

HEALTH RELATED LIFESTYLES

OF ADOLESCENTS

A study of smoking, alcohol and habit-forming
drug use, and sexual activity,
in a group of high-school students
in Cape Town

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University of Cape Town

I, Sally Ann DISLER, declare that this dissertation embodies only my original work, except where acknowledgement indicates otherwise, and that no part of it has been, or is being submitted for a degree at this, or any other university.

signed:

Health Related Lifestyles of Adolescents

SALLY ANN DISLER

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The work presented in this thesis forms part of a much larger body of research into the health-related lifestyles of adolescents. Many members of the Department of Community Health, University of Cape Town, took part in the overall project which was the brain-child of Prof Leon Epstein, at that time on sabbatical from the Technion in Haifa, Israel.

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PREFACE

Adolescence is the age of "gradual transition from childhood to adulthood" (Paxman 1984). Its dimensions are poorly defined, an expert committee of the World Health Organisation (WHO) suggesting upper and lower limits of 10 and 20 years respectively, and also distinguishing early (10 - 14 years) from late adolescence (15 - 20 years) (WHO 1965). There are wide cultural differences in definition, with general agreement that the onset of adolescence coincides with puberty, but little consensus as to when it ends.

Adolescents are characteristically introspective and preoccupied with the concept of self, and have a strong need to reject previous roles and controls particularly with respect to parents. The child/adult metamorphosis, which has never been gentle, has been accentuated by the "telescoping of life events associated with the vast intellectual, scientific and industrial development of the past few decades" (Toffler, 1971). Bombarded by a kaleidoscope of new concepts and experiences, and frustrated with the apparent tardiness and conservatism of society, the adolescent enters not the short defined process of initiation of previous times, but a long period of uncertain groping and experimentation. This turmoil may precipitate the abuse, not only of social conventions, but also of harmful substances. If not approached with understanding and insight, the young rebel may be placed in a state of conflict with those in authority and this may express itself in further "delinquent antisocial" behaviour. Where this detracts from the healthy functioning of the young individual, the innate potential of our youth cannot be realized and the whole future of society may be threatened.

Yet from a health perspective, this is the age at which young people see themselves (and are seen by society) as being at the peak of physical fitness; as such they have been relatively neglected by health planners, even though adolescence is actually the only life-period in Western countries in which mortality rates are continuing to rise (Cohen 1982). In general, we have little detailed knowledge of the health and related behaviour of adolescents, a situation that the World Health Organisation (WHO) sought to remedy by naming 1985 the International Year of Youth. As stated in a WHO publication (Jeanneret 1981) :

In order to undertake training and teaching programmes, we need to know more about adolescents: their normal habits, the changes in these with age and time, what motivates the adoption of new habits, models represented by key persons (parents, other family members and friends, "idols") and dominant attitudes in society and its tolerance for behaviour seen as outside the norm - particularly on the part of the young.

These were the principles on which this research was based.

South Africa is no exception to the rule that too little is known of the lifestyles of adolescents. Moreover behavioural patterns of adolescents naturally reflect the norms of their own cultural group, and in a country as diverse as this, there is a strong argument for collecting data specific to each societal group.

The research was carried out in a specific group of adolescent South Africans living in Cape Town, attending a large co-educational high-school oriented towards the needs of the Jewish population. [This school will hereafter be referred to in the text of this thesis as the "focal school"]. The study formed part of a larger body of research looking in general at the health-related lifestyles of these young people. This thesis,

however, will concentrate on the in-depth analysis of certain activities, viz.:

smoking

alcohol use and abuse

"habit-forming" drug use and abuse.

These parameters were chosen because apart from their obvious importance to the health of the subjects, they are said to reflect one of the unique features of adolescents, a love of "risk-taking" (Kibel 1986). Correlation has also been found between these aspects of behaviour and the attrition of pupils from high school (Tamir 1982) which has clear implications for both research and service planning.

The final "lifestyle" that will be presented is

sexual activity

as this is another important potential source of health impairment and also may reflect risk-taking behaviour.

Section A and Section B of the thesis will report on the methodology and results, each "lifestyle" being presented separately with some specific theoretical background and data analysis. It is important to acknowledge, however, that such behaviour should not be seen in isolation, but rather as a conglomerate of interrelated attributes (Epstein and Tamir 1984) and therefore a final section is devoted to the interrelationship of habits. This will be followed by an epidemiological critique of the study and general conclusions.

Section C of the thesis will address the second broad purpose of the research, which was to examine intervention programmes in both the school environment and total community, which might meet such needs as emerged from the analysis.

In fact, at the time when the research was done, no specific programme had been developed in the focal school to address these issues. This is not to say that there was no focus on the issues by specific teachers, but there did not appear to be any systematic policy.

The thesis was, however, completed in Palmerston North, New Zealand where children aged 11 to 13 are separated into "Intermediate Schools". It was interesting to encounter in one such school a specific programme oriented towards the issues addressed in the thesis and this has been evaluated in detail. In doing so, it is not intended to imply that the New Zealand programme would necessarily be ideal for the South African school. Even though the anomaly of freely applying programmes developed in one setting, to a second population, is well established, programmes must be specific to the social, political and cultural circumstances in which they are based. It is presented rather as an example of one approach which has been formalised.

SECTION A

CHAPTER I

METHODOLOGY

1.1 The AIM of the study from which the empirical data were obtained for this thesis, was the collection of basic demographic information and selected health related data from a group of adolescents at high-school in Cape Town.

1.2 The OBJECTIVES were :

Description of the demographic features of the pupils in Standards 8, 9 and 10 at a specific co-educational high school in Cape Town;

Determination of the prevalence of smoking, and the attitudes to, and knowledge of the health risks of smoking;

Determination of the prevalence of alcohol use, and the attitudes to, and knowledge of the health risks of consuming alcohol;

Determination of the prevalence of habit-forming drug use, and the attitudes to, and knowledge of the health risks of using drugs;

Determination of the sexual experience of the pupils, attitudes to and knowledge of the health risks of sexual activity, and knowledge of contraception and venereal disease;

Examination of whether the above habits correlated within individuals i.e. whether those who smoked were more likely to use drugs or be sexually active, and vice versa.

1.3 METHOD

This was a cross-sectional descriptive study which derived information through a confidential questionnaire.

1.3.1 Study Population

The analysis was based on a questionnaire administered to all the pupils in Standards 8, 9 and 10 (10th to 12 years of schooling) who were present at school on the designated study day.

According to the school records there were 491 pupils registered in these classes

(Standard 8 - 213, 9 - 154 and 10 - 124)

but an "epidemic of 'flu" meant that a proportion of these were absent on the day of the study; a final total of 427 were thus included (i.e. a response of 89.0% of all the scholars, and 85.9%, 95.5% and 86.3% in the three classes respectively).

Only two of the pupils who were actually present at school on the day refused to participate.

1.3.2 Study Procedure

The data were collected through a questionnaire, based directly on one validated in Israel (Tamir et al 1982).

Only minor changes were inserted to adapt it to the local setting and as it was originally written in Hebrew, it was translated idiomatically into English vernacular.

As far as possible it consisted of closed questions.

1.3.3 Pretest

Prior to the study being undertaken, the questionnaire was presented to ten local adolescents (not included in the study population) to test whether the questions were understandable and acceptable. No point of contention, or suggestions for change were proffered.

1.3.4 Acceptance of the project by the school population

A meeting was held initially with the school principal, and then the whole school staff to explain the objectives and study technique. Parents then received a letter from the school principal outlining the research and offering them the option of their children not participating; no parent refused permission. The staff then broached the matter with the pupils and explained how important it was that they cooperated and took it seriously, stressing the fact that there could be no possible individual identification of the respondents.

As confidentiality was a critical issue, this was ensured (and thus the cooperation of the pupils enhanced) by the questionnaire being anonymously completed, while the pupils sat at desks sufficiently spaced to preclude their observing the answers of others. Teachers were absent from the classroom at this time, only a member of the study team being present to answer questions, so the possibility of a teacher seeing the answers of one of his/her pupils was excluded. When completed, the questionnaire was placed by the scholar in an unmarked envelope in order to further exclude the possibility of identifying individual answers. Completion of the questionnaire took on the average 30 minutes. The data were coded by members of the study team using prepared coding instructions, and punched onto magnetic tape for processing, using the BMDP programme in the University of Cape Town Computer Centre.

1.4 QUESTIONNAIRE

1.4.1 Demographic Questions

- i) Q. What is your sex ?
A. Male/female
- ii) Q. What is your date of birth ?
- iii) Q. In which school class are you ?
A. 8/9/10
- iv) Q. In which country were you born ?
- v) Q. To which religious denomination do you belong ?
- vi) Q. Do you consider yourself to be:
A. religious
nominally religious/partially observant
non-religious
- vii) Q. Do you usually go to church/synagogue/temple/
mosque :
A. once per week
a couple of times per month
once a month
a few times per year
less than a few times per year
- viii) Q. Are you a member of a youth movement at present ?
- ix) Q. Do you have any good friends ?

- x) Q. If yes to 9, how many good friends do you have ?
- xi) Q. Do you live with your father ?
A. Yes.....his present occupation is...
no.....why not ?
- xii) Q. Do you live with your mother ?
A. Yes.....her present occupation is...
no.....why not ?
- xiii) Q. Do you live with a stepfather ?
A. Yes/no
- xiv) Q. Do you live with a stepmother ?
A. Yes/no
- xv) Q. What is your home language ?
- xvi) Q. How many rooms are there in your house ?
(excluding kitchen, bathroom and toilet)

1.4.2 Questions asked pertaining to smoking

- i) Q. Do you smoke cigarettes ?
A. no, I have never smoked cigarettes
yes, I smoke cigarettes daily : how many per day ____
yes, I sometimes smoke cigarettes, but not daily
: how many per week ____
no, I do not smoke at present, but did so
in the past and stopped
no, I tried but did not like it
- ii) Q. At what age did you begin to smoke ?

- iii) Q. Does your father smoke cigarettes ?
A. yes/no...did he smoke in the past...yes or no
- iv) Q. Does your mother smoke cigarettes ?
A. yes/no...did she smoke in the past..yes or no
- v) Q. How many of your good friends smoke cigarettes ?
- vi) Q. Where do you get your cigarettes ?
A. from parents or other family member
from friends
I buy them myself
other : whom ?

1.4.2.1 Questions reflecting attitudes to smoking

- i) Q. Why do you (or did you) smoke ?
- ii) Q. Do you feel that smoking disturbs you ?
A. yes/no
- iii) Q. Do you think that smoking should be banned in school?
A. no/yes...freely allowed
limited to special places eg a smoking room
- iv) Q. Do you think that smoking should be banned in
public places eg buses, theatre, cinema
A. yes/no

1.4.2.2 Questions reflecting knowledge of the potential harm caused by smoking

1) Q. In your opinion does cigarette smoking cause any bodily harm ?

A. no

yes...do you think the number of cigarettes smoked affects the extent or degree of harm caused ?

...yes or no

...does stopping smoking affect the extent or degree of harm caused ?

...yes or no

ii) Q. Which of the following disease conditions are known to you to be associated with cigarette smoking ?
[Please circle the appropriate answer for each disease]

A. yes/no/don't know)

cancer of lung

headache

diarrhoea

cough

diabetes

heart attack

ulcer

1.4.3 Questions pertaining to the prevalence of alcohol use

i) Q. Below is a list of drinks. Next to each one please indicate if you use them or not and the frequency

hard liquor eg whiskey or brandy

wine

beer

- A. never taken
tried once
used in past but stopped
used at present : <once per month
>once per month)

1.4.4 Questions pertaining to habit-forming drug use

i) Q. Below there is a list of drugs and medicines. Next to each one please indicate if you use them or not, and the frequency.

(Please relate to usage, not on medical instruction)

weight reducing tablets eg obex

cough mixtures

dagga LSD

cocaine heroin

glue-sniffing

petrol sniffing

mandrax

tranquillisers/sleeping tablets

A. never taken

tried once

used in past but stopped

used at present : <once per month/>once per month

ii) Q. In your opinion how many children in your school have tried to smoke dagga ?

A. no-one

very few<10%

not too many....10-40%

about half.....40-60%

>60%

1.4.5 Questions pertaining to attitudes to alcohol and drug use

i) Q. Do you think there is a problem related to drug usage in the school ?

A. yes/no/no opinion

ii) Q. Do you think it is easy to obtain drugs ?

A. yes/no/no opinion

iii) Q. If you could be certain that you would not get into trouble with the law or become addicted, would you wish to use the following drugs ?

weight reducing tablets eg obex

tranquilisers, sleeping tablets

mandrax

glue-sniffing

dagga LSD

heroin cocaine

A. yes/no/no opinion

iv) Q. In your opinion, how many children in your school would use drugs if their friends offered them to them?

A. no-one

very few<10%

not too many....10-40%

about half.....40-60%

>60%

v) Q. What is your opinion of the following sentences ?

* There is nothing wrong with smoking dagga as long as it is in moderation

* Everyone has to try drugs at least once in order to know what the effect is

* Most people who smoke dagga do so for a long time but don't go on to harder drugs

- * Weight losing drugs may cause psychological dependence
- * Many people require drugs in order to withstand the pressures they feel
- * Severe punishment of drug users will deter others from using them
- * Smoking dagga is more harmful than drinking alcohol
- * Sleeping tablets, tranquillisers or barbiturates can lead to physical and psychological dependence
- * LSD usage may cause chromosomal (gene) change
- * Most people who smoke dagga do so for a short period and then change to something stronger

A. agree/don't agree/no opinion

vi) Q. To whom would you initially turn if you ever have a problem because of drug usage ?

A.	guidance teacher	teacher
	school psychologist	school principal
	doctor	child welfare agency
	close friend	youth movement leader
	parent	other ... whom?
	minister of religion	I wouldn't turn to anyone

1.4.6 Questions pertaining to sexual issues

NB For simplicity, only the questions asked of girls with respect to their liason with boys are presented below, although boys were asked the identical questions (except where specified) regarding their experience with girls.

- i) Q. At what age did you go out alone for the first time with a boy ?
A. I haven't yet gone out alone with a boy
12 or younger/13/14/15/16/17/18
- ii) Q. At what age did you kiss and cuddle for the first time with a boy ?
A. I haven't ever/12 or younger/13/14/15/16/17/18
- iii) Q. Have you ever caressed or stroked each other over your clothes ?
A. no, I haven't
yes at age 14 or less/15/16/17/18
- iv) Q. Have you ever caressed or stroked each other under your clothes ?
A. no, I haven't
yes at age 14 or less/15/16/17/18
- v) Q. Was there contact with the sexual organs ?
A. no, I haven't
yes at age 14 or less/15/16/17/18
- vi) Q. Have you had sexual intercourse
A. I have had intercourse many times
I have had intercourse a few times
I have had intercourse once
I tried but didn't succeed to have intercourse
I have never had or tried to have intercourse

vii) Q. If you have had intercourse, how old were you the first time

A. 14 or less /15/16/17/18

viii)Q. With whom have you had intercourse ?

A. with different girls
with a steady girlfriend
with a prostitute

1.4.6.1 Pregnancy - [THIS QUESTION ASKED OF GIRLS ONLY]

i) Q. Have you ever been pregnant ?

A. never, but I thought I was
never and I never thought I was
yes..how old were you

1.4.6.2 Contraception

i) Q. What method of contraception did you use when you had intercourse ?

A. I have never used any contraceptive method
I sometimes did, and sometimes didn't use a
contraceptive method, which was...
I always used a contraceptive method, which was...

ii) Q. If you did not always use a contraceptive method, why not?

A. I didn't think of it
don't know any
don't know where to obtain
was embarrassed to obtain
was frightened it could do harm

thought my partner was doing so
didn't think of having intercourse..it just happened
it spoils the pleasure
another reason, that is

1.4.6.3 Attitudes to sexual issues

i) Regarding sexual intercourse:

Q. At what age do you think it is alright for boys
to begin ?

A. at age 16 or less
17 and over

Age is not the factor, but other things, such as.....

Q. At what age do you think it is alright for girls
to begin ?

A. at age 16 or less
17 and over

Age is not the factor, but other things, such as.....

ii) Q. In your opinion, should a girl remain a virgin until
she gets married ?

A. Yes/no/it doesn't matter

iii) Q. In your opinion, should a boy remain a "virgin"
until he gets married ?

A. Yes/no/it doesn't matter

iv) Q. In your opinion, with whom is it alright to have
sexual intercourse ?

A. Only with husband/wife after being married
with fiancée with whom you are going to get married
with a steady boyfriend/girlfriend

with a pretty girl/handsome boy if you desire to
it doesn't depend on whom - it depends on the
desire to have intercourse

v) Q. If you have had intercourse, how did you feel after
you did it for the first time ?

A. happy
anxious
guilty
embarrassed
proud
disgusted
grown up
ashamed
satisfaction & love
physical satisfaction
other...indicate what

1.4.6.4 Questions regarding knowledge of sexual matters

i) Q. What methods of contraception are known
to you ?

ii) Q. What in your opinion is the single most effective
method of contraception.....?

iii) Q. Do you know what is the first sign of pregnancy ?

A. no
yes.....

iv) Q. There are different attitudes relating to
masturbation.

What in your opinion are the possible ill effects (if
any) of masturbation ?

- A. there are no ill effects
there are ill effects; what are they.....
don't know
- v) Q. Write down the names of all the venereal diseases
(sexually transmitted diseases) that you have
heard about.
- vi) Q. Do you know how one gets a venereal disease ?
A. no
yes.....how
- vii) Q. What is the best way of preventing venereal disease ?
A. special positions in sexual intercourse
not having intercourse with an affected person
have intercourse using a condom
have intercourse with an experienced person
general hygiene before and after intercourse
other....what
don't know
- viii) Q. Do you know the signs of venereal disease ?
A. no
yes.....what
- ix) Q. Do know how venereal diseases are treated ?
A. no
yes.....how
- x) Q. Would you like to know more on the subject of sex ?
A. yes
no

- xi) Q. If you do wish to know more about sex, in what areas do you especially feel the lack ?
- A. knowledge of sexual organs and their functioning
 masturbation
 contraception
 a basis on which to decide when and with whom to have sex
 venereal (sexually transmitted) diseases
 the relationship between sex and love
 what happens during sexual intercourse
 other; what.....

1.4.6.5 Questions regarding the sources of information about sex

- i) Q. What is your major source of information regarding sex ? (one answer only)
- A. mother father brother/sister
 friends books/pamphlets doctor/nurse
 pamphlets teachers TV
 films other none
- ii) Q. In your opinion, to what extent is it important to receive sex education in school ?
- A. important
 not important
 harmful
- iii) Q. In which class in school should sex education begin ?
- A. Std 5 or before
 Std 6/7/8/9/10
 not important
 object to it

- iv) Q. In which framework should sex education be given ?
A. regular lessons
special lessons
boys and girls together
boys and girls separately
other, specify...
- v) Q. Who is the most appropriate person to give sex education in school ?
A. expert from outside
your teacher
school nurse
doctor
other, specify...
- vi) Q. Do you talk to your parents on the subject of sex ?
A. yes, with both of them
only with my mother
only with my father
with neither
my mother is dead or I don't see her
my father is dead or I don't see him
- vii) Q. Have you spoken to your parents (or one of them) on the subject of masturbation ?
A. they explained to me what it is
they warned me about it
I am embarrassed to speak to them about it
one doesn't talk about such subjects with one's parents

[THE NEXT QUESTION ASKED OF GIRLS ONLY]

ix) Q. If you think (or are certain) that you are pregnant before leaving school, to whom would you first turn for help ? (one answer)

- A. your boyfriend a girlfriend
 a guidance teacher youth movement leader
 minister of religion social worker
 school nurse doctor
 parent teacher
 school principal
 other...indicate whom
 I wouldn't turn to anyone

CHAPTER 2

DEMOGRAPHIC FEATURES

OF THE

STUDY POPULATION

2.1 AGE DISTRIBUTION

The age spread of each class is shown in table 2-A. The range was 14 to 19 years, with an overall mode of 16 years. Not unexpectedly (but worth noting in a country where many pupils only start school in their teens or receive no schooling at all), the age was directly related to the academic standard, the modes in standards 8, 9 and 10 being 16, 17 and 18 years respectively.

TABLE 2-A

AGE DISTRIBUTION

Age (years)	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10	Total
14	1	0	0	1
15	62	0	0	62
16	112	62	0	174
17	5	67	49	121
18	0	7	58	65
19	0	1	0	1
Total	183	137	107	427

The fall in numbers with successive standards is interesting. Although no specific study of this aspect was undertaken, several staff members and scholars were asked informally what they thought the reason for this might be; almost uniformly they suggested that pupils leave the school in the senior forms to attend "cram" colleges with advertised records of success in the all-important matriculation examination. In addition there is a known attrition rate for academic and other reasons.

According to Epstein and Tamir (1984), premature school "dropout" is strongly associated with destructive life-styles, and if this were to apply in this school this represents a major potential source of bias. This will be discussed further in the epidemiological critique of the study.

2.2 SEX DISTRIBUTION

Overall 50,1% of the respondents were male and 49,9% female. This varied, however in each standard, with the percentage of males dropping as academic standard increased (table 2-B).

The remarks made above with respect to "dropout" may well apply in this instance too ie perhaps the pressure on boys to gain high marks and achieve in their careers exceeded that put on the girls, or maybe they had a higher prevalence of "destructive life styles".

Again the source of bias is obvious, but as those who had left school could not easily be contacted, this aspect was not systematically studied and can only be left to conjecture. This will be discussed with respect to inter-sex differences later.

TABLE 2-B

SEX DISTRIBUTION

	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10	Total
Male (%)	55,6	49,6	41,5	50,1
Female (%)	44,4	50,4	58,5	49,9

2.3 NATIONALITY AND RELIGION

Southern Africa (including Zimbabwe) was the country of birth of 93,1% of the respondents, and 92,0% of their parents. The others came from a wide variety of countries including North America, Israel and Europe.

English was the home language in 96,1%, Afrikaans in 1,3% and Hebrew in 1,6%.

Judaism was the accepted faith of 94,8% (reflecting the cultural basis of the school).

3,3% were Christians and 1 scholar was a Moslem.

When asked directly whether they perceived themselves as religious, only 3,3% felt they were, while the majority (78%) felt that they were "nominally religious or partially observant" and 18,0% that they were actually non-religious.

In keeping with this, only 15,4% attended formal religious services once or more times per week, 19,9% once or twice a month, 63,1% a few times per year, and 1,3% never took part in such services.

2.4 ASPECTS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION

2.4.1 Youth movements

Just over half (50,3%) were members of such groups. These were not specified but would include both the traditional specifically Jewish movements such as Habonim and Bnei Akiva, and more general ones such as Boy Scouts and Girl Guides.

A further 37,0% had been members, half of these for more than 2 years. Thus only 12,4% of the scholars had never belonged to such a movement.

2.4.2 Good friends

When asked specifically how many "good friends" they had, only 2,0% answered one, 25,7% two to three, 35,2% four to five and 36,2% six or more. Only 3 pupils felt that they had no such friends.

2.4.3 Family structure

One percent had stepmothers while 97,4% lived with their own mothers; only 1,6% thus lived without a maternal influence. In contrast, only 84,5% lived with their fathers, and a further 5,3% had stepfathers, leaving 10,2% without a father in the home.

This may reflect both the usual South African divorce legislation (which generally awards custody to the mother) and the earlier mortality of adult men in comparison with women.

A total of 11,8% can be seen to have come from single parent families.

2.5 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CLASS

This is always a difficult variable to assess, and in this instance it was based on two parameters :

the occupation of head of household
and
the number of living rooms in their homes.

The social class could be estimated directly from the former using the standard grading of the British Registrar General (as modified for South Africa), while the latter provided additional support for this conclusion.

The occupation-related socio-economic class is shown in Table 2-C.

TABLE 2-C

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CLASS

Class	% of respondents
I	53,8
II	26,1
III	13,7
IV	2,0
V	1,7
unemployed	1,4
student	1,3

This class is remarkably high in comparison with the general population, but not unexpected in a private fee-paying school.

SECTION B

CHAPTER 3

SMOKING

INTRODUCTION

Smoking is the most widely practiced addiction in Western culture. Sanctioned by society for many centuries, general approval for the habit has diminished somewhat in recent years. Many detailed scientific reports have summarised the ill-effects of smoking on health; the evidence that it is harmful is so strong, that several countries (including New Zealand) are restricting public cigarette advertising and many have legislated that each packet of cigarettes sold should carry a warning of its potentially adverse effects. In 1986 the South African authorities followed suit with the latter.

Adolescents continue to take up smoking and are in fact said to be the "fastest growing group of smokers" (Van Roosmalen and McDaniel, 1989). It is estimated that there are 3 million smokers under the age of 18 years in the USA who spend US\$1,26 billion on tobacco annually, even though cigarette sales to children under 16 years are illegal in 43 states (Altman et al 1989). Attention has been drawn, somewhat cynically, to the US\$327 million dollars that the American government earns in tax on these sales each year, far more than is spent on anti-smoking programmes (DiFranza and Tye 1990).

3.1 PREVALENCE OF SMOKING

The prevalence of smoking in the various categories defined by the questionnaire is shown in Table 3-A. Smokers were subdivided according to those who smoked >20/day, 11-20/day and <10/day, and then < or > 10/week.

It can be seen that few of the pupils smoked really heavily, only one admitting to smoke >20/day. However, a relatively large number (13.1%) smoked daily, and another 17.7% regularly but less than daily. A total of 30.8% of the pupils are thus regular smokers.

TABLE 3-A

PREVALENCE OF SMOKING

Whole group (number 410)

	%
Current smokers :	
Daily : 21 or more per day	0,3
Daily : 11-20 per day	2,6
Daily : up to 10 per day	10,2
not daily	
: >10 /week	5,9
<10 /week	11,8
Subtotal	30,8
Past smoker :	
: since stopped	9,9
: tried it and didn't like it	16,8
Subtotal	26,7
Never smoked	42,5

3.2 Prevalence of smoking by age and gender

It was clearly important to look at the prevalence in more detail, and table 3-B introduces the variables of age and gender into the equation. As numbers in some groups were small. for the purpose of calculation, present smokers were grouped together, as were all past-smokers.

Overall more girls smoke than boys (62,0% vs 49,8% have ever smoked) and this is particularly true of the younger age groups (36,7% of 14 and 15 year-olds currently smoke vs 6,1% of boys of the same age).

Although the prevalence can be seen to increase with age in both sexes, the earlier start of the girls means that the prevalence changes little after the age of 14-15 years, while that in boys increases to only reach a plateau at 16 years.

TABLE 3-A

PREVALENCE OF SMOKING

	Age			Total
	14-15	16	17-18	
males				
number	33	91	81	205
Current smokers(%)	6,1	24,2	25,9	22,0
Past smokers (%)	24,2	27,5	29,6	27,8
Never smoked (%)	69,7	48,3	44,5	50,2
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

TABLE 3-A (continued)

PREVALENCE OF SMOKING

	Age			Total
	14-15	16	17-18	
females				
number	30	79	96	205
Current smokers(%)	36,7	31,6	42,7	37,6
Past smokers (%)	24,0	27,8	22,9	24,4
Never smoked (%)	43,3	40,5	34,4	38,0
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

3.3 AGE AT WHICH SMOKING STARTED

Of critical importance to school curriculum planners is the age at which smoking commences and this is shown in table 3-C. Although the results are biased by the fact that not all children have reached the higher age groups, and therefore more may still start smoking at an older age, it is clear that many children do start smoking even before they enter high school.

TABLE 3-C

AGE AT WHICH SMOKING STARTED

Age	% of smokers
<12	0,9
12	4,3
13	12,3
14	31,6
15	34,4
16	12,3
>16	4,2
Total	100,0

3.4 PARENTAL PATTERNS

The prevalence of smoking among parents is shown in table 3-D. Although significantly more fathers have ever smoked, a greater percentage of them have stopped, and at the time of the study the prevalence was similar in mothers and fathers.

TABLE 3-D

PARENTAL SMOKING HABITS

	Fathers (n=405)	Mothers (n=410)	Both parents (n=815)
Present smokers (%)	27,9	30,7	29,3
Past smokers	43,0	26,6	34,8
Never smoked	29,1	42,7	35,9
	100,0	100,0	100,0

Chi-squared (between mothers and fathers) = 26,7 P <0,001

3.4.1 The relationship between the smoking habits of children and their parents

This relationship is examined in table 3-E. There appears to be a clear link between the smoking habits of sons and their fathers as 33,3% of boys whose fathers smoke, smoke at present while this is true of only 10,9% of those whose fathers have never smoked.

Conversely, although there was a difference in prevalence between the daughters of smoking and non-smoking fathers (41,3% of girls whose fathers smoke, smoke at present; vs 32,1% of those whose fathers do not smoke), this did not reach statistical significance.

Although the smoking patterns of mothers were not found to exert a statistically significant effect on the smoking patterns of their children, again the difference was far greater in the boys (27,8% of smoking, and 14,1% of non-smoking boys had smoking mothers) than in the girls (29,6% of smokers vs 37,9% of non-smokers).

TABLE 3-E

RELATIONSHIP OF PARENTS' SMOKING HABITS
TO PREVALENCE OF SMOKING IN SCHOLARS

	Father's smoking habits			*	Father's smoking habits		
	Present	Past	Never	*	Present	Past	Never
	Males			*	Females		
Scholars'				*			
Smoking habits				*			
Present (%)	33,3	21,9	10,9	*	32,1	35,7	41,3
Past	23,3	34,1	21,8	*	30,2	25,0	17,4
Never	43,3	44,0	67,3	*	37,7	39,3	41,3
	100,0	100,0	100,0	*	100,0	100,0	100,0
number	60	91	55	*	53	84	63
	Chi-squared = 13,4			*	no statistically		
	P<0,01			*	significant difference		
	Mother's smoking habits			*	Mother's smoking habits		
	Present	Past	Never	*	Present	Past	Never
	MALES			*	FEMALES		
Scholars'				*			
Smoking habits				*			
Present (%)	27,8	27,1	14,1	*	29,6	44,3	37,9
Past	25,0	25,0	31,8	*	30,2	25,0	17,4
Never	47,2	47,9	54,1	*	37,0	34,3	41,1
	100,0	100,0	100,0	*	100,0	100,0	100,0
number	72	48	85	*	54	61	90
	no statistically			*	no statistically		
	significant difference			*	significant difference		

3.5 SMOKING HABITS OF PEERS

Far stronger than the influence of parents, however, was the influence of peers. Smokers were far more likely to have smoking friends than non-smokers (Table 3-F) and this was true of both boys and girls.

TABLE 3-F

RELATIONSHIP OF SMOKING HABITS OF FRIENDS TO PREVALENCE OF SMOKING

	Number of friends who smoke			
	0	1-2	3-4	>4
Males				
Present smokers (%)	3,7	23,9	39,3	56,8
Past smokers	22,2	41,3	25,0	18,9
Never smoked	74,1	34,8	35,7	24,3
	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
number	81	46	28	37
Chi-squared = 56,1				
P<0,001				
Females				
Present smokers (%)	7,3	31,1	67,6	72,3
Past smokers	22,1	42,2	17,6	14,9
Never smoked	70,6	26,7	14,8	12,8
	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
number	68	45	34	47
Chi-squared = 81,4				
P<0,001				

3.6 SOURCE OF CIGARETTES

The strong link with peer influence can be seen, too, in the source of cigarettes, these being obtained from friends by 45,5% of smokers, a further 41,4% buying their own cigarettes and only 9,7% being given them by their parents.

DISCUSSION

Low Smoking has aroused controversy almost since the time Sir Walter Raleigh introduced it to the Western world. Indeed, James I, who was king of England in the latter part of Raleigh's life, is reputed to have commented that the habit is "... loathsome to the eye, hateful to the nose, harmful to the brain, dangerous to the lungs and in the black, stinking fume thereof, nearest resembling the horrible Stygian smoke of the pit that is bottomlesse " (Royal College of Physicians, 1983).

Yet people continue to smoke, with tremendous costs to their health and the national economy. The prevalence among South African adults is reputed to be even higher than in other Western countries (Yach 1984) and three diseases which are linked directly with smoking (ischaemic heart disease, chronic obstructive lung disease and carcinoma of the lung) account for 40% of the deaths of South African males in the "economically active" age group of 15 to 64 years (Wyndham 1982); the mortality from lung cancer appears to be increasing (Bradshaw & Harrington 1975), and in Coloureds is said to be among the highest in the world (Yach 1984).

As many smokers start even before they reach their teens, children and adolescents are clearly a prime target group for anti-smoking programmes. In this respect the results from this study are alarming. At the ages of 17 or 18 years only 44,5% of the boys and 34,4% of the girls at the school had never smoked and although still in their teens, many of the smokers had been smoking for several years, just under half (49,1%) having started at the age of 14 or less.

Can At all ages, but particularly in the younger age groups, the habit was more common among girls than boys, and this is interesting as adult South African males are reputed to smoke more than females (Van Der Burgh 1978).

The adolescent is emphatically focussed on the peer group where he/she is struggling to gain entry and acceptance. Thus it is not surprising that the smoking habits of friends so strongly influenced the prevalence. This is in keeping with the recent research of Van Roosmalen and McDaniel (1989). On the other hand, adolescents still maintain the dependence of a child on parents and other adults, and a further important influence was exerted by the practices of parents, particularly those of fathers on their sons. In this respect it may be possible to link the lower prevalence in boys with the fact that many of the fathers are now ex-smokers. Great pressure is being laid in the lay press and on television on cardiovascular health, and almost all is orientated toward the male in society. It is interesting to reflect on how this may affect the prevalence of both the girls and their mothers.

This survey thus provided a great deal of information on which to base the development of rational preventive strategies.

CHAPTER 4

USE OF ALCOHOL

INTRODUCTION

Alcohol abuse is so well known to have deleterious effects on health, that there is really no need to elaborate on the dangers of this habit and its obvious effect on both morbidity and mortality. While it has been stressed in the literature that the use of alcohol frequently starts in adolescence (Tamir et al 1982, Epstein & Tamir 1984), school children have rarely been studied (Beattie et al 1986, Argus 1986) and there is no formal study of its prevalence among South African adolescents. The research presented in this chapter attempts to fill this striking hiatus.

4.1 PREVALENCE OF BEER DRINKING

Overall, 76,1% of the pupils had ever drunk beer and 37,7% drink it regularly (Table 4-A).

Drinking of this beverage appears to start early, its prevalence in boys being 84,2% at 16 years, rising to a peak of 92,9% at 17 years.

At all ages, the prevalence is significantly lower in girls than in boys ($p < 0,001$), although as for the boys it is highest at

17 years (68,3%), and then drops to 54,5% at 18.

TABLE 4-A

PREVALENCE OF BEER DRINKING

	Frequency of drinking (whole group)				
	never	once only	previous use	<once /month	>once /month
%	23,9	31,8	3,3	23,9	13,8

Influence of sex and age

	Males				Females			
	<16	17	>18	all	<16	17	>18	all
Ever Used (%)	84,2	92,9	87,1	87,0	65,7	68,3	54,5	64,7

Chi-squared =27,7, P <0,0001 (between the total groups)

4.2 PREVALENCE OF WINE DRINKING

Wine had been drunk by 82,6% at some time and there was no statistically significant difference between the sexes. A total of 55,0% drank wine regularly, 18,0% more than once per month and 37,0% less than once monthly.

Girls differed from boys only in the continued increase in the prevalence of wine drinking as they got older (a rise between the ages of 17 and 18 years of 90,7% to 97,2%) in comparison with the boys who reached a peak of 90,7% at the age of 17 years.

TABLE 4-B

PREVALENCE OF WINE DRINKING

	Frequency of drinking (whole group)				
	never	once only	previous use	<once /month	>once /month
%	17,4	24,4	2,6	37,0	18,6

Influence of sex and age

Ages	Males				Females			
	<16	17	>18	all	<16	17	>18	all
Ever Used (%)	85,0	90,7	83,8	86,3	73,3	90,7	97,2	82,9

Chi-squared = 7,9, P > 0,05 (between the total groups)

Difference not statistically significant

4.3 PREVALENCE OF THE DRINKING OF SPIRITS

As a group, 57,0% of the pupils had ever drunk spirits (68,0% of the boys and 42,3% of the girls) (table 4-C), the lower proportion of girls "drinking" being consistent at all ages, and the intersexual difference being statistically significant. Moreover, although the prevalence rises steadily with age in both sexes, the increase can be seen to be much greater in girls than in boys (26,9% vs 3,8% between the ages of 16 and 18 years).

Of those who admitted to drinking "hard" liquor, only 20.4% used it regularly, the minority (2,0%) more than once per month. 30,8% used it once only, and 18,4% less than once monthly.

TABLE 4-C

PREVALENCE OF SPIRITS DRINKING

	Frequency of drinking (whole group)				
	never	once only	previous use	<once /month	>once /month
%	43,0	30,8	3,3	18,4	2,0

Influence of sex and age

Ages	Males				Females			
	<16	17	>18	all	<16	17	>18	all
Ever Used (%)	67,2	67,9	71,0	68,0	32,1	50,8	59,0	42,3

Chi-squared =27,6, P <0,0001 (between the total groups)

DISCUSSION

In this study, alcohol was the commonest "drug" used, far in excess of dagga and other drugs (see Chapter 5).

It is interesting, and perhaps supports the validity of the findings, that the overall prevalence of alcohol use was highest in boys, particularly beer (a peak of 92,9% vs 68,3%), while spirits were more commonly consumed by girls. Could this relate to the macho image popularised commercially of the male sportsman/outdoor type "swilling" beer, while spirits are portrayed as having more "class", and so attractive to the young female trying to appear daring and sophisticated ?

A special word is necessary for wine, a beverage that had been drunk by 82,6% of the pupils at some time, with little difference between sexes. While part of this may result from the cheap availability of wine in this part of the country, so famous for its viniculture, it must be stressed that almost all children in the study were Jewish, and wine is part of the religious custom in Jewish homes on Sabbath evenings. The implications of wine use, thus may differ from that of the other alcoholic drinks.

Alcohol use is, somewhat paradoxically, a sanctioned and integral part of our society. According to the South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence (SANCA), at the time this research was carried out in 1986, 90,7% of white males and 75,9% of white females were said to drink alcohol regularly. At the time of the study too, there were said to be 353,000 alcoholics in South Africa, the overall rate of 2,4% being slightly higher than the 1,9% in Britain and 2,2% of the USA; the annual cost to the state as a result of alcohol abuse was said in 1986 to be in excess of R1200 million annually (SANCA 1986).

The proportion of regular drinkers who abuse alcohol, is dependent on a number of complex factors including social class (Gillis et al 1965); in South Africa for example although only 60,2% of Coloured males are said to use alcohol, 5,3% (or about 1/12) are said to abuse drink (i.e. >10ml pure alcohol daily) compared with 3,2% or 1/30 of the Whites.

