

HOME ENVIRONMENTS AND ADOLESCENT MALADJUSTMENT:
THE IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SCHOOL COUNSELLOR.

JOKSHAN L KAHEERU-KATIGO

THIS THESIS HAS BEEN ACCEPTED FOR
THE DEGREE OF M.A. 1980
AND A COPY MAY BE PLACED IN THE
UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

A Thesis submitted to the University of Nairobi
in partial fulfilment for the Degree of Master
of Arts.

1980

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI LIBRARY



0146220 9

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
LIBRARY

Bd 17326


Afr.

HV

9069


· K34

"This thesis is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree in any other University".



JOKSHAN KAHEERU-KATIGO

"This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as University Supervisor."



DR. DANIEL M. KIMINYO
SENIOR LECTURER,
EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is a pleasure to record my sincere thanks to my sponsor, Otto Benecke Stiftung, Bonn for their kind acceptance to finance my studies at the University. In the same connection I am grateful to Mrs. Ursula Pandikow for her motherly friendliness whenever problems cropped up in the course of this study.

I am most grateful to Dr. Daniel Kiminyo and Dr. Edward Oyugi for their valued help, suggestions, and advice. Both men were excellent supervisors.

Teachers and Headmasters, in the schools where the investigation was carried out, gave me much support for which I am very grateful. Special thanks to the pupils, who made the project possible.

Mrs. Florence O. Pate did an excellent job in typing all the copies in her spare time. I am grateful to her.

Finally, it is a pleasure to record particular thanks to my wife Rebecca, and our children Jane, Joshua, Elizabeth, and Joyce for their patience and understanding during all the stages of this project.

C O N T E N T S

CHAPTER:		PAGE:
I	THE PROBLEM	
	Background	1
	General statement of the problem ...	2
	Basic assumptions	5
	Theoretical Framework	6
	Bases of Human Behaviour	8 —
	Characteristics of Home Environments .	15 —
	Statement of Hypotheses	22
	Scope of the Study	23
II	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	
	Introduction	26
	Family Stability	30
	Parents' Education	33
	Parental Occupational level	34
	Family Size	39
	The need for the Study	41
III	METHODOLOGY	
	Teachers' Ratings	43
	Apparatus For Measuring Maladjustment.	45
	Home Environments	48
	Experimental Procedure	54
	Problems Encountered	60 ✓
	Analysis of Data	61

CHAPTER:	PAGE:
IV ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS	
✓ Family Stability	63
✓ Parental Education	64
✓ Parental Occupation	66
✓ Family Size	67
Discussion	69
Summary	75
Conclusions	76
Recommendation for Research	78
Recommendation for Implementation ...	78
REFERENCES	80
APPENDICES	
Appendix A: Tables for Chi-squared Computation	86
Appendix B: Form for 'out of class' maladjustment	89
Appendix C: Form for 'inside the class' maladjustment	90
Appendix D: Questionnaire for Home environments.	91

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
I	Distribution of maladjusted subjects according to level of home stability	63
II	Distribution of maladjusted subjects in each level of parental education	65
III	Distribution of maladjusted subjects in each parental occupation level	66
IV	Distribution of maladjusted subjects according to family size	68

A B S T R A C T

An investigation was carried out among Kenyan Secondary School pupils in Nairobi Province with the aim of examining the relationship between home environments and adolescent maladjustment in school. Maladjustment was operationally defined in terms relevant to school counselling.

Two instruments were used in this investigation. The first one was a pair of forms with a list of observable maladjustive behaviours which were given to school teachers so that they would record the number of times a particular pupil or subject behaved in a maladjusted way. Each subject was assigned one pair of these forms. Observation was made under normal school conditions. The second instrument was a questionnaire administered to the subjects requiring them to indicate the type of home environment they belonged to.

The types of home environments investigated were:-
(i) Family stability, (ii) Parental Education,
(iii) Parental occupation, and (iv) Family size. The concern was on the relationship between each of these environments and adolescent maladjustment.

The subjects were 151 pupils from two high cost boarding secondary schools. One school was for boys while the other was for girls. In each school two Form II classes were used. There were forty one pupils in each of the two classes in the boys' school leading to a total of eighty two boys. In the girls' school one of the classes had thirty six while the other had thirty three, making

a total of sixty nine girls. For both sexes, the ages ranged from thirteen to seventeen years old.

The data was analyzed on the basis of percentage of maladjusted pupils found in each home environment. A chi-squared test of association was also carried out.

The results showed (unexpectedly) that the level of maladjustment was higher in stable families than in unstable families. While the level of maladjustment declined with higher education (as was expected) from none education to medium education, it rose again when it came to high (university) education. When sex differences were considered it was found that the level of maladjustment rose with higher education among the boys while it declined with higher education among the girls.

While the high income occupations had the lowest level of maladjustment (as was expected) it was the middle income group which had the highest level of maladjustment, and not the low income group. Sex comparisons showed that among the girls, maladjustment was high in the low income group and low in the high income group. The contrary was true among the boys.

The general implications of these results for the counsellor were that maladjustment should be expected from any home environment. This was confirmed by the results of the X^2 test which showed that none of the home environments considered was a significant determinant of maladjustment.

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM

Background

The need for guidance and counselling in our secondary schools has been emphasized by various writers in Kenya, and in East Africa as a whole. These include Ishumi (1972) who stated that there was a definite need for guidance and counselling in our East African educational institutions. Gusa (1979), Headmaster of Joyland School, Kisumu, went further and illustrated why guidance and counselling services were needed.

Gusa mentioned excessive fears, anxieties, and crying, shyness, withdrawn behaviours, aggressive and hostile behaviour, difficulty with authority and with other children, school achievement below ability level, and evidence of parental neglect such as attention seeking noises. All these are maladjustment symptoms.

Gusa said that the counsellors should work closely with all school personnel to broaden the school's knowledge and understanding of the home environments, and the problems of an individual child. Thus Gusa not only saw the need for counselling but also the necessity to have thorough knowledge of the home environment.

However, East African countries lack literature on the behaviour of our adolescents which is essential knowledge for secondary school counselling. The

literature available has been written about and for western cultures. It is this need to have relevant information which is the rationale behind this study.

Newsome et al (1973) emphasized the need for such information when he said;

Constructive personal growth is associated with the counsellors realness, with his genuine and unconditional liking for his client, with his sensitive understanding of his client's private world, and with his ability, to communicate these qualities in himself to the client. (Page 17).

This study, therefore, endeavoured to investigate the would-be client's world and relate it to his adjustment level, in a Kenyan Cultural Setting with emphasis on the home.

Dinkmeyer (1965) says that the home plays a major part in providing the atmosphere within which the child forms his life style. Patterns of behaviour which eventually become habitual and predictable are first practiced in this setting. It becomes evident then, that those who have the first contact with the developing personality of the child are at the frontiers of his mental health.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There are adolescents in Kenyan secondary schools who are frequently emotionally disturbed. They show signs of:-

1. Avoidance of others
2. Aggressiveness,
3. Self-deprivation and self punishment,
- and 4. poor academic

performance. The home is the primary societal unit. Family relationships play an important role in an individual's life pattern from early childhood through adulthood. Family attitudes and behaviour become matters of great concern, especially during the adolescent period when the girl or the boy is developing. (Crow and Crow, 1965).

The problem is:- Is there any relationship between the home environment and the level of adolescent maladjustment in school? If any, what are the implications for the school counsellor?

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

In order to provide adequate and relevant counselling in the local secondary schools, it is important that factors which lead to maladjustment be investigated in the Kenyan cultural setting.

This study was deliberately concerned with certain home environments within the present day society, with their inherent characteristics. These home environments among others are:-

1. Size of the family as indicated by number of children,
2. Level of parents' occupation,
3. Level of education of parents, and
4. Stability of the family.

The concern was confined to the relationship between home environments and adolescent maladjustment. The questions this study intended to answer were based on the above four major variables. In this study, home environments were treated as the independent variable while adolescent maladjustment was treated as the dependent variable.

The questions to be answered were:-

1. What are the effects of family stability on maladjustment?
2. What are the effects of parents' education on maladjustment?
3. What are the effects of occupation of parents on maladjustment?
4. What are the effects of family size on maladjustment?
5. Do these 4 variables affect boys and girls differently as far as maladjustment is concerned?

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

(i) The Dictionary of Behavioural Sciences defines adjustment as a harmonious relationship with the environment involving the ability to satisfy most of one's needs and meet most of the demands, both physical and social, that are put upon one. Failure to develop this harmonious relationship is what has been considered as maladjustment.

Maladjustment behaviours in this study were observable by an ordinary secondary school teacher in a normal secondary school. Such behaviours included 'mild' delinquency, which does not as yet qualify to get the attention of a court of law, and 'mild' poor mental health which does not as yet necessitate the attention of a mental health worker. Mild delinquency behaviours include quarrels and physical fighting, while mild poor mental health includes such behaviours as avoidance of others.

(ii) The home environments were limited to those four which the researcher felt were of major importance. The subdivisions of the home environments on which the questionnaire was based were those where an adolescent's response or judgement could be relied upon. Such areas as would have led the respondents to tell lies or give mere guesses were omitted.

(iii) Chazan (1962) argues that in addition to the home, the school environment may also contribute to

maladjustment. He adds that intelligence below average may also contribute to maladjustment. Hurlock (1973) says that physical defects are another contributor to maladjustment. For the purposes of this study all these factors were assumed absent except for a few cases of physical defects which could be detected.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Maladjustment

Maladjustment, or behaviour regarded as undesirable and deviant, covers an extremely wide variety and range of behaviours from the awkward social acts and embarrassment of the shy adolescent to the unintelligible mutterings and hallucinations of the patient in a mental hospital. (Walter 1968).

Three approaches are usually used in classifying maladjustment. One of these is based on the predominant feature of the behaviour in which case different maladjusted acts are grouped under general headings, such as anxiety, depression, addictions, paranoid reactions, antisocial acts, and compulsive behaviour.

Another way of classifying maladjustment is in terms of the major goal or need satisfaction to which the behaviour is directed. Thus, we might speak of maladjusted dependent behaviour, hostile-aggressive maladjustment, or maladjustment efforts to obtain love and affection satisfactions.

The third approach is that of classifying deviant responses according to the particular area of life, or the distinctive social situations in which they occur, eg. vocational maladjustment, marital problems, sexual difficulties, or problems with authority.

The most profitable way of classifying types of maladjustment, Walter says, should be based on differential treatment programs so that the maladjusted responses which can be altered by one form of treatment or intervention will be distinguished from others which can be altered by different forms of intervention.

The method used in classifying the maladjusted behaviours in this study was based on the second and third approaches. Hence behaviours like physical fighting would fall under hostile-aggressive maladjustment, and making funny noises in class under maladjusted efforts to obtain love and attention. The third approach comes in behaviours like failure to do assignments which fall under vocational maladjustment.

