indicate no association at .05 level of significance (see table 6).

The variables of education, residence and income, however prove contrary to the above for there are marked differences in the responses of the different education, residences and income categories, respectively. This is also indicated by the computed Pearson's Chi-square values of $X^2=27.93$, $P/.022$; $X^2=33.79$, $P/.0001$; and $X^2=19.31$, $P/.004$ for the data on education, residence and income respectively (see table 6). The above values indicate a very high association between these variables and perception of woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur at .05 level of significance.

The similarity in the responses on University college education, high cost residence and over K2000 income categories and vice versa and perception of a woman's abilities to be a big entrepreneur may be due to the fact that the respondents are the same people. For example, it is the low level education respondents, who at the same time have lower monthly incomes and occupy the low cost residential area. Similarly it is the respondents with higher education who have higher monthly incomes and occupy high cost residences. This stresses the impact of education on the way women are perceived.

Table 6: Sex, Age, Marital status, Education, Residence and Income and Perception of a Woman's Abilities to be a Big Entrepreneur: (N=200)

Variables

Levels of Perception of a woman's Abilities to be a Big Entrepreneur.

1.	<u>Sex</u>	<u>G.P.P.</u>	<u>M.P.P.</u>	<u>G.N.P.</u>	<u>G.N.P.</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	Pearson's Chi-square value
	Male	3(3.0%)	30(30.0%)	33(33.0%)	34(34.0%)	00(50.0%)	$X^2=4.6$, P/.202
	Female	6(6.0%)	38(38.0%)	21(21.0%)	35(35.0%)	00(50.0%)	
2.	<u>Age</u>						
	21-35 yrs	5(4.5%)	32(28.8%)	31(27.9%)	43(38.7%)	11(55.5%)	$X^2=6.3$, P/.390
	36-55 yrs	4(5.1%)	32(40.5%)	22(27.8%)	21(26.6%)	79(38.5%)	
	56+	0(0.0%)	4(40.0%)	1(10.0%)	5(50.0%)	10(5.0%)	
3.	<u>Marital status</u>						
	married	7(4.9%)	48(33.6%)	38(26.6%)	50(35.0%)	43(71.5%)	$X^2=11.12$, P/.52
	unmarried	1(2.9%)	10(29.4%)	12(35.4%)	11(32.4%)	34(17.0%)	
	divorced	0(0.0%)	3(30.0%)	2(20.0%)	5(50.0%)	10(5.0%)	
	separated	0(0.0%)	5(83.3%)	0(0.0%)	1(16.7%)	6(3.0%)	
	widowed	1(14.3%)	2(28.6%)	2(28.6%)	2(28.6%)	7(3.5%)	
4.	<u>Education</u>						
	uneducated	0(0.0%)	1(25.0%)	0(0.0%)	3(75.0%)	4(2.0%)	$X^2=27.93$, P/.022
	lower prim.	0(0.0%)	4(30.8%)	5(38.5%)	4(30.8%)	13(6.5%)	
	upper prim.	0(0.0%)	10(29.4%)	6(17.6%)	18(52.9%)	34(17.0%)	
	junior sec.	2(7.1%)	6(21.4%)	6(21.4%)	14(50.0%)	28(14.0%)	
	senior sec.	2(5.8%)	9(22.5%)	14(35.0%)	15(37.5%)	40(20.0%)	
	univ/col.	5(6.2%)	38(46.9%)	23(28.4%)	15(18.5%)	81(40.5%)	
5.	<u>Residence</u>						
	High cost	3(4.5%)	34(51.5%)	15(22.7%)	14(21.2%)	66(33.0%)	$X^2=33.79$, P/.0001
	medium "	6(9.1%)	14(21.2%)	27(40.9%)	19(28.9%)	66(33.0%)	
	low cost	0(0.0%)	20(29.4%)	12(17.6%)	36(52.9%)	68(34.0%)	
6.	<u>Income</u>						
	Below K500	0(0.0%)	12(31.6%)	7(18.4%)	19(50.0%)	38(19.0%)	$X^2=19.31$, P/.004
	K500-1000	3(5.6%)	13(24.1%)	14(25.9%)	24(44.4%)	54(27.0%)	
	K1001-1500	6(14.3%)	17(40.5%)	10(23.8%)	9(21.4%)	42(21.0%)	
	K1501-2000	0(0.0%)	7(28.0%)	10(40.0%)	8(32.0%)	25(12.5%)	
	K2000+	0(0.0%)	19(46.3%)	13(31.7%)	9(22.0%)	41(20.5%)	

The data in table 6 like the previous data in table 5, imply that changes in the socio-psychological environment do not necessarily influence perception of women in terms of socio-economic status. Analysis of the data on the relationship between perception of women in terms of socio-economic status and the variables of sex, age, marital status, education and residence does not give a clear picture on the relationship between perception of women in terms of socio-economic status and the socio-psychological environment. This is because the results are mixed. For instance, there are no significant differences between the responses of the different sex categories on perception of a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss; perception of a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income; and significant differences on perception of a woman's abilities to be big entrepreneur. Similarly the different age and marital status groups have no significant differences on responses on all the three variables. However, education, income and residence show significant differences only on perception of a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss and a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income. On the whole it is difficult to assess the relationship between perception of women and socio-psychological environment based on the variables of sex, age, marital status, education, income and residence.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUDING SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATION

The central problem of the study was to look at the way *men perceive women and women's self-image in Lusaka, Zambia*; and the relationship between men's perception of women and women's self-image and the variables of age, marital status, education, income and residence. This chapter attempts to summarize the major findings of the study and put forward some recommendations.