Fewer accurate data are available relating to alcohol use and abuse by children. In England and Wales approximately 1000 drunk children <15 yrs are admitted to hospital annually with acute alcoholic intoxication (Beattie et al 1986). In Perth, Western Australia, a survey of 800 high school children showed that 54,6% use alcohol occasionally, 10,8% weekly and 1,3% daily (Argus 1986). Clearly more data of this type are required, as

well as information regarding the number of adolescent drinkers who become dependent on alcohol, what factors affect this, and how even moderate alcohol use might affect performance.

Finally, a detailed analysis was undertaken of the attitudes of the adolescents to alcohol, and the resources they would call on if they felt they had a problem. As much of this refers to both alcohol and drugs, it will be addressed comprehensively in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5

USE OF DAGGA AND OTHER DRUGS

INTRODUCTION

When future historians study contemporary society, one of the more perplexing issues to be addressed will be the "explosive increase in the non-medical use of drugs that occurred in the seventh and eighth decades of this century" (Nicholi 1984). Adolescents are well known to have been key participators in this epidemic.

In South Africa, the little information presently available regarding the prevalence of habit-forming drug (henceforth referred to as "drug") abuse, pertains largely to university students (Herr & Morley 1972, Simon 1982, Levin et al 1982, Levin 1984, Ben-Arie 1984, Goedecke & Hansen 1984, Trakoshis et al 1986) and other adults (Van Der Burgh 1975, Ben-Arie 1984, Du Toit 1980, Van Der Burgh 1984).

Many of these studies stress that use of these agents frequently starts in adolescence, yet school children have been studied only rarely (Du Toit 1980). To a certain degree, therefore, this study breaks new ground in South Africa.

Although the pupils were questioned as to the use of a large variety of non-prescription drugs (including weight reducing tablets, cough mixtures, dagga, LSD, cocaine, heroin, glue-sniffing, petrol sniffing, mandrax, and other

tranquillisers and sleeping tablets) only 1 had used heroin, 2 cocaine or LSD and 7 Mandrax (methaqualone), and while there were 18 reports of sniffing glue and 13 of petrol, in only a few instances was the use of any of these regular. The only agent which was used both frequently or regularly was thus dagga (cannabis), and the balance of this discussion will thus be limited to this drug.

5.1 PREVALENCE OF DAGGA USE

A total of 26,6% of pupils of all ages had used dagga at some time (table 5-A), 8,2% only once. In contrast, 2,6% admitted to using the drug more than once per month. Age and sex appeared to affect the prevalence which rose significantly with age in both sexes. Overall more girls have ever used dagga than boys (24,6% vs 20,3%), and this difference is most marked at the age of 17 years when the prevalence was found to be 16,7% in boys and 30,6% in girls. However over the age of 18 years, more boys have used the drug (41,9% vs 35,3%).

TABLE 5-A

USE OF DAGGA

Prevalence and frequency of use

% of group as a whole (number = 417)				
never	once only	regularly but stopped	previously < once /month	> once /month
73,4	8,2	5,2	7,5	2,6

TABLE 5-A (continued)

USE OF DAGGA

Influence of gender and age

	Males				Females			
	<16	17	>18	All	<16	17	>18	All
Number	125	56	30	211	107	23	76	206
Ever used (%)	16,4	16,7	41,9	20,3	17,3	30,6	35,3	24,6

Chi-squared =10,6, p<0,01

Chi-squared =6,4, p<0,05

5.2 PUPILS' ASSESSMENT OF DRUG USE IN THE SCHOOL

Obviously a critical issue was whether the scholars had reported the questionnaire honestly. Although we believed that, given the measures to ensure confidentiality, there was little advantage for the respondent in either concealing or falsely claiming drug use, some confirmation of validity was sought by asking the scholars to give their estimate of the prevalence of dagga use (Table 5-B).

The mode overall was an estimate of between 10 and 39%, precisely where the admitted prevalence fell.

The girls actually put the prevalence a little higher with a mode (41,6%) estimating the prevalence at between 40 and 59%. This may reflect the greater use of dagga by girls than boys (Table 5-A).

No respondent estimated the prevalence as zero, and 27,8% of the boys and 53,5% of the girls guessed that the prevalence exceeded 40%.

It is interesting that with increasing age, more pupils estimated the prevalence higher e.g. of those under 16 years 31,7% of the boys and 14,3% of the girls estimated the prevalence at < 10% ; at the age of > 18 years, only 10% of the boys and 2,9% of the girls thought this figure was realistic, and more of the scholars guessed in the higher range. There was a significant difference between the estimates of the younger and older scholars, for both boys and girls (chi-squared = 37,2 and 39,3 respectively, $P < 0,01$ in both instances).

TABLE 5-B

SCHOLARS' OPINION REGARDING THE PREVALENCE OF DAGGA USE

AGE	Males				Females			
	<16	17	>18	All	<16	17	>18	All
Number	125	56	30	211	107	23	76	206
Estimate of Prevalence								
None	no scholars held this opinion							
<10%	31,7	21,4	10,0	25,9	14,3	11,1	2,9	11,4
10-39%	41,3	57,1	46,7	46,2	39,1	31,7	29,4	35,1
40-60%	25,4	19,6	33,3	25,0	36,2	46,0	50,0	41,6
>60%	1,6	1,8	10,0	2,8	10,5	11,1	17,7	11,9

5.3 EFFECT OF EXPERIENCE WITH DAGGA ON PREVALENCE ESTIMATE

These estimates were further examined with respect to the dagga use of the respondents (Table 5-C).

It was interesting that there was a significant difference between the opinions of those who had, and hadn't used dagga, with the former estimating the prevalence far higher (mode 40-59% vs 10-39% for non-users).

This seems to support the validity of the estimates.

TABLE 5-C

INFLUENCE OF DRUG EXPERIENCE ON PREVALENCE ESTIMATE

	Never used	Ever used
	315	103
Estimate of prevalence (%)		
None	no scholars held this opinion	
<10%	24,8	1,9
10-39%	41,9	36,9
40-60%	28,3	47,6
>60%	5,1	13,6

Chi-squared = 38,88

P < 0,01

DISCUSSION

In America, 16% of high school leavers are said to have tried cocaine, and other agents like "angel dust"(phencyclidine), and "acid" (lysergic acid diethylamine or LSD) have been used with alarming regularity (Nicholi 1984). In our study, the

prevalence of habit-forming drug abuse, other than dagga, was generally low. This rather fortunate phenomenon has been observed previously among South African youth (Ben-Arie 1984) and been attributed to our relatively small market, distance from main world centres and strict laws.

The herb *Cannabis Sativa L.*, on the other hand, grows in South Africa, and is thus freely and cheaply available, its purchase within the means of even the least wealthy pupils. It has been cultivated for centuries, mainly for the production of hemp from the fibres of its stem. Its principal psycho-active ingredient, 9-tetrahydro-cannabinol, is found in the leaves and flowering top, and it is these, after drying, which are made into dagga (or marijuana, grass, pot, dope, hashish, or any of the other names under which it is known "on the street").

There is archeological evidence to suggest that it was being used regularly in Southern Africa for its "mood altering" effects, long before the arrival of the White man. In his diary of 1658, Jan Van Riebeeck was the first to refer to it officially as "daccha", when he described it (in Dutch) as "a dry powder that the Hottentots eat and which makes them drunk". The term, dagga, which is peculiar to South Africa, is said to be derived from the Khoi word "*daXa-b*", which means tobacco (Du Toit 1980). The first scientific contribution to the South African medical literature in this regard was a thesis entitled "The smoking of dagga (Indian Hemp) among the native races of South Africa, and the resultant evils" presented to the University of Edinburgh by C J G Bourhill in 1913 (Neethling 1984). The passage of time has seemed to temper the attitude of health authorities little, and 70 years later, Dr C Van Der Merwe, then Minister of Health, claimed rather melodramatically: "Dagga constitutes South Africa's major illicit drug problem" and described it as "the assassin of Western civilisation" (Van Der Merwe 1984).

Before debating the results further it is important to address

the fact that, in contrast to alcohol and tobacco, (whose harmful effects are without dispute), in recent years the argument has been voiced that dagga is relatively safe from a health perspective. Thus, if one is to suggest an intervention programme, it is essential to establish convincingly that dagga is potentially harmful.

Dagga is certainly not without demonstrable physiological and pathological effects :

in the acute setting, the response of the cardiovascular system is reminiscent of that seen with stress, viz. tachycardia and mild hypertension, and this may in itself be hazardous, particularly in people with underlying heart disease (Graham 1976);

evidence continues to accumulate that long-term use impairs lung function; a single "joint" contains more than twice as much tar as a cigarette, and this is aggravated by the technique of deep inhalation adopted so frequently by users;

carcinogenic hydrocarbons, such as benzpyrene, are said to be 70% more common in marijuana smoke than in tobacco smoke (Nahas 1984);

the most striking effects are, predictably, found in the central nervous system: short-term memory, learning and academic performance may be adversely affected, and this impairs oral communication, all serious problems for a high-school student;

reports of acute psychosis are frequent, the typical syndrome being that of rapidly resolving hypomania, with hallucinations and delusions in a proportion of cases (Ben-Arie 1984);

a particularly worrying phenomenon is the so-called "amotivational syndrome", comprising apathy, loss of ambition and deterioration in intellectual performance (Schankula 1984);

finally, there is some evidence suggesting that dagga contributes materially to the high incidence of motor vehicle accidents in the young in America (1); "first time", and irregular users may be particularly implicated in this, especially when it is coupled with alcohol (Schankula 1984);

A point of particular debate, is whether the drug is "addictive". This term is often used loosely and incorrectly, and preferable terms are (American Psychiatric Association 1980):

abuse - the use of a drug for at least one month with a pattern of pathological use, eg. daytime intoxication with impairment in functioning;

dependence - a state of "tolerance" - symptoms of withdrawal ensue if drug use ceases.

Frequent clinical reports attest to the development of *psychological* dependence (Graham 1976, Nahas 1984, Ben-Arie 1984, Schankula 1984) and many believe that tolerance and *physical* dependence occur, particularly with daily use (Schankula 1984). Of importance, 56% of institutionalised, (and thus heavy dagga smokers), perceive themselves as *addicted* to the drug (Le Roux & Botha 1984).

It seems apparent therefore that there is little room for debate: the use of dagga is injurious to the health.

The prevalence of "ever-use" of dagga found in this study of

upper-middle class adolescents was 26,6%, and approximately one in ten of the users did so on a regular and frequent basis. This does appear at least marginally lower than America, where, in 1981, 59,5% of school leavers had tried the drug (Nicholi 1984), the comparable group in this study being the 18 year olds, who had a prevalence of 41,9% among boys and 35,3% among girls. Comparisons are most appropriate, however, when there are geographical and cultural similarities, and relatively few studies on this subject have been carried out in South Africa. One of the reasons why so little epidemiological research has been done in this important field, is the stringent requirements of Section 13 of The Abuse of Dependence-producing Substances, and Rehabilitation Centres Act, No. 41 of 1971, which provides, inter alia, for the "detention of people who have knowledge of illicit drug peddling". This and other sections have been interpreted to mean that not only the researcher could be guilty of an offence, but there can be no guarantee of confidentiality for the subjects (Simon 1982). This has placed an unfortunate limitation on an important area of investigation.

The one group in whom the prevalence of dagga use has been studied in some detail has been university students. In 1971 the prevalence of "ever usage" among students at the University of Cape Town in 1971 was found to be 21%, the figure of 2,4% for regular dagga smokers being almost identical to the finding in the present study (Ben-Arie 1984). The following year, Herr and Morley (1972) suggested that the prevalence at the University of the Witwatersrand was very similar (22,1%), and little change appeared to take place in the next 10 years according to the later study of Simon (1982) in the same institution. All these figures are strikingly close to the findings in the present study, both for ever-use and regular smoking.

Interestingly, all of the other studies have been among medical students, and the prevalence has been higher e.g. Levin (1982, 1984) found a prevalence of approximately 15% in the first year

of study at the University of the Witwatersrand in 1981 and 1983, increasing to 44% in final year (by which time 24% were "regular users"). Subsequently, in the University of Cape Town Medical School, Hansen and Goedecke in 1984, and Trakoshis et al in 1986, reported prevalences of "ever-use" between 28% and 43%, with only a marginal increase from first to final year.

Outside of tertiary educational institutions, the prevalence in South African Whites actually appears to be slightly lower, although of a similar dimension. Two studies in young adult Whites, both by the Human Sciences Research Council, reported prevalences of "ever-use" of 20,1% (Van Der Burgh 1975) and 18,1% (Van Der Burgh 1984).

A consistent finding in the research in this field is that dagga use usually starts in high school, and in many instances in primary school (Van Der Burgh 1984). Yet only one study has previously studied this drug in healthy schoolchildren, i.e. Du Toit (1980) who studied 1150 high school students of all population groups in Durban, and found that 14% of whites had used dagga, 12% of Coloureds and 19% of Asians.

The data from the present study thus approximate those reported regularly in South African first year university students during the past 15 years. Conversely, it is substantially higher than that found in Du Toit's study, the only other carried out in White schoolchildren. This may, however, reflect any of the many differences between the two populations studied (the geographical location of the study is one only), or the time that has elapsed between these two studies.

An important question that must be considered, and which will be addressed further in Chapter 8, is whether the responses to the questionnaire are a reflection of the true events. In the first instance some corroboration of their validity comes from their similarity to those published by other authors. Even though these have mainly been in university students and not

scholars, there is some rationale for comparing them in that dagga use is said to commonly start at school (Louw & Vermeulen 1974, Van Der Burgh & Heaven 1979, Nicholi 1984, Du Toit 1980), and furthermore >90% of Americans who were smoking dagga at school, continued after leaving for at least four years (Nicholi 1984).

Further support comes from the focal school pupils' own perception of the prevalence, the overall mode (40,8% of the pupils) being an estimate of between 10 and 40%. The higher perception among the users themselves is interesting. While this may merely reflect the norm within which the users congregate, it may also conversely point to the admitted prevalence being an underestimate. It certainly implies that the prevalence is no lower than claimed by the pupils in response to the questionnaire.

This chapter has thus dealt in some detail with dagga use among this group of adolescents, more than a quarter of whom admitted to having tried the drug, and more than 1/40 of whom use it on a regular basis. As will be discussed in Chapter 8, the weight of evidence indicates that dagga use is harmful to the health, and addictive, particularly if used regularly. It seems appropriate to support the viewpoint of the Addiction Research Foundation of Canada viz: "Research has demonstrated that it is undesirable for our society to condone or encourage the use of a drug that obviously has many undesirable effects" (Schankula 1984). There are thus persuasive arguments for intervention to prevent dagga use among adolescents.

CHAPTER 6

KNOWLEDGE OF, & ATTITUDES TO THE USE OF

CIGARETTES, ALCOHOL and DRUGS

INTRODUCTION

Prevalence measurements are the basis of rational health planning and the data presented thus far give a comprehensive picture of the use of cigarettes, alcohol and drugs. In a study such as this, however, in which intervention was a stated priority, it was just as important to gauge the knowledge of the scholars of the potential harm of these agents, and the attitudes of both the "users" and "non-users" to their use.

6.1 ATTITUDES TO SMOKING

6.1.1 Why do you (or did you) smoke ?

This was an open question so that individuals would be able to respond freely. This naturally made it difficult to code so the answers were grouped into various sub-categories (Table 6-A) Although about a third of the answers could not be classified in this way, it is interesting to note that while few admitted to smoking to impress or copy others, 19,8% claimed "social reasons" as a basis. It is noteworthy that just under half indicated that they smoke for reasons of personal pleasure or relaxation.

TABLE 6-A

REASONS GIVEN FOR STARTING SMOKING

% of past or present smokers

Social reasons	19,8
To look masculine/feminine	
To impress	1,4
To look older	
To copy others	1,4
I like it	
It satisfies me	44,4
It relaxes me	
Other	33,0

6.1.2 Do you feel that smoking disturbs you ?

It is interesting that 37,2% of smokers felt that others smoking actually disturbed them. It is hard to understand this apparent anomaly.

The question was not asked of non-smokers so it is not known how many of these would have answered in the affirmative. In retrospect the question should indeed have been asked of them.

6.1.3 Do you think that smoking should be banned in school?
and

Do you think that smoking should be banned in public places?

Although few pupils felt that smoking should be freely allowed in school, only 37,3% of smokers felt it should be banned, the majority favouring its restriction to specific places. In contrast 77,9% of the non-smokers favoured banning the habit totally in school.

Similarly, 40,8% of smokers suggested that smoking should be allowed in public places such as buses and cinemas, versus only 15,1% of those not presently smoking.

Statistically significant differences in attitudes in this respect were apparent between smokers and both past- or non-smokers (Chi-squared = 33,04 and 38.71 respectively, $P < 0,001$ in both instances) (table 6-B).

TABLE 6.B

ATTITUDES OF PUPILS TO SMOKING IN SCHOOL AND PUBLIC PLACES

	smokers	ex-smokers	non-smokers	all
number	125	109	185	398
Smoking in schools				
Banned	37,3	73,1	80,7	65,8
allowed	2,5	1,9	1,7	2,0
limited	60,2	25,0	17,6	32,2
Smoking in public places				
Banned	59,2	83,5	86,5	77,6
allowed	40,8	16,5	13,5	22,4

6.2 **QUESTIONS REFLECTING KNOWLEDGE of the POTENTIAL
HARM CAUSED by SMOKING**

As many interventive programmes give information only, several questions addressed the critical issue of how much the pupils knew of the potential harm of smoking.

6.2.1 **In your opinion does cigarette smoking cause any
bodily harm ?**

In general terms almost all respondents, whether smoker or not, considered the habit harmful to the health. The only statistically significant difference between the perceptions of present smokers and others, was about whether the number of cigarettes smoked affects the amount of harm caused; only 78,9% of smokers believing this is so, vs 95,1% of non-smokers ($P < 0,001$).

Conversely, approximately equal numbers of smokers and others felt that the damage could be modified by stopping smoking (70,2% of smokers and 64,5% of the others).

6.2.2 **Association of smoking and disease**

To further examine their knowledge, the pupils were then given a list of 7 common medical problems (carcinoma of the lung, cough, heart attack, ulcer, diarrhoea, headache and diabetes) and asked whether these could be caused by smoking.

The pupils had considerable insight into the ways in which smoking caused disease, the relationship with cancer of the lung being known by 93,3%, with cough by 95,8% and with heart attack by 76,6%. Conversely, only 3,5% thought smoking caused diabetes and 3,1% diarrhoea.

The only correct disease relationship that the pupils were less aware of was with gastro-intestinal ulcer, only 32,2% acknowledging the link.

Headache was attributed to smoking by 28,1%.

What was most important, however, was that there was no difference in any aspects of this knowledge between present, past or non-smokers.

6.3 QUESTIONS REFLECTING ATTITUDES TO DRUG &
ALCOHOL USE & KNOWLEDGE OF THE HARMFUL EFFECTS

As this part of the questionnaire was planned before it was known that alcohol and dagga were the only drugs to be used in sufficient amounts to be analysed, the questions were not restricted to dagga.

6.3.1 Do you think there is a problem related to drug usage in the school ?

Although a substantial number of the pupils appeared to find it difficult to answer this question, those who did respond were almost equally divided between those who saw dagga use as a problem in the school, and those who did not.

There was also no statistically significant difference between the sexes with 29,0% of boys and 38,2% of the girls answering in the affirmative (table 6-C).

Interestingly, whether or not the respondent was a dagga user also did not appear to influence this concept.

TABLE 6-C

OPINION REGARDING THE "DRUG PROBLEM"

Age	Influence of gender and age							
	Males				Females			
	<16	17	>18	ALL	<16	17	>18	ALL
There is a problem(%)	27,4	35,7	23,3	29,0	32,1	48,4	38,2	38,2
There is no problem(%)	26,6	31,5	43,3	31,9	18,3	25,0	26,5	21,7
Don't know(%)	46,0	26,8	33,3	39,0	49,5	26,6	35,3	40,1

TABLE 6-C (continued)

OPINION REGARDING THE "DRUG PROBLEM"

Experience	Influence of drug experience							
	Males				Females			
	Never	past	present	all	Never	past	present	all
There is a problem(%)	27,6	35,5	29,4	29,0	36,6	51,9	33,3	38,2
There is no problem (%)	30,7	38,7	29,4	31,9	22,9	18,5	22,4	41,7
Don't know (%)	41,7	25,8	41,2	39,0	40,5	29,6	44,4	40,1
	Chi-squared = 2,81				Chi-squared = 2,65			
	p > 0,05				p > 0,05			

6.3.2 Is it easy to obtain drugs ?

More than half the pupils felt that it was easy to obtain drugs, and there was no significant difference on the basis of age or sex.

There was however, a marked difference in the response to this question depending on previous drug experience, and this was true of both boys and girls (Table 6-D).

TABLE 6-D

OPINION REGARDING THE AVAILABILITY OF DRUGS

Influence of sex and age

	ages	Males			Females			
		<16	17	>18	ALL	<16	17	>18
number	125	56	30	211	107	23	76	206

Opinion regarding ease of getting drugs

Easy	% 49,6	64,3	63,3	55,5	42,6	65,6	55,9	51,9
Not easy	% 12,0	8,9	13,3	11,3	14,8	6,2	8,8	11,2
Don't know	38,4	13,3	23,3	33,2	42,6	28,1	35,3	36,9

Influence of drug experience

Experience	Males			Females		
	Never	Past	Present	Never	Past	Present

Opinion regarding ease of getting drugs

Easy	% 48,2	80,6	76,5	41,8	81,5	81,5
Not easy	% 12,8	6,5	5,9	12,4	11,1	7,4
Don't know	% 39,0	12,9	17,6	45,8	7,4	11,1

Chi-squared = 14,61

Chi-squared = 27,25

P < 0,001

6.3.3 If you could be certain that you would not get into trouble with the law or become addicted, would you wish to use the following drugs ?

weight reducing tablets eg obex
tranquilisers, sleeping tablets

mandrax	glue-sniffing
dagga	LSD
heroin	cocaine

In response to this question (Table 6-E), 21,8% of girls stated that if available, they would use drugs to lose weight. Although not surprising, this is distressing given the high incidence of anorexia and bulimia nervosa among adolescent girls; 14,7% of girls and 18% of boys said they would use dagga.

TABLE 6-E

USE OF DRUGS IF PERMITTED and UNHARMFUL

Drug	Males (n=211)	Females (n=206)
Weight reducing	3	45 (21,8%)
Mandrax	6	3
Glue sniffing	3	1
Dagga	31 (14,7%)	37 (18,0%)
LSD	2	2
Heroin	1	2
Cocaine	4	5

6.3.4 In your opinion, how many children in your school would use drugs if their friends offered them to them ?

In this instance the mode was 10 to 39% for both boys and girls, although boys generally put the estimate lower than girls (Table 6-F).

Drug experience did appear to modify the opinion of the males ($P < 0,02$), but this did not reach statistical significance among the females.

TABLE 6-F

SCHOLARS' OPINION REGARDING HOW MANY WOULD USE DAGGA IF OFFERED

Influence of drug experience

Experience number	Males				Females			
	Never	Past	Present	All	Never	Past	Present	All
	163	31	17	211	152	27	28	207
Opinion								
None	1,8	0	0	1,4	0,7	0	0	0,5
<10%	33,9	12,9	17,6	29,6	15,8	11,1	3,6	13,5
10-39%	40,0	48,4	29,5	40,4	44,0	37,1	31,2	42,5
40-60%	18,8	38,7	52,9	24,4	36,2	37,0	42,9	37,2
>60%	5,5	0	0	4,2	3,3	14,8	14,3	6,3

Chi-squared = 19,69
 $P < 0,02$

Chi-squared = 11,89
 $P > 0,05$

6.3.5 Attitudes and values

Some insight into the attitude of the scholars towards drugs was gained through the analysis of their response to 10 rather dogmatic statements (Table 6-G).

TABLE 6-G

ATTITUDES AND VALUES

	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
# nothing wrong with dagga in moderation	15,8	70,7	13,5
# Smoking dagga is no more harmful than drinking alcohol	29,2	48,3	22,5
# people smoke dagga for a long time but don't go on to harder drugs	10,9	61,8	27,3
# Dagga smokers, after a short period change to something stronger	29,2	27,8	43,0
# everyone has to try drugs once	27,0	61,4	11,6
# people need drugs to withstand pressures	66,9	18,7	14,4
# severe punishment of drug users will deter others	31,4	51,9	16,7
# Weight losing tablets may cause psychological dependence	51,3	6,1	42,6
# Sleeping tablets/tranquillisers may cause physical/psychological dependence	66,9	3,8	29,3
# LSD usage may cause genetic change	22,6	2,6	74,8

Four statements related specifically to dagga (#1 to #4 in the table above), three of which were phrased in a relatively positive light.

The first of these suggested that there was nothing wrong with dagga use, even in moderation. More than 4 times as many pupils disagreed. as agreed with this.

The second contrasted the hazards of dagga and alcohol use, and while again there were more pupils that disagreed that dagga was no more harmful than alcohol, nearly one third felt that dagga was no worse than its perhaps "more socially acceptable" counterpart.

One of the other 2 statements postulated that people smoke dagga for a long time, but do not progress to stronger drugs, while the other suggested that people smoke dagga for a short period and then move on to harder drugs. As these 2 ideas appear superficially at variance with each other, it was surprising that equal numbers of respondents agreed and disagreed with the latter, while the response to the former was largely that of disagreement (61,8%). It is possible that the focus of the attention of some of the pupils fell more on the first half of these statements (i.e. the duration of dagga use), and that of others on the second half (i.e. the abuse of more sinister drugs). On balance, most of the scholars seemed to feel that progression to "harder" drugs is a likely sequel to dagga use.

Of the other statements, 3 related to habit-forming drugs in general (#5 to #7), the majority (66,9%) of pupils agreeing that people need drugs to withstand the pressures they feel, and the minority feeling that one had to at least try drugs once to ascertain their effect. Over half disagreed that severe punishment of drug offenders would deter others.

Finally, 3 statements concerned specific drugs.

There was general agreement that weight-losing tablets, tranquilisers and sleeping tablets carry significant hazards of dependence, and few disagreed that LSD can cause genetic damage. A substantial number of the scholars felt that they could not give an appropriate answer to these questions, particularly that related to LSD; in this respect, it is important to note that the last 3 statements in the table relate more to learned knowledge, and the former ones more to attitudes.

6.3.6 Influence of gender on attitudes

Only three of the above attitudes appeared to be linked to the sex of the respondent, and these are shown in Table 6-H.

It is interesting that boys were more convinced than their female colleagues that punishment formed a solution for drug abuse, while females were more aware of the fact that certain agents were hazardous in terms of psychological and/or physical dependence.

TABLE 6-H

INFLUENCE OF GENDER ON ATTITUDES & VALUES

% agreeing with statement

	Males	Females	all	Chi-squared	P value
Severe punishment of drug users will deter others from using them :	37,6	25,1	31,4	10,99	<0,005
Weight losing tablets may cause psychological dependence :	43,5	59,3	51,3	25,00	<0,001
Sleeping tablets and tranquillisers may cause physical and psychological dependence :	57,0	77,0	66,9	19,79	<0,001

6.3.7 Influence of previous dagga experience on attitudes

It was clearly most important to analyse these attitudes in terms of the experience of the respondents, and Table 6-I shows these same attitudes grouped according to whether the pupils had never used dagga, were previous users, or were using dagga currently. Experience of dagga use appeared to strongly affect the opinion of the scholars on the first 2 statements viz. "there is nothing wrong with smoking dagga, as long as it is in moderation", and "everyone has to try drugs at least once to know what the effect is", non-users being less convinced of the truth of these statements. Users of dagga were also less likely to agree that dagga smokers moved on to "harder" drugs (statements #3 and #9 in the table). Finally, more dagga smokers agreed that this habit was no more harmful than alcohol use.

TABLE 6-I

INFLUENCE OF DRUG EXPERIENCE ON ATTITUDES AND VALUES

Dagga experience	Never	Past	Present
Number	315	58	45
#1 There is nothing wrong with smoking dagga as long as it is in moderation :			
Agree	7,2	29,3	58,7
Disagree	80,3	51,7	28,3
Don't know	12,5	19,0	13,0
Chi-squared =	95,29	P < 0,001	
#2 Everyone has to try drugs at least once in order to know what the effect is :			
Agree	15,4	65,5	42,2
Disagree	73,7	31,0	42,2
Don't know	10,8	3,4	15,6
Chi-squared =	64,63	P < 0,001	

#3 Most people who smoke dagga do so for a long time but don't go on to harder drugs :

Agree	7,3	27,6	15,6
Disagree	65,4	55,2	51,1
Don't know	28,6	17,2	33,3
Chi-squared =	24,19	P < 0,001	

#4 Many people require drugs to withstand the pressures they feel:

Agree	66,7	7,4	64,4
Disagree	18,7	17,2	22,2
Don't know	15,6	8,6	15,6
Chi-squared =	2,45	P > 0,05	

#5 Severe punishment of drug users will deter others from using them :

Agree	33,3	31,0	20,0
Disagree	50,2	53,4	64,4
Don't know	17,5	13,8	15,6
Chi-squared =	4,20	P > 0,05	

#6 Smoking dagga is no more harmful than drinking alcohol :

Agree	27,6	24,1	44,5
Disagree	47,0	60,3	42,2
Don't know	25,1	15,5	13,3
Chi-squared =	11,38	P < 0,05	

#7 Weight losing tablets may cause psychological dependence :

Agree	52,4	55,2	44,4
Disagree	6,0	1,7	13,3
Don't know	42,8	43,1	42,2
Chi-squared =	6,17	P > 0,05	

TABLE 6-I

INFLUENCE OF DRUG EXPERIENCE ON ATTITUDES AND VALUES
(continued)

Dagga experience	Never	Past	Present
Number	315	58	45
#8 Sleeping tablets and tranquillisers may cause physical and psychological dependence :			
Agree	67,0	70,7	66,7
Disagree	5,1	0	0
Don't know	29,2	29,3	33,3
Chi-squared =	5,56	P > 0,05	
#9 LSD usage may cause chromosome (gene) change :			
Agree	21,9	22,4	28,9
Disagree	2,5	1,7	4,4
Don't know	76,2	75,9	66,7
Chi-squared =	1,85	P > 0,05	
#10 Most people who smoke dagga, do so for a short period and then change to something stronger :			
Agree	33,3	19,0	15,6
Disagree	19,7	53,4	53,3
Don't know	47,6	27,6	31,1
Chi-squared =	43,87	P < 0,001	

6.3.8 Sources of help (Table 6-J)

When asked who they would turn to if they had a drug problem the

majority saw their friends as the primary source of support, although this was more true of girls (53,9%) than boys.

Approximately one quarter of the pupils said that they would turn to their parents, and it is interesting (although not statistically significant) that there was a trend for the respondents to appeal more to friends if they had drug experience than if they hadn't. This was particularly true of girls, only 10,7% of present users naming parents as a source of help vs 27,5% of non-users.

Only very few (8,8% of boys and 13,3% of girls) would approach any person within the school structure, e.g. class teacher, principal, guidance teacher or school psychologist.

A number of individuals felt that they have no-one at all to whom they can appeal for help (8,8% of boys and 4,4% of girls).

TABLE 6-J

TO WHOM WOULD YOU TURN IF YOU HAD A DRUG/ALCOHOL PROBLEM

	Males				Females			
	Never	Past	Present	All	Never	Past	Present	All
Dagga use number	163	31	17	211	152	27	28	208
School staff (%)	14,6	10,3	5,6	13,3	8,7	7,4	10,7	8,8
Religious/welfare	2,5	3,4	5,6	3,0	0,7	3,7	7,1	2,0
Doctor	8,9	13,8	5,6	9,3	2,7	7,4	0	2,9
Friend	33,1	44,0	44,4	35,8	51,7	51,9	67,9	53,9
Parents	28,2	21,7	22,1	26,4	27,5	14,8	10,7	13,6
Other	3,8	3,4	0	3,4	4,0	7,4	3,6	4,4
No-one	8,9	3,4	16,7	8,8	4,7	7,4	0	4,4

Chi-squared = 18,99

$P > 0,05$

Chi-squared = 19,95 $P > 0,05$

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS:

As a major thrust of this thesis lay in preventive programmes, factors which might influence smoking are just as important as the basic statistics. Important information emerged from this study of attitudes and knowledge.

It is interesting that the knowledge that smoking is unhealthy is almost universal, and most link the habit with many serious diseases. In addition, many of the scholars are convinced of the health risks of drug and alcohol use and dagga use is seen as a prelude to the use of more clearly addictive drugs.

This appears, however, to have little effect on their decision to get involved in such practices, since this applies to both "users" and "non-users". If this is the case then it is not surprising that anti-smoking programmes which rely solely on portraying the negative health effects of smoking are doomed to failure. Long-term dangers which will materialize only during middle age or perhaps even later, appear to bear little relevance for the developing adolescent. Moreover more than a third of smokers actually found that the habit disturbed them. Rationalisation appears to give way to the pressure of immediate gratification or personal social gain, and to this end these adolescents seem quite prepared to take risks with their health.

Issues other than knowledge are thus influencing their choices.

In view of the fact that adolescents are so strongly focussed on their peer group, supported by the strong influence of the habits of friends on smoking prevalence (chapter 3) it is interesting, although again not really surprising, that few pupils admitted to smoking to impress friends. The most frequent response was the confrontational, hedonistic one of

"because I like it". Another important factor seems to be that many (more than two-thirds) believe that drug use is "necessary" for people to withstand the pressures of contemporary living which tells us something of the society in which they live.

In terms of risk-taking, it seemed relevant that more than a quarter considered it important to try drugs once to see what the effect is, despite agreeing that the effect is harmful. It is also interesting that many of the pupils see dagga as no greater an evil than alcohol, despite society's (perhaps illogical) sanction of the latter and censure of the former.

A particularly telling response was that relating to whom the pupils would turn if in trouble with drugs. Firstly, only few would seek assistance within the school environment, and a most worrying and poignant feature was that some (approximately 1/25 of the girls and 1/12 of the boys) felt that they had no-one to whom they could turn.

These findings are of great relevance to the planning of intervention programmes and will be explored in depth in later chapters.

CHAPTER 7

SEXUAL EXPERIENCE OF SCHOLARS

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is a period of physical development, unfolding of sexuality and experimentation with sexual contact. Although not strictly comparable to such activities as smoking and drug use questions as to sexual activity were included in this study, as sexual experimentation is another form of "risk-taking" and venereal disease is an important cause of morbidity in modern society.

Responses to individual questions are grouped for ease of presentation into the categories :

- * sexual experience (analysed according to the commonly accepted sequential development of sexual interaction, from caressing and kissing through to intercourse).

- * attitudes to sexual issues

- * knowledge of sexual matters

- * sources of information about sex

No questions were asked with respect to homosexuality, arguably a significant omission, but one based on considerable discussion and thought.

7.1 SEXUAL EXPERIENCE

The first question addressed the sexual experience, and the age at which this took place, based on a step-by-step development of sexual interaction, i.e. :

- going out alone with the opposite sex
- kissing and cuddling
- caressing or stroking over clothes
- caressing or stroking under clothes
- contact with the sexual organs &
- sexual intercourse,

The results are presented in Table 7-A for boys and girls in each school standard.

Similar numbers of Std 8 pupils of both sexes had dated, kissed or caressed over their clothes. However, more boys than girls in that class had either caressed under their clothes, had contact with sexual organs or intercourse, suggesting that boys advance more rapidly in this respect than girls.

Among the Std 9 and 10 pupils, however, all activities except sexual intercourse had been experienced by approximately equal numbers of boys and girls. Even intercourse, however, started to move towards equality as they got older: in Std 8 15,6% of boys and 3,9% of girls had had intercourse, and the proportions in Std 10 were 35,6% and 21,0% respectively.

TABLE 7-A

SEXUAL EXPERIENCE OF SCHOLARS

	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
Number	101	77	68	69	45	62
Percentage of each group who had experienced that activity						
"dating" alone with opposite sex	72.3	68.8	75.0	86.9	91.1	93.5
"kiss and cuddle"	71.3	66.2	79.4	81.2	88.4	80.6
caress over clothes	54.4	48.1	69.1	68.1	77.8	67.7
caress under clothes	45.5	26.0	60.3	59.4	60.0	58.1
contact with sexual organs	37.6	13.0	42.6	53.6	53.3	40.3
intercourse	15.8	3.9	25.0	18.8	35.6	21.0

7.1.1 At what age did each sexual activity first take place?

This is shown in Table 7-B. The pupils were also asked at what age they had experienced each sexual activity.

It is interesting that about 20% of the boys and girls had started dating at under 12 years and the same number of boys and slightly fewer girls, "kissing and cuddling" at the same age.

For boys, the mode at which caressing over the clothes started

was 14 years, and the mode at which caressing under clothes, sexual organ contact and intercourse took place was 15 years, while for girls the mode of all of the latter activities was 15 years.

TABLE 7-B

DEVELOPMENT OF SEXUAL ACTIVITIES

	Age in years					
	<12	13	14	15	16	17
% who had experienced this activity at this age						
Males						
"dating" alone						
with opposite sex	21.2	34.5	18.2	18.8	5.5	1.8
"kiss and cuddle"	23.5	31.9	23.5	16.3	2.4	2.4
caress over clothes	Ø	Ø	48.5	36.Ø	13.3	2.2
caress under clothes	Ø	Ø	38.6	43.9	15.8	1.7
contact with sexual						
organs	Ø	Ø	31.1	5Ø.Ø	15.6	3.3
intercourse	Ø	Ø	1Ø.3	56.4	28.2	5.1
Females						
"dating" alone						
with opposite sex	24.Ø	26.9	25.1	17.Ø	6.4	Ø.6
"kiss and cuddle"	15.3	27.4	29.3	19.1	7.6	1.3
caress over clothes	Ø	Ø	32.5	4Ø.6	18.2	8.7
caress under clothes	Ø	Ø	26.8	44.3	17.6	11.3
contact with sexual						
organs	Ø	Ø	15.3	43.Ø	29.2	12.5
intercourse	Ø	Ø	16.Ø	44.Ø	24.Ø	16.Ø

7.1.2 If you have had sexual intercourse, how often?

Of those who had had intercourse, the numbers were almost equally distributed between those who had had intercourse many times (27.6%), a few times (27.6%), and once (29.3%). A further 15.5% admitted to having tried intercourse, but not succeeding.

7.1.3 If you have had sexual intercourse, with whom?

With respect to the person with whom intercourse had taken place, 33.3% of the boys and 87.5% of the girls described this as occurring as part of a steady relationship.

A prostitute had been the partner of 12.5% of the boys, and the rest of the encounters had been in a casual setting.

It appears therefore that the girls in this school accept intercourse within a "meaningful" relationship, while the boys are less discriminatory. It is reasonable to expect therefore, that the boys are likely to have a higher risk from venereal disease than the girls.

7.1.4 Have you ever been pregnant, or thought you were?

Although 70.8% of the girls who had experienced intercourse had had a "pregnancy scare", none had actually been pregnant. Teenage pregnancy does thus not appear to be a problem in this group of schoolgirls.

7.1.5 What methods of contraception do you use when you have sexual intercourse; if you don't use contraceptives, why not?