Terms frequently used in the field of mental health, such as schizophrenia, neuroses, psychopathic personality, and compulsive character structures are overgeneralized categorizations which often include varied behaviours within a single grouping, ignoring differences between individuals have been avoided.

BASES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR

The theoretical framework embodying this study was based on the following theoretical assumptions:-

- (i) that all behaviour is goal-directed,
- (ii) that positively reinforced behaviour will tend to be repeated but negatively reinforced or non-reinforced behaviour will tend not to be repeated, and
- (iii) that until the goal is attained, the organism will continue to make various attempts to attain it. The number and nature of attempts will depend on individual differences and past experiences, (Horrocks, 1969).

Human behaviour, and therefore adolescent behaviour, occurs either as a product of an interaction between an individual and his environment, or as a result of a physiological intrapersonal reaction (Horrocks, 1969). Behaviour may be overt or covert. In this study the main concern was with the overt, i.e. that which could be seen.

Horrocks (1969) says that in making a diagnosis it is important to make the basic assumption that no behaviour exists without an underlying cause, which, with proper knowledge and skill, may be identified. To get a really lasting cure or fundamental behaviour change, the fundamental cause has to be discovered and treated.

The first theoretical assumption, that all behaviour is goal-directed, assumes that, the goal may or may not be known by the individual. However, what is important is that the goal exists - and that the organism struggles to attain it. The speed, strength, and persistence of the approach to the goal will increase with the amount of value an individual attaches to the attainment of the goal. The intensity of this approach may be taken to represent the strength of the drive or motive.

There are two major categories of drives or motives. First are the fundamental physiological drives, such as hunger, thirst, temperature regulation, air intake, rest, sleep, and eliminative tensions. The second category is what may be called the elaborative drive. This category includes subsistence motives; motives derived chiefly from emotional tensions; mastery motives; social approval motives; conformity motives; sex motives; and mixed motives (Shaffer and Shoben, 1956).

The first category of drives is meant to satisfy particular physiological needs while the second is meant to attain social goals. The hunger pangs motivate an individual towards seeking for food, while the social approval motive leads an individual towards training so as to perform better on a football pitch.

However, for the purposes of this study, both terms, goals and needs, have been used interchangeably.

An individual's whole life represents an attempt to reach equilibrium or a state of homeostasis in terms of both his physical functioning and his emotional and social functioning.

When a need is unsatisfied, --- the individual is in a state of disequilibrium and he must continue his effort to achieve equilibrium by satisfying his need.
(Horrocks, 1969. P.110)

During adolescence, Horrocks, (1969) says, peer approval and emancipation from adult authority and controls are goals important to children. Consequently, the motivation of most adolescents is such that a great deal of their behavior is directed towards attainment of these goals.

The second theoretical assumption was that positively reinforced behaviour will tend to be repeated, and that negatively reinforced or non-reinforced behavior will tend not to be repeated. According to this assumption an individual who portrays maladjustment behaviors must have been positively reinforced for behaving in such deviant ways. Walter (1968) says;

social-learning theory holds that more important than the fact that some particular kind of deviant behavior occurs is what reinforcements follow that behaviour. If the behaviour results in a negative outcome for the individual, the deviant act is less likely to occur again. If the outcome is positively reinforced, the

Group Support Theory

potential occurrence of the behaviour has increased because the individual has learned to expect that he will be rewarded for acting in that way (P.227).

According to reinforcement theories maladjustment behaviors are only encouraged by the society. While the culture might regard a particular behavior as deviant, particular homes might reward such behaviors. It is also possible that the individual happened to go through experiences where he was rewarded for deviant behaviors, such as telling lies. Many forms of maladjustment also are positively reinforced by the attention, concern, and special privileges they bring.

The third postulate was that the organism will continue to make various attempts to attain the goal until he attains it. The number and nature of attempts or activities will depend on individual differences and past experiences. This postulate is based on the fact that very often, goals are not attained by the first attempt and that in some cases those goals are never attained at all by the individual. When attainment of a goal is slowed, impeded, or made impossible the goal is said to be blocked, and, as a result the individual becomes thwarted or frustrated. The origin of a block may be environmental or it may occur within the individual.

Horrocks (1969) has defined frustration as the condition which exists when a goal response suffers

interference. Normally, frustration results in increased activity to attain the desired goal. This activity is geared towards restoration of the status of equilibrium to the individual, and until the individual attains that goal he remains in a state of disequilibrium. Not to make such efforts represents an abnormal condition, and a person who refrains from seeking equilibrium is displaying maladjustive behavior that may have serious implications.

An individual who is frustrated because his goals are blocked will tend to display aggressive behavior.

Aggressive behavior is attack behavior in which an individual tries to do something to his environment in order to attain his goals or find release from his tensions. In this sense, aggressive behavior tends to be positive and is psychologically much more desirable than withdrawal behavior.

If, however, aggressive behavior promotes socially undesirable ends, then it is disapproved. Desirable aggression would include such behaviors as a spirit of ambition, hard work, and competition, while undesirable aggression would include physical and verbal fighting.

There are other varieties of response to frustration which are called defensive mechanisms. These include rationalization, identification, projection, and compensation. Maladjustive behaviors which fall into this category were in the main, not catered for in this

study as their measurement would require more sophisticated instruments.

Blocks In Adoloescence

For an adolescent, environmental blocks may include lack of money to do something he wishes, forbidding of some desired act by parents or teachers, an obstacle of time or of distance, or the disapproval of the peer group. Blocks that originate from within an individual may be caused by a personal defect, imagined or real, that prevents an adolescent from attempting or attaining his preferred goals. Such blocks include lack of the physical condition or coordination necessary to participate effectively in games, a physical anomaly such as poor hearing or lameness, lack of physical attractiveness to members of the opposite sex, and awkwardness.

In this study the major attention was given to environmental blocks, namely the home factors, although some attention was paid to some personal defects.

A general attempt can be made to group the behaviours which were observed in this study. The boundaries among the groups are very fluid, and there is a lot of overlapping.

Poor academic work, failure to do assignments, giving up studies, and avoidance of classes were grouped together under vocational maladjustment.

They reflect failure to cope with the required vocational or academic standards.

Aggressive maladjustive behaviours were divided into verbal and physical domains. Verbal aggression included yelling nasty comments at peers and teachers (authority). Physical aggression included physical fighting, bullying others, and any kinds of attack on staff members.

The third group is that of withdrawal behaviour. These include withdrawing from social life, shyness, suicidal talk, and suicidal attempts. Another close behaviour was avoidance of social activities.

The fourth group was that of dependency i.e. attention, love, and affection seeking. This group included making funny noises, both vocally and instrumentally, and other forms of mischief. Closely related to these were telling lies, and 'petty' stealing.

Smoking and getting drunk are both defensive mechanisms. There is both an element of seeking for affection and an element of withdrawing from harsh realities. In both the original aim is to get together with others, and to get a feeling of belongingness (Horrocks, 1969).

In summary, it is important to remember that these behaviours are all goal directed. The individual may or may not be aware of the goal, but, it exists. It should

also be remembered that a behaviour will only continue to occur if it is positively reinforced either by situations or society. Like any other behaviours maladjustive behaviours are learned.

As has already been stated, the major goals for adolescents are peer approval and emancipation from adult authority. If these goals are blocked for too long and the adolescent gets frustrated, he may develop aggressive or even dependency behaviours depending on the individual's personality and his past experience. If maladjustive behaviours are positively reinforced then they will become permanent. As will be seen in the next section of this chapter some home environments encourage maladjustment. A poor home tends to breed aggressiveness, withdrawal, while an extremely rich home often breeds dependency behaviours.

HOME ENVIRONMENTS AND THEIR INHERENT PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS.

Maladjustment is a product of the inherent psychological characteristics of particular home environments. The three major characteristics are (i) Parental rejection, (ii) parental domination, and (iii) overprotection. They were grouped together as parental attitudes' towards children.

Family Size

The number of interpersonal relationships, and consequently the possibilities for social friction, increases with the size of the family. Each additional family member, substantially increases the number of interpersonal relationships. In most cases, economic conditions deteriorate with the increase in the number of family members since limited resources have to be shared out among the members. 'Scarcity' of resources strains family life, negatively influencing parental attitudes towards their children. Consequently, many children come to their homes as unwanted additions. (Hurlock, 1973).

Rejection is a parental attitude mainly found in large families. Ordinarily, rejection is indirect, often taking the guise of nagging and excessive criticism, impatience or crossness, invidious comparison, inconsistency, or suspicion. The rejecting parent tends to display hostility, to threaten, to needlessly deny the child things it wants, or, in some cases, to be indifferent and to pay no attention.

While the rejecting parent may not be aware of his or her attitude, the child, usually is. The child attempts to use every means at his disposal to gain the affection and security he lacks. When they do not work he may

become resentful, bitter and discontented, not only within his home but outside it as well.

On the effects of rejection on children Horrocks said;

The rejected child or adolescent tends to present a picture of insecurity and is forever trying to elicit evidences of welcome and affection from his parents and other adults. (Horrocks, 1969, P.161)

He further says that anxious and introverted males tend to come from families in which both parents are rejecting.

In a large family parental love and acceptance have to be competed for. Being loved permits the child to identify with peers, parents, and the culture. A child learns to love when he is loved. When a child feels loved he is more able to accept himself and others. When he feels a severe lack of affection, he is often prone to such destructive tendencies as suspiciousness, fear, and aggression. The accepting emotional climate frees one from the damaging effects of hostility and anxiety.

Another characteristic of large families is jealousy among the siblings which often leads to attention seeking and demanding behavior. If a child feels neglected by his parents he may turn to delinquent actions.

Dinkmeyer (1965) says that delinquency frequently is a reaction to parental neglect. He emphasises that delinquency is more closely related to this factor than

to income, religion, or broken home. Rejection usually makes the child devalue himself and produces hostility and rebellion.

In large families, there tends to be authoritarian methods of control due to the limited economic resources which have to be shared. The adolescents have fewer status symbols and educational opportunities than their peers from smaller families. This may result in lack of ambition which often affects academic performance.

Parental Occupation:

Occupations are some of the indices used in measuring social economic classes. Some researchers including Miller (1970), and Marjoribanks (1972) have emphasised the importance of occupations as indices for social economic classes. Robertson (1973) has gone further to say that in Great Britain, occupation is probably the most important single criterion of status.

Robertson refers to the British Registrar General's register and says that there are three major social economic classes. The classes are:- (i) the working class, which is made up of the unskilled, skilled and partly skilled manual workers; (ii) the middle class which includes skilled non-manual, intermediate, and professional workers; (iii) the upper class which accommodates the senior administrators and entrepreneurs.

The social economic status can exert a powerful influence on a young person's developing personality. Not only is the adolescent of an uneconomically under-privileged home denied many of the privileges and enriching experiences enjoyed by upper and middle-class children but his life values are affected by lower parental ambitions for him. (Crow and Crow, 1965).