The Relationship between Men's Perception of Women And Women's Self-Image

The findings of the study show that women are in general positively perceived in Lusaka, Zambia in terms of socio-economic status. The data, therefore, does not support the hypotheses that (1) "men have a negative perception of women" and (2) "women have a negative self-image" in terms of socio-economic status. These findings imply that societal attitudes towards women do not determine the socio-economic position of women. If societal attitudes played a significant role in the determination of women's socio-economic position, we would expect the majority of women to occupy higher socio-economic positions as majority of the respondents have positive perception of women in terms of socio-economic status, however, this is not the case. The findings of the study therefore do not support the view that

failure to incorporate women in the development process is due to attitudes which regard women as inferior to men and passive subordinate human beings, (Shanshani, 1986). Perhaps other societal factors such as education may contribute to the persistent low socio-economic status of women. For example, the study reveals that women's educational attainment is relatively lower than that of their male counterparts. Educational qualifications play a big role in the acquisition of higher occupations. Higher occupations enhance one's socio-economic status. Women are, therefore, kept in lower occupations because of lack of right education qualifications. Another reason is that very few women are seen in leadership positions. This makes it difficult to assess whether women are capable of handling such duties (see Table 3). It is, therefore necessary to have a critical mass of women occupying such positions so as to act as role models for their fellow women. With the above in mind it is concluded that lack of right education qualifications and absence of role models in form of women in higher socio-economic positions rather than negative perception of women make it difficult to incorporate women in the development process.

Relationship between Mens Perception of Women and Women's Self-image

The data shows no significant difference between men's perception of women and women's self-image in terms of socio-economic status. This is because both men and

women perceived women positively. The findings do not support the views of Odebala (1972); Koch (1944); Erhumunsee (1983) and O'leary et. al. (1975) who contend that there are differences in the way men perceive women and the way women perceive themselves. And that men perceive women negatively. This finding confirms the hypothesis that "men's perception of women and women's self-image are positively related". The finding implies that people brought up in the same environment may normally hold similar views about particular social phenomena irrespective of sex. Thus, this study is suggesting the importance of cultural factors in perception.

Thus, the views of authors such as Mead (1934); Cooley (1964); Hobbs & Blank (1978); Faunce (1982); Jackson (1968); Alvin et. al. 1970 Bardouille (1981); Shifferaw (1982) and Sayar (1969) who contend that one's self-concept is delived from the way the significant others in her society view her are critically supported by these data. There is no significant difference between the way men perceive women and the way women perceive themselves because females tend to view themselves the way males view them. If men have a positive perception of women then women have a positive self-image.

The Influence of Age, Marital Status, Education, Income and Residence on Men's Perception of Women and Women's Self-Image

Analysis of the relationship between age, marital status, education, income and residence and perception of

women in terms of socio-economic status shows that age, marital status, income and residence have no significant influence on perception of women in terms of socio-economic status. In most of the cases there is no significant difference in the responses on the respective variables. For example, for the three dependent variables tested (that is, a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss; a woman's ability to be a big entrepreneur and; a woman's ability to acquire and use independent income) there was no significant difference in the responses of the different age and marital status categories.

The responses for the different education, residence and income categories, however, varied with respect to the variables of a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss, and a woman's ability to be a big entrepreneur. Respondents with higher education, higher incomes and in the high cost residences, respectively, had positive perception of a woman's abilities to be immediate administrative boss and a woman's ability to be a big entrepreneur. The above three variables, i.e., education, income and residence are positively related (see table 2.4). This implies that education influences one's perception of women. This is reinforced by the fact that when asked whether they would mind if a woman was their boss most respondents said 'no' and explained that when a woman has the right education qualifications she deserves higher socio-economic status.

This finding implies that men's perception of women and women's self-image, are acquired mostly through the socialization process. The findings contradict the views of Maijoribanks et. al. (1983) Ebdageeri (1986) Vicente et. al. (1983) Birren (1972); Coe (1972); Cantril (1968) Mead (1934); Cooley (1964) etc. who believe that change in the socio-psychological environment such as the residential area, one's income status, one's marital status and age brings about change in one's perceptions. On the whole the data does not support the hypothesis "men's perception of women and women's self-image are related to the variables of age, marital status, education income and residence".

