

**PSYCHOSOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF PROBLEM
BEHAVIOUR IN SECONDARY SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS
IN KENYA.**

**BY
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**UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
EAST AFRICANA COLLECTION**

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REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF
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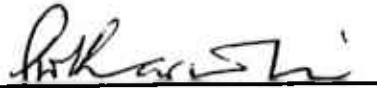
DECLARATION

**This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree
in any other University**



CHARLES O.N. KIMAMO

**This thesis has been presented for examination with our approval as
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ABSTRACT

The focus of this study was problem behaviour in adolescence. Specifically, the study sought to understand the psychosocial determinants of problem behaviour in secondary school adolescents in Kenya. The study investigated adolescent behaviour that is considered problematic in that it could be a source of conflict between adolescents, and their parents, teachers, peers, or even the government. The study was motivated by the growing concern among parents and teachers in Kenya, which indicates that adolescent behaviour is becoming increasingly problematic. For example, some students have been charged in court with planning to set their school on fire or setting it on fire, destroying property and causing the death of their colleagues. Discipline problems appear to be getting worse and yet guidance and counselling is getting more intensified in schools.

Problem behaviours investigated in the current study included some forms of dressing and hairstyles, smoking, drinking of alcohol, drug abuse, abortion, lack of consideration for others and school strikes. The general aim of the study was to investigate the determinants and correlates of problem behaviour in secondary school adolescents. The specific study objectives were derived directly from the research problem. The study therefore sought to:

- (a) Determine the relationship between attitude towards problem behaviour and overt problem behaviour.
- (b) Identify the determinants and correlates of problem behaviour among secondary school adolescents in Kenya.

- (c) Examine the relationship between problem behaviour and academic performance.
- (d) Explore probable solutions to problem behaviour among adolescents.

To achieve the objectives of this study the survey research method was adopted. Primary data were gathered using self-administered questionnaires. The survey research covered Nairobi and Central Provinces. Using stratified random sampling, 33 schools were selected; 12 from Nairobi Province and 21 from Central Province. A class of fourth grade secondary school students from each school was randomly selected. The primary sample comprised of 986 students.

Supplementary data were collected from 100 parents, 33 head-teachers, 33 head of guidance and counseling departments and 3 senior education officers. Data from supplementary sources were gathered using an interview guide.

The key findings were: that there was a significant relationship between (a) internal locus of control, (b) religious involvement, (c) relationship with significant others, and attitude towards problem behaviour. Locus of control refers to the perceived causality of behavioural outcomes. At one extreme (internal), the individual thinks of himself or herself as being responsible for his or her own behaviour. At the other extreme (external), the individual sees others or fate or chance or luck as responsible for his or her behaviour. Subjects with an internal locus of control tended to disagree with problem behaviours more than those who had an external locus of control. It was

concluded that locus of control is a desirable personality trait. There was a significant relationship between religious involvement and attitude towards problem behaviour. Subjects who were members of a religious group or were actively involved in religious movements tended to disagree with problem behaviours more than those who were not members of a religious group. It was concluded that some religious beliefs help to reduce problematic behaviours among adolescents. Relationships with significant others were also identified as significant determinants of problem behaviour. Subjects who had a good relationship with parents, teachers and peers tended to disagree with problem behaviours more than those whose relationships were indicated as poor. It was concluded that harmonious relationships in adolescence could reduce the incidence of problematic behaviours among adolescents. Other additional findings were that (a) attitudes and behaviour are closely related and (b) problem behaviour can also be influenced by ignorance and level of moral reasoning.

Based on these findings, the following recommendations were made for theory, practice and research. Firstly, it was noted that many factors interplay to bring about problem behaviour in adolescence including family background, family relationships, school relationships and drug abuse. Future researchers should adopt a multidisciplinary approach to the study of adolescence instead of concentrating on a single determinant of problem behaviour such as drug abuse. Secondly, Hall (1904) claimed that adolescence is inevitably marked by storm and stress. This study does not support this generalization. Instead, Offer's (1969) observations seem to be more appropriate. Offer discovered multiple paths through adolescence with

a majority of youth following either a smooth, non-abrupt changes path or an abrupt change in behaviour but not necessarily accompanied by crises or problems. Only a few of Offer's subjects experienced a stormy adolescence. Future researchers may find Offer's approach to the study of adolescence useful.

Secondly, internal locus of control, or the belief that one can control the destiny of his life, was found to be a desirable trait that could reduce the incidence of problem behaviour in adolescence. It is therefore suggested that sensitivity training be used to inculcate internal locus of control in adolescence. The training would involve sensitizing the youth to be considerate of others in everything they do and to learn to take responsibility for the behavioural outcomes of their conduct. Religious movements should also be strengthened in schools. This is because religious involvement was found to be associated with negative attitude towards problem behaviour.

Thirdly, parenting should be introduced as a compulsory subject in secondary schools and perhaps even at primary school level. This is because parents being the architects of the family (Satir, 1964) need to be taught the ideal methods of designing a good family. As it is now, most parents are oblivious of theories of child development that could be useful in parenting and generally bring up their children using their own experiences as children.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background information

The term “adolescence” is derived from the Latin word “adolescere” which means, “to grow into maturity” (Lerner, 2002 p.16). The term refers to that period in human growth and development that is marked at the beginning by the onset of puberty and at the end by the attainment of physiological and psychological maturity (Reber, 1984). Thus, adolescence can be described as a transitional period when a child evolves both physiologically and mentally from childhood to adulthood. Sometimes the word “youth” is used interchangeably with adolescence (Igaga, 1987). The phenomenon of adolescence according to Balmer (1992 p.48) is complex, delicate and poorly defined. It raises many problems that society needs to address. Garrison and Garrison (1975) suggest that adults frequently describe adolescents as irresponsible, pleasure loving and mixed up due to their seemingly indiscriminate conformity to peer group pressure. Similarly, Gordon (1965) observed that adolescents sometimes seem to live in a world of their own which they do not share with the adult one.

Adults remain uninformed about why adolescents behave the way they do. In some cases, the values held by adolescents tend to conflict with those that are held by the society as a whole (Zarkowska and Clements, 1994). Montemayor (1983) for example, found parents and adolescents in conflict in all families some of the time and in some families most of the time, and that

some of the conflicts culminate in adolescents running away from home, becoming pregnant, stealing or committing suicide.

The current study investigated adolescent behaviour that is considered to be problematic, both at home and in school, in that it could be described as a source of conflict between adolescents, and their parents, teachers, peers or even the government. Such behaviour is often labeled variously in literature as “problem behaviour”, “deviant”, “conflict behaviour”, “dyssocial behaviour”, or simply “indiscipline”. In a school context, the word indiscipline is commonly used. Makinde (1987, p.13) defines indiscipline as “acts of lawlessness and disorder performed individually or collectively and precipitated against established norms.” On the other hand, Reber (1984) states that problem behaviour includes behaviours that are incomprehensible to others and those that are antisocial, destructive, disruptive or broadly maladaptive. The term “deviance” seems to be applied in sociological studies as a synonym to the term “problem behaviour”. Haralambos (1994,) defines deviance as those acts, which do not conform to the norms and values of a particular society. A comparison between Reber’s (1984) definition of problem behaviour, Makinde’s(1987) definition of indiscipline, and Haralambo’s (1994) definition of deviance show little distinction between them. The three terms could therefore be used interchangeably.

Problem behaviours, exhibited in homes or schools, could be conceptualized as ranging from mild to severe. The term “mild” is used in this case to refer to “normal” behaviour that interferes with the efficient running of homes or

schools (Hurlock 1978). An example of mild problem behaviours was reported in the Daily Nation of 12th July 1996. In the newspaper story, a male student was expelled from Nyahururu High School, in the Central Province of Kenya, for adorning himself with an earring. While such practice may not necessarily be maladaptive, most adults would be eager to establish why such a student would place himself in a collision course with school authorities and parents, for a reason most adults would regard as trivial.

Severe or delinquent problem behaviours include acts such as stealing, truancy, arson, vandalism and drug abuse (Montgomery, 1992). In most cases, severe problem behaviours constitute what is referred to as crime. Crime refers to those activities that break the law and are subject to punishment applied by officials appointed by a state (Haralambos, 1994). An example of severe problem behaviour is reported in a case where 19 girls of St. Kizito Secondary School, in the Eastern Province of Kenya, died in July 1991 following a stampede after boys invaded their dormitory in a rape orgy (Standard Newspaper, May 30, 1999; Ndetei, 2002). In a similar episode, murderous boys in Nyeri High School of the Central Province of Kenya, doused a school prefects' cubicle and set it ablaze. All the four prefects later died in hospital. These two examples are just a reflection of the bigger indiscipline problem in schools and a culture of violence that seems to be growing in the society.

The issue of problem behaviour in school adolescents is a global one. Hymowitz (2000) noted that for several decades now, school discipline tops the list of parent's concern about the problems facing American public

schools. Elsewhere, in the history of countries such as France, Cuba, Turkey, South Korea, South Vietnam, Indonesia, Bolivia, Venezuela, Ethiopia, Liberia, and Ghana, massive student demonstrations were largely responsible for the fall of regimes in these countries (Nkinyangi, 1981). In Nigeria, between 1977 and 1979, the military were stationed in post-secondary institutions and the same was proposed for secondary schools, to assist school principals and head teachers to help restore and maintain discipline among students (Makinde, 1987).

Nkinyangi (1981) suggests that occurrences of indiscipline at school should not be viewed as isolated incidences but rather as social phenomena that may help us to understand the social dynamics of the societies in which they occur. In this regard, schools are treated as mirrors of society and problem behaviours as indicators of a culture of deviance and violence that seems to be growing in the society. The findings of the current study might therefore have implications for the society as a whole.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Declining moral standards and an increasing rate of crime are commonly reported in Kenyan schools. There is a growing concern among parents and teachers, which indicates that adolescent behaviour is becoming increasingly problematic. Some students have been charged in court with either planning to set their school on fire, setting it on fire and causing the death of their colleagues through the arson. Discipline problems appear to be getting worse and yet guidance and counseling is becoming more intensified in schools. History of guidance and counselling in Kenya dates back to 1971 when the

Ministry of Education opened a guidance and counseling unit (Oketch and Ngumba, 1988). In the same year, a handbook for school guidance and counsellors was produced and later revised in 1973 and 1977 (Gitonga, 1999). The handbook enumerated the responsibilities of heads of schools in the guidance and counseling programme. Head teachers were charged with the responsibility of selecting competent and committed teacher-counsellors, selecting guidance and counselling committees to coordinate the programme, providing time and facilities needed for the programme, gathering and availing relevant information about students to teacher-counsellors, and defining areas of responsibility for teacher-counsellors (Gitonga, 1999). However, even with such innovations, discipline problems in Kenyan schools continue to worsen. In fact, the year 2001 saw the worst of the discipline problems in Kenyan history with students of Kyanguli Secondary School, in the Eastern Province of Kenya, dousing their colleagues' dormitory with petrol, lighting it and killing 67 of their colleagues and injuring others in the resulting inferno (Ndeti, 2002). Crises teams and commissions of inquiry have been set up to unravel the mystery of the discipline problem in Kenyan schools. The current study attempts to supplement the efforts that are being made to restore serenity in our institutions of learning and in the society in general.

Lindgren (1980) has observed that teachers often deal with problem behaviour by direct methods such as scolding, sarcasm, banishment from the classroom, detention, and corporal punishment. According to Lindgren (1980), such direct methods of punishment tend to worsen the problem because they seldom get to the source of it. Instead, these direct methods

ignore the motivation of the behaviour. By motivation here is meant “the internal state of an organism that impels or drives it to action” (Reber, 1984 p.454). Dealing with overt behaviour is viewed as seriously incompetent in that it fails to provide any coherent characterization of significant cognitive processes such as thinking that could have explained better the source of the behaviour (Reber, 1984). Ndeti (2002) observes that problem behaviours like drug abuse are symptoms of a more fundamental problem that needs to be identified, yet many researchers concentrate on symptoms rather than the cause for the problem. Perhaps this realization is what has led to the banning of corporal punishment in Kenyan schools. There are national initiatives to end corporal punishment of children in many countries, in all continents. Corporal punishment was banned in Kenyan schools in the year 2001 (Daily Nation, July 2, 2001; Republic of Kenya 2001). A commission of inquiry was instituted to seek alternative methods of solving the indiscipline problem in the schools (Daily Nation, July 18, 2001).

Cognitive approaches are currently being used by many psychologists to account for what motivates a variety of personal and social behaviours (Zimbardo, 1988). Cognitive approaches emphasize the internal, mental processes explaining behaviour. To the cognitive psychologist, behaviour is not specifiable simply in terms of overt properties but requires explanations at the level of mental events, mental representations, beliefs and intentions (Reber, 1984). The cognitive theory of motivation states that what we do is often controlled by what we think. An individual thinks of what he wants to do and then tries to figure out ways of going about it (Munavi, 1988). Mental processes are therefore in charge of the acting self. The current study

investigated the determinants of cognitive processes that could account for the worrying course that indiscipline is taking among secondary school adolescents in Kenya.

Problem behaviours investigated in the current study included some forms of dressing and hairstyles, smoking, alcohol, drug abuse, abortion, disrespect and school strikes. Unusual dressing, for example miniskirts, is considered to be sexually provocative (Daily Nation, April 28, 2000 p.2). The mass media in Kenya has reported cases of women stripped naked usually by men because they were said to have been dressed in a provocative manner (The Kenya Times, 30th July, 1996 p.19). With regards to drug abuse, available evidence suggests that drug use and abuse in Kenya is high and rising (Acuda, 1982). The high incidence of unrest in schools and other institutions of higher learning have been attributed to rampant drug use among the youth (Sunday Standard, May 30, 1999 p.10). Alcohol and other substances such as marijuana are associated with poor psychological adjustment (Lerner, 2002). With regards to disrespect, a young person may occupy the only seat unoccupied in a vehicle while an elderly person is left standing. With regards to abortion, the situation is that abortion is only permitted in Kenya, when a woman's life is in danger (Lema and Kabeberi-Macharia, 1992). Finally, with regards to school strikes, most school strikes in Kenya today are amazingly violent and involve loss of life and destruction of property (Sunday Standard, May 30, 1999; p.10). The study was motivated by the growing concern among parents and teachers, which indicates that adolescents are becoming increasingly difficult to understand. For example, such a concern was raised by educators in a three-day national conference at Kenyatta University who

had converged to forge joint efforts in the eradication of indiscipline in schools (Daily Nation, August 23, 1999).

The problem behaviours in the study were selected on the basis that they are contemporary unresolved issues. As noted above, most of these problems have been discussed in recent daily newspapers. In addition, these behaviours have one thing in common, namely, they are learnt. Unlike behaviours such as premarital sex, which tend to be controlled by instincts, the problem behaviours in this study are learnt and could be unlearned.

Some of the hypothesized determinants of problem behaviour included mass media, locus of control (the tendency to blame others or ourselves for the outcome of an event which we were involved in), gender, location of school (whether rural or urban), socio-economic background, and religious beliefs.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- (i) Does attitude towards problem behaviour predict overt problem behaviour?
- (ii) Is positive attitude towards problem behaviour determined by parents, teachers, peers, mass media, locus of control, gender, location of school, socio-economic background and religious beliefs?
- (iii) Does positive attitude towards problem behaviour affect academic performance?

1.3 Objectives

The general aim of the study was to investigate the determinants and correlates of problem behaviour in secondary school adolescents. The specific study objectives derive directly from the research problem. The study sought to:

- (a) Determine the relationship between attitude towards problem behaviour and overt problem behaviour.
- (b) Identify the determinants and correlates of problem behaviour among secondary school adolescents in Kenya.
- (c) Examine the relationship between problem behaviour and academic performance.
- (d) Explore probable solutions to problem behaviour among adolescents.

1.4 Rationale

While the scientific study of adolescence is dated to the work of Hall (1904), empirical work on adolescence has lagged behind comparable efforts to study children. Studies on child development have far outnumbered those on adolescence (Corsini, 1984). Yet, adolescence is an equally important stage of development and one that is relatively less understood. There's need for studies not only on problem behaviour but also in the specific area of adolescence in order to make this stage of life as well understood as that of childhood.

Secondly, most studies done on adolescence narrow down to specific problem behaviours such as drugs and sexuality. The current study was unique in that it investigated the interrelationship between a number of

problem behaviours and the implications of this interrelationship. In addition, among the variables that were investigated in this study was the significance of dressing and hairstyles among secondary school adolescents in Kenya. Fashion designers have unanimously been mandated with the task of determining what is appropriate in the world of grooming. However, the designers may be ignorant or oblivious of the disagreements some of these designs generate in the society because very few, if any, evaluative studies have been carried out to show the significance of dressing and hairstyles. Scientific research on the significance of dressing and hairstyles has been neglected and the jurisdiction of this area left to speculations by the mass media. Likewise, research on problem behaviour is mainly descriptive. For example, most studies demonstrate that drug abuse in schools is highly prevalent. “We only describe what we see, we never ask why” (Ndetei, 2002 p.xiv).

Thirdly, even in Europe and America where most studies on the phenomenon of adolescence have been carried out, lack of a consensus on the causes of problematic behaviour at adolescence has been noted. Some studies attribute problematic behaviours to the work of hormones (biological explanation) while others assert identity crises, peer pressure, rebellion or parenting style. There is need for further studies to reconcile these explanations. Further, studies need to be carried out in Africa in order to compare with the existing findings from Europe and America. Those studies that are done in Africa on adolescent behaviour are not exhaustive.

Fourthly, cases of indiscipline in Kenyan schools have lately increased with, most of them involving arson and strikes. This study will make a valuable contribution on the much-needed knowledge of indiscipline in schools. On the academic front, the study will add to the existing knowledge and fill the gaps of information concerning problem behaviour in adolescence. The study will also enrich existing methodologies on the study of behaviour and contribute to the cognitive theory of motivation. The findings of this study could also act as a springboard for future researchers who might wish to further explore this field and incorporate other factors not included herein. On the practical front, important information derived from the current study will be beneficial to parents, teachers, educational planners, administrators and counsellors who will develop more efficient programmes or strategies, and improve on the existing ones concerning problem behaviour.

Finally, one of the factors that enhance good performance in any learning institution is discipline. That is why most institutions will lay down rules and regulations that direct learners in them. The laid down regulations are based on what is considered important to facilitate a harmonious coexistence. Studies like the current one would not only enhance performance in learning institutions but also act as a basis for enhancing harmonious coexistence in society because adolescents are also members of various other communities.

1.5 Scope and limitations

Due to time, finance and methodological constraints, the current study was limited to the following scope:

1. The study addresses problematic behaviour in adolescence thereby

ignoring other stages in life, such as childhood, that is equally important.

2. The study only covers secondary schools in Central and Nairobi provinces of Kenya.
3. Only grade four students, in secondary schools, were sampled because one research instrument used in the study (locus of control) yields better results with older adolescents.
4. Primary schools and post-secondary institutions were not covered by the study.

1.6 Assumptions

In pursuing this study, it was assumed that:

1. Adolescents were conversant with problem behaviours that were being investigated in the study.
2. Respondents gave honest and uninfluenced responses to the questionnaire.
3. The sample used in the study was representative and that results could be generalized to the target population, which is the Kenyan youth.
4. The cognitive approach to the study of motivation used in data collection, was a valid and reliable method of studying adolescent behaviour.

1.7 Explanations of key concepts

The following section explains three key terms that are significant in this study.

(a) Problem behaviour :

This is any behaviour that is a source of conflict between adolescents, and their parents and teachers. Problem behaviour is the key dependent variable in this study. In some cases, the term problem behaviour and attitude towards problem behaviour have been used interchangeably in the sense that attitude towards a behaviour could reflect potentiality for that behaviour. When each of the problem behaviours was considered separately, the plural form “problem behaviours “ was used. However, when all the problem behaviours in the questionnaire were scored, the score was referred to as a score on “problem behaviour”. The key questionnaire contained 15 behaviours that were considered controversial in the Kenyan context and hence the label “problem behaviours”. The subjects were requested to give their opinion concerning the controversial behaviours. If the subject rejected each of the 15, he/she was awarded a score of 15, and this was thought to represent the absence of problem behaviour, at least cognitively, and the likelihood of little conflict between adolescents, and their parents and teachers, and vice versa.

(b) Psychosocial determinants of behaviour

The terms refer to an individual’s psychological and social basis of behaviour. They stress the interaction between a person’s cognitive processes and the physical and social environment. Behaviour in this study is thought to emanate from the interaction between the individual’s cognitive processes and the physical and social environment.

(c) Secondary school adolescents

This refers to the key subjects of this study. Most secondary school adolescents tend to fall within the 13 to 20 years age bracket. In the current study, only the fourth grade secondary school students were studied because of the use of locus of control instrument that yields better results when used with older adolescents. The words “adolescents” “youth” “subjects” were used interchangeably to refer to the fourth grade secondary school students.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter describes scientific investigations that have been carried out concerning adolescence, with particular reference to problem behaviour. The chapter starts by explaining the way in which various researchers perceive the concept of adolescence. Literature is then reviewed showing what researchers have identified as the causes of problem behaviour among adolescents.

2.1 The concept of adolescence

Reber (1987) defines adolescence as the period of development marked at the beginning by the onset of puberty and at the end by the attainment of physiological or psychological maturity. It is not possible to define precisely the year when adolescence begins or is completed since both the onset of puberty and the attainment of maturity vary from one person to the other. Adolescence, then, can simply be described as a transitional period when a child evolves both physiologically and mentally from childhood to adulthood (Igaga, 1987). It is a stage between childhood and adulthood and therefore adolescents are neither children nor adults. Balmer (1992) observed that due to this placement dilemma, adolescents are not presented with clearly defined roles. At times they are expected to assume the responsibility of adults, while at others they are still treated as children. This inconsistency can cause them to be anxious and confused. Confusion over the most appropriate role to assume can lead to a lack of stable identity (Feldman, 1996). The father of adolescence psychology, Stanley Hall (1844-1924), who was the first

psychologist to advance a psychology of adolescence in its own right and to use scientific methods in his study of adolescence, observed that the whole future of adolescent life depends on how well they are husbanded and directed. Hall (1904) recommended a careful study of adolescence in order to provide the most favourable conditions and eliminate every possible unrest and reversion. This is indeed the practical problem of the current study.

For the purposes of the current study, adolescence is taken to mean the youth period that begins with puberty and is marked at the end by the assumption of adult roles as in marriage. Most of the adolescent years, for the greater majority of youth in most countries, are spent in schools and universities or colleges. The adolescents examined in the current study were in their fourth grade of secondary school education, and most of them were about 18 years of age.

2.2 Psycho-sociological theories of social behaviour

There is no one theory of social behaviour that all psychologists agree upon (Penner, 1978). However, the two major theoretical approaches to social behaviour are the cognitive and the behaviouristic (Penner, 1978). The word cognitive refers to the thinking process. Cognitive theorists attempt to understand peoples' social behaviour by examining how they process the information they receive from the world around them (Penner, 1978). This position is based on the premise that humans are rational, thinking beings. They do not react in the same way that animals do. They think about what is happening to them and attempt to organize their experiences into some

meaningful whole. Cognitive psychologists seek to explain how our ways of thinking about the world influence our behaviour (Feldman, 1996).

The main interest of cognitive theorists is peoples' cognitions. Cognition in this case refers to any idea, opinion, belief, or knowledge that a person has about himself or the world around him (Zanden, 1977). The cognitive theorists believe that if one can understand how cognitions develop and are organized, one can explain social behaviour.

On the other hand, the behaviouristic perspective grew out of a rejection of psychology's early emphasis of the workings of the mind suggesting instead that observable behaviour should be the focus of the field of psychology (Feldman, 1996). According to behaviourists, the concept of thinking is not needed to explain social behaviour (Penner, 1978). The behaviorist acknowledges that people think, but that the analysis of cognitive processes will not prove of much value in understanding peoples' behaviour because a person's behaviour is determined by a reinforcement history, that is, the kind of behaviours that have been rewarded and/or punished in the past (Penner, 1978).

The two theories are similar and only differ in emphasis. Both attempt to explain behaviour, but from different perspectives. While cognitive theory emphasizes observing the inner person, behaviourism emphasizes observing the outer person. A researcher using the cognition method would examine the thoughts of any subject in order to predict his or her behaviour, while the one using behaviouristic method would select subjects exhibiting a certain behaviour and then try to explain how the behaviour has been shaped by

reinforcement history. The behaviouristic method therefore ignores latent behaviours. In schools where rules suppress overt behaviour cognitive methods would be the better option of studying problem behaviour. This study adopted the cognitive method because the behaviour of the subjects studied was largely covert. It was assumed that by examining the subject's cognition we could predict their overt behaviour.

2.3 The myth of adolescence “storm and stress”

Several studies have been carried out to verify Hall's (1904) claim of adolescence as a period of storm and stress (Mead, 1928; Bandura, 1964; Douvan and Adelson 1966; Offer, 1969; Lerner and Knapp, 1975; Spivack, Marcus and Swift, 1986; Brook et. al, 1986; Benedict (in Gross, 1987); and Laursen, 1995). Most of the studies do not confirm Hall's claim.

As a response to Hall's (1904) claim of universal “stress and storm” at adolescence, Mead (1928) studied female adolescents in Samoa and pointed out that the storm and stress of adolescence found in America was rare in Samoa. She discovered no conflict or revolt among adolescent girls in that culture. The anthropologist suggested that adolescent turmoil observed in America could result from cultural pressures that exist in industrialized western societies. Focusing on the course of adolescence in Samoan girls Mead (1928) described the process as smooth, natural and uneventful. Her proponents, therefore, believe that depending on culture, stereotypes and expectations, adolescence can be an enjoyable phase of life. Mead's study has been criticized by some contemporary anthropologists. Freeman (1983), for example, claimed that her account of life in Samoa was inaccurate and

misleading. He attributed her “errors” to a lack of understanding of the Samoan language and to her decision to live with American expatriates on the island rather than with the people she was studying. However, Freeman (1983) based his arguments on his work in Samoa in the 1940’s and 1960’s and it is likely that the Samoan society had changed greatly since the 1920’s because of the influence of Christian missionaries and American military bases.