Less than half of the sexually active individuals at all ages always use contraceptives (Table 7-C), but more boys do so (46.5%) than girls (33.3%).

There is a trend suggesting that younger sexually active girls are less likely to use contraceptives than older ones (5 of the 6 Std 8 girls never use contraceptives vs 2 of the 12 in Std 10), while in boys age did not seem to make a difference.

This might indicate that the girls, by Std 10, are achieving a degree of responsibility regarding the possible development of pregnancy, not occurring in the boys, but the differences are too small to reach statistical significance.

Of those who did not use contraceptives, 80% either forgot to, or claimed that the intercourse was unexpected and they were unprepared. Only one boy said that he was too embarrassed to buy contraceptives, while 3 girls said that they thought their partner had been using one, but he wasn't.

TABLE 7-C

USE OF CONTRACEPTIVES BY SEXUALLY ACTIVE INDIVIDUALS

	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10		All	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Never	6	5	4	2	5	2	15	9
Sometimes	2	0	4	3	2	6	8	9
Always	7	1	7	4	6	4	20	9
Number in group	15	6	15	9	13	12	43	27

Chi-squared = 9.4 P > 0.05

7.2 ATTITUDES TO SEXUAL ISSUES

Apart from defining sexual and related experience, the questionnaire also addressed the attitudes of the scholars toward sexual matters.

7.2.1 At what age is it alright for intercourse to take place?

With respect to the age at which it was thought acceptable to have intercourse, the opinion depended to a large degree on the sexual experience of the respondents. Thus 42.5% of the sexually experienced boys thought that intercourse was acceptable for boys of less than 16 years of age, and 22.5% held the same opinion with respect to girls; only 8% of those who were inexperienced in this respect, however, thought it was acceptable for boys or girls at this age.

The girls had similar opinions, but more extreme. Of those who had had intercourse, 25.0% thought it was acceptable for boys at less than 16 years, and only 8.3% believed it was alright for girls. Of the sexually inexperienced however, the same opinion was only held by 3.8% and none of the respondents, respectively.

The differences between sexually experienced and inexperienced scholars, and also between boys and girls, were tested statistically using the Chi-squared test, and found to be highly significant ($P < 0.001$ in each case)

It is interesting that 35.1% of the boys and 60.1% of the girls felt that it was not age that mattered. They held this opinion with respect to both boys and girls, and this was not affected by sexual experience. There was a significant difference between boys and girls in this respect (Chi-squared = 17.3, $P < 0.01$).

7.2.2 Should a boy/girl remain a virgin until marriage

The pattern in attitude towards intercourse before marriage was basically the same between boys and girls (Table 7-D): essentially, about half the boys and girls felt that girls should not have intercourse before marriage, but less than 1% of either felt that boys should not. There was a clear statistically significant difference between boys and girls (Chi-squared = 39.7, $P < 0.001$), but not between different age groups.

About half of the boys and girls felt that the question was unimportant (35.8 to 52.6%) and in this instance there was no statistically significant difference between boys and girls or different age groups.

TABLE 7-D

ATTITUDE TOWARDS INTERCOURSE BEFORE MARRIAGE

	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10		TOTAL	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	Percentage in each group							
Girl shouldn't	46.4	57.9	64.2	63.8	52.3	55.0	53.8	49.0
Boy shouldn't	1.0	2.6	0	0	0	0	0.5	1.0
Not important	52.6	39.5	35.8	36.2	47.7	45.0	46.2	50.0
class.								

7.2.3 With whom is it alright to have sexual intercourse?

The answers to this question were interesting, as they were markedly influenced by previous sexual experience (Table 7-E). Of both boys and girls who had not had intercourse, the majority

felt that intercourse was acceptable with a "steady", and slightly fewer felt that marriage or engagement was a prerequisite. More boys than girls felt that desire alone was justification.

On the other hand, of the girls who had had intercourse, almost all felt that intercourse with a "steady" was acceptable; boys who had intercourse however, tended to favour "desire" or a "pretty" face as adequate reason.

TABLE 7-E

ATTITUDE TOWARDS CHOICE OF SEXUAL PARTNERS

	Males		Females	
	Previous intercourse	no intercourse	Previous intercourse	no intercourse
wife	2.6	17.5	0	23.0
fiancee	5.1	12.3	0	23.0
"steady"	33.3	34.5	91.7	41.0
if pretty				
/handsome	20.5	11.7	0	1.1
anyone				
desired	38.5	24.0	8.3	12.0
	Chi-squared 10.7 P<0.05		Chi-squared 23.2 P<0.001	

7.2.4 If you have had intercourse, how did you feel after the first time?

The majority (93.0%) of the responses to this question were

positive, 46.5% of the scholars saying they felt "happy" after intercourse, 27.9% reporting physical satisfaction, and equal numbers (9.3% each) indicating they had felt proud or grown up. Of the three negative responses, 2 were written down as guilt and one indicated embarrassment.

7.3 KNOWLEDGE of SEXUAL MATTERS

7.3.1 What methods of contraception are known to you, and which is the most effective?

In general the knowledge of contraception was high, with 87.3% of the boys and 84.8% of the girls being aware of contraceptive methods, most of them being familiar with several.

One also needs to look at the equation the other way however, and note that more than 10% of the scholars did not know any contraceptive method. In this respect, although there was no overall difference in responses between those who had, and those who hadn't had sexual intercourse, it is of some concern that 3 of the boys who were sexually experienced did not know any form of contraception.

7.3.2 Do you know the first sign of pregnancy?

There was a relatively poor knowledge of the first sign of pregnancy with only 47.2% of the whole group suggesting that it was "missing a period", 35.7% not knowing at all, and 11.5% getting it wrong.

It is interesting, and surprising that there was no difference in this result on the basis of either gender or sexual experience.

7.3.3 What are the possible ill-effects (if any) of masturbation?

In response to this question, 68.9% of the pupils indicated that they felt masturbation had no ill-effects and 9.5% felt that it has harmful effects, one third of whom giving "increased sexual drive" as the negative effect. This left 21.6% who were unsure if there are any ill effects.

This indicates a large misconception and/or lack of knowledge about masturbation, which did not differ significantly between boys and girls, with increasing age or with reference to sexual experience.

- 7.3.4 Name the venereal diseases you have heard about?
How does one get venereal disease?
What is the best way of preventing venereal disease?
Do you know the signs of venereal disease?
Do you know how venereal disease is treated?

In general the scholars knew the names of several venereal diseases, 10.2% mentioning gonorrhoea and syphilis, a further 29.9% adding AIDS to these two and another 42.8% giving even more examples.

Only 3.3% of the scholars gave the name of a disease which is not a venereal disease or didn't know any.

In addition, the majority knew that transmission was through intercourse with an infected person, although there was a significant difference between the knowledge of boys and girls on this topic (84.7% of boys vs 64.2% of girls). Sexual experience did not affect this answer.

This relatively high level of knowledge was not mirrored in the other questions about venereal disease, however. Thus, only

49.5% were aware that venereal disease could be prevented by not having intercourse with an infected person. A very small 3.6% mentioned condom use in venereal disease prevention, 19% felt that general hygiene at the time of intercourse was the key, and 20.3% did not know the answer at all. This answer was not affected by the gender or sexual experience of the respondent.

With respect to the signs of venereal disease, the knowledge was abysmal overall, although significantly better in males (33.6% correct answers) than females 10.1% correct ($P < 0.01$). Moreover, only 11.1% were aware of the correct treatment of venereal disease, subgroups not differing statistically from the total sample.

7.4 SOURCES of KNOWLEDGE about SEX

7.4.1 What is your single most important source of information regarding sex?

Answers to this question are given in table 7-F. Overall, friends were seen as the most important reference source, equalled among girls by their mothers. The latter was the only material difference between boys and girls; few of either sex spoke to their fathers.

Other significant resources were books and school teachers. Very few of the children felt they had no source of knowledge.

Evaluation of the differences (using Chi-squared) between those who had experienced intercourse and those who had not, revealed no significant difference for either boys or girls.

TABLE 7-F

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT SEX

	Males	Females
	%	%
mother	10.3	28.8
father	3.9	1.0
brother/sister	1.0	7.1
friends	36.3	28.8
books/pamphlets	18.1	18.2
doctor/nurse	2.9	3.0
pamphlets	0	2.5
teachers	14.7	5.1
TV	1.5	1.0
films	6.9	2.0
other	3.4	4.5
none	1.0	0.5

7.4.2 Would you like to know more on the subject of sex ?
If so, in which areas do you especially feel the lack?

In response to this question, 53.4% of the scholars claimed to have sufficient information, and this did not differ significantly between boys and girls or on the basis of sexual experience.

Of the balance, some wanted basic information i.e. knowledge of:

sexual organs and their functioning	13.1%
masturbation	17.3%
contraception	3.3%
venereal diseases	9.9%

More, however, appeared to want information on the less "scientific" more emotional areas, such as:
the basis on which to decide when

and with whom to have sex relationship between sex and love	27.1%
what happens during sexual intercourse	14.8%
	15.8%

7.4.3 In your opinion to what extent is it important to receive sex education in school?

The response to this question was relatively consistent, with 94.1% rating sex education very important (71.1% - very important and 23% - important).

Only few thought it not important (3.9% "not so" and 0.3% "not at all") and only one pupil in the school said it would be harmful.

7.4.4 In which class in school should sex education begin?

Again the responses were relatively consistent, with 92.4% suggesting that it is appropriate to start such education in Std 6 or less, the majority of whom (79.8%) indicated that before Std 5 was best. In confirmation of 7.4.3, only one pupil suggested that sex education is not important, and one objected totally to sex education.

7.4.5 In which framework should sex education be given?

The responses to this question varied. Within the framework of regular lessons was the pattern favoured by 15.5% and 39.5% suggested special lessons.

Small groups of girls and boys together was the choice of 35.2%, and only 7.2% wanted such education in groups segregated on the basis of sex.

7.4.6 Who is the most appropriate person to give sex education in school?

It was interesting, that in this instance, more than half (55.2%) wanted an expert from outside to give sex education, far fewer (23.9%) favouring a known teacher, and the balance being equally divided among other options.

7.4.7 Do you talk to your parents on the subject of sex?

With respect to the girls, 74.6% of them discussed sex with one or both parents; this applied however to only 47.4% of the boys (Table 7-G).

Of these, only 0.5% of girls and 7.1% of boys discussed sex with their father only, as opposed to 33.2% of the girls and 14.7% of the boys who discussed sex with mothers only.

As seen in the table, the age of the respondent made no significant difference to this response, suggesting that if discussion did take place, it did so at a relatively early stage.

However, the most important finding was the fact that 52.6% of the boys and 30.4% of the girls did not discuss sex with either parent.

TABLE 7-G

DISCUSSIONS WITH PARENTS ABOUT SEX

	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10		TOTAL	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
number	99	78	67	69	45	62	211	209
Both parents	28.3	32.0	22.4	36.3	20.4	40.3	25.6	35.9
Mother only	14.1	28.3	20.9	31.9	6.7	29.0	14.7	33.2
Father only	9.1	0	6.0	1.4	4.4	0	7.1	0.5
Neither parent	48.5	39.7	50.7	30.4	64.5	30.6	52.6	30.4

*Results expressed as the percentage of the boys or girls in each school class.

No statistically significant difference was shown on the basis of age

7.4.8 Do you talk to your parent(s) about masturbation?

As a variation on the theme of communication with parents, another question explored masturbation, an activity that almost all would have practised by this stage, and which both parents and children might find an even more sensitive issue to discuss.

Only 19% of boys and 29% of girls had had masturbation explained to them by their parents (Table 7-H).

There is clearly a gap in communication between parents and children in this respect, with boys again having even less discussion than girls. As with discussions pertaining to sex in general, age and sexual experience had no effect on the response to this question.

In this field, parents are frequently criticised for not sharing their greater experience with their children. This question,

however, illustrated that this is not always the case, as 43.7% of boys and 33.7% of girls felt that masturbation is not a subject to be discussed with parents, and 35.5% of pupils felt that they were too embarrassed to discuss masturbation with their parents. One should not oversimplify this issue, based in generations of social taboos.

TABLE 7-H

DISCUSSION WITH PARENTS ABOUT MASTURBATION

	Male	Female
number	211	209
	%	%
Explained by parents	19.3	29.1
Warned by parents	1.5	1.7
Embarrassed to discuss with parents	35.5	35.5
Not a subject to discuss with parents	43.7	33.7

7.4.9 Who would you turn to if you thought you were pregnant? [girls only]

As with the the similar question about to whom they would turn if they had a drug problem, the majority saw their friends as the primary source of support (62.5%), more than half of these (41.7%) confiding primarily in their boyfriend, and the balance (20.8%) going to a girlfriend in the first instance.

In contrast to the similar question on drugs, a substantial

number (26.0%) said that they would turn to their parents for initial help, but only a few (8.4%) would approach any school official e.g. class teacher, principal, guidance teacher or school psychologist.

Again, a small but important number (3.1%) felt that they had no-one at all to whom they could turn for help.

DISCUSSION

In this group of adolescents, heterosexual physical interaction started in a significant number before the age of 12 years while many would in fact still be pubescent. One cannot, however, comment judgementally on the prevalence of sexual activity - this is a function of the society in which one lives and the expectation of the individual, and of course his/her peers. It is interesting, however, that while in general the attitudes of these adolescents of the "eighties" about sexual intercourse are relatively "liberated", there are limits, and intercourse is only acceptable to most girls as part of a "steady" relationship. Moreover the traditional paradox of attitude to the sexual freedom of boys vs girls is still strong: both boys and girls approve of intercourse before marriage for boys, while girls are expected to remain virgins.

The health related effects of sexual activity in this age group are largely unwanted pregnancy and venereal disease. In this respect it was of concern that so many of those who are sexually active are practising "unsafe sex", even though almost all are aware of many types of contraceptives. This is in line with a recent study in New England, in which less than a third of sexually active respondents used contraception (Hingson et al, 1990). Moreover Balassone (1989) reported that of those who

attended a clinic to get contraceptives, half discontinued their use within 3 months despite ongoing sexual activity.

With respect to sexually transmitted disease, the knowledge of the scholars is no more than superficial. They are aware of the names of venereal diseases, and that they are acquired through sexual contact, but little else. This is despite the recent accent on AIDS in the lay press, a fact noted by Curtis et al (1989) who showed that only one third of sexually active teenagers indicated personal concern about the epidemic, even though only one fifth anticipated a monogamous relationship. However in the focal school, this is one area in which knowledge is lacking, even from their favoured sources of books and friends.

Finally it was of great relevance to this thesis to examine communication on sexual issues. Most of the respondents see their friends as the major source of information and support, although girls seem to discuss sex with their mothers. Boys do so to a lesser extent and few of either sex see fathers as a source of information or help. The critical issue, however, is that more than half the boys and just under one third of the girls have discussed sex with neither parent. Furthermore, the more sensitive the issue, the less said about it. Thus more than 80% of the boys and more than 70% of the girls have not discussed masturbation and many felt that it was not in fact a subject to address with parents.

The need to improve communication with adolescents about sex is obviously of vital importance if adults are to help them through this difficult period.

CHAPTER 8

CORRELATION BETWEEN SMOKING, DRUG USE & SEXUAL EXPERIENCE

GENERAL DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

8.1 CORRELATION BETWEEN SMOKING, DRUG USE & SEXUAL EXPERIENCE

One purpose of the research on which this thesis is based was to test the hypothesis that the "lifestyles" discussed above are adopted by adolescents as a manifestation of "risk-taking activity". This important postulate was apparently originally put forward in Israel by Peled & Schimmerling in 1971, supported by Goode's research in the USA in 1972 and corroborated by the studies of Tamir et al in 1982. The essence of the hypothesis is that individual "habits", such as drug or alcohol use, are not taken up in isolation, but as part of a whole mode of "self-destructive" behaviour, based far more on the desire to take risks in order to compete with peers, than on rational decisions.

This pattern was suggested by Tamir et al because the habits co-existed strongly in the scholars studied, and this concept has been supported recently by other authors. Thomas et al (1990), for example, in showing that adolescent black males were more likely to combine tobacco with marijuana while females preferred the cigarette/alcohol mix, suggested that it is the

fact that risk is taken, not the specific risk that matters. Crumley (1990) added suicide to the list and showed that this was far more common in adolescents who took psychoactive drugs or abused alcohol. Moreover, a recent longitudinal multivariate analysis of factors affecting the incidence of smoking, showed that the major predictors were experimentation with sex and reporting having been drunk (McNeill et al, 1989).

If the theory is correct, then this issue must be addressed if there is to be any prospect of modifying adolescent behaviour. The data in the current study was thus examined, to see whether the same principle applied in South African youth.

The analysis was based on:

the use of dagga

the smoking of cigarettes

and experience of sexual intercourse.

These three habits were chosen because they were relatively easy to evaluate into "yes or no" categories. Alcohol was not included, as a certain degree of alcohol intake is sanctioned by our society, and the data were even more difficult to interpret in the focal study because many of the pupils drank wine on a regular basis as part of religious ceremony.

8.1.1 Cigarettes and dagga

The strongest correlation was between the current smoking of cigarettes and dagga; among the 39.0% of males and 36.9% of females who used dagga, there was in fact not one who did not smoke cigarettes.

TABLE 8-A

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DAGGA SMOKING
AND CIGARETTE SMOKING

		Males			
		dagga smoking			
		YES		NO	
		number	%	number	%
cigarette smoking	YES	41	39.4	0	0
	NO	63	60,6	101	100
TOTAL		104	100.0	101	100
Chi-squared = 38.54 P<0.001					

		Females			
		dagga smoking			
		YES		NO	
		number	%	number	%
cigarette smoking	YES	52	36.9	0	0
	NO	89	63.1	76	100.0
TOTAL		141	100.0	155	100.0
Chi-squared = 33.78 P<0.001					

8.1.2 Cigarette smoking and sexual intercourse

Definite but less powerful correlations were shown between the other variables. Of those who had had sexual intercourse, 77% of the males and 87.5% of the females smoked cigarettes compared with 41.3% of the males and 59.4% of the females who were sexually inexperienced.

TABLE 8-B

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEXUAL INTERCOURSE
AND CIGARETTE SMOKING

		Males			
		cigarette smoking			
		YES		NO	
		number	%	number	%
sexual intercourse	YES	37	35.6	11	10.4
	NO	67	64.4	95	89.6
	TOTAL	104	100.0	106	100.0
Chi-squared = 28.52 P<0.001					
		Females			
		cigarette smoking			
		YES		NO	
		no.	%	no.	%
sexual intercourse	YES	21	16.4	3	3.9
	NO	107	83.6	73	96.0
	TOTAL	128	100.0	76	100.0
Chi-squared = 32.18 P<0.001					

8.1.3 Dagga and sexual intercourse

For dagga the figures were even more striking. Sixty percent of the males and 81.3% of the females who had had intercourse had used the drug, compared with only 11.4% of the males and none of the females who had not.

TABLE 8-C

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DAGGA SMOKING AND SEXUAL INTERCOURSE

		Males			
		dagga smoking			
		YES		NO	
		number	%	number	%
sexual intercourse	YES	24	55.8	16	9.8
	NO	19	44.2	147	90.2
TOTAL		43	100.0	163	100.0
Chi-squared = 18.54 P<0.01					

		Females			
		dagga smoking			
		YES		NO	
		number	%	number	%
sexual intercourse	YES	26	100	6	0
	NO	0	44.2	149	90.2
TOTAL		26	100.0	155	100.0
Chi-squared = 20.69 P<0.001					

8.2 DISCUSSION

The data thus show that there is a strong correlation between three specific "destructive lifestyles" : smoking, dagga use and sexual intercourse. This corroborates the hypothesis that such activities cluster in individuals and may reflect a general tendency to take risks.

At this point it thus seems appropriate to present a general overview of the results. Before doing so, however, it is important to sidetrack slightly to focus on the epidemiological aspects of the study as no conclusions will be relevant if the study is not epidemiologically sound.

8.2.1 Epidemiological perspective

The basic principles of the study, the fact that the questionnaire was previously validated, and its confidentiality and pretest were discussed in Chapter 1. However several other issues must be addressed :

The first is: is this study group representative of the general South African adolescent population?

Clearly it is not.

Almost all of the participants were White, Jewish and of relatively high social class; the latter alone is a variable which has been shown to markedly affect the prevalence of smoking (Yach 1984), for example.

Nevertheless, when one looks at individual results, e.g. the prevalence of smoking, the results are very close to those found in a broader spectrum of White Cape Town school-children several years ago (Prout and Benatar, 1983); adolescents' life styles in the perspective of this study may well be less

affected by socio-economic variables than adults.

The most critical question, however, is: are these results valid?"

Although the questionnaire was previously validated systematically in Israel (Tamir et al 1982), validity will always be a contentious issue in a study such as this. It stands to reason that school children who are breaking the school rules by smoking or using alcohol or the public law by abusing illicit drugs would be likely to attempt to conceal this. While we believe that the meticulous care that was taken to ensure the anonymity of the respondents (Chapter 1) must have allayed their fears to a degree, and this would have enhanced the validity of the results, this point is difficult to prove. If anything, however, we are likely to have underestimated the prevalence as there seems little advantage in a non-smoker pretending to smoke if anonymity precludes bravado and enhanced social status.

Some support comes from the similarity of these data with those published previously, as mentioned above for smoking, and as mentioned in the chapter on dagga use with respect to a series of studies in university students.

Apart from the above, the sample was high, and the scholars very willing to participate. Only 2 children refused. A relatively high number of children was absent, as a result of 'flu. Again, while it is possible that those who were afraid of detection by the authorities may have faked illness, even with these absentees, the response rate exceeded 80% and the sample therefore was statistically acceptable.

For completion it is important to recognise that there was an important potential source of bias inherent in the study i.e. the fall in numbers of pupils with successive school standards (Table 2-A). According to data published in Epstein and Tamir (1984), in Israel premature school leaving is strongly

associated with destructive life-styles. The inference, therefore, is that the prevalence of such lifestyles would have been higher in those who left, than those who stayed. While there is no way to evaluate this, if it were true, it again would have led to an underestimate of the prevalence, rather than an exaggeration of the problem.

8.2.2 Summary of Results

Each chapter has already been discussed, but it seems appropriate to end this section of the thesis with an overview. The research presented has thus demonstrated a prevalence of cigarette smoking, alcohol and dagga use and sexual activity which appears incompatible with good health. Analysis of the pupils' knowledge and attitudes have indicated that, with the possible exception of venereal diseases, the knowledge of the risks of such activities are well known, and that other issues determine the choices made.

An important issue was communication with adults, at home and in the school and again the study showed large deficits. In many instances the advice of friends was seen as preferable to that of parents and school officials, and some adolescents had no one to turn to at all.

Finally the results have lent support to the hypothesis that such "destructive lifestyles" tend to cluster in individuals and thus may reflect a general willingness of those involved to take risks with their health.

These findings are similar to those described in other parts of the world and will form the framework on which Section C : Intervention will be based.

SECTION C - INTERVENTION

CHAPTER 9

THE THEORY OF ADOLESCENCE

I? I? What am I?

"I am alone with the beating of my heart."

I, hey I! What is I?

"I is the lonely and the lost, always searching for...what?" Another I? An answering is it? No? But what then?

There is more; the I is the way from the inner to the all, from the smallest of the self to the most of every people.

Now I look into myself and see the I of me, the weak and aimless thing which makes me. I is not strong and needs be, I needs to know direction, but has one. My I is not sure, there are too many wrongs and mixed truths within to know. I changes and does not know. I knows little reality and many dreams. What I am now is what will be used to build the later self. What I am is not what I want to be, although I am not sure what this is which I do not want.

But then what is I? My I is my answer to every all of every people. It is this which I have to give to the waiting world and from here comes all that is different.

I is to create.

- From a dramatic poem by John D., age 17. (Blos 1962)

INTRODUCTION

Western democratic, capitalistic society provides little direction for, or ritual recognition of the changes inherent during the adolescent period. In primitive societies, and also in the political systems of nationalistic or totalitarian structure, adolescent status is recognised and incorporated into the social structure and the changes ritualized in the *Rites de passage* (Blos 1962, p203).

In the west, Blos comments further, there is a lack of institutionalized patterning and consequently "society, so to speak, abandons youth and lets it fend for itself", mirroring in the behaviour of adolescents, the hypocrisy of social patterns and malfunctioning of society: apparent rational behaviours which cover and condone "an individual's instinctual gratification in such areas as competition, acquisitiveness and vindictiveness". This may sound cynical but certainly has some validity when one considers the effect on youth of the social environment in large cities, crowded living conditions and countries beset by political strife. Thus patterns of human behaviour come to rest upon social determinism rather than on traditional mores and values.

This expresses itself in a weakening of a sense of mores and a growing confusion among parents and those in authority about the needs or indeed the characteristics of adolescence, so that the transmission of traditional values and social structures has lost a clear sense of definition. Murray Deaker, former head of an Auckland High School and Director of FADE (Foundation for Alcohol and Drug Education) asserts that:

... the problem is a compound of privilege, confused parents, over-liberal teachers and a generation of teenagers who can con the whole lot of them. What happened to school balls shows that schools became obsessed with the rights of the individual and in the process forgot

the rights of the schools themselves and society at large.

This task has traditionally not only been the responsibility of parents, but of schools and institutions as well. The resulting concern of adults is thus expressed in these issues being addressed in educational programmes dealing not only with health behaviours such as smoking and drinking, but also with building a sense of social concern and community responsibility and obligation, and a clear sense of values. This issue is dealt with in detail in the *Skills for Adolescence* programme described in Chapter 12.

PUBERTY AND ADOLESCENCE

While the teaching of social values and responsibilities at this time of life has for time immemorial been implicit, the recognition of adolescence as a discrete period of development is only recent. One of the primary authors in this field, Peter Blos, has defined puberty as:

the physiological and morphological changes that accompany sexual maturation;

while adolescence is defined as:

the sum total of those psychological changes that are attributable, directly or indirectly, to the onset of puberty. (Blos 1970 p.3)

Rutter (1979) reinforces this with his term, "psychosocial adolescence", saying that several writers have argued that adolescence is a "socially created category" since for males, physiological and social puberty frequently do not coincide (in western society), while for females they are closer and tend to be recognised as such as the status of the young girl changes with the onset of menstruation. Concepts of adolescence have changed over time: in previous centuries this period had more to do with the acquisition of independence than with physiological maturity, which might well have followed some years later.

Today the position is reversed.

Two hundred years ago, when Johann Sebastian Bach was training a church boy choir, he could depend on a chorister remaining in his choir for a period of at least seven years. At the age of eighteen or nineteen chorister's voices would "break", having put in several years of performance after the training invested in them by Bach. Nowadays, the angelic boy-choir voices can only be expected to last up to thirteen or fourteen, at the most fifteen years of age.

Modern concepts of adolescence were shaped to a considerable extent by the introduction and extension of compulsory education, by the laws prohibiting the employment of juveniles and by the development of laws and services differentiating juvenile from adult offenders. (Sommer 1978a in Rutter)

In essence this means that the pinpointing of adolescence and its exacerbation as a period of problematic growth, is a social phenomenon of our time, and according to Blos, an economic one affected by the acquisitive nature of western society today. Rutter (1979 p.7) concludes that the youth "phenomenon" as a psychosocial concept is a product of modern western culture because of:

1. earlier sexual maturation and extended education;
2. many psychological theories insist that adolescence should indeed be different from middle childhood and adulthood;
3. commercial interests demand a youth culture;
4. and schools and colleges have kept together large numbers of young people in an age-segregated group.

To that extent, psychosocial adolescence is created by society and has no necessary connection with the developmental process (ibid.).

All of this would indicate that the problems of adolescence are those of "social malaise", created by the condition of living in western society more particularly, and that, therefore, conscious effort on the part of parents, teachers and leaders of social and political institutions can have some therapeutic impact.

These concerns and conclusions are not, however, new; in a study in the UK in 1965 (in Rutter 1979 p.22-23), Schofield reported similar findings to the focal school study in patterns of development of sexual behaviour in girls and boys, in the use of contraceptives, and source of sexual information from peers.

THEORY OF ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT

Physical characteristics

Adolescents are deeply affected by the physical changes that take place in their bodies with pubescence, i.e. "the period of about two years immediately prior to puberty, and the physical changes during that period that culminate in puberty" (Stone and Church). One of the earliest changes is a growth spurt which occurs in the tenth year of girls and the thirteenth of boys. Deceleration of growth occurs two to three years later. Height, which increases by about 25% during this period, is not the only skeletal parameter to change, however. Weight may double and proportions alter and become more gender-specific, as fat is laid down on the hips and thighs of females, and the shoulders and chest of males broaden.

On the skin, the "secondary sex characteristics" appear in the form of pubic and axillary hair, and later hair appears on the face and chest of the boys. The skin itself becomes coarser, with larger pores and the sebaceous glands increase in activity. The scourge of adolescents, "blackheads" and acne, appear, and

the body odour strengthens. In boys, the voice deepens.

The external genitalia enlarge and change markedly in boys, with growth of the testes and scrotum and lengthening of the penis. Spontaneous erections become common and may be accompanied by nocturnal emissions of semen. In girls, the first menstrual period marks the menarche, an event of great significance.

All these external changes, of course, reflect the underlying hormonal changes. The endocrine glands function in a state of balanced homeostasis, and the primary stimulus for puberty probably starts in the hypothalamus which secretes gonadotrophin releasing factors. These in turn stimulate the pituitary to secrete gonadotrophins, or the hormones which stimulate the adrenal gland and the gonads to pour out the definitive sex hormones: androgens in males and oestrogens and progesterone in females.

Further detailed analysis of the changes would be out of place in this thesis. It is far more pertinent to focus on those aspects of the process which are relevant to an understanding of adolescent behaviour.

Firstly, there is a wide variation in the age of onset, duration and end of the period. Individuals of similar age might thus be at quite different stages of development. In addition, girls mature earlier and reach full maturity at a younger age. As "children" are grouped at school with others of a similar age, individuals of quite different physical maturity might be thrust together. The need to impress, and keep up with peers, is thus accentuated, and more difficult.

Secondly, the appearance of a new "adult" self, and a rise in hormones heralds a burgeoning sexual drive. People of the opposite, or same sex, become the focus of desire, and early sexual exploration may begin. In both sexes, masturbation is often established as a pattern, with its attendant feelings of

guilt and conflict.

It is the responses in the self that accompany these physical changes that form the focus of the rest of this chapter.

Emotional characteristics

The emotional "instrument", as the WHO puts it (Alcohol & Drugs 1981), is perhaps the one which makes itself most felt to those near to the young person during adolescence, those who have both to guide and support the adolescent during his "rite de passage" from childhood to adulthood. The major psychological task of this time of life is the formation of the masculine or feminine identity, and this assignment can only be fulfilled via totally different pathways (Blos 1970), though the elements of the developmental and maturational sequences are the same for both sexes:

Maturation refers to the unfolding of inborn potentialities - such as, for example, speech, locomotion, memory, growth, puberty, etc. These processes have their species-bound timing and are subject to the epigenetic principle. They are regarded as autonomous, by contrast with developmental sequences, which are brought into motion, elaborated and maintained through the interaction between the organism and its environment [and] also have their optimal timing. (Blos 1970 p.xviii)

Thus while maturation is a process which is little influenced by the growing person's interaction with family or friends, the developmental process is a different proposition and is deeply affected by interaction with peers, family environment, teachers and those in authority in institutions and society at large. Synchronicity between the two processes, however, is a prerequisite for normal development, and it is when the two modes of development become too distant from one another that

deviance in personality and in behaviour sets in. Emotional and personal growth and maturity should then accompany physical pubertal development at an appropriate rate for the healthy individual to emerge. Precocity in one mode without the appropriate growth accompanying it in the other, results in serious disequilibrium and deviant personality formation occurs. This may have serious consequences for the future of the individual if this unfortunate development is not rectified and averted, and for the society at large if it becomes a pattern of development for its youth.

As mentioned above, it is accepted that in the present generation, pubescence occurs at an earlier age than it used to in previous times. This means that with the general speeding up of life in the twentieth century, but conversely with responsibility and "adulthood" generally being conferred later in life, it is all the more important to focus upon the issues of emotional and personal development for today's adolescent. The hiatus that occurs between the free years of childhood and dawning consciousness of the young adolescent, and the imposition of adult responsibilities which only occurs after the teen years for most young people, has to be filled in a constructive manner to avoid deviance resulting from boredom and lack of direction and purpose.

Thus the emotional changes of adolescence are based in the physiological changes which occur with puberty; hormonal changes result in a higher level of drive tension, "which is expressed in behaviour and in mental content" (Blos 1970). The developing child becomes suddenly more conscious and aware both of his surroundings and himself - in relation to those surroundings. He also, in line with his growing body and increasing strength, is filled with physical and mental energy which needs directing. This leads to a desire to "go ahead": an increased curiosity and a desire to take risks in order to satisfy this quest for knowledge and experience, and the expression of these new forces within himself. This phenomenon

is clearly explicated in myth, legend and the literature of peoples e.g. the legends of the Knights of the Round Table, Parsifal, *Tristram und Isolde* and *Pilgrims Progress*.

Blos, in his work with adolescents over a period of twenty years, describes the emergence of the aggressive and libidinal drives during this period of development, which are largely responsible for the increased energy and sense of disequilibrium characterizing adolescent emotionality as expressed in the myths and legends. Blos asserts that:

Instinctual tensions rise in the wake of pubertal maturation. The intensification of libidinal and aggressive drives can lead a) to a reinstatement of prelatency forms of drive gratification and of defences, or b) it can become a challenge to move on to higher levels of differentiation (via resolution of the instinctual conflicts).

Thus the coping adolescent personality is able to progress on to "higher levels" of emotional and social maturity, while those who are unable to resolve the conflicts of adolescence may revert to childish strategies and defences.

The World Health Organization definition of populations or persons at risk is "any ascertainable characteristic or circumstance of a person or group of persons that is known to be associated with abnormal risk of having, developing, or being especially adversely affected by, a morbid process" (Epstein 1985 p.595). In terms of health pathology, however, and in addition to identifying risk, Epstein insists that other criteria have to be met. The risk should be significant in terms of outcome, should be readily identified and through health strategies, modifiable.

In terms of this definition of risk, the young adolescent can be said to be developing in a vulnerable sense. Certainly while

the whole society is at risk (e.g. war, famine, economic stress) this could well be argued as leading to or resulting in morbid processes. It is, however, the high levels of energy and the positive maturational characteristics of adolescents that lead them to cope with the risks attendant to both their particular stage of life, or the other societal factors which may be present and instrumental in creating a "morbid process".

Reinforcing this general position is the psychological assertion that the most positive consequence of the "pubescent drive pressures" is the autonomy of the ego ... or its distancing from the id. This results in the expansion of such ego functions as cognition, memory, anticipation, tension tolerance, self-awareness, distinctions between reality and fantasy, action and thought (Blos 1970). Thus it is that adolescents have the in-built potential to deal with morbid processes.

However, this all can only be effected if "drive tensions lead to conflict formation and resolution". Normal pubertal development thus "activates regression in the service of progressive development" (Blos 1970). Development during childhood is more-or-less orderly, but the personality is thrown into disarray during adolescence: the drives of the id take temporary control, and the orderliness of the ego, expressed in an acceptance of reality and of the demands of day to day living, is disrupted. That is, a state of personality disequilibrium, which is a necessary state for certain stages\processes of development, leads through its resolution to increased ability and strength (mental), and this in turn enables the growing individual to cope with the demands of early adulthood.

Young people naturally, then, begin to feel the need to separate from their parent mentors, to establish their own individuality and system of values, and to take their own decisions in their lives, painfully difficult as this process may be. "Re-evaluation of the parents with an attendant disillusionment

in them is a normal and essential aspect of the adolescent process" (Blos 1970). However, in counterpoint to these needs, is the very strong continuing personal and childlike fear of losing familiar ground and the support and love of the basic parental relationship. The adolescent needs to be assisted into his new separate status with support and care, so that he can enter adulthood steadily and with some sense of certainty and purpose.

CHAPTER 10

PATHWAYS TO RISK BEHAVIOUR

SOCIAL DETERMINANTS & OTHER BEHAVIOURAL PATTERNS

Linking all the problematic behaviour together, and its association with the solvent and drug abuse, we may be seeing the early precursors of the impact of the structural changes that have occurred in society and we will need to re-evaluate our responses, both professionally, politically and publicly, to dealing with these phenomena.

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INTRODUCTION

Why do adolescents use drugs, smoke tobacco and drink alcohol?

This question has been asked countless times by both users and non-users of substances. There is a particular dearth of answers with respect to users who intersperse drug-taking with a "normal" life-style, such as most of the school children in this study. Awareness of, and concern about, the increasing health risks of such habits, have expressed themselves in a massive amount of research, both in South Africa (Human Sciences Research Council) and overseas; prominent scientific organisations such as the World Health Organisation, the

National Council on Smoking and Health (Norway), The Royal College of Physicians of the United Kingdom, the Institute for Social Studies and Medical Care (London) and the National Institutes of Health (USA) have all published in the field.

The subject covers a broad range of concerns, beginning with the search to identify antecedents and early risk factors, and culminating in the identification of target groups and proposing and testing intervention. While it is important to put the data described here in perspective within the wider field of published work, the field is vast. Emphasis will therefore be placed on those publications which have dealt with directly comparable subjects, i.e. adolescents aged eleven to eighteen years, and particularly those leading to the kind of intervention programme which might be relevant to the focal school of this thesis.

Research work described will thus be in the following fields:

background factors exploring comparatively the roles of family and peers, and other influences in the school and social milieu such as the pressure of convention, and stress;

identification of patterns or pathways, antecedents and early risk factors leading to health risk behaviour;

habitual patterns of users of drugs, and other agents;

intervention strategies and prevention programmes, and their results, if they have been analysed. Programmes chosen are those which have been deemed to be appropriate and relevant to the educational circumstances of the school researched and its population. (Chapters 11 and 12)

BACKGROUND FACTORS

The twentieth century has seen the rise to considerable power of both individuals and regimes; but as never before has been the expression of the feelings, force and power of youth. The Hitler *Jeug Bund* exercised frightening power under the manipulations of the Third Reich, demonstrating the destructive potential which could be unleashed in the young. The revolution of American students in the sixties is another example of youth being involved in destructive risk-taking, while the political involvement of black youth in South Africa in the last decades demonstrates the influence of peers and the waning authority of parents and family over their children in that context.

On the other hand, research continues to show that the family exerts considerable influence over the attitudes, behaviour and choices of young people.

It is rarely possible to separate the varying influences of families, friends, peers and other social influences over young people into discrete entities, since the personality is a complex construct made up of parts and aspects which are formed from the total environment, and from within. All these influences work in combination, preferably in harmony for the sake of a healthy race, and in the well-rounded individual, each is balanced in opposition with the others. Nevertheless, some studies have looked separately at family influence, and peer influence, and these will be presented before considering them in opposition to one another and to other social determinants.

Family influence

The family environment prevalent today ontributes to the very traits characteristic of drug users.

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As adolescent substance abuse is a relatively new field, best suited to longitudinal studies, some of the potentially most interesting studies are still in progress. Nevertheless some extremely important facts have been published.