It should, however, not be taken for granted that environment has no impact on men's perception of women and women's self-image. The inconsistency on results on the relationship between men's perception of women and women's self image and the variables of age, marital status, education, income and residence could be due to intervening cultural variables as the study did not take into account culture.

Recommendations

Since men's perception of women and women's self-image are acquired through the socialization process, agents of socialization, such as, families, schools and the church should be sensitized to socialize the members of the society in a way that will make them have high regard for women.

Efforts should be made to have more women in higher occupations in the public sphere. This may help to improve on the situation of women. This implies that they should have higher technical, administrative and managerial skills to make it possible for them to join such occupations. Consequently, it is recommended that more education opportunities for women be promoted.

Restrictive policies and views such as women cannot do hard jobs like underground mining should be removed. These hinder women's involvement in the public sphere.

Future studies may also concentrate on how culture affects perception of women in Zambia.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX IA

QUESTIONNAIRE

- Residential Area:
1. High Cost
 2. Medium Cost
 3. Low Cost

Section 1

Personal Information

Instructions:

Put a circle around the item appropriate to you where they are provided, and write down responses where they are not provided.

ANSWER QUESTIONS HONESTLY AND TRUTHFULLY

THANK YOU

1. Citizenship
 1. Zambian
 2. Non-Zambian
2. Sex:
 1. Male
 2. Female
3. Age:
 1. 21-35
 2. 36-55
 3. 56+

4. Marital Status:

1. Married
2. Unmarried
3. Divorced
4. Separated
5. Widowed.

5. Education:

1. Primary (Lower)
2. Primary (Upper)
3. Junior Secondary
4. Senior Secondary
5. University/College (please specify)
6. No education.

6. Monthly Income:

1. Below K500.00
2. K500-1000
3. K1001-1500
4. K1501-K2000
5. Over K2000.

SECTION TWO:

GENERAL INFORMATION

7. Is it possible for a woman to manage more than one job?
1. It is possible
 2. It is possible for some.
 3. It is not possible.
8. Give reasons for your answer in (7) above
-
-
-
9. Can a woman manage leadership or administrative roles such as Personnel management, Administrative work or Member of Parliament?
1. She can
 2. She can not
 3. Some can.
10. Give reasons for your answer in (8) above
-
-
-
11. Do you think Reputational Titles such as being a Member of Parliament, Professor, Licenced Importer/

Exporter, University Lecturer are suitable for women?

1. I think so.
2. I do not think so.

12. Give reasons for your answer in (11) above.

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13. Is a woman capable of attaining Higher Academic Qualifications such as a University Education.

1. Yes, she is capable
2. No, she is not capable
3. May be.
4. Yes and no.

14. Give reasons for your choice in (13) above.

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15. Do women need Higher Education Qualifications?

1. Yes
2. No.
3. Some
4. Perhaps.

16. Give reasons for your choice in (15) above.

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17. Would you employ a woman as Personnel Manager, if you were a Managing Director of a certain organisation?

1. Yes 2. No. 3. Perhaps.

18. Give reasons for your choice in (17) above.

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19. What would you prefer for a woman's highest academic qualification(s)?

1. Primary
2. Junior Secondary
3. Senior Secondary
4. University/College Education.
5. No education.

20. Give reasons for your choice in (19) above.

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21. Do women need any income of their own?

1. They do
2. They do not.
3. Some do.

22. Give reasons for your choice in (21) above.

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23. Whom would you prefer for your most immediate Boss?
1. A man 2. A woman 3. Either 4. None.
24. Give reasons for your choice in (23) above.
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25. Would you prefer a married woman rather than a man to be an Entrepreneur with the status of an Exporter/Importer, Manufacturer or Commercial Farmer?
1. Yes, I would
2. No, I would not
3. Perhaps.
26. Give reasons for your choice in (25) above.
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27. Most women in the formal and informal sectors earn monthly incomes of less than K1,000. Is this enough for them?
1. Yes 2. No 3. Some.
28. Give reasons for your choice in (27) above.
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29. In some countries, women in formal employment are denied leisure time such as maternity leave.

1. Fair 2. Unfair.

30. Reasons for your choice in (29) above.

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31. Below are two categories of professions. In which category would you prefer your wife's career to be?

1. Category 1

Doctor

Professor

Engineer

Pilot

Member of Parliament

2. Category 2

Nurse

Teacher

Secretary

Midwife

Saleswoman

3. Neither 1 or 2.

4. Both 1 and 2.

32. Give reasons for your answer in (31) above.

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33. What would you say about all women?

