

GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH MENTOR PROGRAMMES

BY

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MPhil Degree in Youth Development and Policy at the
University of Stellenbosch.**

The crest of the University of Stellenbosch is centered behind the text. It features a shield with a blue and white design, topped by a red and white crown. Two red lions are positioned on either side of the shield, and a red banner with white text is draped across the top.

APRIL 2004

**STUDY LEADER: PROF. S. GREEN
STELLENBOSCH**

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

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SUMMARY

Close, personal relationships with adults are seen to contribute positively to the development of young people. Whilst mentoring has been established in other parts of the world, it is a relatively new concept in South Africa. The purpose of this study is to establish guidelines for the development of youth mentoring programmes.

The literature study deals with the human development of youth during adolescence. Those factors, both within the family as well as in the environment, that affect the development of young people, are discussed. The phases of the mentoring process is also described. The Hearts of Men mentoring programme is used as an example of a youth mentoring programme that is based in the community.

An exploratory and descriptive study was undertaken in order to describe the development of youth during adolescence. An empirical study was undertaken based on the literature review. A sample comprised of 18 young people participating in the Hearts of Men mentoring programme in the Strand was involved in the study. With the help of the empirical study the perception of the young people with regard to the mentor and mentee roles was examined.

The findings of the study reveal that the young people in the Hearts of Men programme have a positive experience of the mentoring process and have an understanding of the mentor and mentee roles.

In order to establish youth mentoring programmes, organisations must possess the knowledge of and skills in the mentoring process and must have an understanding of the human development of young people as well as of theories relating to their development.

OPSOMMING

Persoonlike verhoudings met volwasse persone word beskou as 'n positiewe bydraende faktor tot die ontwikkeling van jongmense. Terwyl mentorprogramme redelik gevestig is in ander dele van die wêreld, is dit 'n relatiewe nuwe konsep in Suid Afrika. Die doel van hierdie studie is om riglyne daar te stel vir die ontwikkeling van jeug mentorprogramme.

Die literatuurstudie het gehandel oor die menslike ontwikkeling van jongmense gedurende adolessensie. Faktore binne die gesin, sowel as die omgewing, wat 'n invloed het op die ontwikkeling van die adolessent is bespreek. Die fases van die mentorproses is ook beskryf. Die Hearts of Men program is gebruik as 'n voorbeeld van 'n gemeenskapsgebaseerde jeug mentorprogram.

'n Verkennende-beskrywende studie is onderneem om die ontwikkeling van die adolessent gedurende adolessensie te beskryf. 'n Empiriese studie gegrond op die literatuurstudie is gedoen. 'n Steekproef, bestaande uit agtien jong deelnemers aan die Hearts of Men mentorprogram in die Strand, is by die ondersoek betrek. Met behulp van die empiriese ondersoek is die persepsies van die jong persone rakende die rol van die mentor en mentee in die mentorprogram ondersoek.

Die bevindinge van die ondersoek toon dat die deelnemers aan die Hearts of Men mentorprogram 'n positiewe ervaring van die mentorproses ondervind, en dat hulle begrip toon ten opsigte van die rol van die mentor en mentee in die mentorprogram.

Ten einde jeug mentorprogramme te implementeer, moet organisasies oor die kennis en vaardighede beskik rakende die mentorproses. Organisasies moet ook begrip toon rakende menslike ontwikkeling van jongmense, en kennis hê oor teorieë wat op hulle ontwikkeling betrekking het.

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Dedicated to my son Nathan Jacob Arnolds

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Over the past two decades South African youth's growing challenge of authority, coupled with defiance against apartheid, caused a breakdown in authority structures in both the family and the school. Allan Kaplan (1996: 51) is of the opinion that "*... traditional society in South Africa places a high value on respect for elders, and that in the process of battling the apartheid regime, youth battled their parents as well because they were viewed as tolerating an unacceptable status quo...In the wake of the political transformation, the traditional relationship and resources of meaning between the generations have broken down, and the result is a new generation of township youth, many of whom reject parental authority, regard the streets as their home and armed gangs as their family...*"

Young people between the ages of 14 to 35 years account for nearly 40 percent of the South African population, of which seventy five percent or 12 million require some form of 'programmatic' intervention (Baumann, 1998). The media paint a picture of large numbers of young people who are involved in gangs, who survive on the streets, or who abuse drugs. This picture seems to be backed up by statistics (Morrison, Alcorn, and Nelums, 1997). Both family and community structures appear unable to effectively address the needs of young people in South Africa.

The survival of any nation, in particular the South African nation, is dependent on the manner in which its young people can be motivated and supported to build a better future. It is therefore imperative that communities become

involved in the protection and support of its young people. Young people have a need to feel part of a community in order to develop a sense of self-worth (Slabbert, Malan, Marais, Olivier and Riordan, 1994: 72-73). Slabbert et al (1994) are also of the opinion that it is the responsibility of adults to support and assist young people to overcome challenges and problems of social isolation, drugs, violence and gangsterism.

The breakdown of the family, worsened by rapid social changes such as the growing incidence of alcohol and drug abuse, as well as the growing divorce rate in South Africa, has a negative impact on the youth of South Africa (Sass, 1998: 4). Adolescents are particularly vulnerable because they find themselves in a critical identity-acquiring stage (Smith, 1994).

The Open Society Foundation of South Africa (2002: 1) states that mentoring is a relatively new concept in South Africa, and that many questions about mentoring still need to be answered.

In 2001 the researcher was contracted as part of a staff team, to implement the first mentor programme of its kind in the community of Netreg (now known as Golden Gate) in Bonteheuwel on the Cape Flats. This project was piloted by Usiko, a research, training and programme delivery agency. The programme entailed the recruitment and training of local men to act as mentors to 21 boys from their community. This support programme was implemented in a three-year cycle, with the objective of training local men to facilitate and work with the young people from their own communities. The aim of the project was to create a rites-of-passage programme for young men that is rooted within the community. The Golden Gate Programme is now nearing the end of the third year, and local men who were trained in the facilitation of the programme will continue to support the young men in their community.

“Hearts of Men” has grown out of the work of Usiko. The principle of encouraging community-based projects to work towards independence was in line with the rites-of-passage approach adopted by Usiko.

In 2003, Hearts of Men, a non-profit organisation that emerged out of the Bonteheuwel programme, initiated a mentor programme in a third community called the Strand. The researcher is a resident of the Strand, as well as the Programme Director of the Strand mentor programme. The project has a total of 12 trained mentors and 18 young men or mentees. The project comprises an intensive community support programme that is facilitated on a weekly basis, and a wilderness programme. The researcher facilitates the programme with two staff members.

From the previous sections it is clear that there is a need for more information about mentoring and better understanding of the roles of mentees and mentors participating in such programmes.

1.2 GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The goal of this study is to provide guidelines for the development of a youth mentor programme based within the community.

In order to achieve the goals of the study, the following objectives have been identified:

- to describe the human development of youth during adolescence, in order to gain a better understanding of this particular age group,
- to determine young people's perceptions of their roles in the mentoring relationship,
- to describe the process and phases of a mentoring programme,

- to investigate young people's understanding of the role of the mentor in the mentor programme.

1.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.3.1 The research design

This research was undertaken to gain more insight into young people's participation in a mentor programme and the implications of this experience for their development. Because of the lack of knowledge about the functioning of mentor groups, the study is exploratory as well as descriptive in nature (Rubin and Babbie, 1993).

The Open Society Foundation of South Africa (2002:1) states that mentoring is a relatively new concept in South Africa and that many questions still need to be answered about mentoring. Grinnel (1988: 225) and Rubin and Babbie (1993: 107) suggest that an exploratory study should be done, where there is a lack of knowledge or information.

In order to present a description of the social characteristics of the young people involved in the study, as well as the content and scope of the mentor programme, an in-depth and accurate study of relevant literature was necessary. A review of the literature on youth and factors affecting young people's development was done. Attention was paid especially to the theories explaining youth development. The review of the literature also focused on mentoring and the phases of the mentoring process.

1.4 SAMPLING

For the purpose of this study the population consisted of young people who are currently involved as mentees in a mentor programme in the Strand. The

universum comprised 18 young males between the ages of 13 and 17, who reside in the Strand. Hearts of Men is currently involved in the delivery of a mentor programme for 18 young men in the Strand, in partnership with Rusthof Secondary School. It is for this reason that the focus is on young people residing in the Strand. Purposive sampling (Babbie, 1992) was used because the researcher is familiar with the programme in which all the respondents are participants.

The data collection method utilised was an interview schedule that was used during interviews with the young people. Using the semi-structured interview schedule ensured that all respondents were asked the same questions. The questions were planned and formulated, and posed exactly as they had been documented. Rubin and Babbie's (1993: 374 – 375) suggestion that questions should be limited to those indicated in the interview schedule was also kept in mind.

Participation in this study was voluntary. Before the interview, the objectives of the study was explained to the respondents and at no stage were the participants told that their participation (or non-participation) would impact on their involvement in the mentoring programme. Confidentiality was also guaranteed.

As is explained above, the data was gathered through both qualitative as well as quantitative processes. Quantitative processes were used in the measuring of statistical factors, which consist of countable information, such as the basic descriptive details. The qualitative part was undertaken in order to study the dynamic factors, such as opinions, experiences and attitudes.

The data was analysed through the approach suggested by Rubin and Babbie (1993: 226-227). After the interviews were completed, a detailed interpretation

of the interviews followed. Central themes and concepts were highlighted, and explained based on the literature.

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Very few studies have been done in this field. Therefore a limited body of literature on this theme was available.

1.6 PRESENTATION

The report will be presented as follows:

Chapter 2 will deal with youth development and theories explaining the development of youth, as well as factors affecting young people in South Africa. This will be followed by a review of the literature regarding mentoring in Chapter 3.

A profile of the youth will be presented in Chapter 4, followed by an analysis of the results. Chapter 5 concludes with recommendations regarding guidelines for the development of a mentor programme.

CHAPTER TWO

THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH DURING ADOLESCENCE

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with young people in South Africa, the relevant theories that can be used to understand their development, and the factors that impact on their development.

Most young people involved in a youth mentoring programme are adolescents. Adolescence is regarded as the transition of development from childhood to adulthood (Papalia and Olds, 1992: 308). The transition to adolescence is often marked by periods of uncertainty and is characterised by adjustment problems (Craig, 1986: 360). According to Papalia and Olds (1992) the transition from childhood to adulthood is the phase where the adolescent acquires an own identity, and spends most of his/her time with a peer group. It is also during this period of development where adolescents need the support of parents and other adults, in order for them to assume their rightful place in society.

IDASA (1993) is of the opinion that young people in South Africa are particularly vulnerable to factors such as family breakdowns, poverty, violence and crime. All these factors have implications for young people's economic, physical, and psychological well-being (Baumann, 1998).

In this chapter a description of South African youth will be presented. It will be followed by a discussion of adolescence as a stage of human development, because adolescence provides the cornerstone for the developmental model

of youth (Wyn and White, 2000). Theories relating to the development of the adolescent will be explained, followed by a discussion of contextual factors affecting young people.

2.2. A DESCRIPTION OF YOUTH

A description of youth will assist in the identification of the young people that fall in this category. According to Everat (1993) the description of youth varies across cultures. He states that the term youth remains descriptive rather than analytic, covering a diverse and complex reality. Different views also exist with regarding where childhood ends and where adulthood begins (Mqadi, 1996: 78).

Because uncertainty exists with regard to the definition of childhood and youth, a description of childhood will first be presented based on South African legislation and official documents. The South African Constitution defines a child as a young person under the age of 18 years. Section 1 (v) of the South African Child Care Act, No. 74 of 1983, defines a child as a person under the age of 18 years. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1988), which was ratified by South Africa in 1995, also defines a child as every human being under 18 years, unless national laws recognise the age of majority earlier.