For example, in a Parisian school, Neukirch and Cooreman (1983) established that smoking habits varied according to the attitudes of parents. If parents actively forbade smoking, proportions of children smoking were lower than if parents simply recommended non-smoking. Also, more children smoked who had smoking parents. This is in line with the results of the focal school of this thesis, as described in Chapter 3.

The Mount Sinai School of Medicine, New York, in two longitudinal studies, "Family Functioning and Adolescent Substance Use", (Needle and McCubbin 1985), and "The Role of Father\Mother\Sibling in Adolescent Drug Use", (Brook and Brook 1985), look at adolescent use of tobacco, alcohol, marijuana, amphetamines and other illicit drugs, followed by cross analyses of how relationships between father and child, mother and child, and between siblings (specifically brothers), affect substance use. The 11 - 13 year-old group was identified as the "focal adolescent".

In general terms these studies show that:

- 1) children whose parents smoke/drink/use drugs are more likely to do so themselves; (supporting the findings reported in this thesis in chapter 3)

2) children appear to follow the patterns of their elder siblings;

3) substance use is related inversely to family functioning, more specifically family cohesion, family coping mechanisms and responses to family and community stresses.

Finally, in a recent study, Stoker and Swadi (1990) showed that drug-using adolescents were more likely to perceive their families as distant and less involved, and intra-familial relationships to be mistrusting and punitive. Drug users also reported more parental separation, divorce, re-marriage and bereavement, suggesting that general family dynamics were at least as important as direct parent/offspring communication.

Peer Influence

On the other hand, several studies have pointed to the strong effect of peer pressure on adolescents' habits. In attempting to define a general aetiological model of the onset of smoking in children, Mauss and Hopkins (1985) found the most important predictors of change over time to be:

1. the extent to which children perceive their peers as users (especially with regard to alcohol);
2. the extent to which children are influenced by peers as opposed to parents;

It is interesting, and indeed significant, to note the correlation between these results and the research described in this thesis, where peers were found to have a profound effect on the behaviour of pupils. Moreover, their perception of the drug use of their peers was accurate (Chapter 4), and the support and opinions of peers were sought before those of parents or teachers in the case of a serious problem, like pregnancy or a

drug problem. The significance of peer influence, however, can most clearly be perceived when it is analysed in apposition to family influence.

Peers vs Parents

The relative importance of parents and peers on drug use is thus a seminal issue. Kandel of Columbia University School of Public Health (1985) has attempted to identify the nature of families prone to the development of drug use, and where drug use is promoted. In a longitudinal study, a sample of youth was asked questions on social networks that support drug use, with an emphasis on family, friends and spouses of respondents. The strongest influence was peer drug-using behaviour. However, the attitudes of their elders did influence use and the patterns of older siblings were also followed. Further work is being done to establish "critical family predictors" of stages of adolescent substance use.

In Bournemouth and Southampton (Pritchard et al 1986), the background social characteristics of substance abusers were shown to be a high unemployment rate of fathers or absence of a parent, and large family size. Problematic behaviour (delinquency, truancy), and youth club membership (and therefore peer influence) were also high risk factors. Thus the compounding of particular (specifically negative) familial characteristics and strong peer influence results in high risk factors with regard to health behaviour. There seems to be little doubt that children who grow up within a socially dysfunctional family, and who themselves have mental health problems or psychological disorders (Ensminger 1985) can be identified as being at risk. Such antecedents are bound to evolve onto paths leading to adolescents seriously at risk.

Finally, a questionnaire based on social learning theory and the Ajzen and Fishbein Behavioural Intervention model (Urberg

1981-83), confirmed that there are significant pathways between peer smoking and perceived peer pressure, perceived vulnerability and attitudes. However, the pathway from peer pressure to smoking is only significant in adolescents who place a high value on peer affiliation. Thus the strength of family ties and influence would be highly significant in countering peer influence.

Although the investigation of peer influence is somewhat disquieting, if the findings are used inventively, they could have a constructive effect. An alternate and creative way of using the strength inherent in peer relationships would be to use young leaders to teach their peers. Thus both peer influence and its power, and the natural leadership qualities of particular youths could be brought to bear in a positive and constructive manner. This concept has been well researched and will be further addressed in a later chapter.

Other Social Factors

Drug "addicts"

The concern of this thesis is with risk behaviours among "normal" adolescents and does not concern itself with the user who has got to the point of addiction. Relatively few adolescent substance users reach the point of addiction (Rutter 1979), and addicts, particularly those in institutions, may have quite different problems from otherwise healthy users. Nevertheless, within these constraints representative articles do shed some light on the initial development of drug use and are worth reviewing.

(Note: discussion of the precise definition of this term, and the point of particular debate as to whether marijuana/dagga is "addictive" has already been addressed in Chapter 5.)

An example of such a study was the comprehensive analysis by workers from the Human Sciences Research Council in a Pretoria rehabilitation centre, (Van Der Burgh 1978) which suggested inter alia that dagga use was the first stage in drug abuse. Those who used multiple drugs tended to start at a considerably earlier age than those who later continued to use dagga as the sole agent (12,4 years vs 16,3 years of age), and transition from occasional to regular use took an average of 1,5 years. The reasons for first use revolved largely around peer pressure and curiosity; regular use was more often for such reasons as alleviation of anxiety or depression, and the need for companionship.

Interestingly, Van der Burgh in an earlier report (1974), suggested that drug use was not a means of retreat from society; the entry into a drug subculture was rather the means of precipitating an "abrasive contact" or confrontation with society.

In slight contrast, Louw and Vermeulen (1979) found that heavy dagga smokers were introverted, emotionally unstable and capable of deviating from social norms because of impulsiveness and a general lack of societal responsibility. Drug users are also more likely than others to have come from a cold uncommunicative home with detached, strict parents and to have a low self-esteem.

More important to our study, however, are the factors leading to initial use of drugs, and Van Der Burgh and Heaven (1974) illustrate their discussion with four models:

- # socio-cultural - a description of drug-subcultures and their location and development within a "normal" social structure;

- # psychopathological - the presence of a dependence prone personality (although it should be stressed that

no specific one has ever been described);

functionalist which places drug use in relation to the aims of the individual and how these goals might be reached through this behaviour;

social learning which depends on social contacts, the availability of the drug and the norms of the immediate, rather than the general environment.

These models are useful bases for the discussion of factors outside the direct family and peer milieu which influence the habits described.

HABITUAL PATTERNS

We have now looked at the intrinsic nature of adolescents and their development, which per se place the young person in a vulnerable state, socially, emotionally and physically. Following this, the antecedents or early risk factors of adolescent risk behaviour, and the pathways leading to this were discussed. Both personal and environmental factors were found to be operative, and their implications for health education briefly considered.

Further factors which feed into the complex, and often subconscious decision by adolescents to continue "substance abuse" are perhaps best understood by comparing other lifestyle patterns of the users vs non-users, what has been termed "habitual patterns", i.e. lifestyle patterns of those already involved in the habitual use of substances or risk behaviours.

In the first instance, it has been stressed that behavioural patterns tend to coincide in individuals, perhaps as a manifestation of risk taking behaviour. As noted by Epstein

and Tamir (1984):

... there appears to be a significant relationship between high-school dropout and the health-related behavior of cigarette smoking, sexual activity, the use of hashish, and drinking of alcoholic beverages.

The correlation between alcohol use, smoking and sexual intercourse has been shown in this thesis (Chapter 8).

The correlation of behaviour has also been shown to apply outside of substance abuse. For example, in Simon's study (1982) of "healthy" university students, users (and their friends) were also far more likely than non-users to have contravened the law in non-drug related ways, e.g. shoplifting as children, driving motor cars without licenses, and damaging public property. Moreover drug use bore a strong inverse relationship to religiosity (measured through a number of established indices eg, concept of God, prayer, either private or communal, and how respondents saw the place of religion in the family). Similarly, Mauss and Hopkins (1985), in addition to the effect of peers, noted that adolescents were more likely to use drugs if not committed to conventional rules and activities, such as church membership and sporting activities.

Neukirch and Cooreman (1983) also looked at this issue, and made mention of important "secondary factors" such as satisfaction with school, inadequate knowledge about substances, and the inability to assign responsibility for problems. This is coupled with work on adolescent role strains such as changing relationships with others and their coping behaviour, and personal resources in problematic situations.

The issue of a negative relationship with academic work, and a rejection of schooling and further education has been studied by others. Pritchard et al (1986) reported higher degrees of truancy (two-thirds suggesting regular truancy) and problematic

behaviour. A WHO cross-national survey found in Norway (Kannas and Aaro 1982) that weekly smoking was highest among pupils planning to work after their basic schooling, and lowest among those planning to go on to further their academic careers. A similar pattern was found for other health habits, while negative health behaviours were "strongly overrepresented among pupils reporting poor school achievement and those who don't like school". Again, social influences were found to be the most important predictors of smoking habits.

The data relating to reasons for smoking among adolescents of different ages are illuminating: among younger children the appearance of smoking is more important, giving credence to the concept of peer influence and the need to adhere to perceived social norms (Charlton 1985). Older adolescents on the other hand, give more support to the ideas of confidence gained, the calming effects of smoking or substance use in stressful circumstances, and weight control. It is easy to speculate that these could be the reasons why there has been such an increase in smoking among adolescent girls and young women, while there has been a reduction in smoking in the male population. In a study measuring the emotional health state of adolescents, girls appear to experience more social stress than do boys, and the score among girl smokers was also significantly higher than among those girls who had never smoked (Epstein et al 1985). In addition, those students who themselves felt they did well in their studies and were healthy, had a significantly lower score than those who did not. It has also been established that adolescent mothers smoke more heavily than adolescents as a whole, and that their smoking is associated with boredom and other social disadvantages (Simms and Smith 1983).

The same issues were reinforced in a study of the "social communication functions" of adolescent smoking (McCarthy and Feshbach 1984) in which it was found that smoking plays an important predictive role for adolescents who place a low value on academic achievement and, in addition, who value independence

of adult authority. Also, smoking was associated with more hours spent on parttime work, less involvement in sport and exercise, and "a greater belief in the role of luck than self-care in determining future personal health". A sad comment indeed.

* To summarize, it seems clear that smoking and drug use are important predictors of a number of forms of destructive behaviour, and in addition is the precursor to other more damaging forms of substance abuse and general behaviour. The pathway to heavy drug use begins in early smoking, through marijuana and other substances, involving sexual activity and culminating in the use of heavy drugs and addiction; i.e. those who become addicted tend to be involved in all the other risk behaviours as well (Epstein and Tamir 1985). Nevertheless, even adolescents involved at a less dangerous level display disturbing and disturbed patterns of behaviour.

Smokers in general appear to fall lower on the academic scale, and are prone to have social problems in relation to peers and authority, personal problems of self-esteem and possibly within their families, and also often have general behavioural problems ranging from truancy and flouting of authority, to petty thieving and more serious forms of delinquency. Those who start smoking at an early age of between nine and eleven years tend to go on to more varied substance use and become involved in more serious behavioural problems. The key to serious health risk behaviour is thus the onset of smoking, and the critical factor is the age at which it begins: the earlier, the more serious. For this reason, much of the discussion in this section has been focussed on and has emphasized smoking patterns and their development rather than risk behaviours generally or particularly.

The logical step following on these discoveries is to propose intervention strategies which will identify target sub-groups and critical times in the lives of children for intervention.

In terms of the latter, for example, it has been shown that more serious drug abuse seems to follow smoking at an early age, about 11 years, so this could be considered the critical age, by which intervention should have begun.

In more general terms, as suggested by Epstein & Tamir (1984) It may be possible to construct a risk profile for the developing adolescent that would include his age and correlates of cigarette smoking, sexual activity, and the use of hashish [... etc]. This profile, which would show chronological development, possibly would allow for intervention aimed at changing the adolescent's behaviour.

The route to this end is the identification of factors which will "mediate between the antecedents and the outcome... which will enable identification of targets for prevention and critical points in child development" (Ensminger 1985). This will be the focus of the next two chapters.

CHAPTER 11

STRATEGIES & INTERVENTIONS IN ADOLESCENT HEALTH EDUCATION

It is clear that the general pattern of adolescent development and disorder has not altered to any substantial extent in recent years. The characteristics and concerns of adolescents today are closely similar to those of a generation ago and even to those of several generations ago. ... Young people, today, are probably as idealistic as they have ever been and they continue to be concerned with personal relationships and with personal values.

Rutter 1979

INTRODUCTION

In 1985, the theme of World Health Day was "Healthy youth - our best resource". At this time 30% of the world's population was said to be aged between 10 and 24, more than 84% living in the developing world. In the WHO Chronicle (Vol.39, 1985), comment was made that it is essential for youth to be responsible for their own health, and the health of the world. Between these ages "young people have to transform themselves: from children to parents, from dependence to independence, from being protected to being protective". This involves a lot of learning, experimenting and risk-taking: "every time a young person tries something new, there is a risk involved ... [inevitable] to the process of growing up." Earlier this century, Jean Piaget said that adolescence is the age of

developing "an awareness of how things might be".

Unfortunately, in many instances opportunities for "creative risk-taking" are hard to find, and the pent-up energy of this age finds its outlet in self-destructive risk-taking: smoking, drinking, gambling, fast driving and unprotected or uncontrolled sex. "Youngsters are, in fact, often sandwiched between a near-obsessive preoccupation with sex in some media and a veritable wall of silence from other sources of information on the subject" (WHO Chronicle 1985).

This was true of the focal school of this thesis, where a high proportion of the sample said they had difficulty talking to parents. 53% of the boys and 30% of the girls said they never discussed sexual or other such issues with their parents (Ch.7). While the case was not as extreme for girls, the problem is exposed as a serious one, particularly as the WHO finding quoted in this Chronicle was that "sound information about sexuality appears to encourage postponement of sexual intercourse".

These important comments underly a growing international consciousness (among adult members of the world community) that adolescent health/ill-health, substance abuse and aberrant behaviour has reached "morbid" proportions, and many programmes have been put in place to remedy the situation. Initially approaches were based on the premise that adolescent risk behaviour emerges from inadequate information, particularly regarding the negative effects, and that given sufficient information, changes would take place. Education was thus the mainstay of the intervention. Evaluations of drug education programmes, however, have not provided evidence that substance abuse education reduces drug use, and a meta-analysis of 33 programmes (Bangert-Drowns 1988) shows that while knowledge and attitudes are positively affected by these programmes, they did not affect behaviour of students. Attitudes are apparently "more malleable" than actual drug use; and easier to change than behaviour.

The same principle seems to apply to sex education programmes which have been shown to increase knowledge, but have relatively little impact on values, particularly those related to personal behaviour. They have also not been shown to affect the incidence of sexual activity (Kirby 1985).

A good point of departure is perhaps establishing the overall goal. If this is set too high, e.g. eradication of drug-use from a school, it is unlikely to be successful. It has even been argued that such an approach focussing essentially on changing behaviour is intrusive, perhaps reminiscent of *Brave New World*. More realistic goals are suggested as being:

- the provision of accurate information
- understanding of values and needs
- understanding of the self generally
- improvement of decision-making skills
- ultimately to enhance the ability to make "correct" decisions independently. (Kirby 1985)

However, educators concerned with the problems of irresponsible sexual behaviour and teenage pregnancy, in itself fraught with physical perils for the young mother and child, feel that it is central to change behaviour, even though this is more costly and intrusive.

Programme content is thus a debated issue.

The components of a successful programme may not be altogether clear, but it is clear that sex education on its own will not make a dramatic impact, and thus an integrated, holistic approach may achieve more success. Such programmes would aim to change and enhance the basic motivations of young people and also help fill their emotional needs and thus generally help them to improve the quality of their lives. Students who took LSD said their purpose was to "fill a moral and spiritual void, ... and to meet intense emotional needs" (Nicholi 1984).

Any such programme must continually be subject to critical analysis. Even though there is persuasive logic in focussing on the above factors, and not on drug or alcohol use alone, it must be remembered that in the eyes of parents and other members of the community, the only important issue may be a decrease in maladaptive behaviour. If a particular approach is shown to be ineffective in this respect, then alternatives must be sought. By the same token, if education alone does not produce desired effects, there can be no excuse for continuing with an isolated education programme, just because it is a relatively easy option and reassures parents that "something" is being done by the school.

The programme content is not the only, or even the most important factor. The mode of presentation has been shown to be as significant - indeed crucial. The adolescent years are the time when children move away from the influence of their parents, and increasingly look to their peers and their own judgements in determining their behaviour. Thus it is not surprising that in the meta-analysis quoted above, programmes were found to be more successful when group discussion replaced formal lectures. When peers were used as instructional leaders, they were seen to be "more credible referents" than adults and attitudinal effects were significantly higher.

Another important issue is commitment to the programme. Adolescents are likely to feel more personally involved when they perceive themselves as being involved through their own free choice as volunteers than being required to participate. They may also experience cognitive dissonance when they are participating in a programme which highlights the dangers of drug abuse while they are using drugs at the same time. "The pattern of findings is consistent with what one could predict from dissonance theory" (Bangert-Drowns 1988, p258).

Clearly there are alternatives to the purely didactic approach.

It may be helpful to investigate further some patterns established through the meta-analysis, such as whether adolescent health education could be made more effective through "creative opportunities for peer interaction and leadership". Also, if students were to choose freely to participate in programmes, it might increase the effects.

The WHO Chronicle quoted above asserts that

young people have the energy and imagination ... to provide insights about their own health in a way most health professionals cannot. ... They deserve a better hearing [and] have shown they want to pitch in and help others ... They can counsel each other when trained and given support and when they have confidence in themselves.

There are many areas they can help in, besides the esoteric concerns of youth: providing health care can be an adventure, and risk-taking can be directed into constructive ventures: the WHO went on to comment positively that fitness and health are becoming ever more popular with youth. *Good Health* may thus replace substance abuse as the desired norm. In addition, sports, exploration, social development or even politics - idealism and daring - are needed. The WHO thus felt some hope may lie in the themes of *Participation, Development and Peace*.

An example of youthful idealism, courage and daring may be found in the following letter:

The Star Johannesburg Wednesday July 4 1990 **READERS' VIEWS**

IN BRIEF

I address this letter to the white youth of South Africa. As we are all (black and white) the country's youth, let us forget about the way our forefathers lived.

We have seen that our parents still look back but this will never solve even a tiny problem in building the new South Africa.

Let us become one youth struggling for a new South Africa. Come on, you white young lions.

Zacharia Zulu

ALTERNATIVE INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES

The rest of this chapter will be devoted to a relatively brief description of some important programmes in this field, the intention being to demonstrate the positive results and constructive findings which will be useful to us, and in addition to pinpoint the problems and gaps encountered through experience. Chapter 12 will then deal in detail with a specific programme, the QUEST/TACADE educational programme, *Skills for Adolescence*, with which the author has been associated recently, and which appears to fulfil many of the criteria cited above.

The most far-reaching interventions have been the holistic, multi-strategic or multi-dimensional programmes which aim to redirect the basic motivations of young people, and other users, and also to change their attitudes and behaviour. Some of the objectives of these integrated programmes were broadly to help meet emotional needs which have been expressed, to increase career opportunities and thus help young people to live more effective and complete lives.

In Iowa, a school and community based smoking intervention programme (Lauer et al 1987) aimed to establish the psychosocial determinants of smoking and to provide tools for resisting pressures through education about the social and health consequences. This multidisciplinary programme was disseminated through the school curriculum and the community press, and was reinforced by competition and reward in inter- and intra-school, and intercommunity situations.

The project is directly comparable to the Sydney "Quit for Life" programme (Dwyer and Pierce 1984) which, however, aimed at designing a programme using "all available methods of influence" to reduce smoking in the Sydney area (i.e. in all ages, not only adolescents). Since the impact of smoking on individuals and on the community as a whole is of such great significance, it is considered of value to look in more detail at this massive,

comprehensive community-wide campaign.

Public consciousness of the issues related to smoking was raised by generating discussion at every opportunity through the mass media, direct household mail, the support and involvement of health care professionals and promoting the institution of the latest "educational innovations" that target the reduction of smoking among adolescents. In addition, the latest strategies for quitting were made readily available to the community, along with the coordination of advice, support and aid from health care workers. The campaign aimed to increase the number of people trying to quit, and to reduce the prevalence of smoking; the most successful current method of reducing smoking among teenagers specifically was considered to be emphasizing personal development through peer support.

This programme saw a substantial decline in smoking, though more among young men than young women.

Again, this supports the findings of the focal study, that the group which seems to be the most at risk is younger women, the proportion of whom smoke has been increasing and still exceeds the proportion of young men who smoke. The campaign endorsed the fact that prevalence of smoking is affected considerably by sociodemographic variables. Also, commercials initially were thought in the Sydney programme to have a considerable impact, since they seemed to raise the consciousness of the population and increase general discussion of smoking issues. Non-smokers, however, were more impressed than smokers by the publicity and felt its effect more strongly.

In essence, therefore, patterns of development are complex, interreactive and cumulative, so programmes need to be many-pronged if they are to succeed. Substance abuse, for example, is generally accompanied by other behaviour with a high health risk and low academic achievement (Chapter 8). In addition, younger users appear to be more involved in social

image, while older users may move on to drugs to control weight and stress. Thus an effect considered most important in the Sydney study was that:

During the campaign, the issue of smoking increased in salience in the community and the misconception that smokers are in the majority decreased markedly (important because the majority of people tend to change behaviour towards perceived norms).

Clearly the concept of the norm is a powerful one, and a valuable source of influence. This is a central philosophical point in the design and construction of community based programmes and indeed all strategies which aim to affect the behaviour and attitudes of adolescents. By definition, the adolescent is searching for a sense of identity, of "who one is and what one's role is ... [and needs the] provision of clearly defined roles and expectations for behaviour" (Erikson 1968). These have to be based in what the adolescent perceives as the norm to have any credence; a problem arises when society [fails] to provide clearly defined roles and standards; [which often results in] the formation of cliques which provide clear but not always desirable roles and standards (Erikson *ibid.*).

A University of South California project (Johnson and Flay 1985) went some way to meeting this need. It aimed at involving the community network (including in addition to the above examples concerned parent groups, voluntary community groups and churches) to implement "visible efforts to educate and raise awareness". This project's specified intent was to make use of all "up front" public figures and bodies, respected community leaders and groups at all levels to influence adolescents and

reduce substance abuse, including smoking. Though they achieve a most important, probably crucial, object of increasing awareness and publicizing a positive and communally accepted norm, the major problem with these broad, all-embracing community-based projects is that they are uneconomic in terms of time. Results are collected over years, take more time to analyse and even longer to be reincorporated into the programme and appropriate changes made, or ineffective aspects rejected.

Parents and health leaders are concerned that as time passes, young people are passing through their adolescent years unaided and not receiving the input and direction they need. Many programmes have thus focussed more specifically on the school situation implementing mainly psycho-social strategies within the school setting. Most programmes of this kind incorporate education and giving information into the work as well, but have a clearly defined emphasis on teaching psycho-social prevention strategies (Botvin 1985) or social resistance training (Johnson et al 1985), developing self-control skills, problem-solving techniques, self-instruction procedures and community skills (Schinke and Gilchrist 1985).

A peer-led preventive programme was tested in 10 schools by Macoby et al (1985) to hypothesize that smoking, etc, can be prevented through "non-coercive persuasive influence". They found that there were significant differences for tobacco smoking and not marijuana, but concluded that more research is needed to demonstrate the usefulness of socio-psychological strategies. The Cornell University study (Botvin 1985), however, found that prevention strategies implemented by peer leaders made a significant impact, whereas the groups taught by teachers were not influenced.

Clearly the comments of H J Schankula, director of Education Resources, Addiction Research Foundation, Toronto, make sense here: what is required in general schooling is to "work toward an integration of emotional and intellectual development" within

the whole curriculum, so that health and moral education is ongoing in parallel with the academic curriculum: i.e. commitment to a "multi-strategic" approach to counter "a growing loss of societal purpose and identity".

Programmes which are oriented towards family and personal life address in part the latter concerns (Kurtines 1988). Changes in family life and its stability, shifts in child care and high divorce rates have affected family stability the world over. In the United States the rate of divorce has closely paralleled the rise in drug use (Nicholi 1984). It is a fact that college students take drugs to escape from a "less than tolerable reality" (ibid.).

While the family is the essential source of both health and risk, however, its very disintegration points to the need for more far-reaching interventions. To this end an adolescent health clinic was established in central Detroit on the basis of a questionnaire to high school students. Its inception was followed by an evaluation some months later (Giblin and Poland 1985). Health needs expressed by the high school students included sound information on skin problems, drugs, sex and birth control. Of high priority were qualities of professional competence and integrity which were required of the clinician. Older students wanted more information on STDs, while younger students were more interested in sports injuries and related problems; also girls expressed a greater degree of problems and concern in all areas than boys, except jobs.

It is important to note that Whatley et al (1989) reported that school-based clinics are well accepted by the adolescents themselves, more than half of the attenders being self referred. A high degree of success with this approach has also been suggested by Galavotti and Lovick (1989), who showed that clinic attendance was a strong positive predictor in their multivariate analysis of contraceptive use in schools.

This certainly provides some further direction for the construction of intervention programmes. Much has been learnt from these many different sources of research and work: in schools, the community and health clinics and institutions, both private and public.

What then are the components of a successful programme?

Besides giving facts, programmes variously lay emphasis on the following areas: building confidence and self-esteem, getting in touch with self and feelings, improving ability to communicate with peers and family, withstanding peer pressure, sense of values and judgement, respect and responsibility towards self, family and community. Wright and Pearl (1986) have succinctly summarized the issues in compiling a set of principles for successful programmes. These seem to be endorsed by the overview of research in this chapter, i.e.:

- * goals must be clearly identified;
- * the "facts alone" approach is not effective;
- * the "shock horror" approach has no lasting effect and may be harmful;
- * there must be careful selection of the target audience;
- * the source of information must be credible;
- * drug education must be part of a wider programme of health and social education;
- * such a programme must aim to enhance self esteem and life skills and must be sensitive to locality, ability and culture.

In the same article, mention is made of the work of TACADE in producing teaching packs, with a note of warning that continued evaluation of such programmes is essential. This thesis will, we hope, go some way towards that task.

CHAPTER 12

QUEST/TACADE PROGRAMME

Programme of Quest International (Ohio) and TACADE (Manchester):
"Skills for Adolescence, an Approach to drug education for 11-14
year olds" 1986.

The basic goal of the programme is to prepare young adolescents to deal effectively with the changes they will experience during adolescence and the challenges that will face them as adults. The programme aims at helping young people to lead lives and make decisions that are both personally satisfying and socially constructive.

(Tacade programme manual p11)

INTRODUCTION

In spite of the essentially negative findings of Bangert-Drowns in his meta-analysis of substance abuse education (see Chapter 10) his questions and statements must give us pause:

Can substance abuse education be made more effective through creative opportunities for peer interaction and leadership? Is the lecture method a particularly poor way to present drug education? Would enhancing students' sense of free choice regarding participation in a program

increase the likelihood of the program's effects?

It should be obvious from this meta-analysis that further research on whether knowledge is increased by substance abuse education is not justified.

As it stands, the public record shows that substance abuse education has, for the most part, failed to achieve its primary goal, the prevention of drug and alcohol abuse.

In Chapter 11 a variety of programmes for modifying adolescent behaviour were discussed. Bearing in mind Bangert-Drowns's comments above, a pattern nevertheless begins to emerge of more constructive and effective approaches, as opposed to strategies which clearly have little or no effect. In the light of these investigations and the experience of researchers and course leaders, it is clear that a programme would have to fulfil certain criteria if it were to be successful. To recapitulate:

- * such a programme must focus on the enhancement of self esteem and life skills and must be sensitive to locality, ability and culture;
- * health and "moral" education should move in parallel with the basic academic curriculum;
- * social responsibility and community involvement practised;
- * not solely based in information-giving;
- * not be based on the "shock horror" approach as this has no lasting effect and may be harmful;
- * goals must be clearly identified;
- * the source of information and instructors must be

credible;

- * the technique of teaching is as important as the information being offered;
- * use should be made of peer leadership and interaction.

At the time at which this thesis was being written, in Palmerston North, New Zealand, a programme was instituted in a private girls' school which seemed to have many characteristics which might potentially make it successful. This was the TACADE\QUEST Programme : "Skills for Adolescence, an Approach to drug education for 11-14 year olds" which originated in 1986 as a joint venture of Quest International (Ohio) and TACADE (Teachers Advisory Council on Alcohol and Drug Education in Manchester).

The opportunity was thus presented to review this programme as a possible model of how things could be done. It must be stressed that the programme is relatively new, and whether it will modify "unwanted" behaviour patterns remains to be seen. The scepticism voiced by some that programmes may merely serve "as the reassurance of parents that the schools are at least trying to control substance abuse among students" (Bangert-Drowns 1988) needs to be met by continued efforts on the part of concerned educationists and adults to readjust approaches and to make more progress. Nevertheless, this programme is based in sound academic principles and experience, and it is thus presented as a natural sequel to the research presented in Chapters 9 to 11.

OUTLINE OF THE PROGRAMME

[Note : henceforth, in this chapter, reference to page numbers denotes pages in the QUEST/TACADE manual]

The programme is oriented towards school-children aged 11 to 14 years. Materials provided to participating schools include a detailed manual for teachers, who are also required to undergo inservice training, a student textbook plus assignments and worksheets, and a book for parents.

The teachers' manual opens with a rationale setting out the bases of the programme's structure and content before providing the units for teaching. The philosophy of the programme is very much in line with the results of Bangert-Drowns's meta-analysis discussed in the previous chapter, and the comments of Wright and Pearl (1986) as to the requirements for adolescent health education. Most criteria are met, and it is for this reason that this programme was chosen for description. The only apparent gap, and possibly a serious one, is that there is not much use made of peer-leadership and/or peer-instruction. This is acknowledged in the programme which has specific elements aimed at countering peer dominance and building trust within the "classroom community"; thus the omission is perhaps overcome by two factors:

1. teacher specialization: firstly, this quite intensive training puts teachers into the "credible" category of instructors; and, secondly, their informed perspective and training enables teachers to more easily assess, counter and deal with peer interactions and to use them constructively.
2. the emphasis on social balance within the classroom and creating a caring classroom community, accompanied by specific training of pupils to counter peer dominance and negative influence.

Some personal comments on this score from students at the school are:

* in relation to friends:

The most important thing I have learnt is from that saying: to let people go and if they come back they are yours; if they don't they never were. Also you should never put down your friends if they tell you something they really like. You should care for your friends and not betray them.

* in relation to peer pressure or dominance:

I don't really like them and what they do. I usually feel strong enough to ignore them now and try not to let it get to me that they don't like me or my opinions. I have learnt ways of withdrawing from conflicts and I understand how to do that now.

* Something important is that we have learnt to say what we feel more calmly through "I feel" statements, and not just to start screaming.

There seems to be general agreement among the students that they look forward to the sessions and have learnt a lot of useful things during the first year of the course. In a class that has had long-standing conflicts, the classroom climate is markedly improved, and an interesting comment from Anette Gregg, their teacher is that she has learnt a great deal herself which she wished she had known when her own children were adolescents!

She contends that the most important lesson learnt by this group is to deal with problems and conflicts within the group: even when she has had (very seldom) to intervene, the group response has been greatly facilitated by their recognition of problem-solving procedures and their willingness to use them. This pays tribute to the effectiveness of the course since by her own admission, Anette was "not looking forward to dealing

with this class".

The programme is designed to be a personal and social education scheme whose greatest impact occurs through being taught as an integrated whole, rather than being incorporated into other subjects. This means that while the programme has been designed and is appropriate for use in such diverse settings as church youth centres, schools or community youth programmes, it may also be taught as part of the general school curriculum within such subject areas as social studies, guidance, language or religious studies. However, the course compilers suggest that the best impact would be made through teaching it as an integrated course in its own right, over an extended period: two school terms at least, or a year or two. This is because the central concepts need to be taught and reinforced throughout the programme. [This too would more readily meet the stated needs of high school students (Giblin and Poland 1985) who required among other things specific knowledge and a credible and understanding clinician]. Its emphasis is on fostering skills in responsibility, decision making, communication, self-confidence and goal setting. Primarily, this involves the school and the parents, but there is also a strong emphasis placed on community involvement through "service learning - the development of school and community projects that involve students actively in their own learning by offering service to others". (p9)

The specified aim of the programme is to help young people deal with the challenges of our complex society through "positive growth experiences" and teaching "specific coping skills" - based on the premise that the best time to do this is during the critical early adolescent years, before negative behaviours set in. It is for this reason that the programme targets the early adolescent years of 11-14, being a particularly vulnerable period.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF THE PROGRAMME

Skills for Adolescence was created in response not only to the concern about today's young people expressed by educators, parents, community and youth leaders, and confirmed through research; but also in response to the needs of today's schools - which are in the front line meeting the challenges of life in the 1990's and the twenty-first century. It is today's schools, as much as today's parents, who have the task of preparing our youth for their lives ahead.

The need for traditional academic skills, on which there is so much emphasis in curricula, is rationally addressed in the programme: reading, writing, public speaking, analysing and organizing ideas, thinking critically, collecting and categorizing information, and communicating are incorporated skills. But in addition, it reinforces the expectation that schools will continue to develop character, citizenship and responsibility - traditional concepts which often seem to be lost nowadays in the clamour for academic prowess. *Skills for Adolescence* encourages awareness of community needs and shows ways of meeting those needs by creating a "strong sense of classroom community and effective, positive relationships [between] students" and their teachers. The example and positive experience of community in the microcosm of the classroom will hopefully then be transmitted to the macrocosm of the community at large, and put into practice through the Service Learning Projects.

There has been a clear indication in previous chapters that successful programmes often revolve around the "people factor" - the enthusiasm and personal input of teachers and parents and other course leaders. The development of a strong sense of classroom community emphasized here is thus an important factor, too, for teachers and students to work well and enjoy learning together.

THE NEEDS OF SCHOLARS

Today's students face many challenges and changes, and their needs and the needs of schools are indisputably interrelated; these have been discussed at length in earlier chapters. The central challenges facing schools and pupils as seen in this programme are:

- * Changes in family structure: single parents, working mothers, stresses which the whole family have to cope with - resulting in loss of the quality of support and nurturing which children need.

- * Extended family structure: few families have grandparents living with them - the influence and support of members outside the nuclear family is diminishing.

- * The workplace demands new skills and training; the job market is unpredictable; more versatility and higher training needed;

- * Drug and alcohol abuse: experimentation virtually a rite of passage with the average age of first use declining to 11 - 14 year-old range.

- * Young people are growing up in an environment of mixed messages about alcohol\drug use. Parents and teachers warn against it, but pro-drug messages come from a very wide field: pop stars, sports figures, youth-oriented advertising, peer pressure.

- * Other youth problems - high incidence of problems related to alcohol\drug use: juvenile delinquency, adolescent pregnancy, school dropout, suicide. Many of these are interrelated and found at alarmingly high levels throughout society, regardless of social class, ethnicity or geographic location. (p10)

It may be enlightening at this point to cite a rather disturbing article entitled "Ball Games" by Carroll du Chateau in a local New Zealand popular journal, "Metro" (July 1990), which serves also to underline the current consciousness and concern of both press and populace about adolescents and teenagers. School balls, involving pupils in their final two years of schooling, have changed their focus and expression almost completely over the past ten years. Alcohol appears to be a prerequisite, and "image is crucial" and preferably extremely expensive. Problems are rife:

For a start, a combination of peer pressure and people who exploit that powerful teenage urge to conform with the gang has made the school ball ridiculously expensive. Not content with the hired tuxedo, cummerbund and bow tie for the boys and expensive gown for the girls (which they then refuse to wear again), the coolest boys buy corsages for their girlfriend and hire a stretch limo ... Teenagers themselves are frank about the function of a pre-ball party: they want to get plastered. "Everyone has drinks, but only beer or wine," says one. "...I usually have five or so glasses of wine to get in the mood."

...

Then there is the problem of adolescent sex which, as John Graham points out, so often piggybacks on alcohol and drugs. "Much of this sexual relationship thing is related to alcohol and drugs where inhibitions are lowered artificially," he says. "In my view youngsters don't understand the true meaning of sex. It almost becomes a badge, especially with young males."

John Graham is headmaster of Auckland Grammar, one of the most prestigious high schools in Auckland, New Zealand. His concern with the behaviour of his students is echoed by many school heads, and he speaks for us all. This magazine article simply serves to endorse the urgent need for action, which has been the cry of educationists and researchers for years.

Thus, and in terms of the preceding research, the needs spelled out above represent a clear and accurate picture of the general circumstances and needs of school pupils. The section following this focusses more specifically on the young adolescent, hopefully not yet involved in the behaviours described above.

THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF THE YOUNG ADOLESCENT

The 11-14-year-old experiences more rapid growth and development than at any other stage of life except infancy. Early adolescence is also a time when young people experience their highest persuadability in relation to the world around them. (p10)

The challenges of growing up in a changing, complex society are compounded for the adolescent by the problems of this particular phase of their lives. The impact of these changes and developments are acknowledged in the content of the programme.

Since there is such variation in the rate of growth, both individually and between girls and boys, there can be enormous differences within one classroom - a five- or six-year difference between a rapidly developing girl and a slowly developing boy. Lipsitz is quoted in the manual (p11) as commenting that adolescents are juggling their chronological, academic, biological, emotional, social and intellectual ages all at once, which can result in a remarkable combination of ages within a single classroom.

The basic goal of this programme is thus to prepare young adolescents to deal effectively with these changes during adolescence, and to prepare them to face the challenges of adulthood. It aims to help them to lead personally satisfying and socially constructive lives, and to be able to make fitting

decisions.

TEACHING APPROPRIATE VALUES FOR HEALTHY GROWTH

By their very nature, schools communicate, model, reinforce and teach particular values - and rightly so. An orderly society relies on basic principles and beliefs that are important for the health and well-being of all citizens.

A clear set of values is implicit in the programme which provides a basic moral and ethical framework. It is suggested in the article quoted above that the emphasis on the rights of the individual and self-expression had a lot to do with the alcohol problem, in particular, getting out of hand. An ex-pupil is quoted as saying that "They were so into the individual thing - making sure that people's individual personalities grew in the right direction. I think the drinking was part of that." Clearly there has in fact been an over-emphasis of individualism: a definite indication away from egocentric concerns, toward social and personal responsibility and morality, is needed. The following qualities and values thus underly all the conceptual bases of the teaching units and include:

- *self-discipline
- *A consideration of the benefits of a drug-free lifestyle
- *respect for others
- *compassion
- *good judgement
- *responsibility
- *honesty
- *family cohesion
- *trustworthiness
- *involvement in family\social groups\community.

Many educators, researchers and major involved organizations such as WHO, TACADE itself, Rutter (for the Nuffield Provincial Hospitals Trust), Blos among others, have expressed concern at the lack and loss of a moral structure being provided for today's youth. Yet in many youth movements it is abundantly clear that a direction and a path is sought for and needed. The idealism of young people lays them open to both influence and guidance: "this is a time when young people experience their highest degree of persuadability in relation to the world around them" (p10); it is thus a central responsibility of both parents and the schools to provide direction.