However, even in the American society where Mead (1928) thought the storm and stress would be observed, other researchers have contrary findings. Bandura (1964) investigated male adolescents in California. He found no evidence for the general conflicts thought to exist between adolescents and their parents. Most of the youth Bandura studied adopted parental values and standards and formed friendships with peers who shared these same values and standards. In fact, children had so thoroughly adopted parental values and standards that parental restrictions were actually reduced. Bandura made two interesting observations. Although the storm and stress idea implies struggle by youth to be independent, parents begin to train their children in childhood to gain this independence. Secondly, no stage of life is free of crises or problems, and so storm and stress is not necessarily a characteristic of the adolescent period.

Similarly, Douvan and Adelson (1966) found very little evidence of either conflict with or rebellion from parents among male and female adolescents in America. Adolescents were satisfied with their families and with how they were treated by their parents. The adolescents showed basic values and

standards and chose peers with same values and standards. Benedict (in Gross, 1987) also found the adolescent period of the Cheyenne Indians she studied to be smooth, gradual and continuous. The picture depicted by Mead (1928), Bandura (1964), Douvan and Adelson (1966) and Benedict (in Gross, 1987) does not tally with naturalistic observation. Though these studies may be perceived as dated, problematic behaviours at adolescence has a long history and features prominently in many psychology text books. The major issue is therefore not whether problematic behaviours exist at adolescence but rather what determines these problematic behaviours. This was indeed the subject matter of the current study.

2.4 Adolescence and problem behaviour

Every human society makes a distinction between behaviour that conforms to the prevailing conventions of social life and behaviour that deviates in one way or another from these conventions (Wheeler, 1973). However, adolescents and adult authorities have generally disagreed about what adults perceive to be conventional behaviour. For example, Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) complained that adolescents are so “passionate, irascible and apt to be carried away by their impulses”(Kiell, 1967, pp. 18 –19). In recent times, Montemayor (1983) found parents and adolescents in conflict in all families some of the time and in some families most of the time. Behaviours that are a source of conflict tend to centre on physical appearance (especially clothes and hairstyles), time of getting home at night and going to bed, homework (National Children’s Bureau, 1976), noisiness and tidiness (Coleman et al. 1977). It could be argued that adolescents have always sought ways to proclaim their attainment of adult status and simultaneously, their

independence from their parents and other adult authority figures. This proclamation may be said to take the form of engaging in activities that are contrary to the rules and mores of society (Lindgren, 1980). Problem behaviours may thus be perceived as age- or stage-related changes. However, even a complete understanding of universal features of development would not necessarily tell us why age-related roles vary from culture to culture and from one individual to the other (Meyrowitz, 1985).

Offer (1969) seems to have an answer for the variations observed during adolescence. He investigated adolescent boys in America and discovered multiple paths through adolescence. He named the first path “continuous growth” which involved a smooth, non abrupt change at adolescence. The continuous group, which was the majority, was not in any major conflict with their parents. He called the second path “surgent growth” which was marked by abrupt spurts or changes in behaviour but not necessarily accompanied by crises or problems. Only a minority of boys experienced what Offer (1969) termed “tumultuous,” or stormy adolescence. Offer’s observation is closer to naturalistic observation in that though parents and teachers complain about their adolescent children, they do not complain about each of them in the same way. Amongst their children, some are more problematic than others.

The current study acknowledges the existence of general disagreements between adolescents and adult authorities. The discrepancy or divergence of viewpoints between adults and adolescents is popularly known as the “generation gap”. The study, however proposes that the generation gap is not natural but largely a product of culture. Cultural forces such as parents,

television, peers, school, environment, and religion modify adolescent cognition and hence behaviour. Each of these variables is reviewed in the literature that follows.

2.5 Mass media and problem behaviour

If the contemporary children are different in some ways from those of the previous generations, it is plausible to attribute the changes to television and other mass media. In an explorative study conducted by Kariuki and Kimamo (1996), 500 first year Bachelor of Education students were asked to discuss “Unusual behaviours among the youth”. A significant number of subjects (56.2%) attributed problem behaviours to mass media and direct interaction with European and American cultures. The subjects hypothesized that young people find western culture to be more interesting and “satisfying”, elitist, fashionable, “civilized” and superior than African culture. Some of the subjects expressed fear that African culture would change with time as the Kenyan youth embrace ideas from the western culture.

Studies on television and its influence on children have been conducted. In one such study, Lyle and Hoffman, (1972) found that approximately 25% of all sixth to tenth graders in America surveyed were viewing at least 5 ½ hours of television on any given day, implying that watching TV was the predominant activity immediately after school. Moreover, as many as 25% of sixth graders sampled were still watching television at 11.30 p.m. Such high percentages might indicate that these children are being socialized by television at the expense of family or school. The viewing of television for more than 4 hours per day has been associated with lower scores on

achievement tests (Bathen, 1980). Bandura (1965) demonstrated that children who observe aggression are more likely to imitate such behaviour. Among adolescents, it has been established that boys who have involved themselves in serious fights at work or school, and have hurt someone severely enough to require medical attention, were more likely to have watched violent television programmes than were other adolescents (Robinson and Bachman, 1972). Wheeler (1973) associates television viewing with increased sexism, violence, divorce and occult worship.

The picture depicted by Lyle and Hoffman (1972) about TV addiction among American children could equally hold for Kenyan urban children. In homes with a television set, children are often tempted to watch TV after leaving school because household chores are handled by house helps, and the surroundings may not have adequate space to play. Even in homes without a TV set the children could visit their friends in order to gain access. The rural setting could be different because children have ample space to play and they have other duties after school such as tending animals.

According to Meyrowitz (1985), much of the controversy surrounding television programming is not rooted in television content per se, but in the problems inherent in a system that communicates everything to everybody at the same time. In print media, it is possible to have women's, men's, children's and adults' books. Each age and gender categories tend to be contained in their own information world. Electronic media, however, bypasses the isolating characteristics of place, age and gender. Television viewing therefore, could be affecting many group identities, stages of

socialization and ranks of authority by changing the patterns of information access (Meyrowitz, 1985).

In Kenya, a 1998 survey by Steadman and Associates (Sunday Nation, May 13, 2001, p. 13) revealed that there were about 1.7 million television sets in Kenya, a figure estimated to have grown to between 2.5 and 3 million by 2001. As Kenya increasingly gets urbanized, it is noticeable that in numerous households, children have no open spaces to play. Such children may spend many hours indoors viewing television, especially when schools close for holidays. The study however, does not discuss the effects of television viewing on these children's behaviour.

Arising from this review, it is clear that there is need for studies to be conducted in Kenya concerning the effects of television viewing on behaviour. Such studies, however, need to be cautious about the fact that although the shared information environment enhanced by the print and electronic media leads to a common awareness about what is happening throughout the world, the shared information environment does not necessarily lead to identical behaviour or attitude among all individuals (Meyrowitz, 1985). Studies need to be conducted, too to explain why the shared information environment fostered by television viewing leads to a common awareness but not necessarily to identical behaviour or attitude among all viewers. Furthermore, the largest percentage of Kenyan youth lives in the rural areas where they have relatively less access to television and less variety of television programmes because not all TV stations reach the rural areas. But even the rural youth manifest problem behaviour, thereby

suggesting that TV is not a comprehensive explanation for problem behaviour at adolescence.

The current study hypothesized that the influence of television is only one among several other actors that could explain problem behaviour at adolescence. More so, the effects of TV could be secondary in that children who were nurtured with virtues may not succumb to the influence of television. Accordingly, the study compared the effects of television viewing on attitude towards problem behaviour with those of other significant variables such as family background.

2.6 Family background and problem behaviour

If the contemporary children are different in some ways from those of the previous generations, it is implausible to attribute the changes only to television and the other mass media (Larsen, 1968). This is because, as stated earlier, it is not everybody that imitates what they observe on television. Perhaps family background might explain problem behaviour better because the family is the primary agent of socialization.

Some psychologists have shown that the path through adolescence begins in childhood years. Spicack, Marcus and Swift (1986) found that youth who exhibited problem behaviour during adolescence had similar problematic behaviours in childhood. Similarly drug use in adolescence was predicted by childhood personality (Brook et. al., 1986). Thus, antisocial personality in childhood is likely to be integrated in adolescent personality. Though investigation of childhood personality is beyond the scope of this study, it is

realistic to expect that antisocial personality can be carried over to adolescence because personality includes relatively enduring aspects of an individual's behaviour (Gross, 1987). One of the most significant factors that influence childhood personality is the family. For example, according to the psychosocial theory of personality development by Erik Erikson, through their parents' handling of infants' early needs, infants' basic sense of trust in their environment is determined (Parke, 1993).

Satir (1964) referred to parents as "the architects of the family" since they are the primary agents of socialization. Until children are old enough to interact meaningfully with peers or to enter school, their families are usually the primary agents of socialization. Even after young children enter school, their families still function as agents of socialization in their lives (Dworetzky, 1984). The home is the child's "small world" and the family helps him or her to evaluate the culture of the society by selecting only those portions that it deems worthy of attention (Ritchie and Koller, 1964). Children also learn from parents through their control of reinforcement and punishment. The parent is an important social model for children. Children watch their parents and often try to imitate what they see (Dworetzky, 1984). Parents influence their children's lives by serving as models for their behaviour and often quite unaware they are doing so.

In a survey conducted by Erlick and Starry (1973) in America, the amount of education mothers had completed was found to be significantly related to the level of education that their children aspired for. In another study carried in America involving late adolescents' and their parents' views regarding topics

of common concern such as sex, parental control, drugs, abortion, politics, wars, racial problems and attitudes toward women, Learner et. al. (1975) found the views of the two groups to be closely related. The adolescents were asked to indicate how they thought their parents would respond to the same items, while their parents were asked to guess their sons and daughters' replies. A comparison of these responses indicated that the adolescents overestimated the difference between them and their parents, whereas parents tended to underestimate the difference. A wide variety of studies have provided evidence of generally positive relationships between adolescents and their parents (Mead, 1949; Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Bandura 1972 ; Fogelman, 1976 and Mwaniki, 1997).

The degree of happiness in a home is a key factor in determining adolescent behaviour. Accordingly, unhappy homes in which both parents are present produce more delinquents than do single parents' homes in general (Lindgren, 1980). Sarason (1976) has illustrated this claim with a case study of a 14-year-old American boy who was brought to a community clinic because of petty thievery in his neighbourhood, sexual misbehaviour, running away from home, indifference to schoolwork and frequent conflict with his father. The boy didn't have a long record as a hardened criminal. He was highly intelligent, articulate and perceptive. Sarason (1976) associated this case to family instability, which is supported by the boy's narrative in an interview:

“...there has always been trouble in our family as long as I can remember. My father and mother quarrel and find fault with each other over almost everything.... (p.27).”

The current study investigated the role of the family in the development of problem behaviours. It was hypothesized that both parent-parent and adolescent –parent relationships could determine problem behaviour at adolescence. Poor relationship between adolescents’ parents, and between parents and their adolescent children could result in problematic adolescence.

There is scarcity of literature in Kenya on adolescent- parent relationship but a lot of complaints by both parents and adolescents have been reported on the media through TV, radio programmes and the print (Mwaniki, 1997). In Kenya today, we have a programme on radio known as “ the youth variety show”. The programme is aired by the Kenyan Broadcasting Corporation between 10 am and 12 noon. During the programme both the youth and parents are given a chance to debate various problematic behaviours affecting their relationship. An expert in the area of dispute acts as the moderator. It would appear as if modern youth are more problematic than the youth of yesterday and this could be attributed to radical changes within the family set up (Mwaniki 1997). The final quarter of the 20th century has been associated with dramatic social changes for the family (Kamiti, 1991)

It is obvious that modern children are growing up in surroundings, which differ in many ways from earlier patterns of life. Population has grown rapidly resulting in overcrowding in houses and schools and as a result the stresses associated with the discomforts of over-population. Many people have shifted from rural to urban or sub-urban areas with accompanying changes, such as the breakdown in the extended family system that acted as a check and balance on moral development. More mothers are working today

than previously while income and living standards have been rising rapidly. Economic pressures have led to the breakdown of some families resulting in the single parenthood phenomenon. According to Ingersoll (1989), the absence of one parent may create a period of both financial and social hardships, which make life harder for the adolescent. More and more adolescents are not only growing up in different family configurations, but also experiencing different family settings (Collins and Kuczaj, 1991).

The traditional extended family provided a large number of people for guidance and counselling. Responsibility and accountability were demanded and certain social and cultural norms were compulsory. As such, the transition from childhood to adulthood was relatively smooth. The twentieth century, however, has seen a dramatic change in culture and social practices in family and the community at large (Kamiti, 1991). The extended family set up has broken down. The rising cost of living has forced parents to spend a lot of time away from home and their children, in an attempt to generate income (Mwaniki, 1997). Consequently, adolescents have developed their own culture and their own values. These are sometimes contrary to what parents expect of them, therefore leading to parent-adolescent conflict. The current study compared adolescents whose parents spend most of their leisure time at home, with those whose parents spend leisure time away from home. It was assumed that parents who spend leisure time with their children are likely to have less problematic children because of the easier accessibility of parental guidance.

Researchers are also interested in child-rearing practices and how they affect children's behaviour. They do not agree, however, on the appropriate child-rearing practices (Dworetzky, 1984). Diana Baumrind, (Steinberg et al., 1991) a psychologist, has done intensive studies on parental differences in child-rearing techniques. She has outlined three main parenting styles based on a continuum of authority and control as opposed to freedom and autonomy. These are authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles.

Authoritative or democratic parents value disciplined behaviour, hence they are firm but loving. They encourage their children's independent contributions and decision making, but reserve the right to either approve or disapprove of decisions. They explain reasons for exercising parental authority in the form of demands or prohibitions (Mussen et al, 1990; Steinberg et al., 1991). Children of authoritative parents grow into confident, flexible and socially skilled adolescents. They are also independent in thought and action and as such, are less conforming (Steinberg et al, 1991; Kaluger, 1986). The transitional difficulties and conflicts of adolescence are greatly reduced by the effective communication developed by this democratic parenting style.

Authoritarian or autocratic parents value unquestioning obedience, and may even discipline forcefully to obtain it. They do not explain their directives to their children and neither are their children allowed to express their views about anything. The parents make all the decisions concerning the children without necessarily responding to their children's wishes. Adolescents of

autocratic parents have been found to be less socially skilled, more dependent and more conforming (Kaluger and Kaluger, 1986; Mussen et al, 1990; Steinberg et al, 1991). Child rearing methods that are authoritarian appear to interfere with later social adjustment and to inhibit intellectual growth to some degree (Lindgren, 1980).

Permissive or Laissez faire parents set few, if any, rules for their children. Their adolescents make their own decisions and set their own rules (Steinberg et al, 1991). They lack somebody to consult on important social issues or when they get into problems. Such adolescents grow to be irresponsible, immature and conforming (Kaluger and Kaluger, 1986; Mussen et al.,1990). Total permissiveness has been found to create almost as many difficulties for a child as extreme punitiveness. Whiting (1970) observed that the parents of under-achieving boys were likely to be either highly permissive or authoritarian and restrictive. Despite this classification, parents usually use a combination of techniques although one emerges as the dominant parenting style. Studies on parenting style were used to interpret the findings of the study. The problem behaviour group of adolescents could be products of the authoritarian and laissez faire parenting styles.

Another variable that could determine problem behaviour is the socio-economic status. Studies conducted in Canada, England, France, Belgium, and the United States on child-rearing patterns of middle and lower-class parents show without exception that lower-class parents are inclined to be more strict, coercive, and punitive. This difference between the classes appears to be worldwide. Nancy Frasure - Smith (1975) compared child-

rearing practices in the above countries and found that lower-class parents in each of these countries were inclined to be more harsh and restrictive than middle-class parents.

In general, studies indicate that there is little or no difference in the amount of love that the middle and lower-class parents have for their children, but in disciplining them, lower-class parents are more likely to resort to physical punishment (Waters and Crandall, 1964). Middle-class parents are more inclined to seek out the “meaning” of the misbehaviour before deciding how or whether to punish their child (Hess, 1964). Discipline of children in homes “below the poverty line” is both harsh and unpredictable (Bradshaw, 1968). The overwhelming environmental stresses experienced by parents in such communities are believed to be an indirect cause of the tendency to take out frustrations on children.

In one survey on the kind of qualities children were expected to have, Kohn (1969) found that middle-class fathers placed much emphasis on behaving responsibly, being considerate of others, and being interested in “how and why, of behaviour” whereas lower-class fathers thought that greater importance should be attached to having good manners, being neat and clean, honest and obedient, and being a good student. Kohn found that in general, lower-class parents were most concerned that their children behave properly and not get into trouble, whereas middle-class parents wanted their children to learn solving problems, thinking for themselves, and being considerate of others’ feelings. He explained these differences as resulting from work experience. Middle-class parents have jobs that require them to make many

decisions, often without clear guidelines whereas lower-class parents have jobs that require them to follow explicit rules laid down by persons in authority. Middle-class parents value self-control because it is what helps them make good decisions. It is disobedience, however, that gets lower-class people into trouble. Hence middle-class parents are more likely to punish their children for loss of self-control, and lower-class parents to punish them for disobedience. The studies have been done in Europe and America. In Kenya naturalistic observation does not agree with these findings. Children of the upper class sometimes tend to be relatively more problematic at school. This could be due to pride regarding their parents' high standing in society. They may lead a sophisticated lifestyle aimed at drawing a distinction between them and children from low economic status. It was therefore predicted in the current study that adolescents from low socio-economic background, would enjoy a better relationship with teachers due to their simple lifestyle as compared to their counterparts from the high socio-economic background.

Studies done in Kenya have identified family background as a key determinant of problem behaviour. For example, following recent frequent and violent riots in secondary schools and universities, two committees were instituted by the government of Kenya, at different times to investigate the root causes of student disturbances at the university and in secondary schools, respectively. The first task force investigated causes of disturbances in public universities (Republic of Kenya, 2000). Poor upbringing was identified as a major root cause of student unrest in public universities. According to the task force's report, majority of problematic students either come from

families and backgrounds where they were given inadequate parental care and have grown up in disillusionment and improper morals or received too much care and attention to the extent of developing unrealistic expectations. The upbringing conditions were associated with a lack of respect for rules, regulations and the law. The other task force investigated student discipline and unrest in secondary schools (Republic of Kenya, 2001). The committee observed that students' home background determined behavioural outcomes (Republic of Kenya, 2001). If children grew up in an atmosphere of love and care, they learnt to respect others and vice versa. A number of indiscipline cases were also attributed to a number of parental variables such as: absentee parents who abdicated their responsibilities to house girls, taking children to daycare centres and boarding schools while too young, giving too much pocket money that got misused in buying drugs or too little that the child is tempted to steal from others, and poor parental role models. Investigation of child rearing practices and its effect on problem behaviour is beyond the scope of this study. The study recommended the investigation of the relationship between childhood personality and problematic behaviour at adolescence.

Studies have also noted a relationship between upbringing conditions and peer influence (Siman, 1977). Adverse peer influence is contingent on upbringing (Bixenstine, Decorte, and Bixestine, 1976). Parents who are warm and supportive are likely to have greater influence on their children than peers. On the other hand, parents who are too permissive or too punitive are usually less accessible to their children and, as a result, have less of an influence. When children rely on their peers excessively or acquire antisocial

behaviours supported by the peer group, it is often due to disillusionment with adult wisdom, justice or status. Children who are disillusioned with their fathers are especially susceptible to becoming highly peer-oriented (Bixenstine, et al., 1976).

2.7 Peers and problem behaviour

Many researchers consider peers to be children who interact at about the same behavioural level, regardless of age (Lewis and Roseblum, 1975). Most studies of peer relationships tend to concentrate on children of approximately the same age, because they are most likely to be interacting with one another (Roopnarine, 1981). Siblings also behave like peers in that there is a high frequency of interaction, an uninhibited emotional quality, mutual interest in one another, and evidence of imitation and attachment between them (Dunn, 1983). These similarities are especially evident among siblings who are close in age. However, older siblings tend to influence younger ones in a parental rather than peer-like manner. Older siblings more often than not act as teachers and role models for younger brothers and sisters than do siblings who are only 1 or 2 years apart (Dunn, 1983).

In an effort to be admired and accepted, peer group members will attempt to conform to the standards and values of the group (Mwamwenda, 1995). Generally, conformity to peer group standards increases with age, but a great deal depends on the task or behaviours demanding conformity (Hoving, Hamm, & Galvin, 1969). Older children who are certain of the position they take on an issue are less likely to be influenced by peers than are younger

ones. In ambiguous situations, however, when children are uncertain of their position, conformity with peers is more likely with increasing age.

Although much of a child's early socialization is a result of family influences, in practically every culture, peers have been found to strongly affect the development of many behaviours, ranging from aggression to cooperation and sharing (Whiting and Whiting, 1975). There is evidence that, among all the social agents in a child's life, peers are the most effective models of aggression (Cohen, 1971). As children grow older, they spend less time at home and more with peers. By adolescence the average child will spend more than twice as much time with peers as with parents (Condry, Siman, Bronfenbrenner, 1968). However, the general or commonsense belief that adolescence is marked by indiscriminate slavish conformity to peer group pressure has not been supported by research (Bandura, 1972). Many studies do not support the idea of blind conformity to peer group values.

Bandura (1972) found no support for the classical view that adolescents are trying to emancipate themselves from parental ties. He found that adolescents were more selective in their choice for reference groups and there was little evidence of the "slavish conformity" to the peer group, which is a feature of the "classical" view. In general, peer group values and parental values were not in direct opposition and peer group membership did not necessarily generate family conflict. Similarly, Offer and Offer (1975) concluded that peer group values are likely to be extensions of parental values. Regarding basic attitudes toward politics, religion, sex and marriage, most adolescents tend to be more "conventional" than the "classical" view

would have us believe. Where conflicts do arise, they tend to centre on physical appearance (especially clothes and hairstyles), time of getting home at night and going to bed, and homework (National children's Bureau, 1976) noisiness and tidiness (Coleman et al. 1977). In Kenya the role of peer pressure cannot be downplayed. Peers are known to influence a wide range of adverse behaviours including drug abuse (Kariuki, 1989). The current study investigated the relationship between peer influence and problem behaviour.

Brittain (1963) found that peers have a greater influence on the child's choice of friends and in situations involving challenges to authority, personal or group identity, interpersonal behaviour, language fads, and clothing choices. Peers are also influential in shaping sexual attitudes and behaviours (Vandiver, 1972). Adults especially parents, are more likely to influence the child's future aspirations, academic choices, and political views (Hyman, 1959). Although the studies may be considered dated, they still hold for Kenya. Language fads and grooming tend to be determined by peers. However, adolescents tend to consult parents and teachers concerning academic and career guidance. Effects of peer influence on problem behaviour are addressed in this study.

Peer influence is also determined by social culture of which the family is a part. Cross-cultural research indicates that American students are inclined to look for standard behaviour from their peer group members, whereas students from other countries tend to follow standards set by adult authorities. Bronfenbrenner (1970) asked twelve-year olds in the Soviet Union and the United States to indicate what they would do in ten hypothetical situations in

which they were tempted to do something improper. These hypothetical situations included making use of a copy of tomorrow's quiz that their friends had inadvertently found. The Russian children demonstrated a significant tendency to conform to adult standard in their replies, whereas American ones showed only a slight tendency to do so and were more inclined to accept peer-oriented standards.

Adolescents in Kenya tend to be moving away from traditional African culture toward European and American cultures especially in the areas of dressing and hairstyle (Kariuki and Kimamo, 1996). This trend is particularly observable in urban areas. The current study expected rural and urban youth to differ significantly in their attitudes towards the selected list of problem behaviours.

Peer influence is also determined by intelligence quotient (I.Q). Ringness (1967) carried out a comparative study in America, of bright eighth grade boys (I.Q 120 and above), whom he classified as high-achievers, with middle and low achievers. He found that low achievers tended to identify more with their peer group than did the high achievers. Ringness' study may not hold for Kenya where university students, who are the epitome of intelligence, are adopting foreign cultures from media and peers. This study investigated the relationship between academic performance and problem behaviour.

Another determinant of peer influences is the degree to which they are attracted to each other. Several studies indicate that peer influence is determined by the degree to which their interests, attitudes and values

resemble (Byrne, 1971). Adolescents judge the interests, values and attitudes of their peers and begin to form cliques, play groups, and gangs on that basis (Lindgren, 1980). The way in which adolescents evaluate themselves is positively related to which peer group or peer group behaviours they may find most important and desirable (Eisert and Kahle, 1982). In one study, for instance, it was discovered that American college students (mean age 18.95) who evaluated themselves as having high self-esteem chose groups to join and emulate that were composed of students of high socioeconomic status (Filsinger & Anderson, 1982). Further, students define and react to everything that goes on in their environment according to the value system of the group they have joined. In another study Cusick (1973) attached himself to a group whose values tended to be hostile toward school. The students reported that all classes were profoundly boring and that they studied as little as possible and did little work. They defied school authorities and broke as many rules as they could, continually courting expulsion from school. Salmela-Aro et. al., (1992) found the goals of the problem behaviour group to be most frequently related to leisure activities.