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APPENDIX IB

QUESTIONNAIRE

RESIDENTIAL AREA:

1. High Cost
2. Medium Cost
3. Low-Cost

SECTION 1: Zainu

Machitidwe. Congani nambala ya yankho yomwe mwasankha
ndiponso lembani mayankho yanu monga mwapasidwa

YANKHANI MAFUNSO MWA CIKHULUPILIRO NDI COONADI. ZIKOMO

1. Citizenship (Mtundu)
 1. Zambian (ndinu a muno)
 2. Non-Zambian (ndinu a kuziko lina)
2. Sex
 1. Mwamuna
 2. Nkazi
3. Zaka
 1. 21-35
 2. 36-55
 3. 56+

4. Marital Status

1. Wokwatila
2. Osakwatila
3. Wolekedwa
4. Wopatukana
5. Wofedwa

5. Maphunziro

1. Primary (lower)
2. Primary (upper)
3. Junior Secondary
4. Senior Secondary
5. University/College
6. Wosaphunzira.

6. Dipo la pamwezi

1. Simufika pa K500.00
2. Pakati pa K500-K1000
3. Pakati pa K1001-K1500
4. Pakati pa K15001-K2000
5. Kupitilira pa K2001.

SECTION TWO: (GAWO LA CIWIRI)

7. Kodi ndicotheka kuti mkazi (mzimai) atha kugwira
nchito zingapo?

1. Ndicotheka
2. Ndicotheka kwa ena
3. Ndicosatheka.

8. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mu funso (7)

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9. Kodi mkazi atha kugwira nchito ya utsogoleri yonga membala wa kunyumba ya malamulo kaya woyang'anira pa anthu anchito, kapenanso a

1. Angathe
2. Sangathe
3. Ena angathe.

10. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (9)

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11. Kodi muganiza kuti maina a nchito zo mveka monga 'MP' mphunzitsi wa kusukulu lalikulu ndizina zotero zionera kugwiridwa ndi azimai?

1. Ndiganiza tero
2. Sindiganiza tero.

12. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (11).

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13. Kodi mzimai angathe kuphunzira kotero kuti anakwanitse maphunziro a pamwamba onga a ku "Univesiti" (universit
1. Angathe
 2. Sangathe
 3. Kapena.
 4. Angathe ndiponso sangathe.
14. Pelekani zifukwa pa sankho lanu mufunso (13).
-
-
-
15. Kodi azimai afunika maphunziro a pamwamba?
1. Inde
 2. Ai
 3. Ena maiwo
 4. Kapena.
16. Pelekani zifukwa pa sankho lanu mufunso (15).
-
-
-
17. Kodi mungalembe mzimai kukhajhala 'Personnel Manager', mutakhala a 'Managing Director' a pa nchito?
1. Yes
 2. Ai
 3. Kapena.

18. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (17).

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19. Kodi mzimai ayenela kuphunzira mpaka poti?

1. Primary (anyone worth
2. Junior secondary interviewing
3. Senior Secondary will understand)
4. University/College
5. Osaphunzila Konse.

20. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (19).

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21. Kodi akazi (azimai) afunika dipo (malipilo) yao-yao
ya mutundu uliwonse?

1. Inde
2. Ai
3. Ena mwaiwo.

22. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (21).

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23. Kodi mungakonde yani kukhala bwana wanu?

1. Mwamuna
2. Mzimai
3. Aliyense pa iwo.
4. Palibe.

24. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (23).

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25. Kodi mungakonde mkazi wokwatiwa mumalo mwa mwamuna kukhala ndi nchito yogula kaya kugulitsa katundu kumaiko ena, kapena a kakhala mulimi?

1. Inde, ndingakondwe
2. Ai, sindingakondwe
3. Kapena.

26. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (25).

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27. Azimai ambiri apasidwa malipilo ya ndalama pa mwezi yocepelela pa K1,000 mu nchito yosiyana-siyana zimene agwira. Kodi ndalama iyi iwkwana?

1. Inde
2. Ai
3. Ena mwaiwo.

28. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (27).

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.....
.....

29. M'maiko ena, azimai panchito sapasidwa cuti monga
pa nthawi yakuti ali ndi 'pakati'. Nanga ganizo
lanu pazotere mukutipo bwanji?

1. Ndizabwino

2. Sicabwino.

30. Pelekani zifukwa pa yankho lanu mufunso (29).

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31. Munsimu muli zigawo ziwiri za ukatswiri wa nchito.
Ndicigawo cotani comwe mungafune mkazi wanu
kugwilamo nchito?

1. Cigawo 1

Dotolo

Professor

Engineer

Woyondesa ndege (Pilot)

(MP) Membala wa nyumba

yamalamulo

2. Cigawo 2

Nurse

Mphunzitsi

Kalaliki

Nyakhawa (Mbozwa)

Wamalonda

3. Simungalore mugawo

iliyonse.

4. Gawo 1 kaya Gawo 2.

32. Pelekani zifukwa za yankho lanu mufunso (31).

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33. Mungakaponji pa azimai onse?

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MAFUNSO YATHELA PAMENEPA (POMPA)
ZIKOMO KWAMBIRI PA CHIGWILIZANO CANU.