The kind of home the family has and its location in the community and the clothing, spending money, and other status symbols the adolescent has - all affect his social status in the peer group. Chazan (1959) found that poverty led to feelings of social inferiority with consequent dislike, and even avoidance in some instances, of going to a grammar school. Chazan (1959) found that these feelings were related mainly to a lack of sufficient pocket money, and sensitivity concerning the material standard of the home and inferior clothes.

Lack of ambition easily leads to poor academic performance. Feelings of inferiority lead to aggression and sometimes, withdrawing from the peer group.

Level of education of parents

Related to the social economic status factor is the level of education of the parents. This relationship can be seen from what Kasozi (1979) wrote about neighbouring and similar Ugandan education system.

He wrote:-

From the 1890's when formal western education was introduced in Uganda ..., Ugandans saw it as the positive initiator of progressive social change. It did not only bring those who received it closer to their master's life styles but also gave them social rewards in terms of prestige, wealth, and security by enabling them to get jobs in the upper strata of society. (Kasozi, 1979, Page (i)).

On the effects of parental education on children, Dinkmeyer wrote;

If they (parents) did not have the opportunity for education or the acquisition of a specific goal, they may try to force the child to reach goals they themselves were unable to achieve. The result may be to make the child feel inferior and inadequate and the attainment of any goal becomes hopeless. (Dinkmeyer, 1965, P.199).

On the other hand poorly educated parents may not be interested in education leading to loss of interest in the child in schooling.

Stability of the family

Auden (1931) named the broken home as another source of maladjustment among children. On the effects of a broken home on children Dinkmeyer stated;

Another type is the aggressive, bully, who is always challenging or terrorizing others. He is frequently bossy and boisterous. Inwardly, he is afraid and insecure, fearful that he is not accepted or wanted. This child is frequently the product of a broken home where he has no place. There is also the shy, withdrawn individual who feels unacceptable, different, and lacking in self

confidence. Believing himself to be inadequate and a failure, he withdraws to books and other activities which do not require social interaction. In some way or the other the significant others in his life have failed to accept him (Dinkmeyer, 1965, P.265).

Tracing through the four home environments, two of the three major psychological characteristics or parental attitudes have been accounted for. Hence rejection and parental domination (authoritarianism) are to be found in large families, lower social economic classes, poorly educated families, and unstable or broken homes. In large, poor, and poorly educated families these attitudes are a product of a strained home economy. In broken homes the guardians of the child may not be willing to accept him as their own.

The third parental attitude which leads to maladjustment is overprotection. Overprotection is more common in small families, rich families, and well educated ones. Overprotection is a result of too many resources, love, money, and attention, catering for too few children. Overprotection is essentially the opposite of rejection. (Hurlock, 1973).

Independence - conscious adolescents resent over-protectiveness. This resentment may be extended to all parent-figures like the teachers in school. This resentment easily leads to friction between the teacher and

the adolescent. On the other hand overprotection may develop irresponsibility and excessively strong needs for approval. In either case maladjustment will result.

In this study it was expected that there would be very few families which are small, rich, and very highly educated. This expectation was based on the fact that the majority of families in a developing nation like Kenya would not be all that affluent. Even in developed countries most of the studies have not considered overprotection as a very important factor in maladjustment. Consequently, it is not catered for in the next section on hypotheses.

STATEMENT OF GENERAL HYPOTHESES

Following the theories which have been discussed especially those of goal-orientedness of behaviour, and that of behaviour being maintained by reinforcement, it is now possible to make hypothetical statements in the light of the already discussed parental attitudes characteristic of particular home environments.

Hypotheses:

- (i) The level of adolescent maladjustment will be higher in unstable families than in the more stable families.

- (ii) The level of adolescent maladjustment will be higher in poorly educated families than in the highly educated families.
- (iii) The level of adolescent maladjustment will be higher in families of lower parental occupations than in those with higher occupations.
- (iv) The level of adolescent maladjustment will be higher in large families than in small families.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The general scope of this study covered the following:-

- (i) Measurement of maladjustment based on guided teacher ratings in two high cost secondary schools in Nairobi Province. Ratings were based on observations made under ordinary school conditions, and
- (ii) Determining the nature of the pupil's home environments by use of questionnaire which was administered to the subjects, who were the pupils themselves. .

Limitations of the study

The following are the limitations of this study:-

- (a) As has already been seen the number of maladjustive behaviours are legion. It was therefore not possible to include them all, especially because the big number would have confused the rating observers. Another reason was that some can only be detected by specialised mental health workers. Observation lasted for only two weeks in each of the two schools. Even with the two weeks the scores only reflect the behaviours that took place when the teacher was around. This is especially true of the out of class behaviours.
- (b) Of the various methods used in measuring adjustment only one was used in this study. The method used was rating from planned observation in the natural conditions of school life. Dinkmeyer (1965) has given several ways of studying children. These include the socio-metric method, projective tests, self reporting, and observation techniques. Of these the most practical and widely used is the observational method. In East Africa, it is perhaps the only method used. The method is relied upon in making terminal and annual school reports, and finally in giving recommendations as to the suitability of the student for employment. Each method has its own advantages and limitations, but it

is important to note that using just one method may bias the findings. (Almy, 1959).

(c) The observational period for this study was two weeks. Maladjustment was determined by number of times (frequency) the subject behaved in deviant ways. There is a possibility that the behavior observed in this short period may not be typical of the subject throughout the year or even the school course. However, even if behavior was observed throughout the term, year, or even longer that would not be a guarantee that the person will not change in future. However, given the fact that all behavior is learned and that it is governed by the principles of learning, the little that is observed is bound to give a clue to the background of that learning, in this case, the home environments. (Horrocks, 1969).

(d) The sample used in this study was limited to only two high cost urban boarding secondary schools. The aim of using these schools was to limit the number of 'other' intervening variables which would be found in many ordinary secondary schools. The number of schools was limited to only two because of the limited funds and time available for the research. Only two classes in each of the two schools were studied in order to limit the amount of confusion that would have arisen from observing very many pupils by the same teachers.

C H A P T E R T W O

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Adolescent maladjustment has been studied by various researchers in numerous ways using different approaches. In this chapter, an attempt is made to discuss the findings of these researches so as to provide the general background and rationale for the present study. The study does not attempt to replicate any of those other studies. It only intends to test the ideas which have arisen as a result of the findings in those studies, in the local Kenyan cultural setting.

Educational Psychologists like Auden (1931), Burns (1949), and Chazan (1959) treated adolescent maladjustment as one whole, while others like Lynn (1959), Douglas (1964), Lunn (1972), and Hall et al (1977) concentrated their efforts on particular components of maladjustment. However, a cross examination of all these studies reveals the significance of the home environments in the formation of adolescent maladjustment in school.

Auden (1931), in his study, 'The Maladjusted Child', was interested in finding out what was common among the two hundred juvenile delinquents who had been brought to a British juvenile court. His delinquents had been

convicted of offences which included stealing a bicycle, money, watch, cigarette, fruit or sweets, tools, toys, breaking and entering, or a sex offence.

Auden found that of the two hundred delinquents three had lost both parents, forty five had lost their fathers, fourteen had lost mothers, and twelve had parents who had separated. Ten of the delinquents lived with stepfathers, five with stepmothers, and one with relatives. Eleven were illegitimate children. However, ninety nine had come from normal homes. Hence, about 50 per cent of his delinquents had come from homes with adverse circumstances. On this distribution, Auden said that this percentage was considerably higher than that of the distribution of broken homes in the community at large. He, therefore, concluded that adverse conditions in homes were conducive to maladjustment.

Burns (1949) studied one hundred and one maladjusted children of high intelligence. His subjects had been referred by high school authorities to a child guidance clinic in Birmingham, Britain. The symptoms for which the subjects were referred were: lack of progress, truancy, fear of school, nervousness, obsessions, aggressiveness, lying, hysterical attack, sex disorders, and psychopathic and psychotic trends. Hence, Burns' study was more containing in terms of types of deviant behaviours and relevance to the school situation than Auden's study.

Burns found that 30 per cent of his subjects had come from homes with adverse circumstances i.e. unhappy homes, broken homes, and homes with bad economic circumstances. The remainder were attributed to factors which included personality defects, physical and pubertal factors, marked emotional regression, and inadequate intelligence. Chazan (1959) said that even factors like personality defects are a product of considerable interaction between the personality of the child and his environment. It is not easy therefore, to decide whether defects or disturbances of personality are causes or effects in individual cases (Page 202).

The debate as to which of the two, heredity or environment affects intelligence most should be kept low for our purposes. It will suffice to say that environment, basically the home affects intelligence (Fraser, 1959).

Being physically handicapped is not usually a product of the home environment. However, the child's ability to adjust in school and accept himself will very much depend on how much acceptance he gets at home (Hurlock, 1973). Therefore, the possibility that home conditions might have affected those other 'none-home' factors can not be ruled out in Burns' study.

Chazan, (1959) studied the problems presented by sixty grammar school children referred to a child guidance centre in Liverpool between 1949 and 1956. The main reasons for referral included difficult behaviour, very poor work, truancy and refusal to attend school, stealing or dishonesty, withdrawn behaviour, anxiety symptoms, difficulty with speech, enuresis, soiling, and excessive sexual interest.

After analysing their case histories he found that in most cases their maladjustment was related to a combination of factors, but that neither physical condition nor lack of ability was a frequent cause; He said, "There were several personality defects or disturbances in only a quarter of the cases. In nearly every case there were adverse environmental factors. Faulty parental attitudes were particularly damaging." (Page 198).

Chazan continued to comment that in only four cases was there no obvious environmental factor. "In as many as fifty one cases the emotional atmosphere of the home was unsatisfactory. In twenty four cases there were adverse home conditions and family circumstances. In twenty cases both the psychological atmosphere and the material conditions seemed responsible for the child's maladjustment" (Page 200).

From the studies of Aucen, (1931), Burns, (1949) and Chazan, (1959), it becomes clear that the home conditions which derive from the home environments are very connected to adolescent maladjustment. There are also other studies which concerned with the relationship between home environments and maladjustment or aspects of it. The discussion of those home environments will confine it-self to those which were studied in the present study. Parental attitudes, economic circumstances, and other psychological factors responsible for maladjustment are very much dependent on those home environments.

FAMILY STABILITY

The absence of one (or both) of the two parents in a family unit creates adverse conditions for not only the children but the remaining parent as well. This happens because each parent has a special role to play in the family unit. The adverse effects on children increase when both parents are absent. Such absence may be a result of divorce, death, or a distant working place.

Goldfarb, (1945) studied a group of institutionalized children who were placed in foster homes at about the age of three years after having spent most of their lives separated from their mothers. When they reached school age, these youngsters proved difficult to manage. They disregarded school rules, accepted academic failure

complacently, were destructive, stubborn, given to severe temper outbursts, and could not get along with other children.

The effects of mother's absence are due to the fact that basic behavioural tendencies are formed during the preverbal stages of life when the mother is almost the only human contact the infant has. In subsequent years the growing child remains dependent on the psychological and physical care he receives from his mother (Kaplan, 1965).