According to the above descriptions childhood is thus seen to fall within adolescence, which is often seen as a transition between childhood and adulthood - a bridge between the dependency of childhood and the independence of adulthood (Papalia and Olds, 1992: 308). Adolescence is characterised by physical changes. Puberty, the process that leads to sexual maturity, is generally seen as the start of the adolescent phase. Biological changes are seen as a sign that childhood has ended (Cronje, Van Der Walt, Retief and Naude, 1982).

Richards (1997) argues for the formulation of an operational definition for the term “young person”. While acknowledging that the “Western” definition of youth includes young people up to the age of 25, Richards (1997) defines young people as those between ages 13 – 20. Ramsey (1967) argues that the definitional processes of youth are problematic and that the words or terms “adolescence”, “teenager”, and “youth” should be used interchangeably.

The National Youth Commission Act of 1996 defines a young person as a person between the ages of 16 to 30 years. The City of Cape Town’s Youth Development Policy Framework and Implementation Strategies (2001:9) defines youth as all young women and men between the ages, but not exclusively, of 14 and 35 years.

According to Van Rooyen and Jarman (2001:182) the impact of apartheid in South Africa had a definite influence on the postponement of the transition to adulthood. It is because of this that these authors have argued for the cut-off point of youth in South Africa to be 30 years. For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on young people between the ages of 13 and 17 years. Young people falling in this category are generally starting their high school at 13 and completing their matric year at 18, given that they did not fall behind in a grade previously.

The concept of adolescence as a stage of human development will be explored in this chapter. A theoretical overview of human development, based on the psychosocial theory of Erik Erikson (1963), Kohlberg’s theory of moral development, Albert Bandura’s (1977) social learning theory, as well as the ecological perspective according to Bronfenbrenner (1979) will be presented.

2.3 ADOLESCENCE AS A LIFE STAGE

In order to understand the development of young people, it is important to identify the life stages that young people go through in their journey into adulthood. An important period in the life of the young person is called adolescence.

Rogers (cited in Louw, Gerdes & Meyer, 1985) says that adolescence can be described as a stage of maturation between childhood and adulthood. The term adolescence has its roots in the Latin word 'adoloscere', meaning to grow toward maturity.

The age for the commencement of adolescence differs due to individual and cultural differences. It may begin between 11 and 13 years and terminate between 17 and 21 years (Louw et al., 1985). With regard to the definition of adolescence, Jejurikar and Shenvi (1985: 21) refer to the decision of the World Health Organization (WHO) Expert Committee (1965) that the term adolescence should be used for persons between the ages of 10 and 20 years. Uncertainty exists about when adolescence begins and when it ends, especially since this period has been prolonged in Western society (Kimmel and Weiner, 1996).

According to Kimmel and Weiner (1995: 5-6), and Lefrancois (1995: 501-502) the concept "adolescence" did not exist in primitive cultures. The transition from childhood to adulthood was characterised by an initiation process, during which the individual received training in the roles and traditions of the tribe or nation. This phase was very often characterised by a period of isolation, fasting, circumcision, and ceremonial wounding. Only after completing this process, did the individual receive full membership of the tribe.

Entry into adolescence is marked by the physical changes of puberty; social changes in the family, peer group, and school environment; and concomitant individual changes in cognitive and socio-emotional functioning (Feldman & Elliot, 1990; Petersen, 1987). The transition into adolescence is often uncertain and sometimes turbulent. This period of human development is often regarded as a bridge between childhood and adulthood over which individuals must pass in order to take up their position as mature adults in society.

Practitioners in the field of youth development must be familiar with the underlying theories that explain human behaviour. For this reason the development of the adolescent will now be explained according to various theories. These theories include Erik Erikson's (1963) theory of psychosocial development, Kohlbergh's theory of moral development, the social learning theory, as well as Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological perspective. The researcher regards these as suitable theories for the South African situation.

2.4 THEORIES OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

According to Wyn and White (1997: 51) social psychological theories of human development provide a framework within which youth development could be explained. In this regard, psychosocial theories of human development assume that development is a product of the continuous interplay between individuals and their social environment. According to Newman and Newman (1997: 57-58) psychosocial theory is not the only or most widely accepted framework for studying human development. It combines three features that are not as clearly articulated or integrated in other theories of human development. These three features are firstly the fact that psychosocial theory addresses growth across the life span; secondly, it assumes that individuals have the capacity to contribute to their own psychological development at every stage of life; and thirdly, the theory takes into consideration the active contribution of culture to individual growth.

One of the theorists that developed psychosocial theory is Erik H. Erikson. Erikson's (1963) model describes human development in eight phases. These phases will now be discussed.

2.4.1 Erikson's theory of psychosocial development

Erik Erikson (1963) modified Sigmund Freud's theory of psychosexual development, and identified and described eight stages of human development. A stage of development is a period of life that is characterised by a specific underlying organization (Newman and Newman 1997). In each of these stages, the individual has a psychosocial task to master. If he/she resolves this task successfully, this leads to positive qualities. Failure to resolve these tasks leads to conflict and to negative qualities in the development of the ego. The eight stages are:

1. *Infancy: achieving trust versus mistrust.*
2. *Early childhood: achieving autonomy versus shame and doubt.*
3. *Play age: achieving initiative versus guilt.*
4. *School age: achieving industry versus inferiority.*
5. *Adolescence: achieving identity versus identity diffusion.*
6. *Young adult: achieving intimacy versus isolation.*
7. *Adulthood: achieving generativity versus stagnation.*
8. *Mature age: achieving ego integrity versus disgust, despair.*

In the adolescent stage, *identity versus identity confusion* is characterised by various developmental tasks which must be achieved. Achievement of these tasks will ultimately lead to a healthy sense of identity. These changes include accepting change in physique, and sex role differentiation; relating to the adolescent peer culture and developing relationships with the opposite sex;

achieving emotional independence from parents; and the development of intellectual and vocational skills, and of a philosophy of life (Erikson, 1963).

Researchers have also identified two separate and distinct periods of psychosocial development occurring in this period (Newman & Newman, 1997). The first stage is the onset of puberty, which ends with graduation from high school (roughly 18 years of age). It is also known as 'early adolescence' and is characterised by rapid physical changes, significant cognitive maturation, and a heightened sensitivity to peer approval. The psychosocial crisis of this stage is group identity versus alienation.

The second stage of adolescence that begins at approximately 18 years of age and continues for about four years, is characterised by the attainment of autonomy from the family and the development of a sense of personal development. The psychosocial crisis of this period is individual identity versus identity confusion (Newman & Newman, 1987).

Erikson (1963) acknowledges that finding an acceptable identity is much more difficult during a period of rapid social change, because the older generation is no longer able to provide adequate role models for the younger generation. Under these circumstances, adolescents may reject parental role models and turn to their peers to discover who they are (Rice, 1981).

Every young person needs to be attached to a responsible adult who pays attention to the young person's individual needs. As new relationships are established with elders, a more complex relationship of mentorship, followed by sponsorship and eventually peership, develops (Dryfoos, 1990, as found in Hechinger, 1993).

Another important task of the adolescent is to develop the ability to think critically, to weigh up different options, and to develop a personal value

system. Adolescents spend more time with friends and are confronted with values that very often differ from that of their parents. It is during this period that adolescents begin to investigate and explore alternatives and start to argue about right and wrong (Kruger and Van Niekerk, 1994: 69). This task is called moral development.

2.4.2. Kohlberg's theory of moral reasoning

Moral development is an important task of adolescence (Thom, 1992: 427). Lefrancois (1995: 539) agrees with (Thom, 1992) about the importance of moral development, and argues that the future of our society depends on the morality of our children.

According to Kohlberg's theory of moral development, as quoted by Lefrancois (1995: 532) and explained by Lytton (1988: 338), moral development occurs on three levels.

2.4.2.1 Preconventional level

On this level, rules and expectations are forced onto an individual from outside. This level involves two stages:

During stage one, right and wrong are judged in terms of direct consequences. Judgements of justice are centred on obedience and punishment; for example one must not lie, otherwise one gets a hiding.

During stage two, moral actions are based primarily upon the satisfaction of one's own needs.

In stage one and two, moral judgement is based upon external, physical experience rather than personal standards.

2.4.2.2 Conventional level

On this level, the individual conforms to society's rules and expectations. This level has two stages:

Stage three is characterised by a highly conformist orientation. Moral judgements are based upon a need to please others and win their approval, such as teachers and parents.

Stage four is characterised by respect for authority and a need to maintain the current social order. This level of moral thinking is found in adolescents, and also in most adults.

In stages three and four, the individual shares his/her expectations and agreements with others, and also takes the point of view of the system that defines the roles and rules.

2.4.2.3 Post-conventional level

On this level, the self is separated from the rules and expectations of others, and values are determined by the individual's own principles. The two stages are stage five and six:

During stage five relationships and duties are defined in terms of contractual agreements. Conformity to rules is based on the advancement of the needs of society.

During stage six, the rules of conduct focus on universal principles of mutual respect and trust.

In the last two stages the individual's conscience becomes a strong force in determining right and wrong. These stages suggest a progression, where morality becomes more principled and based less on social convention.

Kohlberg emphasizes that it is the way an individual reasons about a dilemma, and not so much the content of the response, that determines morality (Berk, 1993:579). Kaplan (2000: 446), however, is of the opinion that moral development can also be studied by observing behaviour, instead of looking at the moral reasoning of the individual (Kaplan, 2000: 446). If individuals do not act in accordance with the moral principles they hold, their own morality could

be questioned. As such a relationship does exist between the moral thought and the action the individual engages in.

Another theory that provides useful insight into human development is the social learning theory. The social learning theory stresses the importance of observational learning, and as such it argues that watching how others deal with life issues influences an individual's behaviour. The social learning theory will now be discussed.

2.4.3 Social learning theory

Social learning theory provides useful insights into how individuals learn through the process of observation. Human development is based on the principle of constant change of the individual, and as such social learning theory proposes that change in behaviour is a direct result of observing the behaviour of others (Newman and Newman, 1997).

Foremost among the modern social learning theorists is Albert Bandura (1977). The point of departure of the social learning theory is that young people's patterns of behaviour are the direct result of their socialization processes (Elliot, Huizinga and Ageton, 1985: 33). The concept of social learning evolved from an awareness that much learning takes place as a result of observing and imitating other people's behaviour (Newman and Newman 1997). In this context, social learning theory investigates the process of imitation and observational learning.

Imitation provides a mechanism for the rapid acquisition of new skills and behaviour (Newman and Newman 1997). According to Kaplan (2000: 61) the process of imitation is a four-way process. The person must first pay attention to the model, and secondly the information must be retained in the person's memory. Thirdly the person must use the information to reproduce the action,

and fourthly, some reinforcer must be available to the person. Reinforcers serve to provide the person with information about future behavioral consequences as well as to motivate him/her. In the case of the adolescent, this process therefore requires the young person to actively contribute to the development and acquisition of the new behaviour.

When working with young people in a mentor programme, much of the change process for the individual occurs as a result of role modelling. Therefore it is important to understand the process of observational learning, as proposed by the social learning theory. As noted earlier, young people learn through observing others, and observing how others are either rewarded or punished. This observational learning serves a number of purposes. According to Bandura (1969) as cited by Gullotta, Adams and Markstrom (2000: 28), the effects of observational learning is that:

- an adolescent can acquire new ways of behaving;
- observation of others can increase or decrease behavioural inhibitions;
and
- viewing others' behaviour can serve as the impetus for engaging in the same behaviour.

Therefore the social interaction between a young person and an adult can encourage new behaviours through observational learning. By watching and modeling the adolescent learns new kinds of social behaviours.