Appendix 2:

MEN'S PERCEPTION OF WOMEN AND WOMEN'S SELF-IMAGE
IN ZAMBIA: CODE BOOK

<u>COLUMN</u>	<u>QUESTION AND CATEGORY CARD NO.</u>
1-3	Card Number
4	<u>Residential Area</u> 1. High Cost 2. Medium Cost 3. Low Cost
5	<u>Citizenship</u> 1. Zambian 2. Non-Zambian
6	<u>Sex</u> 1. Male 2. Female
7	<u>Age</u> 1. 21-35 2. 36-55 3. 56+
8	<u>Marital Status</u> 1. Married 2. Unmarried 3. Divorced 4. Separated 5. Widowed

9

Education

1. Primary (Lower)
2. Primary (Upper)
3. Junior Secondary
4. Senior Secondary
5. University/College
6. Uneducated

10.

Monthly Income

1. Below K500.00
2. K500-K1,000
3. K1,001-K1,5000
4. K1,501-K2,000
5. Over K2,000

11

Is it possible for a woman to
manage more than one job?

1. Greater Positive- Perception. Possible because women are extra active people.
2. Medium Positive - Perception Possible because I have observed women managing two jobs.
 - Women would want to improve on their economic status.
 - Possible because women are normal human beings with same capacity as men who manage two jobs.
 - Possible because what matters is educational qualification.

- Possible for some because women have different levels of intelligence.
 - Possible because they can organise assistants to assist them.
 - She can do one during her leisure time.
3. Medium Negative perception - Possible for some because she can manage if neither of the two jobs is housewifely.
- Not possible because women are over committed in the family.
4. Greater Negative Perception - Possible for some because women who are above average can..
- Not possible because women are physically weak.
 - Women are only meant for the home.
 - Women have no ability to concentrate on two jobs.

12. Can a woman manage leadership or administrative roles?

1. Greater Positive- perception She has better qualities for these roles because of her motherly ability.
2. Medium Positive Perception - What matters is the right educational qualification.
- She has leadership ability.
 - I have personally observed this.

- Some can because some women are temperamental while others are not.
- Some can because some women have the necessary commitment while others lack it.

3. Medium Negative - She can as long as she is not
Perception overcommitted in the home.

- Some can because unmarried ones can but married ones can't.

4. Greater Negative - She can because these jobs require
Perception mental ability rather than physical ability.

- She cannot because the above jobs are too difficult for women.
- She cannot because women are temperamental.
- She cannot because the above jobs involve being out of the home and a woman is meant for the home.
- She cannot because women are taken as subordinate and she will not be respected.

13. Do you think reputable titles are
suitable for women?

1. Greater Positive - Women do much better in some of
Perception these jobs.

2. Medium Positive Perception - I think so because women have the right to compete for these titles.
- It improves their status.
 - They should get them as long as they have the ability.
 - What matters is educational qualification.
 - May be she is capable if she is not interrupted by incidents such as pregnancy and marriage.

3. Greater Negative Perception - May be she is capable because women are generally of low capability but those above average can.
- May be because women have no future challenges to make them work harder.
 - Some are too weak to pass.

15

Do women need higher education qualification

1. Greater Positive Perception - Yes because the best teachers are women.
- Women outnumber men so we can contribute to national development.
2. Medium Positive Perception - Need it for better jobs, better income and better living.
- For highly educated husbands and better jobs.

- They have the ability to acquire it.
- For an enlightened society.
- To be models for their children.
- Perhaps because it is not always a necessity.

3. Medium Negative - Higher education is for good jobs
Perception and women do not need them as they are already committed elsewhere.
- Their major role is to be married and look after the home and children and higher education hampers this.
 - Some because it is not necessary for s
4. Greater Negative - They do not need good jobs because
Perception when they get married they are cared for by their husbands.
- Some women do not make use of the education they acquire.
 - University education as long as it is in particular fields.
 - Some less educated men would not accept highly educated women since men are meant to be family heads.

1. Greater Positive - Yes because women are more trustworthy
Perception than men.
2. Medium Positive - Yes because I would need a woman
Perception to cater for the needs of other women.
 - Yes because I would work better with a person of the same sex.
 - Yes because choice would be on merit.
 - Yes because I have seen women manage well.
 - Yes because I don't see why women should be segregated against.
 - Perhaps because choice would be on merit.
 - To promote women's status.
3. Medium Negative - No because I would prefer to work
Perception with a person with different view from mine.
 - No because this is a job that needs a lot of commitment and women are committed elsewhere.
 - No because married women would not be chosen.
4. Greater Negative - No because ladies tend not to respect
Perception fellow ladies.

- No because women are selfish.
- No because a lady should not be a leader anywhere.
- No because ladies are not courageous and cannot withstand strikes.
- Perhaps because in some jobs a woman may have the mental ability and lack physical ability.
- A lady would respect me more than a man.

17

What would you prefer for a woman's highest academic qualifications?

1. Greater Positive Perception - University/College because women
- Senior Secondary because if a woman goes beyond that level she forgets her traditional roles.
- Senior Secondary because, it is enough to broaden her mind for interaction and understanding of her environment and she doesn't need anything further than this.

18

Do women need any income of their own?

1. Greater Positive Perception - They do because most of the work done in the family is done by a woman and she needs money to assist her.