The father's role increases with the age of the child. Boys need male identification figures for the development of a masculine personality and to derive an understanding of how men should behave. Kaplan wrote that a father helps a boy to conform to the demands of reality, serves to broaden his interests, and stimulates the development qualities of leadership, discipline, authority, and self-direction which are conducive to the normal emancipation of the boy from home. The absence of the father deprives the boys of all these qualities, sometimes leading to delinquency (Lynn, 1974).

The role of the father for the girls is to enable them to gain an understanding of how men behave and how they should behave towards them. The father provides the girl with the masculine protection and security, and acts as an agent through which the child makes a transition from the normal homosexual stage of development to a

secure and wholesome adjustment to the masculine sex (Kaplan, 1965).

Lynn (1974) quotes a study by James Redding (1971) who compared father-separated and father-present children in classes for the emotionally disturbed pupils in regular classes who had emotional handicaps, and well adjusted pupils. In contrast to the other two groups, fewer of the children in classes for the emotionally disturbed had fathers living at home.

The absence of a father encourages the child to depend on the mother (Grinder, 1973). In a study of heroin users, comprising sixty-five boys and nineteen girls, fourteen to twenty years of age, Bender (1963) reported that the one significant difference between these youths and nonusers was their strong emotional dependence on a mother figure. Among college students who sought treatment for marijuana smoking, Liebert (1967) found that their mothers had been unable to fulfill their childhood needs with respect to comfort, hunger, and anxiety. Their deviant behaviour was an attempt to seek for that lost maternal care.

On the general effects of the absence of both parents, Sokol and Robinson (1963) reported that adolescents who sniff glue typically do not have fathers at home, and their mothers work all day to support the family. All these studies serve to emphasize the damages that are inherent in broken or disturbed families where one or

both parents are absent.

However, it so happens that a mother-figure effectively replaces the real mother, or that a father-figure replaces the real father. This may take the form of a grandmother, an aunt, an uncle, or a close friend of the family. When this happens the demaging effects of a parent's absence are reduced (Grinder, 1973).

PARENTS' EDUCATION

Fraser (1959)) said that parents with high standards of education encourage their children to work harder in school. She made this comment after she had found that the standard of education of the parents was related to the child's school progress, quite apart from the influence of intelligence. She elaborated that of two children of equal intelligence, but with parents of different educational standards, the child with the better educated parents reached a higher standard in his school work.

Sewell and Shah (1968) have shown that there is a strong relationship between the parents' educational achievement and an adolescents' aspirations. The data came from a questionnaire survey of all high school seniors in Wisconsin's public, private, and parochial schools in 1957, and a follow up study of college plans, attendance, and graduation conducted seven years later. The positive attitudes of educated parents towards

education are easily transferred to their children (Swift, 1967). On the other hand parents who failed to succeed in education tend to have negative attitudes towards the schools and teachers because of their own experiences. Such negative attitudes, once borrowed by the children, make their adjustment in school very difficult.

Negative attitudes towards school tend to lead to poor academic performance, which in turn aggravates the negative attitudes (Lunn, 1972). Academic failure damages the status of an adolescent among peers in addition to creating a sense of inferiority in him (Hurlock, 1973). A good education usually earns one a well paying job and it is to the effects of this we now turn.

PARENTAL OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL

Occupational level and socioeconomic status have been used interchangeably by various scholars (Horrocks, 1969, Hurlock, 1973, Aldous, 1978). The reason for this is that occupational level usually determines the income and, therefore, the quality of life accessible to the family (Hurlock, 1973). Together with occupational level come the prestige and security attached to the type of occupation. Hurlock argued that such factors associated with the parental occupation affect the adolescent's attitude towards himself and the society.

Higher occupations which fetch high incomes do not only avail material well being to the adolescents but also motivating effects to achieve like their parents (Musgrove, 1966).

Douglas (1964) found that middle class (high income) parents take more interest in their children's progress at school than the manual working (low income) class parents do, and they become relatively more interested as their children grow older. They visit the schools more frequently to find out how their children are getting on with their work. He also found that children whose parents showed a high level of interest not only made higher average scores in the tests, but also improved the level of their performance.

Krippner (1963), in a study of more than three hundred and fifty seventh and eighth grade youngsters in an upper middle class school found that boys' vocational preferences correlated with their fathers' but not their mothers' jobs; girls preferences were related to the jobs of both parents, but especially their mothers'.

Lunn (1972) studied the influence of sex, achievement level, and social class on junior school children's attitudes to school. He found that in all attitude areas, brighter children tended to have more positive attitudes, also, the tendency for more favourable attitudes was found for middle class children in contrast to those from working class homes. The findings did,

however, suggest that the different attitudes of pupils of different social classes could partly be accounted for by their differences in academic performance.

Hall et. al (1977) were interested in measuring attention and achievement as exhibited by middle and lower class black and white elementary school boys in the U.S.A. Their findings showed that there were social class and race differences in achievement and intelligence test scores in favour of the middle class and the whites. However, contrary to the traditional view the behaviours of the different groups of students were remarkably similar.

The experimenters were surprised at the low attending rates of several middle class children with relatively high achievement and intelligence scores. They were also surprised that poor children were able to concentrate on anything academic at school. They accounted for their surprising findings in terms of materials provided by the teachers which were keeping students at all social and cognitive levels busy to about the same degree.

All the preceding evidence serves to emphasise the fact that parents in high income occupations will tend to have children who perform well in class. Not only will they tend to emulate their already successful parents but will also have the necessary material well being to give them peer approval. They should therefore

be better adjusted than their low income status counterparts.

However, Kaplan (1965) advanced reasons which may hinder good adjustment of the child from high income status parents. These include over-protection and over-indulgence. An overprotected child is one who has everything done for him. Usually such a one is an obedient and docile child. Adults call him 'good' because he is polite, neat, gentle, respectful, and all that a parent wants him to be. However, such a youngster does not make friends easily and may grow up to be a lonely, and isolated person. The child who has been overindulged is given too much of everything, and usually has his own way at home.

Levy's (1943) study of mothers who made excessive concessions to their children illustrates what can happen when there is overindulgence. Their children ate what they chose and when they chose. They left the table when they were ready, went to bed when they felt like it, threw their clothes around, told their mothers to shut up, struck them, spat on them, and went into a rage whenever they were opposed in any way.

To their teachers and school-mates, these children were bullies, showoffs, and nuisances. They did not profit from a succession of experiences which would have caused normal children to change their ways. When seen in adult life, they were still making exaggerated demands

on the world and interested only in satisfying their immediate desires.

Some of Levy's subjects encountered schoolmates and teachers who would not tolerate their demanding, egocentric behaviour, and so their tendency to show off was tempered to an innocuous clowning; their fighting and bullying converted into an aggressive form of leadership, and their demanding ways developed into persuasive powers. Hence, the spoiled child need not become a lost child if he is treated with understanding and firmness.

The other double edged 'knife' in middle class families is their high expectancy of their children (Musgrove, 1965). This expectancy easily leads to perfectionist and overambitious attitudes towards the child, resulting in 'domination'. This attitude is expressed through insistence on absolute obedience, scrupulous cleanliness, and other things like 'read early' and 'bring home high grades from school'. However, if the child's ability is average or below he gets tension. Kaplan (1965) says, "The usual response of such a child in such circumstances is to adopt tactics that will stall off unpleasant scenes, often cheating or lying to achieve this end" (Page 81).

FAMILY SIZE

The evidence available tends to emphasize that adolescent maladjustment is higher in big families than in small ones. Douglas (1964) reported that children from small families tend to make higher scores on intelligence tests than children from large families, even when social class is held constant. In his longitudinal study of a stratified sample of all children born in Britain in one week in March, 1946 at the age of eight and eleven he found a decline on intelligence test scores with increasing family size. The decline was most marked in families of manual workers. He interpreted his findings as resulting from bad home conditions and deficiencies in child care within large families.

Tuckman and Regan (1967) reported that, although anxiety and neurotic behaviour decreased as family size increased, antisocial behaviour in school became more serious. They suggested that in large families there is less parental pressure on children to do well and conform to middle class standards, and, therefore, there are lower levels of anxiety but this again allows for antisocial behaviours to develop.

Clausen (1966) said that a child from a relatively large family is likely to receive low scores on achievement and scholastic tests, although the first born may

do quite well. His explanation for such a situation was that in large families there is low achievement motivation. Clausen was also of the opinion that the superiority of the first born was due to the amount of both the psychological and material care available to him. His achievement motivation is higher because of the new siblings whom he sees as coming to challenge his position in the family. Clausen also said that large families are most likely to be of low social economic status (SES).

The reason for low intelligence, and low achievement in large families is the less intensive interaction between parents and children, leading to a deficit in verbal ability on the part of the children from such families (Nisbet, 1961). The authoritarian child rearing methods, including the use of physical punishment by large family parents, devoid of any explanation, may be responsible for the antisocial behaviour found among such children (Bowerman and Elder, 1964).

However, the effects of a large family need not be permanent. Douglas (1964) showed that if the school is very good, and if parents' attitudes are favourable,

the handicaps for children from large families, and those from working class families can be eliminated. This stand is also held by scholars like Spencer (1972) and Hall et. al. (1977).

From the foregoing one sees that all the literature available on adolescent maladjustment is based on researches carried out in other lands other than East Africa. There is a possibility that their findings may not be applicable to East Africa or Kenya for that matter.

The need for the present study. ✓

The purpose of this study was to provide relevant information to those interested in counselling of maladjusted adolescents in the local secondary schools. The deviant behaviours were selected from some of those studied by the researchers mentioned in this chapter. The criterion for their selection was their relevance to the local situation. The rationale behind their inclusion under one title of 'maladjustment' lies in what Chazan (1962) said about the interrelationship among them.

He said,

maladjustment militates against successful learning, unsuccessful learning results in a sense of failure and frustration, thus further increasing the likelihood, and possibly also the degree of maladjustment (Page 57).

It is this difficulty in distinguishing which was cause and which was effect that led to the inclusion of vocational (academic), aggressive, attention seeking, and withdrawal maladjustive behaviours into just one group just as was done in the studies of Auden (1931), Burns (1949), and Chazan (1959).

STATEMENT OF SPECIFIC HYPOTHESES

- (1) The number of maladjusted adolescents will be significantly greater in unstable families than in the more stable families.
- (2) The number of maladjusted adolescents will be significantly greater in poorly educated families than in the highly educated families.
- (3) The number of maladjusted adolescents will be significantly greater in families of lower parental occupations than in those with higher occupations.
- (4) The number of maladjusted adolescents will be significantly greater in large families than in small families.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Teachers' ratings

Teachers' ratings are frequently used for diagnostic, guidance, and research purposes because of their ready accessibility and quantifiability. Ausubel (1954) said that when employed as averages of several raters and in relation to traits (a) which are overtly manifest and objectively observable in everyday behaviour and (b) which can be specifically and unambiguously defined, such ratings enjoy considerable reliability. A further advantage of teachers' ratings is that they can be based on frequent and prolonged observation of behaviour under a variety of conditions.