Social learning theorists divide behaviour into two different processes: learning and performance. The ability to perform the behaviour depends on the belief of the individual whether or not he/she is capable of performing the behaviour. This belief is called self-efficacy (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pasterilli, 1996). If an individual believes that he/she is capable of performing a specific behaviour, they are likely to succeed. The belief in one's ability is drawn from

various sources. One of these sources is the individual's own achievements, and the other is the observations of what others are able to accomplish. (Grusec & Lytton, 1988: 18).

To understand how individuals acquire observed behaviour, it is important to understand the relationship between the behaviour of the individual and the environment. Social learning theory views people as actively influencing and being influenced by their environment. The ecological theory of Bronfenbrenner (1979) will now be discussed, because it provides important insight into the relationship between the individual and the environment.

2.4.4 Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory

Another theory that provides insight into human development, as well as the interaction between the individual and the environment, is the ecological theory.

Developmental psychologist Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) believes that the social context of individual interactions and experiences determines the degree to which individuals can develop their abilities and realise their potential (Berns, 1997: 25).

According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), there are four basic structures – the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, and the macrosystem – in which relationships and interactions take place. Kaplan (2000) illustrate how these different environmental structures operate.

- The first basic structure, the **microsystem**, refers to the activities and relationships with significant others experienced by a developing person in a particular setting such as a family, school, peer group, or community (Berns, 1997). At first the individual's environment is limited to the family, but as development occurs, these settings expand.

- The **mesosystem** involves the interrelationships among two or more settings in which the person actively participates. The mesosystem would include for example the relationship between the parents and the school. Participation in school and school-related activities would affect the time spent with the family.
- The **exosystem** refers to the setting in which individuals do not participate actively, but in which they are affected by one of the microsystems, such as the parent's workplace or parent's network of friends. This can also be seen as the community that surrounds the individual.
- The **macrosystem** consists of the developing person's society and subculture with particular reference to the belief systems, lifestyles, options, and patterns of social interchange. The differing social customs, ideologies, and economic systems affect the social institutions in the country and therefore the child or the adolescent.

The ecological position can be explained and understood as a person-in-context perspective (Gullotta, et al, 2000). The adolescent is viewed as being rooted in layers of social environments, with each affecting and influencing the other. It is therefore clear that from an ecological perspective, the individual cannot be isolated from the context of development, which is influenced by his or her environment. Various people and factors therefore influence the development of the adolescent's value system.

Although most young people move through adolescence with little difficulty, some of them encounter major disruptions in development. These disruptions may include the family, the peer group and the school, as well as environmental factors such as poverty. A discussion of how fragmentation of the family as well as the influence of the peer group affects the adolescent, will follow. The impact of school dropout on development of the adolescent, as well as environmental factors such as poverty, will also be explored.

2.5. CONTEXTUAL FACTORS AFFECTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUNG PEOPLE

This section will explore how different factors influence the development of the adolescent. These factors will be discussed, starting with fragmentation and dysfunctions in the family. Factors such as divorce, single-parent families, and absent fathers will be discussed.

Another factor that impacts on the development of the adolescent is the peer group, which plays a very important role in this stage of the adolescent's life.

The influence of the school, and particularly the impact of school dropouts, will also be discussed. The researcher will also explore how poverty impacts on young people in South Africa.

2.5.1 The family

According to Greathead, Devenish and Funnell (1992), families exist in all known societies, and a family is the closest and most important of human groups. The family is also seen as the main socialisation agent of children in South Africa (Burman & Reynolds 1990:1).

The family has undergone major changes over the past years. The family structure has changed because of industrialisation. Traditionally, the adults in an extended family were responsible for the education and religious training of the children. Work that primarily centred around the home, moved into factories, which resulted in family members spending less time with the children (Pinnock, 1985: 22-23).

Influences from outside the family, and the difficulty of handling changing roles, placed tremendous stress on families. A child's first and most important relationship is formed within the family environment, because it is the first institution with which the child interacts (Chubb & Fortman, 1992). In cases where family ties are weak and maladaptive, family disorganisation occurs. Malfunctioning therefore occurs when the interaction between the family members have broken down (Bezuidenhout, 1998:10).

In this regard, it is important to identify how disruptions in the family affect young people in South Africa. Factors such as divorce, the impact of single-parent families, as well as absent fathers will now be discussed.

2.5.1.1 Divorce

The divorce of parents can be seen as delaying the full development or growing up of a young person (Goldenburg, 2002). South Africa is characterised by the disintegration of family life due to the high divorce rate. The Chief Directorate: Strategic Policy Development and Planning of the Department of Welfare (1997) reports that a total of 32 000 divorces were granted in 1995. The number of children involved in these civil law divorces was 40 156 (18 706 White, 8 174 Black, 8 168 Coloured and 2 389 Asian children). The effects of divorce on both the parents and the children are tremendous. Apart from the financial burden placed on the family, the emotional impact is traumatic for the entire family.

Studies by Hetherington (1989) indicate that children often exhibit marked changes in behaviour, such as acting out in school during and after parental divorce. Adolescents feel resentment and are also burdened by the painful memories of the divorce ten years later. Berns (1997:108) is of the opinion that pre-adolescent boys show more intense and enduring problems in response to their parent's divorce than girls do. Research shows that boys are affected

more than girls by the divorce of their parents. Hetherington (1989) is of the opinion that boys receive less support from their mothers, teachers, and peers than girls.

Fathers are crucial in helping boys to manage their emotions. Without the guidance and direction of a father, or a positive adult role model, a boy's frustration often leads to varieties of violence and other antisocial behaviours (Elium and Elium, 1996).

Another factor resulting from divorce is the single-parent family, where one parent is physically absent from the lives of the children.

2.5.1.2 Single parent families

Single parenthood can result from death, divorce, desertion, adoption without marriage, or even artificial insemination. In South Africa, the highest incidence of female-centred households occur among Africans, and the absence of the father and/or mother defrauds the young people of role models that are crucial to conveying codes of conduct necessary in order to cope outside the family environment (Rossouw, 1999:20).

Similarly, single female-headed families bear the brunt of economic hardship. According to Cullinan (1996: 16), the Development Bank reported that 20% of single-parent families have an income of less than R400 per month, and that many of these families are headed by females.

Dobson (2002) is of the opinion that sons of single mothers are at greater risk of resorting to violence, and that males living in step-parent families are almost three times as likely to face incarceration as those from intact families. While it is not suggested that children raised in single-parent families are bound by

some unchangeable law to fail, basic evidence suggests that a host of negative outcomes for children are tied to the presence or absence of fathers.

The impact of father-absence on the development outcomes of young people will now be discussed.

2.5.1.3 Absent fathers

Popular belief within the earlier social welfare system around the world emphasised the idea that children were almost better off without their fathers. While certain men have been guilty of child abuse, wife-beating and abandonment, not all men are wife-beaters. David Blankenhorn (1995) points out that the astonishing disappearance of men from the family scene may be the key to most of the current social problems that society faces. According to research on the effect of father absence on children that was undertaken by Blankenhorn (1995), and quoted by Biddulph (1995: 132), findings reveal that girls and boys have more positive self-esteem if their fathers are still in the home. They do better in school, stay in school longer and are more likely to succeed in life. In the cases where fathers are absent, boys are likely to get into trouble with the law, engage in violent behaviour, become members of a youth gang and do poorly in school. Families without males also tend to be poorer, and the likelihood of children escaping the poverty cycle is slim.

One of the consequences of the change in family structure is that fewer children are being raised by committed and involved fathers. Eberly (2002) is of the opinion that family fragmentation is synonymous with absent fathers. To this effect, he argues that in cases of family break-ups, over 90% of children are being raised apart from their fathers. Horn (1996) supports this argument by stating that thirty-two percent of children born today in the United States of America are born to non-married, father-absent households, and that one in every two children will spend a portion of their lives apart from their fathers.

Father-absence is also closely tied with poverty. Poverty has many root causes, but none so decisive or powerful as father absence (Eberly, 2002: 88). Lerman and Ooms (1993:p.1) also argue that the declining presence of fathers is particularly serious because of the associated impacts on child poverty. They argue that one-parent families most subject to poverty are those headed by single mothers.

According to Horn (1996) the chief predictor of crime in a neighbourhood is not race or poverty, but the proportion of households where fathers are absent. When the presence or absence of fathers are taken into account, the level of income and race become irrelevant.

Bronfenbrenner (1992), as found in Blankenhorn (1995), states that children growing up in father-absent households are at greater risk of experiencing a variety of behavioural and educational problems, including extreme forms of hyperactivity and withdrawal; lack of attentiveness in the classroom; difficulty deferring gratification; impaired academic achievement; social misbehaviour; absenteeism; dropping out of school; involvement in socially alienated peer groups where they engage in smoking, drinking, vandalism, violence and criminal acts.

According to Lamb (1986), the father's role in the socialization of children is very important. The father not only teaches and models gender roles, he also models and teaches other values and mores. A boy wants to look up to and admire his father; he needs to feel that his father is capable, because that helps him to believe that he, too, will grow up to be competent (Lamb, 1996). Pinnock (1997) is of the opinion that the love unit most destroyed by the Industrial Revolution was the father-son bond. The absence of fathers and positive male role models also contributes to drawing young men into the involvement in anti-social behaviour.

Not all young people growing up in single-parent families end up in prison or engage in criminal activities. The absence of fathers and positive role models for young boys, however, puts them at risk of coming into conflict with themselves and their families and communities.

As young people move from childhood to adolescence, their increasing independence from their family is accompanied by a shift to the peer group (Kimmel & Weiner, 1985). The relationship with the peer group plays an important part in the development of behaviour in the young person. Increased social experiences and greater involvement with peers assist with the social development of the adolescent.

2.5.2 THE PEER GROUP

A peer group is a group of equals (Lefrancois, 1992). While most individuals in society belong to a peer group, it is during adolescence that the peer group becomes an important factor in the life of the young person.

Peers and friends are generally considered to play an important role in the development of the young person. According to Collins and Collins (1992), adolescents enjoy spending time with their friends, because it is somehow rewarding, seeing it as a means gaining social approval, acceptance of and popularity with peers and fitting in with them. Regardless of why peer groups emerge, it is clear that in at least early adolescence young people prefer to be in the company of groups of other young people (Reisman 1985).

Peer groups satisfy certain basic human needs to develop optimally. These are the need to belong to a group and interact socially, as well as the need to develop a sense of self. Belonging to a peer group enables one to have social interactions with others and have experiences independent of parents or other

adults (Berns, 1997: 333). It is through interactions with others in a social context, that adolescents begin to form opinions of themselves.

According to Coleman (1980: 90) there are a number of reasons why the peer group plays an important role in the development of the young person. Firstly, the process of disengagement from parents and the family setting leaves an emotional gap in the life of the young person. The peer group is an important provider of support during this transition. Secondly, the common experiences in the group create a special bond between the members. In this regard, the common experience of conflict and anxiety in the home strengthens the reliance on the group for mutual understanding and sympathy. Thirdly, adolescence is regarded as a vulnerable stage for the young person. The need for support is even stronger where an individual lacks self-confidence, or goes through a period of major change.

Conforming to a group is an integral part of the development of the peer group. According to Rossouw (1999: 58), group attachments form an integral part of adolescence, and serve a variety of the following purposes:

- For adolescents it is important to find themselves in a development phase where they experience a need to be independent, but also a need for a measure of dependency on the family.
- For adolescents the group involvement also provides a channel to joint accomplishment of an experience.
- For adolescents being part of a group also provides scope for adventure and excitement that would be unattainable in isolation.
- For the adolescents who are introverts, the group provides an opportunity to get in touch with members of the opposite sex. This then gives the young person a certain amount of protection from being without friends.