Most studies reviewed therefore ear-mark peer pressure as a significant determinant of adolescent behaviour. Perhaps this realization is what has led to the formation of peer counselling clubs in secondary schools. The goal of peer counselling is to influence adolescent behaviour positively. The current study investigated the relationship between peer pressure and problem behaviour.

Other studies have shown that the impact of a peer group on an individual member is not always negative (Hartup, 1970 and Roff, 1963). Indeed the ensuing interaction could help the members to develop adequate social skills or the confidence to interact in groups. They often serve as a source of understanding and support especially if parents are negligent or hostile (Mussen et al., 1990). Children who are unable to interact with peers and who are not well liked by them often show signs of emotional maladjustment (Hartup, 1970), and they are more likely to suffer from mental disorders as adults (Roff, 1963). Peer friendships serve as a kind of therapy because they allow honest expression of suppressed emotion such as anger and anxiety, and provide a forum to learn that other adolescents go through similar problems (Mussen et al., 1990; Steinberg et al., 1991). The current study supports the strengthening of peer counselling groups in schools.

Few studies have been done in Kenya concerning the effects of peer pressure on adolescent behaviour. Gichira (1983) carried out a study in Nairobi and concluded that there is a positive correlation between peer group membership and academic performance. Some of his subjects reported that their friends influenced them to miss lessons. Similarly, Rono (1991) who investigated the effects of peer pressure on educational achievement and occupational aspirations found a positive correlation between peer pressure and academic achievement. She concluded that peers exert an influence on students' decisions concerning academic activities and aspirations. On the other hand, Kamonjo (1997) did not find a significant relationship between drug abuse by Kenyatta University students and peer pressure. A total of 51.5% disagreed with the statement that they started using drugs because of friends while only

36.9% agreed. The rest were not certain about what led them to abuse drugs. In this respect studies carried out in Kenya concerning peer pressure and adolescent behaviour are not only insufficient but also inconsistent.

Kombo (1998) has recommended the investigation of peer pressure on deviant behaviour. He seems to have noted the scarcity of literature on peer pressure in Kenya. Since most adolescents are in school, it is an important forum that could facilitate or limit peer influence. With the introduction of free primary education in Kenya (The MOEST, 2003), schools will increase their significance of reaching out to the entire population in the implementation of social policies.

2.8 School environment and problem behaviour

Another factor that could determine problem behaviour is school. Schools are different in many ways. Frude and Gaut (1984) observed that school organization, in terms of buildings, curriculum, timetable, teaching and pastoral programmes, vary from one to the other. This observation has been confirmed in Kenya through a study by Ndiritu (1999) who, while investigating factors affecting performance in Nairobi and Central Province schools, observed significant differences in schools' organization. Ndiritu found schools in Nairobi and Central Province to be different in terms of facilities, administrative styles, teachers' qualifications and hence academic performance. Numerous other studies show that schools are different in management and hence affect their pupils' behaviour in different ways (Hargreaves, 1967; Rutter et. al., 1979; Ruther, 1983; Galloway and Goodwin, 1987; Reynolds and Cuttance, 1992). In Britain, for instance,

studies have indicated that delinquency rates in schools varied from 1 to 19 percent, and absenteeism ranged from 6 to 26 percent (Power et al., 1967; Reynolds et al., 1976; Rutter et al., 1979). Charlton and David (1993) observed that what schools offer, and how they offer it, helps to determine whether pupils respond in desirable or undesirable ways. The reasons for pupils' misbehaviour may have as much to do with their experiences at school as those they encounter in the home, or with aspects of their personality.

Despite providing an academic function, schools play an important social and psychological function (Steinberg, 1991). They have a significant effect on students' behaviour because they expose each child to new information, important new adult models, and contact with new peers. Many attitudes, feelings, and beliefs are created, maintained, or altered by schools (Dworetzky, 1984). Along with the regular curriculum, schools have other programmes such as pastoral teaching that could have pronounced effects on a child. Schools may teach disinterest, procrastination, failure, isolation, fear, inappropriate competition, elitism and aggression. Or they could teach curiosity, motivation, success, acceptance, confidence, cooperation, egalitarianism, and peacefulness. Each child's experience could be different (Minuchin & Shapiro, 1983).

In Kenya, we have different categories of schools, including National, Provincial, District and Private schools. The schools are labeled this way based on performance, facilities and ownership. National schools, for example, admit pupils from different parts of the country. In the colonial days, national schools were given the best equipments and physical structures

that influenced their relatively better performance (Masolo and Ongong'a, 1987). National schools have maintained their relatively good performance because they also admit pupils with outstanding performance. National, Provincial and District schools are also known as government schools. This is because ideally, they are supposed to be government sponsored. This sponsorship is especially evident in the teaching staff that is paid by the government. District schools used to be known as "Harambee schools" a term coined from a task performed from a joint effort. In this case Harambee schools implied that they had been built through the surrounding community's self-help efforts. Today, Harambee schools are government-aided schools because, although they were built through contributions from members of the interested community, the government employs a substantial number of teachers in the schools.

National, provincial and district schools are also referred to as public schools in order to distinguish them from private schools. Private schools are schools that are owned and run by either individuals or private organizations. The owners of the school normally control the enrollment of students. Some private secondary schools admit students with high Kenya Certificate of Primary Education examination grades while others admit students who could not qualify to join the public schools. Schools can further be classified as "normal" or "special." Special schools admit pupils with handicaps such as physical, visual or mental handicaps. In the current study, all categories of schools namely; public, private, national, provincial, district, and special were sampled. In addition, the rural- urban stratum was examined to see whether it affected the perception of problem behaviour.

In spite of the policies that the Kenyan government has put in place with regards to the management of schools, cases of unrest have been in existence since 1908. The first recorded strike in Kenya occurred in Maseno School, when the boys refused to participate in manual labour and pressed for more reading time (Sifuna, 1990). Since then numerous strikes have occurred. Lately, the concern has been the changing nature, characteristics and increase in the number of schools experiencing student unrest. Between 1980 and 1990, the number of schools experiencing student unrest had increased from 22 (0.9%) to 187(7.2%) (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2001). The figures comprised the recorded cases. The number could have been higher.

Cases of student unrest have continued to increase and turn to the worse in terms of violence, destruction and loss of life. The table 1 shows the number of schools that experienced student unrest by province in the year 2000/2001.

Table 1: Number of schools that experienced student unrest by province in the year 2000/2001

Province	Existing number of secondary schools	Number of schools that experienced student unrest	% of schools who went on strike	Gravity
Central	630	85	13.5	violent and destructive
Coast	151	4	2.6	destruction of school property
Nyanza	680	7	1.0	destruction of school property
Eastern	626	76	12.1	destruction of school property and loss of life
Rift Valley	625	50	8.0	violent and destructive
Western	408	19	4.7	minor destruction of school property
Nairobi	93	2	2.2	minor destruction of school property
North Eastern	21	7	33.3	destruction of school property

Source: Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2001.

The table shows that Central Province had the highest number of strikes. Nairobi Province had the least number. Some of the causes of school strikes identified through studies done in Kenya are such as: quality and quantity of

food, shortage and quality of teaching staff, quality of administrative staff and excessive punishment (Mbugua, 2003). Such complaints could be genuine but do not justify destruction of property and loss of life. This study took destruction of school property and vengeance to be indicators of problem behaviour. Attitude towards the two problem behaviours amongst secondary school adolescents was obtained and analyzed in the study.

2.9 Gender and problem behaviour

Gender and sexual identity are terms used to describe our awareness of being male or female (Tabifor, 2000). Anthropological and anecdotal accounts suggest that in most countries, men and women are considered to differ in their psychological makeup (Williams et al., 1981). Certain traits are said to be more characteristic of men and others more characteristic of women. West (1967) found problem behaviour to be more common in American boys although girls are increasingly getting involved. Sampson and Hancock (1967) found that if the task presented to a group is described as “masculine”, boys are more likely to conform to group demands than are girls. Furthermore, if the peer group’s demands are antisocial ones, males are more likely to conform than females (Bexenstine et. al., 1976). However, most children will yield to the opinions of a competent peer whom they admire (Gelfand, 1962). Studies of imitative behaviour in life interaction suggests that both male and female children imitate the behaviour of models who are perceived as powerful or successful regardless of gender (Meyrowitz, 1985). Since television tends to reward men more often than women, it is possible that girls would tend to imitate male behaviour that they see rewarded on television.

Kinyanjui (1978) noted that more strikes occur in boy schools than girls'. Boys often appear to challenge authorities much more overtly by conflict and confrontation (Besag, 1989). Girls challenge authorities covertly through wearing earrings, make-ups, ignoring dress codes and flouting sexuality. Historically crime rates among males have been higher than among females although some crimes are predominantly male or female (Reid, 1994). Girls resort to physical aggression less often than boys, preferring instead to engage in social exclusion and malicious rumour (Besag, 1989).

In Kenya, tragedies in Nyeri High school and St. Kizito school in which more than 90 students lost their lives involved boys. In the current study, male and female differences were examined to find out whether both perceived problem behaviours uniquely. Because the study basically involved analysis of attitudes, significant differences are not expected. This is because gender identity is learnt and not established at birth (Tafibor, 2000). Throughout childhood, boys and girls receive different information, from parents, society, media, and peers, about behaviours that are expected of them. This information determines the different roles of males and females. In absence of social pressure, therefore, boys and girls are likely to be similar because gender differences are not biological but social. A powerful influence on both sexes, however, is religion.

2.10 Religion and problem behaviour

Broom and Selznick (1977, p.397) define religion as, "a belief in some form of supernatural power which influences or controls the lives of human beings and the world of nature." Religion has often been seen as a means of

strengthening and reinforcing social norms and values. In doing so it contributes to order and stability in the society (Broom and Selznick, 1977). Religion includes a set of beliefs and practices which the faithful are required to hold and follow. For example, the Christian religion includes the Ten Commandments which among other things instruct members to honour their parents. Those who follow the commandments are promised an afterlife of eternal happiness. Those who break them will suffer an after-life of eternal punishment. In Jewish, Christian, Muslim, and many African ethical systems, concern for other people, their feelings or their property, and man's relationships with other people were emphasized (Were, 1987). Religious beliefs can therefore have considerable control over behaviour in society. However, it is not every scholar that agrees with this conclusion. Karl Marx (1818-83), the founder of modern communism described religion as "the opium of the people" (Broom and Selznick, 1977 p.397). Opium is an hallucinatory drug which produces a feeling of well being in the user. Karl Marx therefore implied that religion produces illusions which distort reality. Religion produces an illusion of happiness and offers an imaginary escape from problems. Another writer summarizing the Nigerian reactions to Christianity concluded that, "Many conversions have been for material reasons... Thus for many, Christianity is quite superficial, and has no real answers to life's personal difficulties, nor any real influence on the people's social life." (Schuyler, 1968 p.220).

Do members of different religious groups have differing views on topical issues? A study conducted by Lenski (1961) in Detroit (U.S.A.) during the late 1950's showed different social values among Protestants, Catholics, and

Jews. For example, members of each of these religions were asked whether freedom of speech applies to criticizing the president, making speeches against religion, and speaking in favour of fascism or communism. The differences in attitude among the three groups were striking. White Protestants were the most liberal followed by Jews, while black Protestants were the least liberal. White Catholics were somewhere in between. On other matters, including gambling, drinking, birth control, divorce and business staying open on Sunday, attitudes also differed. With a few exceptions, Jews were least critical of these practices. Protestants, both black and white, disapproved of gambling and drinking more than either Catholics or Jews. Predictably, Catholics expressed greater opposition of birth control and divorce than any of the other groups. On the abortion issue, too, a higher proportion of Catholics (47percent) than Protestants (42 percent) favoured the rejection of pro-abortion decisions (Gallup, 1992).

Generalizations from Lenski's(1961) findings should be done with caution for two reasons. First, they were based on a Detroit sample, which might present different results from samples taken from a nation as a whole. Second, his results are based on information collected several decades ago, and society has undergone some tremendous changes. Some researchers have argued that Western societies are undergoing a process of secularization, which means they are becoming increasingly secular or non-religious, as evidenced by dwindling congregations, churches up for sale, increasing number of people married in registry offices and fewer children attending Sunday school (Broom and Selznick, 1977).

A more recent survey (Beatty and Walter, 1984), however, still found Jews most tolerant in their political attitudes, and Catholics somewhat less so. Protestants presented a mixed picture, with mainline groups such as the Presbyterians showing high tolerance of different political groups. Fundamentalist groups such as the Pentecostal church and the Church of God showed very low tolerance of different political groups. As a rule, too, those who attend church frequently tend to be less tolerant than those who go to church less often (Smelser, 1995).

The reviewed literature on religion tends to indicate that religious beliefs have considerable effects on behaviour in society. It is therefore surprising that most text books in psychology ignore the topic of religion or treat it as subordinate to other topics of interest in the subject discipline of psychology. It is hypothesized in the current study that strong religious beliefs lead to rejection of problem behaviour. One method of reducing problematic behaviours in schools, therefore, could be to strengthen religious organizations in schools. Most religious movements in the world are philanthropic. The movements advocate virtues such as love. The recommendation of the task force on discipline and unrest in secondary schools (Republic of Kenya, 2001) did well, therefore, to recommend that schools and communities around the school should enhance pastoral care programmes in all public schools.

2.11 The concept of locus of control

Another factor that could determine problem behaviour is locus of control. Reber (1985 p.407) defines the term “locus of control” as “a general term in social psychology used to refer to the perceived source of control over one’s behaviour.” Locus of control refers to the perceived causality of behavioural outcomes. At one extreme (internal), the individual thinks of himself or herself as being responsible for his or her own behaviour. A person with internal locus of control perceives both negative and positive outcomes as depending on his or her own behaviour. The internal-oriented person blames himself or herself for failures and accepts praise as deserved for his or her triumph. At the other extreme (external), the individual sees others or fate or chance or luck or circumstances beyond his or her control as responsible for his or her behaviour. The external-oriented person believes that events are determined by fate, luck or powerful others (Ball, 1977).

It was Rotter (1954) who postulated that people are guided by generalized expectancies, which develop as a result of consistent experiences. During such experiences, certain rules for understanding, dealing with, and predicting the world develop. Rotter (1954) referred to the generalized expectancy, a personality trait, as locus of control. This trait is a continuum ranging from internality on one extreme to externality on the other.

Research has shown that people who differ on the locus of control also tend to differ on other behavioural and health characteristics (Phare, 1976). For example, Magsus et al., (1991) found a negative correlation between externality and self-concept. As the locus of control becomes more internal,

self-esteem increases. In addition, externals engage in significantly more excuse - making as a means of safeguarding self-esteem than do internals (Basgall, 1987). Externalists, in contrast to internalists, have been found to be more anxious, aggressive, dogmatic and suspicious, as well as less confident and insightful (Joe, 1981). In the current study it was hypothesized that externals are likely to be more involved in problem behaviour as a way of gaining recognition in attempt to boost their self-esteem.

In a survey of equality of educational opportunity, Coleman (1966) found that black children in the United States believed more than did white children that success was caused by luck rather than by hard work. He found a strong relationship between these beliefs and the academic performance of black children. Black students, who believed in hard work, attained higher scores on a reading test than black children who believed in luck. Black children who believed in hard work had higher verbal achievement scores than all children who believed in luck, regardless of their colour or geographical origin. This observation is close to commonsense. Students who work hard usually attain good grades. Hard work is emphasized virtually in every school. Students who work hard have learnt to associate their behaviour with consequences. They have therefore developed internal locus of control. It was therefore hypothesized in the current study that internals had relatively better performance in their classes than externalists.

Rotter (1966) summarizes research which indicates that when a subject perceives the task as controlled by chance, random conditions, or the experimenter, he or she is less likely to rely on past experiences; when the

subject perceives a task to be under his or her own control, he or she is more likely to attend to and perceive it better. Thus, externalists who generally perceive control to be elsewhere than in themselves might learn less or worse, learn the wrong things. Externalists tend to adjust their behaviours on the basis of what they perceive to be random or manipulated instead of referring to their own past experiences. Similarly, Bryant (1972) explored teacher - student relationship as perceived by teachers and their internal and external students. She found that teachers tended to attribute more negative characteristics to external students and that external students described their teachers more negatively than did internal students. When teachers' and students' perception of teacher - student relationships were compared, it was found that external students had significantly more misconceptions about these relationships than did internal students. Students, who were extremely external, tended to have more disturbed relationships with their teachers than did students who were either moderately or extremely internal. External students, when compared to internal ones, showed more feelings of being misunderstood and fewer feelings of being understood. Bryant (1972) concluded that students whose locus of control is external have more painful relationships with their teachers than do students whose locus of control is internal. Thus, internal locus of control is associated with social desirability (Sommers - Flanagan et. al., 1987). Accordingly, the study attempted to confirm the desirability of internal locus of control and, consequently, explore methods of enhancing it.

Gibb (1970) summarizes a considerable number of studies which indicate that sensitivity training is an effective method of increasing self-acceptance and

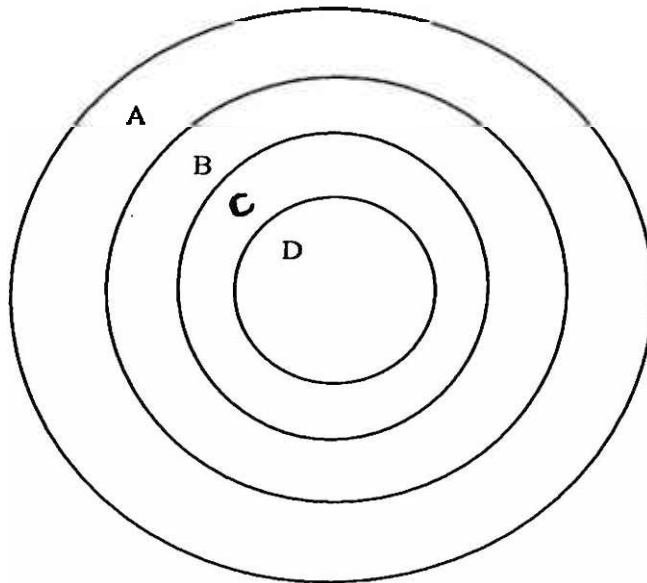
confidence. He deduces that sensitivity training might help a person become more internal. This change is not immediate and might require alterations in self-perception. The greater the instability of self-perception, the greater the potential for change. Most of the studies on locus of control have been carried out in western societies. There's need to determine the social desirability of locus of control in African societies. Further, no study appears to have been done in Kenya to explain problematic behaviours encountered in schools in term of locus of control.

2.12 Theoretical framework

The factors discussed in literature review can be captured using the human ecology theory proposed by Bronfenbrenner (1977). Bronfenbrenner proposed an interactional theory of development, arguing that human development needs to be understood as it occurs in its real world setting or what she calls "ecology". The theory investigates the complex system of intertwined and interdependent relationships of our biological and social environment (Muuss, 1988). Social interactions, like biological interactions, are always part of a larger ecological system. The ecological theory proposed by Bronfenbrenner (1977), was applied to adolescence by Garbarino (1985). For each individual adolescent, a continuously interacting set of complex social relationships exist (not simple one-to-one relationships). The problem has been in identifying and conceptualizing this multiplicity of socio-cultural and environmental factors that affect adolescence (Muuss, 1988). According to Bronfenbrenner (1977) the relationship of the experimental subject to parents, siblings, friends, teachers, and neighbours are usually ignored in a research design. Yet all of these factors may be relevant. Various people

exert influence on an individual. Different ecological systems are in continuous and complex interaction, which could be a more important process than subjects' measurable responses to specific stimuli. Bronfenbrenner (1977) argues that to understand human development we need to go beyond immediate environment and examine multi-person systems of interaction. The ecological model identified four major structural systems or settings: the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem and the macrosystem. Figure 1 illustrates these settings.

Figure 1: Bronfenbrenner's concentric circles representing human ecology(Lerner,2002p.50)



- D- **MICROSYSTEM** - Each of the immediate settings in which the adolescents live e.g. the family and the school
- C- **MESOSYSTEM** – the interrelationship between micro systems
- B- **EXOSYSTEM** – The settings that do not contain the adolescent but affect him/her indirectly e.g. the parent's workplace
- A- **MACROSYSTEM**-the broader context that may affect other ecological systems eg a natural disaster may destroy homes and schools

The microsystem of an adolescent consists of a social network of interpersonal relationships involving direct face-to-face interactions with people of whom he or she has a lasting relationship, who are influential in his or her life, and who in turn, are influenced by the adolescent. For most adolescents, the family is the primary microsystem, usually followed in importance by friends and school. Other microsystems might include siblings

(as part of the family), teachers (as part of the school), neighbours, church members, and other social groups with whom the adolescent might have enduring personal and social relationships. Certain microsystems may become more or less significant for an adolescent, for example, as he joins a club, stops attending church and so on. A microsystem could have a negative influence by encouraging or rewarding such detrimental behaviour as cheating, stealing, smoking, drinking, drugs use and irresponsible sex. A healthy microsystem is one based on reciprocity. When reciprocity breaks down, as in the parent-adolescent communication pattern, the quality of the microsystem declines.

An adolescent's microsystems could be interrelated. What occurs in school may affect what happens in the family and vice versa. She refers to this interaction as the mesosystem. The interacting microsystems constitute the mesosystem. The mesosystem is composed of a network of relationships between the various microsystems in a person's life. A potential danger exists if different microsystems endorse divergent values. For example, peers may encourage smoking, drinking, drug use and early sexual behaviour while parents and church may view these behaviours negatively and even punish them. Obviously, a congruent system of values, between two microsystems, exert a more powerful and consistent influence (Muuss, 1988). However, when basic values between different microsystems diverge, tensions arise in the mesosystem. The individual feels pulled in different directions, lives with stress, has to make a choice between the sets of values, or pretend that he or she follows both. Mesosystems could get disrupted, for example, by parental divorce, going to another school or family moving to a new community.

While some children quickly adapt and fit into new mesosystems, others suffer in the process.

Exosystem on the other hand refers to settings both formal and informal that do not contain the adolescent but that affect him or her indirectly, for example, the parent's workplace. Events that affect the parents at work such as stress can influence how they treat their children. The exosystem is defined as the larger community in which the adolescent lives. Although he or she does not directly participate in exosystem decision-making, these decisions have a direct or indirect influence on the adolescent. Examples of social settings and institutions that make up part of an exosystem include the government, school board, a parent's employer, the mass media, the transportation system, churches, and industries. The exosystem could impoverish or enrich the quality of the micro and the mesosystems of an adolescent. For example, an employer may decide to move a parent from one station to another. This could affect the adolescent's micro and mesosystems if the family moves. If the family doesn't move, the transferred parent's efforts to socialize their offspring could be affected.

Within the ecology of human development exists a fourth system, the macrosystem. These are broader issues that affect the society as a whole. This system is composed of cultural values, beliefs and events (such as wars and famines) which could affect the other ecological systems. For instance, war or floods may destroy the homes, and make it difficult for the mesosystem to function. The macrosystem determines standards of physical attractiveness and what is appropriate behaviour for each sex.

Bronfenbrenner's (1977) model of ecology emphasizes a significant aspect of development, that is, the bidirectional socialization which occurs between adolescents and parents is embedded in a still more complex system of social, societal, cultural and historical influences. His model acknowledges the linkages among different contexts of adolescence. Previously, researchers' studied young people in one setting at a time (Steinberg, 1999). Most studies focus on a specific microsystem. Far less attention has been paid to the mesosystem, exosystem and macrosystems. The current study incorporated different settings and systems in Bronfenbrenner's model such as family, school, peers, church, mass media, and parents' level of education and examines how each of them influences perceptions of problem behaviour.

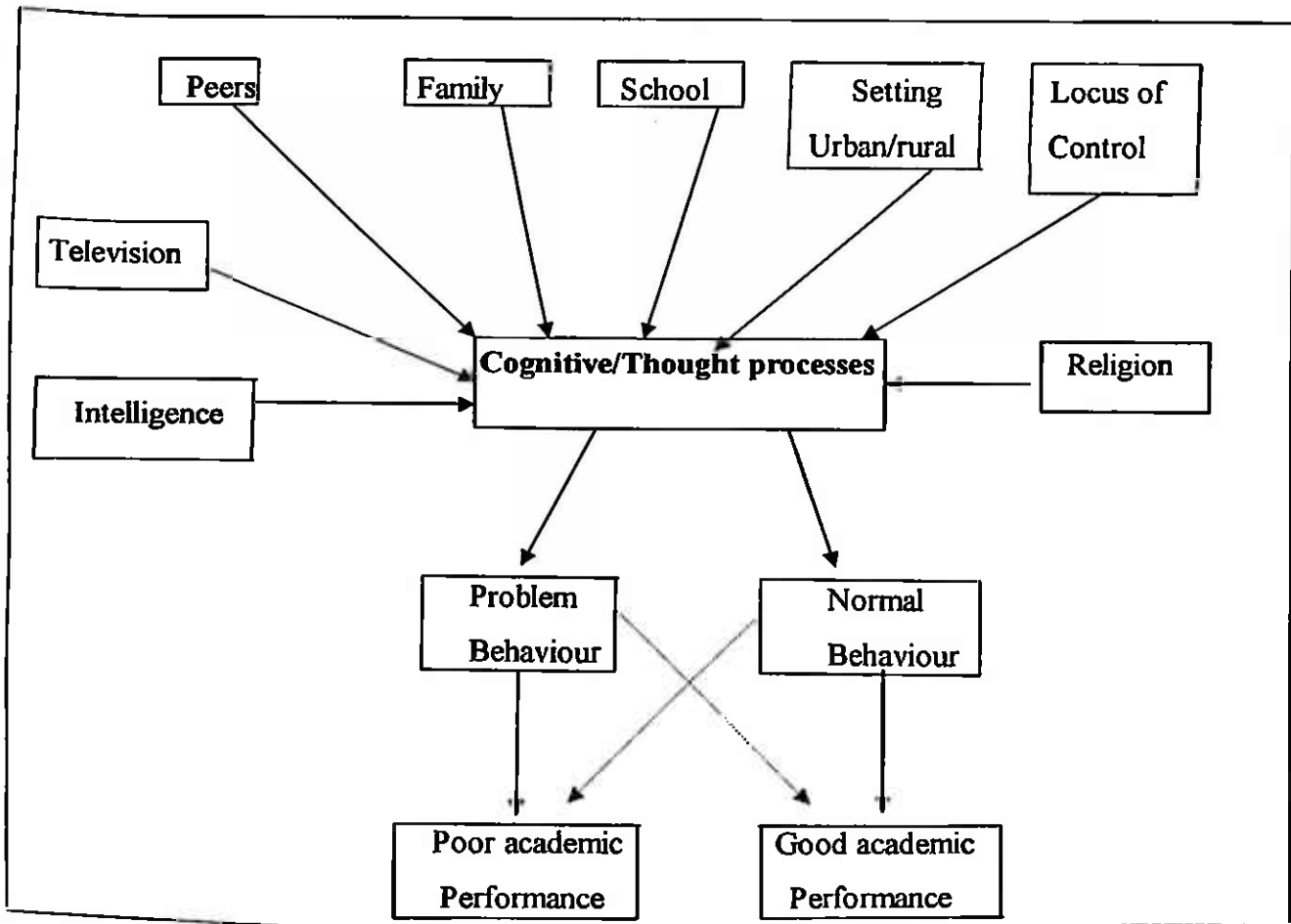
2.13 Conceptual framework

Figure 2 shows variables identified through literature review that can determine problem behaviour. These are: socio-economic background, locus of control, religion, intelligence, peer pressure, television and school. The variables affect attitude or cognition. The resulting cognition or attitudes could in turn either influence behaviour positively resulting in a disciplined child or negatively to bring about problem behaviour. For example, religion could influence one's cognition and behaviour. Internalizing that life after death will be determined by one's behaviour on earth could cause one to live a life motivated by virtues and therefore a tendency to reject problem behaviours.