In Kenya, and the rest of East Africa teachers' ratings are the sole source of information concerning the behaviour of students. Teachers write terminal reports to parents, and at the end of a course make recommendations to potential employers for their students. In Britain and U.S.A. teachers' ratings are relied on when referring pupils to child guidance centres (Laycock, 1934, Ausubel, 1954, Chazan, 1959).

However, some researchers including Ausubel (1954) have questioned the validity of teachers' ratings especially on measures of maladjustment for unobservable behaviour. Ausubel says that there is some disparity

between measures based on such other standardized personality tests such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (M.M.P.I.) and the Rorschach adjustment test which are basically rooted in the knowledge of mental hygienists.

Bernard et al. (1968) have named the behaviours where teachers find difficulty in measuring. Their list included anxiety, tension, ambition, pessimism, and such other abstract behaviours. However, most of the list contained states, although not directly observable, which could be manifested in various overt behaviours, particularly in poor academic performance.

Lunzer (1960) said that maladjustment in general is a response to stress characterised by anxiety. The nature of the response will vary with individuals, and in particular, it will be greatly different in the recessive children from the aggressive ones. But whatever the specific response pattern, there will be a loss of concentration, lack of persistence, and lack of enthusiasm for work tasks. It is at this stage of overt behaviours when teachers can discern maladjustment. Teachers' ratings were therefore used not only because of their accessibility but, also because of their relevance to the practical purposes of the educationist, and the school counsellor in particular.

APPARATUS FOR MEASURING MALADJUSTMENT

Two forms were designed for measuring maladjustment in school. The first form had a list of maladjustive behaviours which were observable in a classroom situation. The second one had a list of similar behaviours observable out of class e.g. in dormitory, clubs, and games. The basic idea behind the measurement was to determine the frequency by which observable maladjusted behaviours occur in school for a period of two weeks.

The behaviours on the first form were:-

1. Poor academic work.
2. Assignment not done or not attempted.
3. Yelling nasty comments at teachers or prefects (including grumbling).
4. Yelling nasty comments at classmates.
5. Physical fighting with classmates.
6. Cheating others' academic work e.g. peeping.
7. Coughing loudly.
8. Making funny noises.
9. Whistling loudly.
10. Moving about in class.
11. Moving chairs with the purpose of making noise.
12. Banging books on desk,
13. Beating or drumming desks.
14. Shyness i.e. cannot talk in front of the class.
15. Signs of giving up studies.

16. Telling lies and
17. Cutting or avoiding classes or lessons.

Since the list was inexhaustable the class and subject teachers were left free to add any other similar behaviour, and so, day dreaming, mischief, disobedience, and desire for heroworship were added.

The behaviours on the second form (for out of class) were:-

1. Avoidance of social activities e.g. games,
2. Stealing e.g. a pen.
3. Telling lies.
4. Withdrawn from social life, e.g. avoiding people
5. Suicidal talk e.g. I wish I were dead.
6. Suicidal attempts e.g. self poisoning.
7. Bullying agemates.
8. Bullying juniors,
9. Attacks on staff members.
10. Attacks on dormitory prefects.
11. Getting drunk.
12. Smoking and
13. Making funny noises e.g. in dormitory.

Although the list was left open no other behaviour was added by the teachers.

The two forms, one for class and the other for out of class behaviours were assigned to each of the 151 subjects. The name, the class, and the house of the subject were printed on the two forms. Each time the pupil behaved in any of the given ways he was given a tick

on his form against that particular behaviour. Each tick was given one score. The more the number of ticks a subject got the greater was his maladjustment score.

However, because the number of forms involved in recording class behaviour was too big to be handled by a subject teacher in a teaching situation inside the classroom, another more convenient, but equally accurate method was added. Each subject teacher was given a few of the classroom forms (not assigned to any subject) according to the number of meetings (lessons) he had with the class in the two weeks of observation. On each of these non-assigned forms the instruction, "Please give the names of the boys or girls who show the behaviours below against the behaviour. If the subject repeats the same behaviour just add a star * or stars ** against that name;" was added.

At the end of the two weeks, the non assigned forms where any subject's name could be written were collected by the researcher, and the recordings transferred to the assigned forms for each subject. Each time a pupil had behaved in any of the given ways he was given a tick

on his own form. As for the out of class behaviours which were given to the housemasters, the ticks were given by the housemasters themselves. The instruction printed on these forms, "Please put a tick when the behaviour is observed against that day. If the behaviour is repeated tick again;" was sufficient. The total score for each subject was reached at by adding the number of ticks on both forms.

Home Environments

The selection of types of home environment in this study was guided by Fraser's (1959) method in determining home environments when she studied their relationship to school progress. Fraser's home environments were:-

- | | |
|-----------------|--|
| A. CULTURAL | 1. Parents' Education |
| | 2. Reading habits of parents and children. |
| B. MATERIAL | 3. Income |
| | 4. Occupation of father |
| | 5. Family size |
| | 6. Living space. |
| C. MOTIVATIONAL | 7. Parents' attitudes to the education and future employment of the child. |
| | 8. Parental Encouragement |
| D. EMOTIONAL | 9. Abnormal home background |
| | 10. General impression |
| | 11. Mother out at work. |

Fraser admitted that there was overlapping in the four main areas, and that her item grouping was done for convenience. She said, "... Some of the items are clearly relevant to more than one aspect of environment; each has been placed in what seemed *apriori* the most appropriate group" (Page 40). Therefore, in this study, while an effort was made to retain most of Fraser's environments, it was found convenient to drop the group headings.

Fraser had access to the homes of the pupils mainly because hers were day primary school children in the city of Aberdeen (Britain). Given the earlier introduction of formal education, and the big number of researches hitherto done in Britain, the general level of literacy and preparedness of parents to answer research questions must of necessity be higher there than in Kenya. Despite all those advantages Fraser had complained of reaching homes finding nobody, spending more time than anticipated - with interviewees, and at times the interviewer would fail to get the right house.

Fraser had considered three alternative ways of getting the information she needed, thus:-

(i) interview, or (ii) send questionnaires to parents, or (iii) administer a questionnaire to the pupils. The third alternative was chosen as the most feasible in the prevalent circumstances. Interviews were deemed impossible given the fact that the schools used were national

boarding schools with pupils coming from all over Kenya. Sending questionnaires could not work because many parents could have suspected the intentions of the questionnaire, and given the fact that some parents could not read English or could even be illiterate, only the third alternative was feasible.

Of Fraser's items, those on parents education, occupation, family size, and abnormal background were absorbed. It was also assumed that parents with higher education would tend to read more and encourage their children to spend more time with books. The item on level of parental occupation was assumed to cater for family income. Since the schools used were boarding ones where children spent three quarters of the calendar year the living conditions were considered uniform for all the subjects. Basing on what Hurlock (1973) says, it was assumed that the higher the parental education the more favourable the motivational effect would be. The item of mother being out at work was replaced by the item of father being away from home, at work, returning home occasionally which was more common in Kenya.

In chapter one, particular home environments were associated with particular psychological atmospheres, and, consequently particular parental attitudes. Given that background, it was possible to absorb most of the environmental factors considered by Chazan (1959) in his study of

maladjusted children in grammar schools. Large families were associated with strictness over use of property in the home, parental rejection, parental neglect, sibling rivalry, all arising from economic stress. Lack of harmony between parents, and the broken home were covered under family instability. Rich and small families were associated with overcasualness and overindulgence.

The Questionnaire

A questionnaire was administered to each of the one hundred and fifty-one subjects to obtain the information on the home environment of each subject. The subjects (pupils) were required to answer multiple choice questions by ticking the applicable statement.

Family Stability

The first question for measuring family stability aimed at finding out whether the subject lived with both parents, with mother only, with father only, or with some other relatives while on holiday. The second question sought to get what had happened to the parents if the subject was not living with both parents. Such happenings included death of one or both parents, or a divorce (separated). The third question aimed at finding out whether the father lived at his place of work away from his family in the rural area.

Family Size.

The fourth question investigated family size basing on number of siblings in the home. A fifth question sought to find if there were some other children living in the home. If the total number of children reached six the family was considered big as was done by Clausen (1966).

Parents Education

The sixth question concerned itself with father's education, while the seventh one concerned itself with mother's education. For each of the two parents they were required to tick the most applicable level of formal education reached. The levels of education given were (a) No formal schooling, (b) primary school, (c) secondary school, (d) College education, and (e) University education.

Parental Occupation

Questions 8 and 9 concerned themselves with mother's and father's occupation respectively. In both questions the subjects were required to tick the relevant occupational class from the following categories:-

- (a) peasant farmer or small trader etc.
- (b) general worker eg. hotel maid, cleaner, driver, clerk etc.
- (c) professional eg. doctor, lawyer, teacher etc., and
- (d) senior administrator eg. Minister, permanent secretary, and diplomat, plus big business owners and big farmers.

In deciding the level of education, and the nature of occupation for both parents an arbitrary decision was made. The parent with the higher level of education was taken to represent both. If the mother had reached university and the father had completed secondary school then the home education was taken to be university level. Similarly, the occupations were treated in the same way. The highest level was (d), while the lowest was (a).

RESEARCH DESIGN

The Schools

The schools selected for this study were two high cost boarding secondary schools in Nairobi. In either school there were five Form II classes, of which only two in each school, were selected for the study. Both schools had classes ranging from Form I to Form VI. The rationale for selecting Form II classes for the study was that during the researcher's experience both as a pupil and later on as a teacher in secondary school, Form II pupils behaved more freely and openly than the other classes therefore creating a situation whereby their behaviours could easily be observed.

The two schools were selected because they represented an 'ideal' Kenyan high school. They were the type that would not act as catalysts for adolescent maladjustment, but rather, the type that would minimize it. Such other variables as would contribute to maladjustment such as long distance covered by pupils in travelling to day schools, the problems of maladministration, and inadequate financing in the 'ordinary' boarding high schools were minimal.

The amount of personal contact between the housemasters and the boys (in the boys school) was big, especially because the housemasters' houses were attached to the dormitories. This contact was even greater in the

girls' school where the matrons did not only live under the same roof as the girls but had no other duty except to look after the welfare of the girls. In each of the schools, as a rule, a member of staff had to have meals with the pupils to ensure good and acceptable standard of food.

Boarding schools were selected because, there, all pupils eat the same quality of food, sleep in the same dormitories, and share a common social environment throughout the term. Only government aided schools were used so as to minimise the effects of very low intelligence. Recruitment of candidates into Form I classes in all government schools is based on the Central Primary Examination (C.P.E.) which is an achievement test. Freeman (1955) says that the correlation between intelligence test scores and achievement test scores is quite significant. Hurlock (1973) also says that high intelligence enables the adolescent to adjust with his peers.