Friendship is important for allowing the young person to move towards social maturity in a safe environment, where problems and obstacles are resolved within the safety of the group.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, and as suggested by Erik Erikson (1963), adolescence is also characterised by the development of identity. Identity, in turn, is related to development of self-esteem or self-concept. In this regard, the peer group is important in developing a positive self-concept in young people (Lefrancois, 1992). Through their interactions with others, young people begin to distinguish themselves from others. In relation to the peer group, Berns (1997: 45) is of the opinion that a self-concept develops when the attitudes and expectations of others with whom one interacts are incorporated into one's own personality, making it possible to regulate one's behaviour accordingly. Thus the process of developing self-concept seems to be a reciprocal process in the peer group.

2.5.3 THE SCHOOL

The school's function as a socializing agent is that it provides the intellectual and social experiences from which children develop the skills, knowledge, interest, and attitudes that characterize them as individuals and that shape their abilities to perform adult roles (Berns, 1997: 237). While the majority of those that attend school finish high school, a large number of students do not. A discussion of the impact of school drop out on the development of the individual will follow.

2.5.3.1 Drop outs

According to Reglin (1998:16) a dropout is defined as "*... a person who left the educational institution, has not graduated, and is not currently enrolled in regular school anywhere*". While it is difficult to quantify the economical costs

of dropping out of school, Reglin (1998) suggests that students who drop out lost at least one-third of their potential income. With an already high unemployment rate in South Africa dropouts contribute not only to the economic decline of communities but also lead to an increase in criminal and illegal activities. At primary school level in South Africa, almost all (96%) of appropriately aged children were enrolled in school. For secondary schools, however, there is a high under-enrolment that has been ascribed to high failure, dropout and repetition rates (Lovelife, 2001:31).

According to Reglin (1998), truancy is associated with juvenile delinquency, drug abuse, violence and criminal behaviour. With little or no control over times when young people need to be in school, they are likely to engage in criminal acts.

McWether et al (1998:97) suggests that those most likely to drop out of school are those who are unmotivated by their classwork; who have had problems with either the school authorities, the police, or both; who skip classes or are often absent; who are pregnant or married; who are poor and must work; who have family problems; who have drug or alcohol problems; who are members of a minority group; or who have fallen two or more years behind a grade level.

Research conducted by CASE (1993) found that 66% of African youth, 51% of Coloured, 53% of Asian and 43% of white youth, left school for economic reasons. According to Wyn and White (1997:1) the life experiences of young people in modern industrialized societies have changed quite significantly over the last two decades. These changes affect relationships with family and friends, experiences in education and the labour market, leisure and lifestyles and the ability to become established as independent young adults.

Early school leavers are more likely to experience extended periods of unemployment, to take up short-term, unskilled work, to fail to obtain an

immediate post-school qualification and to miss out in the competition for base-level traineeship, and to remain dependent on government and other welfare assistance for long periods. In the current economic climate, this means that a significant proportion of young people are destined to live in poverty (Wyn & White, 1997:107).

The White Paper for Social Welfare (Ministry for Welfare and Population Development 1997:10) also reports that one third of the children who drop out of school do so for lack of finances or as a result of family circumstances. This is particularly true in many black families where children are easily taken out of school to supplement family income.

Living in a poor household may influence a young person's chance of completing school. Poverty in itself, may also contribute to keeping young people in the cycle of poverty.

The impact of poverty on young people will now be discussed.

2.5.4 Poverty

Poverty affects the developmental processes of young people. Research has shown that poverty is a major factor in the lives of a large portion of young South Africans. According to the South African Youth Survey (2000) about one third of young South Africans are living in households with less than R1 000,00 income per month. It was also found that approximately one third of African respondents reported going hungry, while many are living in overcrowded homes with many households lacking basic amenities such as electricity and sewerage. The system of Apartheid in South Africa had a direct effect on the position of youth. Poverty and unemployment is related to the systematic economic disadvantage which apartheid imposed on many black people (Dowdall, 1990).

According to Streak and Hickey (2000:32) a significant racial dimension pervades child poverty in South Africa. They conclude that if poverty is measured using a relative definition of income poverty, 60% of children in South Africa are poor in the sense that they lack income.

2.6 SUMMARY

This chapter described the issue of youth and the development of young people. Adolescence is a very important stage in the development of the young person. This chapter also explored the various theoretical frameworks relating to youth development. It has become evident that changes in the family system affect young people significantly. In the absence of a strong family unit, the peer group becomes a major source of support to the adolescent. The school also acts as a major socialization agent. The situation of school dropouts affects the development and transitional processes for young people. Also central to the lives of the adolescent is the impact of poverty.

CHAPTER THREE

REQUIREMENTS FOR A YOUTH MENTORING PROGRAMME

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter described how various factors affect the development of young people. Dysfunctions in the family, the school and social environment all contribute to the inability of the young person to function adequately in society. Mentoring is one way of providing social support to young people. Mentoring programmes exist both in the organisational development and youth development fields.

Whilst mentoring has been established in other parts of the world, it is a relatively new concept in South Africa (Open Society Foundation of South Africa, 2002). According to Reglin (1998), successful mentoring programmes have far-reaching benefits for both the young person and the community. Flaxman (1992) concluded that mentoring is a powerful way to provide adult contacts for youth who are isolated from adults in their homes, schools and communities.

For young people the lack of close and personal links with at least one caring and respected adult in the community is a serious threat to their personal development and their sense of community support. In this regard, Fine (1991) note that several studies have discussed the importance of male community role models, and the fact that some boys in single-parent families lack the opportunity to develop supportive relationships with their fathers.

An example of a mentor programme in the youth development field is the "**Hearts of Men**" mentoring programme for young men.

In order to understand the requirements for mentoring programmes as intervention strategies with young people in the community, it is important to understand the nature of these programmes. There are also clearly defined phases that a typical mentor programme consists of, such as the pre-programme phase, the orientation and training phase, the relationship development phase and the conclusion of the mentor programmes, which should be taken note of. These phases will be discussed using the “**Hearts of Men**” programme as an example of an intervention strategy.

In this chapter the concept of mentoring will be explained. A background and description of mentoring will first be presented, followed by a discussion on the concept of youth mentoring. Lastly the phases of the mentoring process will be described.

3.2 Background and description of mentoring

Freedman (1993) explains that mentoring has its professional origin in the world of business, where it has developed into a prominent feature of many professions. Mentoring has a long history, possibly dating back as far as the eighteenth century B.C. when the laws of Hammurabi of Babylon required artisans to teach their craft to younger students.

According to Reglin (1998) the word mentor comes from the Greek, meaning ‘steadfast’ and ‘enduring’. The ancient Greek poet, Homer, first coined the word mentor in his epic poem, “The Odyssey”. The great warrior Odysseus knew he would be away from home for many years, so he chose a man named Mentor to be a guardian and tutor to his son. Thus, mentor came to mean a trusted counselor or guide.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1982) defines a mentor as an 'experienced and trusted advisor'. According to Vanzant (1980), as found in Mullen (1999:35), a mentor is a person who acts as a sponsor, advocate or guide, who teaches, advises, trusts, critiques, and supports another to express, pursue and finalize goals. Other definitions of mentoring include that of Anderson (1987) as found in Freedman (1993), who says that mentoring can best be defined as a nurturing process during which a more skilled or experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development.

Mentoring functions are carried out within the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and protégé (Rhodes, 2002). Mentoring therefore is a multifaceted activity and mentors often support, guide, teach, counsel, encourage and promote the development of skills, compassion and intellect and set an example (Mullen 1999).

Central to the mentoring relationship is the promotion of growth and development of adolescents across different spheres of their life. The conceptual model of youth mentoring will now be explained, in order to provide insight into how the development of the mentee occurs through mentoring.

3.3 The concept of youth mentoring

Most of the research on mentoring has been driven by the concept of resilience (Rhodes, 2002: 27). The resiliency model attempts to understand how young people overcome profoundly difficult life circumstances. The concept of resilience will first be explained, in order to understand the relationship between resiliency and mentoring, before a conceptual model of mentoring will be presented.

3.3.1 Resiliency

Resilience comprises a set of qualities that helps a person to withstand many of the negative effects of adversity (Gilligan, 2001). Resilient individuals are often successful despite exposure to high risk and are able to adjust successfully to negative life events.

According to Haggerty, Sherrod, Garmezy and Rutter (1996) research on a variety of situations, including war, extreme poverty and natural disasters have uncovered traits, conditions, and situations that enabled vulnerable children and youth to achieve healthy outcomes despite these profound risks. Masten and Coatsworth (1998) explain that three clusters of protective factors have been recognised as fostering psychological resilience. These three clusters include *characteristics of the individual* such as intelligence and an appealing disposition; *characteristics of the family*, such as its consistent and close relationships and socioeconomic advantages; and *characteristics of the community*, such as the bonds to nonrelated adults who are positive role models. Research undertaken by Werner and Smith (1982) also found that resilient youth more often sought support from nonparent adults than their less successful peers.

While it seems as if individual attributes are important, it is also clear that resilience emerges in a supportive context. Bernard (1992:3) identified various attributes that have been consistently found in resilient children and young people. These attributes include aspects of social competence, the presence of problem solving skills, the ability to function autonomously from others, the presence of a sense of purpose and future, the ability to establish a strong bond with at least one caring adult, high parental expectations, as well as being in an environment where opportunities are allowed for the young person to participate in and contribute to domestic chores in meaningful ways.

These attributes provide important insight into ways of providing environments

of care and support to young people in families, as well as in communities.

Because mentoring is closely related to the resiliency model of development, a conceptual model of youth mentoring will be presented, which will provide a better understanding of the dynamics of the change process.

3.3.2. A conceptual model of youth mentoring

Rhodes (2002: 35-36) suggested that while mentors appear to affect young people through support and role modeling, little is known about how the process of change works in the mentor relationship.

According to Rhodes (2002) mentors influence their mentees in three important ways: through enhancing the social skills and emotional well-being of the mentee, through improving cognitive skills utilising dialogue and listening, and through serving as a role model and advocate to the mentee.

Rhodes (2002) demonstrates how these pathways of mentoring influence are part of the model of youth mentoring as can be seen in figure 3.1:

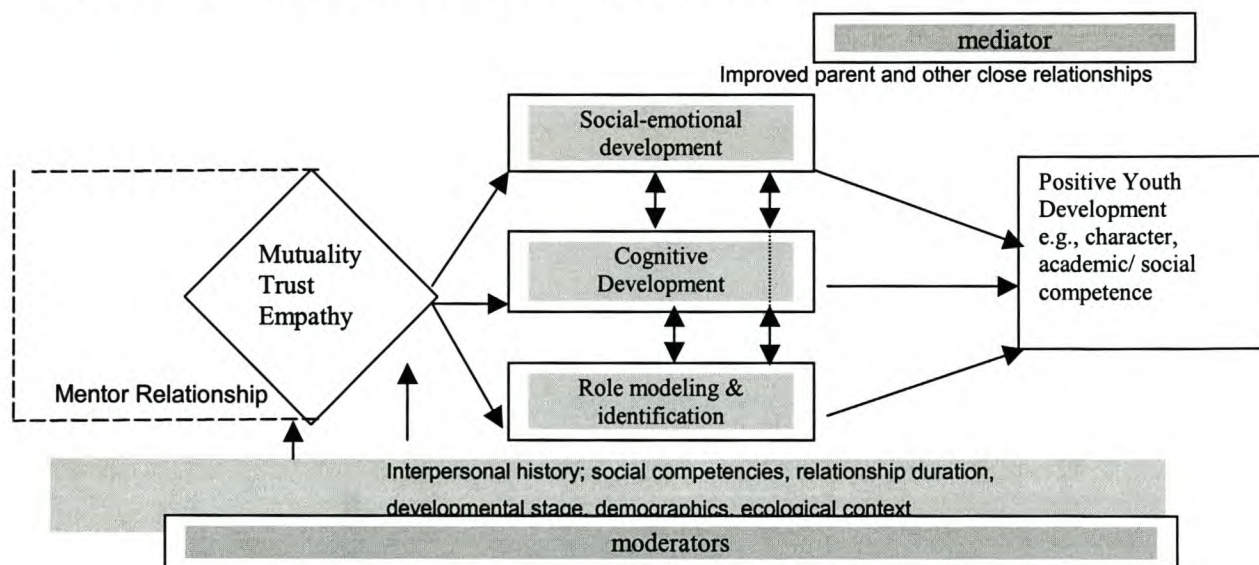


Figure 3.1 A conceptual model of youth mentoring

(Source: Rhodes, J.E. 2002: 36)

As can be seen from the figure above, these arenas constantly operate in conjunction with one another. In other words, the cognitive development cannot function or develop in isolation from social and emotional development. Greater impact on the adolescent's development will occur if the mentor's influence extends into more than one arena.