Problem behaviour can affect academic performance. For example, a problematic adolescent who is continually involved in manual punishment will miss lessons and could perform poorly in exams. However, problematic adolescents are not

always poor performers in school. The dotted arrows in figure 2 show that, in some cases, it is possible to have a problem behaviour adolescent of high academic standing and, likewise, a disciplined adolescent of poor academic standing.

Figure 2: Psychosocial determinants of problem behaviour



2.14 Statement of hypotheses

From the literature review, the following hypotheses were formulated to guide the study:

1. There is no significant relationship between internal locus of control and attitude towards problem behaviour.
2. There is no significant relationship between problem behaviour scores of Nairobi and Central province adolescents.
3. There is no significant relationship between gender and attitude towards problem behaviour.
4. There is no significant relationship between religious involvement and attitude towards problem behaviour.
5. There is no significant relationship between family background and attitude towards problem behaviour.
6. There is no a significant relationship between adolescents' relationship with significant others and attitude towards problem behaviour.
7. There is no significant relationship between teachers' ratings of students' behaviour and students' attitude towards problem behaviour.
8. There is no significant relationship between academic performance and attitude towards problem behaviour.
9. There is no significant relationship between drug abuse and attitude towards problem behaviour.
10. There is no significant relationship between adolescent's perception of school strikes and attitude towards problem behaviour.
11. There is no significant relationship between the influence of television and attitude towards problem behaviour.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes how the study was carried out. The main purpose of the chapter is to outline the research design and the research instruments that were used in data collection. The chapter also outlines the statistical techniques that were used in data analysis.

3.1 The research sites and target population for the study.

This study was carried out in Nairobi and Central provinces of Kenya. Nairobi was chosen because of its cosmopolitan aspects. Nairobi the capital city of Kenya represents a purely urban setting and one that is diverse in many ways which would enrich the findings of the study. For example, the inhabitants of Nairobi come from diverse cultural backgrounds. The occupants of Nairobi come from different regions in Kenya and so its schools are likely to contain a fairly representative sample of the different cultures. Central Province borders Nairobi to the north. The province is also diverse in several ways. For example, some regions are rural while others are peri-urban. Contrasts of different standards of living can be observed through living houses and business premises. Some houses are glamorous while others are poorly constructed, most likely, due to lack of financial ability. Central Province is dominated by the populous Kikuyu tribe. The province was selected mainly because it represents a rural setting that has been rocked by school strikes more than any other province in Kenya (East African Standard, July 24, 2001 p.1). Nairobi is considered a province as well as a district. Central Province has seven districts namely; Nyandarua Nyeri, Kirinyaga,

Murang'a, Kiambu, Thika and Maragua. A comparison was made between Nairobi and Central Province adolescents in term of attitude towards problem behaviour.

Past Ministry of Education records were used to estimate current enrolment in Nairobi and Central Provinces' secondary schools. According to the Ministry of Education Statistical Report of 1997, there were 47 public secondary schools in Nairobi province and 585 public secondary schools in Central Province. There were 18,840 students (11,692 boys and 7,148 girls) in Nairobi province while there were 150,846 students (73,177 boys and 77,669 girls) in Central province. Since each public secondary school has four levels (Forms one, two, three, and four), it was estimated that each of these four levels had 4,710 (25%) students in Nairobi province and 37,712 (25%) in central province. The population size was therefore 42,422. According to Mulusa's (1990 p. 107) sampling guidelines (see appendix G), such a population would require at least a sample of 381. The primary subjects for this study (secondary school adolescents) were 986. The sample was therefore more than adequate according to the said sampling guidelines.

A recent update of number of schools in Nairobi and Central Province shows that the numbers have drastically increased since 1997. Table 2 gives an update of the number and category of schools in the two provinces.

Table 2: Number of schools in Nairobi and Central Provinces by category

Province	Number of schools by category				
	National	Provincial	District	Private	Total
Nairobi	5	24	18	25	72
Central	6	54	600	57	717
Total	11	78	618	82	789

NB. Enrollment: Nairobi- 23,580; Central-170,494

Source: Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2003

Table 2 shows that enrollment has increased from 18,840 to 23,580 in Nairobi Province, and from 150,846 to 170,494 in Central Province. The increase, however, would not affect the sample size according to the sampling guidelines

3.2 Sampling procedures

The sampling procedure used in this study was basically stratified random sampling. In this method of sampling, the population is divided into layers, or strata, with an appropriate number of participants from each stratum (Hayes, 2000). Simple random samples are then drawn from each stratum. Simple random sampling involves making a complete list of the population and then selecting the number of cases required non-deliberately (Singleton et al., 1988). Each case in the population has an equal chance of being selected. Simple random sampling does not stratify the population and some strata may be omitted. Stratified samples, therefore, give a better estimate of the population than simple random samples because different aspects of the

population are considered in a systematic manner. The Kenya Education Directory (1999) as well as the Provincial Directors of Education in each province were consulted for a list of schools. A random selection of schools from each category of national, provincial and district was done. In order to include different categories in each of these strata, random selection was repeated until a case with the required quality was arrived at. The lists in some cases did not contain fine details required concerning a school, thereby, forcing the researcher to use the snowballing sampling method. In some rare cases such as the district day schools for boys and district day schools for girls, the snowballing method was used. Snowballing method involves using a case in the sample to identify other cases (Reber, 1984). In cases where schools in a category were many as in district day mixed secondary schools, simple random sampling was used to identify the sample schools. However, some categories had only one school or no school at all, as in secondary schools for the handicapped. In cases where only one school was available, it was automatically included in the sample. Table 3 provides a summary of the sample schools.

Table 3: Category and number of schools in the sample

Category of school	Number in Nairobi	Number in Central	Total
National Boys Boarding	1	2	3
National Girls Boarding	1	2	3
Provincial Boys Boarding	1	2	3
Provincial Girls Boarding	1	2	3
Provincial Mixed Boarding	1	2	3
District Day Boys	1	2	3
District Day Girls	1	1	2
District Day Mixed	1	2	3
Private Boys	1	1	2
Private Girls	1	1	2
Private Mixed	1	1	2
School for the Deaf	1	1	2
School for the Blind	—	1	1
School for Physically Disabled	—	1	1
Total	12	21	33

Table 3 shows the number of schools that were selected for the study in each category. The researcher selected one school in each category of Nairobi Province and two schools in each category of Central Province. The rationale for selecting one school in each category in Nairobi and two in Central Province was to maintain a fair proportion of schools in each province. As seen earlier, Central Province has many more secondary schools than Nairobi Province. The ratio is approximately 1:10. Sampling a larger number of

schools would have resulted in a cumbersome sample size. One class of fourth grade secondary school students was selected in each school. In schools with more than one stream, which was the case in most schools, one class was randomly selected to participate in the study. The questionnaires were distributed to every student in the sampled class. The sample comprised of 986 pupils, 33 head-teachers, 33 heads of guidance and counseling departments, 100 parents and three education officers.

3.3 Sources of primary data and techniques of data collection

Permission to collect data was first sought from the Ministry of Education Science and Technology and the provincial directors of education in Nairobi and Central Provinces. Data were gathered from five main sources namely; students, teachers, parents, education officers and secondary documentary sources. The primary sources of data were a selected number of form four secondary school students. Survey research design was used to obtain primary data. Survey research design involves the use of questionnaires, inventories or interviews to gather information about attitudes, opinions or preferences in a society or some segment of it (Reber, 1984). The instrument used to collect primary data was a questionnaire.

The questionnaire contained three sections namely; subjects' background information, attitude towards a selected list of problem behaviours and the locus of control scale. The selected list of problem behaviours was generated with the aid of information gathered from the media and naturalistic observation of factors that affect the nature of adolescent-teacher and adolescent-parent relationships.

Attitude towards the selected 15 problem behaviours was assessed using two statements. The first statement was a likert-type scaling, which provided five discrete response categories (multiple choice) that required the respondent to select the one that best represented his or her attitude. (For example, the first statement read: I find nothing wrong with miniskirts. Strongly agree () agree () uncertain () disagree () strongly disagree (). The second part of each question, "why do you think so..." intended to obtain the cognition or reasoning behind the attitude so held and also to confirm understanding of the statement. The question was open-ended. This methodology is derived from Piaget (1952a) who was able to gain valuable knowledge about children's thinking by discarding structured questionnaires in preference for the open-ended format. Instead of interpreting these problem behaviours from an adult perspective, as is often the case, the study adopted one of the most informative methods in adolescence studies in which adolescents are required to write about themselves (Garrison, 1965).

The last section of the questionnaire involved a standard instrument (Rotter Scale which is also called locus of control) containing 29 pairs of statements that required the respondent to select one statement of each pair which he or she more strongly agreed with. One statement of each pair represented the tendency to believe that one has no control over his or her life (external locus of control), while the other statement represented the tendency to belief that one could control the course of his or her life (internal locus of control). Six of the items on the Rotter Scale are fillers designed to introduce other ideas to the questionnaire so that the questionnaire is not too obvious to the

respondent. Fillers were not scored. Thus, the possible scores ranged from 0 to 23.

Pilot testing was done in order to ascertain that the questionnaire would be understood by the respondents. The questionnaire was pre-tested using 120 fourth grade secondary school students, 10 parents and six head-teachers drawn from different sections of both Nairobi and Central Provinces. The feedback obtained was used to perfect the instrument. Any communication problem highlighted by the pre-test sample was adjusted. Thereafter, test-retest reliability of the questionnaire was determined using another group of 25 fourth grade secondary school students. The students drawn from different schools were attending holiday tuition. Test-retest reliability for problem behaviour section of the questionnaire was 0.8354, while that of locus of control was 0.7590. The fluctuation in the result was attributed to fatigue and boredom of having to answer the same questions over again.

Testing began after a brief session of verbal rapport. The questionnaire was then administered to a class of fourth grade secondary school students. Fourth grade secondary school students were used because the locus of control scale yields better results when used with upper high school students. After a review of studies involving the locus of control instrument, Ball (1977) recommended that the instrument is more effective when used with adult population, undergraduates or upper high school students. In keeping with this recommendation, only fourth grade secondary school students were sampled.

Each questionnaire had an introductory letter designed to establish rapport. The researcher or his assistant supervised the entry system to ensure that the questionnaire was completed as expected. He or she also ensured that each subject responded to the questionnaire independently.

3.4 Sources of supplementary data and techniques of data collection

Supplementary data were gathered from head-teachers, heads of guidance and counseling departments in secondary schools, class teachers, education officers and secondary documentary sources. Data was obtained basically through a face -to- face interview using an interview guide.

The head-teachers in the sample schools were first requested for permission to carry out the study. The researcher or his assistant explained the purpose of the study and then proceeded to request for a face-to-face interview with them. The interview basically centred on observations, explanations, effects and control of problem behaviour in their schools. The head-teachers were also requested for a copy of school rules, which were studied to understand the kind of problem behaviours encountered in most schools.

Heads of guidance and counseling, in each sampled school, were consulted to explain how they managed problem behaviours in their schools. In addition, the class teacher of the sampled class in each school was requested for a copy of class performance and a rating of each student's conduct using terms such as good, fair and poor. Teacher's rating was obtained in order to correlate the subject's responses (attitudes) with real behaviour. Three senior education

officers were identified through purposive sampling. In this type of sampling, the investigator relies on his or her expert judgment to select units that are representative of the population (Singleton et. al., 1988). The officers were asked to comment about the discipline problem in Kenyan secondary schools and give reasons as to why corporal punishment was banned in schools (Republic of Kenya, 2001).

In addition 100 parents of adolescent children were sampled through the convenient sampling method. In this method of sampling, the researcher simply selects a requisite number from cases that are conveniently available (Singleton et. al., 1988). Some parents were interviewed at various schools as they visited for personal or official reasons. Some other parents were interviewed at their work stations while others were involved in focused group discussions as they attended educational seminars. The researcher would introduce himself and then request for a brief interview. The interview focused on areas of conflict between them and their secondary school children.

3.5 Unit of analysis

Unit of analysis refers to “entities (objects or events) under study” (Singleton et. al., 1988 p.69). The unit of analysis in this study is problem behaviour. The study seeks to understand the psychosocial determinants of problem behaviour in secondary school adolescents in Kenya. Problem behaviour in the study can also be perceived as the dependent variable. A dependent variable is one whose values are, in principle, the result of changes in the values of one or more other variables (Reber, 1984). However, the

independent variables assumed to have determined problem behaviour are studied ex post facto. An ex post facto experimental design is one in which the study is done after the independent variables have already been administered or occurred (Reber, 1984). The hypothesized ex post facto determinants of problem behaviour included mass media, locus of control (the tendency to blame others or ourselves for the outcome of an event which we were involved in), gender, location of school (whether rural or urban), socioeconomic background and religious beliefs.

Problem behaviour has been defined in this study as behaviour that is a source of conflict between adolescents and adult authorities, and which often interferes with the efficient running of homes or schools (Hurlock, 1978). The problem behaviours investigated in this study were categorized under unusual grooming, drug abuse, and disrespect, abortion and school strikes. The tendency towards problem behaviour was measured through attitudes. The term "attitude" is often used interchangeably with the terms "opinion" and "belief" and is used to refer to a person's preference for one or another side of a controversial matter (Berelson and Steiner 1964). It is a learned predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular person, behaviour, belief, or object (Feldman, 1996). Every attitude has three interrelated components: cognition, affect, and behaviour (Feldman, 1996). The cognition component refers to the beliefs and thoughts held about something. The affect component refers to positive or negative emotion (feelings) about something. The behaviour component refers to a predisposition or intention to act in a particular manner that is consistent with our attitude. Consequently, if we believe that a certain musician is talented

(cognition), we feel good when his or her song plays over the radio (affect) and could even seek for opportunities to see his or her live performance (behaviour). Thus an attitude could influence the tendency to behave positively or negatively towards something (Ball, 1977). Attitudes may be perceived as potential determinants of behaviour (Doob, 1967). In this study subjects' positive or negative attitude towards unusual grooming, drugs, disrespect, abortion and school strikes was taken to represent a predisposition to act for or against these problem behaviours.

3.6 Data analysis procedures

Each questionnaire was scored in a way that an aggregate score for each respondent on problem behaviour and on locus of control was obtained. Each attitude rejecting problem behaviour was awarded a mark, while the attitude accepting problem behaviour was scored zero. For locus of control, each "internal" answer was awarded a mark, while each "external" answer was scored zero.

The study generated both qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data consists of non-numerical information while quantitative data consists of numbers (Hayes, 2000). According to Bell (1993) quantitative researchers collect facts and study the relationship of one set of facts to another. Quantitative research generates quantified, and if possible, generalisable conclusions. But the qualitative perspective is aimed at understanding individual's perception of the world. According to Bell, qualitative research seeks insight rather than statistical analysis. In this study more emphasis was

placed on the quantitative method because primary data generated from the self administered questionnaires was designed for quantification.

Qualitative data were used in the discussion of research findings. Quantitative data were analyzed using both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Quantitative data were analyzed both manually and with the use of statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics that were derived included percentages, the mean, mode, median and standard deviation. Pearson's chi-square (χ^2) and spearman correlation methods (r_s) were used to test the hypotheses. Both are non-parametric tests. While parametric statistical tests are used with interval scale of measurement, and require the sample to be drawn from a population with a normal distribution and a known variance, non-parametric statistics do not require such assumptions to be met (Eysenck, 1979). Using data that does not fulfill the assumption can give misleading outcomes. Non-parametric tests are less likely to give misleading results because relatively fewer assumptions are made about the nature of data. The limitation of non-parametric statistics is that they have relatively lesser statistical power to detect statistically significant effects (Eysenck, 1979).

All the tests of the null hypothesis were determined at the 0.05 level of significance. According to Coolican (1994), social scientists call a difference significant and reject null hypothesis when the probability of the null hypothesis being true drops below 0.05. The decision to accept or reject a hypothesis is based on the comparison of two values; table or critical chi-

square (χ^2_{α}) that is obtained from a statistical table and computed or calculated chi-square (χ^2_c) that is calculated from research data. If the calculated value is greater than the table value we reject the null hypothesis and accept that there is a connection between the two variables hypothesized. If the calculated value is less than the table value we accept the null hypothesis that there is no connection between the two variables hypothesized (Lucey, 1996). All the eleven hypothesis were tested using chi-square. Results of test of hypothesis were supplemented using spearman rank order correlation.

Spearman rank correlation coefficient (r_s) is a number that expresses the degree and direction of relationship between two (or more) variables (Reber, 1984). The coefficient may range from -1.00 (implying a perfect positive negative correlation) to +1.00 (implying a perfect positive correlation). In real life, perfect correlations are extremely rare (Hayes, 2000). The higher the value either negative or positive the greater the concomitance between the variables (Reber, 1984).

3.7 Difficulties encountered in the field

The researcher encountered several difficulties in the field due to lack of cooperation among some participants. Firstly, though the researcher had a research permit and letters from Provincial Directors of Education, the study was made difficult by lack of cooperation from some head-teachers and the Ministry of Education Science and Technology officers. One headmistress asked the researcher, "Can't you do it (collect data) in any other school?"

Must it be this school?" and refused to give access to her school. In another case a priest who was the head of a boys' school turned down the research assistant thus, "I can't have my boys do this!" In yet another instance, permission to carry out the study was granted after a lengthy pleading because the headmistress thought that, "This is subjecting my students to unnecessary pressure". Permission to carry out the study in some other schools was granted after several visits to the school. A head-teacher, of Asian origin, in a private school appeared suspicious about the study and kept on postponing the date when the questionnaire could be administered. Some Ministry of Education Science and Technology officials did not honour the research permit which was granted by the permanent secretary in the same ministry (Some officers were, however, very supportive).

Secondly, some subjects did not complete all sections of the questionnaire. Others hid their questionnaires while some wrote some nasty remarks in the questionnaire. One remarked that he regretted the waste of resources involved in the photocopy of the questionnaires instead of using the money to improve the standard of living in the slums. Likewise, though the subjects were asked to give their admission numbers, many did not, perhaps for fear of identification. When such cases arose, it was difficult to match the subject with teacher's rating and class performance, and this affected data analysis.

Thirdly, some class teachers appear to have found the study demanding. The researcher had requested for their ratings of each student's behaviour, class performance and a copy of school rules. Though some class teachers were

very supportive, others simply engaged in escapism showing how difficult it would be to obtain some of the required documents.

Fourthly, parents too were found to be protective of their children. For example, in one national school, parents who had been summoned to the school to sort out their son's misconduct were served with a questionnaire asking them to state the problems they faced with their adolescent child, as they waited to see the senior teacher. The mother reported no problem while the father lamented that the child was disrespectful.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF BACKGROUND DATA

4.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the basic attributes of the respondents. The chapter captures the distribution of respondents by sex, age, type of school, religious beliefs, and the socio-economic status and marital relationship of parents. Distribution of problem behaviour and locus of control scores is also presented.

4.1 Background data of subjects and their parents

The sample for this study comprised 986 students, 100 parents, 33 head teachers, 33 heads of guidance and counseling departments and three education officers. The primary subjects in this study were fourth grade secondary school students, who are referred to, in this chapter, as “the subjects” of the study. The mean age of the subjects was 17.5. Approximately half of the subjects (51.8%) were male while the rest (48.2%) were female. The greater majority (81.8%), came from a nuclear family set up composed of parents and siblings while the rest (18.2%) came from single parents homes or were orphans or adopted children. A total of 381 (38.8%) subjects came from Nairobi Province schools while 602 (61.2%) came from Central Province schools. Among the subjects 243 (26.8%) held some leadership position in their schools while 722 (73.2%) did not. A total of 801 (84.1%) were members of a religious group while 152 (15.9%) were not. Of these 238 (24.1%) held some leadership position in their religious groups while 748 (75.9%) were just members.

A good number of the subjects (57%) had fathers who had attained at least secondary school education, followed by university (34%), primary school (8%) and illiterate (1%). Similarly, majority of mothers (71.6%) had at least secondary school level of education, followed by university (16.5%), primary school (11%) and illiterate (0.9%). Among the fathers, 58.9% held professional jobs, 37.8% non-professional jobs, while 3.3% were unemployed. Among the mothers, 44% held professional jobs, 41.3% non-professional jobs, while 14.7% were housewives. The majority (53.6%) described the marriage relationship of their parents as very stable, followed by 28% who described it as stable, while only 2.8% described it as unstable or very unstable (1.7%). The rest (13.9%) were from single parent families or did not indicate.

Slightly more than a half of the subjects (51.6%) described their relationship with father as very good, followed by those who described it as good (26.7%), fair (9.4%), poor (2.2%) or very poor (0.6%). The rest (9.5%) were children of single mothers or did not indicate. Similarly, majority of the subjects (72.2%) described relationship with mother as very good, followed by those who described it as good (20.7%), fair (4.2%), poor (0.7%), or very poor (0.1%). The rest (2.1%) were children of single fathers or did not check. Surprisingly, a lesser majority of subjects (23.3%) described their relationship with teachers as very good, while the majority (44.1%) described it as good. Others (27.9%) described the relationship as fair, poor (2.7%), or very poor (2%). A few others (1%) did not indicate.

4.2 Problem behaviour to whom?

Firstly, a group of 50 parents drawn from Nairobi and Central Province were given the same problem behaviour questionnaire that was given to the adolescents. For the parent to participate in the study, he or she needed to be a parent of an adolescent child or adolescent children. Most of the parents were between the age of 30 and 50. The questionnaires were scored in such a way that when a parent disagreed with a problem behaviour, he/she was awarded a mark. When a parent supported a problem behaviour he/she was scored zero. The highest possible score was $15/15$ while the lowest possible score was $0/15$. Parents' scores ranged from $6/15$ to $15/15$. Mean score was 10.05. No parent supported all the problem behaviours. It was concluded that most parents were opposed to some or all the problem behaviours being studied. Response to the problem behaviours among adolescents also confirmed the controversy surrounding them. Only 8 adolescents (0.81%) supported all the 15 problem behaviours. Mean score among the adolescents was 9.4.

Secondly, a copy of the school rules in each school visited was obtained. All the schools had rules addressing most of the problem behaviours in the questionnaire. For example, concerning dressing, the students were required to be in full school uniform especially when in school premises. Some schools gave specific shops where the uniform could be purchased. Others displayed a sample of the correct school uniform on a notice-board. Some schools went further to prevent alterations of the school uniform. One national girls' school in Nairobi had a rule stating that, "tights, miniskirts and mini-shorts must not be worn within the school". Another provincial girl's

school in Central Province asked students, “not to wear jewelry, ear-rings, necklaces, bangles” and “not to paint hair or nails”. A district girl’s school in Central Province spelt out the punishment for treated hair as “ to have it cut.” Boys were not left out either. In one district boys’ school in Nairobi the rule was clear that “No bald head... and those who tamper with their trousers will go back to shorts”(see appendix H). One head-teacher explained that he was opposed to boys in his school shaving their heads clear, a style popularly known as “Jordan” (So called after a famous basket ball player who shaves that way). He would usually summon the victim to explain the reason for shaving in such a manner. Most boys would explain this as a “barber’s mistake”. The head-teacher would then ask the victim to go back home and wait for the hair to grow.

In addition schools had rules against smoking, drinking and use of other drugs. In one national girls’ school based in Nairobi, the rule spelt out that, “smoking, drinking alcohol or being involved in drugs will lead to immediate expulsion from the school.” Even a special school for the physically impaired had a similar rule threatening expulsion for abuse of drugs. Another mixed secondary school in Central Province warned that smoking, drug taking and alcoholic drinks were completely prohibited inside and outside the school compound.