Having 'controlled' all the other variables as much as could possibly be done it was assumed that any variations in maladjustment would be safely attributed to variations in the home environments.

Rating Teachers

The research assistants in this study were not the researcher's employees. They were classteachers, subject

teachers, housemasters (for the boys) and matrons for the girls. After getting the necessary permission and introduction from the headteachers to the school staff, the researcher embarked on persuading them in order to get their cooperation. The research aims were conveyed, and the research design explained to them by the researcher. This was done in the staffroom for the class and subject teachers. For the housemasters and matrons the briefing was done in their individual houses. All the raters were residents on the compounds of the two schools.

The classteachers of the four Form II classes were well experienced people, and helped a lot in convincing the various subject teachers in their relevant classes about the significance of the study. The housemasters were also men of long teaching experience. The matrons were not part of the teaching staff but retired teachers on pension. All of them welcomed the researcher, perhaps because of the aim of the study - "the counselling strategy".

The number of teachers rating inside-the-class behaviours for each class was limited to five so as to avoid a bias in the number of scores which would have accrued from an unequal number of raters. The problem did not arise for out-of-class behaviours since a subject could only have one dormitory master (rater).

Subjects.

One hundred and fifty one (151) subjects were observed during the two weeks. Eighty-two of these were boys taken from a boy's school, while the other sixty-nine were girls from a girls' High school. All were Form II pupils. Whole classes were used.

The ages of the subjects ranged from thirteen to seventeen years old. The average for the boys was 14,5 years while the average for the girls was 14 years old. The girls looked more mature than the boys. Most looked real teenagers except for a few boys and girls who looked rather too small for their age.

From what the researcher saw most of the pupils were aware of the school rules, and, were willing to obey them. Both the teachers and the headteachers looked strict disciplinarians, at least, for the time the researcher was there.

Observation Procedure

The subject-rating-teachers were issued with non-assigned forms on which to march the names of subjects against particular behaviours during or immediately after the lesson. This was done confidentially. To reduce the artificiality in the subjects' behaviour the teachers' control over the classes was considerably relaxed. In this way the subjects could be themselves though not

allowed to disrupt the normal learning situation. Apart from this relaxation observation was conducted in normal classroom atmosphere, and without the knowledge by the subjects that they were being observed. The housemasters and matrons made their recordings in their houses.

Before the beginning of the observation period the researcher accompanied the various teachers to the classrooms. He carried a sitting plan for the class to be observed, and, this plan was kept in secret. The aim of carrying the sitting plan was to see which pupil behaved in a particular way since the researcher did not know the names of the pupils.

Before the beginning of the lesson the teacher would introduce the researcher to the class as an education student from Kenyatta University College who was interested in seeing how different subjects are taught in school. The teacher would then tell the pupils to proceed with the lesson as usual. The purpose of the introduction was to avoid behaviour change due to the presence of a foreigner. The pupils were actually used to having student teachers on teaching practice from the college.

At the end of the lesson the teacher and the researcher would sit together in the staffroom to compare their observations. This practice of double observation was frequently repeated throughout the observation period with the purpose of maintaining the validity of the teachers' ratings. In all cases, the observation of the

teachers and those of the researcher compared very well.

Questionnaire administration procedure.

The researcher was granted one lesson period in each of the four classes for questionnaire administration. In each of the two schools, questionnaire administration in the second class had to follow immediately after the first class had answered the questionnaire. This was done to avoid any comments from the first class influencing the second one. It is also note worthy to mention that the questionnaire was administered after the two-week observation period to avoid behaviour change in the observation period.

The Questionnaires had been arranged in such a way that a particular questionnaire would go to a particular pupil. At the back of each questionnaire particular confidential marks had been made which marched with individual names on the class lists. The class lists were followed in giving out the questionnaires.

The researcher was re-introduced to each of the classes by the subject-teacher whose lesson had been disrupted. The subject teachers briefed the subjects on the importance of the research and appealed for cooperation from the subjects.

The researcher emphasised the instructions printed on the questionnaire especially the fact that the information given was not for the school's use but for future planning concerning school counselling in Kenya. The importance of counselling was also explained to them.

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

1. The major problem the researcher encountered was that some of the Headmasters of the high cost schools in Nairobi were reluctant to allow him to carry out research in their schools. They seemed to look at the whole exercise of research as an attempt to use their pupils as 'guinea pigs in an experiment' in order for the researcher to get a degree. Their major complaint was that the results of researches carried out in their schools were never made known to the schools and that no improvements in the system of education had been made as result of such researches.

2. The amount of money available for research was too small to the extent that the researcher had to use some of his own money to meet some of his needs as a researcher.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

1. In this study, any subject who got three or more maladjustment scores was considered maladjusted. The rationale here being that to behave in maladjusted ways for three times in only two weeks was enough to qualify one to see a school counsellor. The level of maladjustment was based on the percentage of maladjusted subjects found in a particular variable. The number of maladjusted subjects was indicated by the initials "nm", while the total number of subjects affected by a particular home environmental variable was indicated by the initial "N" in the tables.

2. In order to test the hypotheses posed some of the home environment variables were grouped, thus:-

(a) all subjects who lived with relatives, or with one parent, or whose parents had separated, or whose fathers lived away from home were considered as belonging to unstable homes. Only those who lived with both parents were accepted as belonging to stable homes.

(b) Parents' education was divided into:-

- (i) None,
- (ii) Low (Primary)
- (iii) Middle (Secondary and College) and
- (iv) High (University).

- (c) Parental occupations were grouped as follows:-
- (i) Low income (peasants and small traders)
 - (ii) Middle income (General workers and clericals) and
 - (iii) High income (Professionals, Administrators and Businessmen).
- (d) Family size was divided into:-
- (i) Large size and
 - (ii) Small size.

3. A Chi squared (χ^2) test of association between the home environments and maladjustment was carried out to test the statistical significance of the proportions of maladjusted subjects found in each variable. (For χ^2 tables see Appendix page 86-8).

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

A. Family Stability

The first question investigated the effects of family stability on maladjustment. The corresponding hypothesis was, "The level of adolescent maladjustment will be higher in unstable families than in stable families". The findings are illustrated in Table I.

Table I:

DISTRIBUTION OF MALADJUSTED SUBJECTS
(nm) ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF HOME STABILITY

Level of stability	OVERALL			BOYS			GIRLS		
	nm 22	N CC	%	nm	N	%	NO nm 22	N CC no data CHOC 101	%
Unstable	14	37	37	7	22	31	7	15	46
Stable	49	114	43	21	60	35	28	54	51

Table I shows that the level of maladjustment was higher in the stable families (43%) than in the unstable families which had 37%. The hypothesis was therefore rejected.

The table also shows that a similar observation was made in both sexes. However, the percentage of maladjustment was quite higher among the girls from stable homes (51%) than among the boys from similar homes

(35%). But, since a similar trend was observed among the girls and the boys from unstable homes, this situation may reflect that the girls were more maladjusted than the boys, a fact which should not be taken seriously since there is a possibility that the teacher raters for the girls were more observant than those for boys.

When all the subjects affected by each category of family stability were considered those living with mothers only had the highest level of maladjustment (56%). They were followed by those living with both parents (stable families) with 44% who were in turn followed by those living with relatives who got 40%. The one boy who was maladjusted among those living with relatives had lost both parents. The only one girl who lived with relatives was maladjusted. She was always sick with fits. Four of the six girls living with mothers only were maladjusted. Two of the four had lost their fathers. Thus, although the hypothesis was rejected unstable families did have some maladjustment.

B. Parental Education

The second question investigated the effects of parents' education on maladjustment. The corresponding hypothesis was, "The level of adolescent maladjustment will be higher in poorly educated families than in highly educated families". The findings are illustrated in Table 2 .

Table 2 :

DISTRIBUTION OF MALADJUSTED SUBJECTS
(nm) IN EACH LEVEL OF PARENTAL EDUCATION

Education	OVERALL			BOYS			GIRLS		
	nm	N	%	nm	N	%	nm	N	%
None	3	6	50	0	3	0	3	3	100
Low	7	16	44	4	12	33	3	4	75
Middle	23	64	36	12	35	34	11	29	38
High	30	65	46	13	32	41	17	33	23

Table 2 shows that there were sixty three subjects identified as maladjusted under the variable of parents' education. Thirty of these came from homes with university education (High) and twenty three from medium (secondary and college), seven from low (Primary) and three from none educated homes.

When all the subjects were considered, those with parents with no education had the highest level of maladjustment (50%). This trend was in line with the hypothesis posed except for the fact that the number involved in the 50% was only three, all of whom were girls, while the three boys similarly affected were not maladjusted. The percentages show that a U-curve trend was observed with both low (and none) and high education showing higher levels of maladjustment than medium education.

The table also shows that in percentage terms the hypothesis held true for the girls, that the lower the education level of the parents the higher the level of adolescent maladjustment will be. However, on the boys side the level of maladjustment tended to increase with every rise in parental education.

C. Parental Occupation

The third question investigated the effects of parental occupation on adolescent maladjustment. The corresponding hypothesis was, "The level of adolescent maladjustment will be higher in families of lower parental occupations than in those with higher occupations."

Table 3 illustrates the findings.

Table 3 :

DISTRIBUTION OF MALADJUSTED SUBJECTS
(nm) IN EACH PARENTAL OCCUPATION LEVEL:

Occupation	OVERALL			BOYS			GIRLS		
	nm	N	%	nm	N	%	nm	N	%
Low	11	24	46	4	13	30	7	11	64
Middle	12	24	50	5	14	35	7	10	70
High	40	103	40	22	55	40	18	48	38

When all the subjects were considered those in the middle income group had the highest level of maladjustment (50%). They were followed by the low income group (46%) and then the high income group with 40% came lowest. In essence, this meant that the big number of maladjusted subjects in the high income group was attributable to the original big number of 103 subjects in that occupational level. Thus, the level of maladjustment showed an inverted U-curve trend. The hypothesis was therefore not accepted. However, the low level of maladjustment in the high income group was as was hypothesised.

Among the boys maladjustment level was lowest in the low income group, and highest in the high income group. This was contrary to the hypothesised situation. The hypothesis was partly accepted among the girls in that maladjustment level was far lower in the high income occupational group than in both the low and the middle income groups. Although the middle income group had the highest level of maladjustment among girls, the difference between it and the low income group was rather small. Therefore, while the hypothesis was not wholly accepted it could not be totally discarded.

D. Family Size.

The fourth question investigated the effects of family size on maladjustment. The corresponding hypothesis was, "The level of adolescent maladjustment will be higher in large families than in small families."

Table 4 illustrates the findings.

Table 4 :

DISTRIBUTION OF MALADJUSTED SUBJECTS
(nm) ACCORDING TO FAMILY SIZE

Size	OVERALL			BOYS			GIRLS		
	nm	N	%	nm	N	%	nm	N	%
Large	28	82	34	9	36	25	19	46	41
Small	35	69	51	21	46	46	14	23	61

Table 4 shows that small families had a higher level of adolescent maladjustment (51%) than the large families which had only 34%. The hypothesis was therefore rejected. Even when mere numbers of maladjusted subjects were considered still the small families contributed a bigger number, therefore, rejecting the hypothesis even further.