The many aspects of one's inner moral sense are well covered in the programme, which deals with self-oriented values, such as self-respect and -discipline, honesty, good judgement and a healthy lifestyle through avoiding drugs and resisting the various pressures which are brought to bear. Social values are covered by a consideration of respect for others, compassion, trustworthiness - keeping confidence, family cohesion and community concern and involvement. Generally, qualities of courage, kindness and integrity are considered to be the basis of interaction and concept of self.

THE ROLE OF SERVICE LEARNING

Young adolescents in particular tend to be more action-oriented and physical than older teenagers. Therefore, in addition to varying the pace of the curriculum and suggesting numerous activities that are not oriented exclusively to oral discussions or the printed page, "Skills for Adolescence" contains a critically important service learning component (p11).

The rationale behind the inclusion of this component, besides

acknowledging the physical energies of adolescents, demonstrates a concern with the pattern of egocentricity and ethnocentricity evident among young people of this age. Professor Norman Sprinthall (North Carolina State University, USA) is quoted as saying that the curriculum needs to be balanced by involving adolescents in actually playing a part in the community, doing community work and taking part in service learning. Thus through real experiences and reflection, adolescents could develop personal competence and take part in community life, rather than remain within their esoteric cliques or inner "shells". In addition to serving the community and meeting real needs, this unit thus enables the individual to grow, mature and expand the horizons of his social and inner self. The sorts of projects envisaged could be:

- * "friend" projects - helping another (younger) student;
- * giving support to elderly people;
- * cross-age tutoring projects;
- * projects to improve school climate;
- * school\community support projects;
- * work oriented towards saving the environment.

One of the most important aspects of the service learning unit is that it involves students in new roles. While it does not fit into the usual framework of school work, and involves different kinds of organizing by the adults, it also gives the students responsibility to themselves in a situation where they learn by doing, through service and action.

In order to meet the above aims, and also to enable students to "practice a wide variety of basic academic skills" (p11), the programme aims at teaching adolescents the following academic, social and coping skills:

THINKING - at different levels, memorizing - evaluating
critical thinking
creative thinking

FEELING - self-awareness

dealing with troubling feelings

developing self-esteem

DECISION MAKING -

setting goals

gathering information

generating alternatives

examining alternatives

evaluating consequences of a decision

COMMUNICATION -

sending clear messages verbally, nonverbally, in writing

listening accurately

responding verbally and nonverbally

learning positive strategies for handling conflicts in relationships

ACTION - developing competence in using these skills every day;
learning to carry these with you into the world.

This holistic approach, more than a direct psycho-social strategy since it makes use of academic and "action" skills as well, sets out to provide the adolescent not only with strategies for coping with life problems, but also to be conscious and aware of what is happening to them specifically, how psycho-social patterns work, whether support-giving or manipulative, and how to function within all this. The issues and skills learnt are then practised, experienced and reinforced further within the classroom community and through the Service Learning Projects, whose role it is to provide a wide forum to this end.

OTHER ASPECTS OF THE PROGRAMME

Thus far the philosophical, educational and rational bases of the TACADE programme have been discussed. What follows is a brief description of the execution or practical implementation:

overall design of the programme

materials

service learning projects

classroom climate strategies

instructional strategies

a list of the teaching units and their structure.

The overall design of the programme:

The teacher trained in teaching *Skills for Adolescence* plays the central role in the dissemination of the programme, and is provided with a detailed Curriculum Manual. The pupils, who will be directed into community-oriented activities within their own classroom and the community at large, have a Student Book and a Student Workbook. The book, "Changes: Becoming the Best You Can Be", parallels the units in the Manual and has two main components for each unit: an article which helps to clarify the central concept of the unit and a short story illustrating the theme in dramatic form. The Workbook is simply a means of keeping a record of information, worksheets and work done, as well as of students' thoughts and feelings about topics and individual experiences - the latter could also appropriately take the form of a diary shared with the teacher.

Family involvement is encouraged throughout the programme and parents or guardians can be involved through parent seminars and through the book for parents: "The Surprising Years: Understanding Your Changing Adolescent" of which the central emphasis is maintaining communication with one's adolescent(s). The four two-hour seminars for parents focus on the following topics: self-confidence, family communication, family

discipline, and substance abuse.

The teachers' Curriculum Manual provides the rationale for the programme, and ten sections with detailed procedures for "Service Learning Projects," "Classroom Climate Strategies," seven units of study, and summary activities.

The function of both the Service Learning Projects and the Classroom Climate Strategies have been discussed earlier in this chapter. Both strategies are designed to run alongside the teaching units, and to be drawn upon at appropriate times. The Service Learning Projects provide pupils with opportunities to bring about positive change in their community, and also thus to reinforce their skills and experiences they have learnt in class and to apply them in real life. Similarly, the ten activities in the "Classroom Climate Strategies" must help to build "trust, support, empathy, and a positive classroom climate" through such interactions as "comfort and caring" sessions, humorous ideas for registration, a question box and other group-oriented activities. (p14) These two sections are given in full detail in Appendix I.

This general mode of interaction is emphasized and reinforced in the guidelines for instructional strategies in which the instructor's role is fully explored. Firstly, it is suggested that some teachers would be more comfortable teaching this kind of material than others, and that the instructor needs to have a genuine liking, respect and concern for young people, the ability to listen sensitively and to encourage them to express their ideas. The instructor should also feel comfortable in the role of facilitator or leader, about involving parents and community, and also in supporting the values of the curriculum. It is essential for the instructor to take students seriously, and to model the role of a trustworthy, interested and disciplined, but approachable person. A warm, personal and relaxed teaching style seems to work best, where the instructor

is prepared to participate in activities and to share his/her own experiences - preferably with some humour. An important element is structure, particularly at the developmental stage of adolescents who need a consistent model for behaviour:

You will also need to insist that the classroom guidelines developed to ensure an effective and fair group process are respected and that infringements of the rules are followed promptly by disciplinary measures. It is essential to the success of the course that students feel safe and supported in the classroom. Put-downs, broken confidentiality, and rudeness should be dealt with firmly and quickly. You must be able to walk the fine line between being a friend and a respected authority figure. (p17)

Further guidelines and suggestions are given in detail with regard to effective classroom management and use of the session structure, course requirements and post-session or -course evaluations. This material is of particular interest within the teaching situation and is included in the thesis as Appendix II; however, one or two comments at this stage are appropriate.

Aside from the general principles of respect and sensitivity between and among pupils and teacher, awareness of and consideration for the feelings and concerns of others and the need for structure, which have all been discussed, students also should know that they have the "right to pass" whenever personal feelings or opinions are discussed in front of the whole class. This does not apply to assignments, but it may take some time before all individuals feel safe enough to reveal themselves in front of the whole group. The use of small groups for discussion also is a strategy which can lead to a supportive and relatively "clique-free" environment where people get to know and feel comfortable with members with whom they usually have little to do.

Self-evaluation on the part of both teacher and students, can be

constructive and useful forms of communication between teacher and pupils. This is particularly so when a pupil has an area of need of which the teacher may be unaware. It also enables the teacher to evaluate her or his own performance.

TEACHING UNITS

The topics of the teaching units and a brief description of their content follows:

Unit One: Entering the Teenage Years:

The Challenge Ahead

Unit One helps to create a safe, supportive environment. The unit also examines the special characteristics of early adolescence, focussing on the interests and concerns of this age-group and examining aspects of physical, intellectual and social development that young teenagers will be encountering.

Unit Two: Building Self-confidence Through

Better Communication

Unit Two helps to enhance self confidence by encouraging students to recognise personal strengths, develop communication skills, and establish a caring and cooperative classroom atmosphere.

Unit Three: Learning about emotions:

Developing competence in self-assessment and self-discipline

This unit focusses on identifying, exploring and constructively managing emotions that are common among adolescents.

Unit Four: Friends:

Improving Peer relationships

Unit four examines ways of initiating, developing and maintaining positive relationships with others. The unit also

emphasizes the need to cope with negative peer pressure and build on positive peer pressure.

Unit Five: Strengthening Family Relationships

This unit explores family relationships and the ingredients that help strengthen families. Students develop skills in communicating needs and feelings to other family members and are introduced to ways of resolving family conflicts. The activities also encourage students and their families to enhance family relationships through working and playing together.

Unit Six: Developing Critical Thinking Skills for Decision Making

This unit provides opportunities for the student to apply decision making skills to the important influences in their lives, particularly the mass media and the availability of alcohol, cannabis and other drugs.

Unit Seven: Setting Goals for Healthy Living

In unit seven the students assess their attitudes, goals and role models. They use this information as the basis for developing plans of action for their lives.

Unit Eight: Summing Up: Developing Your Potential

This section reviews the skills that have been taught throughout the curriculum. The activities encourage the students to assess what they have learnt during the course and to recognise and appreciate the changes that have occurred in other class members and the group as a whole.

The Structure of the Units is as follows:

Each unit opens with a description of the goals and table of contents, followed by a research-based rationale justifying the inclusion of the unit in the curriculum. Teaching exercises are

then set out and include:

Energizers: to focus consciousness and energy on the unit objectives, and to redirect classroom dynamics so as to reinforce the unit objective or concept.

Unit Projects: designed to complement and reinforce classroom activities, and to be completed independently by students.

Activity Sessions: these are designed for a period of 45 minutes, each session having a full outline of purpose, materials required, activity with discussion material and activity procedure, and questions to be processed. Finally, homework ideas are recommended, with suggestions for notebook entries encouraging students to record on reflection what they are learning, thinking and feeling.

The units are presented in a great deal of detail, which is again of interest and relevance in the teaching situation. For this reason, Units Four and Five entitled *Friends: Improving Peer Relationships* and *Strengthening Family Relationships* are given *in toto* in Appendix III. These have been chosen as being crucial material in terms of the discussion on pathways to problems in adolescent health and patterns of health-hazardous habits in Chapter 10. It must be stressed that in this programme and considering the research findings in meta-analyses like those of Bangert-Drowns (1988) and Wright and Pearl (1986), it is difficult to assert which strategy of intervention is "more crucial" than another, if that were possible. It seems clear, however, and logical, that *The Family* is the starting point of most things, and that peer interaction and pressure, in the adolescent years more particularly, affects all.

In conclusion, this programme seems well constructed and likely to be effective. Based as it is in years of experience, investigation and research by the British educational organization, TACADE, and by the QUEST organization in the USA, it is presented in great detail which is evident of thought, liberal minded though traditional values and a reality-based orientation towards problem solving. A note of caution, however: the programme was constructed for American and British adolescents; it may therefore need modifying if it is to be used with children from different backgrounds, in different social or cultural environments. The programme has made a strong, positive impact in a school community known to the writer and it is thus recommended as a sound starting point for a health education programme in a South African setting, perhaps the focal school.

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SERVICE LEARNING PROJECTS

One of the most exciting ways to help young adolescents become responsible, caring citizens is to provide them with opportunities to look beyond themselves and reach out to others in their schools and communities. The purpose of the service learning projects, which are an integral part of the *Skills for Adolescence* programme, is to encourage these learning experiences. We recommend that each *Skills for Adolescence* class organize and complete one service learning project.

The Goals and Benefits of Service Learning Projects

The concept of service learning is based upon research showing that students learn more about themselves and gain a greater degree of personal maturity when they apply skills they learn in school to real-life, non-classroom situations. The project can be the beginning of a genuine concern for the environment and for others. The goals of the project are:

1. To give students an opportunity to develop leadership skills such as effective listening, appropriate responding, cooperation, and organizing;
2. To give students the experience of providing service to others and to the community;
3. To enable students to participate in activities and projects that address identified school and community problems and needs.

Students can benefit from service learning projects in a variety of ways. These include:

1. Opportunities to practise the new skills taught in the classroom;
2. Opportunities to meet and spend time with people of significantly different ages and backgrounds from themselves;
3. Opportunities to develop new interests and discover new talents and abilities in themselves;
4. The experience of helping others, which can lead to greater self-confidence, purposefulness, and personal maturity;
5. Career exploration opportunities.

The school or community in which the project takes place will also benefit. These benefits include the following:

1. The students gain maturity through the project that can carry over into greater school participation and commitment to helping others;
2. The school can become more closely connected with the community as participating students work together with staff members, community members, and interested parents and guardians;
3. More people will become alerted to school and community concerns and ways of addressing them;
4. The students will see that their own actions count for something and that they play a meaningful role in school and community affairs; as a result, they will be less likely to feel alienated and discontented.

How to Make It Happen

1. **Introduce service learning through three consecutive class sessions.**
Organizing a service learning project requires careful planning. To help make this task easier we have developed three consecutive class sessions that will guide you in beginning the project. These sessions are described in the following pages.
2. **Begin the project after Unit Two.**
We suggest that you introduce the service learning project at the conclusion of Unit Two. At that point the community building that we consider essential before you begin service learning will have occurred, the students will have learned some basic communication skills, and it is likely that the students will have developed a commitment to the class and its goals. Thus, they will be more likely to enter into the cooperative spirit of service learning when the project begins.
3. **Follow up on the project during Units Three to Seven.**
To assist you in following up on the service learning project after the first three sessions, we have included sessions in Units Three to Seven entitled "Service Learning Project Update." These sessions structure class time specifically to share information about how the project is going, continue

working on the project, make necessary changes, and evaluate the students' participation. The service learning project cannot succeed unless you make it an integral part of the course. The followup sessions will help to ensure this by keeping all the participants involved and up-to-date while you evaluate the project on a regular basis.

Before You Begin a Service Learning Project

Here are several important steps to take before you introduce the project in the classroom.

1. **Identify an adult leader(s) to help you administer the project.** The adult leader may be a colleague, an interested parent*, or a community volunteer. She or he must be available to attend the eight meetings during the school day, help students organize and implement the project (this may happen after school), and arrange any necessary transport, among other responsibilities. Previous experience working with young people would be helpful.

NOTE: Some tips on choosing an adult leader: Think of the adult leader as a partner who will help you in a variety of ways to get the job done. Make sure that you choose someone whose schedule is flexible enough to provide the help you need. It should be someone with whom both you and your students will feel comfortable and compatible. The two of you will want and need to stay in frequent contact. Make sure that before the adult leader accepts the assignment you've communicated exactly what help you'll need and you both have a clear understanding about your roles.

2. **Decide whether you want to do a school project or a community project.** It's important to get your students involved in determining the exact nature of the project, but you may choose to define the setting. If you offer the two alternatives, you should be prepared to go along with what the class decides, as long as it's reasonable. If you wish to keep the project within school boundaries, make it clear that a community project is not under consideration. A community project is likely to be more complicated to organize and coordinate than one in the school, but it may also offer positive benefits that will make the extra effort worthwhile. It's up to you (and the adult leader) to decide beforehand how complex a project you're willing to undertake.

*A great many children live with guardians and other adults who are not their parents. Rather than constantly reiterate the phrase "parents and guardians," we have chosen to use the word "parents" in a generic sense to mean all adults who are responsible for child rearing in the context of the *Skills for Adolescence* programme.

3. **For the first class session duplicate copies of the "Service Learning Project Ideas" handout and the Service Learning Project Questionnaire.** Make enough copies of the questionnaire to give to people whose feedback would be helpful in selecting the class project—colleagues, community people, parents, and others. Details on distributing the questionnaire are included in Service Learning Project, session one.

4. **When visitors come to the class, make it an experience that actively involves all of the students.** Often "experts" are invited to talk to large groups of students who have had no input into the selection of the speaker or the topic. Leslie Button has developed an Active Tutorial Work Scheme that allows the students to plan and be responsible for the visit and encourages a dialogue between the "expert" and students, helping to motivate the students and keep them involved. The scheme involves these steps:

- A. Schedule at least one lesson to prepare for the visit, one for the visit itself, and one to evaluate the visit.
- B. Limit the group of students to about 30, and let them help decide who the visitor should be. Consider the purpose of the visit, speaker availability, timing, location, and seating arrangements. Be cautious about planning refreshments for the whole group, as they may become the focal point of the visit.
- C. Ask each student to participate in one of the following activities on behalf of the group:
 - Writing an invitation to the visitor;
 - Greeting the visitor and accompanying him or her to the meeting place;
 - Introducing the group to the visitor;
 - Asking questions of the visitor; the group should discuss and select these questions beforehand to ensure that the questions will be relevant and appropriate; they may also be encouraged to respond to the visitor's answers so that a natural dialogue takes place;
 - Allowing the visitor an opportunity to ask questions of the group;
 - Bringing the visit to a close;
 - Thanking the visitor;
 - Accompanying the visitor from the classroom and perhaps providing refreshments;
 - Writing a thank-you letter that also asks for the visitor's reactions to the visit.

- D. Encourage the group to evaluate the visit. Ask them what they learned, how well they coped socially, whether the visit was enjoyable and worthwhile, and how they might improve the next visit.
- E. Stress that any "failures" of the visit (someone not participating or misbehaving) were failures of the group, not the individual. The success of the visit is a group responsibility.

- F. Have the group consider nonverbal as well as verbal messages that were communicated by both the speaker and the group.
- G. Trust the group to handle the situation as if you weren't present. Even students who habitually misbehave will respond positively if they know they are responsible for their own behaviour and for the success of the visit.

SERVICE LEARNING PROJECT, SESSION ONE

Choosing a Service Learning Project

SESSION PURPOSE:

To select a service learning project for the entire class to organize, implement, and evaluate.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Identify a number of school and community concerns that need to be addressed.
2. Develop an awareness and concern about school and community issues.

MATERIALS:

1. "Service Learning Project Ideas" handouts
2. Service Learning Project Questionnaires

Run off enough copies of the questionnaire to distribute to those whose opinions will be helpful in selecting a project.

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Invite your adult volunteer leader to the service learning project sessions.
2. Provide copies of the "Service Learning Project Ideas" handout and the Service Learning Project Questionnaires.
3. Introduce the class to the concept of service learning.
4. Explain the benefits to the students, the school, and the community.
5. Determine whether the project will be school-related or community-related.
6. Pass out the "Service Learning Project Ideas" handout and read over the project ideas for your area of focus (school or community).
7. Help the students choose four ideas that best meet the special needs in your school or community.
8. Pass out questionnaires to the students for them to write the four project choices in the spaces provided.
9. Arrange for questionnaires to be distributed and collected for the next class session.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (15 minutes)

The purpose of this session is to introduce the students to the concept of service learning and to begin selecting a project in which the class can participate for the entire term.

1. Before class begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“The greatest use of life is to spend it for something that will outlast it.” — Henry James

3. Introduce the class to the adult volunteer(s) if he/she has not already met the class as a “visitor”.
4. Explain to the class, “We are about to begin an exciting class project that will provide us with many opportunities to reach out to others in our school and community and practise our community-building and communication skills in real-life situations. We’re going to do this by organizing what’s called a service learning project—a volunteer activity that will involve all of us in making a commitment of time and effort to help bring about some positive changes in the school or community. Service learning means that you learn by actually providing some kind of service to someone else. During this lesson we’ll talk about specific service learning ideas. There’s almost no limit to the possibilities. It could be anything from visiting elderly people in a nursing home to doing something to make this a better school. The reason we’re doing this is that it will give us practice in helping others and, in some small way, improving the world. One of the major goals of the class is to encourage all of us to reach out to others. We’ve been doing this during the lessons, and now we’re also going to do it outside the lesson.”
5. Ask the class, “Why is it so important to learn how to serve others without expecting anything in return? How did you feel the last time you did something special for someone? What did the other person gain from your actions?”

Share some of the goals and benefits of service learning described earlier. Emphasize the opportunity service learning offers to develop leadership skills by being involved in a constructive project in the school or community.

Ask the students, “What do you think some benefits of a service learning project might be for you

personally?” Encourage such answers as: making the classroom learning experiences more relevant; providing an opportunity to know and relate to people of different ages and backgrounds; expanding and developing interests, skills, and talents; gaining greater self-awareness, self-discipline, and personal maturity; and learning more about possible careers.

Now ask the students, “In what ways can the school and community benefit from a service project initiated and carried out by students?” Encourage such answers as: students will be more mature and better prepared to be responsible citizens; the school can become more a part of the community; more people will be aware of school and community needs and ways to address them.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (20 minutes)

1. Explain, “One of the first steps in organizing a service learning project is to determine whether it will focus on the school or the community. [If you have already made a clear choice of one or the other, skip this step.] Let’s think about the practical aspects of both types of projects. A school project can be organized and carried out during the school day and on school property. A community project will require time out of school (probably after school) and perhaps transport to and from the project site.”
2. Pass out the “Service Learning Project Ideas” handout and read over the suggestions.
3. After reading the suggestions, discussing them, and adding any new ideas, determine in which setting—school or community—the group wants to work. (Skip this step if you’ve already made the decision.)
4. Have the students choose four projects that they believe meet important school or community needs. Encourage discussion of what the important needs are and how the projects address them.
5. Pass out several copies of the Service Learning Project Questionnaire to each student. Each student is to write the four project ideas in the spaces provided on each of the questionnaires. Then each student is to take one copy home to share with his/her parents. Collect the rest of the questionnaires to distribute to colleagues. Remind the students that all questionnaires must be filled in and returned by the next session because the class will be using them to select a class project. You will need to take responsibility for distributing and collecting the questionnaires from other staff members before the next session.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: *(5 minutes)*

1. What are some of the most important things that people your age can learn from doing a service project?
2. What about service learning excites you most?
3. What about service learning concerns you most?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: *(2 minutes)*

Ask the students to take their questionnaires home and ask family members to respond to them. The form must be returned for the next session.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: *(3 minutes)*

Ask the students to write a brief entry in their notebooks that responds to the following two questions: What is the value of serving others? What rewards do you get by serving others?

SERVICE LEARNING PROJECT IDEAS

SCHOOL PROJECTS

1. **Plan fundraising activities to help buy a needed item for the school.** Possibilities include the sale of cakes and biscuits, fruit, sandwiches, or soft drinks during the school day or at extracurricular events. Others include car washes, jobs, recycling, and so on.
 2. **Organize a school "public relations" project.** Possible projects:
 - A. Prepare a slide show about the school to show at community and school meetings.
 - B. Create decorative notice boards.
 - C. Sell T-shirts with the school's name and a motto printed on them.
 - D. Make a school banner and encourage support of school events, both within the school and in the community.
 3. **Do a school beautification project.** Possible projects:
 - A. Planting trees, bushes, or flowers. Funds would need to be raised or nursery items donated for the project.
 - B. Paint waste bins using the school colours or decorate them as part of an anti-litter campaign that could also include posters, banners, and badges.
 - C. Sponsor a "Keep Our School Beautiful" campaign to create a sense of pride in the appearance of the school and prevent vandalism. The class might give some kind of award to the school for completing a term without any incidents of school vandalism.
 - D. Make notice boards, murals, and other decorations for the interior of the school.
 4. **Plan a school climate campaign.**
 - A. Initiate a campaign to eliminate put-downs in the school. Give it a name, e.g., the "Smile" campaign or the "Say Something Nice" campaign. Make posters, circulate "Happy Grams", create daily announcements, involve school staff, and make the campaign a school-wide effort.
 - B. Organize a "Give Peace a Chance" campaign to eliminate school fighting. Design badges, posters, T-shirts, and other symbols to draw attention to the effort. Involve the administration, school staff, community members, and other interested adults.
 - C. Begin an "Excellence in Education" campaign. Create posters, badges, and notice boards encouraging students to make the most of themselves.
 - D. Have a "Special Mentions" assembly each week where all positive deeds or achievements from individuals or groups are mentioned and acknowledged.
 - E. Celebrate "Appreciation Day" for staff and other key adults in both the school and the community who have contributed time and effort to the students and the school. Use Happy Grams as a way of showing appreciation and develop special events for a day of celebration.
5. **Choose an issue of general concern in your school—for example, students running away from home, teenage pregnancy, suicide, drug and alcohol abuse, or gang conflict—and develop a campaign to do something positive about it.** Possible activities include bringing in guest speakers for assembly, using visitors, showing films after school that address the issue, organizing a peer support group (assisted by a competent adult) to help students deal with their problems, and distributing information on where to go for further help.
 6. **Initiate a tutoring programme for students in the school.** Begin by assessing special skills among class members and then advertising how they can help other students in the school. Special skills do not need to be strictly academic. Students could help others in design, music, home economics, sports, and a number of other school-related courses and activities.
 7. **Organize clubs that highlight students' special talents.** Send out a questionnaire to find out

what kinds of clubs would generate interest and don't already exist.

8. **Create a talent club.** Informal talent shows could be organized every few weeks. Students, school staff, and interested community members could be invited to attend. In addition, students in the club could share their talents with people in the community—for example, at day care centres, senior citizens' centres, nursing homes, or hospitals.
9. **Have students become a friend to students who have special needs in the school—for example, new students, foreign exchange students, or handicapped students.** Get a list of students with special needs from the administration. Secure permission from the Head Teacher and others. Plan ways to help these students adapt more effectively.
10. **Organize special events for different groups within the school—for example, teachers, other school staff, or parent volunteers.** Events could include a breakfast, lunch, or tea given in honour of one of these groups. Plan as many events as you have energy and time for.
11. **Plan a school "Friendship Festival" with speakers, workshops, resources, and activities to make people more aware of friendship issues and skills.** The festival could incorporate some of the following ideas, among others: (a) send Happy Grams to people in the school; (b) place posters around the school that highlight the theme of friendship; (c) give out badges with words or sayings about friendship written on them.
12. **Create a project of your own.**

COMMUNITY PROJECTS

1. **Plan fundraising events if you think your project will require a significant amount of money.** See No. 1 in the "School Projects" section.
2. **Plan to provide services for special events to an institution or organization that cares for the elderly, the chronically ill, or the mentally ill.** These agencies always need volunteer help. Possible services:
 - A. Plan a holiday dinner for the elderly at a senior citizen centre or nursing home.
 - B. Plan special entertainment for people who are institutionalized or hospitalized.
 - C. Create handmade gifts for needy children, adults, and elderly people. Give them away on special occasions.
 - D. Organize drives to raise needed items or funds.

Specific items to be donated could include food, clothing, books, and games.

- E. Initiate and develop friendships with hospital patients, nursing home residents, senior citizens in the community, homeless children, and others in need. Students could then visit these special friends on a regular basis.
 - F. Design a "Special Olympics" for people who have disabilities. Create medals, ribbons, and other awards as part of the event.
3. **Plan to work with a local nursery school to provide some of the following services:**
 - A. A holiday party—you may wish to create committees for decorations, food, and entertainment.
 - B. Leading the children in activities that you have learned in your *Skills for Adolescence* class.
 - C. A puppet show designed to teach younger children about the importance of good communication in relationships.
 - D. Other forms of entertainment—music, dance, slide shows, and plays, for example.
 - E. Instruction in how to make some simple arts and crafts projects. Work with the nursery school teachers to fit these projects into the topic that the children are studying at the time.
 - F. Instruction in some simple, practical skills—for example, how to answer the phone, how to be courteous and polite, how to share, and so on.
 4. **Create a "Job Corps" to help people in the community with household chores that they may not be able to do themselves.** For example:
 - A. Cleaning the house or garage;
 - B. Mowing the lawn;
 - C. Raking leaves;
 - D. Shovelling snow and spreading salt on pavements and driveways during the winter;
 - E. Running errands.
 5. **Organize a community beautification project.** Plan to help clean up or revitalize a rundown area, park, or recreation site. Solicit support from community groups. Alert the newspapers and television stations—this may help to involve other interested citizens.
 6. **Create a project of your own.**

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGIES

In a course like *Skills for Adolescence*, it is important to create a positive, trusting classroom climate. Yet this can be difficult to achieve. For young adolescents in particular, the possibility of rejection, failure, or ridicule may be extremely threatening. Therefore, you, as the course facilitator, need to set the tone for a positive, supportive atmosphere that will help to create the feeling of openness and trust on which the success of the course depends.

Here are some general guidelines that you may wish to follow:

1. Share your own feelings and concerns as often as possible.
2. Reinforce and praise trusting behaviour when you observe it in class.
3. Listen carefully and positively to each student.
4. Try to see and encourage the best in each student—find strengths and abilities, expect responsible behaviour, and so on.
5. Uphold the ground rules—for example, insist on confidentiality, no gossiping, and no put-downs.
6. When trust has been violated, encourage forgiveness and reconciliation.

In addition, the following “Classroom Climate Strategies” can be introduced and used at many different points in the course. This section provides strategies that can help the group get to know one another better, develop trust, and build communication and cooperation.

Although the comfort with these kinds of activities will vary from one group to another, the following activities can help to establish the closeness and mutual support that young adolescents need. We suggest that you introduce them, one at a time, throughout the course and spend time processing them. When introduced appropriately, they will add a new and positive dimension to the students’ experience of the course.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

Large Group to Small!

PURPOSE:

To provide lively and interesting ways to break the group into pairs or small groups for class activities.

PROCEDURE:

Use any of the following ideas for dividing the class into pairs or groups. They will help to enliven the lesson.

FIND SOMEONE WHO...

1. Has on the same colour socks as you.
2. Has on different colour socks than you.
3. Has a different hobby than one of yours.
4. Has a different favourite TV show than you.
5. Has made the same choice as you (or a different choice) on this question: Are you more like an apple, a banana, or a cucumber?
6. Has on the same number of rings as you.
7. Has on a different number of rings than you.
8. Has the same number of brothers and sisters as you.
9. Has a different number of brothers and sisters than you.
10. Has a birthday in the same month as you.
11. Has a birthday in a different month than yours.
12. Has the same number of letters in his/her first name as you.
13. Has a different number of letters in his/her first name than you.
14. Enjoys the same sports as you.
15. Has a different feeling about sports than you.
16. Has made the same choice as you (or a different choice) on this question: Are you more like a bing, a bang, or a boing?

17. Has made the same choice as you (or a different choice) on this question: Are you more like a calm lake, a bubbling brook, a flood, or a swamp?

18. Knows the answer to this riddle: If a plane crashes on the English/Scottish border, where should the survivors be buried?

(ANSWER: With any luck, the survivors would not be buried.)

19. Puts his/her shoes on in the same order as you.

20. Puts his/her shoes on in the opposite order.

21. Is pretending to brush his/her teeth with the same hand as you.

22. Is pretending to brush his/her teeth with a different hand than you.

23. Has completely different initials in his/her name than yours.

24. Gets out of the same side of the bed as you.

25. Rolls out of bed on a different side than the one you roll out of.

26. Wonders what to be when grown up.

27. Has the same last digit in his/her phone number as you.

28. Has a different last digit in his/her phone number than yours.

29. Was born in a different county than you.

30. Was born in the same county as you.

31. Has the same first vowel in her/his first name as you.

32. Has a different first vowel in her/his first name than you.

33. Had the same feeling upon awakening today as you.

34. Had a different feeling upon awakening today than you:

35. Has the same favourite colour as you.

36. Has a different favourite colour than you.

37. Has made the same choice as you (or a different choice) on this question: If you were an egg, would you be poached, fried, hard boiled, or scrambled?

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

“Knock! Knock! Who’s There?” Creative Registration

PURPOSE:

To give the students an opportunity to share information about themselves with the class.

PROCEDURE:

Each day or every other day when you take the register, ask the class to respond to questions rather than just saying “Here”. For example:

- On a scale of one to ten, how are you feeling today?
- What colour do you feel like today?
- If you could be doing anything else right now, what would you do?
- What musical instrument do you feel like today?
- What flower or tree best reflects how you feel today?

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

Secret Friends

PURPOSE:

To build empathy and community.

MATERIALS:

1. Blank cards
2. Pencils
3. Box or shopping bag
4. A friend "Post Office" (a drawer, cupboard, or other large container) where students can place gifts, notes, or cards for their friends whenever they like.

PROCEDURE:

Have the students list on cards 15 things they like to do, have, own, or surround themselves with. Tell the students to write their names and birthdates at the top of the cards and then fold the cards and place them in a box. Each student then picks a card, and the person named on the card becomes his or her "secret friend".

Tell the students that throughout the term everyone should do helpful and friendly things for their secret friend without revealing their own identities. At the end of the term there will be a class party at which the students will find out their secret friend's identities.

Caution: To prevent unkind notes or other unwanted mail, we suggest the teacher serve as the keeper of the secret friend "Post Office" and hand mail out on a regular basis—for example, during a few minutes at the end of a lesson once or twice a week.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

Comfort and Caring

PURPOSE:

To give the students an opportunity to share experiences that are important to them.

PROCEDURE:

Stop the class five minutes before the bell rings. Bring the class together, preferably in a circle, and explain that the next several minutes will be devoted to "Comfort and Caring"—a time when students may share things that are important to them for any reason. Encourage the students to listen carefully and support each other. Examples: a brother coming home from college, a new pet, a new accomplishment, a need for advice, a good mark in a class, a favour needed, saying goodbye to a friend, a disappointment. Encourage appreciation of accomplishments and support for disappointments. Comfort and Caring can be a special time to encourage compassion, empathy, and good listening.

SPECIAL NOTE:

Many teachers have found that they need to structure Comfort and Caring by limiting the time each student may take. Also, students can ask to "contract" for a certain amount of time, such as 30 seconds or one minute. This structuring seems to become more necessary as the class feels more comfortable with each other. Another way to structure Comfort and Caring would be to schedule it for a particular day every week but let the students know they can contract for a few moments any day.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

Time to Celebrate

PURPOSE:

To give the students a chance to highlight important events in their lives and the lives of others.

MATERIALS:

1. You might ask interested students to design decorated cards to use as Celebration Cards.

PROCEDURE:

Provide the students with Celebration Cards to keep in their notebooks. Explain that the purpose of the cards is to call attention to noteworthy events and things that people have done—either the students themselves or people they know. The students can fill in these cards whenever they want. The cards state what it is they are celebrating, who is involved, and how they feel about the celebration. Encourage students to look for things to celebrate in others, not just in themselves. They might want to celebrate a birthday, for example, or a particular accomplishment. Other celebrations could include:

- Something a student saw another person do that seemed particularly praiseworthy;
- Another person's outstanding accomplishment;
- The beginning or end of a special event or activity;
- Special family events and traditions;
- Accomplishments of brothers, sisters, or parents.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

A One in a Million You!

PURPOSE:

To focus on each student in the class on a regular basis.

MATERIALS:

1. Sugar paper
2. Art supplies
3. Notice board space

PROCEDURE:

Every week or so allow time for an activity that gives special attention to particular students in the class. For example, make stars out of sugar paper, ask the students to paste pictures of themselves on the stars, and hang them up around the room to feature the "All-star Class." Or highlight a "Student of the Week" on a notice board.

You can connect this with the passing seasons by asking the students to create classroom decorations and ornaments with other students' names on them—for example, Halloween masks, thank-you notes, holiday ornaments, and Valentine hearts. The point is to give each student the feeling of being an important part of the group.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

“The Days of Our Lives” Calendar or Story Book

PURPOSE:

To record visually the ways in which the class is evolving as a cohesive and supportive group.

MATERIALS:

1. Sugar paper
2. Large sheets of paper
3. Poster paints
4. Markers
5. Sticky tape or drawing pins

PROCEDURE:

Choose a couple of interested students each month to create a large calendar on which the class can record important developments during the course. Items might include birthdays, accomplishments, the service learning project, group activities, unit achievements, and other significant events that help to bring the class together as a unified group. You may want to see that all calendar entries are reviewed by a committee (including yourself) before they're displayed.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

Forms of Support

PURPOSE:

To provide the students with opportunities to validate people in their lives.

MATERIALS:

1. A variety of "Happy Grams" and other messages of support and validation (see Unit One, session three).

PROCEDURE:

Make available a number of validation forms like the "Happy Grams" in Unit One, session three. Explain to the students that the purpose of these messages is to congratulate, recognize, praise, and support people in our lives each time they do something we appreciate. Encourage the students to send or give the forms to people they know whenever it's appropriate. Always keep an ample supply, and on occasion remind the students that they're available and how they can be used.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

Question Box

PURPOSE:

To encourage students to discuss personal issues and concerns in a nonthreatening context.

MATERIALS:

1. A cardboard box

PROCEDURE:

Set up a question box in the classroom. You may wish to call it the "Dear Marj" box or make up a humorous name of your own. Tell the students that the purpose of the box is to encourage them to write and submit anonymous questions about issues that are on their minds and which they might not be comfortable asking out loud. Once a week let the students know that you've read the questions. Also let them know how and when you plan to work your responses into the classwork. You may want to spend part of a class session or an entire period reading the questions and leading a discussion to arrive at suitable answers. It's important to be honest with the class about subjects with which you don't feel comfortable or that may not be appropriate for classroom discussion. It's also important to help students find support outside of the classroom when they need it. Encourage them to talk with their parents, for example, or other concerned adults.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE STRATEGY

Plan a Picnic

PURPOSE:

To develop feelings of community and camaraderie.

PROCEDURE:

The main point of this activity is to enhance a feeling of community and sharing among the students by "breaking down the walls". Plan to go to someone's house or a local park after school one day for a picnic. Divide the class into groups of five to share games, activities, or the responsibility for contributing food, drink, and entertainment.

B. Effective Use of the Session Structure

1. **Session Purpose.** Students are more receptive to learning when they know exactly what the purpose of the lesson is. Therefore, we suggest that you write the session purpose, as stated on the opening page of the session, on the board or in some other clearly visible place at the beginning of the lesson. The students will be far more cooperative if they understand why they are being asked to participate in a given activity.
2. **Objectives.** These objectives are stated so that you can accurately assess how well the students have attained them. They refer to behaviour and knowledge that can be usually confirmed through observation. The objectives may also be helpful in clarifying for students what is expected of them.
3. **Materials.** The Materials section lists exactly what you will need for each session. Because advance preparation will often be required, we recommend that you familiarize yourself with the Advance Preparation and Materials Needed section at the beginning of each unit.
4. **Activity-at-a-Glance.** This brief summary of each session lists all the major steps. Teachers who have taught the activity several times may find that this serves as a convenient review and makes it unnecessary to reread the entire procedure every time.
5. **Activity Introduction.** Each lesson is divided into an Activity Introduction and an Activity Procedure. The Activity Introduction helps to set the stage for the main part of the activity—to create the appropriate mood, to begin to get the students thinking about the topic of the day, and to warm up the class.
6. **Activity Procedure.** This portion of the narrative describes the central learning experience of the class session.

Often the instructions for this section require the class to brainstorm ideas, words, phrases, and so on. Brainstorming is a technique used to develop as many ideas as possible and generate creativity. To brainstorm, have the students call out their suggestions (but not so loudly or frequently as to cause confusion) while you or one of the students designated as a recorder writes the suggestions down on the board or a large sheet of paper. Make it clear that during brainstorming there must be no judgement or discussion of the suggestions. That can come afterwards; the purpose of brainstorming is simply to generate ideas. You can let the brain-

storm “run down” when people seem to be out of ideas, or you can set a specific time limit.