Virtues were also emphasized in the school rules. In one mixed secondary school in Central Province one rule required that, “students should stand up when a visitor or a member of staff enters a class.” Even private schools had similar demands. One private school for girls based in Central Province

emphasized that, “respect and courtesy should always be seen in each student’s behaviour.” Fighting and destruction of school property also featured in school rules. In one national girls’ school based in Nairobi “fighting, destruction of property and rudeness to authority will lead to immediate expulsion.” In conclusion, the problem behaviours studied herein featured in most of the school rules.

Interviews with school principals and heads of guidance and counseling departments revealed that they were in constant struggle to suppress problem behaviours in their schools, although most heads claimed that it was only a few students who were problematic. One principal in a mixed district school in Nairobi displayed to the researcher, bangles, chains and other items that had been withdrawn from students who failed to pay allegiance to rules. One head-teacher in a national boys’ school in Central Province said he often carried out random inspection of student personal boxes to rule out drugs. The most commonly cited cause of problem behaviour by principals and heads of guidance and counseling were family background, peer pressure and television. These three factors featured prominently in two focused group discussions initiated in Nairobi and Central Province.

4.3 Descriptive data of responses to each problem behaviour

The subjects were requested to respond to a selected list of 15 problem behaviours. Each subject’s responses in the questionnaire were scored out of 15. Each attitude disagreeing with a problem behaviour was scored one while an attitude supporting a problem behaviour was scored zero. Table 4 shows the percentage of subjects who either agreed or disagreed with each

statement, as well as male (M) and female (F) differences for each of the responses.

Table 4: Percentage of subjects who either agreed or disagreed with each problem behaviour

Statements	Percentage agreed	Percentage disagreed
1. I find miniskirts as good as ordinary skirts.	40.23 (M-53.79; F-46.21)	59.77 (M-46.21; F-53.79)
2. Some ladies prefer tight skirts to ordinary skirts, but I find ordinary skirts better	70.44 (M-50.52; F-49.48)	29.56 (M-49.48; F-50.52)
3. I find tight trousers worn by ladies as good as ordinary skirts	41.78 (M-50.50; F-49.50)	58.22 (M-49.50; F-50.50)
4. A man wearing headscarf sounds crazy to me.	35.81 (M-55.14; F-44.86)	64.19 (M-44.86; F-55.14)
5. Drinking alcohol is o.k. as long as one is not caught in the act by authorities.	31.76 (M-54; F-46)	68.24 (M-46; F-54)
6. I wish all men could stop smoking.	93.98 (M-49.26; F-50.74)	6.02 (M-50.74; F-49.26)
7. I find nothing wrong with the Rastafarian hairstyle.	53.66 (M-52.92; F-47.08)	46.34 (M-47.08; F-52.92)
8. A man putting on earrings sounds awkward to me.	53.41 (M-57.88; F-42.12)	46.59 (M-42.12; F-57.88)
9. I find nothing wrong with lovers holding hands in public.	74.23 (M-54.92; F-45.08)	25.77 (M-45.08; F-54.92)
10. Abortion can never be acceptable to me whatever the circumstances:	78.03 (M-50.87; F-49.13)	21.97 (M-49.13; F-50.87)
11. I find use of drugs an o.k. way of relieving stress.	13.97 (M-53.68; F-46.32)	86.03 (M-46.32; F-53.68)
12. I find nothing wrong with "First come, first sit" policy in a bus irrespective of age.	29.35 (M-46.38; F-53.62)	70.65 (M-53.62; F-46.38)
13. I find school strikes justifiable.	50.03 (M-52.03; F-47.97)	49.95 (M-47.97; F-52.03)
14. Destruction of school property during a strike is a crazy habit.	81.88 (M-51.81; F-48.19)	18.12 (M-48.19; F-51.81)
15. Vengeance on student colleagues who refuse to participate in a strike could be understood	39.39 (M-52.26; F-47.74)	60.61 (M-47.74; F-52.26)

Column one shows the statements that the subjects were asked to respond to.

The second and the third columns show the percentage of subjects who either

agreed or disagreed with each statement. Under each percentage of subjects who either agreed or disagreed with each statement percentage of male (M) and female (F) is indicated.

Percentages, therefore, were used to examine each of the fifteen problem behaviours studied. The first question required the subjects to respond to the statement that, *I find miniskirts as decent as ordinary skirts*. More subjects (59.77%) disagreed with this statement than those who supported it (40.23%). The second question required the subjects to respond to the statement that, *some ladies prefer tight skirts to ordinary skirts but I find ordinary skirts more decent*. A large percentage of subjects (70.44%) found ordinary skirts more decent than those who thought that tight skirts were not a problem (29.56%). Question three required the subjects to respond to the statement that, *I find tight trousers worn by ladies as decent as ordinary skirts*. More subjects (58.22%) disagreed that tight trousers were as decent as ordinary skirts as compared to those who were indifferent (41.78%)

In general, majority of the subjects supported conventional dressing habits in women. The most common reason given by those who supported conventional forms of dressing in women was that miniskirts, tight skirts and tight trousers provoke men. Some subjects thought that provocative dressing was related to rape incidences in the society. For example, one male subject from a provincial boys' school remarked that, "teacher's miniskirts affect students' concentration in class, it is emotional (sexual) harassment."

Question four required subjects to respond to the habit of some men wearing a headscarf, which is conventionally associated with women. The first part of

the question asked the subjects to indicate whether they had seen such behaviour. A substantial number of subjects (87.68%) had seen a man wearing a headscarf than those who had not (12.32%). The second part of the question required the subjects to respond to the statement that, *men wearing a headscarf were crazy*. Surprisingly, more subjects (64.19%) did not consider the behaviour crazy. Only a minority (35.81%) thought that men wearing a headscarf was a crazy habit. A female subject from a national school remarked that, “if a woman can wear trousers, why can’t a man wear a headscarf?” On the other hand, a male subject from a private school argued that, “it may be fashionable to others but for me it is crazy.”

Question five had two parts. The first part asked the subjects whether they would drink alcohol if given a chance. A higher percentage of subjects (68.24%) said that they could not take alcohol than those who said they could (31.76%). The second part required the subjects to respond to the statement that, *I find drinking of alcohol alright as long as one is not caught in the act by authorities*. A great majority of subjects (77.25%) disagreed with the statement as compared to those who thought drinking of alcohol was not a problem (22.75%). A frequently cited argument against drinking of alcohol was that it is an extravagant habit. A male subject from a national school noted that drinking of alcohol is, “a waste of money...destroys instead of building.”

Likewise question six had two parts. The first part asked the subjects whether they would smoke cigarettes given the chance. A substantial number of subjects (93.98%) would not smoke compared to only a few (6.02%) who

said they could. Asked to respond to the statement that, *I wish all men would stop smoking*, once again a great majority of subjects (85.99%) wished all men would stop smoking, and only a small percentage (14.01%) did not. The most frequently cited argument against cigarette smoking was the habit's harmful effects including lung cancer, bad breath, brown teeth and chest problems

The seventh problem behaviour had to do with hairstyle. Some young people roll their hair into a style popularly known as "rastas". The hairstyle resembles the hippies' unkempt appearance. The subjects were required to respond to the statement, *I find nothing wrong with such a hairstyle*. More subjects (53.66%) said they found nothing wrong with the hairstyle than those who said they found it wrong (46.34%). Those who argued for the Rastafarian hairstyle said that it was a hairstyle like any other while those who argued against it said it was weird.

The eighth problem behaviour referred to a practice that is normally regarded feminine. This is the wearing of ear-rings. The subjects were asked whether they had ever seen a man wearing an ear-ring. A substantial number of subjects (97.10%) said they had seen such a behaviour against only a few (2.9%) who said they had not seen a man putting on an earring. The subjects were then required to respond to the statement that, *a man putting on an earring sounds awkward*. More subjects (53.41%) thought such a practice was awkward, than those who thought the practice was acceptable (46.59%). Most of those who argued for men's earrings said it was fashionable. Those

who argued against the behaviour associated it with women and homosexuality.

The ninth question required the subjects to indicate whether they would hold hands with a lover in public. Interestingly, a substantial majority (72.77%) said they would, against those who thought doing so was not acceptable (27.23%). The second part of this question was to respond to the statement that, *I find nothing wrong with lovers holding hands in public*. As if to confirm the first part of this question, a substantial majority (74.23%) said they found nothing wrong with such a practice against a minority (25.77%) who said lovers holding hands in public was wrong. Most of those who argued for lovers holding hands thought that it was simply a show of strong affection. Most of those who argued against the habit called it blind copying from European and American cultures.

The tenth problem behaviour addressed a threat to life in form of abortion. The subjects responded to the statement that, *Abortion can never be acceptable to me whatever the circumstances*. A substantial number of subjects (78.03%) agreed with the statement while a lesser number (21.97%) thought abortion could be justified. The most frequently cited reason against abortion was that it was murder of an innocent being.

Concerning drug abuse, the eleventh question asked the subjects to say whether they would abuse drugs in any case. Only a small number of subjects (11.10%) said they would as compared to those who said they wouldn't (88.90%). Further, the subjects were asked to respond to the

statement that, *I find use of drugs an okay way of relieving stress*. As if to confirm the first part, the greater majority of subjects (86.03%) didn't find use of drugs to relieve stress appropriate, as compared to a few others (13.97%) who said they found no problem with such a practice. The most frequently cited reason against drug abuse was its adverse effects on mental health.

The twelfth question tested an act of consideration. Would the youth give up a seat to an elderly person in a crowded bus? The greater majority of subjects (81.37%) said they would as compared to the rest (18.63%) who said they wouldn't do so. This consideration was tested further by paraphrasing it as; *I find nothing wrong with, "first come first sit" policy in a bus irrespective of age*. To prove their consistency, the greater majority of subjects (70.65%) didn't find this policy appropriate as compared to the rest (29.35%) who said age should not be an issue in seating arrangements in public transport. Most of those who argued for giving up a seat to an aged person cited respect as an important virtue in life.

The last three problem behaviours addressed the issue of school strikes. Question thirteen required subjects to respond to the statement, *I find school strikes justifiable*. The responses showed that this was a difficult decision to make. About half of the subjects (50.03%) found school strikes justifiable while the other half (49.95%) couldn't justify school strikes. However, when it came to question fourteen on destruction of school property the decision was clear-cut. A great majority of the subjects (81.88%) said that *destruction of school property during a strike could not be justified*. Only a minority of

subjects (18.12%) said destruction of school property could be justified during a strike. The last problem behaviour involved interpersonal relationships during a strike. Subjects were asked whether *vengeance on student colleagues who refuse to participate in a strike could be justified*. More of the subjects (60.61%) were against vengeance as compared to the subjects who supported it (39.39%). A frequently cited reason for schools strikes was that it was the best alternative for an insensitive administration. However, most of the youth were against destruction of school property citing the fact that their parents would be called upon to meet the cost of the damage. Vengeance was seen to be infringing on an individual's right to make an independent decision although others thought it enhanced solidarity among students.

In general therefore, adolescents responded with mixed feelings to the fifteen problem behaviours just as parents did. On average, eleven problem behaviours were rejected by the youth (73.33%) while four were accepted (26.67%). Table 5 shows a summary, in order of hierarchy, of the percentages that rejected the problem behaviours.

Table 5: Percentage of subjects who rejected each problem behaviour

Problem behaviour	Percentage
Drugs	86.03
Smoking cigarettes	85.99
Destruction of school property during strike	81.88
Disrespect	81.37
Abortion	78.03
Alcohol	77.25
Tight skirts	70.44
Vengeance for refusal to participate in strike	60.61
Tight trousers	58.22
Miniskirts	59.77
Men's earrings	54.41
School strikes	49.95
Rastafarian hairstyle	46.34
Men's headscarf	35.81
Holding lover's hand in public	25.77

Table 5 gives a summary of the percentages that disagreed with each problem behaviour. Column one shows each of the problem behaviours that subjects responded to while column two shows percentages that disagreed with each of them. Drugs, cigarette smoking and destruction of school properties during a strike were rejected by most subjects. Holding a lover's hand in public was the least rejected problem behaviour.

4.4 Self report on the impact of some psychosocial determinants of problem behaviour.

Subjects were requested to make a self report on the effects of television, parent's peers, teachers, and religion on their lifestyle. Table 6 shows part of the statements that subjects responded to and the percentage that either agreed or disagreed with each statement.

Table 6: Self-report on the impact of some psychosocial determinants of problem behaviours

Statement	percentage agreed	percentage disagreed
1. Television viewing has not influenced my lifestyle at all	41.23 (M:47.52 F; 52.48)	58.77 (M;52.48 F;47.52)
2. I have learnt most of my behaviours from my parents	64.24 (M:49.83; F: 50.17)	35.76 (M:50.17;f49.83)
3. Peers do not determine my lifestyle at all.	60.17 (M:48.19; F: 51.81)	39.83 (M:51.81; F:48.19)
4. Teachers have really shaped my lifestyle	71.84 (M:50.74; F:49.26)	28.16 (M:49.26; F: 50.74)
5. I have no place for religion in my life	4.05 (M:50;F:50)	95.95 (M:50; F:50)

Column one shows the statements that the subjects were asked to respond to. The second and the third columns show the percentage of subjects who either agreed or disagreed with each statement. Under each percentage of subjects

who either agreed or disagreed with each statement percentage of male (M) and female(F) who either agreed or disagreed is indicated.

Subjects in this study provided self report on the impact of environmental factors on their behaviour. The greater majority of subjects (64.24%) said that parents had a significant impact in shaping their behaviour as compared to the minority (35.76%) who denied. The subjects were also asked whether they thought that peers determined their lifestyles. A majority of subjects (60.17%) said that peers did not determine their lifestyles while a minority (39.83%) thought that peers were a force to reckon with in their lives. Conversely, a majority of subjects (71.84%) recognized the impact of teachers in shaping their lives unlike the minority (28.16%) who did not think that teachers had shaped their lives. Similarly the greater majority of subjects (58.77%) reported that television viewing had an impact on their lifestyles as compared to those who did not think so (41.23%). But among the five environmental influences, religion received the greatest support.. A very large percentage of subjects(95.95%) said religion was central in their lives as compared to a mere minority (4.05%) who did not think that religion had a role to play in their lives.

4.5 Distribution of problem behaviour scores

Each of the subjects responses to the problem behaviours were scored and tabulated. Each response disagreeing with a problem behaviour was awarded a mark. An attitude supporting a problem behaviour was scored zero. The maximum possible score for each subject was 15. Subjects who scored 15/15 disagreed with all the 15 problem behaviours in question. Table 7 shows the

frequency and percentage of subjects who scored a particular mark in problem behaviour.

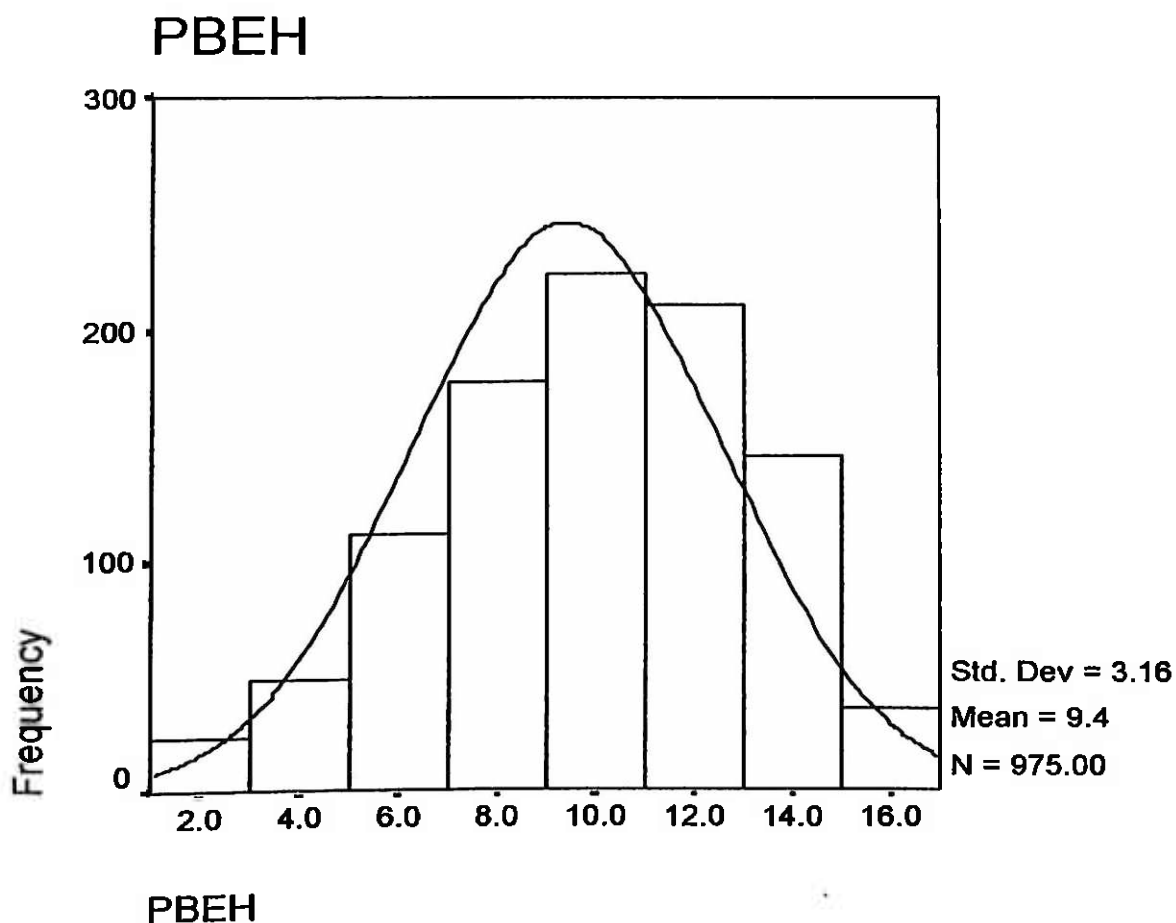
Table 7: Frequency and percentage of subjects who scored a particular mark in problem behaviour

Score in problem behaviour	Frequency	Percentage
1	8	0.8
2	15	1.5
3	18	1.8
4	30	3.1
5	49	5.0
6	62	6.4
7	89	9.1
8	89	9.1
9	112	11.5
10	112	11.5
11	120	12.3
12	91	9.3
13	92	9.4
14	53	5.4
15	35	3.6
Total	975	100.0
Missing observations 11		

Column one shows the range of the scores in problem behaviour. Column two shows the number and percentage of subjects who scored a particular score within the range. For example, adolescents who score 10/15 were 112 which represent 11.5% of the sample size.

Using Table 7, a Graph of problem behaviour (PBEH) against frequencies was plotted.

Fig 3: Distribution of problem behaviour scores



The graph shows that problem behaviour scores were approximately normally distributed, with a mean of 9.4, median of 10.0, mode of 11.0 and Standard deviation of 3.16. Majority of the respondents in the problem behaviour

questionnaire were clustered in the middle while extremes of complete rejection or complete acceptance were few. The study could be generalized to show that most adolescents are modest in behaviour, preferring to avoid extremes of either problem behaviour or conformity. This contradicts the common belief that adolescents are generally problematic.

4.6 Distribution of internal locus of control scores.

The locus of control required the respondent to select one statement of each pair which he or she more strongly agreed with. One statement of each pair represented the tendency to believe that one has no control over his or her life (external locus of control), while the other statement represented the tendency to believe that one could control the course of his or her life (internal locus of control). Six of the items on the Rotter Scale are fillers designed to introduce other ideas to the questionnaire so that the questionnaire is not too obvious to the respondent. Fillers were not scored. Thus, the possible scores ranged from 0 to 23. A subject who checked a statement depicting internal locus of control was awarded a mark. A response checking an external locus of control statement was scored zero. Subjects who scored 23/23 had a perfect internal locus of control. These subjects believed that they were in perfect control of whatever happened to them. They did not blame others for failure to achieve goals but rather blamed themselves. Table 8 shows the distribution of locus of control scores.

Table 8: Frequency and percentage of subjects who scored a particular mark on internal locus of control

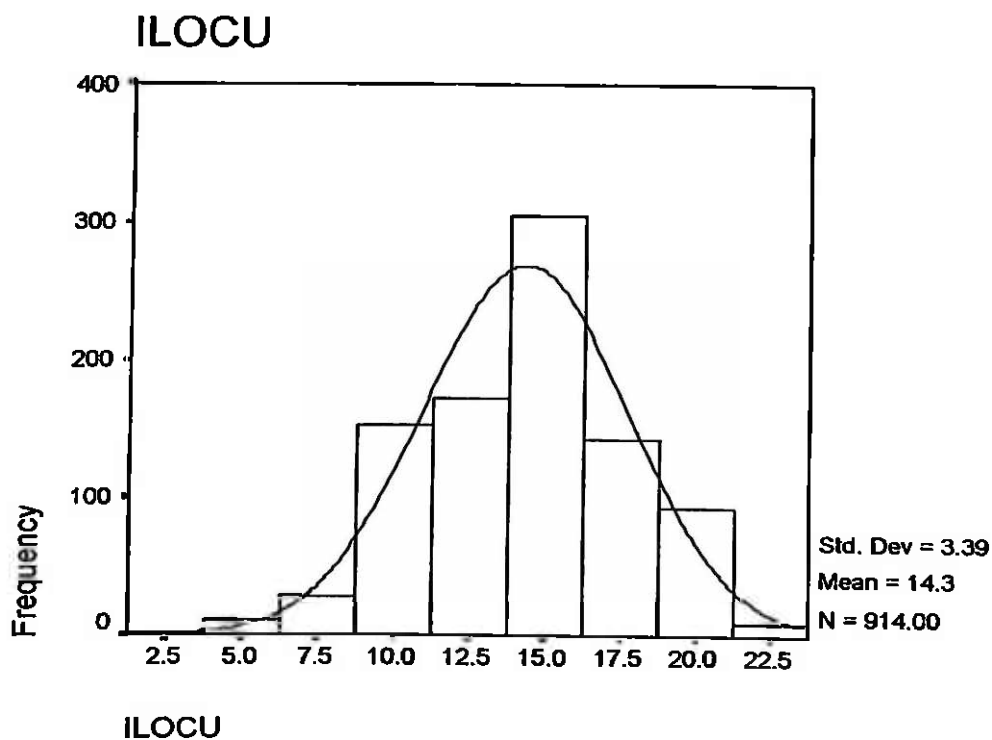
Score in internal locus of control	Frequency	Percentage
2	10	.1
4	2	0.2
5	3	0.3
6	6	0.7
7	6	0.7
8	22	2.4
9	32	3.5
10	52	5.7
11	69	7.5
12	81	8.9
13	91	10.0
14	106	11.6
15	119	13.0
16	80	8.8
17	71	7.8
18	72	7.9
19	48	5.3
20	28	3.1
21	16	1.8
22	7	0.8
23	2	0.2

Column one shows the range of the scores in internal locus of control. Column two shows the number and percentage of subjects who scored a

particular score within the range. For example, adolescents who score 12/23 were 81 which represent 8.9% of the sample size.

The table shows that the least score on internal locus was two. The highest score was 23. Using the table, a graph of internal locus (ILOCU) of control against frequencies was plotted.

Figure 4: Distribution of internal locus of control scores



The graph shows that the internal/external locus of control scores were approximately normally distributed in the sample with a mean of 14.29, median of 14 and mode of 15. Standard deviation was 3.39. Most respondents lay somewhere in-between the internal-external locus of control continuum. This observation concurs with the discovery by the nineteenth century statisticians like Karl Pearson that all human, natural and biological

phenomena such as heights, weights, IQs and endurance tend to be normally distributed in a population (Corsini, 1984). Locus of control is a personality trait that is equally evenly distributed in a population, adolescent population being no exception.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter describes data analysis and discusses the research findings. The chapter begins by contributing to the classical debate on the concept of storm and stress in adolescence. Analysis of each of the hypotheses then follows. Results are discussed and compared with studies carried out elsewhere.

5.1 The myth of universal storm and stress in adolescence.

Hall (1904) initiated scientific studies in adolescence. He stipulated that adolescence is inevitably a period of storm and stress (Lerner, 2002). However, Hall as if to contradict himself, described adolescence with colourful words when contrasting adolescence with childhood

... a second birth...birth of love in the largest Christian sense, psychologically free from all selfish motives...new birth...for those prophetic souls interested in the future of our race and desirous of advancing it, the field of adolescence is the quarry in which they must seek to find both goals and means...adolescent stage is the bud of the promise for the race...best hope for mankind's evolutionary progress...the focal point of all psychology...No age is so responsive to all the best and wisest adult endeavor. In no psychic soil, too, does seeds, bad as well as good, strike such deep root...(Grinder 1963 pp.12-13)

The “myth” of universal storm and stress in adolescence would have made us expect adolescents in this study to accept most problem behaviours in the study as a form of rebellion against adult norms and values. However, out of the 15 problem behaviours studied, most of them (73.33%) were rejected by

the adolescents and only a few (26.67%) were supported. The only problem behaviours supported included a man wearing a headscarf, the Rastafarian hairstyle, the holding of lovers' hands in public and school strikes. The right to life and hence rejection of abortion enjoyed wide support. A great majority of the subjects (78.03%) agreed that abortion can never be justified whatever the circumstances. Similarly if a colleague did not cooperate during a strike a great number of subjects (60.61%) were opposed to vengeance. Destruction of school property during strikes too was opposed by a great number (81.88%). A great majority of subjects (86.03%) were opposed to the use of drugs as a way of relieving stress. A good number of subjects (81.37%) would give up their seats to an elderly person as a sign of respect. As far as this study is concerned, therefore, it would be misleading to say adolescents are disrespectful to elders. On the other hand, although most school strikes in Kenya happen to be violent and destructive, this could be due to group think. In group think, maintaining group cohesiveness and solidarity is more important than considering the facts in a realistic manner (Aronson et al., 1999).