2. Medium Positive - They do because they need it to
Perception support themselves. Need it to support their families.
- It enhances their status.
 - They need returns for whatever they do
3. Medium Negative - N/A
Perception
4. Greater Negative - They need it to supplement their
Perception families' income.
- They don't because women are always controlled by men so all income should be controlled by men.
 - Their husbands can't satisfy the families' need.

19 Whom would you prefer for your most immediate boss?

1. Greater Positive - A woman because male bosses always
Perception ask for love from female subordinates.
- A woman because men like competing with each other.
 - A woman because she would understand me better as a fellow woman.
2. Medium Positive - Either because I would accept any
Perceptive as long as he/she is understanding and qualified for the job.

- I would accept any as long as higher authorities approve of him/her.
 - There are both good and bad male bosses as there are both good and bad female bosses.
 - I would work well with either.
2. Medium Negative Perception - A man because women are committed elsewhere so she would not be available all the time.
4. Greater Negative Perception - A man because it is something in born that women are regarded as subordinates to men.
- Men are more understanding than women.
 - We have so many things in common so she would understand me better.
 - Women are too shy to command.
 - Women discriminate against each other.
 - We would respect each other as we are different.
- 20 Would you prefer a married woman rather than a man to be an entrepreneur with the status of importer, exporter, manufacturer or commercial farmer.
1. Greater Positive Perception - Yes I would because women are more understanding than men. So she would make a good employer.

- 90 -

- Women are more-business like than men
- Women can make better use of their income than men.
- Women are more trustworthy.

2. Medium Positive
Perception

- My preference would be on merit.
- No I would not because my preference would be on merit.
- Perhaps I would because my preference would be on merit.

3. Medium Negative
Perception

- I would be promoting women's status.
- I have to support my fellow women.
- Yes I would because such a woman would be an example that such is achievable by women.

4. Greater Negative
Perception

- No I would not because women do not concentrate as much as men.
- A woman does not need it as she has no family to support.
- Women feel insecure when it comes to wide travelling and end up girl friends to their business counterparts
- Women's activities are dictated upon by their husbands and this would affect a big business venture.
- Women are physically weak.
- Such women would be too difficult to be controlled by their husbands.

- Big jobs are meant for men.
- Perhaps I would because my choice would depend on whether such a business involves a lot of manual work or not.

21 Most women in the formal and informal sectors earn K1,000.00 or less per month. Is this enough for them?

1. Greater Positive - N/A
Perception
2. Medium Positive - No it is not enough to maintain them and their families as the cost of living is high.
Perception
 - Some because they have different needs.
3. Medium Negative - N/A
Perception
4. Greater Negative - It is enough because a lady should be looked after by a man.
Perception
 - It is not enough to supplement their husband's salaries since the cost of living is high.
 - Some because it is supplementary for the married.

22 In some countries women in formal employment are denied leisure time such as maternity leave. Is this fair or unfair?

1. Greater Positive Perception - Unfair because women need rest when heavily pregnant and immediately after birth as they are too weak to work.
 - Need maternity leave because bringing up a child is also a duty whose time should be specified.
 - Unfair because pregnancy is something determined by nature.
 - Unfair because It is for the good of the nation the mother and the child.
2. Medium Positive Perception - Unfair because everybody sick or not sick needs rest.
3. Medium Negative Perception - Unfair because denying maternity leave means discouraging birth.
4. Greater Negative Perception - It is fair because giving women maternity leave promotes laziness.

23 Below are two categories of professions, in which category would you prefer you or your wife's career to be?

1. Greater Positive Perception - Category 1 because I would be a boss of my own.
 - Category 2 because they require patience and being understanding which are attributes of women.
2. Medium Positive Perception - Category 1, which includes doctor, professor, engineer, pilot and Member of Parliament because they are more rewarding in terms of social economic status.
 - Women should have careers closer to their husbands careers for better understanding of one another.
 - Category 2, because they exclude piloting which is risky.
 - Category 1, because they lie within my qualifications.
 - Neither category 1 or 2 because people should do what their abilities can afford them.

4. Greater Negative - Category 2 because it is easy to
Perception get qualification for these jobs.

- Neither category 1 and 2 because some jobs in category 1 require masculinity whereas some jobs in category 2 make women become wives of their bosses.

24

What would you say about all women?

1. Greater Positive - All women mind cleanliness.
Perception

- All women are loving kind and understanding people.

- All women need to be respected as mothers of mankind.

2. Medium Positive - All women are capable of performing
Perception as well as men.

- All women have different minds/capabilities.

- All women need equal treatment with men.

- All women are useful to the nation.

3. Medium Negative - All women are left out in develop-
Perception mental activities/income earning activities.

4. Greater Negative - All women like back biting other
Perception people.

- All women are meant for the home.

- All women like competing with each other.

- All women feel they can't do laborious work.

- All women regard themselves as people who should be looked after by men.

- God deliberately made women differently from men.
- All women change fashion as times change.
- All women need men's assistance.
- All women lose their temper quickly.
- All women take things for granted.
- All women are weak minded.