7. **Processing Questions.** All of the sessions in the curriculum contain questions designed to help the students determine how they felt during the activity, what caused their feelings and reactions, what they thought, what they learned, and how they can apply that learning to their lives — in short, questions that assess the process of the session, as contrasted with the content. Although “processing” is usually done in the form of questions and answers, in some cases we have preferred to use unfinished sentences (“I learned that I...”; “I was surprised that...”; etc.). Processing can also be done through notebook writing or specific followup questions or activities. Feel free to include additional questions of your own. The following are typical processing questions:

- What feelings did you have during this activity?
- What are your feelings at the moment?
- What thoughts occurred to you as you did this activity?
- What behaviour did you notice in yourself?
- Are there any particular insights you gained from this activity? Any changes you might make?
- Is there anything else anyone would like to say about this?

Make sure you spend no less than five minutes at the end of every lesson processing the activity. This is often a critically important step that adds clarity and depth to the lesson.

In addition to the processing questions provided for each session, it will often be helpful to use group process questions to check on how the course is going and how the students are feeling generally. This kind of group processing involves getting answers to such questions as, “How are we doing as a group? How are people feeling about the course? Are we achieving our goals?”

Some typical questions that might be used to see how the class is going are:

- How is everyone today?
- How are we doing as a class?
- What has been working well in the class so far?
- What could be better?

- Are we going too fast? Too slow?
- How are your homework assignments going?
- What have you enjoyed most about the class this month?

Sometimes group processing may be introduced through observation or feedback:

- “People’s energy seems low. Is that right? How are you feeling? Do we need an energizer?”
- “I’m feeling uncomfortable. Am I the only one? Are any of you feeling this way? What can be done about the climate?”
- “The quality of reports that just came in was really high. I want to thank everybody for the time, energy, and hard work you’re putting into your assignments.”

Other kinds of activities that can be used for processing are:

- **Here-and-Now Wheel:** Draw a circle and divide it into four sections. Have the students write a word or phrase in each section describing how they feel at that moment.
- **Weather Report:** Ask the students to describe how they feel, using a weather report format, i.e., “I feel sunny and bright” or “cloudy and stormy.”
- **Letter-to-the-Teacher:** The students write a brief letter telling how they are feeling, how they are doing, and how they are reacting to the class.
- **Suggestion Box:** The students and teacher write suggestions about how the class could work better together.
- **News Reports/Updates on Projects:** The students describe what they have been doing in class-related projects or other activities.
- **“I Urge” Telegrams:** The students and teacher take time to send a short and helpful message to anyone in the class, e.g., “I urge you to continue expressing your views.”
- **Drawing Pictures:** The students create artistic representations of how they see the class at any given time.

Group processing can take from a few minutes to a whole class or more. Responses can be verbal or nonverbal (e.g., “How many think we’re going too fast? Raise your hands... How

many think we're going too slowly?"). However it is done, group processing can be an effective way of keeping the class on track, enhancing communication and cooperation, solving problems, and helping everyone get as much from the course as possible.

8. **Beyond the Classroom/Homework.** Every session includes a suggestion for homework. You may decide not to give homework every night. When you do give it, however, you will need to allow time the following day or some time later to discuss it. We have not written follow-up discussions into the lessons because the option of giving homework is up to the individual teacher. It is important, however, to review and, where appropriate, discuss the homework as soon as possible after it is completed.
9. **Notebook Entry.** Although notebook entry ideas are suggested for each lesson, it may be appropriate for some groups to write in their notebooks only occasionally, while others will be comfortable doing it every day. As with the homework, we suggest that you follow up on the notebook entries. You may wish to encourage your students to share their responses with the class or with each other. You may also wish to read the entries and write comments. Or you may choose just to put a tick on the pages, without reading every word, to indicate that the students are keeping up with their notebook writing. Another option would be to read the entries only when the students write "Please read" or a similar message indicating that the entries are not private. Whatever your response, it should be prompt. Also, given the sometimes private nature of the notebooks, you may decide that it's necessary to keep them in a locked cupboard.
10. **Diaries.** Using the student notebooks as diaries can encourage valuable communication between a teacher and student. Diary entries allow students to ask questions, express feelings, and reflect on all aspects of their lives. It is important for the teacher to respond honestly and personally, offering questions and comments for the student. The following guidelines for using diaries were compiled by staff at a Leicestershire secondary school:
 - Diaries are a dialogue between you and the writer.
 - Try to step out of your "teacher" role in responding to diaries. Consider them as communication between two equal people.
 - Respond to diaries by adding your own thoughts, questions, comments, or feelings.

- Expect the quality of student entries to change over time. Students may be very objective and routine in their comments at first. After a relationship of trust is established, they may find it easier to respond more openly about their thoughts, feelings, questions, and ideas.
- Do not limit what is included in a diary. Your responses will model how broad students' entries might be.
- Marking grammar or word usage is not appropriate to diaries.
- Consider writing a diary yourself and sharing it with your students.
- Diaries are a way to contemplate and reflect.
- Diaries are private and should be read only with the writer's permission.

C. Classroom Management

1. **Classroom Climate Strategies.** Classroom climate strategies can be introduced at any time during the term and used throughout the course to help build trust and a positive classroom climate. Several different classroom climate strategies can be found in a separate section in this manual.
2. **Classroom Rules.** Given the programme's primary goal of building trust and community, certain ground rules must be followed consistently. Don't allow exceptions. Stick to the guidelines even if you need to remind the class several times each lesson period for the first few weeks. We recommend that you establish the following ground rules, and you may wish to add others of your own. Put them up, if you like, in a clearly visible place in your classroom. Encourage students to develop them, reinforce them, and determine consequences for breaking them — or rewards for observing them.
 - Listen to others;
 - Don't put other people down;
 - Don't gossip about things that students say in class — respect confidentiality and trust;
 - Show respect;
 - Don't interrupt while someone else is talking;
 - Try to accept and understand other people's views.

3. **The Right to Pass.** Students should know from the beginning of the course that they always have the right to pass in any discussion that elicits personal opinions, feelings, or experiences. In an atmosphere of respect and trust most students will be eager to participate most of the time. The right to pass should be stated at the beginning of the course, however, and reaffirmed frequently (as in, "Who would like to go first? Remember everyone has the right to pass."). Make it clear that the right to pass does not apply to required assignments and projects.

4. **The Conversation Circle.** For activities in which the entire class is working together as a group, we recommend that, if possible, the students' seats be arranged in a conversation circle or horseshoe so that everyone can see everyone else. This helps to promote student participation, a more relaxed atmosphere, and group cohesiveness.

5. **Using Pairs and Small Groups.** We suggest many different kinds of groupings throughout the course. The most common are pairs, groups of three to six, and the entire class, or "large group". Forming pairs and small groups may seem strange at first, and the students may feel a bit awkward and ill at ease. Young adolescents (and adults) have a natural tendency to stick with their closest friends or most comfortable allies when small groups are called for. To counter this tendency, we recommend that in the early stages of the programme (and later if the need becomes apparent) students form pairs and small groups with people they don't know or don't know well. Ways of getting students to form groups are suggested in the "Classroom Climate Strategies" section under the heading "How to Break 'Em Up." The process can lead to a warm, supportive environment that is relatively "clique-free".

We recommend that pairs and small groups always have a specific task to complete, perhaps with one person functioning as the group recorder. You may wish to award points to groups that complete their tasks within the time allotted during class. Because so many activities require group work, it will be important to set high standards for the student groups so that the group time will be taken seriously. Skills that are all-important for successful group work include focusing, listening, and asking questions. These skills are introduced in Units One and Two and reinforced throughout the curriculum.

6. **Role Playing.** Many activities in the curriculum require this technique. We suggest that you always model a role-play situation first to give the students an example of what is expected. Try to create an atmosphere of relaxation and fun when assigning a role play. We also encourage you to spell out specific tasks for everyone involved in a role play and establish a time limit. The more specific the assignment, the better the role plays will be.

7. **Energizers.** Energizers can be helpful in counteracting the mood slumps, "down" periods, and other unpredictable moments that are typical in any group. Because of this we have included relevant energizers at the beginning of every unit.

Energizers might be appropriate when:

- The class has been sitting still for a long time;
- The class needs a group activity;
- The quiet has been deafening;
- The din has been deafening;
- Some class members arrive late or are excused early;
- The class has just returned from lunch or goes to lunch after this lesson;
- The lesson is abbreviated because of an assembly or fire drill.

Here are some important things to remember as you and your students create and use energizers:

- The class members should be the centre of attention. The teacher only facilitates the activity.
- Instructions should be concise and clear. Use the board whenever possible or ask a volunteer to help you demonstrate the procedure.
- Have objectives for the activity clearly in mind.
- Appeal to a variety of energy levels and formats. Use both quiet and active energizers. Use large and small groups, pairs, groups of three, and so on.
- Take time to process energizers. This may take only a few minutes for some and more time for others. Without processing, students often see energizers as isolated activities, rather than as something that is relevant to the rest of the lesson. We encourage you to review the energizers at the beginning of each unit.

IV. COURSE REQUIREMENTS

We recommend that students in the *Skills for Adolescence* course be given a list of course requirements during the first few lessons. You may duplicate and use the requirements listed below or adapt them to your own situation.

A. Nonschool Settings

In nonschool settings such as community centres, where the *Skills for Adolescence* course is entirely voluntary, you may need to motivate students to complete regular assignments more than you would in a school setting. One way is to let the students know before they enrol that during the course they will be expected to complete some work outside the regular sessions. Another approach is to give the students some idea of the type and amount of work that will be required, explain how the assignments relate to the content of the course, and determine their willingness to commit themselves to this type of programme. In settings where students' participation is entirely optional, you may have to modify the assignments. Their enthusiasm for completing assignments outside of sessions may grow as the course progresses.

B. School Settings

Where the *Skills for Adolescence* curriculum is being used as a school course, students will be expected to do a certain amount of required work. Listed below are suggested requirements:

- **Service Learning Projects.** Implementing a service learning project is an integral part of the programme. We suggest that each class develop, implement, and complete one service learning project for the term.
- **Unit Projects.** The section at the beginning of each unit entitled "Unit Projects" lists a variety of projects that students can complete on their own. Each student should complete at least one project per term. You may wish everyone in the class to do unit projects at the same time or allow the students to choose one project for the term from the unit of their choice. (This would require you to describe all of the unit projects as soon after the beginning of the course as possible.)

You may also want to modify the lists of projects or encourage students to develop their own projects, obtaining your approval beforehand. If you want students to be exposed to units that you may not have time to cover,

you could encourage or require them to choose projects from those units. You may decide to let some students work on their projects as teams.

- **Beyond the Classroom/Homework.** The curriculum includes homework assignments for each session. Often these involve interviewing parents or community members, completing surveys and forms, or doing various types of research. Many of these assignments centre on worksheets and entries in the notebook. Some are used later in the unit for further in-class learning activities. Students can also write short papers in response to their assignments — to be read, commented on, and returned by the teacher.

However the assignment is implemented, some kind of feedback from the teacher and other students will be important in order to assure the students that their efforts have real importance and relevance. Note that in most cases, since the homework assignments are usually optional, we have not provided time in the session descriptions for students to report on their homework in class. If you want this to happen, you will need to make time for it. Discussion of homework could take anywhere from five minutes to an entire class session, depending on the complexity of the assignment and the students' level of interest and involvement.

In any assignments involving students' families, be sensitive to the variety of family backgrounds from which students come. Some students may find it difficult to involve their families in homework assignments. Be prepared to suggest alternatives — for example, completing the assignment with a relative, with a friend's family, or with some other adult friend. If a student has any concern about a given assignment or project, arrange a private meeting with the student to work out a solution.

V. EVALUATION

A. Oral Comments

Evaluation in the form of constructive comments and assessments should be a continuing part of your approach. It can be a way of communicating either appreciation for work well done or concerns about poor work or class participation — for example, "I appreciate how active you've been in class lately"; "I like the creative way you interpreted that homework

assignment"; "I'm worried that your talkativeness is distracting other students during class"; "I don't believe you're putting very much effort into these assignments; if that's so, I'd like you to do the job I know you're capable of."

B. Written Comments

Students' written (or oral) assignments and projects offer another opportunity for evaluation. You may wish to comment on clarity, organization, writing, speaking, or other communication and thinking skills.

On a periodic basis written critiques can provide valuable opportunities for learning and communication. For example, halfway through the course and again at the end of the course you may want to write an evaluation for each student, outlining the student's successes or strengths, areas needing improvement, and recommendations for improvement. These evaluations might focus on the content areas covered by the course, the student's self-directed learning skills, and the student's human relationships skills as reflected in class participation and group work. When the course is being taught in the context of a subject area such as English, skills pertinent to that subject (e.g., writing skills) should also be included.

C. Student Self-assessment

You may wish the students to write their own self-evaluations, sharing their perceptions of their own successes and strengths, areas needing improvement, and recommendations for improvement. Self-evaluations, especially those that are done midway through the course, can enhance student-teacher communication and alert you to areas in which the students may need special help.

This self-assessment could become an important part of any personal record or profiling scheme undertaken by the pupils.

D. Teacher Self-assessment

This checklist of classroom management strategies summarizes many of the suggestions for effective implementation of the programme in this section and allows the teacher to evaluate his or her own performance.

- ___ 1. Did I write the objective for today's lesson on the board?
- ___ 2. Did I greet my students warmly and ask them how they were feeling?
- ___ 3. Did I quieten the class down and ask students to clear their desks?
- ___ 4. Did I review the major concepts from the previous session?
- ___ 5. Did I explain the purpose of today's lesson clearly and accurately?
- ___ 6. Did I ask processing questions throughout today's lesson to check for understanding?
- ___ 7. Did I take five minutes at the end of the class period to summarize today's learnings through processing questions?
- ___ 8. Did I ask the students to reflect on what they learned through worksheets or the notebook entries?
- ___ 9. Did I respond to their assigned work in verbal or written form?
- ___ 10. Did I model all of the classroom ground rules in my own behaviour, e.g., focusing, accepting, drawing out, eliminating put-downs, etc.?
- ___ 11. Did I consistently enforce the ground rules?
- ___ 12. Did I consciously try to support the students by focusing on their positive qualities and praising their efforts?
- ___ 13. Did I handle problems quickly and discreetly, treating my students with respect and fairness?
- ___ 14. Am I creating a safe, supportive environment in which my students may grow and learn?
- ___ 15. Am I emphasizing the "specialness" of each individual student, the group as a whole, and the course itself?
- ___ 16. Am I genuinely encouraging parent involvement?

Friends: Improving Peer Relationships



UNIT FOUR

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UNIT FOUR GOALS

Friends: Improving Peer Relationships

1. To learn ways of building healthy friendships.
2. To be aware of and learn to respond appropriately to peer support and peer pressure.
3. To apply critical thinking and decision-making skills in resisting negative peer pressure.
4. To learn to communicate effectively and handle conflict constructively in relationships.

ADVANCE PREPARATION AND MATERIALS NEEDED FOR UNIT FOUR

ALL SESSIONS:

Student worksheets
Paper, pencils
Board, board markers
Optional: Markers, sticky tape, large sheets of paper

SESSION ONE:

Large sheets of paper
Sticky labels
Pens, markers

SESSION TWO:

Art materials

SESSION THREE:

None

SESSION FOUR:

Paper, pencils
"Peer Group Activities" worksheet

SESSION FIVE:

Board, board markers
"I Feel' Statements" worksheet

SESSION SIX:

"Family Interview on Peer Pressure" worksheet

SESSION SEVEN:

"Five-step Problem Solving" worksheet

SESSION EIGHT:

Student book, paper, pencils
"Dealing with Loss" worksheet
"Care Gram"

SESSION NINE:

Student book

SESSION TEN:

Art materials

WHAT YOU SHOULD KNOW

To young adolescents, friends are often the most important thing in life. Many different developmental processes at this age involve friends—for example, beginning to be independent of parents, developing individual identity, and building the capacity for intimacy and trust.

A study of children's perceptions of friendship between ages eight and thirteen reveals a great deal about the important changes of early adolescence. The teachers involved in the study asked their students to think about their best friends of the same sex and write an essay about what they expected in a best friend that was different from other friends. An analysis of the essays revealed the following criteria:

- Age 8** — Help from the friend
 - Sharing common activities

- Age 9** — Live nearby
 - Stimulation
 - Playmate
 - Similar in family lifestyle

- Age 10** — Accepted as a person by the friend
 - Admires the friend
 - Good past relationship

- Age 11** — Loyalty and commitment

- Age 12** — Genuineness
 - Giving help to the friend

- Age 13** — Common interests
 - Similarity in attitudes and values
 - Intimacy potential [1]

The change in intimacy levels among friends during the transition from childhood to early adolescence is clear to anyone who has observed a child's verbal and social skills developing between the ages of eight and thirteen. Among same-sex friends, the qualities of honesty, openness, sincerity, and intimacy take precedence over the many other factors that were previously important. Naturally, cross-sex friendships also begin to be important at this age.

What happens to those adolescents who fail to develop close friendships? For many, this can be a sentence to painful and possibly lasting loneliness. The lonely adolescent is one who is also more likely to report feeling anxious, depressed, self-conscious in public, socially ill-at-ease, unhappy, dissatisfied with life, and reluctant to take risks. [2,3] Unfortunately, loneliness in adolescents seems to build upon itself, leading to social awkwardness that makes it an increasingly formidable barrier. For young people who have this kind of problem and for those who can simply benefit from developing more effective social skills, this unit emphasizes communication, openness, and honesty in a supportive environment. The activities aim at creating a safe "laboratory" for experimenting with skills that many young people desperately need.

How desperately they need it is indicated by the growing rate of teenage suicides, among many other problems. Research indicates that during the days and weeks before suicide attempts, adolescents experience a chain reaction of failed attempts to seek out closer relationships with parents and close friends. [4] Thus, learning how to initiate, develop, and maintain meaningful relationships is, in a sense, a survival skill.

Unit Four also explores a closely related theme: the effects of peer support and peer pressure on young adolescents. Research has repeatedly linked peer pressure to a wide variety of negative and unproductive behaviours—for example, it is almost always a key factor in young adolescents' first experimentation with alcohol and drugs.

References

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3. Cheluve, G., Sultan, F., and Williams, C. "Loneliness, self-disclosure and interpersonal effectiveness." *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1980, Vol. 27, No. 5, pp. 462-468.
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UNIT FOUR

ENERGIZERS

1. "Machines"

Divide the class into groups of five to eight. Each group's task is to create a machine, complete with movement and sound effects, using just their bodies and the sounds they can make. Give them five minutes for planning and practice. Taking turns, each group demonstrates its machine until someone in another group guesses what the machine is.

It might help if you give each group a slip of paper suggesting the machine they are to represent. Suggestions: vacuum cleaner, washing machine, pencil sharpener, motorcycle, or school bus.

This activity encourages creativity, is lots of fun, and raises energy levels.

2. "Mirroring"

This energizer can be done with partners or in small groups. The participants should stand facing each other. Designate one in each pair as the leader, the other as the follower, or "mirror". The leader is to begin to move her/his head, arms, and body slowly and smoothly. The movements don't have to mean anything. The follower mimics everything the leader does. After a while ask them to swap roles. Emphasize the symmetry and precision of the mirror-image. Swap leaders again and again, finally asking each pair to pursue the activity without having a designated leader.

Demonstrate moving in slow-motion so the class can see that the slower the movements, the better. You may want to spend time practising this energizer before you present it to the class. To help the students you may wish to designate roles or feelings for them to portray as they practise—monsters, ballet dancers, sports players, spiders, swimming in a sea of jelly, being fed up, feeling joy, pain, depression, energy, sleepiness, and so on.

3. "Railway Station"

After each student finds a partner, the two partners stand about 20 feet apart. They give each other a little wave, making eye contact. Ask them to imagine that their partners are their best friends in the world and have been from the time they were both four years old. They haven't seen each other for a long time, but one of them has sent the other a message saying, "Meet me at the station!" Now they are at the station, the train has just come in, and they're very excited. The partners move in slow motion toward each other, waving, blowing kisses, and doing anything else to show their joy. As they get closer they realize it's the wrong person! So they keep going past their partners, pretending they were really waving to someone else all along. They keep moving toward someone else until the same thing happens again. This activity continues until they've made contact with most of the people in the group.

4. "Open Fist Simulation"

The students get into pairs, and everyone makes a fist. Explain that in the next 30 seconds, without any blood shed or bones broken, everyone is to try to open her/his partner's fist. After the 30 seconds, ask the students to jot down answers to the following questions. Discuss them in a large group afterwards.

- What feelings did you experience?
- What did you notice about your own behaviour?
- How many of you simply asked your partners to open their fists?

This energizer helps the students recognize their behaviour patterns in resolving a conflict.

5. "One, two, three, four!"

This energizer requires the class to form groups of three and face each other holding one fist clenched in front of them. Then they shake their fists up and down together four times and chant together, "One, two, three, four!" (Those are the only words in the whole game.) On the count of four, each one puts out any number of fingers from zero to five. The object of this activity is for the three to have exactly 11 fingers out.

Once they've reached 11, ask them to use two fists and try getting to 23, putting out any number of fingers from zero to ten each. While the game is in progress you may need to remind the players that each time they are to shake their fists four times and chant as a group.

Whether it takes a group one try or 15 to get the magic number will depend entirely on chance. No one comes out as a winner or loser, or an idiot, even though it's a team activity. An excellent activity for building cooperation within a group.

6. "Pop Star"

Before you begin this energizer, whisper inconspicuously to one person that she/he is the Pop Star and explain how she/he should shake hands.

Tell the students to stand up and get ready to walk around and shake hands with each person, trying to discover who's the Pop Star. The Pop Star shakes hands just like everyone else, with one exception: with each handshake the Pop Star extends her/his index finger and gently scratches the person's wrist. The Pop Star doesn't have to scratch every hand she/he shakes—this will help to throw people off.

When the Pop Star does scratch a person's wrist, the person counts to ten (silently) and sits down, pretending to faint. At any given time, an unscratched person may stop the game and announce who she/he thinks the Pop Star is. If the guess is correct, the game is over. If it's incorrect, she/he must sit down. The game continues until the Pop Star is correctly identified.

As the participants are moving around shaking hands, they should make sure they greet each other by name. The energizer gets the group interacting with each other and helps build community through the greetings and handshaking.

UNIT FOUR

UNIT PROJECTS

Directions: Choose one unit project to be completed during the term. You may choose one from any of the units.

1. Make it your goal to meet one or two new people per week during this unit. Try to get to know people of various ages, e.g., children, peers, adults, elderly. Use your communication skills of listening, asking questions, and sharing yourself. Describe your experience in a report. Do you notice changes in your feelings, thoughts, and behaviour from one friend to another? What did you learn from this experience?
2. Make a list of three friends. For each friend, think of something you could do to nurture that friendship or to help that friend. Choose what you will do for each of at least three of these friends. Write a paper describing what you did.
3. Plan a "Friendship Festival" at school with films, speakers, workshops, resources, and activities to make people more aware of friendship issues and skills. The festival may be designed by committees that may choose to incorporate some of the following ideas:
 - (a) Write fortunes in the form of compliments and present these fortunes on slips on paper addressed to each recipient;
 - (b) Place "friendship" posters around the school;
 - (c) Give flowers with attached messages to other students.

UNIT FOUR, SESSION ONE

Friendship from A to Z

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To explore the nature of friendship.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will...

1. Identify the characteristics of friendship.
2. Discuss concepts and definitions of friendship.
3. Distinguish between a "friend" and a "non-friend".
4. Clarify personal beliefs about what is important in friendships.
5. Appreciate the value of friendships during early teenage years.

MATERIALS:

1. Large sheets of paper
2. Sticky labels
3. Pens, markers

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Read aloud a story, song, poem, and/or excerpt from a newspaper or magazine about the importance of friendship.
2. Put up two big sheets of paper. Label one "A Friend" and the other "Not a Friend".
3. Divide the class into four small groups and hand out sticky labels. Assign each group eight or nine letters of the alphabet. Two of the groups brainstorm words beginning with their letters that describe friends and friendship. The other groups brainstorm words beginning with these letters that indicate "non-friendliness".
4. Bring the class together in a conversation circle. Each group should stick its words to the corresponding sheet of paper. Discuss.
5. Ask the students to read the accompanying article from the student book.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (15 minutes)

Today's session helps the students identify what makes a person a friend. It helps the students to begin thinking about the various aspects of friendship that will be explored throughout the unit.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“Friendship is knowing someone will always be there for you.”

3. Introduce the topic of friendship by sharing either a story, a song, a lyric, a poem, or a written excerpt about friendship. You might want to ask the students to close their eyes, relax, and think about what the selection is saying. Appropriate songs include Simon and Garfunkel's "Bridge Over Troubled Water", James Taylor's "You've Got a Friend", and Billy Joel's "Honesty". Take a few minutes to discuss the presentation and ask the students to help you define what friendship is. Some responses might be, "Friendship is sharing all your secrets with someone," "Friendship is being able to be yourself all the time," and so on.
4. After some discussion, draw the following friendship continuum on the board:

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7 --- 8 --- 9 --- 10
Friendship not at all Friendship number
important one in importance
5. Ask the students, "If you were to place yourself along a continuum ranging from feeling that friendship is not at all important in your life to feeling that friendship is number one in importance, where would you place yourself? How many of you placed yourself at points six or above? How many placed yourself at points four or below? How many would be at point five on the continuum? What reasons affected your choice?" After some discussion, explain that for people their age, being accepted by others and forming close relationships with others is usually a matter of great importance. Especially during the secondary school years, friends, friendship, and being popular become more important than ever.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (20 minutes)

1. Explain that the class will be taking some time to define and discuss the qualities of friendship. Put up two large sheets of paper. Label one of them "Friend" and the other "Not a Friend". Ask the class to think of words to describe "friend" and "not a friend".

The words should begin with as many different letters of the alphabet as possible. Explain that they will have five minutes to work on this in small groups. Suggest that they do not use the difficult letters ("q" and "z" for example).

2. Divide the class into four groups. Give each group half of the alphabet. Ask two of the groups to brainstorm words that describe the characteristics of a friend. The other two groups will brainstorm words that describe someone who is not a friend. If your students need some assistance, provide a few examples. For the "Friend" category, mention words like "appreciative", "bubbly", "caring", and "down-to-earth". For the "Not a Friend" category, mention words like "argumentative", "bossy", "catty", and "dirty". Give the groups five minutes to complete the task.
3. Bring the groups back into a conversation circle. Give each group a turn to share several of its words, using different letters of the alphabet. As each student suggests a word, she/he should take the label on which it's written and stick it onto the corresponding sheet. If a group can't come up with a word for a particular letter, call on any of the other groups to volunteer a contribution. Spend some time discussing each of the various words, and make sure that the students understand their meanings. Also discuss a few words that apply to both figures, such as "jealousy" and "anger"—make sure that the students understand why these words could apply to both categories.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. What is a friend?
2. What do you think are the most important qualities in a friend?
3. What makes someone a "better" friend than someone else?

- 4. What is the difference between an “acquaintance” and a “friend”?
- 5. Why are friends important?

Ask the students to read the accompanying article from the student book. Mention that you will be introducing and discussing its major concepts throughout the unit. The formal discussion will be included in session eight.

**BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/
HOMEWORK:**
(2 minutes)

Ask the students to create a short comic strip type of story illustrating the theme “Friendship Is...” Encourage them to illustrate what friendship means to them personally through some kind of short incident illustrated in the comic strip (it need not be funny). Explain that the comic strips will be displayed on a “Friendship Is...” notice board.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY:
(3 minutes)

Ask the students to identify what they think are the three most important qualities of friendship discussed during the lesson and write an entry in their notebooks about why these qualities are important to them. Then ask them to think of one way they can demonstrate each one of these qualities toward important people in their lives. Explain that you will be following up on the results of this activity throughout the unit.

Advertisements: Help Wanted/ Position Available—Good Friend

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To identify what makes a person a good friend.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Identify ways of initiating friendships.
2. Identify characteristics that make a person a good friend.
3. Feel that she/he has personal characteristics that would make her/him a good friend.
4. Feel more confident about initiating friendships.

MATERIALS:

1. Sugar paper
2. Magazines
3. Glue
4. Scissors
5. Markers/crayons/pencils

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. The students make an "advertisement" of themselves, announcing their qualities as a potential friend, using drawings, phrases, and other creative ideas.
2. Have a "friendship meeting" during which each student has one minute to share her/his sign with the class.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (5 minutes)

This session helps the students think about the positive qualities they can contribute to a friendship. The activity focuses on each student's personal characteristics, interests, hobbies, and other positive qualities. The purpose of the activity is to help the students realize that in any friendship there is an element of give-and-take.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“Friendship is born at that moment when one person says to another, ‘What? You, too? I thought I was the only one.’”—C.S. Lewis

3. Tell the class, “Our last session helped us pick out the qualities and behaviours that we think of when we think about friendship: honesty, loyalty, humour, sincerity, acceptance, common interests, and so on. Today’s activity encourages us to look at the special qualities that make us a good person to have as a friend. Why do you think it’s important to think about the qualities that make you a good friend to someone else? For example, if you’re looking for a friend who is open, accepting, kind, and generous, what kind of friend do you need to be yourself?” Be sure to emphasize that friendship is a give-and-take process—one in which we get back pretty much what we put into it. If we want close, lasting friendships, we have to be willing to offer love, time, energy, and commitment to others.
4. Now tell the class, “To let other people know more about the special qualities that we can offer a friendship, we’re going to pretend that each of us in the class has been invited to a meeting where we’ll be able to find new friends. Before we can go, we must create an ‘advertisement’ announcing the qualities that make us a good friend. This sign will be our ticket into the meeting and our way of locating new friends.”

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (30 minutes)

1. Distribute the materials and allow about ten minutes for the students to make their “advertisements.” Create one yourself. The signs can contain drawings, phrases, or anything else that the stu-

dents think will get the message across about the personal qualities they can offer a friendship. Characteristics to focus on include personal qualities, interests, hobbies, talents, and things they like to do with others.

2. After the students have completed their “advertisements,” gather the group into a conversation circle to share their signs with the class, describing the characteristics that make them good people to have as friends. Allow each student one minute of focus time.
3. You may wish to create an “advertisements” notice board to display the artwork.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. How did it feel to share your “friendship” qualities with the class?
2. What did you enjoy about sharing your “advertisement”? What made it difficult?
3. We all have special qualities that make us an ideal friend to someone. If this is so, why do you think so many people keep these qualities inside and have few friends or none?
4. How can people help others feel comfortable sharing the qualities they can offer in a friendship?
5. How can each of us become more openly caring and sharing with one another?
6. How can we make sure we’re giving to others in our friendships what we need in return?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Ask the students to get together with someone they know to talk about how the relationship started, where they met, and what first drew them together. Encourage them to think about the following questions and answer them in a brief paragraph. Be sure to follow up on the assignment either verbally or in written form.

- What were the things that attracted us to each other as friends?

- What reasons make it likely that we'll still be friends many years from now?
- In what ways has our friendship changed, grown, or improved since we first became friends?

NOTEBOOK ENTRY:
(3 minutes)

Give the students several minutes to complete the following entry in their notebooks: What are some of your positive friendship qualities that you tend to keep to yourself? How might you let more people know "the real you"?

UNIT FOUR, SESSION THREE

From Friendship Cliques to Friendship Clicking

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To examine ways to overcome roadblocks in building new friendships.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Describe some of the effects of cliques on making new friends.
2. Identify reasons why it is sometimes hard to make new friends.
3. Describe ways to overcome roadblocks to making new friends.
4. Become aware of her/his own ways of avoiding making new friends.
5. Commit herself/himself to reaching out and trying to make new friends.

MATERIALS:

None

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Discuss the ways in which people start new friendships.
2. Discuss cliques and the reasons for them, both positive and negative.
3. Have the students develop a "New boy or girl in the area" role play. Discuss it.
4. Create some hypothetical cliques in class, and ask the students to behave in typical clique manner to stress the point that cliques can be exclusive.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (20 minutes)

Today's activities look at ways to build new friendships and expand your circle of friends beyond the comfortable, secure clique to which many young adolescents cling.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“People are lonely because they build walls instead of bridges.”

3. Explain to the class, “So far in this unit we’ve talked about what friendship is, what it means to us, and how we can share our positive qualities in friendships. We’ve also emphasized that we need to be the kind of friend to others that we want for ourselves. Today we’re going to take a look at ways to open ourselves to new friendships and expand our circle of friends to create a larger friendship group.”
4. Continue by saying, “Think about the last time you made a new friend. How did the two (or more) of you meet? Who made the first move? What happened between the two of you that sparked friendship?” Spend some time discussing what occurs when people form a new friendship.
5. Now ask, “Why are we sometimes afraid to make new friends? What keeps us from opening up to someone new? Why is it so important for us to be open to new friendships?” Emphasize that the world is full of interesting people who could become our friends. We open ourselves to new experiences when we allow others to join us in friendship. However, fear of rejection, fear of the unknown, and prejudice often keep us from making new friends. As a result, we tend to stick with the same friends year after year and exclude others. Sometimes we form a “clique”.
6. Ask the class, “What is a clique? What is the difference between a clique and a group? What are the reasons that cliques exist?” Take some time to write a list of the characteristics of “cliques” provided by the students on the board. Guide the students in concluding that cliques are tight friendship circles of people who have certain qualities in common and that one characteristic of a clique is its exclusiveness—you have to be the “right” kind of person to get in.

7. Conclude this discussion by asking, “What are some of the things that people do in cliques that make others feel excluded? In what ways do cliques make their members feel included?” You may wish to define “exclude” and “include”. Make a list on the board of “excluding” and “including” behaviours. Point out that our “excluding” behaviours tend to create hurt feelings in others and narrow our chances for making new friends.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (15 minutes)

1. Explain that five student volunteers will be asked to act out two role plays about some new youngsters who have moved to town. The first role play will present excluding behaviours, and the second one will present ways to include people. Now ask three students to volunteer to role play the “old” youngsters and two to role play the “new” ones. In the first role play, the three old youngsters tend to exclude the new ones in subtle ways—for example, ignoring them, whispering in their presence, or not inviting them to join a group activity. After a few minutes, talk about the role play, discussing the excluding behaviours. Now ask the students to demonstrate ways to include the new young people. For example, the students might meet the new people and try to bring them into their group by inviting them to join a weekend activity, come over to someone’s house, work on a project, take part in a sport, and so on. The setting could be the school dining room, a local street, or a shopping area.
2. After the completion of the role play, discuss the feelings the old people and the new ones might have had. Focusing on the “including” behaviours, summarize the ways to approach new friends by listing on the board several different constructive ways of initiating friendships.
3. You may wish to share the following anecdote:

“In one of his last interviews before he died, the great American poet Carl Sandburg was asked whether there were any bad words. He replied that he was aware of only one: ‘Exclusive’. Belonging to exclusive clubs, living in exclusive communities. To be exclusive, he emphasized, is to feel superior and therefore to regard others as unworthy of one’s association and friendship.”

ADDITIONAL ACTIVITY:

To reinforce the main point of the lesson, explain that as an exercise you are going to create some cliques in the class: blue-eyed students; students with short hair; students with birthdays in January, Feb-

ruary, and March; and so on. Create five or six cliques this way. Get them to sit together and tell them that they are to behave as much like a typical clique as they can for the rest of the class period. Encourage them to demonstrate the behaviours listed on the board. Be very careful to create cliques that do not offend any particular group of students. Process this activity thoroughly.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: *(5 minutes)*

1. What have you learned from today's activities that will help you in broadening your own circle of friends?
2. Why is it so important to have an "including", rather than "excluding", attitude towards others?
3. What could you and your friends do to include other people in your circle?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: *(2 minutes)*

Ask the students to observe cliques over a period of 24 hours and note the characteristics and behaviours of the clique members. They should be prepared to discuss their observations in class.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: *(3 minutes)*

Ask the students to think about cliques that they have observed and compare them with more open groups of people their age that are more likely to welcome newcomers. Ask the students to write a brief entry in their notebooks contrasting the two kinds of groups.

Friendship Pro-file and Con-file

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To examine the qualities of a good friendship and the ways in which friendships change.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Identify and analyse reasons why people become friends.
2. Distinguish between positive and negative kinds of friendships.
3. Identify ways to think about and deal with negative friendships.
4. Evaluate the qualities of her/his own friendships.
5. Value positive changes in friendships.

MATERIALS:

1. Paper
2. Pencils
3. "Peer Group Activities" worksheet

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Help the students identify some of the positive and negative reasons why we choose the friends we choose.
2. Ask the students to complete the "Peer Group Activities" worksheet that helps them explore some of their current friendships.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (15 minutes)

The purpose of this activity is to examine the qualities of both positive and negative kinds of friendships. The activity helps the students to identify reasons why people choose certain kinds of friends and encourages them to look at friendships more critically.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“Choose a friend as you’d choose a car—because it’s dependable, holds up well over the years, helps you get where you need to go, and makes you feel glad you made the right choice.”

3. Begin today’s session by saying, “In our last session we discussed the difference between ‘excluding’ and ‘including’ behaviours and looked at the importance of being open to forming new friendships. Today we’re going to take a look at some reasons why we become involved in certain friendships. We may have either positive or negative reasons for choosing the friends we choose. Our friendships always give us the feeling of being liked and supported by other people. But some friendships may steer us in less positive directions than others. People often choose these less positive friendships without thinking much about it or knowing why.”
4. On the board write headings for two lists of reasons people become involved in friendships—“positive” and “negative”. Before writing down any items for the lists, ask the students, “What makes a reason for choosing a friend positive? Negative?” Emphasize that some friendships promote positive, healthy qualities and feelings and generally involve constructive activities. Negative friendships often produce unhealthy, stressful qualities and feelings and involve destructive or harmful activities. After some discussion, begin the list by offering two examples and then asking the students to volunteer others. The final list might contain items like the following:

POSITIVE

Want to share things in common

NEGATIVE

Want to be seen with people who have status or material possessions

Feel comfortable with her/him	Like to get into trouble
Do things well together	Hate school together
Support each other	Feel superior to others and put others down

5. Now ask the class, “What are some reasons why it’s important to have positive friendships? Why do people often cling to negative ones?” In the discussion about these questions point out that sometimes our need to belong and be accepted is so great that we will form friendships with people whom we don’t really like very much in order to avoid loneliness. We need to learn how to choose friends who bring out the best in us, who support us and help us to grow. In turn, we need to provide this kind of support and acceptance to our own friends.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (20 minutes)

1. Give out the “Peer Group Activities” worksheet. Divide the class into groups of four or five. Give them ten minutes to write as many appropriate items for each of the categories on the worksheet as they can think of in relation to teenage groups that they know or have heard about. For example:

Why Belong to a Group:

- To have people to do things with;
- To feel accepted by others;
- To be influential at school;
- To feel safe and protected;
- To stick up for each other;
- To have fun.

Positive Group Activities:

- Play sports together;
- Support each other in times of crisis;
- Share secrets;
- Go out together;
- Help each other out;
- Include others in activities.

Negative Group Activities:

- Smoke, drink, use chemical substances;
- Steal things;

- Play truant;
- Stay out past bedtime;
- Leave other people out;
- Act superior;
- Cut people down.

Avoid a moralizing tone. The idea is to help the students take a close look at the activities of their friends or groups of teenagers in general so they can make productive decisions for themselves.