As Offer (1969) suggested, adolescence cannot be generalized as a problematic stage. Only a minority may experience the tumultuous (stormy) growth that Hall (1904) stipulated. This was further confirmed through interviews with parents and head-teachers, as well as class teacher's ratings of their pupil's behaviour. Parents commonly reported that their children were different with some of their adolescent children being less problematic than others. Other parents reported that they had no conflict with their adolescent children, although the researcher interpreted this to be either lack of

cooperation or an attempt to conceal family secrets. Most head-teachers in the sample schools emphasized that only a few of their pupils were problematic with majority being good. All class teacher's ratings of behaviour that were received had more than 75% of the class marked "good conduct". Only a small number of students in each sample class were said to be of fair or poor conduct.

How then can we explain the commonly echoed outcry that adolescents are problematic? Firstly, it could simply be an inaccurate view. Learner et al., (1975) showed that both parents and adolescents could hold exaggerated views about each other. Their subjects (parents and their adolescent children) held similar views but each group thought that the views of others were different. Secondly, it could be a case of stimulus generalization. A limited number of observations among a group could be extended (generalized) to the other members even though the observation does not hold true for every member of the group (Reber, 1984). This generalization could even propagate a self – fulfilling prophecy. The term "self fulfilling prophecy" is used to refer to the observation that frequently things turn out as one expected (prophesied) that they would, not necessarily because of one's prescience but because one behaved in a manner that optimized these very outcomes (Reber, 1984). Parents could behave suspiciously towards their adolescent children out of hearsay concerning the adolescence stage thereby provoking them to behave accordingly.

It should be noted that while the mean score for problem behaviour among parents was 10.05 that of adolescents was 9.4. The mean score of parents

was high by only 0.65. This finding is also in agreement with Douvan and Adelson's (1966), and Lerner and Knapp's (1975) findings, that adolescents and parents share basic values and standards. Occurrences at school may not always be viewed as isolated incidences but rather as social phenomena that mirrors the society (Nkinyangi, 1981).

The greater majority of adolescents in this study (64.24%) reported that parents had played a significant role in shaping their behaviour as compared to others (35.76%) who did not think parents had significantly influenced their behaviour. A good number (71.84%) recognized the role teachers had played in shaping their behaviour. By contrast, only 39.83% thought that peers influenced their behaviour significantly. In this study therefore, conformity to peer values that is thought to characterize adolescence did not significantly emerge. This finding supports Bandura's (1972) finding that there's little evidence of the slavish conformity to peer groups values. Further Bandura, showed no support for the classical view that adolescents are trying to emancipate themselves from parental ties by rebelling. Similarly the majority of adolescents in this study pay allegiance to their parents and teachers. Mwaniki (1997) had similar findings in Nairobi Province. Her adolescent subjects described their relationship with parents as good. Mwaniki recommended that the popularly accepted notion of adolescence being a time of "storm and stress" be reviewed and overhauled.

Adolescents in this study rejected 73.33% of the problem behaviours. The problem behaviour that was rejected by the greatest majority of subjects (86.03%) was drugs, followed by cigarette smoking (85.99%) and destruction

of school property during strikes (81.88%). Issues of dressing and hairstyle were rejected by a relatively smaller percentage. For example, miniskirts were rejected by 59.77% and men's earrings by 54.41%. Rastafarian hairstyle was rejected by less than half of the sample (46.34%) and likewise men's headscarf (35.81%). These findings concur with the National Children's Bureau (1976) study's finding that most adolescents tend to be more conventional, and conflicts tend to arise, amongst a few others, on physical appearance (especially clothes and hairstyles). Holding a lover's hand in public was rejected by only 25.77%. This was the least rejected problem behaviour. This might indicate how sensitive relationships during adolescence are. Adolescents tend to be excited about sexuality. This problem is compounded by the influence of hormones. While all the other behaviours in this study are acquired through learning, sexuality is largely controlled by instincts (Freud, 1975). Sexuality is undoubtedly an important psychosocial issue (see appendix I) during adolescence (Steinberg, 1999). There's an increase in sex drive during adolescence as a result of hormonal changes (Udry, 1987).

5.2 Analysis of the relationship between problem behaviour and internal locus of control.

The first hypothesis states that, "there is no significant relationship between internal locus of control and attitude towards problem behaviour." The locus of control scale tested the tendency to believe that either one has no control over his or her life (external locus of control) or that one can control the course of his or her life (internal locus of control). Each statement reflecting internal locus of control was awarded a mark while one reflecting external

locus of control was scored zero. The highest possible score on internal locus of control was 23 while the lowest was zero. The mid-point on the internal external continuum was therefore 11.5 which rounded becomes 12. Subjects who scored above 12 were said to have a high internal locus of control while those who scored up to 12 were said to have low internal locus of control. Attitude towards problem behaviour on the other hand was tested using a selected list of 15 problem behaviours, which was generated with aid of information gathered from the media and naturalistic observation of factors that affect the nature of adolescent-teacher and adolescent-parent relationships. An attitude against problem behaviour was awarded a mark while one supporting it was scored zero. The highest possible score on problem behaviour was 15. The mid-point for problem behaviour is therefore 7.5 which rounded becomes 8. Subjects who scored above 8 were said to be high on problem behaviour (although a high score implies a negative attitude towards problem behaviour). Subjects who scored up to 8 were said to be low on problem behaviour. Relationship between internal locus of control and attitude towards problem behaviour was investigated using a chi-square test. Chi-square is a test of investigating whether two factors are related or not. To make a decision about the significance of a calculated or computed value of chi-square (χ^2_c) the calculated value is compared with a value from a chi-square distribution table (χ^2_α). Chi-square distribution is a statistical distribution for which a table has been developed to show the various percentiles of the distribution (see appendix F).

To use the table, we must first determine the degrees of freedom (*df*) associated with the chi-square statistic we have computed. These degrees of freedom are computed by multiplying the number of rows in the table (derived from researcher's data) less one, by the number of columns less one, that is, $df = (\text{rows} - 1) (\text{columns} - 1)$. The significance level for the test must be set in order to determine the critical value (χ^2_{α}) of the chi-square statistic. If the significance level is set $\alpha=0.05$, the critical value of the chi-square is the value that corresponds with 0.05 on the chi-square distribution table at the degrees of freedom.

For example, Table 9 shows the relationship between internal locus of control and problem behaviour. The number of subjects who score either high ($^{13}/_{23}$ to $^{23}/_{23}$) or low ($^1/_{23}$ to $^{12}/_{23}$) in internal locus of control and the number of subjects who scored either high ($^9/_{15}$ to $^{15}/_{15}$) or low ($^1/_{15}$ to $^8/_{15}$) in problem behaviour is shown in the table.

Table 9: Relationship between internal locus of control and problem behaviour.

		Internal locus of control		
		High	Low	Total
Problem behaviour	High	544(83%)	112(17%)	656
	Low	176(68%)	81(32%)	257
Total		720(79%)	193(21%)	913

NB: Missing observations =73; includes non respondents. The table value of chi-square(χ^2_{α}) at 1 *df*, in appendix I is 3.84. chi-square computed (χ^2_c) is

23.09 The spearman rank order correlation (r_s) was 0.16. Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between internal locus of control and attitude towards problem behaviour. The bigger the value of χ^2_c the more likely it is to be significant (Hayes, 2000). In this case the value of χ^2_c is high suggesting that the connection between internal locus of control and attitude towards problem behaviour is less likely to be out of chance.

Spearman correlation showed a correlation of 0.159. The correlation is positive implying that those who scored high on problem behaviour also scored high on internal locus of control. In other words, subjects with high internal locus of control tended also to disagree with the selected problem behaviours.

To confirm this relationship further, subjects who scored on either extreme of locus of control and problem behaviour were compared. Table 10 shows the relationship between extreme scores in internal locus of control and problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who scored either very high ($^{18}/_{23}$ to $^{25}/_{25}$) or very low ($^1/_{23}$ to $^5/_{23}$) in internal locus of control and those who scored either very high ($^{15}/_{15}$ to $^{10}/_{15}$) or very low ($^5/_{15}$ to $^1/_{15}$) in problem behaviour.

Table10: Relationship between extreme scores in internal locus of control and problem behaviour

		Internal locus of control		
		High	Low	Total
Problem behaviour	High	0(0%)	103 (100%)	103
	Low	3 (21%)	11(79%)	14
Total		4 (3%)	114 (97%)	117

Spearman correlation shot up from 0.159 to 0.44. The interrelationship became stronger when extremes of problem behaviour and internal locus of control were considered. This confirms that the relationship between internal locus of control and problem behaviour was not by chance.

Problem behaviour and internal locus of control in this study were found to be inversely related. A high score in problem behaviour (implying greater rejection of problem behaviour) was positively related to high internal locus of control. This implies that people who believe in themselves than in fate, tend to reject problem behaviour more than those who believe that their life is beyond their control. Phare (1976) stipulated that people who differ on the locus of control also tend to differ on other behavioural characteristics. In addition, Magsus et. al., (1991) found internally focused people to have a better self-concept. Similarly, Joe (1981) found internally focused people to be more insightful than externals. Sommers-Flanagan et al., (1987) found a positive correlation between internal locus of control and social desirability. Bryant (1972) found that teachers attributed more negative characteristics to external students and external students described their teachers more

negatively than did internal students. She observed that students who were highly external, tended to have more disturbed relationships with their teachers than did students who were either moderately or extremely internal. The internal locus of control scale (a standard instrument) in this study helped to validate the researcher's problem behaviour questionnaire, by showing that the questionnaire had significant implications. It may be argued that problematic behaviours in adolescence are associated with loss of internal locus of control.

More subjects (78.86%) had an internal locus of control score that was higher than average (12). The rest of the subjects (21.14%) had an internal locus of control score below average and so could be said to be more externally focused. Gibb (1970) summarized a considerable number of studies that indicated sensitivity training as an effective method of increasing self-acceptance and confidence, and hence internal locus of control. Evidence of insensitivity to the feelings of others among adolescents in this study was reflected by sentences such as:

- (a) It is a free world, wear what you want (referring to miniskirts)
- (b) There is freedom to do what you like (referring to men wearing headscarves)
- (c) It's a free country, do as you wish (referring to Rastafarian hairstyle)
- (d) Its none of anybody's business (referring to lovers holding hands)
- (e) We need to destroy (school property) for more to be bought

5.3 Analysis of the relationship between provinces and problem behaviour scores

The second hypothesis stated that there is no significant relationship between problem behaviour scores of Nairobi and Central province adolescents. Table 11 shows the relationship between the provinces and problem behaviour scores. The table shows the number of subjects in each province that scored either high or low in problem behaviour.

Table11: Relationship between the provinces and problem behaviour scores.

	Provinces		
	Central	Nairobi	Total
Problem behavior High	220(61%)	140 (39%)	360
Low	380(62%)	233 (38%)	613
Total	600(62%)	373 (38%)	973

Missing observations = 13 ; includes incomplete questionnaires

$$\chi^2_c = 0.07 ; df = 1 ; \chi^2_\alpha = 3.84 \quad r_s = 0.44$$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is less than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between problem behaviour scores of Nairobi and Central Provinces adolescents.

The schools in this study were situated in diverse settings. Some were situated in towns while others were located in typical rural settings. The sample composed 13 (39.39%) schools with 381 subjects (38.76%) from Nairobi Province and 21 (60.61%) schools with 602 (61.24%) subjects from

Central Province, which neighbours Nairobi Province to the north. Out of the 21 Central Province schools, 12 (57.14%) were situated far from towns. However, irrespective of these wide disparities, there was no significant difference between the problem behaviour scores of subjects in Nairobi province, which is purely urban, and those of Central Province, which has diverse settings. This might suggest the free flow of information between urban and rural populations. The youth in rural and urban areas are in frequent interactions through activities such as music and drama festivals, sports and clubs. In addition, the mass media plays a key role in making the world a global village. When the youth in this study were asked whether they had ever seen a man wearing an earring, only 28 (2.9%) had not seen such a behaviour as compared to 937 (97.1%) who said they had seen such a behaviour. To show how obvious it was to observe a youthful man in a headscarf, a subject from a national girls' school in Nairobi responded to the question, "have you ever seen a man in a headscarf?" with, "ouh! I don't live in Mars!" The study suggests that the rural urban stratum may not be significant at least for problematic behaviours in this study.

5.4 Analysis of the relationship between gender and problem behaviour scores

The study also investigated the relationship between gender and problem behaviour. Chi-square was used to test the significance of the relationship. Table 12 shows the relationship between gender and problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects in each gender category that scored either high or low scores in problem behaviour.

Table 12: Relationship between gender and problem behaviour

		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Problem behaviour	High	183(52%)	172 (48%)	355
	Low	310(51%)	293 (49%)	603
Total		493 (51%)	465 (49%)	958

Missing observations =28 ; includes incomplete questionnaires.

$$\chi^2_c = 0.002 ; df = 1 ; \chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is less than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between gender and attitude towards problem behaviour.

The sample for this study comprised 501 (51.76%) male and 467 (48.24%) female. No significant differences were obtained between the responses of the male and those of the female subjects. This was contrary to West (1967) finding that problem behaviour was more common in boys. As far as this study is concerned, male and female subjects did not differ significantly in response to problem behaviour. The study suggests that boys and girls are increasingly becoming similar in perception of behaviour. This might be due to the pressure being exerted in most parts of the world to treat the girl child as an equal partner to the boy child and to provide the two sexes with equal educational opportunities. Similarly, a cultural barrier that secluded the girl child and demanded a more submissive attitude among the girls is changing with globalization.

5.5 Analysis of the relationship between religious beliefs and problem behaviour.

The study also sought to determine the relationship between religious involvement and attitude towards problem behaviour. Table 13 shows the relationship between religious involvement and problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who either were or were not members of a religious group and the score of each category in problem behaviour.

Table 13: Relationship between religious involvement and problem behaviour

		Member of a religious group		
		Yes	No	Total
Problem behaviour	High	270(78%)	76(22%)	346
	Low	524 (88%)	74(12%)	598
Total		794 (84%)	151 (16%)	944

Missing observations = 42; includes those who did not respond to this question. $\chi^2_c = 15.08$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between religious involvement and attitude towards problem behaviour.

Table 13 shows that a great majority of subjects (84%) belonged to a religious group as compared to a few others (16%) who did not belong to any. The subjects were further asked to respond to the statement that, "I have no place for religion in my life. A great majority (96.26%) disagreed

with the statement. Only a small percentage (3.74%) did not acknowledge religion. Similarly, the subjects were asked to describe their family as “religious” or “not religious.” Once again a great majority (97.89%) described their families as religious. A minority (2.11%) did not consider their family secular.

A further analysis was carried out to determine the impact of a religious family on attitude towards problem behaviour. The subjects had been asked to indicate whether they would consider their families to be either religious or not. χ^2_c was found to be 10.03 at $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$. There was a significant relationship, therefore, between a religious family and attitude towards problem behaviour. Similarly, subjects were asked to indicate whether they held a leadership position or not in their religious organizations.

χ^2_c was found to be 23.76 at $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$. There was, therefore, a significant relationship between leadership role in a religious group and attitude towards problem behaviour.

In summary, majority of subjects (96.26%) disagreed with the statement that, “I have no place for religion in my life.” Similarly, the majority (97.89%) described their families as religious. Even though, outwardly, the Kenyan youth may not appear to be religious, they seem to respect religion. Further analysis showed a significant relationship between subjects who described their families as religious and attitude towards problem behaviour. Further, there was a significant relationship between membership of a religious group and attitude towards problem behaviour. Similarly, there was a significant

relationship between leadership role in a religious group and attitude towards problem behaviour.

Religion had a significant impact in the youth studied and perhaps for every youth in Kenya. In one of the boy's secondary schools that the researcher visited, the head of guidance and counseling noted that discipline problems in the school were minimal. The school is a seminary intended to nurture students who could in future become catholic priests, although this is not mandatory. The day to day activities revolved around religion. Students attended what was referred to as "mass" (going to the chapel for religious ceremonies including prayer) five times a day. This includes early morning, before lunch, after classes, evening and before they slept. Although their behaviour could have been modified by perception of the role they expect to play in future, the impact of religious involvement can not be ruled out.

It is disappointing to note however that many books in psychology ignore the topic of religion or just mention the topic in passing. Karl Marx called religion, "the opium of the people" (Broom and Selznick, 1977). Marx meant that religion produces illusions of happiness and offers an imaginary escape from problems. However, it could be said that whether the happiness is an illusion or not, matters little. This is because the goal of counseling psychology (the branch of psychology that contains the bulk of psychologists) is the welfare of mankind. If religion can promote welfare of mankind then it can be viewed as enhancing counseling psychology.

5.6 Analysis of the relationship between parental factors and adolescent's attitude towards problem behaviour

Satir (1964) referred to parents as the architects of the family. The study investigated parental factors that could be related to problem behaviour. One such factor was parent's educational background. Parents' level of education was stratified into significant stages of education, that is, primary, secondary/college, and university. No parent was indicated as having less than primary school education. But a total of 315 did not indicate level of fathers' education. This could include illiterate parents. Each parent's level of education was considered separately. Table 14 shows the relationship between father's education and problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who had their fathers in these levels of education and their children's scores in problem behaviour.

Table 14: Relationship between father's education and problem behaviour.

		Fathers' level of education			
		Primary	Secondary	University	Total
Problem behaviour	High	11(5%)	117(49%)	111(46%)	239
	Low	48(11%)	268(62%)	116(27%)	432
Total		59 (9%)	385 (57%)	227 (34%)	671

Missing observations = 315; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 30.64$; $df = 2$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 5.991$; $r_s = 0.209$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between fathers' level of education and their adolescent's attitude towards problem behaviour. Likewise, mother's level of education was analyzed. Table 15 shows the relationship between mothers' level of education and their children's score in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who had their mothers in different levels of education, and their children's score in problem behaviour.

Table 15: Relationship between mothers' education and problem behaviour.

		Mothers' level of education			
		Primary	Secondary	University	Total
Problem behaviour	High	16(6%)	180 (68%)	67(26%)	263
	Low	69(15%)	332(74%)	51 (11%)	452
Total		85(12%)	512(72%)	118(16%)	715

Missing observations = 271; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c=32.66$; $df = 2$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 5.991$ $r_s=0.21$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between mother's level of education and their adolescent children's attitude towards problem behaviour.

Parent's level of education influenced the adolescent's perception of the problematic behaviour. Spearman correlation was negative showing that

children of educated parents tend to reject problem behaviours more than those of relatively less educated parents. This is a surprising finding. The opposite was expected because education brings with it culture. Since Kenyan education system is tailored along British and American education systems, Kenyan adolescents have adopted British and American mannerisms, as in dressing. It would appear that education has a liberating effect. The higher the education level the more “European” or “American” we become. For example, universities in Kenya are the best places to view Western influences at least in dressing and hairstyles. However the benefits of education cannot be overruled. Perhaps, educated parents are better informed about ideal methods of bringing up their children and therefore have less problematic children, or are better able to cater for various needs of adolescents, including material provision and therefore their children could be better adjusted (higher education is usually associated with better jobs and higher income)

Another variable that was tested was the amount of time parents were likely to spend with their adolescent children. The common sense understanding is that parents who spend more time with their children may be able to guide them better. Furthermore, it was claimed in literature review that, as a consequence of the rising cost of living that has forced parents to spend a lot of time away from home trying to earn an extra income, adolescents have developed their own culture and their own values (Mwaniki, 1997).

The amount of time parents were likely to spend with their adolescent children was inferred from the way in which their parents spent most of their

leisure. Ways in which their parents spend most of their leisure was categorized into two: those who spend their leisure at home with their children and those who spend it away from home. Table 16 shows the relationship between fathers' method of spending leisure and problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who had fathers spending most of their leisure either at home or elsewhere, and their adolescent's score on problem behaviour.

Table 16: Relationship between fathers' method of spending leisure and problem behaviour.

		Leisure		
		At home	Elsewhere	Total
Problem behaviour	High	43 (17%)	207 (83%)	250
	Low	81 (17%)	395 (83%)	476
Total		124 (17%)	602 (83%)	726

Missing observations = 260; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 0.004$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is less than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between how fathers spent their leisure and the attitude of their adolescent children towards problem behaviour.

Likewise, the same analysis was carried out concerning the way mothers spent their leisure. Table 17 shows the relationship between mothers' method of spending leisure and their children's score in problem behaviour. The

table shows the number of subjects whose mothers spent most of their leisure either at home or elsewhere and their children's score in problem behaviour.

Table 17: Relationship between mothers' method of spending leisure and problem behaviour.

		Leisure		
		At home	Elsewhere	Total
Problem behaviour	High	65(23%)	216(77%)	281
	Low	107(20%)	418 (80%)	525
Total		172 (22%)	634 (78%)	806

Missing observations = 180; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 0.82$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is less than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between how mothers spent their leisure and the attitude of their adolescent children towards problem behaviour.

The finding about how parents spend most of their leisure is surprising because one would expect parents who spend more time at home with their children to be more helpful because they could easily monitor their children's behaviour. However, this finding tends to suggest that quality time with adolescents is more beneficial than quantity time. In fact, the study makes it clear that a good relationship between parents themselves and between parents and adolescents is more important than whether parents spend more time with their adolescents at home. Perhaps even spending more time with

adolescents at home could have a boomerang effect. A boomerang effect is a shift in attitude which not only goes against what was intended but actually in the opposite direction (Reber, 1984). Adolescents could misinterpret regular presence of the parent as either infringing on their privacy or policing them. Regular presence of a parent could therefore attract hostility while absent parents enjoy a better relationship if they are perceived to be enhancing adolescents' independence.

Sarason (1976) associated family instability to problem behaviour amongst children in a family. To test Sarason's claim, the subjects in this study were requested to indicate whether they would consider their parents' marriage relationship to be either stable or unstable. Table 18 shows the relationship between the stability of a marriage relationship and adolescents' score in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who considered their parent's marriage to be either stable or unstable.

Table 18: Relationship between the stability of a marriage relationship and problem behaviour.

		Status of parent's marriage		
		Stable	Unstable	Total
Problem behaviour	High	261(77%)	17(5%)	340
	Low	495(85%)	24(4%)	585
Total		756(86%)	41(5%)	925

Missing observations = 61; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 0.82$; $df = 2$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

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Given that the value of χ^2_c is less than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between the stability of parent's relationship and the attitude of their adolescent children towards problem behaviour. This observation differs with Sarason's (1976) case study which showed that parents who quarrel are likely to bring forth problematic children. There are two ways that could be used to explain this. Firstly, adolescents in this study may have been shy to disclose the status of their parents' relationship, that is, if at all they know about it. Secondly, parents' relationship may not adversely affect the adolescent because even when parents differ, at least one of them may still be close to the children. Furthermore, love for the partner may be displaced to the children.

The subject's own relationship with his or her parents was also examined. The first analysis involved a self-report on the significance of both parents in shaping the subject's behaviour. The second analysis examines the significance of the relationship with each parent. Table 19 shows the relationship between the belief that either behaviour is significantly influenced by parents or not, and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who either believed that their behaviour had significantly been shaped by their parents or not and their score in problem behaviour.

Table 19: Relationship between the belief that behaviour is influenced by parents and problem behaviour.

		Learnt most of one's behaviours from parents		
		Agree	Disagree	Total
Problem behaviour	High	480 (70%)	204(30%)	684
	Low	128 (49%)	135(51%)	263
Total		608 (64%)	339 (36%)	947

Missing observations = 39; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 38.25$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the belief that the parents had a significant impact on one's behaviour and his or her attitude towards problem behaviour.

Adolescents in this study, therefore, acknowledged the key role that parents played in molding their behaviour. A good number of them (64.20%) believed that parents had played a key role in shaping their behaviour. This finding concurs with Satir's (1964) observation that parents are the architects of the family.

The subject's relationships with each parent were also examined. Table 20 shows the subjects' relationship with fathers and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who reported that their relationship with their fathers was either good or poor, and the subjects' scores in problem behaviour.

Table 20: Subjects' relationship with fathers and problem behaviour

		Relationship with father		
		Good	Poor	Total
Problem behaviour	High	256(74%)	53 (15%)	345
	Low	481(81%)	59 (10%)	591
Total		737(79%)	112(12%)	936

Missing observations = 50; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 6.65$; $df = 2$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subject's relationship with father and his or her attitude towards problem behaviour.

The second analysis involved the subjects' relationship with mothers. Table 21 shows the subjects' relationship with their mothers and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who reported their relationship with mother to be either good or poor, and their scores in problem behaviour.

Table 21: Subjects' relationship with mothers and problem behaviour

		Relationship with mother		
		Good	Poor	Total
Problem behaviour	High	314 (89%)	27(8%)	351
	Low	581 (95%)	20(3%)	610
Total		895 (93%)	47(5%)	961

Missing observations = 25; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 9.67$; $df = 2$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subject's relationship with mother and his or her attitude towards problem behaviour.

Adolescents' relationship with each parent was also found to be significant. The greater majority of youth in this study, 723(78.74%) described relationships with their fathers to be good. Only 112 (11.97%) described this relationship to be poor. A total of 87 (9.29%) came from homes of single mothers or were orphans. Likewise the majority of youth 895 (93.13%) described relationships with their mothers as good. Only 47 (4.89%) described it as poor. A few others, 19 (1.98%) came from single fathers' family or were orphans. Relationships with both parents were, therefore, generally good. This finding concurs with Bandura's (1964) and Douvan and Adelson's (1966) studies that found very little evidence of either conflict with or rebellion from parents among male and female adolescents in America.

Mwaniki (1997) also found the Nairobi adolescents she studied to be enjoying a good relationship with both parents.