There were similar trends in both the boys and the girls. The only difference was that the level of maladjustment was higher among the girls from small families (61%) than among the boys from similar homes (46%). However, since a similar trend was observed in connection with large families such a difference might either reflect that generally the girls were more maladjusted than the boys or that the teacher raters for the girls were more observant than those for the boys.

However, no general statistical inferences could be made on the basis of all these results. The reason for this was that a chi-squared test of association showed that none of the four independent variables i.e., family stability, parental education, parental occupation, and family size was a statistically significant factor in determining adolescent maladjustment. A chi-squared test of association could not be carried out on a single sex basis since some cells in the tables (see Appendix pages 86-8) had less than five frequencies.

D I S C U S S I O N

The objective of this research was to provide relevant information to those interested or involved in counselling in the local secondary schools. However, as can be seen from the literature review chapter, other scholars have researched the area of adolescent maladjustment.

Maladjustment:

The variety of maladjustive behaviours found in the present study compared well with those studied by Burns (1949) and Chazan (1959). The variety included poor academic work, lying, shyness, stealing, and withdrawn behaviour. Both verbal and physical aggression were found. Daydreaming, which was studied as lack of attention by Hall et. al. (1977) was found only among the girls.

Other behaviours found were those which Walter (1968) referred to as maladjusted efforts to obtain love and affection. These included making funny noises, moving about in class, and banging desks with the aim of disturbing the teacher and the classmates. Withdrawal behaviours like avoidance of others, suicidal talk and suicidal attempts, and withdrawal from social life were found.

When all the scores for all the maladjusted subjects were added according to the major areas of maladjustment attention seeking behaviours contributed the largest number of scores (128), followed by aggressiveness (76), then vocational or academic (60), and lastly withdrawal maladjustment (21). This distribution is of crucial importance in understanding the findings of this study as particular home environments tend to breed particular types of maladjustment.

Family Stability

The present study's results were in line with the findings of Auden (1931) and Burns (1949) which indicated that maladjustment is found in both stable and unstable families. The high level of maladjustment in stable families may be attributed to over-protection, overindulgence, and overcasual attitudes among parents in such homes. It is adolescents who have suffered from such parental attitudes who are likely to be victims of attention seeking maladjustment (Hurlock, 1973). The lower level of maladjustment among adolescents from unstable families may be attributed to the fact that they have adjusted to the low levels of attention and love characteristic of big institutions like schools.

It is also possible that the absence of one or both parents in the home might have been overcome by the availability of an effectively caring guardian (Grinder, 1973). In Kenya, like elsewhere in East Africa, the extended family is still important. Child caring institutions like those where Goldfarb's (1945) subjects were are rare and very much a last resort in East Africa.

The high level of maladjustment among those living with mothers may be attributed to such parental attitudes like overindulgence which are characteristic of mothers. The end result of such attitudes is usually irresponsible behaviour among the children (Levy, 1943).

Parents Education

The level of maladjustment declined with every rise in the level of education up to middle (secondary and college) education as was hypothesised. However, maladjustment rose again after the middle stage of education. The decline in maladjustment level with every rise in education may be attributed to positive parental attitudes towards education which tend to encourage good performance in school (Sewell and Shah, 1968). The increase in maladjustment observed at the high (university) education level may be attributed to less parental care for the children. Aldous (1978) has argued that such highly educated parents tend to get absorbed in their official affairs, at times, to the detriment of their domestic responsibility.

The surprising increase in maladjustment with higher education among the boys may be attributed to a feeling that the parents' success is the son's success which may lead to irresponsible behaviour in the son. On the side of girls, as they grow older, they are made to feel that their parents' success is not their success permanently since their future is outside their parents' homes. They, therefore, must adjust to the uncertainties of the future by becoming more responsible in all they do.

The decline in maladjustment with higher education all through university for the girls may mean that the absence of parents from the home affects the boys more than it does the girls. It is even normal for girls to take care of the homes when their parents are away, a practice that begins quite early in their lives. Since a similar observation was made in connection with parental occupations, that girls' maladjustment declined while the boys' maladjustment rose with higher occupations that argument seems to hold more water. Higher occupational levels require higher educational qualifications.

Parental Occupations

The sex differences in connection with parental occupations have been discussed under parental education because of similar observations. And, also, in the research design jobs were named and classified with the awareness of the amount of education they required.

An examination of the level of maladjustment showed that the range between low income, through middle, to high income groups was small i.e. 46%, 50%, and 40% respectively. However, one fact came out clearly that the middle income group had the highest level of maladjustment. This group included the unskilled and semi-skilled workers - mechanics, drivers, hotel maids, and clerks. Such workers usually live in the more crowded urban suburbs which makes them more vulnerable to maladjustive behaviours. Maladjustive

behaviours are a common phenomenon in crowded urban suburbs (Bernstein, 1964).

Low income and high income occupations had low levels of maladjustment. The low income group included peasants and petty traders. It is possible that most of such parents lived in rural areas particularly peasants. If this was true, then, low maladjustment levels in the low income group may be attributed to the usual scattered nature of rural dwellings. The high income group included professionals, big businessmen, and administrators. Such people usually live in the well spaced houses in the high income residential areas of town, and, it is again possible that good spacing of their homes might explain the low level of maladjustment among them.

The small difference there was which was in favour of the high income group may be attributed to the differences in material well being (Chazan, 1959). In this study high income earners were taken to be like those who occupy the middle class status in Britain or America.

Family Size

The higher level of maladjustment observed among the adolescents from small families may be attributed to too much psychological and material welfare in such homes. The smaller the number of children a family has the more attention and material welfare they receive. Contrary

to this, large families are prone to parental rejection - (Horrocks, 1969). A child used to being attended to as an individual in the small family may find it difficult to adjust to a big school where at times, the teacher may not even know his name. The adolescent may resist the idea of being herded up with the rest of the class or the school. However, in the process of trying to regain his individual status he might resort to maladjustive behaviours (Hurlock, 1973).

On the contrary, an adolescent from a large family may find it easy to adjust to a school situation. After all, being treated just as a member of a group may not be new to him.

S U M M A R Y

Generally, the results showed that maladjustment was to be expected in any of the home environments which were studied, implying that there were other factors in the environment and within the individual which might modify the effects of the home environment. Such factors were mentioned in the first two chapters, and, they included the adolescent's own personality, intelligence level, and school or peer influence.

The high levels of maladjustment hailing from what were hypothesised as 'good' homes may be a reflection of the discrepancy between the 'good' home and the realities of school life. The school may not be in a position to

offer all the love, attention, and affection a good home usually offers.

The schools sampled for the present study offered some of the best facilities any secondary school in Kenya could offer. This, in addition to the previous explanations, could explain why adolescents from homes with the hypothesised adverse conditions had less maladjustment levels than had been expected. These schools offered better facilities than many of the homes with the adverse conditions. In this connection, the schools were in a suitable position to influence adolescent behaviour (Spencer, 1972).

C O N C L U S I O N S

Given the fact that some other variables which affect adolescent adjustment in school were assumed absent from the purposes of this study, and that the number of schools studied were only two, plus all the other limitations that were confessed in the problem chapter, the conclusions arrived at in this study need not be taken conclusively.

The fact that the various χ^2 tests of association between each of the four home environments and maladjustment were negative suggests that the conclusions arrived at on the basis of percentages (or proportions) can not be generalised to apply to the whole population of Kenyan adolescents.

However, the study served the purpose of throwing more light on the relationship between home environments and adolescent maladjustment since attempts were made to control some of those other variables which would otherwise influence maladjustment. With this background, the conclusions hereafter, are very tentative.

(a) Generally, the results lead to the conclusion that home environments, although important, are not the only variables which determine maladjustment, hence its being found in all the home environments.

(b) The small differences in the levels of maladjustment between stable and unstable families suggest that either family stability has no influence on maladjustment or its effects are very modifiable by other variables which influence maladjustment. The same holds true for both sexes.

(c) The effects of parental education on maladjustment vary with sex. Maladjustment tends to rise with higher education among boys, while it declines among girls with higher education.

(d) The effects of parental occupation on maladjustment vary with sex. Maladjustment tends to rise with higher occupational levels among boys, while it declines among girls with higher occupation.

(e) Maladjustment level may be higher in small families than in large families. The same trend holds true for both sexes.

RECOMMENDATION FOR RESEARCH

There is still need for further research to answer the following questions:-

- (i) How applicable are the findings of the present study to (a) low cost schools, (b) other high cost schools in Kenya?
- (ii) What type of home environments in a modern African cultural setting are prone to parental attitudes like rejection, overindulgence, and overprotection?
- (iii) What type of home environments in a modern African cultural setting are prone to each of these types of maladjustment:-
 - (a) attention seeking, (b) aggressiveness, (c) withdrawal, and (d) academic or vocational?
- (iv) In an African cultural setting, what is the relationship between intelligence level and
 - (a) attention seeking maladjustment,
 - (b) aggressive maladjustment,
 - (c) withdrawal maladjustment, and
 - (d) academic performance?

RECOMMENDATION FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF FINDINGS

The findings of the present study confirmed the existence of maladjustment and, therefore, the need for counselling services in the Kenyan secondary schools.

The counselling strategy could take the following forms:-

- (i) Teachers who have interests in counselling and who have received general counselling courses in their teacher training programmes should be allowed to do this job. Such teachers should have their teaching loads reduced.
- (ii) Specialist school counsellors should be trained and employed.
- (iii) Housemasters and housemistresses should also receive some training in counselling procedures.
- (iv) Headmasters and Headmistresses should also attend some refresher courses in counselling and guidance if any counselling strategy is to be attained.
- (v) Whoever may be involved in counselling should bear in mind the fact that the effects of home environments on adolescent behaviour may vary with cultures, and even with sexes.
- (vi) Finally, those involved in counselling and guidance do a very important job of maintaining the welfare of adolescents in school and, therefore, should be paid well for this service.

R E F E R E N C E S

- Aldous, J. Family Careers, John Wiley and Sons,
New York, 1978.
- Almy, Millie Ways of Studying Children, Teacher College,
Columbia University, 1959.
- Auden, G.A. "The Maladjusted Child" British Journal of
Educational Psychology, Vol.I, 1931 PP266-278
- Ausubel, P.E. "Validity of Teachers' ratings of
Adolescent Adjustment and aspirations",
Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol.45,
1954 PP 394-406.
- Bender, L. "Drug Addiction In Adolescence", Comprehensive
Psychiatry, Vol. 71, 1969, PP.418-440
- Bernard, J.W. "Teachers' ratings of student
personality traits" Journal of Educational
Psychology, Vol. 19, 1968, P.128
- Bernestein, S. Youth on the Streets, Associated Press,
New York, 1964.
- Burns, C.L.C. "Maladjusted Children of High Intelligence",
British Journal of Educational Psychology,
Vol.19, 1949, PP137-141.
- Chazan, M. "Maladjusted Children in Grammar School"
British Journal of Educational Psychology;
Vol.29,1959, PP.198-207.