2. Discuss the results of the small groups' responses to the worksheet in the large group.
3. Ask the students, "If you become involved in a friendship that's mainly negative, does that mean you're helpless to do anything about it? Are you trapped in it? What are some of the things you can do either to improve the friendship or change the situation?" Encourage such answers as: try to talk it over and create a positive change; end the friendship; spend less time with that particular friend; let the friend know you're concerned about the problem.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. In what ways do groups have positive effects on their members? Negative effects?
2. What can you do if you think you've become involved in a negative friendship?
3. What kinds of interests tend to show up in negative friendships?
4. What are some of the benefits that positive friendships add to a person's life?
5. What new positive behaviour could you try to improve to establish a healthy friendship?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Focus on the qualities of a positive friendship by asking the students to create a "Friendship Want Advert". Explain that this is similar to, but different from, the "advertisements" they made two sessions ago. Their want adverts should include the interests, hobbies, and shared activities that the students would like to have in a friend. They should also include personal qualities the students look for in a positive relationship. Here is an example:

"Friend wanted. Must have a great sense of humour, like chocolate, music, computer games, and lots of free time. Should be adventurous, easygoing, and not have a temper. And like to spend time outdoors."

Explain that tomorrow you will post the adverts on a wall in the classroom. The students should write their names on the back of the want advert where no one will see them. During the next session they'll have a chance to look at all the adverts and initial at least one advert for which they think they meet the qualifications. It will be up to them to follow up on the adverts. In following up on the assignment, you might want to ask the students to share some of their adverts with the class. They may be surprised to discover which adverts belonged to whom. (Note, however, and explain to the students, that it is not necessary for everyone to initial an advert or find a response to her/his advert from within the class. People should initial adverts only when they genuinely feel that they can and want to meet the advert's "requirements.")

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Tell the students to think about one friendship they would like to change. Ask them to make a written list of all the things they can do to change the friendship for the better. Encourage them to try some of their ideas with this friend and share the results in a later class session.

UNIT FOUR, SESSION FIVE

The 'I's Have It: Communicating With "I Feel" Statements

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To practise communicating feelings in friendships in a direct and caring way.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Identify some typical roadblocks to healthy friendships.
2. Describe ways to use "I Feel" statements in removing these roadblocks.
3. Identify characteristics of positive communication in healthy friendships.
4. Support the need for using "I Feel" statements in order to remove roadblocks in relationships.
5. Become committed to taking responsibility for her/his feelings in relationships.

MATERIALS:

1. Board
2. Board markers
3. "I Feel" Statements" worksheet

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Display the "Friendship Want Advertisements."
2. Introduce "I Feel" statements as a good way to communicate both positive and negative feelings in a nonthreatening way.
3. Provide examples of "Blaming Messages" and "I Feel" statements on the board. Discuss.
4. Divide the class into groups of four. Ask the groups to complete the "I Feel" Statements" worksheet.
5. Bring the class into a conversation circle and share the responses.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (15 minutes)

The purpose of today's session is to look at typical barriers to communicating feelings in friendships and to practise an important communication skill, "I Feel" statements. The lesson emphasizes that each of us is responsible for our feelings and the way we react to what others do and say. Therefore, we need to let other people know how their behaviour affects us. The "I Feel" statement helps us to be clear about our reactions to situations and avoid blaming others.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“Among true friends there are no secrets—even when there are no words.”

3. Take a few moments to collect the "Friendship Want Adverts" and display them on the wall. Ask the students to take time before or after the session to read the want adverts and write their names on the ones for which they feel "qualified". Tell them that these want adverts are a creative way to reach out to others with whom they have something in common. Encourage them to follow up the responses.
4. Point out that the previous lesson dealt with the reasons why people choose positive and negative friendships. Remind the students that positive friendships bring out the best qualities within us and help us to grow and improve ourselves. Negative friendships tend to develop out of fears and insecurities and bring about destructive attitudes, feelings, and behaviours. Either way, the need to belong to a group and have friends is extremely important to adolescents. No matter what kind of friendships we're involved in, we'll always be better off if we can experience the most direct and honest communication possible in our friendships. Even the best and most positive friendships can sometimes run into trouble when the friends aren't being direct and honest with each other.
5. Explain that one way of being direct and honest in a friendship is to use an "I Feel" statement. "I Feel" statements help us say exactly what we feel in a positive way. "I Feel" statements are especi-

ally important when you're dealing with problems in friendships or attempting to resist negative peer pressure.

A good formula for sending "I Feel" statements is:

- When you... (Statement of problem behaviour)
- I feel... (Express feeling)
- Because... (State reasons for your feeling)

6. Share with the class the following examples of "Blaming Messages" and contrast them with "I Feel" statements related to the same topic. Emphasize that "I Feel" statements help us share our feelings honestly, take responsibility for them, and respect the other person's feelings at the same time.

SITUATION 1: A friend borrows your BMX and then doesn't return it for two weeks.

Blaming Message: You! Give me my bike!

"I Feel" Statement: When you didn't return my BMX for two weeks, I felt really angry and upset because my bike is one of my most valuable and important possessions.

SITUATION 2: A friend interrupts you constantly when you're talking.

Blaming Message: You're so rude! Shut up!

"I Feel" Statement: When you interrupted me, I felt really hurt because I had something important to tell you.

SITUATION 3: Your mother takes all the hard work you do around the house for granted.

Blaming Message: You never notice anything I do!

"I Feel" Statement: When you forget to mention the work I do around the house, I feel disappointed because I'm trying to help out.

SITUATION 4: A friend lies to you.

Blaming Message: You liar!

"I Feel" Statement: When your story turned out to be untrue, I felt sad because I always want our friendship to be based on the truth about things.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (20 minutes)

1. Give out the "'I Feel' Statements" worksheet. Brainstorm six typical situations that might come up in a friendship where you would need to discuss some negative feelings with another person. Ask the students to write these situations on their "'I Feel' Statement" worksheets.

Examples:

- A friend ignores you.
- A friend flirts with someone you like.
- A friend borrows money and doesn't return it.
- A friend takes something of yours without asking.
- A friend teases you all the time in front of others.
- A friend gossips about your friends all the time.

2. Ask the students to get into groups of four and complete the "'I Feel' Statements" worksheet by coming up with both the "Blaming Messages" and "I Feel" statements as a group. Insist at this point that the students follow the "I Feel" statement format.
3. Bring the groups together into a conversation circle to share their "I Feel" statements. It should be interesting to listen to a variety of responses to the same situations. Emphasize that "I Feel" statements don't always need to apply to problems between friends. They're a way of making communication clearer and more direct. A positive kind

of "I Feel" statement, for example, might be, "I feel really great when you do something like remember my birthday, because it lets me know that you're thinking about me." If time allows, ask the students to suggest some other positive "I Feel" statements.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. How does an "I Feel" statement help to make the sharing of thoughts and feelings more direct and honest?
2. How might you share these statements with your family? Friends? Teachers? Others?
3. When would an "I Feel" statement not work? For what reasons? What might be a better way to handle these situations?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Ask the students to make a self-contract (an agreement with themselves) to use at least five different "I Feel" statements with friends during the next week. Because of the importance of this skill, be sure to allow time during a subsequent class session for the students to discuss the results of these self-contracts.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Ask the students to think of two people who would appreciate a positive "I Feel" statement. Ask them to list these people in their notebooks and compose an "I Feel" statement for each that would communicate appreciation for something these people do. Example: "When you help me with my homework, I feel grateful because I'm doing better at school now."

Peer Pressure: To Do or Not to Do— That Is the Question

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To practise resisting negative peer pressure.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Define and describe the concept of peer pressure.
2. Distinguish between assertiveness and aggressiveness.
3. Describe how assertiveness can help control peer pressure.
4. Be concerned about the influence of peer pressure in her/his life.
5. Appreciate the importance of assertiveness in controlling peer pressure.
6. Develop assertiveness and the confidence to resist peer pressure when it contradicts her/his personal feelings or beliefs.

MATERIALS:

1. "Family Interview on Peer Pressure" worksheet

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Discuss peer pressure.
2. Discuss assertive and aggressive behaviour.
3. Create role play situations in which students can practise and assess their assertive behaviours.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (20 minutes)

The purpose of this session is to help the students examine peer pressure and its effects on teenagers. During the lesson the students are encouraged to think about ways to resist negative peer pressure and improve their relationships through positive, assertive behaviour.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“A friend is one who knows you as you are, understands where you’ve been, accepts who you’ve become, and still, gently, invites you to grow.”—Ralph Waldo Emerson

3. Explain to the class, “The last session helped us think about our communication with others so that we can let people know how we truly feel about things without hurting their feelings or putting them on the defensive. Today we’re going to explore other new ways to communicate openly, honestly, and directly with our friends so that we can stand up for ourselves and maintain our friendships at the same time.” Remind the students that the need to belong to a group is important both to adolescents and to adults, but especially to adolescents. Given the importance of groups to adolescents, it’s essential to be able to distinguish between peer support and peer pressure.
4. Ask the class, “How would you define peer pressure?” Guide the class in a discussion of the term. One definition might be “strong influences from people within a group to make the group members do something”. Then ask, “What are the benefits and the dangers of peer pressure? What do you think is the difference between positive and negative peer pressure? Between peer pressure and peer support?” Guide the class in defining these two concepts. Peer pressure tends to be negative and lead to negative actions and behaviours; peer support tends to be positive and nurturing.
5. After everyone has had a chance to respond, ask the class, “What are some reasons why it might be important to resist peer pressure?” Guide the students in understanding that often peer pressure forces people to say and do things they might not otherwise want to say or do. Explain that one of the best ways to resist negative peer pressure is to

learn to be “assertive”. In order to understand assertiveness, it’s important to distinguish it from other qualities that are similar—mainly aggressiveness. Define the two concepts as follows:

- **Assertiveness.** An assertive person stands up for her/his own rights and beliefs without stepping on the rights of others. The assertive person doesn’t feel defensive or uncomfortable with others because assertiveness goes hand in hand with self-confidence. An assertive person states her/his feelings and attitudes without blaming others and takes full responsibility for her/his choices and their consequences. The “I Feel” statement is an assertive communication skill.

Example:

“When you repeat my secrets, I feel upset because I need to trust you.”

- **Aggressiveness.** The aggressive person stands up for herself/ himself but steps on the rights of others in the process. The aggressive person may use put-downs and even physical violence to get a point across. She/he may seem tough or cool on the surface, but, unlike the assertive person, she/he may not actually feel so confident underneath. The aggressive person is often viewed by others as having an angry, steamroller effect; others may feel flattened out after meeting or being with an aggressive person.

Example:

“You are totally untrustworthy and selfish and you make me sick!”

In the discussion emphasize the difference between assertive behaviour (the communicator shares her/his feelings without blaming others) and aggressive behaviour (the communicator bullies and belittles others). Take time to reinforce the “I Feel” statement as an effective and assertive way to communicate with others.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (15 minutes)

1. Make two columns on the board. Label one “Assertive Behaviours” and the other “Aggressive Behaviours”. Briefly demonstrate a few of the following situations and role play what an assertive and aggressive person might say and do. Ask for student volunteers to help you with these demonstrations. Write down the words and actions that the students identify for each list in connection with the role plays. Here are some role-play situations:
 - Some friends of yours are going to a neighbour’s house after school to smoke pot. You totally dis-

agree with their drug use. What will you say and do?

- Some friends want you to sneak out on Friday night after the time that you and your parents* have agreed you should be at home. Your parents trust you, and you don't want to spoil it. What will you say and do?
- Your group of friends is ganging up on a person who supposedly started some rumours. You're quite sure this person is innocent. What will you say and do?
- Several of your friends want to throw bangers at the home of another youngster they don't like. You think it's a lousy idea. What will you say and do?
- Your friends are starting to wear clothes and hair-styles that make you feel uncomfortable. What will you say or do?
- Several friends are shoplifting while you're in the shop with them. You're opposed to stealing. What will you say and do?

In each case, ask, "What did the aggressive person say and do? The assertive person? Why is assertive behaviour better in friendships? How does it help both the person being assertive and the person or people being dealt with?" Note the students' responses in the corresponding columns on the board.

2. After some discussion, give the students a chance to practise resisting negative peer pressure through the following exercise. Divide the class into three groups. Group A is the judges; Group B, the "gang"; and Group C, the "assertive resisters". The gang's role is to try to get the resisters to go along with them in some wrongdoing—for example, buying alcohol when they're under age; stealing something from a shop; or skipping a lesson at school. The resisters use as many assertive skills as they can think of in not going along with the gang: using "I Feel" statements, saying "no".

arguing that it's wrong, saying that they have better things to do, simply walking away, and so on. For a two-minute period of time, the gang and the resisters play out their roles.

3. The judges observe closely, taking notes, and, at the end of the time, announce their verdict about which group—the gang or the resisters—was more convincing and why. Take some time to discuss the verdict and how assertive behaviour can help in resisting negative peer pressure.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. What is the hardest part of resisting peer pressure?
2. What are some things we can do to improve our ability to express ourselves, meet our own needs, and do what is best for us in group situations?
3. How can assertive behaviour help us to do these things?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Ask the students to interview their parents on the issue of peer pressure, using the "Family Interview on Peer Pressure" worksheet. You may wish to spend some time discussing the students' responses during one of the following sessions.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Ask the students to respond to the following questions in their notebooks after thinking about today's lesson: What is the hardest part of resisting peer pressure for me? At what point do I go along with the crowd? How can I strengthen myself so that I can stand up for my own beliefs?

*A great many children live with guardians and other adults who are not their parents. Rather than constantly reiterate the phrase "parents and guardians," we have chosen to use the word "parents" in a generic sense to mean all adults who are responsible for child rearing in the context of the *Skills for Adolescence* programme.

Building Bridges, Not Walls: Handling Conflict in Friendships

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To practise constructive ways of handling conflict in friendships.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Describe and practise the Five-step Problem-solving method.
2. Describe how the Five-step Problem-solving method can be used to resolve conflict.
3. State reasons why conflict is inevitable in friendships.
4. Accept conflict as a normal part of friendships.
5. Be concerned about solving conflicts in friendships through positive communication.
6. Accept the Five-step Problem-solving method as a positive way of handling conflict in friendships.

MATERIALS:

1. "Five-step Problem Solving" worksheet

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Discuss conflicts in friendships.
2. Introduce the Five-step Problem-solving method.
3. Divide the class into groups of four. Give each group a problem situation and ask them to work it out, using the Five-step Problem-solving method.
4. Discuss the results.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (15 minutes)

Today's session helps the students look at ways to resolve conflict in friendships. Through the session the students learn that conflict is a natural part of growing close to people. The Five-step Problem-solving method guides them in resolving conflicts in their friendships and creates a hopeful feeling that most problems in relationships can be solved through clear, direct communication.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“If we must disagree, let's disagree without being disagreeable.”—Lyndon Johnson

3. Begin today's session by saying, “In our last session, we looked at ways to resist negative peer pressure by communicating our feelings assertively instead of aggressively. Only by being direct and honest can we hope to improve our relationships and, at the same time, stand up for our own beliefs. The ‘I Feel’ statement gives us one assertive way to do this. Today's session introduces another way to communicate effectively in our relationships, particularly in solving conflicts.”
4. Tell the class, “In most friendships there tends to be some conflict, even if it's only short-lived and unimportant. Why do you think conflict is a normal part of friendship?” Guide the students in concluding that people are bound to have differences of feeling and opinion, no matter how friendly they are. Brainstorm typical situations in which friends might become involved in conflicts or arguments with each other and write them on the board.

Examples:

- You and your friend are caught doing something wrong. You tell the truth, your friend lies, and now your parents want to know what is going on.
- Your best friend has found a new friend to hang around with. You're feeling hurt and left out.
- You lend a favourite article of clothing to a friend and she/he returns it weeks later dirty and damaged.
- You and your friend want to join an extracurricular activity together. You can't agree on which

activity, and the activities the two of you want to be in are scheduled at the same time.

- Your friend likes to come over to your house every day after school. You appreciate the friendship but want more freedom to see other people.
 - One of your best friends invites you to sleep overnight, then five minutes later phones you up to cancel the arrangement. You later find out your friend has asked someone else.
 - Both you and your friend have a “crush” on the same person.
5. Explain that sometimes people become either angry, defensive, or aggressive when they're involved in conflict. When a conflict is strong, people may yell at each other, accuse each other, call each other names, order and threaten each other, and ignore or misunderstand each other. It's important, therefore, to have a way of getting through the confusion and anger that can surround a conflict and solve the problem in a way that will be satisfying to both sides. Introduce the following Five-step Problem-solving method, which offers a way to work through problems effectively and strengthen friendships by getting answers to the following questions:

Step One: What is the problem?

Step Two: What questions need to be asked to clarify the problem?

Step Three: What are all the possible ways of solving the problem?

Step Four: Which alternatives best solve the problem?

Step Five: Which solution allows both sides to “win”?

6. Illustrate the process with the following example or another that you develop. Ask the class to pay close attention to the problem-solving process.

Amy and Sarah had planned to be together over the weekend to go to a film. On Saturday morning Amy was supposed to come over to Sarah's house. Sarah has finished cleaning her room and doing her chores, and it's late afternoon—but still no Amy. Then the phone rings, and Sarah hears Amy's voice say, “Hey, Sarah what's up? Do you want to come over today?” Sarah's first impulse is to hang up the phone without saying another word—she's so angry. Using the conflict resolution process, Sarah and Amy could proceed as follows:

Step One: What is the problem?

Sarah explains that in her mind they already had a plan to spend the weekend together, and she's very annoyed because she expected to see Amy by now. It's late afternoon and the day is almost gone.

Step Two: What questions need to be asked to clarify the problem?

Sarah says that she's feeling upset that Amy forgot their plan. She asks Amy, "Was it really that important to you in the first place?" Amy points out that she did ring Sarah after all—she's sorry, but she just forgot. "But do friends do things like that?" Sarah complains. To herself she's thinking, "Is Amy really my friend or is she just pretending?"

Step Three: What are all the possible ways of solving the conflict?

Sarah says that maybe they should just forget about it. Amy says that they should go ahead with the plan anyway and see a later film instead. Sarah is still feeling angry and hurt, however. Maybe, she says, they should just go out together tomorrow—"if you feel like it". Amy is beginning to realize how truly hurt Sarah is. It would have been better, of course, if Sarah could have just given Amy an "I Feel" statement instead of beating around the bush. Sarah could have said, "When you forget our plans, I feel hurt because I have set aside a day to be with you. I need to know that you care about being with me too."

Step Four: Which alternatives best solve the problem?

Amy says that she's really sorry she forgot but that they shouldn't let it ruin the weekend. Sarah is still just as important to her as a friend as she ever was. Not to go ahead with their plan, Amy says, would leave both of them feeling bad about their friendship, and she doesn't want that. She suggests that Sarah join later.

Step Five: Which solution allows both sides to "win"?

Sarah realizes that Amy is sincere. "You really can be an idiot sometimes," she tells Amy. But already she's not feeling so upset any more, and she realizes that... well, Amy isn't perfect, but she's a great friend anyway.

reached? What did both girls have to do to make a solution possible? In what way have both girls "won" something important by following this method?

**ACTIVITY PROCEDURE:
(20 minutes)**

1. After some discussion, choose one of the conflicts written on the board and define the two sides of the conflict. Hand out the "Five-step Problem Solving" worksheet. Have the class divide into pairs. One person in each pair represents one side of the conflict, and the other person represents the other side. Allow about ten minutes for the pairs to work through the Five-step Problem-solving method step by step.
2. When the pairs have finished their task, share the results in the large group. Discuss the solutions that each group developed and the wide variety of ways a single conflict can be resolved.

**PROCESSING QUESTIONS:
(5 minutes)**

1. What do you think the benefits of using this conflict resolution process could be in your own life?
2. For what reasons is it so important to state the problem clearly? To ask questions?
3. What is helpful about coming up with as many solutions as possible in the third step?
4. How do both parties "win" to some extent when this method is used?
5. What are some conflicts that you might be able to solve now?

**BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/
HOMEWORK:
(2 minutes)**

Ask each student to come up with a humorous creative "recipe" for solving problems and conflicts. These could then be shared later as "dessert" to complement the five-step method. Here are a couple of examples:

Life's Delight:

Ingredients: Love, trust, support, magic, daffodils, smiles, sunshine, surprise, laughter. Directions: Begin with an abundance of love. Gradually add several tablespoons of trust and support. Mix with

magic and a dash of daffodils. Season with smiles. Shake in sunshine. Sprinkle with surprise. Lavish with laughter. Baste with dreams. Simmer with sensitivity.

Make the Cake:

Ingredients: Open-mindedness, nonthreatening environment, alertness, self-confidence, ability to laugh at self, trust, appreciation. **Directions:** Start with one open mind and a nonthreatening environment. Mix in one cup of self-confidence. Fold in ability to laugh at one's self. Sprinkle with trust and alertness. Pour into a cake tin. Bake at low temperature till crusty. Remove from tin for inner humour. Frost with appreciation.*

Remind the class that in the next lesson there will be a discussion about an article from the student book. Ask them to read the article by Barbara Varenhorst in time for this.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Ask the students to think about a situation in their lives in which a conflict did not reach a satisfactory resolution. Ask them to try to work out what went wrong. Was the problem never clearly defined? Were there a lot of unanswered questions and hurt feelings? Were many possible solutions ignored? Did someone not get her/his needs met in the final solution? Then have them briefly describe in a notebook entry how the five steps of the problem-solving method might have helped them.

*Adapted from "Laughing Matters," Vol. 1, No. 2, pg. 21.

Surviving Loss in Friendship

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To understand appropriate ways of dealing with loss in friendships.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. State reasons why experiencing feelings of loss is natural and normal in friendships.
2. Describe ways in which time and certain ways of behaving can help one deal effectively with grief and loss in friendships.
3. Accept that experiencing loss is a normal process in friendships.
4. Feel hope when experiencing loss.
5. Accept the value of understanding loss in friendships.

MATERIALS:

1. Student book
2. Paper
3. Pencils
4. "Dealing With Loss" worksheet
5. "Care Gram"

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Review the major concepts about friendship covered in the unit through discussion of the accompanying article in the student book.
2. Discuss the types of losses we experience in our friendships.
3. Discuss the "Dealing With Loss" worksheet.
4. Introduce the "Care Gram".

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (25 minutes)

This session serves two purposes. It reviews the major concepts about friendship presented in the unit through a discussion of the accompanying article in the student book. The focus then shifts to an examination of ways for adolescents to deal with the experience of loss in friendships. Specifically, the emphasis is on issues such as ending friendships, moving away, dealing with rejection, and going it “alone”.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“When you get to the end of your rope, make a knot and hang on.”

3. Briefly review the topics, issues, and questions discussed in the previous sessions. A good way to do this is to take some time to discuss the main ideas presented in the student book article by Barbara Varenhorst that accompanies this unit. The discussion can serve as both a review of the major concepts covered in the unit and a way of assessing the students’ comprehension of the article. You may wish to lead the discussion with the following questions:
 - What are the three “baskets” of decisions about friendships, and why are they important?
 - What are some of the fears people have about making friends?
 - How does Barbara Varenhorst define “peer pressure”? When does peer pressure become a problem for us?
 - What are the benefits of making decisions based on your own best judgement rather than pressure from a group?
 - How can we learn to say “no” to negative peer pressure?
 - How can we begin to share our true selves with friends?
 - What do we need to give to others in friendship in order to make friends in return?
4. After some discussion, explain to the class, “Often one of our biggest fears in relationships with others is our fear of rejection, hurt, pain, or loss. Because

of this, it’s risky to open ourselves to a close relationship with others. It’s risky because we might be rejected. Or we might become close to someone who might eventually move away. Or a friend we care about might choose new friends after a while. All of these things can happen when we get close to other people. Some people find the thought of losing friends so worrying that they don’t get close to other people in the first place. They don’t take the risk. Why do you think some people would rather feel lonely and alienated from others rather than risk being hurt?” Guide the discussion toward the conclusion that people who have been hurt in life before—mainly, people who have experienced painful separations from others they care about—have the most difficult time getting close to others.

5. Move on to the topic of surviving loss and separation in friendships. Ask the students to think back to leaving junior school, a holiday with friends, or any other place where they spent a period of time and became close to people. Ask the students, “What were some ways of ending relationships at these places? How did people say goodbye? What were some of the feelings you had?” Explain that although some loss in friendships happens to everyone, there are ways to accept the loss and deal with it effectively.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (10 minutes)

1. Turn to the “Dealing With Loss” worksheet. Take a few minutes to go over the sheet with the class. It contains ideas and suggestions for dealing with loss in friendships. You may wish to refer to the “quotation of the day” and explain that the ideas on the sheet help us to “tie a knot and hang on” in the face of loss. Ask the students to share with the class any experiences they’ve had when they were able to do any of these things or to describe how other people they know have survived losses and separations.
2. Explain that many people believe that one of the most effective ways of dealing with loss is to reach out to help others in need. It helps people know that they’re not alone in their feelings of loss. As a way of reaching out to friends who are experiencing the loss of someone important in their lives, introduce the “Care Gram”. Explain that people need help during times of loss and that Care Grams provide appropriate expressions of sympathy. Hand out the Care Gram and give the students time to think of at least one person in their lives who might need support because of a loss or separation. Each student should prepare at least one Care Gram to send to someone she/he knows. As the students complete their notes, explain that one

of the important skills of being a friend is to learn to give support during sad and difficult times, not just easy, happy times. Encourage the students to send their notes. You may wish to provide them with envelopes for this purpose.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: *(5 minutes)*

1. Do you ever feel rejected when a friendship ends?
2. Have you ever felt happy about ending a friendship?
3. What regrets have you had about ending a friendship?
4. What are appropriate responses to feelings of loss when a friendship ends? Which ones are constructive and which are destructive?
5. What can we do for friends who are experiencing loss?
6. How would you share your feelings of loss with someone?
7. What did you learn from the "Dealing With Loss" worksheet?
8. How can you apply these attitudes to your own life?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: *(2 minutes)*

Ask the students to interview their parents or other adults about times when they've survived losses. Encourage them to ask questions such as: What was it like? What did you do? What helped you get through it?

Remind the students to bring their student books to class tomorrow. They will be reading the short story entitled "Between Friends".

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: *(3 minutes)*

Ask the students to reflect on a time in their lives when they had to deal with a loss of some kind. What did they feel? What did they do to cope with the loss? Mention that they may wish to include poems, quotations, or songs related to the topic of loss and separation.

“Between Friends”: A Short Story

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To explore the concepts in the short story “Between Friends” as they relate to the major themes in the unit.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Read the short story and identify the major concepts from the unit that are reinforced in the story.
2. Answer literal and interpretive questions about the short story.
3. Draw parallels between the situations in the short story and actual situations in the student’s life.
4. Appreciate the aspects of a well written short story.
5. Empathize with the predicaments of the story’s central character.
6. Draw conclusions from the story about healthy, productive decisions and lifestyles.

MATERIALS:

1. Student book

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Lead a discussion on the major concepts presented in the short story “Between Friends” in the student book.
2. Ask the students to answer the questions that accompany the story in your manual either orally or in writing.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (5 minutes)

The purpose of today's session is to read and discuss the short story "Between Friends". The discussion will provide a new and different way of focusing on the qualities of friendship. Themes in the short story that have also been covered in the unit include understanding the elements of friendship, dealing with peer support and peer pressure, communicating assertively in order to solve conflicts in friendships, and dealing with separation and loss. All of these skills can help the students create stronger, more positive friendships.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

"Talent is produced in solitude, character in the stream of life."—Goethe

3. Tell the students, "We've emphasized throughout this unit that friendship is one of the issues of greatest concern to people your age. This unit has helped us think about the characteristics of good friendships and ways to maintain friendships that are healthy and constructive. When we start a friendship we're taking a big risk—the risk that the friendship won't last, that it will change and we'll get hurt. On the other hand, we can experience the joy of having someone we can really talk to, confide in, and share our favourite interests and activities with. One of the most important ways you discover who you really are as a teenager is through your changing friendships."
4. Explain that the short story "Between Friends" portrays two boys who have been best friends for many years and whose friendship is changing. Through the story we learn how they feel about the changes in their friendship and how they are both growing in different ways.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (25 minutes)

1. Now ask the students to read the short story silently or aloud as a class.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (10 minutes)

1. What is important about Richmond Secondary School?
2. What choice is Philip faced with in trying to go to Richmond?
3. Why is Darren so angry?
4. Philip's father says that Philip is trying to break out of the "mould". What does this mean?
5. Why is the photograph of Philip and Darren important?
6. How has the friendship changed at the end of the story?
7. Is Philip cold and mean because he chooses Richmond Secondary School rather than Darren? Give reasons for your answers.
8. What does the story tell you about the nature of friendships and how they change over time?
9. Can a friendship stay the same always? Under what conditions? Do you know of any such friendships?
10. How do we decide between our goals and our friendships if we have to make a choice between the two? What things do we have to think about?
11. What are some ways to keep friendships alive even though the conditions in our lives change?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Ask the students to think about a special friend whom they would like the class to know about. Arrange a friendship festival by asking the students to invite their special friend to a lesson. If the friend is unable to come, bring in pictures or other symbols of the friendship. The special friend might be a contemporary, an older person, or a pet.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Ask the students to answer the following questions in their notebooks: When friends are separated by distance, what things about the friendship change? What parts of a friendship can remain the same? What do friends need to do to keep a long-distance relationship strong?

Service Learning Project Update

SESSION PURPOSE:

To continue working on implementing the service learning project.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Continue working on her/his responsibilities related to the implementation of the project.
2. Appreciate the effort necessary to organize and implement a long-term service learning project.
3. Learn the value of the cooperation, commitment, and personal responsibility that are necessary to complete a service learning project.

MATERIALS:

1. Supplies necessary to continue work on the project

Note: Make sure that you have alerted the adult volunteer about the timing of this and subsequent update sessions.

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Invite the adult volunteer leader to class.
2. Review the previous session and the steps completed so far.
3. Continue work on the project.
4. Plan the next meeting to complete the next steps in the project.
5. Emphasize that a class session related to the service learning project will be part of every unit from now on.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (10 minutes)

The purpose of today's session is to continue implementing the service learning project by completing additional steps in the process.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“The more we do for others, the more we do for ourselves.”

3. Review the work that has been done on the project so far. Be sure to update all the students who missed any of the previous service learning project update sessions. The review may include a report from each of the committees.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (25 minutes)

1. Plan to spend the lesson today working on the next stage of the project. Activities might include publicity work, fundraising, distribution of information, formation of new committees, problem solving, completion of art work, and so on. Here are a few reminders:
 - Stay informed about each committee's activities. Make sure each committee is keeping a record of its accomplishments.
 - Work through problems openly and honestly. Group cooperation is essential to the success of a project like this. Emphasize the importance of each group member contributing equally to the success of the project.
 - Evaluate the project at the end of today's session. Collect a piece of work from the students, such as a written update, a report, a record of achievements and time spent on the project so far, etc.
2. Plan a meeting to complete the next steps of the project. Remember, there will be a service learning project update at the end of Unit Five.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. How do you feel about the project at this point?
2. How well is the class working together to complete the project? What problems need to be ironed out?
3. What improvements should be made in the way the group is working together?
4. What is the best part about working together with class members on a project like this?
5. What skills have you learned in Unit Four that you think might help you in completing the service learning project successfully?

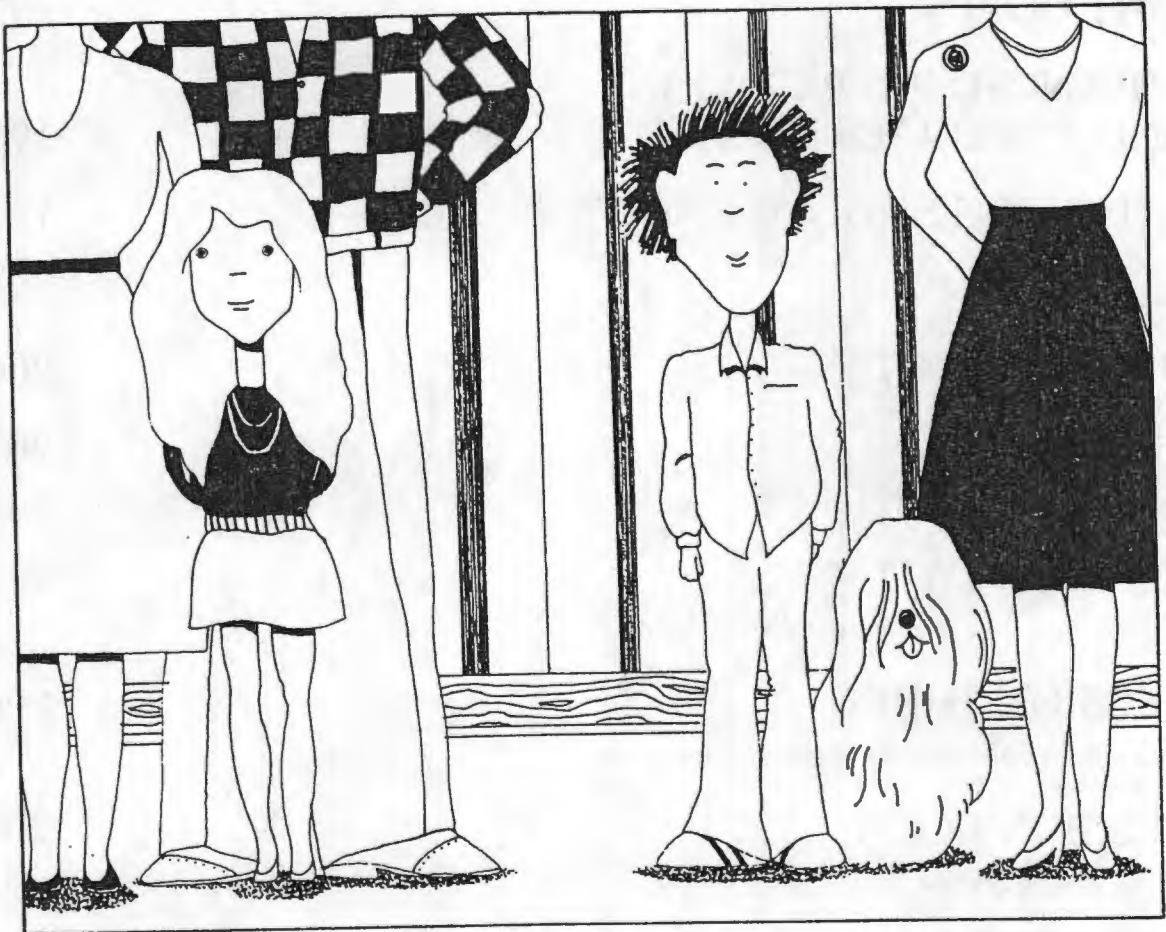
BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Remind the students to fulfil their responsibilities to the project by continuing to work on it outside school. You may wish to restate the ways in which the project will be evaluated. Make sure that all the students are aware of the date of the next meeting or class session devoted to the project. To prepare for the next class session on the project each student should have at least one written assignment relating to her/his work on the project.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Ask the students to write answers to the following questions: What rewards are you starting to experience as a result of the project? What benefits do you see others getting from it?

Strengthening Family Relationships



UNIT FIVE

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UNIT FIVE GOALS

Strengthening Family Relationships

1. To enhance the students' understanding of the role families play in nurturing and development.
2. To examine how family relationships can affect the attitudes and behaviour of family members.
3. To involve the students in improving communication and problem solving in their own families.
4. To promote an understanding that there are many different types of families in our modern society.
5. To encourage greater appreciation of the family's role.

Note: A great many children live with guardians and other adults who are not their parents. Rather than constantly reiterate the phrase "parents and guardians", we have chosen to use the word "parents" in a generic sense to mean all adults who are responsible for child rearing in the context of the *Skills for Adolescence* programme.

In addition, it is especially important to note in teaching this unit that there are many different types of families today. It would be a mistake to assume that all your students come from traditional two-parent families. Throughout this unit we recommend that you be sensitive to the many differences in family structures and avoid a single concept or definition.

ADVANCE PREPARATION AND MATERIALS NEEDED FOR UNIT FIVE

ALL SESSIONS:

Student worksheets

Paper, pencils

Board, board markers

Optional: markers, sticky tape, large sheets of paper

SESSION ONE:

“What Is a Family For?” worksheet

SESSION TWO:

Symbol representing something about your family

“Family Interview” worksheet

SESSION THREE:

“Television Families” worksheet

SESSION FOUR:

“A Family Should Be Like an Elephant—All Ears” worksheet

SESSION FIVE:

“Learning to Solve Family Conflicts” worksheet

SESSION SIX:

Film about family problems, conflicts, or crises

Student book

SESSION SEVEN:

Art materials, small paper bags for each student

SESSION EIGHT:

Student book

SESSION NINE:

Art materials

WHAT YOU SHOULD KNOW

It goes without saying that the family is the primary source of nurturing and support for young children. What may be surprising, however, is that, according to research, the family continues to play an emotionally significant role in the lives of emerging teenagers, despite the growing importance of the peer group. [1]

Because the family continues to be the focal point in the lives of most young adolescents, Unit Five provides activities through which students can gain insight into family dynamics. Throughout, the emphasis is on promoting the positive elements in families—fostering positive perceptions of family interactions, showing appreciation for family members, developing skills to enhance family communication and problem solving, and setting mutual family goals.

In emphasizing the positive it would be a mistake to ignore the many problems, tensions, and stresses that plague so many families today. However, research indicates that when members of a family enjoy working together and share a positive family climate, problem behaviours among young adolescents diminish. Healthy families make each family member feel wanted and important. They are sensitive to meeting each other's needs. Discipline is appropriate, reasonable, and clearly explained.

Regardless of how healthy or unhealthy the family situation may be, children's perceptions of parental behaviour are an important element in predicting problem behaviour in adolescence. The child's perception may be more important than any version of

reality, in fact. One study of an adolescent who was referred to a clinic because of acting out, withdrawal, nervousness, and psychosomatic symptoms concluded that he perceived his family as unsatisfying and ineffective. Yet his nondisturbed brother, sister, and friend did not see the family in the same way. Disturbed children tend to see less warmth, consideration, and understanding in the family unit than do their nondisturbed counterparts. The emotionally disturbed child thinks of his family environment as being negative and behaves accordingly. [2]

Several other studies have shown that alcohol drinking among adolescents is strongly correlated with negative perceptions of parents. [3] Among the factors associated with drinking problems among adolescents are perceptions of parents as rejecting rather than accepting and tense rather than relaxed. A study of runaways found that runaway youngsters frequently perceived their parents as not being supportive or providing sufficient structure in their lives. [4] Similar negative perceptions of parents have been linked with drug abuse, unusual rebelliousness, and other emotional problems. [5,6]

These studies support the common-sense notion that the more family cooperation and a positive family climate are promoted, the less likely it will be that adolescents will experience serious problems. Thus, the activities in Unit Five help to identify the positive aspects of students' families, initiate cooperative family activities, and promote communication and problem-solving skills that can significantly improve relationships between teenagers and their parents.