In conclusion, therefore, five hypotheses were tested to investigate the relationship between family background and attitude towards problem behaviour. The following were the findings:

- (i) There was a significant relationship between parents' level of education and attitude towards problem behaviour.
- (ii) There was a significant relationship between adolescent's relationship with parents and their attitude towards problem behaviour.
- (iii) There was a significant relationship between the belief that parents had significant impact on the adolescent's life and his or her attitude towards problem behaviour.
- (iv) There was no significant relationship between the stability of parents' marital relationship and their children's attitude towards problem behaviour.
- (v) There was no significant relationship between how parents spent most of their leisure time and their adolescent's attitude towards problem behaviour.

Parental factors in this study are significant determinants of problem behaviour. The study confirms that parents are the primary agents of socialization (Dworetzky, 1984). They are the architects of the family (Satir, 1964).

5.7 Adolescents' relationship with significant others and problem behaviour

The study examined the significance of adolescent relationships with significant others. Significant others are people who are important and influential in affecting an individual's development of social norms, values and personal self image (Reber, 1984). The significant others in this case were influential people or groups who interacted at close quarters with adolescents. Other than parents, the significant others considered in this case were siblings, teachers, peers and prefects. A good number of the significant others are found in school. Adolescents generally spend more time at school than at home. In Kenya, every year is made up of 3 school terms. Each term is made up of approximately three months. Especially for those in boarding schools, the implication is that the adolescent spends only 3/12 months in a year with parents. The rest of the time is spent at school. Schools have a significant effect on students' behaviour because they expose each child to new information, important new adult models and contact with new peers (Dworetzky, 1984). The analysis begins with the role of significant others at school before examining the role of siblings. The first question required the subjects to react to the statement that, "Teachers have really shaped my lifestyle". Table 22 shows the number of subjects who either agreed or disagreed with the statement. The table shows the relationship between the belief that behaviour is influenced by teachers or not and scores in problem behaviour.

Table 22: Relationship between belief that behaviour is influenced by teachers and problem behaviour.

		Teachers have influenced my lifestyle		
		Agree	Disagree	Total
Problem behaviour	High	542(79%)	140 (21%)	687
	Low	138(52%)	127 (48%)	265
Total		680(72%)	267 (28%)	947

Missing observations = 69; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 70.65$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the belief that teachers had influenced one's lifestyle and attitude towards problem behaviour.

A further analysis using Spearman correlations yielded a negative relationship of -0.273. It would appear that there's a negative relationship between problem behaviour and the belief in teachers' shaping of one's lifestyle. Those who believed in teachers' ability to shape lifestyle tended to reject problem behaviours more than the rest. Table 22 shows that 79% of subjects who believed in the role of teachers in behaviour modification had a high score in problem behaviour implying that they rejected more than 50% of the problem behaviours.

A closely related statement asked the subjects to indicate the nature of their relationship with their teachers. Table 23 shows nature of adolescents'

relationship with teachers and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who reported their relationship with teachers to be either good or poor and the subjects' score in problem behaviour.

Table 23: Nature of adolescents' relationship with teachers and problem behaviour.

		Relationship with teacher		
		Good	Poor	Total
Problem behaviour	High	189(54%)	160(46%)	349
	Low	457(75%)	153(25%)	610
Total		646 (67%)	313(33%)	959

Missing observations = 30; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 43.53$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subjects' relationship with teachers and their attitudes towards problem behaviour. Chi square computed is large enough to indicate that the results are less likely to be out of chance.

Teachers play the role of parents when adolescents are in school. Teachers facilitate the learning of appropriate behaviour (McMillan, 1973). Bandura (1965) has demonstrated the impact of role models on behaviour. If adolescents consider teachers to be models, they are likely to imitate their behaviour. But when children rely on their peers excessively or acquire antisocial behaviours, it is often due to disillusionment with adult wisdom,

justice or status (Bixenstine, et al., 1976). These sentiments are supported in this study. Those who perceived teachers to be significant models, believed they had learnt a lot from them. A boy from a national school observed that teachers, “instill self-discipline for the success of a student. I have adopted this.” On the other hand, a boy in a private school commented that, “I am not close to teachers and have not copied any of them.” In conclusion, teachers who are good role models are likely to have a positive impact on the behaviour of adolescents and consequently reduce the incidence of problematic behaviours. Table 22 shows that 79% of subjects who believed in the role of teachers in behaviour modification had a high score in problem behaviour implying that they rejected more than 50% of the problem behaviours.

Likewise, relationship between problem behaviour and relationship with peers was analyzed. The first investigation of the significance of adolescent-peer relationship required the subject's to respond to the statement that, “peers do not determine my lifestyle at all.” Table 24 shows the relationship between the belief that peers influence one's lifestyle or not and the scores in problem behaviour. The table shows number of subjects who either agreed or disagreed with the statement and their score in problem behaviour.

Table 24: Relationship between belief that peers influence one's lifestyle and problem behaviour.

		Peers do not influence my lifestyle		
		Agree	Disagree	Total
Problem behaviour	High	420(63%)	249(37%)	669
	Low	142(54%)	122(46%)	264
Total		562(60%)	371(40%)	933

Missing observations = 53; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 6.39$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subjects' belief that peers influence one's lifestyle and attitude towards problem behaviour.

Table 25 shows subjects' relationship with peers and their scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who indicated either a good or poor relationship with their peers, and their score in problem behaviour.

Table 25: Subjects' relationship with peers and problem behaviour.

		Relationship with peers		
		Good	Poor	Total
Problem behaviour	High	292(83%)	61(17%)	353
	Low	463(76%)	144(24%)	607
Total		755 (79%)	205(21%)	960

Missing observations = 26; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 5.52$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subjects' relationship with their peers, and their attitude towards problem behaviour.

A higher percentage of the adolescents (60.24%) believed that peers did not determine their lifestyle than the others (39.76%) who believed that peers had an impact on their behaviour. Bandura's (1972) finding that adolescence is not marked by indiscriminate slavish conformity to peer group pressure was supported. Statistical analysis, however, showed that there was a significant relationship between belief that peers influence one's lifestyle and attitude towards problem behaviour. Peer influence cannot therefore be ruled out in adolescence, especially among problematic adolescents.

Another area of concern in this study involved the relationship between prefects and attitude towards problem behaviour. Table 26 shows the

subjects relationship with prefects and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who reported either a good or poor relationship with the prefects, as well as the subjects' score in problem behaviour.

Table 26: Subjects relationship with prefects and problem behaviour.

		Relationship with prefects		
		Good	Poor	Total
Problem behaviour	High	140 (41%)	206(59%)	346
	Low	397(66%)	208(34%)	605
Total		537(57%)	414 (43%)	951

Missing observations = 35; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 56.69$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subjects' relationship with prefects and their attitude towards problem behaviour.

Even though teachers and prefects spend most of the time with the youth, relationships between the adolescents, and their prefects and teachers, was not as popular as that between adolescents and their parents. Although parents, teachers and prefects are authorities of enhancing discipline, adolescents are likely to view parental discipline as motivated by love but teachers and prefects as motivated by duty or reward. A head-boy in a private school remarked that, "my father loves our family and so do I. He

likes to dine with prayers and so do I.” On the other hand, a subject from a national girls’ school remarked that “please, they (teachers) are there for money!” In the same school another girl noted that “I think they (teachers) only care about what I get and not who I am or what is good for me.” Furthermore, the biological bond between members of a family could possibly enhance a relationship more than an instrumental tie (a relationship that is a means to an end). Similarly, adolescents could find it difficult to respect age-mates and classmates who are only different from them because of being appointed prefects. Antagonism between adolescents and their prefect colleagues has been a subject of interest in Kenyan schools. Earlier in this study, it was reported that such rivalry led to the death of four prefects at Nyeri High School.

The subjects’ relationship with brothers and sisters was also examined. Table 27 shows the subjects’ relationship with their brothers and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the subjects who reported either a good or poor relationship with brothers, and the subjects’ score in problem behaviour.

Table 27: Subjects’ relationship with brothers and problem behaviour

		Relationship with brothers		
		Good	Poor	Total
Problem behaviour	High	298 (85%)	15(4%)	351
	Low	510 (86%)	29 (5%)	596
Total		808(84%)	44(6%)	947

Missing observations = 39; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 0.94$; $df = 2$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is less than the reported value of χ^2_α the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between the subjects' relationship with brothers and their attitude towards problem behaviour.

The subjects' relationship with their sisters was also examined. χ^2_c was found to be 0.43 at $df=2$ and $\chi^2_\alpha = 5.991$. Given that the value of χ^2_c is less than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between the subjects' relationship with their sisters and their attitude towards problem behaviour.

The statistical analyses of various relationships with significant others showed significance except between adolescents and siblings. Perhaps sibling's rivalry (the often aggressive and contentious interactions between siblings) is a superficial occurrence and the underlying scenario could be that of care and concern between one sibling and another. Furthermore, siblings tend to have their favourite brothers and sisters whom they can associate with and ignore others who are not close to them. Those who are not close to them therefore get substituted by the favourites. By contrast it is not possible to substitute one's parents in a similar manner and therefore a sour relationship with one's parents could have a negative impact on adolescents' lives.

The findings on adolescent-significant others relationship is summarized as follows:

- (i) There was a significant relationship between adolescents' relationships with parents and their attitudes towards problem behaviour.
- (ii) There was a significant relationship between adolescents' relationships with teachers and their attitudes towards problem behaviour.
- (iii) There was a significant relationship between adolescent's relationships with peers and their attitudes towards problem behaviour.
- (iv) There was a significant relationship between adolescent's relationships with prefects and their attitudes towards problem behaviour, but,
- (v) There was no significant relationship between adolescent's relationships with siblings and their attitudes towards problem behaviour.

The findings above tend to suggest that a major catalyst of problem behaviour concerns relationships with significant others. However, a good relationship with significant others was enjoyed by the greater majority of youth. In a hierarchical order best relationships described by the highest percentages of adolescents as good were between adolescents and mothers (93.13%), sisters (87.13%), brothers (85.32%) fathers (78.74%) and peers (78.65%). Relationships between adolescents and teachers (67.36%) as well as adolescents and prefects (56.47%) were at the bottom of the list of those who described the relationship as good.

Mothers and sisters top the list of those who described their relationship with significant others as good. This could be due to the type of learning called

classical conditioning in which a person learns through association. Since infancy, most children learn to associate mothers with pleasant experiences such as breastfeeding, feeding, changing of napkins, and soothing to sleep. It could be said that sisters enjoy a high popularity second to mothers perhaps by extension. Sisters share gender with mothers and perform household duties that are similar to those performed by mothers.

5.8 Analysis of the relationship between drug abuse and problem behaviour

Available evidence suggests that drug use and abuse in Kenya is high and rising, and the high incidence of unrest in schools and other institutions of higher learning have been attributed to rampant drug abuse among the youth (Acuda, 1982). The current study investigated the relationship between drug abuse and attitude towards problem behaviour. The subjects were asked to indicate whether they would abuse drugs under any circumstances. Table 28 shows the relationship between drug abuse and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who said either they would or would not abuse drugs, and their scores in problem behaviour.

Table 28: Relationship between drug abuse and problem behaviour.

		Would you abuse drugs?		
		Yes	No	Total
Problem behaviour	High	51(15%)	297(85%)	348
	Low	55(9%)	552(91%)	607
Total		106(11%)	849(89%)	955

Missing observations =31; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c=7.01$; $df=1$; $\chi^2_\alpha=3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subjects' attitude towards drug abuse and their attitudes towards problem behaviour.

A higher percentage of youth (88.90%) in this study reported that they would not abuse drugs at all. Only a few (11.09%) said they would abuse drugs. A total of 87 subjects said that they had abused or were abusing drugs. Among them 39(44.83%) had abused bhang, 19(21.83%) miraa, 14(16.09%) cocaine, 11(12.64%) heroin and 4(4.61%) had abused others. Majority of the youth (86.03%) did not believe that use of drugs was an okay way of relieving stress.

Similarly, when the youth were asked "would you drink alcohol?" the majority (68.24%) answered "no." An even greater number (77.25%) did not believe that drinking of alcohol was okay whether one is caught by

authorities or not. Asked to explain their stand on alcohol, most of the youth cited the negative outcomes of alcoholic drinks. One subject in a national boys' school called alcohol, "a waste of money ...destroys instead of building." A subject from a national girls' school remarked that alcohol, "makes you do bad things such as urinating anywhere, raping and failing to meet family needs."

Smoking of cigarettes was rejected by the greater majority of the youth. A total of 93.98% said they would not smoke, compared to only a few (6.02%) who said they would consider smoking. A high percentage of the youth (85.99%) even wished that all men would stop smoking. The subjects cited the negative effects of cigarette smoking. One subject from a national girl's school, summarized the effect as "bad breath, lung cancer and brown teeth." Another subject from a special school for the physically disabled wondered why people smoke. He remarked that, "how can one enjoy smoke? It is funny that they are thirsty, I don't agree." Other subjects personalized the debate. A subject from a provincial boarding school in Nairobi noted that "my father and brothers are smokers. They have chest problems." Another subject from a national girl's school in Nairobi lamented that, "this is what actually killed my dad and I wouldn't want to have such a man (a smoker) around." These findings concur with Ginsberg (2002) who observed that it is not normal for adolescents to use drugs on a regular basis although it may be claimed that, "everyone does it"(p.17). In conclusion therefore, the fact that some youth are engaged in drug abuse is not due to lack of knowledge about the harmful effects of the drugs but perhaps as a result of peer pressure.

There was a significant relationship between attitude towards drug abuse and attitude towards problem behaviour. This is not surprising because alcohol and other substances such as marijuana are associated with poor psychological adjustment (Lerner, 2002). Windle, Miller and Domenico (1992) found that adolescents who were persistent heavy substance users performed more poorly than non-users in school, engage in higher levels of violence and general delinquency, have poor family relations, and are more likely to affiliate with alcohol and drug using peers. In Kenya, the high incidence of unrest in schools and other institutions of higher learning has been linked to rampant drug use among the youth (Sunday Standard, May 30, 1999 p.10). This hypothesis is supported in the current study in that there was a significant relationship between adolescent perception of school strikes and problem behaviour. Subjects rated high on problem behaviour tended to believe more in the destruction of property during a strike and in vengeance of a colleague who refuses to participate in a strike.

5.9 Analysis of the relationship between teachers' rating of students' conduct and problem behaviour.

Teachers were requested to rate their pupils in terms of discipline. Teachers' ratings were divided into two categories of either "disciplined" or "indisciplined". Unfortunately, failure of the subjects to write down their admission numbers and lack of cooperation among some class teachers in submitting this rating adversely affected this analysis. Table 29 shows the relationship between teachers' ratings and scores in problem behaviour. The

table shows the few teachers' ratings that could be matched and the subjects' score in problem behaviour.

Table 29 Relationship between teachers' ratings of students' conduct and problem behaviour

		Teachers' ratings		
		Indisciplined	Disciplined	Total
Problem behaviour	High	5 (15%)	28 (85%)	33
	Low	0 (0%)	9 (100)	9
Total		5 (12%)	37 (88%)	42

Missing observations =944; includes those questionnaires that could not be matched due to lack of admission numbers on students' questionnaires as required. $\chi^2_c = 1.55$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between the teachers' rating of behaviour and the subjects' attitude towards problem behaviour.

Most teachers may have found it cumbersome to make behaviour ratings on their students or feared infringing on confidentiality. However, the ratings carried out showed that most teachers considered a great majority of their students to be well-behaved. In all the ratings, less than five students were marked as indisciplined in each class. An interesting rating in one national school had been done prior to this study. When the researcher visited the school and requested class-teachers' ratings, she pulled out a book from her

drawer and then explained that she had requested a student earlier in the term to describe his classmates. She did this after she was appointed the class teacher. She had wanted to get a deeper understanding of each pupil's character and she thought the best way to obtain this feedback was to get albeit confidentially information about each student from one of their colleagues. The student had described most of his colleagues as good and hardworking. The class teacher then used the student's comments and her own observations to describe the students in her class. Though there was no significant difference between problem behaviour and teachers' ratings, the data was not sufficient to be convincing.

5.10 Analysis of the relationship between perceptions of school strikes and problem behaviour.

Most school strikes in Kenya are becoming amazingly violent and involve destruction of school property (Mbugua, 2003). The study investigated the problem behaviour of school strikes. The subjects were required to respond to the statement that, "destruction of school property during a strike is a crazy habit." Table 30 shows the relationship between the attitude towards destruction of school property and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who either agreed or disagreed with this statement and their scores in problem behaviour.

Table 30: Relationship between attitude towards destruction of school property and problem behaviour

		No destruction of school property during a strike		
		Agree	Disagree	Total
Problem behaviour	High	590 (86%)	100(14%)	690
	Low	191(72%)	73 (28%)	264
Total		781 (82%)	173 (18%)	954

Missing observations =32; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c=22.13$; $df=1$; $\chi^2_\alpha=3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subjects' belief in the destruction of school property and their attitudes towards problem behaviour. A further analysis using Spearman's correlation revealed a negative relationship (-0.15). It would appear that belief in the destruction of school property during a strike is negatively correlated with attitude towards problem behaviour. The higher the score on problem behaviour (implying conformity with most adult values) the less likely the belief in the destruction of school property during a strike.

A related question, as to whether vengeance on a student colleague who refused to participate in a strike could be justifiable was posed. Table 31 shows the relationship between the attitude towards vengeance and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who supported vengeance and those who did not, as well as their scores in problem behaviour.

**Table 31: Relationship between attitude towards
vengeance and problem behaviour**

		Vengeance could be justified		
		Agree	Disagree	Total
Problem behaviour	High	230(36%)	410(64%)	640
	Low	121(48%)	129(52%)	250
Total		351(39%)	539 (61%)	890

Missing observations =96; includes those who did not respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 23.01$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is rejected. There was a significant relationship between the subjects' belief in vengeance on a colleague who refuses to participate in a strike and their attitudes towards problem behaviour. A further analysis of correlation showed a Spearman correlation of 0.12. The positive relationship, unlike the previous observation on destruction of school property is simply because the two questions were stated differently. The results are therefore similar. Those who support problem behaviour also tend to support the idea of vengeance on a colleague who refuses to cooperate with the strikers.

In conclusion, the last three problem behaviours addressed the issue of school strikes. Question thirteen required subjects to respond to the statement, "I find school strikes justifiable". The responses showed that this was a difficult decision to make. About half of the subjects (50.03%) found school strikes justifiable while the other half (49.95%) couldn't justify school strikes. Those who supported school strikes gave the conventional reason that it is an

effective way of airing grievances. For example, one subject from a national girls' school in Nairobi said that, "it's a way to air our grievances if they do not want to listen!" Those who were against school strikes emphasized dialogue. For example, a subject in a national boys' school in Central Province remarked that, "I think there is no problem that is too big to be solved by negotiations."

However, when it came to question fourteen on destruction of school property the decision was clear-cut. A great majority of the subjects (81.88%) said that destruction of school property during a strike could not be justified. Only a minority of subjects (18.12%) said destruction of school property could be justified during a strike. Likewise, more of the subjects (60.61%) were against vengeance as compared to the subjects who supported it (39.39%). In conclusion, it would appear that most students destroy school property and hurt others during a strike due to peer pressure. But the ring leaders in a strike are likely to be problematic children because there was a significant relationship between the attitude towards both destruction of school property and revenge, and attitude towards problem behaviour.

5.11 Analysis of the relationship between television viewing and problem behaviour.

Television viewing could be affecting many group identities, stages of socialization and ranks of authority by changing the patterns of information access (Meyrowitz, 1985). Few studies appear to have been done on the effect of television viewing on behaviour in Kenya. The current study, attempted to assess the impact of television viewing on adolescent behaviour.

This was done using a self-report. The subjects were requested to react to the statement that, "TV viewing has not influenced my lifestyle at all". Table 32 shows the relationship between belief in TV influence and scores in problem behaviour. The table shows the number of subjects who either agreed or disagreed with the above statement, and their score in problem behaviour.

Table 32: Relationship between belief in TV influence and problem behaviour.

		T.V. viewing has not influenced my lifestyle		
		Agree	Disagree	Total
Problem behaviour	High	288(42%)	395(58%)	683
	Low	102(39%)	160(61%)	262
Total		390(41%)	555(59%)	945

Missing observations =41; includes those who didn't respond to the statement. $\chi^2_c = 0.82$; $df = 1$; $\chi^2_\alpha = 3.84$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is greater than the reported value of χ^2_α , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between the belief that TV viewing influences one's lifestyle and attitude towards problem behaviour.

Although a substantial number of subjects (58.73%) believed that TV viewing had influenced their lifestyle than those who thought otherwise (41.27%), there was no significant relationship between this belief and problem

behaviour score. This finding concurs with Meyrowitz's (1985) study on the effects of television on behaviour. Working with the American youth, Meyrowitz (1985) observed that although a shared information environment enhanced by print and electronic media leads to a common awareness about what is happening throughout the world, the shared information environment does not necessarily lead to identical behaviour or attitudes among all individuals. It would appear therefore, that youth with well-adjusted behaviour may not be adversely affected by television viewing.

5.12 Analysis of the relationship between academic performance and problem behaviour.

The researcher also attempted to investigate the relationship between academic performance and attitude towards problem behaviour. This analysis was affected by lack of cooperation among some class teachers in failing to provide a record of their students' performance and also the failure of some students to write their admission numbers on their questionnaires. In one instance it was claimed that the head-teacher locks all the results in his cupboard. Table 33 shows the relationship between academic performance and scores in problem behaviour. the number of students whose performance was either above or below average, and the score of each category in problem behaviour.

Table 33: Relationship between academic performance and problem behaviour

		Performance		
		Above average	Below average	Total
Problem Behaviour	High	16 (44%)	20(56%)	36
	Low	8 (73%)	3(27%)	11
Total		24(51%)	23 (49)	47

(Note that below average performance was taken to be grade C- and below while C and above was considered above average). Missing observations =941 includes students who did not indicate their admission numbers as required by the questionnaire.

$$\chi^2_c = 2.69; df = 1; \chi^2_{\alpha} = 3.84$$

Given that the value of χ^2_c is less than the reported value of χ^2_{α} , the null hypothesis is accepted. There was no significant relationship between academic performance and attitude towards problem behaviour.

Although there was no significant relationship between academic performance and attitude towards problem behaviour, the data was not adequate enough to be reliable. However, all the head-teachers in this study were agreed that there was a strong relationship between discipline and performance. One head-teacher in a provincial girls' school in Nairobi explained that her school was formally a day school whose performance was poor. The major reason for converting the day school into a boarding school was to manage discipline and performance. Today the school is among the top 50 schools in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examination. Another

head-mistress in a district day school for girls in Nairobi noted that, “weak students tend to have discipline problems.” Another head-teacher of a private day school remarked that, “discipline is the cornerstone of academic performance.” Although the school admits pupils with relatively low marks in Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (admits as low as 250/500), it is reputed as one of the best private schools in Nairobi, in academic performance. It may be concluded here therefore that discipline is a significant ingredient in academic performance.

Head-teachers explained that with the banning of corporal punishment in schools (Republic of Kenya, 2001), they were finding it difficult to identify other effective methods of controlling behaviour. The schools had resorted to manual work, involving the parents and guidance and counseling as the other alternatives. The major criticism of these alternative methods of discipline was that they were time consuming. Asked whether they supported the banning of corporal punishment, 50% of the head-teachers supported the ban while 43.75% did not. A few others (6.25%) were undecided. The researcher sought the views of senior education officers (as key informers) concerning the banning of corporal punishment. All the three education officers supported the ban. The Senior Deputy Director of Education in Kenya, for example, emerged as a strong advocate of guidance and counseling as the most effective method of instilling discipline. According to her corporal punishment is cruel and has a long lasting negative impact on a child. She noted that, “corporal punishment makes the child do things mechanically because of fear of punishment instead of doing them out of conviction, but counseling makes them understand that behavioural change is

for their own good.” Her observation agrees with Lindgren’s (1980) notion. Lindgren noted that corporal punishment ignores the motivation of problem behaviour and is, therefore, not an effective method of behaviour modification.

5.13 Other related findings

In addition to the hypotheses tested, three other thematic findings are reported. The first relates to the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. Attitudes and behaviour were found to be closely related. Though the questionnaire intended to obtain attitudes towards problem behaviour, some youth revealed their true behaviour as they explained their attitudes, with words such as:

- (a) *“I wouldn’t like him (a man who wears a headscarf) to be my boyfriend”*-a girl from a district day school in Central Province.
- (b) *“There is no way I can see a very old or sick person standing (in a bus) while I am sitted. It is lack of manners”*- a girl from a district day school in Central Province.
- (c) *“I don’t have good legs. I would not risk going places in one (miniskirt) because of the talk”* – a girl from a national girl’s boarding school in Central Province.
- (d) *“Ordinary skirts are old fashioned; I will look like my grandmother in them (preferring tight skirts instead)”* - a girl from a national girls boarding school in Nairobi Province.
- (e) *“I do not wear them (tight skirts) at all”*- a girl from a national girl’s boarding school in Central Province.

- (f) *"I myself am a Rastafarian"* – a boy from a national boys' school in Central Province.
- (g) *"I do it myself (holding a lover's hand in public)"* – a boy from a private mixed day school in Nairobi Province.
- (h) *"If mom never aborted me, why should I?"* – a girl from a national girls' boarding school in Nairobi Province.
- (i) *"The first time I smoked bhang it didn't relieve any stress"* – a boy from a national boys' school in Nairobi Province.