3.4 REQUIREMENTS FOR MENTORS

In the youth development context, mentors are usually volunteers who respond to advertisements, requests or invitations to be or act as mentors. A volunteer is an individual who offers his/her services or time to an organisation, agency or programme without remuneration (Ehlers and Van der Sandt, 1998). The services offered, as well as the role and functions of the volunteer, fall within the structure of the particular organisation, agency or programme. Mentors, apart from having particular roles and functions, should receive skills training to assist them in the execution of these roles and functions.

Mentors in a mentoring programme can be expected to fulfill a number of different roles. The role of the mentor in the mentoring relationship will now be explained, followed by the role of the mentee in the mentor programme.

3.4.1 The role of the mentor

Mentors are expected to fulfil a range of activities in order to achieve the goals of the mentor relationship. The role of the mentor depends on the nature of the programme and on the nature of mentor relationship (Lacey, 2000). The requirements for the role of the mentor should be clearly defined and articulated by the organisation.

According to Lacey (2000: 12) the mentor needs to meet the following requirements to fulfill the role of mentor:

- encourage the exploration of ideas;
- encourage risk taking in learning;
- listen when the mentee has a problem;
- provide appropriate and timely advice;
- provide appropriate skills training;
- assist the mentee to identify and solve a problem;
- help the mentee to shift his/her mental context; and
- confront negative intentions or behaviours.

Fine (2002:5), as found in Open Society Foundation of South Africa (2002), also identifies three key activities of the mentor, which include *seeing and noticing* the mentee, because of young people's strong urge to be noticed; *praising and recognising* mentees, which enhances the self-esteem of the mentees; and *challenging and inspiring* mentees, by living and behaving in such a way as to provide an inspiration and example to the mentees.

From the above it is clear that the mentor is expected to perform a wide range of activities when performing the role of mentor. The role of the mentor is therefore to encourage and support the development and growth of the mentee.

Reglin (1998) warns that mentors must not allow themselves to be put in situations where they are expected to assume the parent role. Structured mentoring programmes seldom have fathers, mothers and/or siblings who mentor their own children or siblings. In this context, the role of the mentor is therefore not to replace the parents, but to support the young people in their development, within a structured manner according to specific programme guidelines.

As with the mentor, the mentee can also be expected to assume a specific role. The nature of the mentor-mentee relationship suggests that the mentee continuously develops skills, knowledge and receives support. The role of the mentee will now be discussed.

3.4.2 Role of the mentee

The role of the mentee is often awkward and ill-defined (Lacey, 2000). Several terms are used to describe the role ranging from candidate, apprentice, aspirant, advisee, trainee, inductee and protégé. According to Lacey (2000:13) all these terms carry negative connotations. Reglin (1998) prefers the word protégé over mentee, because a protégé is defined as someone under the patronage, protection, or care of someone interested in his/her career or welfare. This definition suggests that the mentor should have an interest in the welfare of this person.

A mentee should enter the mentor relationship on a voluntary, but goal-defined basis. Any person entering a mentoring relationship should be aware of the length and purpose of the mentoring relationship. According to Lacey (2000: 13) the mentees' role is to commit themselves to the mentoring programme and their mentor; to take on new responsibilities and challenges; to seek feedback, and to accept responsibility for their own growth and development. Successful mentoring relationships requires that the young person has developed the character and ability to learn from others, to engage as a protégé in an intimate relationship with a person who can serve as a teacher. According to Valliant (1993) as found in Horne and Jollif (1999: 16) this requires the ability to listen to advice, work in collaboration with others, and manage anger and other strong emotions well.

In the mentoring programme, the mentee has access to an adult who offers support and guidance that are not necessarily present in his/her life. The

involvement of the mentee in a structured mentoring programme provides an opportunity for personal growth and development.

Mentoring relationships are developed in different settings and in different types of programmes. The two types of mentoring relationships, namely the *one-to-one* and the *group* mentoring relationships, will now be discussed.

3.5 TYPES OF MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

Mentoring programmes are developed and implemented in different settings, such as in businesses, schools and communities. A promising trend, according to Rhodes (2002), about the development of mentoring programmes in the United States of America, is the fact that more than seventy percent of mentoring programmes are located in schools, while the remaining thirty percent are found in the workplace, community-based agencies, and religious settings.

Different types of mentoring relationships exist in the field of mentoring. The two most common types of mentoring relationships are the *one-to-one*, and the *group mentoring* relationships (Rhodes, 2002). According to Lacey (2000:17 –18) *one-to-one* mentoring is the most frequently used method of mentoring, and is commonly practised across all mentoring fields. A mentor and mentee are matched based on certain criteria relating to background and interests. In this type of mentoring relationship, the mentee receives individual attention from one committed individual.

Fine (2002:4), as found in Open Society Foundation of South Africa (2002), is of the opinion that mentoring works best when it is held within a specific programme. Mentoring is then part of a process and not an event that stands on its own. This type of mentoring is referred to as *group mentoring*, where the mentors within a structured programme provides collective support and

encouragement, through structured activities to all mentees in the group. The “**Hearts of Men** “ programme utilises this approach to ensure that young people are supported by a number of mentors. Rather than being exposed to just one mentor, the mentee can receive a wide range of input from a variety of sources.

Mentoring can be applied in various settings. Hearts of Men is an organisation that facilitates a community-based mentor programme with young men. This programme will now be discussed and used as an example of a mentoring programme in a community-based setting.

3.6 THE HEARTS OF MEN PROGRAMME

The “**Hearts of Men**” programme was developed based on the belief that older men need to share their experiences and perspectives regarding the challenges of manhood with younger men. As such the programme also recognises the need to guide young men through their passage from boyhood to manhood. The motivation for this approach is that if society does not provide young people with rituals, young people will inevitably invent their own, in the form of gangs. Recognising that young people are continuously at risk of becoming involved in crime, violence, gangs, poverty and drugs, the “**Hearts of Men**” programme seeks to facilitate an intensive mentoring programme, in which young and older men voluntarily choose to participate (Hearts of Men constitution, 2003: 2)

3.6.1 Objectives of the Hearts of Men Programme

According to the constitution Hearts of Men, the objectives of the mentoring organisation are the following:

1. “ To provide social guidance and support to young men within a community setting, to assist them through the passage to manhood;

2. To provide motivation, guidance and educational support to young men, to enable them to come to terms with the challenges and obstacles with which they are faced;
3. To build a culture amongst young men of respect for women, of accepting responsibility, and participating in community building initiatives;
4. To provide young men with role models, in the form of mentors, to guide them through to manhood;
5. To provide mentorship training for men;
6. To network with other service providers working within the community, in an attempt to provide young men with a more coherent support system;
7. To support and train local community youth and adult leadership, in the design and facilitation of their own youth interventions;
8. To instill a culture of respect for conserving and improving the environment, both urban and wilderness; and
9. To do all such things necessary for the attainment of the above-mentioned objectives (Hearts of Men constitution, 2003:2-3)."

From the above it is clear that if organisations wish to implement a mentoring programme, it is important for them to formulate goals and objectives, in order to achieve the outcomes of the intervention. In order to provide more insight into the "**Hearts of Men**" programme, a description of the programme will be presented.

3.6.2 A description of the Hearts of Men Programme

A description of the "**Hearts of Men**" programme will now be presented, because it will serve as an example of a mentor programme (Hearts of Men Constitution, 2003).

The focus of this programme is on 20 school-going mentees from the host community. Over a period of nine months the mentees participate in a

maximum of two wilderness-based experiences. They also participate in an intensive urban-based support programme, during which time they are teamed up with an adult mentor.

During the programme the mentees create a vision for themselves and for their community, and begin to take steps to put these dreams into action. Both the mentor and the mentees are required to sign a programme contract which outlines the mentor's responsibilities and tasks, as well as the goals and commitments of the mentee.

These mentees are also required to undertake specific personal projects as well as community building initiatives. The focus of these projects is on development, as is presented in figure 3.2.

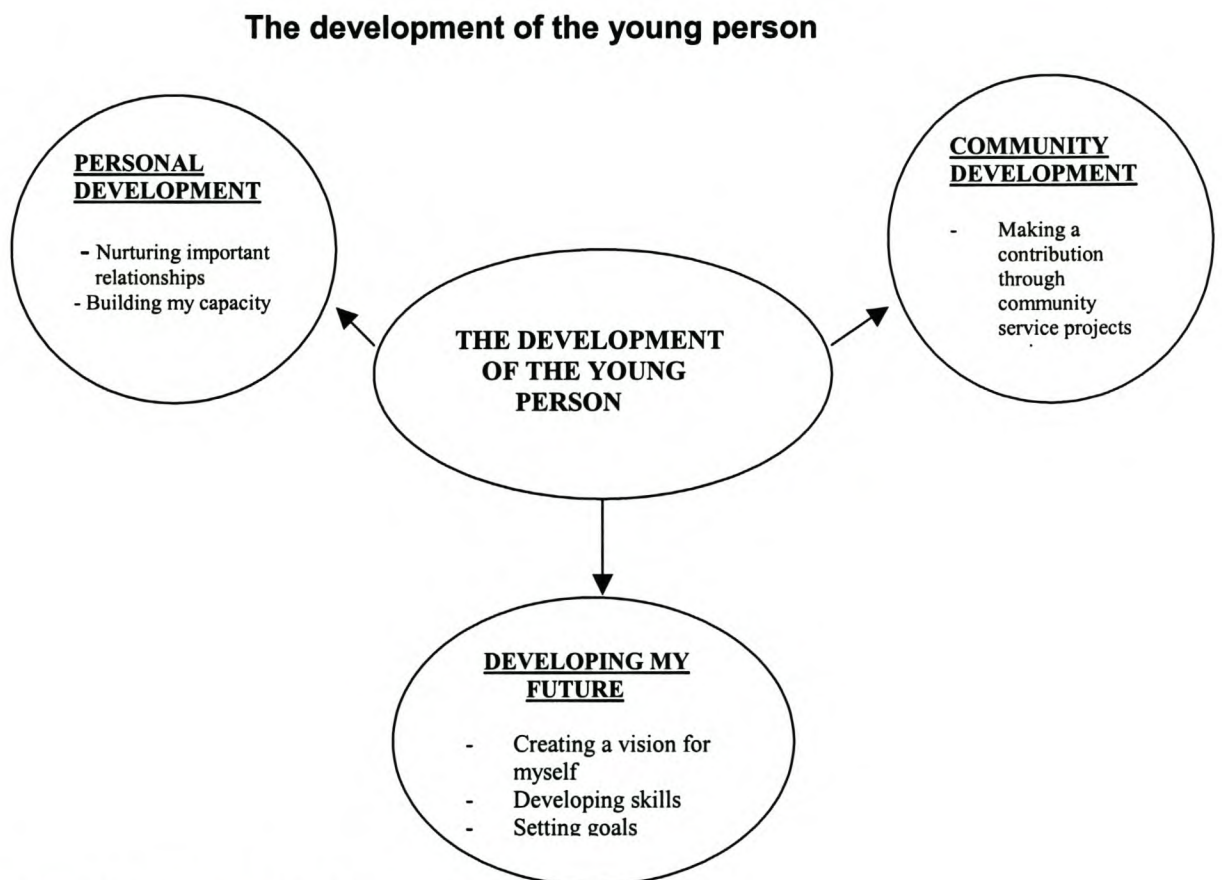


Figure 3.2 Development of the young person

From the above table it is evident that development of the mentee occurs on different levels. Young people undergo profound shifts in their sense of self and in their understanding of others, and the world around them. As such, they often think about the future and the type of adults they may become (Rhodes, 2002). The development of the young person should also be facilitated with the support of the mentors and programme staff.