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UNIT FIVE

ENERGIZERS

1. "Four Up"

Everyone starts by sitting down. Anyone can stand up whenever he/she wants to but cannot remain standing for more than five seconds at a time before sitting down again. Anyone can get straight up again if he/she wants to. The object as a group is to have exactly four people standing at all times.

2. "Family Circle"

Form a circle, holding hands. You start by squeezing the hand of the person on your right. This gets passed around the circle until the squeeze is back again in your left hand. Keep passing the squeeze until it's moving smoothly, then begin adding words that have something to do with families ("brother", "sister", "house", "love", "arguments") and speed up the pace. Occasionally start a word going in the opposite direction so someone gets trapped between two words and has to get them moving in the proper direction. When this seems to be going fairly well, say a family-related word and add a gesture ("love"/hug; "argument"/fist; "new baby"/cradling).

This is a version of "Pass It On", except the words are spoken aloud. The larger your group, the more words, gestures, or combinations you'll want going at once. This is a good energizer to use when you haven't done anything as a total group for a while.

3. "I Can't Go to School Today Because ..."

Ask the students to form pairs. Write the following sentence on the board: "Mum, I can't go to school today because I've got aches, bad breath, and chronic coughing." Before you proceed, point out that the description of the ailments isn't just a random sequence—there's a reason that each word follows the ones before it. Ask if anybody can figure this out. (The first letters of each word are in alphabetical order: "A" for "aches", "B" for "bad breath", and "C" for "chronic coughing".) You're ready to begin. Go around the room, and ask each pair to think of one more word to add to the end of the sentence. Go to the board, write the new word or phrase, and read back the whole sentence to the class. Then it's the next pair's turn to add a word. Students have many and varied reasons for not wanting to go to school. Here's their chance to be creative and have fun lining up all their excuses! Processing could be revealing and helpful.

All of the above adapted from *Playfair*, by Matt Weinstein and Joel Goodman. San Luis Obispo, CA: Impact, 1980.

UNIT FIVE

UNIT PROJECTS

Directions: Choose one unit project to be completed during the term. You may choose one from any of the units.

1. Get your family together or interview members one at a time and develop a list of family strengths. You could use these topics to help direct your questions:
 - A. Fun things we do together;
 - B. What family members like about the family;
 - C. Things we are thankful for in our family;
 - D. Strengths and good traits of different family members.
2. Invite your grandmother, grandfather, aunt, uncle, or other relative out for breakfast, lunch, or dinner. Give him/her your time, e.g., really listen and get him/her to tell you some family history. Write one page about the experience. Or spend time with a grandparent, aunt, uncle, or parent/guardian and ask him/her to teach you some family or ethnic tradition, craft, skill, or language. Write a one-page report on what you did and how it went.
3. Make a gift for a member of your family. Show it to the teacher before giving it away.
4. Take your brother, sister, or a younger relative on an outing, e.g., to get an ice cream, visit an activity like the Cubs/Brownies, a school concert, etc. Ask some questions, then use your skills to listen well to their answers. Or plan a family trip. Think of all the things you could do that might be fun as well as educational, e.g., tour a farm, factory, newspaper publishing house, museum, or zoo. Write a report on the experience.
5. Show that you care about family members by asking questions about things of importance to them. For example, if you know someone had a special event during the week, ask about it, e.g., "Mum, did you have a good meeting last night?"; "Jim, how are you doing with the football training?". Ask questions about their lives in general, e.g., "Dad, what do you like best about your work?"; "Who are your best friends?". Use your skills to think up a number of questions appropriate to different members of your family. Ask the questions over a two-week or one-month period. Be sure to be a good listener. Write a report on what the experience was like for you and how you think it may have been helpful for your family. Be sure to respect family confidentiality.

UNIT FIVE, SESSION ONE

A Family Is a Way of Feeling

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To become aware of the family's importance in our lives.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. State ways in which different types of family structures fulfil basic family functions.
2. Describe ways in which various family functions are handled in his/her own family.
3. Appreciate the ways in which the family contributes to the well-being of its members.
4. Develop greater appreciation for the different contributions of various members of his/her family.
5. Recognize the varieties of family structures.

MATERIALS:

1. Board and markers
2. "What Is a Family For?" worksheet

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Present a mini lecture on the family.
2. Define "family" through brainstorming.
3. Discuss the functions of a family.
4. Ask the students to read the accompanying article from the student book.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (5 minutes)

Today's session gives the students an opportunity to discuss their ideas about what a family provides for its members. Through discussion and brainstorming the students will have a chance to recognize the many functions that a family fulfills. The exercise encourages the students to appreciate the ways in which families help meet important human needs.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“A family is a place where, when you need people to help you, they will always take you in.”

3. Begin with a brief introduction to the unit. Tell the students, “For the next week or so we’ll be looking at families and their effects on what we do, feel, and think. We’ll be talking about what a family provides, how to cope better with family problems, how to show appreciation for the members of our families, and how our families can support us in making healthy decisions.”
4. You may wish to share the following anecdote as a way of further introducing the unit.

One day a small boy tried to lift a heavy stone but couldn't budge it. His father, watching, finally said, “Are you sure you're using all your strength?” “Yes, I am!” the boy cried. “No, you're not,” said his father. “You haven't asked me to help you.”

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (35 minutes)

1. Explain that we are going to begin our unit on the family by defining what a family is. Tell the students, “We'll start to define what families are by brainstorming ideas. Let's take the next few minutes to brainstorm words or phrases that describe what a family is. Remember the rules of brainstorming—say anything that comes to your mind, and wait until afterwards to discuss or eliminate ideas.” Allow three to five minutes for brainstorming and write all the words and phrases on the board or on a large sheet of paper. Looking at the words and phrases, guide the students in arriving at a definition of “family” that includes the following ideas:

- A group of people;
 - Adults and children together;
 - Living in the same place;
 - Generations of parents and children;
 - Relatives—parents, brothers, sisters, grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins;
 - Helping each other;
 - Parents bringing up children;
 - Loving, caring.
2. After you're satisfied that the class has developed an appropriate definition of the concept of family, explain that one way of defining a family is to describe what it provides for its members. Every family meets many different needs. It might provide:
 - The basic needs of food, shelter, and clothing;
 - A base of love and support;
 - Guidelines for ways to behave;
 - A setting for handing down traditions;
 - Spiritual training;
 - Formation of values and beliefs.

Write this list on the board. Then ask the students to add to the list any ideas they have about what a family provides.

3. Perhaps making notes on the board to accompany the following lecturette, tell the class, “Many different types of family structures can meet these needs. At one time, 30 years ago or more, the typical family was what we call the ‘extended family’. This was made up of several different families, all living close to each other, in which all the generations were combined. There were grandparents, aunts, uncles, mothers, fathers, and cousins, and everybody knew everyone else well. As people began to move to other towns, these extended families became less typical, and the common pattern became what we call the ‘nuclear family’—two parents and one or more children living together. Then, as growing numbers of parents divorced and remarried, we began to see changes in the nuclear family. Today many families do not fit the nuclear family pattern. Instead we have single-parent families, blended families in which formerly divorced parents have remarried and both parents have children—in addition to extended families of the traditional kind, nuclear families,

and many other combinations. All of these types of families can meet the basic needs of a family."

Spend some time discussing the definitions of extended, nuclear, single-parent, blended, and adoptive families.

4. Hand out the "What Is a Family For?" worksheet and explain that the students are to complete it as part of the homework assignment. The students may wish to begin working on it in class if time permits. Be sure to go over the worksheet and provide examples for each question.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. What are some of the things we've learned about families today?
2. Why do you think it is so difficult to define a "family" these days?
3. What have you learned about different ideas of the meaning of "family"?
4. What is the best overall definition of a "family"?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Ask the students to read the accompanying article

in the student book. Mention that the concepts will be discussed throughout the unit. The formal discussion will be included in session seven.

Explain that the purpose of the next lesson is to celebrate the differences and unique qualities of the families represented by all the students in the class. Ask the students to identify three different special family symbols or other ways of presenting their families' unique characteristics. Examples might include:

- Something you have learned about your family's "roots", either by talking with your parents or by doing some kind of research;
- Something from home—an object, a memento, a picture, etc.;
- Something that is symbolic of your family—for example, something green for an Irish family, something Tartan for a Scottish family, and so on;
- Some skill or special knowledge that your family has passed along that has helped give you "wings"—helped you to achieve something special.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Ask the students to think about their families with the following question in mind and write the answers in their notebooks: If you could help to make a special wish come true for each person in your family, what would it be?

UNIT FIVE, SESSION TWO

Roots and Wings: Sharing a Family Symbol

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To appreciate our families' unique qualities, cultural traditions, and other special characteristics.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Describe qualities of the family that make it a lifelong support system.
2. Have positive feelings about his/her family.
3. Feel pride in being part of his/her family.

MATERIALS:

1. Shared symbols
2. "Family Interview" worksheet (two for each student)

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Each student shares family symbols to present one or more of his/her family's unique characteristics.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (5 minutes)

This session provides an opportunity for the students to share sources of family pride with the class by presenting a symbol of something that represents unique and special characteristics of their families.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“There are only two lasting things we can give our children—one is roots, the other is wings.”

3. Tell the students, “During the last session we talked about different family structures. Families are changing today. It’s different from the past, when almost all families were either nuclear families or extended families. Change in a family can be difficult and even painful, especially when it involves divorce or separation. But often we don’t take enough time to appreciate our families and look at the positive things they provide us with.” Explain that today’s activity is a celebration of the family. It is a reminder that although families have their ups and downs, they are our support system, the people with whom we share an important connection.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (30 minutes)

1. Ask the students to share their family symbols, the “roots and wings” that represent something interesting and unique about their families. Allow one or two minutes per student, and remind the students that they have the right to pass.
2. Encourage discussion of the family symbols, emphasizing new discoveries and positive reactions. Bring out such aspects of family differences

as ethnic traditions, hobbies, pastimes, and other things that make the students’ families unique. Also call attention to any similarities the students mention.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. What did you find out about your family’s unique qualities and traditions in preparing for this lesson?
2. What have you learned about other families?
3. What have you learned that you never knew before?
4. How has this lesson helped you to appreciate your fellow class members? Their families? Your own family?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Give each student two copies of the “Family Interview” worksheet. Ask them to interview their parents and fill out a form for each interview. If there aren’t two parents in their immediate families or both are unavailable, they may interview other people’s parents, relatives, or other adults they know. They should be sure to tell them that the interview is for a school assignment, that they need their help, and that they can label any answers as “off the record”—that is, not for public discussion. The students will have an opportunity to discuss the issues and questions raised by the interviewing process during the next session, although they will not be asked to discuss the content of the interviews.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Ask the students to write in their notebooks about the presentation they made to the class. Ask them to describe the symbol they have chosen to share, what it says about their families, and why it is significant to them.

UNIT FIVE, SESSION THREE

At Home with the Blockers and the Lovelys

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To examine different kinds of family communication.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Compare and contrast how different styles of family interaction affect family members.
2. Appreciate the benefits of positive and supportive kinds of family interaction.

MATERIALS:

1. Board
2. Board markers
3. "Television Families" worksheet

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Discuss different styles of family interaction.
2. Role play two very different fictional family situations: the Blockers, who have terrible communication, and the Lovelys, who are absolutely "perfect" in every way.
3. Discuss the results of these extreme situations and the characteristics of a family that communicates well together.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (15 minutes)

This session focuses on how communication within the family affects our attitudes, behaviours, and actions. The activity emphasizes the importance of clear, direct communication among family members so that they can become more understanding of each other, more loving and caring, and better able to meet each other's needs.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“To reveal ourselves honestly takes the rarest kind of courage.”

3. Take some time at the beginning of the lesson to share responses from the students' family interviews. Ask the students, “What are some of the most interesting things you learned from doing the interview?” After some discussion, explain that one of the ways to improve relationships within the family is to show a genuine interest in family members' life experiences, feelings, thoughts, opinions, and so on. Remind the class that good listening skills—focusing, accepting, and asking good questions—are one of the best ways to validate family members and create closer family relationships.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (20 minutes)

1. Explain that the interviews allowed us to communicate in some depth with family members on a one-to-one basis. As a group, however, families tend to have different “styles” of communication. Some families are mainly positive and supportive while others are mainly negative and unsupportive. Some listen well to each other, and some don't. Most families combine several different types of communication—negative and unsupportive at one moment and positive and supportive at another. Support from your family is essential to good feelings and healthy development, and we should all try to do whatever we can to make family communication positive and helpful. The purpose of the role plays in today's session is to focus on how to make that happen.
2. Briefly outline the communication patterns of the two families, the Blockers and the Lovelys, that will be featured in the role plays. The Blockers

have terrible communication. No one listens to anyone else. Everyone is always shouting, but no one really listens no matter how loud the shouting gets. The family seems to create problems for itself at every turn and then have no way of solving these problems. The Lovelys are just as extreme in their way as the Blockers. The Lovelys are an absolutely “perfect” family. Everyone talks in soft voices and smiles all the time. The Lovelys are always sweetness and serenity, with never a conflict or an unpleasant word.

3. Choose students or ask for volunteers to act in the role plays. All of the students will have an opportunity to contribute ideas to the role plays. Even if they do not actually play roles, the class will be divided into two groups that will develop the plays. Make sure that each student is in one of the two groups.
4. Give the students a list of possible situations to develop into a role play. Some sample situations include:

- The family preparing for guests;
- The family at dinner;
- The family at a picnic;
- The family on holiday;
- A typical morning as the family members prepare to leave the house and go about their daily activities;
- The family solving a problem.

Ask each group to choose one of the situations (or invent another one). Tell them they will have ten minutes to create their role play and three minutes to act it out.

5. After ten minutes of planning time, invite each group to take a turn presenting its role play.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. What are the problems in the Blocker family?
2. In what ways are the Lovelys unrealistic?
3. What types of communication characterize more typical families?
4. How does the communication used by one person in a family affect the others?
5. If you could change the way you communicate with your own family, what would you change?

**BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/
HOMEWORK:**
(2 minutes)

Hand out the "Television Families" worksheet. Ask the students to watch a television programme about a family (one in which there are adults and children) and then complete the worksheet. You may wish to provide class time to go over the students' observations during a subsequent session.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY:
(3 minutes)

Ask the students to think about a television family and answer the following questions in their notebooks: In what ways is this family like the Blockers? The Lovelys? How could they improve their communication?

UNIT FIVE, SESSION FOUR

The Family Should Be Like an Elephant—All Ears

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To understand the role of good communication within families.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Identify how to use good listening skills in typical family situations.
2. Identify how to use "I Feel" statements in typical family situations under appropriate circumstances.
3. Describe ways in which family meetings can help to improve family communication.
4. Appreciate the value of sharing personal feelings and concerns within the family by using "I Feel" statements.
5. Appreciate ways of improving communication within the family.
6. Accept that family members have their own concerns and that communication can be improved if each family member tries to understand the others' perspectives.

MATERIALS:

1. "A Family Should Be Like an Elephant—All Ears" worksheet

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Review good listening skills.
2. Review "I Feel" statements. Ask each student to complete the worksheet entitled "The Family Should Be Like an Elephant—All Ears," working alone, creating for three members of his/her family one "I Feel" statement describing a current concern that has not been resolved.
3. Ask the students to share statements from their worksheets with the class.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (5 minutes)

The purpose of this session is to review the listening skills taught earlier in the curriculum and provide the students with the chance to use "I Feel" statements in relation to family issues. The activities encourage the students to think about ways they help to improve communication within their own families.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

"Listening is the shortest distance between two people."

3. Remind the students that good communication is one of the keys to a family's being close and supportive—each member of a close group needs to feel listened to and appreciated by the others. Point out that our ways of communicating play a large part in how our messages are heard and understood.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (30 minutes)

1. Review the lessons on listening skills from the other units and explain that today the class will be focusing on listening as part of good family communication. Ask the students to recall the guidelines for good listening:

- A total focus on the speaker;
- Showing acceptance without judgement;
- Asking good questions.

2. Hand out the worksheet entitled "The Family Should Be Like an Elephant—All Ears." Ask the students to think about some typical communication problems that arise in families, such as people ignoring one another, interrupting one another, getting angry without having all the facts about a situation, and so on. Then ask them to write an "I Feel" statement that would help them communicate their feelings to family members in a positive, understanding way.

For example:

<i>Mum</i>	Mum gets mad at me	When you get angry with me, I feel terrible because I want to get on with you.
<i>Dad</i>	Dad travels a lot in his job	When you're gone, I feel sad because I miss you.
<i>Joe (brother)</i>	Joe teases me in front of my friends	When you tease me, I feel bad because I know I'll fight back and I don't want to fight with you.

Once again state that "I Feel" statements help us share our genuine feelings and take responsibility for the way we feel by not blaming others. Emphasize that an "I Feel" statement explains to another person why his/her behaviour is a problem for us. It helps us to stop and think about how we are communicating our needs to others in a positive, constructive, and fair way. Also it's a skill that we must practise to learn so that it becomes a habit. After all, no one likes to be scolded, told off, or blamed. But most people are willing to help us out if we openly share our needs and concerns with them.

3. Allow the students about ten minutes to complete the task. Then bring the class together. Ask the students to share some of their "I Feel" statements. By sharing some of your own, you'll encourage the students to share more freely.
4. Be sure to spend a few minutes talking about times when "I Feel" statements may not be appropriate—for example, when the relationship is strained or when sharing feelings is not part of the relationship. In these cases, the students must be prepared for the possibility of being rejected or misunderstood. "I Feel" statements work best when the other person is willing to communicate openly.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. How does listening fairly to family members improve family relationships?
2. What do "I Feel" statements accomplish?
3. How do "I Feel" statements help us communicate better?

4. Why do you think "I Feel" statements might help family members listen to each other instead of becoming defensive?

5. When might they not work?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: *(2 minutes)*

Explain that often families do not have much time to share with each other and that this can cause family communication problems. One way to spend positive time together is by holding family meetings.

Ask the students to suggest various topics for family meetings. Discuss what problems might arise if they tried to initiate family meetings in their families, how they might overcome these problems, and how they might convince family members that the idea is

worth trying. Present the following guidelines for family meetings.

- Focus on a specific topic.
- At the beginning avoid discussions of problems—preferably, agree on something that will be fun to do, such as playing a game. Or everyone can talk about his/her favourite part of the day.
- All the family members must agree to give the meeting their full attention.
- Keep the meeting time short—15 minutes to half an hour.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: *(3 minutes)*

Ask the students to describe how they might initiate a family meeting. Ask them to think about the reaction they will get and how they will respond.

UNIT FIVE, SESSION FIVE

Handling Family Conflict

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To learn how to resolve family conflicts.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Identify ways to solve family conflict effectively.
2. Apply the Five-step Problem-solving method to family conflicts.
3. Appreciate the importance of resolving family conflicts by using the Five-step Problem-solving method.
4. Become committed to using the Five-step Problem-solving method in resolving family conflicts.

MATERIALS:

1. "Learning to Solve Family Conflicts" worksheet

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Discuss the results of the suggested family meetings from the previous homework.
2. Brainstorm typical family problems.
3. Divide the class into pairs and give each pair a different problem to solve, using the Five-step Problem-solving method.
4. The students share their solutions with the group in a conversation circle.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (5 minutes)

This activity helps the students develop ways of coping more effectively with family conflicts. The session reinforces the Five-step Problem solving method learned in the preceding unit by applying it to typical family conflicts.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“When I was a boy of fourteen, my father was so ignorant I could hardly stand to have the old man around. But when I got to be twenty-one, I was astonished at how much the old man had learned in seven years.” —Mark Twain

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (30 minutes)

1. Begin the lesson with a discussion about the family meeting homework assignment. Point out that if more families held regular meetings and worked more at communicating with each other, there would probably be less conflict in families. Nevertheless, conflicts and problems occur in even the closest families.
2. Explain that a good way to handle conflicts in the family is through problem solving; that is, talking a situation over and arriving at a solution that is fair for everyone. Ideally the solution will be acceptable and fair to all involved; this helps everyone remember that we can still consider each other's feelings and viewpoints even when we disagree. Tell the class that it takes self-discipline to learn to solve family problems well. If we learn the technique and remember to apply it, however, it will be useful all of our lives.
3. Review the steps in the Five-step Problem-solving method, listing them on the board if you like. Remind the students that the basic approach is to answer a series of questions:

Step One: What is the problem?

Step Two: What questions need to be asked to clarify the problem?

Step Three: What are all the possible ways of solving the problem?

Step Four: Which alternatives best solve the problem?

Step Five: Which solution allows both sides to “win”?

4. Illustrate the Five-step Problem-solving process with the following example.

Step One: What is the problem?

Steve is a 14-year-old secondary school student who disagrees with his parents about the strict rules they've established. He likes to hang around with his old friends from primary school, but they're starting to get into things that his parents totally disagree with—outrageous clothes, parties, and late hours, for example. Steve's parents believe that Steve should dress conservatively and wear his hair short and groomed. They also forbid his attending unchaperoned parties and insist that he be in no later than nine o'clock at weekends. Steve feels angry that his parents are trying to run his life and choose his friends. His parents feel it is their obligation to set standards and provide the guidelines for Steve that correspond with their values.

Step Two: What questions need to be asked to clarify the problem?

Steve's parents may ask:

What are some reasons why you enjoy hanging around with these youngsters? Do you agree with what they're doing? Are there other people you would enjoy being friends with? Can you understand why we're concerned and don't approve of their behaviour?

Steve may ask:

Why can't you let me choose my own friends? Why can't I dress the way I want to? Why can't I go to the same parties that everyone else can go to? Why do I have to be in earlier than everyone else?

Step Three: What are all the possible ways of solving the problem?

- Steve's parents can forbid him to see his friends.
- Steve's parents can allow him to see his friends but insist that all of their guidelines be followed concerning dress, parties, and coming home time.
- Steve's parents can examine each issue individually and make their decisions accordingly.

- Steve's parents can talk to the parents of his friends about getting together on rules concerning parties and coming home times.
- Steve's parents can allow him to dress as he pleases, attend parties with his friends, and have a coming home time to match that of his friends.

Step Four: Which alternatives best solve the problem?

Steve and his parents agree that they seem to be at opposite poles.

In order to solve the problem, someone is going to have to make some kind of compromise. Therefore, the solutions that don't involve any compromise are out.

Step Five: Which solution allows both sides to "win"?

After much discussion, Steve and his parents decide to take each issue individually. His parents say he may wear certain styles of clothes, provided he looks clean and groomed in them. He agrees to wear his hair short. His parents agree to a one-hour extension of his coming home time. However, they tell him that he may not attend unchaperoned parties and that before he goes out to a party they'll phone the parents of the teenager who's giving the party. Steve and his parents agree that these new guidelines are fair and reasonable.

5. Now brainstorm typical family problems or conflicts. Make a list of these situations on the board. For example, a brother who teases you all the time, a sister who borrows your stuff and never returns it, a parent who doesn't listen, a coming home time that's different from everyone else's, strict rules you have to live by, and so on. Divide the class into pairs. Assign each pair a different problem or conflict from the brainstorm session to work on. One person in each pair should take one side of the conflict and the other person take the other side. Hand out the "Learning to Solve Family Problems" worksheet. Give each pair about ten minutes to work through the process, filling out the worksheet and reaching a solution that both partners feel is fair and reasonable.

6. Bring the group together into a conversation circle to discuss the various solutions. Be sure to point out those that make the best use of the Five-step Problem-solving process and emphasize reasons why.

ADDITIONAL ACTIVITY:

Begin to plan an afterschool picnic entitled "Little U.N." Each student will bring a traditional family dish to share with the class, explaining the significance of the dish and any family or cultural traditions with which it's associated. Parents and siblings should also be invited to be part of the sharing session. This picnic is an excellent activity for bringing the family unit closer. Plan it to follow session eight.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. What are some of the problems that come up when you're trying to solve a family conflict?
2. What can you do if someone won't budge on a point?
3. What might be some ways to convince a family member that the Five-step Problem-solving method is worth trying?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Remind the class that in the next lesson we will be discussing the accompanying article from the student book.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Get the students to write a brief entry in their notebooks in response to the following questions: What are some things I can do to help solve problems in my family? In what ways can I change my behaviour?

UNIT FIVE, SESSION SIX

A Case Study: How a Family Deals With Conflict

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To apply skills learned in the course to family problems and conflicts.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Describe different kinds of common family problems.
2. Identify ways to apply skills learned in the course to dealing with family problems.
3. Appreciate the value of applying skills learned in the course to family problems.
4. Accept that the effects of family problems can be minimized by dealing with family problems effectively.

MATERIALS:

1. Stories or media presentations depicting family problems, conflicts, or crises (see activity description)
2. Student book

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Review the major concepts in the unit by discussing the accompanying article in the student book.
2. Read a story or show a film or videotape about a child experiencing a family conflict—for example, a separation, divorce, shared child custody, new blended family, and so on.
3. Discuss the feelings of the various family members, possible ways of coping with the problem, and the importance of open communication in solving it.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (2 minutes)

This activity introduces different kinds of common family problems. In order to avoid asking the students to discuss problems in their own families, the lesson "objectifies" family problems by focusing on families that students have read about, heard about, or observed in films or television shows. The session encourages the students to think about ways of managing family problems and emphasizes the importance of knowing about and applying coping skills when such problems arise.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

"The greatest kindness I can offer you is always to tell the truth."

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (35 minutes)

1. Begin today's session by reviewing the major concepts presented in Unit Five. A good way to do this is to take some time to discuss the main ideas presented in the student book article by Charlie Shedd that accompanies this unit. The discussion can serve as both a review of the major concepts covered in the unit and a way of assessing the students' comprehension of the article. Remind the class that we have been discussing the many definitions of the family, the changing family structure, the needs that the family fulfils for its members, and ways to bring about more positive relationships within the family. Draw the students' attention to Charlie Shedd's article in the student book. You may wish to lead the discussion with the following questions:

- In the section headed "Daddy, You Left the Door Open," what do you think of the way Vicky talks to her father? What should her father do?
- What kinds of compromises do family members need to make in single-parent families such as Tracey and Rob's?
- What do you think of the telephone rules that one family established in the article?

- In what ways do your parents, like Sean's, allow and encourage you to be yourself? What happens when your values and your parents' values clash? How do you solve these conflicts?
- Why is what Rosemary is doing for her brother so important to him? To her? To the family?
- What kinds of things could Jimmy do to improve his new family situation? What could the whole family do?

Take a few minutes to discuss the article's "Twelve Rules for Getting Along with Your Parents". Ask the students how they might apply these rules to their own families.

2. To further illustrate different family problems and conflicts and ways to cope with them, read a story or show a film about a child going through a difficult situation, such as parental separation, remarriage, a major move, financial problems, unemployment, or a family illness.

If you have a favourite film, book, or story that illustrates families coming to grips with problems or conflicts, feel free to use it for this class session.

3. After viewing the presentation (or reading a story aloud), have the students try to identify the feelings someone their age might experience in a similar situation and brainstorm actions to take or things to communicate that would help in dealing with the problem or conflict. Review some of the skills we have learned in the course that can help a person cope with events that deeply affect his/her life and feelings. For example:

- Listening effectively to others;
- Sharing feelings openly and honestly with "I Feel" statements;
- Resolving conflicts by practising the Five-step Problem-solving method.

Explain that often when major changes or problems occur in families, there isn't much anyone can do to prevent them. However, family members can have some control over how they react to such situations. They can turn problems into possibilities if they work hard at keeping communication open and work together as a team. Throughout this discussion, guide the students in talking about objective situations, rather than appearing to encourage them to share their own families' problems with the class.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: *(5 minutes)*

1. What are the reasons why it is so important to see many sides of a family problem?
2. How can we apply good listening skills when experiencing family problems?
3. How can we apply the Five-step Problem-solving process to family problems?
4. What are the reasons why it is so important to share love and positive feelings during times of family problems and conflicts?
5. What are some positive outcomes that can result from a family crisis?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: *(2 minutes)*

Tell the students to begin thinking about some special gifts for one or more members of their families that might help to create positive feelings during times of conflict or stress. Suggest that they share these gifts with family members and report back to the class on how the family members responded to them.

- Give a family member a decorated note of some kind offering a gift that lets him/her know you want to show appreciation and meet a need. Only a gift of time or effort is allowed—for example, cleaning the floor, running errands, and so on. It can't be a regular chore.
- Offer to spend time with a family member doing something that he or she especially likes.
- Do a favour like washing the dishes, cooking a meal, or baby-sitting so your parents can have a night out.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: *(3 minutes)*

Ask the students to imagine what the main character in the story or film they heard or saw today was feeling about his/her situation. Ask them to write a brief description in the third person of how the character might have been feeling and what he/she might do to help other family members through the experience.

Family Fun Kits

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To plan ways for the family to spend time together.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Identify ways to initiate positive family experiences.
2. Appreciate the value of initiating positive family experiences.

MATERIALS:

1. Paper bags or small boxes
2. Sugar paper
3. Sticky tape
4. Crayons/pencils

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. The students make kits or packages containing items or instructions for family activities.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (2 minutes)

An important goal of Unit Five is to help the students gain a greater appreciation of their families. The unit encourages the students to recognize that there are many different kinds of family structures today and helps them to practise good listening skills. "I Feel" statements, and the Five-step Problem-solving process in improving family relations. This session explores ways in which the students and their parents can communicate and enjoy each other's company through a variety of structured activities, thus bridging some of the gaps that often develop between teenagers and their parents.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

"Snowflakes are one of nature's most fragile things, but just look at what they can do when they stick together."

3. Tell the class, "So far in this unit, we've talked a great deal about ways to solve family problems and communicate more openly. Today we're going to concentrate on ways to improve family communication by reaching out to family members in positive ways—specifically, by helping them out in meaningful ways, planning group activities with them, and learning to show appreciation for each other. We'll be doing this by creating 'Family Fun Kits'."

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (35 minutes)

1. Ask the students to make kits or packages containing ideas, things they've made, or other items for a family to use in spending some special time together. Make sure that activities the students initiate do not require a great deal of money—playing a board game at home, for example, is better than requiring the whole family to go to an expensive amusement park. The kits can consist of boxes or paper bags filled with surprises.

Examples:

- Slips of paper with special instructions, e.g., "Cook something for dinner together that you haven't eaten for a long time but all of you like very much."

- Redeemable "hug coupons."
- Tickets to a special event—or "play" tickets made out of slips of paper.
- Notes offering to do special favours for family members.
- A small, hand-made gift.

The purpose of these family kits is for the family to have some special time together—a chance to come together and have fun, celebrate, and feel their strength.

2. An alternative is to put family surprise bags together as a class project. The bags might contain such things as sweets, an invitation to a picnic or football match, a fudge recipe, and so on.
3. Another idea is to have the students create their own "Sanity Saver" coupon books to give to family members. Each coupon could be some kind of "gift certificate". For example:

- "Hand me this ... and I won't say 'why?' when you say 'no.'"
- "Hand me this ... and I'll pretend I'm having a good time when you make me go somewhere with you."
- "Hand me this ... and I'll get you one super duper breakfast in bed—and I'll even clean up afterwards."
- "Hand me this ... and I'll bake a batch of my favourite biscuits and not eat more than half."
- "Good for ... ten minutes of silence, no matter how badly I want to argue."*

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. Was this project fun? Why?
2. What in your family fun kit are you looking forward to?
3. Which surprises do you think each member of your family will be most excited about?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Get the students to initiate one of the following activities with their families:

- Have a joke session at the family dinner table. Each family member in turn shares a joke, anecdote, or humorous story—the family that laughs together lasts together. Along the same lines, sit down with your family in the living room after dinner and ask “What’s one thing you saw today that tickled your funny bone or that made you laugh?” Encourage the family members to share some humorous situations or experiences they’ve experienced.
- Another entertaining family pastime is “silly rule making”. The family pokes fun at rules being too rigid by voting on such obviously silly rules as how many inches apart the salt and pepper pots should be or how many drops of water should be used to water a plant.
- Put together humorous scrapbooks consisting of comics, cartoons, humorous columns, and other entertaining items about family life.*

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Suggest that each student create a notebook entry entitled, “Love Is ...” Here is a sample completed by a student:

- Love is knowing that your family cares about and loves you.
- Love is knowing that when you don’t feel well someone is there to take care of you.
- Love is having a friend to turn to when you’re upset.
- Love is being kind to others and knowing that they will be kind back to you.
- Love is knowing you have a reason for living.

*Adapted from “Laughing Matters,” Vol. 1, No. 1, pg. 24-26.

UNIT FIVE, SESSION EIGHT

“No Party for Nikki”: A Short Story

SESSION PURPOSE:

1. To explore the concepts in the short story “No Party for Nikki” as they relate to the major themes in Unit Five.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Read the short story and identify the major concepts from the unit that are reinforced in the story.
2. Answer literal and interpretive questions about the short story.
3. Draw parallels between the situations in the short story and actual situations in the student's life.
4. Appreciate the aspects of a well written short story.
5. Empathize with the predicaments of the story's central character.
6. Draw conclusions from the story about healthy, productive decisions and lifestyles.

MATERIALS:

1. Student book

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Lead a discussion on the major concepts presented in the short story “No Party for Nikki” in the student book.
2. Ask the students to answer the questions about the short story in your manual either orally or in writing.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (5 minutes)

The purpose of today's session is to read and discuss the short story "No Party for Nikki". The story provides insights into two very different types of families and thus helps to continue the discussion of family communication and problem solving.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

"Love demands that I learn how to focus my attention on the needs of those I love." — John Powell

3. Start by telling the students, "We've been exploring ways to strengthen family relationships. These include appreciating the importance of the family, understanding ways in which families meet the needs of their members, and learning ways of communicating and solving family problems. Most important, the unit has encouraged us to look at the positive things about our families and think of ways to show our appreciation to family members. Your family can be your most important support at this time in your life. To make it the best that it can be, you have to put into it what you wish to get out of it."
4. Tell the students, "The story 'No Party for Nikki' illustrates typical family problems that can occur when young people enter adolescence. Underlying the strict disciplinary measures that Nikki's parents adopt is a deep love and concern for her well-being. Through a tragic event, Nikki learns that her parents may have her best interests in mind after all."

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (25 minutes)

Now ask the students to read the short story silently or aloud as a class.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (10 minutes)

1. What is the reason for the conflict between Nikki and her parents?

2. How would you describe Nikki's parents? Give examples to support your statements.
3. What kind of relationship do Nikki and her parents seem to have? How do you know?
4. Describe some of the family's routines. How does Nikki feel about them? Why do you think her family requires her to do jobs and participate in family activities?
5. Describe the friendship between Nikki and Charlotte. How are they alike? Different? What is the biggest difference between them?
6. What is Nikki's scheme to get out of the house Saturday night? What happens when she gets caught?
7. What occurs as a result of Charlotte's party? Where are Charlotte's parents? What are some conclusions that you can draw about Charlotte's parents and her relationship with them?
8. How does Charlotte feel about her condition? What are some reasons why Charlotte appears to be so tough about it?
9. What does Charlotte mean when she says to Nikki at the end of the story, "You don't know how lucky you are."
10. What do you think is the main message in this story? Do you agree? Give reasons for your opinions.

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

To underscore the importance of family love and pride, ask the students to do a variation of a family shield. Have them draw the shape of a shield on sugar paper and then divide it into six segments. Explain that each of the six segments will contain some kind of symbol or statement about their families. Except for the sixth box, no words can be used—just drawings. Reassure the students that they will not be judged on their artwork, but they will be asked to display their family shields in class. Present the following descriptions of the contents of each of the six segments:

- Draw a picture of the place where your family lives.
- Draw a picture of your family. They may be doing something or simply lined up as though their picture were being taken. Put yourself in the drawing too.

- Think of one good quality or strength of your family. Draw this or represent it in some way.
- What is one fond memory you have of your family? It could be a holiday, a special tradition, etc.
- What is one hope you have for your family? It could be something tangible, like a new car, or a quality you would like your family to achieve in its relationships. Symbolize this hope graphically.
- In the last segment of your family shield write two words that you feel best describe your family.

Explain to the students that they are to bring their completed family shields to class and that you will display them on the wall for several weeks.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: **(3 minutes)**

Ask the students to respond to the following questions with a brief entry in their notebooks: What are some of the guidelines or rules in your family that you think make good sense? In what ways do they show you that your parents care about you?

Service Learning Project Update

SESSION PURPOSE:

To continue working on implementing the service learning project.

OBJECTIVES:

The student will ...

1. Continue working on his/her responsibilities related to the implementation of the project.
2. Appreciate the effort necessary to organize and implement a long-term service learning project.
3. Learn the value of the cooperation, commitment, and personal responsibility that are necessary to complete a service learning project.

MATERIALS:

1. Supplies necessary to continue work on the project

Note: Make sure that you have alerted the adult volunteer about the scheduling of this and subsequent update sessions.

ACTIVITY AT A GLANCE:

1. Invite the adult volunteer leader to class.
2. Review the previous session and the steps completed thus far.
3. Continue work on the project.
4. Plan the next meeting to complete the next steps in the project.
5. Emphasize that a class session related to the service learning project will be part of every unit from now on.

ACTIVITY INTRODUCTION: (10 minutes)

The purpose of today's session is to continue implementing the service learning project by completing additional steps in the process.

1. Before the lesson begins, write the session purpose on the board.
2. You may wish to begin the session by writing the following quotation on the board and taking a minute or so to discuss its meaning:

“Our family is the only soil in which love can possibly grow. We're going to make it together!”

3. Review the work that has been done on the project so far. Be sure to update all the students who missed any of the previous service learning project update sessions. The review may include a report from each of the committees.

ACTIVITY PROCEDURE: (25 minutes)

1. Plan to spend the class period today working on the next stage of the project. Activities might include publicity work, fundraising, distribution of information, formation of new committees, problem solving, completion of art work, and so on. Here are a few reminders:
 - Stay informed about each committee's activities. Make sure each committee is keeping a record of its accomplishments.
 - Work through problems openly and honestly. Group cooperation is essential to the success of a project like this. Emphasize the importance of each group member contributing equally to the success of the project.
 - Evaluate the project at the end of today's session. Collect an assignment from the students, such as a written update, a journal entry, a record of achievements and time spent on the project so far, etc.
2. Plan a meeting to complete the next steps of the project. Remember, there will be a service learning project update at the end of Unit Six. If more time is needed to continue today's work, plan for it after school hours.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS: (5 minutes)

1. How do you feel about the project at this point?
2. How well is the class working together to complete the project? What problems need to be ironed out?
3. What improvements should be made in the way the group is working together?
4. What is the best part about working together with class members on a project like this?
5. What skills have you learned in Unit Five that you think might help you in completing the service learning project successfully?

BEYOND THE CLASSROOM/ HOMEWORK: (2 minutes)

Remind the students to fulfil their responsibilities to the project by continuing to work on it outside school. You may wish to restate the ways in which the project will be evaluated. Make sure that all the students are aware of the date of the next meeting or class session devoted to the project. To prepare for the next class session on the project each student should have at least one piece of written work relating to his/her work on the project.

NOTEBOOK ENTRY: (3 minutes)

Ask the students to write answers to the following question: So far, what do you think has been the most important thing you've learned from working on the service learning project?