N/B 1 - Greater positive perception
2 - Medium positive perception
3 - Medium negative perception
4 - Greater negative perception

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HOME
BACKGROUND AND INDISCIPLINE AMONG SECONDARY
SCHOOL PUPILS IN SELECTED ZAMBIAN SCHOOLS

BY

FREDERICK SIMATE

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

LUSAKA

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 *S. M. A. T.*
DATE *12 / 5 / 93*

APPROVAL

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.

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10th June 1992
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P. Mutimbo.....

13/5/93.....

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DEDICATION

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

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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 8, 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 deplored 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 18, 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 (Glassey 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 102 subjects. Therefore, this study cannot claim to have found results that can be applied to all secondary schools in Zambia. 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 quarreling 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 LITERATURE

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.

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 (Gnagney, 1977; Glassey 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, 1968).

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 (McGrew, 1972; Smith and Connolly, 1972 and Rodin, 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 (Reid, 1982; Clausen, 1966; Stott, 1966 and Moore et al, 1984). Bossard (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, 1958; Farnsworth, 1984; Gardner, 1974; Kalter, 1977 and Hetherington, 1976). The loss of a parent through death, desertion, divorce or separation has negative consequences on children (Gardner, 1974; Hetherington, 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, 1982). In both instances, it is the mother who usually faces financial problems (Banes, 1976). With the failure to satisfy their material needs children in such circumstances tend to fend for themselves and may get in trouble.

Gregory (in Rutter, 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. Rutter (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 Biller 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. Datta (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 Wylie and Delagado (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 (Mohanani, 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. Oloruntimehin (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. Hetherington 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 (1984) 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. Nye (1958) 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 Tiller'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, 1978; Oloruntumehin, 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, 1978). 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, 1986). 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 (1986), 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 affective ties to the family and deviant behaviour (Datesman and Scarpetti, 1975; Rutter, 1975; Hirschi, 1969; Poole and Regoli, 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 (1968) 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, Myanaluhi (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) confusions :

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 (Rutter, 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 McIntire, 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 Zarb (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 later 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, 1980).

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).

Zarb (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 Zambian mass media, in support of these views, it seems, however, that this has remained an assumption. No systematic study has been done in Zambia 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

METHODOLOGY

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

name of school	no. of boys	no. of girls
munali (boys)	21	-
matero (boys)	21	-
matero (girls)	-	18
Libala (co-education)	12	8
kamwala (co-education)	13	9
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 Appenix 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 compound. 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.

<u>No. of occupants</u>	<u>No. of rooms</u>	<u>Scores</u>
1	1	5
2	1	4
3	1	3
4	1	2
over 4	1	1

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 of 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 than those who rarely resort to physical punishment. 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 1990. 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 102 pupils, 51 problem and 51 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 subjects 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 receive 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 B).

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 in table 2 below.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF PROBLEM AND NON-PROBLEM
PUPILS ON THE VARIABLE OF PARENTAL OCCUPATION

Pupils' group	N	M	SD	Z	P
Problem (1)	51	8.6	2.9	8.54	.05
Non-problem (2)	51	12.1	3.48		

Table 2 above shows that the mean for the problem group is 8.6 and the standard deviation is 2.9 while the mean and standard deviation for the non-problem group of pupils are 12.1 and 3.8 respectively. The computed value of z is 8.54 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 on the next page.

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF PROBLEM AND NON-PROBLEM PUPILS
ACROSS THE FOUR MAIN TYPES OF RESIDENTIAL AREAS

Residential area	pupils' group	
	Problem (1)	Non-problem (2)
Low density	36%	38%
Medium density	34%	48%
High density	8%	12%
Shanty compound	22%	2%

Table 3 above reveals that whereas 38 per cent and 48 per cent of the non-problem pupils live in low and medium density areas respectively, only 36 per cent and 34 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 8 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 (2%) 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 (48%) as compared to the percentage of problem pupils who live there (34%).

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

residential area	Problem pupils	non-problem pupils	Totals
low density	18	19	37
medium density	17	24	41
high density	4	6	10
shanty compound	11	1	12
totals	50	50	50

chi-square = 10.828 df = 3 $P < 0.05$

Table 4 above shows that the computed value of chi-square is 10.8. 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 relationship 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 χ^2 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 shown in table 5 below.

TABLE 5

MEAN SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATION AND Z SCORES OF PROBLEM AND NON-PROBLEM PUPILS ON THE VARIABLE OF OVERCROWDING

pupils' group	N	M	SD	Z	P
Problem (1)	51	2.75	1.66	3.07	0.05
Non-problem (2)	51	3.39	1.84		

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 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

Pupil's group	N	Family size	
		six children and less	more than six children
Problem (1)	50	36%	64%
Non-problem (2)	50	68%	32%

Table 6 above shows that whereas 68 per cent of the families of the non-problem group of pupils consisted of six children or less, only 36% of the 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 32 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

Family size (x)	Problem pupils	non-problem pupils	Totals
$x \leq 6$	18	34	52
$x > 6$	32	16	48
Totals	50	50	100

chi-square = 10.4 df = 1 $P < 0.05$

Table 7 above shows that the computed value of chi-square is 10.4. This value is greater than the critical value of chi-square of 3.841 for 1 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, chi-square is significant. These data do establish at 0.05 level of significance 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 60 per cent of parents of non-problem pupils were married,

only 48 per cent of the parents of the problem pupils were married. And 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 8 below.