The “**Hearts of Men**” programme is also characterised by seven distinct phases, as presented in figure 3.3

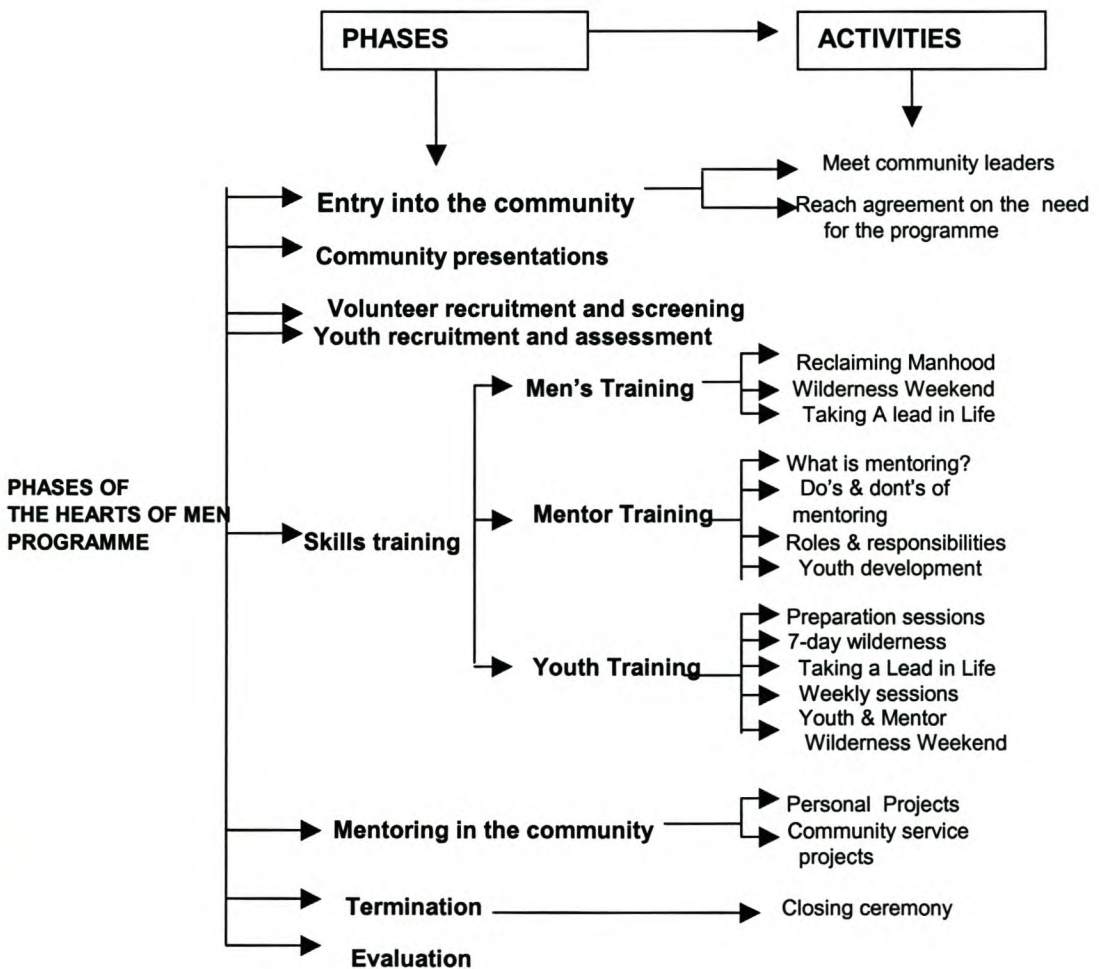


Figure 3.3 The phases of the Hearts of Men Programme

The phases as presented in figure 3.3 are important in the development and implementation of a mentor programme, because it allows for proper planning and execution of the tasks at hand (Lacey, 2000).

Mentoring programmes such as the “**Hearts of Men**” programme consist of various phases that are essential to the successful implementation and outcomes for the participants. The phases of a mentor programme will now be explained.

3.7 Phases of a mentor programme

In order for programmes to be effective, Lacey (2000) argues that the mentor programme must develop a training or support programme; define the term mentor; attribute a name to the partner role; define the participant’s roles; select and match participants; allow time for the relationship to develop; and evaluate the relationship. These are important aspects in the development of a mentor programme.

The phases are important stages in the development of the mentor programme. While mentoring programmes differ in length, objectives and structure, Lacey (2000) identifies three distinct phases of a typical mentor programme. These three phases will now be discussed separately, using the “**Hearts of Men**” programme as an example.

3.7.1 First phase: pre-programme phase

The first phase is called the pre-programme phase, where the goals of the programme are decided on, participants are identified, and matching takes place. Activities during this phase include the following:

3.7.1.1 Promoting the programme

The first prerequisite of any group programme is obtaining an adequate number of potential members (Rose and Edleson 1987). A recruitment campaign is an essential part of a mentoring programme so that a large enough number of people are made aware of the programme, its goals and other practical considerations (Geldard and Geldard 2001:83-85). The promotion of the programme can either be formal or informal. Promotion of the programme should be very structured and the use of promotional items such as newspaper articles and pamphlets may be used. As the programme becomes more established, the programme should be promoted by successful participants as well as by word of mouth (Lacey, 2000).

In the “**Hearts of Men**” programme this phase is called **entry into the community**. This phase characterises the establishment of contact with community leaders and forums, where agreement is reached about the need for the programme. The programme is then presented to a range of community structures including civic and local government. A programme newsletter can be used to familiarise individuals and community organisations explaining the aims and objectives of the programme.

3.7.1.2 Call for expression of interest

After promoting the programme, the next activity would be for the programme to call for an expression of interest (Lacey, 2000). Criteria are set by the programme staff for participation of both mentors and mentees. Potential mentors will then apply to be part of the programme. The use of appropriate forms is essential to capture the necessary information.

Mentors and mentees on the “**Hearts of Men**” programme first have to choose to become involved in the programme and make a commitment to be part of the programme. Mentors are invited to weekly sessions where the aims and objectives of the programme are discussed, and the men are given an opportunity to familiarise themselves with the programme staff and programme content.

3.7.1.3 Participant selection procedures

Participant selection is the next activity in this phase. Lacey (2000: 24) argues that the selection process can have a considerable impact on the success of the mentoring and the likelihood of change and development for the mentee. Successful programmes thus rely on the appropriate selection of suitable mentors and mentees. Geldard and Geldard (2001: 85) argue that group programmes must develop inclusion and exclusion criteria. Identified needs and personal resources are important factors for inclusion, while exclusion from a group is usually sensible where there are significant differences between the needs of the individual and the identified needs of the target group.

Reglin (1998: 45) suggests that potential mentors be interviewed before they are selected for the programme. In these interviews the focus should be on establishing the reason for wanting to become a mentor, previous volunteer experience, the time commitment of the volunteer and any expectations that the volunteer might have of the programme.

These questions are crucial in guiding the selection process. An important aspect of the recruitment process is that the demanding nature of the mentor programme should be made clear to all participants. In this regard, Rhodes (2002:80) is of the opinion that mentor programmes should provide potential volunteers with accurate information about these aspects of the programme.

Two positive effects of providing accurate information, according to Rhodes (2002), is that the information could lower the bar to include people with a more humble self-image, while enabling volunteers to make better informed decisions about the commitments and challenges of the programme. Therefore providing volunteers with accurate information during the selection process is important, as it eliminates unrealistic expectations, which might lead to early termination of the mentor relationship.

In the “**Hearts of Men**” programme this phase is called **volunteer recruitment and screening**. All participants in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme are volunteers until they have undergone training and committed themselves as mentors through the signing of a mentor contract. These contracts are signed during a mentor commitment ceremony attended by the mentor’s family and community members. The men’s training also serves as a screening process for the adult volunteers.

The programme is presented to young people based on the criteria set. The criteria for participation for young people in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme include a willingness to participate and the granting of permission to participate by parents. The young person must also be between the ages of 13 and 17, and should be attending school. Agreements are also entered into with the host school around the criteria, implementation and support expected from the school.

3.7.1.4 Assessment

Another activity of this phase is the undertaking and completion of the individual assessments of the young men. Assessment is a key element in any planned intervention into the life of a young person. Hoffman and Sallee (1994:166) regard assessment as a professional statement and process which makes sense of the information collected by applying theory, research and

analytical skills to an area of concern. The main feature of the assessment process is to provide a clear and precise description of dysfunctional and coping behaviour in relation to the condition under which it occurs, as well as desired intervention outcome expectancies. Scheafor, Horejsi and Horejsi, (2000: 301) view assessment as the thinking process by which a person reasons from the information gathered to arrive at tentative conclusions. During assessment, the available information is organised and studied to make sense of the individual's situation and to lay a foundation for a plan of action.

Scheafor, Horejsi and Horejsi (2000) also suggest that an assessment should be multidimensional, in that it is drawn from a number of sources that reflect varying perceptions and points of view. According to Tuckman (1995), Waas and Graczyk, (1998), ascertaining parent's attitudes towards a young person's involvement in a group programme is important, because lack of parental support for participation may militate against the achievement of useful gains for the child, whereas parental and family support may help produce the desired outcomes.

It is therefore useful to gather information from a range of sources to assist in creating a holistic picture of the individual and the factors that impact on his or her functioning.

The following assessments are done by the "**Hearts of Men**" programme:

- a) A **psychosocial assessment** which includes a family visit and interview; as well as an interview with the young person;
- b) An **educational assessment** done by the class teacher of the young person; and
- c) A **medical assessment** to ascertain medical conditions, as well as the general physical fitness of the young person.

The different assessments provide useful insight into the functioning of the young person.

3.7.1.5 Goals and contracts

After the assessment has been done, contracts are then negotiated between the programme and the mentors and youth, as well as between the young person and the mentor.

Contracts are a useful way of working with young people. Toseland and Rivas (2001: 175) define a contract as a verbal or written agreement between two or more members of a group. In a legal contract, each party agrees to provide something, although what is provided is not equal, and penalties are specified if either party does not fulfill the contract.

According to Pickles (1987:32-33) the following principles are important when entering into an agreement with volunteers:

- the contract is entered into voluntarily;
- the contract states the consequences in such a manner that each person will understand it;
- the contract explains the expectations and requirements in an explicit manner;
- the contract is mutually binding on all parties;
- the contract uses simple language and is understood by everyone; and
- the contract is a statement of commitment by each person to an agreed goal.

The contract is thus a tool that assists both the mentee and the mentor to work towards a mutually agreed goal. While the contract is not necessarily a legal document, it can be regarded as a statement of agreement. In this regard Doel

and Sawdon (1995: 117) prefer the term 'agreement', as this term emphasises an element of negotiation.