- Chazan, M. "The Relationship Between Maladjustment and Backwardness", Educational Review, Vol.15, 1962, PP. 54-62.
- Chazan M. "Maladjusted Pupils: Trends in Post War theory and practice", Journal of Educational Research, Vol.6, 1963-4, PP.29-41.
- Clausen, J.A. "Family Structure, Socialization, and Personality" in Hoffman, L.W. and Hoffma, M.L. Review of Child Development Research, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1966, PP1-54
- Crow and Crow Adolescent Development, McGraw Hill, 1965
- Dinkmeyer, Don C. Child Development: The Emerging Self, Prentice Hall, Inc. Ignlewood Cliffs, N.J. 1965.
- Douglas, J.W.B. The Home and The School, Maggibon and Kee, London, 1964.
- Fraser, D.E. Home Environment and The School, University of London Press, London, 1959.
- Freeman, F.S. Theory and Practice of Psychological Testing, Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc. 1955.
- Goldfarb, W. "Psychological Privation in Infancy And Subsequent Adjustment" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 15, 1945, PP.247-255.
- Grinder, R. E. Adolescence, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1973.

- Gusa, S.G. "There is need for social workers in our schools" Daily Nation, 2nd October, 1979, Page 12.
- Hall, V.C. "Attention and Achievement Exhibited by Middle and Lower Class Black and White Elementary School Boys" Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol.69, 1977, PP.115-120.
- Horrocks, J.E. The Psychology of Adolescence, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1969.
- Hurlock, E.H. Adolescent Development, McGrawHill Co., New York, 1973.
- Ishume, A.G.M. Guidance and Counselling: A general appraisal with Suggestions for East Africa. (Paper available in Educational Research Bureau) 1972.
- Kaplan, L. Foundations of Human Behaviour, Harper and Row Publishers, New York, 1965.
- Kasozi, A.B.K. The Crisis of Secondary School in Uganda, Longman, Uganda Ltd., 1979.
- Krippner, S. "Junior High School Students' Vocational Preferences And Their Parents' occupational Levels", Personal And Guidance Journal, Vol. 41, 1963, PP.590-595.

- Laycock, S.R. "Maladjustments of School Children",
British Journal of Educational Psychology,
Vol. 4, 1934.
- Levy, D.M. Maternal Overprotection, Columbia, 1943.
- Liebert, R.S. "Drug Use: Symptom, disease, or adolescent
experimentation - the task of therapy",
Journal of the American College Health
Association, Vol. 16, 1967, PP.25-29.
- Lunn, J.B. "The Influence of Sex, Achievement Level, and
social class on Junior School Children's
attitudes", British Journal of Educational
Psychology, Vol. 42, 1972, PP.70-74.
- Lunzer, E.A. "Aggressive and Withdrawing Children in
the Normal School", British Journal of
Educational Psychology, Vol.30, 1960, PP.1-10.
- Lynn, R. "Environmental Conditions Affecting
Intelligence" Educational Research, Vol.1
1959, PP. 49-61.
- Lynn, B.D. The Father: His Role In Child Development,
Wadsworth Publishing Co. Inc., Belmont,
California 94002, 1974.
- Marjoribanks, K. "Environment, Social class, and Mental
Abilities", Journal of Educational
Psychology, Vol. 63, 1972, PP. 103-109.

- Miller, G.W. "Factors in School Achievement and Social Class" Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol.61, 1970, PP.260-269.
- Musgrove, P. The Family, Education, and Society, Routledge and Kagan Paul Ltd., Broadway House, London, E.C.4. 1966.
- Newsome, A. Student Counselling in Practice, University of London Press, 1973.
- Nisbet, J. "Family Environment and Intelligence" in Halsey, A.H. (eds.) Education, Economy, and Society, Free Press of Glancoe, 1961 PP. 273-287.
- Pavalko, R.M. and Bishop, D.R. "Peer Influence in College Plans of Canadian High School Students", The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, Vol.3 1966, PP.191-200.
- Robertson, T.S. "Social Class and Educational Research", Journal of Educ. Research, Vol. 16, 1973-4, PP. 189-195.
- Sewell, W.H. and Shah, V.P. "Parents' Education And Children's Educational Aspirations and Achievements", American Sociological Review, Vol.33, 1969, PP. 191-209.

- Shaffer and Shoben: The Psychology of Adjustment.
Teachers College, Columbia University 1956.
- Sokol, J. and Robinson, J.L. "Glue Sniffing" Western
Medicine, Vol. 4, 1963, PP. 192-195
- Spencer, C.P. "Secondary School, Social class, And
Subculture", British Journal of Educational
Psychology, Vol. 42, 1972, PP.1-13.
- †
Swift, D.F. "Social Class and Achievement Motivation",
Journal of Educational Research, Vol.7-8,
1964-6, PP.83-95
- Swift, D.F. "Family Environment and 11+ Success: Some
basic Predictions", British Journal of
Educational Psychology, Vol. 37, 1967, PP.10-21.
- Tuckman, J. and Regan, R.A. "Size of Family and
Behavicular Problems in Children", Journal
of Genetic Psychology, Vol. III, 1967,
PP. 151-160
- Walter, K. "Social Learning Theory and Maladjustment"
in Readings In The Psychology of Adjustment.
McGrawHill, New York, 1968.

APPENDIX A

TABLES USED IN COMPUTING THE χ^2 TEST OF ASSOCIATION

Table A(i)

Level of family stability.

Family stability	Maladjusted	Non Maladjusted	Total
Unstable	14	23	37
Stable	49	65	114
Total	63	88	151

Table A(ii)

Parental Educational Level

Education	Maladjusted	Non Maladjusted	Total
Low & None	10	12	22
Middle	23	41	64
High	30	35	65
Total	63	88	151

Table A(iii)

Parental Occupational Level

Occupation	Maladjusted	Non-Maladjusted	Total
Low	11	13	24
Middle	12	12	24
High	40	63	103
Total	63	88	151

87

Table A(iv)

Family Size

Size	Maladjusted	Non-Maladjusted	Total
Large	28	54	82
Small	35	34	69
Total	63	88	151

APPENDIX A

Table A(v)

Chi-squared (x^2) test of association between types of Home Environments and Maladjustment at the 5% level of Significance.

Home Environment	Obs. x^2	Table x^2	Conclusion
Level of Stability	0.12	3.841	Not Significant
Level of Education	1.53	5.991	Not Significant
Level of Occupation	1.20	5.991	Not Significant
Family Size	3.59	3.841	Not Significant

APPENDIX B

THE RECORDS BELOW ARE NOT FOR ADMINISTRATIVE USE

RECORDING DATE - JAN-FEB, 1979

FULL STUDENT NAME

..... CLASS

PUT A TICK (✓) WHEN THE BEHAVIOUR IS OBSERVED AGAINST THE DAY. IF THE BEHAVIOUR IS REPEATED TICK AGAIN

D A Y S

Behaviours observed	MON.	TUE.	WED.	THUR.	FRI.	SAT.	SUN.
1. Avoidance of social activities e.g. games							
2. Stealing e.g. a pen, a soap, or shirt							
3. Telling lies							
4. Withdrawn from social life e.g. not taking part in social activities							
5. Suicidal talk e.g. I wish I were dead							
6. Suicidal attempts e.g. Poisoning self							
7. Bullying equals (including fighting)							
8. Bullying Juniors (e.g. smaller pupils)							
9. Attacks on Dormitory Prefects							
10. Attacks on staff members							
11. Getting drunk							
12. Smoking							
13. Making funny noises e.g. in dormitory							
Other behaviours observed:-							
14.							
15.							

APPENDIX C

THE RECORDS BELOW ARE NOT FOR ADMINISTRATIVE USE

RECORDING DATES - JANUARY TO FEBRUARY 19

FULL STUDENT NAME CLASS

PUT A TICK (✓) WHEN THE BEHAVIOUR IS OBSERVED IN THAT LESSON ON THAT DAY

D A Y S

Behaviours observed	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
1. Poor academic work					
2. Assignment not done or attempted					
3. Yelling comments at Teacher or Prefect					
4. Yelling comments at class mates					
5. Physical fighting of class mates					
6. Cheating others work					
7. Coughing loudly					
8. Making funny noises					
9. Whistling loudly					
10. Moving about in class					
11. Moving chairs with the purpose of making noise					
12. Banging books					
13. Beating or drumming desks					
14. Shyness i.e. Cannot talk in front of the class					
15. Signs of giving up studies					
16. Telling lies					
17. Cutting classes					
Other behaviours observed					
18. Day dreaming					
19. Mischief					
20. Disobedience					
21. Desire for heroworship					

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please put a tick (✓) against the word or sentence that is most applicable to you. You are requested to be frank, and to keep your answer a secret after you have answered the question. You are also requested to answer all the questions except those which do not concern you, e.g. If your father is dead leave out any question an fathers. Note: the answer you give will not be used by the school administration or showed to your parents.

1. At home I live with
 - (a) Some relatives (not parents)
 - (b) With my mother
 - (c) With my father
 - (d) With both mother and father
 - (e) With nobody

2. Which of these statements is true of your family?
 - (a) Both my parents are dead
 - (b) Father is dead
 - (c) Mother is dead
 - (d) Father and mother separated (divorced)
 - (e) Father and mother live together

3. Some fathers live at their place of work, leaving their family in the rural areas to do some other work.
Does this apply to your father? Yes/No.

4. Some families have one child while others have many. How many are in your family?
 - (a) Over 16
 - (b) Between 11 and 16
 - (c) Between 6 and 10
 - (d) Between 2 and 5
 - (e) One

5. In addition to your brothers and sisters, are there any other children living in your home?
How many?.....

6. Some parents went to school and some did not go. Which of these types of education did your parents complete?
for Father
 - (a) Did not go to school
 - (b) Primary school
 - (c) Secondary school
 - (d) College
 - (e) University

7. for Mother
 - (a) Did not go to school
 - (b) Primary school
 - (c) Secondary school
 - (d) College
 - (e) University

8. If your mother works in which of these groups does she fall?
 - (a) Peasant farmer/small trader etc.
 - (b) General worker e.g. hotel maid, cleaner etc.
 - (c) Clerical job e.g clerk
 - (d) Professional e.g. doctor, lawyer, teacher
 - (e) Big business owner big farmer, senior administrator

- 9; — In which of these groups does your father's job fall?
- (a) Peasant farmer/small trader/fish monger etc
 - (b) General worker e.g. driver, mechanic etc
 - (c) Clerical job e.g. clerk
 - (d) Professional e.g. doctor, lawyer, teacher etc
 - (e) Big business wowner, big farmer, senior administrator e.g. Minister Permanent Secretary etc.