TABLE 8

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

Parents' marital status	<u>Pupils' group</u>		Totals
	Problem	Non-problem	
Married	24	30	54
Separated	6	10	16
Divorced	20	10	30
Totals	50	50	100

$$\text{chi-square} = 7.98 \quad \text{df} = 2 \quad P < 0.05$$

Table 8 shows that the computed value of chi-square is 7.98. 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 z test was used to analyse both items. This is also a two-tail test. Therefore, the critical value of z is 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. The results for item (a) are shown in table 9 below.

TABLE 9

A COMPARISON OF PROBLEM AND NON-PROBLEM
PUPILS ON THE VARIABLE OF DEGREE OF HAPPINESS
DEMONSTRATED BY PARENTS

Pupils' group	N	M	SD	Z	P
Problem (1)	27	6.07	5.02	2.43	0.05
non-problem (2)	30	6.76	2.6		

Table 9 shows that the mean for the problem group of pupils is 6.07 and the standard deviation is 5.02 while the mean and standard deviation for the non-problem group of pupils is 6.16 and 2.6 respectively. The computed value of z is 2.43 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 at school.

For item (b) the mean for the problem group of pupils is 6.8 whereas that for the non-problem group of pupils is 7.3. The two groups had a similar standard deviation of 1.14. 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

Pupils' group	N	M	SD	Z	P
Problem (1)	27	7.1	2.67	0.62	0.05
non-problem (2)	30	6.4	5.48		

Table 10 above shows that the mean for the problem group of pupils is 7.1 and the standard deviation is 2.67 while the mean and standard deviation for the non-problem group are 6.4 and 5.48 respectively. The computed value of z is 0.62 which is less than the critical value of 1.96. Hence, z is not statistically significant at 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 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, family size, family disruption and family tension on one hand and indiscipline at school on the other hand. The results, however, do not

snow 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, 1982; Reid, 1982 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 engaged 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 (2%) 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 bad habits and unhealthy mental attitudes in children (Glassey and Weeks, 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, 1968; 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 childrens' 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 (Glassey 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, 1958; Farnsworth, 1984; Gardner, 1974; Hetherington, 1976; Walter, 1977; Glassey 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 (Oloruntimehin, 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 (Mohanani, 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 problem boys in the sample blamed parents for failing to understand their children. This problem was also stated by Mwanalushi (1980), who concluded that one of the problems facing youths in Zambian secondary schools was that of being misunderstood by elders. Another girl in the sample 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 such emotional difficulties may not develop a correct self image and tend to exhibit 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 behavioural 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 generalizable 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 careermasters 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 implimentation 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, neaith and family background. Data are entered into the record annually, throughout the pupil's educational histry, 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 reiference 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 arguement is that the teacher cannot hope to takle 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 contunues 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. Kamwala, 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 nappy _____ B. nappy _____ 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/ guardian	mother	step father	step mother
like him/her very much				
like him/her				
mild dislike				
considerable dislike				
very strong dislike				

26. how much conflict is there between your..

	father & mother	step father & mother	step mother & father
none at all			
A little			
to some degree			
A lot			

27. my

	father/ guardian	mother	step father	step mother
takes great interst in us				
takes moderate interest in us				
does not take much interest in us				

27. continued from page 66.

takes little interest in us				
takes no interest in us				

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 EIGHT-POINT OCCUPATIONAL SCALE

NON-MANUAL OCCUPATIONS	SCORES
1. Professional and high administrative, e.g. doctors, lawyers, bankers, accountants, teachers.	8
2. Managerial and executive, e.g. men who owned their own business, or who managed a business for the owner.	7
3. Supervisory, white collar, e.g. those in the mass media and publishing industries.	6
4. Routine clerical, e.g. cashiers and clerks.	5
MANUAL OCCUPATIONS	
5. Foreman, supervisory (manual), e.g. construction foreman.	4
6. Skilled manual, e.g. men who have served an apprentice in a trade, e.g. motor mechanics.	3
7. Semi-skilled manual, e.g. men in occupations for which some training and skill is necessary, e.g. bus drivers.	2
8. Unskilled manual, e.g. men engaged in unskilled manual labour; requires neither training nor responsibility, e.g. farm workers.	1

Source: Miller, G.W. (1970) 'Factors in School Achievement and Social Class', in Journal of Educational Psychology 61, pp. 260-269.

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 _____

Discipline Problems	Ratings		
	Often	Sometimes	Never
Smoking and drug use			
Stealing			
Rudeness to teachers			
T truancy			
Drinking			
Fighting			

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