The second additional finding is that unusual behaviour in adolescence could be fueled by ignorance. It is possible that those who exhibit unusual behaviour at adolescence are oblivious of other's view. For example, a subject from a national boys' school in Central Province remarked that, "Rastafarian hairstyle is like any other hairstyle, curly kit, perm or Jordan." Another subject from a national boys' school in Central Province remarked that, "I myself am a Rastafarian, Reggae is life, roots and culture." However, many negative words were used to describe the Rastafarian and his hairstyle. The hairstyle was described by some as: untidy, associated with devil worship, dirty, for drug taking people, weird, and makes somebody look more of a monkey than a human being. The Rastafarian was described by others as: a person of bad reputation, uncouth, shady, barbaric, devilish, mad, harmful, sick, thief and hooligan. Perhaps if such contrary views were publicized, Rastafarians might review their hairstyle.

Finally, the youth in this study, although age-mates, were found to operate at different levels of moral reasoning. The levels were quite evident when it

came to the problem of abortion. The American psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg proposed three levels of moral development namely, pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional (Mwamwenda, 1995). Pre-conventional reasoning is a type of moral reasoning used by children aged 4 to 10 years. Moral decisions tend to be egocentric, which means they are based on personal interest. In this study, pre-conventional reasoning on abortion was illustrated by phrases such as:

- (a) It leads to infertility, stress and depression
- (b) One undergoes so much pain
- (c) It has so many side effects
- (d) One can die in the course
- (e) One may not give birth in future
- (f) I had a friend who died while aborting. I learnt a lesson

At conventional level, moral reasoning is more social-centric in that it takes into account the interest of others in a given society. Majority of adolescents and adults operate at this stage (Mwamwenda, 1995). Conventional reasoning is illustrated in this study by phrases such as:

- (a) I could get raped and I wouldn't want the baby because I would treat it badly.
- (b) Raising up a child in our current world when one cannot support, feed, cloth and educate them is worse than terminating the birth.
- (c) Sometimes I feel angry...but at times when I think of children without love I prefer abortion.

A person who operates at post-conventional level is neither egocentric nor sociocentric, but autonomous in his judgement. In this study post-conventional views could be illustrated by phrases such as:

- (a) It is murder, pure and simple
- (b) Kills sweet, innocent babies. Murders the gift from God
- (c) Its murder, sinning and all evil
- (d) Its brutal
- (e) Life does not belong to you. Its God's property. You have no right over it whatever the case.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the entire study. Conclusions are then drawn from the findings of the study. The last section provides the recommendations of the study to theory, practice and further research.

6.1 Summary

The purpose of this study was to identify the psychosocial determinants of problem behaviour in secondary school adolescents. Problem behaviour was defined as behaviour that is a source of conflict between adolescents and adult authorities such as parents and teachers (Hurlock, 1978). Problem behaviours investigated in this study included unusual dressing and hairstyles, drug abuse, lack of consideration and school strikes.

Primary data on problem behavior was gathered using a survey. A self administered questionnaire was administered to 986 fourth grade secondary school students. The questionnaire contained three sections: Subjects background information, attitude towards a selected list of problem behaviours and locus of control (a standard instrument used to determine whether one believes that either he or she has control over the outcomes in his life or not).

Secondary data was gathered using unstructured interviews with parents, teachers, senior education officers and secondary documentary sources

including school rules. The study was carried out in Nairobi and Central Provinces of Kenya. Basically using stratified random sampling, 33 schools were selected, 12 from Nairobi and 21 from Central Province. The study generated both qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data were used in the discussion of research findings. Quantitative data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Eleven hypotheses were tested. The first hypothesis tested the relationship between internal locus of control and attitude towards problem behaviour. There was a significant relationship between internal locus of control and attitude towards problem behaviour. Subjects with high internal locus of control tended to disagree with the problem behaviours more than those with external locus of control. Internal locus of control is associated with social desirability (Sommers-Flanagan et al., 1987).

There was no significant relationship between problem behaviour scores of Nairobi and Central Province adolescents. It was suggested that youth in rural and urban areas are in frequent interactions through such activities as music and drama festivals. The mass media also plays a key role in making Kenya and the world a global village.

There was no significant relationship between gender and attitude towards problem behaviour. It was suggested that boys and girls are increasingly becoming similar in the perception of social issues. This could be due to the emphasis on equal opportunity for both sexes.

There was a significant relationship between religious involvement and attitude towards problem behaviour. Even though outwardly the youth may not appear religious, they seem to respect religion. A total of 96.26% reported that religion was central in their lives. Most religious movements emphasize consideration of each other's welfare resulting in a negative attitude towards problem behaviour.

There was a significant relationship between family background and attitude towards problem behaviours. Though husband-wife relationship was not found to be significant, adolescent-parents relationship was found to be a significant determinant of attitude towards problem behaviour. However, a good number of subjects (78.74%) described their relationship with their fathers as being good. Similarly a great majority of subjects (93.13%) described their relationships with their mothers as being good. Similarly, adolescent relationship with peers, teachers and prefects were found to be significant determinants of behavioural outcome in adolescence.

There was a significant relationship between attitude towards drug abuse and general attitude towards problem behaviour. In Kenya, the high incidences of unrest in schools and other institutions of higher learning have been associated with rampant drug abuse in schools (Republic of Kenya, 2001). This claim was supported by the current study.

There was no significant relationship between teachers' ratings of student's behaviour and student's attitude towards problem behaviour. However data were not sufficient to support this hypothesis. Even in cases where this data

was provided, more than 75% of the students in class were said to be disciplined.

There was a significant relationship between the adolescent's perception of school strikes and problem behaviour. Subjects who supported most other problem behaviours also supported the destruction of school property. They also supported vengeance on a colleague who refuses to participate in a strike.

There was no significant relationship between the influence of television and attitude towards problem behaviour. Subjects who reported that TV had influenced their lifestyle and those who denied its influence were not statistically different. It was suggested that TV leads to a common awareness but not necessarily to identical behaviour and attitude among all individuals.

There was no significant relationship between academic performance and attitude towards problem behaviour. However, tabulated data were not sufficient to be reliable. Furthermore, all the head-teachers in the sample underscored the significance of discipline in performance.

6.2 Conclusions

It was concluded that family background is a very significant factor in determining problem behaviour. Just like Satir (1964) noted, parents are the architects of the family. Though the stability of parents' marital relationship was not significant, parents' relationship with their adolescent children was found to be a significant determinant of problem behaviour. Other

relationships with significant others such as teachers, peers, and prefects are significant too in determining problem behaviour.

The claim that adolescence must be a stormy and stressful period was not supported in the study. Stressful and stormy adolescence is a characteristic of only a few adolescents. Majority of the youth were rated by their teachers and parents as good. There seems to be a generalization of a few problematic adolescents as being representative of the entire adolescent population, which is perhaps not true.

It was also noted that problem behaviours may be related. It would appear that psychosocial determinants of problem behaviour such as interpersonal relationships could result in a series of problematic behaviours such as drug abuse, unusual dressing and hairstyles, violence and other related factors. This is because adolescents who had interpersonal relationship problems with parents, teachers and peers tended to agree with problem behaviours more than the other youth who enjoyed good interpersonal relationships with significant others.

Attitudes and behaviour are closely related. Though the questionnaire intended to obtain attitudes towards behaviour, some youth revealed their true behaviour as they explained their attitudes. It was also noted that unusual behaviour in adolescence could be fueled by ignorance. It is possible that those who exhibit unusual behaviour at adolescence are oblivious of other's view towards their unusual behaviour.

Finally, the youth in this study, although age-mates, were found to operate at different levels of moral reasoning. Kohlberg's three levels of moral reasoning namely, pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional were evident. This was especially so when it came to the problem of abortion.

6.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made for theory, practice and research.

Recommendations for theory

Firstly, the study adopted the Bronfenbrenners' (1979) human ecology theory. The theory proposes a complex system of interlinked and interdependent relationships of our biological and social environment. The theory is supported by this study. Adolescence is a complex topic and needs a multidisciplinary approach. It was noted in this study that so many factors interplay to bring about problem behaviour in adolescence including family background, family relationships, school relationships and drug abuse. Future researchers should adopt a multidisciplinary approach to the study of adolescence instead of concentrating on a single factor such as drug abuse.

Secondly, Hall's (1904) claim that adolescence is inevitably marked by storm and stress needs to be reviewed. The study does not support this generalization about adolescence. Instead Offer's (1969) study seems more appropriate. Offer discovered multiple paths through adolescence with a majority of youth following either a smooth, non-abrupt changes path or abrupt changes in behaviour but not necessarily accompanied by crises or problems. Only a few

subjects in Offer's study experienced a stormy adolescence. Future researchers, may find Offer's approach to the study of adolescence useful.

Recommendations for practice

Internal locus of control, or the belief that one can control the destiny of his life, was found to be a desirable trait that could reduce the incidence of problem behaviour in adolescence. It is therefore suggested that sensitivity training be used to inculcate internal locus of control in adolescence. The training would involve sensitizing the youth to be considerate of others in everything they do and to learn to take responsibility for the outcomes of their behaviour.

Religious activities should be strengthened in schools. This is because religious involvement was associated with negative attitude towards problem behaviour. Church sponsored schools should be encouraged or regular pastoral counseling be introduced in secular schools.

Parenting should be introduced as a subject in secondary schools and perhaps even at primary school level. This is because parents being the architects of the family (Satir, 1964) need to be taught the ideal methods of designing a good family. As it is now, many parents are oblivious of the existence of theories of child development, which could be used as guidelines in parenting, but generally bring up their children using their own experiences as children.

Interpersonal relationships were identified as significant determinants of problem behaviour in adolescence. People that are significant to adolescents such as parents, teachers, and peers must be encouraged to cultivate good

interpersonal relationships with the adolescents they stay with. This might reduce the incidence of problematic behaviours in schools.

Guidance and counseling should also be enhanced in schools. Each school should employ a counseling psychologist who is not necessarily a teacher. The psychologist will not only guide and counsel adolescents but also advice on how to enhance interpersonal relationships within the school.

The researcher in this study encountered several problems in the field due to lack of cooperation among some participants. Research has not yet been recognized by some Kenyans as a significant tool for social and economic advancement. Consequently, there is need to underscore the importance of research especially through the mass media. Failure to comply with a research permit should be an offence against the government of Kenya.

Recommendations for research

Studies should investigate how childhood personality is related to adolescent personality problems. This could be a significant variable that was beyond the scope of this study. Moral reasoning in adolescence should also be investigated. Factors determining moral reasoning in adolescence need to be identified in order to promote post-conventional moral reasoning.

This study did not exhaust the investigation of the relationship between attitudes and overt behaviour. There is need to investigate real problematic cases in adolescence in order to see whether similar conclusions would be arrived at.

Studies could also investigate methods of promoting sensitivity among adolescents so that they can learn to be considerate in whatever they do.

This study was carried out in Nairobi and Central Provinces. There was no significant relationship between the responses of the subjects in the two provinces. There is need to replicate the study in other provinces and countries in order to determine the generalizability of these results.

There was no significant relationship between perceived TV influence and attitude towards problem behaviour. There is need to investigate whether TV influences adolescent behaviour, using different methodologies, in order to validate the findings of this study. For example, case studies on the effect of TV on behaviour could obtain more indepth data.

Studies on parenthood and parenting should be encouraged. Such studies could obtain useful data that could help establish standard parenting guidelines. Such studies would be useful especially for young couples.

Studies need to be carried out to determine a dress code for schools. In addition, methods of enhancing appropriate dressing amongst adolescents outside the school environment, and the society in general could be studied. Feasibility studies could also be carried out to establish a national dressing code that would engender respect, pride and nationalism among the citizens of Kenya and consequently guide the youth.

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APPENDIX A

Letter to Student Participant

University of Nairobi

P.O Box 30197,

NAIROBI

Dear student,

The purpose of this letter is to invite you to participate in a study on lifestyles. I am interested in obtaining views of young people concerning some lifestyles. I would appreciate it if you could kindly answer the questions attached honestly. Your responses will be treated confidentially; they will not be shown to your teachers or to any other person. Your answers will be very useful in helping to make suggestions on how to promote a better understanding of these issues in the society.

Thanking you in advance,

Sincerely;

Charles Kimamo

Postgraduate student

APPENDIX B

Students' Background Information

School _____

Admission Age Sex: 1. Male 2. Female

Your status in school e.g. prefect, bell ringer etc _____

Number of brothers sisters Birth order e.g. 1st born,

Hobbies/Extra curriculum activities that you participate in e.g. your clubs

Are you a member of any religious group? 1. Yes () 2. No () If yes, What roles do you play in the religious

group? _____

When at home, I live with the following people:

Indicate your family type i.e. 1. Both parents () 2. Single parent ()
3. Polygamous () 4. Other _____

Father's age level of education _____ and

Occupation _____ level of
education _____ and occupation _____

How do your parents spend their leisure time?

Father _____

Mother _____

How would you describe your family: 1. Very religious () 2. Religious ()

3. Not religious () 4. Atheist () 5. Other _____

How would you describe the marriage relationship of your parents: 1. Very stable () 2. Stable () 3. Unstable () 4. Very unstable ()
5. Other _____

How would you describe your relationship with the following people:

(i) Father: 1. Excellent () 2. Good () 3. Fair () 4. Poor () 5. Other

(ii) Mother: 1. Excellent () 2. Good () 3. Fair () 4. Poor () 5. Other

(iii) Teachers: 1. Excellent () 2. Good () 3. Fair () 4. Poor () 5. Other

(iv) Prefects: 1. Excellent () 2. Good () 3. Fair () 4. Poor () 5. Other

(v) Brothers: 1. Excellent () 2. Good () 3. Fair () 4. Poor () 5. Other

(vi) Sisters: 1. Excellent () 2. Good () 3. Fair () 4. Poor () 5. Other

(vii) Peers: 1. Excellent () 2. Good () 3. Fair () 4. Poor () 5. Other

APPENDIX C

Student's Questionnaire on Problem Behaviour

Concerning the issues listed below, kindly indicate the choice that best represents your views by putting a tick () and give reasons for your answer.

This is not a test but an academic research. There are no right or wrong answers. Your honest opinion is all that is required. Please note that: 1.

SA=Strongly Agree; 2.A=Agree; 3.U=Undecided; 4.D=Disagree;

5.SD=Strongly Disagree.

1. I find miniskirts as good as ordinary skirts. 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D()

5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

2. Some ladies prefer tight skirts to ordinary skirts, but I find ordinary skirts better 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

3. I find tight trousers worn by ladies as good as ordinary skirts 1.SA() 2.A()
3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

4. Have you ever seen a man wearing a headscarf? 1.Yes () 2.No().

This sounds crazy to me. 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

5. Would you drink alcohol? 1.Yes () 2.No ()

Drinking alcohol is o.k. as long as one is not caught in the act by authorities.

1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this?

6. Would you smoke cigarettes? 1.Yes () 2. No ().

I wish all men could stop smoking. 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

7. A hairstyle referred to as "Rastafarian" is common among young people. I

find nothing wrong with such a hairstyle. 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D()

5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

8. Have you ever seen a man putting on an earring? 1. Yes () 2. No()

A man putting on earrings sounds awkward to me. 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U()

4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

9. Would you hold hands with a lover in public? 1. Yes () 3.No ()

I find nothing wrong with lovers holding hands in public. 1.SA() 2.A() 3.

U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

10. Abortion can never be acceptable to me whatever the circumstances.

1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

11. Would you abuse drugs? 1.Yes () 2.No ()

Name the drugs that you may have ever abused _____

I find use of drugs an o.k. way of relieving stress. 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U()
4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

12. Would you give your seat to an elderly person in a bus? 1.Yes ()

2.No (). "First come, first sit" policy in a bus irrespective of age.

1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

13. I find school strikes justifiable. 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say this? _____

14. Destruction of school property during a strike is a crazy habit. 1.SA() 2.A()

3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say so? _____

15. Vengeance on student colleagues who refuse to participate in a strike could
be understood

1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say so ? _____

16. Television viewing has not influenced my lifestyles at all 1.SA() 2.A()

3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say so? _____

17. I have learnt most of my behaviours from my parents. 1.SA() 2.A()

3U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say so? _____

18. Peers do not determine my lifestyles at all. 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D()

5. SD()

Why do you say so? _____

19. Teachers have really shaped my lifestyles 1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D()

5. SD()

Why do you say so? _____

20. I have no place for religion in my life

1.SA() 2.A() 3. U() 4.D() 5. SD()

Why do you say so? _____

APPENDIX D

Student's Questionnaire on Locus of Control

Each of the following items consists of a pair of alternatives "a" and "b". Please select the one statement of each pair that represents your belief. Tick your answer.

I strongly believe that:

1. (a) Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
 (b) The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
2. (a) Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
 (b) People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make
3. (a) One of the major reasons why we have school strikes is because students don't take enough interest in dialogue.
 (b) There will always be school strikes, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
4. (a) In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
 (b) Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
5. (a) The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
 (b) Most students do not realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
6. (a) Without good luck one cannot become a leader.
 (b) Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken

advantage of their opportunities.

7. (a) No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
(b) People who cannot get others to like them do not understand how to get along with others.
8. (a) Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
(b) It is one's experiences in life, which determine what they are like.
9. (a) I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
(b) Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
10. (a) In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
(b) Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
11. (a) Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
(b) Getting a good job depends on mainly being in the right place at the right time
12. (a) The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
(b) The few people in power run this world, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
13. (a) When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
(b) It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
14. (a) There are certain people who are just no good.
(b) There is some good in everybody.
15. (a) In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.

- (b) Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
16. (a) Who gets to be the boss often depends on whom was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
(b) Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
17. (a) As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.
(b) By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
- 18 (a) Most people cannot realize to which extent their lives are controlled by accidental happenings
(b) There really is no such thing as luck.
19. (a) One should always be willing to admit his mistakes.
(b) It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
20. (a) It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
(b) How many friends you have depend upon how nice a person you are.
21. (a) In the long run good things balance the bad ones that happen to us.
(b) Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
22. (a) With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
(b) It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office
23. (a) Sometimes I cannot understand how teachers arrive at grades they give.

- (b) There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
24. (a) A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
(b) A good leader makes it clear to everybody what his or her jobs are.
25. (a) Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
(b) It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
26. (a) People are lonely because they do not try to be friendly,
(b) There's not much use in trying so hard to please people, if they like you they like you.
27. (a) There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
(b) Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
28. (a) What happens to me is my doing.
(b) Sometimes I feel that I do not have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
29. (a) Most of the time I cannot understand why politicians behave the way they do.
(b) In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX E

Unstructured interview with head teachers

Teaching experience _____ Headship experience _____

1. Please explain how you regulate the following issues in your school
 - (a) Mode of dressing
 - (b) Hairstyles
 - (c) Drug abuse
 - (d) Relationship between boys and girls
 - (e) Respect
 - (f) School strikes
2. How would you explain problematic behaviour among the students in your school?
3. What are the entry qualifications of your pupils?
4. Is there a relationship between entry qualifications and individual discipline?
5. Is there a relationship between individual discipline and academic performance?
6. Do you support the banning of caning in schools?
7. What alternatives do you use to sustain discipline?

Unstructured interview with school counselor

Age _____ Counseling qualification _____ Counseling
Experience _____

1. Please comment on the following aspects of students life in your school.
 - (a) Mode of dressing
 - (b) Hairstyles
 - (c) Drug abuse

(d) Relationships between boys and girls (e) Disrespect

2. Is there need for counseling in your school? Why?
3. How would you explain problematic behaviours among the students in your school?
4. What can be done to reduce these problematic behaviours in adolescence?
5. When do you meet your students for counseling?
6. How do you identify students who need counselling?
7. Where do you do your counselling?
8. What counseling methods do you use?
9. How effective has counselling been in your school?
10. What problems do you encounter in your counseling work?
11. What is your teaching load?

Unstructured Interview with Parents

Parent's age _____ Level of education _____

1. Do you have children in secondary school?
2. If Yes, do you have problems with the following aspects of their life (a) Mode of dressing (b) Hairstyles (c) Drug abuse (d) Relationships with opposite sex (e) Disrespect.
3. If you have problems in number 2 above, what do you think has caused these problems in your child (children)?
4. What do you do to solve these problems?
5. Have you ever attended a course dealing with problems of the youth? If yes, where and who taught the course?
6. Are youth problems addressed during parents' meetings in your school?

APPENDIX F

Table B Critical values for the chi-square test

<i>Degrees of freedom</i>	<i>0.05</i>	<i>0.01</i>
1	3.84	6.64
2	5.99	9.21
3	7.82	11.34
4	9.49	13.28
5	11.07	15.09
6	12.59	16.81
7	14.07	18.48
8	15.51	20.09
9	16.92	21.67
10	18.31	23.21
11	19.68	24.72
12	21.03	26.22
13	22.36	27.69
14	23.68	29.14
15	25.00	30.58
16	26.30	32.00
17	27.59	33.41
18	28.87	34.80
19	30.14	36.19
20	31.41	37.57
21	32.67	38.93
22	33.92	40.29
23	35.17	41.64
24	36.42	42.98
25	37.65	44.31
26	38.88	45.64
27	40.11	46.97
28	41.34	48.28
29	42.56	49.59
30	43.77	50.89

The value of chi-square obtained from the test must be equal to or higher than the value given in the table to obtain significance.

Source: Fisher, R.A. and Yates, F. (1963) *Statistical Tables for Biological, Agricultural and Medical Research*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

APPENDIX G

Mulusa's (1990 p.107) sampling guidelines

<u>Population</u>	<u>Sample</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Sample</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Sample</u>
10	10	90	73	2000	322
20	19	100	80	3000	341
30	28	150	108	4000	351
40	35	200	132	5000	357
50	44	250	162	10,000	370
60	52	300	169	20,000	377
70	59	400	196	50,000	381
80	66	1500	306	100,000	384

APPENDIX H
A SAMPLE COPY OF SCHOOL RULES

1. School uniform must be worn in full at all times. Tights and miniskirts must not be worn within the school. Home clothes are not allowed in the school. Should you be found with them, they shall be donated to charity by the school.
2. Any student who folds his blazer or sweater should be ready for punishment.
3. All students should keep short, well groomed hair. No haircut. No bald head. Hair will be kept natural and combed daily except on Saturdays
4. Noise-making in classrooms is a crime in our school.
5. Those students who have tampered with their trousers will go back to shorts.
6. There should be no whistling or screaming in school.
7. No student shall write except on paper. Don't write, draw or paint anything on school facilities.
8. Smoking or the use of any drug (apart from that prescribed by a medical officer), is prohibited by the school to all students, at all times.
9. Chewing of gum in the classroom or on the school compound is not allowed.
10. Politeness, Kindness and Respect towards everyone **MUST** be exercised at **ALL TIMES**.
11. Students should stand up when a visitor or a member of staff enters a class.
12. Address the members of staff properly e.g. Sir/Madam etc. Give way when you meet them along the corridors
13. Silence will prevail when eating will be in process.
14. The grace after the meal will be conducted from the back of the hall by deputy dining hall prefect.
15. Every student will be expected to run while commuting between two places. This will save time that would otherwise be lost. Those found walking will be made to kneel on the spot for one hour.

I have read the rules and I am ready to abide by them.

Name of student.....Signature.....Date.....

Signed in presence of parent..... I/D No.....

Appendix I

A VISIT TO LENANA HIGH SCHOOL (CHANGES)

There was an invitation to a Christian Union ran in changes. Us the St. Gee we had to attend. It was called 'source of light'. The excitement was too much to bear, first to come out of school was a dream come true, and second, most important is that we were going to a boys' school.

That day most, not even most, but all of us took our sweet time in the bathroom to shower the way we've never and remove any mark of dirt. Yes, we first went to our church and after that we were only given 15 minutes to eat lunch and meet in the school bus. For me lunch was 5 minutes I had to brush my shoes. I thought I was the only person nervous but others sacrificed their lunch in order to keep their stomach flat.

When I entered the bathroom we were all packed. All of us who were going out wanted to use the mirror. After the long struggle we managed to re-brush our teeth, style our hair, later brush our shoes again. Others borrowed skirts from thinner friends so us to be tight and show off their figure 'shape'.

We were off. We entered the hall. The style of singing & dancing was funny since you don't want to embarrass yourself. You pretend to be 'HYPER & DISCIPLINED,' i.e. rich, sweet, serious and doesn't like nonsense. Always affording a smile. After service it was time for refreshments and socializing. I was talking to my friend when another boy came to us telling us to go and take some juice and biscuits. We walked, took some juice but did not see the bikis. We drank the juice. I pretended to be so full. I asked my friend if she wanted some more 'joos' (juice). She appeared not to mind.

Oh! Yes we talked to the boys and really enjoyed.

After all that we went back to St. Gee where we belong!

BY KINJO--

APPENDIX J

Research authorization

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telegrams: "EDUCATION", Nairobi

Telephone: Nairobi 334411

When replying please quote

Ref. No. MOEST 13/001/30C 242/2
and date



JOGOO HOUSE "B"
HARAMBEE AVENUE
P.O. Box 30040
NAIROBI

5th December....., 2000

Charles Obadiah Kimamo
University of Nairobi
P.O. BOX 30197
NAIROBI

Dear Sir

RESEARCH AUTHORISATION

Please refer to your application for authority to conduct research on 'Social and Psychological Implications of Problem Behaviour in Secondary Schools in Kenya - I am pleased to let you know that your application has been considered and approved.

You are therefore authorised to conduct research in Secondary Schools in Nairobi and Central Province for a period ending 31st December, 2003.

You are advised to pay courtesy calls on the Provincial Commissioners in Nairobi and Central, and Provincial Director of Education Nairobi and Central, and also the Headteachers of the respective Schools you will visit before commencing your research project.

You are further expected to avail two copies of your research findings to this Office upon completion of your research project.

Yours faithfully


A. G. KAARIA

FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY/EDUCATION

CC

The Provincial Commissioner
Nairobi

The Provincial Director of Education
Nairobi

The Provincial Commissioner
Central

The Provincial Director of Education
Central

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