The mentees on the "**Hearts of Men**" programme meet on a weekly basis where they identify three goals that they would like to achieve during the course of the programme. The three goals include a personal, family and community/school goal. Programme staff assist the mentees in clarifying their goals and identifying steps that need to be put into place.

Each mentee also signs a programme agreement, which outlines his responsibilities and duties in the programme. Mentors are also required to sign a programme agreement, which outlines their roles and commitments.

3.7.1.6 Matching mentors and mentees

Another activity of this phase is the matching of mentors and mentees, which is traditionally done in the one-to-one mentoring programme. According to Lacey (2000: 26) the matching of mentors and mentees can be an unpredictable process, where successful matching depends more on serendipity than on design. The critical move is getting mentors and youth together so that they can form first impressions. According to Rhodes (2002:85) similarities between oneself and another person tend to lead to a more positive first impression. In this regard programme staff should make matches based on similar interests and backgrounds.

The "**Hearts of Men**" programme is based on group mentoring rather than one-to-one mentoring. Mentors and mentees are brought together through weekly-facilitated sessions by programme staff. Because of the demanding nature of the mentor programme, this approach provides a safety net for the young men in the event of a mentor exiting the programme.

The second phase of the mentor programme will now be explained.

3.7.2 Second phase: orientation and training

The second phase of the mentoring programme entails orientation and training, where mentors and mentees are trained, either together or separately, about their roles and responsibilities. The purpose of this phase is to provide all participants with a clear understanding of the purpose of the programme and of the organisation's expectations of each person's role and responsibilities (Grossman and Jaccobi, 2000). This phase also ensures a consistent implementation of the programme through the development of documented protocols, and also provides appropriate skills training to both the mentee as well as the mentor (Lacey, 2000: 27).

This phase is also characterised by the execution of activities, which will now be explained.

3.7.2.1 Establish rapport

The first activity in this phase is the establishment of rapport between the mentor and mentee. Rapport - often referred to as 'relationship' or 'working alliance' - is an essential dynamic in any professional helping profession (Samantrai, 1999: 33). The goal of this activity is for the mentoring pair to get to know each other. Lowery and Mattaini (2001) see the ultimate goal of a relationship-building process as achieving a relationship of shared power. In sharing power, each participant has a strong voice in the process, and each person recognises and expects that each has his or her own power, own gifts, and own vision to contribute (Mattaini, 2002: 161). In order to establish rapport, mentors and mentees can be brought together through various structured activities, which might include a formal launch or youth induction session.

In the “**Hearts of Men**” programme, mentors and mentees meet for the first time in what is called the youth induction session. The youth are accompanied by their parents, who meet the mentors for the first time. Parents also hand over their boys ceremonially to the mentors. Weekly sessions are held to assist in building rapport in the group.

3.7.2.2 Roles and responsibilities

Another activity, which is performed during this phase, includes the clarification of roles and responsibilities of both mentor and mentee. This entails that the facilitator outlines the organisation’s definitions of each role, and also what is expected of mentors and mentees, as well as the expected outcome of the programme (Grossman and Jaccobi, 2000).

In the “**Hearts of Men**” programme, these roles and responsibilities are outlined in the mentor and mentee contracts that the participants sign. During the preparation sessions, before youth induction, these roles and responsibilities are also discussed extensively.

3.7.2.3 Establishment of protocols

The establishment of protocols is another activity which is executed during this phase. Protocols are rules that guide the mentor programme and relationships. According to Lacey (2000: 28) these protocols should include:

- confidentiality of information relating to the mentee;
- duration of the mentor-mentee relationship
- the times and duration of meetings between mentors and mentees;
- roles and responsibilities of the mentor and mentee;
- the approximate time to be invested by the mentor in the mentee; and

- ways of terminating an unsuccessful relationship between mentor and mentee prior to the formal conclusion of the programme.

From the above it is clear that protocols are rules that govern the interaction between programme staff and mentors and between mentors and mentees. These protocols provide the guidelines for the successful delivery and management of the relationships in the programme.

Lacey (2000) suggests that mentors and mentees should reach agreement on the protocols for the relationship. These will include for example, the minimum number of meetings; the duration of the formal relationship; the use of specific tools such as competency profiles as the basis for the personal development plan; and the relationship between the mentor and the mentee's manager.

While not all mentor relationships are successful, the purpose of these protocols are to provide a mechanism for both the mentor and the mentee to terminate the relationship without negative consequences for either of them.

3.7.2.4 Providing appropriate skills training

Another activity, which is implemented during this phase, is the provision of appropriate skills training for both mentor and mentee. Skills are tools that assist an individual to fulfill or complete a task or activity. According to Collins and Collins (1992: 11), a central assumption of the skills training approach is that social behaviour is learned, in other words behaviour is influenced by past learning experiences. While it is important to recognise that past history has contributed to the present social behaviour, it is clear that new learning behaviour is essential to provide an opportunity for the development of new behaviour patterns.

It is assumed that mentors have a range of appropriate skills, such as

interpersonal skills, that they bring to the mentoring relationship (Lacey, 2000). Depending on the nature of the programme, skills training should serve the objectives of the programme. Therefore training in interpersonal and social skills should be provided for both mentors and mentees.

Mentors on the “**Hearts of Men**” programme undergo the following training:

- Preparation sessions, which focus on team building
- “Reclaiming Manhood” sessions
- “Weekend Wilderness” Programmes
- “Taking a Lead in Life” Workshop, focus on relationships
- “Mentor Training”, which includes sessions on the roles and responsibilities of the mentor, youth development, and the do’s and don’t’s of mentoring.

These training sessions, programmes and workshops are aimed at equipping the mentors to understand their own behaviour, the construction of their masculinity, and their relationship with their fathers and partners. It also serves as preparation for their role as mentors. The “**Hearts of Men**” philosophy is that, when working with young people, it is important for the mentors to have undergone a similar experience and training as the mentees, in order to understand and support them better.

Youth on the “**Hearts of Men**” programme undergo similar training programmes as the mentors, except for the mentor training component. The mentor programme as a whole serves to enhance the self-esteem of young people, providing support and encouragement, developing communication skills, enhancing personal social functioning and promoting resilience in young people.

3.7.2.5 Personal development plan

The formulation of a personal development plan is another activity which is performed during the orientation and training phase. The purpose of mentoring is to develop the skills and abilities of the mentee. In order to develop skills and abilities, the mentee needs to establish which skills and abilities need to be developed. According to Lacey (2000) this is done through a skills audit. This audit is translated into a personal development plan, which provides the goal or objective for the mentor relationship.

The third phase of the mentoring programme will now be explained.

3.7.3 Third phase: Relationship development phase

The third phase is called the relationship development phase. According to Greathead, Devenish and Funnell (1992:37), a relationship is the interaction between two or more people, and may vary in intensity, type, deviation and commitment. Samantrai (1999: 34) is also of the opinion that close, intimate personal relationships with other people are essential for growth, development and a satisfying life.

The success of formal mentoring programmes depends on the strength of the relationship that develops between the partners. Close relationships are most likely to emerge as the by-product of shared involvement in social, academic, career, or other activities. Darling, Hamilton and Niego (1994) are of the opinion that mentors who engage with youth in challenging, goal-directed activities are more likely to be successful than those whose primary focus is to get to know the adolescent.

In the "**Hearts of Men**" programme, the young men together with the mentors attend weekly facilitated sessions as well as workshops facilitated by

programme staff. The focus of these sessions is on building trust and strengthening the mentor-mentee relationship.

The activities in the relationship development phase will now be presented.

3.7.3.1 Ongoing support

The first activity during the third phase is the provision of ongoing support to the mentee. Ongoing support is often needed to sustain the mentor relationship through difficult periods. The provision of support also extends beyond the support of mentor to mentee, and includes programmatic support to the mentors. As such, programme staff should help sensitize mentors to adolescent needs and expectations of the mentoring relationships. According to Rhodes (2002) volunteers who are offered continuing support and supervision are more likely to persist than those who are not contacted regularly by staff.

In the provision of on-going support, Ensher and Murphy (1997) identified five distinct phases through which the mentoring relationship progresses. These five phases are:

- The **introduction** phase, where participants look for similarities and make judgements about one another;
- The **relationship building** phase, where mentee and mentor engage in positive activities that enhance communication between them;
- The **growth** phase, where the mentor provides emotional and instrumental support to the mentee, through relatively open communication and role modeling;
- The **maturation** phase, where the pair focus on the mentee's goals, and where mentors also begin to derive benefits from the relationship; and
- The **transition** phase, where the relationship declines or is redefined.

These stages could serve as a tool for programme staff to assess progress, as well as their own level of involvement with and support to the mentor and mentee.

The “**Hearts of Men**” programme is a support programme, and as such mentors support young men to achieve their goals, and in turn the organisation supports the mentors. Mentors on the programme receive support through monthly mentor training and support sessions. Youth are supported weekly through the facilitated sessions and informal contacts at school and in the community.

3.7.3.2 Establishment of a periodic reporting system

The next activity during this phase refers to the establishment of a reporting system. In all programmes some relationships will work well while others will fluctuate. A critical point in the fluctuation of the mentor relationship occurs approximately four to six weeks after completion of the initial training (Lacey 2000). It is therefore important that programme staff keep regular contact with each person in the programme in order to monitor the progress of the mentor relationship.

In the “**Hearts of Men**” programme, programme staff fulfill the role of the support persons to both mentors and mentees. Close contact is held with every person in the group. Absence from group meetings is therefore immediately followed up by programme staff as well as mentor and youth group leaders.

3.7.3.3 Facilitation of group meetings for participants

Another activity during the third phase is the facilitation of group meetings for

participants. In the one-to-one mentor relationship, it might be useful to facilitate a group meeting for all mentors and mentees, to report on progress, share experiences and offer solutions to the rest of the group (Lacey, 2000).

The “**Hearts of Men**” is a group-mentoring programme, where participants meet on a weekly basis. The mentees are provided with opportunities to talk about their goals and report on progress made with the goals. The young men, with the assistance of the mentors, also identify and implement a community service project, such as the cleaning of school premises or the removal of graffiti from school walls.

3.7.4 Fourth phase: Formal conclusion of the programme

An important phase in the mentor programme entails the formal conclusion of the programme. It is important that the mentor relationship be formally concluded. A final session with all of the participants allows participants to share their successes with others, provides an opportunity to evaluate the programme, and provides a forum for the organisation to recognise the contribution made by the participants and to conclude the programme formally (Ferguson, 1990).

Rhodes (2002: 103) is of the opinion that all terminations, whether planned or unplanned, can evoke conflicting emotions and defensive reactions in participants. As such, well-handled terminations can provide a healthy model for sharing feelings around other losses in adolescents’ lives. The feelings that participants have about endings are related to the relationships that have developed in the group (Toseland and Rivas, 2001: 445). The feelings that members and workers have about ending their participation in a group depend on a number of factors, including whether the group is planned to be time limited or open ended, how long the group meets, the nature of the group’s work, the intensity of the relationships that develop among members, and the

extent to which the ending is associated with a sense of progress, achievement, or graduation (Germain and Gitterman, 1996).

When participants successfully accomplish their goals, they tend to experience a certain degree of pride and satisfaction as the group process draws to a close (Sheafor et al, 2000). If participants have grown in confidence and strength, they may be optimistic about the future.

The “**Hearts of Men**” programme cycle is concluded with a closing ceremony organised by the mentors and mentees. Community members, parents, the school and other partners are invited to attend this ceremony. Mentees and mentors get an opportunity to perform, sing and share their experiences of being involved in the programme.

3.7.5 Fifth Phase: Evaluation

Evaluation is an important ongoing process that should occur throughout the life of the group (Sheafor, et al, 2000). As such, the last phase of the mentor programme entails evaluation.

Evaluation is described as the process of obtaining information about the effects of a single intervention or the effects of the total group experience (Toseland and Rivas, 2001: 401). Evaluation is an important tool in determining success or failure of any intervention. Rhodes (2002: 108) is of the opinion that careful programme evaluations, anchored in theory and empirical evidence, can contribute to a more theoretically informed and practically applicable understanding of mentoring.

According to Lacey (2000: 31) mentoring relationships are complex and their success is largely serendipitous. As such, Lacey (2000) suggests that the mentor programme should be evaluated at the completion of each of the different stages, as well as at the conclusion of the first or second year of the

programme.

In order to continue with mentor programmes it is important for organisations to gain insight into the experience and perceptions of both mentors and mentees about the effectiveness of the programme.

3.8 SUMMARY

Mentoring has become an important tool in work with young people. This chapter explored the concept of mentoring, the roles of both mentor and mentee, as well as the application of mentoring across the field of youth development in particular. Various mentor programmes exist, that provide a supportive component to its participants. The “**Hearts of Men**” programme was used as an example of a community-based group-mentoring programme for young men. The phases of a mentoring programme were also presented.

CHAPTER FOUR

AN ANALYSIS OF THE YOUNG PERSON IN THE MENTORING PROGRAMME

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisations undertaking mentoring programmes should have guidelines according to which the young person and his environment can be assessed, in order to render an effective service. This assessment should focus on the development phases of the young person, determine which personal characteristics are available, and how the environment influences the young person. Based on the information in the assessment, organisations can design and plan a mentor programme, in order to improve the social support networks of the young person.

The objectives of this study are to describe the human development of youth during adolescence, in order to gain a better understanding of this particular age group. Another objective is to determine young people's perceptions of their roles in the mentoring relationship, as well as their perceptions of the role of the mentor in the mentor programme. These objectives were formulated to achieve the goal of the study, which is to provide guidelines for the development of a youth mentor programme based within the community. The content and outcomes of the empirical research will be discussed in this chapter, which will assist in providing a framework for the development of youth mentor programmes.

4.2 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

In this section the findings of the empirical research that was undertaken will be discussed. The focus will be on the research method, sampling of respondents and the data collected during the study.

4.2.1 Research method

This study was limited to the area of the Strand. The reason for this is that Hearts of Men implemented a mentor programme in the Strand in February 2003. The nature of the information in this study was both qualitative and quantitative.

4.2.2 Sampling and data gathering

The research sample as well as the methods used to collect the information will now be presented.

The sample for this study was drawn from all 18 youth participants in the Strand "**Hearts of Men**" programme. Purposive sampling (Babbie, 1998) was utilised, as the respondents were all participants in the Strand mentor programme. Information was gathered through the use of a self-administered questionnaire. The ages ranged between 13 and 18. All participants in this study were male, because of the objectives of the "**Hearts of Men**" programme. The respondents had been on the mentor programme for three months.

Two interviews were held with one group of seven and another group of 11 youth, at the local school from where the mentor programme is delivered.

4.3 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results of this study will be presented in three sections, namely the identifying information, the role of the mentee as well as the role of the mentor.

4.3.1 IDENTIFYING INFORMATION

4.3.1.1 Age of the respondents

The ages of the respondents is an important indicator of the development phases that they are in. Even though age is not the only determining factor of a developmental phase, it can be used for convenience, according to Thom (1992: 393), Bender, (2000: 39) and Craig, (1996: 59). The ages of the respondents are shown in the table below.

Table 4.1 Age of respondents

Age	f	%
13	1	6
14	7	39
15	2	11
16	6	33
18	2	11
Total	18	100

n = 18

The ages of the respondents ranged from 13 to 18. Only one of the respondents is 13 years of age, while seven are 14 years of age, two are 15 years old, six are 16 years old and two are 18 years of age. The majority of the respondents are between the age of 14 and 16. This is consistent with the

objectives of the “**Hearts of Men**” programme in terms of the criteria for participation, which is 13 to 17 years old. Only two of the respondents turned 18 during the course of the programme.

4.3.1.2 Neighbourhood

In keeping with the ecological perspective (as discussed in chapter 2), an individual's functioning cannot be viewed in isolation from the environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). According to Glanz (1994) the community plays a vital role in young people's social development and a socially disorganised community will contribute to the incidence of delinquency. Berns (1997: 427) is of the opinion that the community is a socializing agent because it is where children learn the role expectations for adults as well as for themselves.

In this section the respondents were asked to indicate in which area or neighbourhood in the Strand they reside.

Table 4.2 Neighbourhood that respondents live in

Neighbourhood	F	%
Broadlands Park	8	44
Gustrouw	6	33
Rusthof	1	6
South Fork	1	6
Cassablanca	1	6
Lwandle	1	6
Total	18	100

n = 18

Three of the areas in Strand, Broadlands Park, Gustrouw and Lwandle are known for criminal activities, drug abuse and violence. Eight (44%) of the respondents live in Broadlands Park, while six (33%) live in Gustrouw, and one (5%) each in Rusthof, Lwandle, South Fork and Cassablanca.

4.3.1.3 Family circumstances

The respondents were asked to indicate with whom they were staying. The results of their responses are indicated in the table below.

Table 4.3 The types of family of the respondents

Type of family	F	%
Both parents	7	39
Step-parent	8	44
Mother	1	6
Other family	2	11
Total	18	100

n = 18

From the above table it can be seen that the majority of the respondents, eight (44%), live in a step-parent family, while seven (39%) live with both parents, two (11%) live with other family members and one (6%) lives in a single-parent family. Even though most of the respondents live with either one or both of their parents, it is clear that the majority of the respondents (44%) come from disintegrated or reconstructed families. This corresponds with findings by Kelley (1996) that the traditional family structure has undergone major changes and that, when a parent remarries, restructuring of the family is necessary owing to the changes in the family system. In relation to this

restructuring, young people tend to struggle with issues of loss, disconnection, individuation, loyalty and self-value.

4.3.1.4 Marital status of respondent's parents and guardians

The respondents were asked to indicate the marital status of the person that they were staying with at the time.

Table 4.4 Marital status of the respondent's parents and guardians

Marital status	F	%
Married	16	88
Widow/Widower	1	6
Divorced	1	6
Total	18	100

n = 18

Table 4.4 indicates that a total of 16 (88%) of the respondents' parents/guardians are married, while one (6%) is divorced and another one (6%) is widowed. The findings in this section of the study should be seen in relation to Table 4.4, which indicates a mixed family composition.

While only one (6%) of the respondent's parents is divorced, Goldenburg (2002) is of the opinion that the divorce of parents can also be seen as delaying the full development or growing up of a young person. Studies by Hetherington (1989) indicate that during and after parental divorce, children often exhibit marked changes in behaviour, such as acting out in school. Adolescents can feel resentment and are also burdened by the painful memories of the divorce ten years later. Berns (1997:108) is of the opinion that pre-adolescent boys show more intense and enduring problems in response to

their parent's divorce than girls do. Research shows that boys are harder hit by the divorce of their parents, and Hetherington (1989) is of the opinion that boys receive less support to process the divorce of their parents from their mothers, teachers, and peers than girls do.

It is therefore important for both programme staff as well as mentors, to know the family composition of the young person in the mentor programme, in order to understand the impact of family disintegration on the development of the young person.

4.3.1.5 Relationship with peer group

As discussed in chapter two, the peer group becomes an important element in the life of the adolescent. In this section, the respondents were asked to indicate the number of friends they have, whether they have a special friend they could talk to in times of crisis, and also if they have a trusted relationship with any adult they could turn to in times of crisis. The findings of this section will now be reported.

- **Number of friends of the respondents**

Peers and friends are generally considered to play an important role in the development of the young person. Belonging to a peer group enables the individual to have social interactions with others and have experiences independent of parents or other adults (Berns, 1997: 333). It is through interactions with others in a social context that adolescents begin to form opinions of themselves.

The respondents were asked to indicate how many friends they have. The findings are indicated in the table below.

Table 4.5 Number of friends

No. of friends	f	%
5 or more	2	11
2-5	9	50
One	3	17
None	4	22
Total	18	100

n = 18

When combining the first two responses (five and more plus two and more) in the above table, eleven (61%) of the respondents reported to have two or more friends, while three (17%) have only one friend, and four (22%) have no friends. This finding corresponds with Reisman's (1985) statement that, regardless of why peer groups emerge, it is clear that in at least early adolescence young people prefer to be in the company of groups of other young people.

- **Special friends**

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether they had a special friend that they could talk to if they had a problem.

Eleven (61%) of the respondents reported to have a special friend with whom they could talk to if they had a problem, while seven (39%) reported to have no special friend. This finding corresponds with Lefrancois (1992), when he states that not everyone has friends and that very often young people may experience a form of social isolation. As such, Asher (1983) is of the opinion that popular children are "popular" because they are more competent socially and that "unpopular" children lack social skills.

- **Trusted relationships with adults**

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they had any relationship with an adult they trusted, to whom they could turn in times of crisis.

A total of eight (44%) respondents has a trusted relationship with an adult other than their parents, to whom they can turn in a time of crisis, while ten (56%) have no such relationship with an adult. The importance of having a trusted relationship with a non-parent adult is explained by McWirther et al (1998) who state that resilient, invulnerable children are consistently found to have established a significant, positive relationship with at least one adult, that is not necessarily their parent.

A description of the adults identified by the eight (44%) respondents are given in the table below.

Table 4.6 Trusted Adults

Person	f	%
Sibling	2	25
Friend	3	37.5
Other	3	37.5

n = 8

Table 4.6 reflects that two (25%) of the eight respondents reported the trusted adult to be their sibling, while three (37.5%) respondents each reported this person to be a friend or other family member such as grandparents and cousins. These findings correspond with the findings of Elium and Elium (1996) that the presence of an other adult, not necessarily parents, is vital to

the development of a young person's maturity. According to McWirther et al (1998) relationships between at-risk youth and stable, nurturing adults provide a means by which young people learn academic skills and knowledge as well as necessary social skills.

The objective of the youth mentor programme should be to develop the relationship between the adult and the young person, in order to increase resilience and coping mechanisms for the young person. Therefore it is important for mentors in particular to understand the importance and the function of the mentoring relationship.

4.3.1.6 Socio-cultural activities

This section focused on the respondent's involvement in the social and religious life of their community. In the administration of this questionnaire the respondents were asked not to include their involvement in the "**Hearts of Men**" programme in their responses.

The findings of this section will now be discussed.

- **Community involvement**

In this section it was found that the majority of the respondents are not involved in any community organisations, like sports clubs and youth clubs.

Twelve (67%) of the respondents do not belong to any community organisation or grouping. Only four (22%) of the respondents belong to a youth club, while only two (11%) belong to a sports club in the community. Community involvement and interaction is an important factor in young people's development because, according to Bronfenbrenner (1979), this interaction serves as a supportive link with other settings in the community

(Kaplan, 2000). Kyle (1987) as found in Kaplan (2000), is of the opinion that community structures can be better utilised by young people when members of the community become involved in working towards mutually beneficial goals that focus on positive growth and the development of young people.

The objectives of the mentor programme is therefore to get adults in the community involved in the growth and development of young people, through providing support structures.

- **Religious affiliation**

The respondents were also asked whether they belonged to any religious body or institution in the community. It was found that the majority do belong to a church or mosque and that they do attend regular religious activities.

Seventeen (94%) of the respondents belong to a church or mosque, while one (6%) does not belong to any religious body. Of the 17 (94%) respondents that indicated their affiliation to a religious body, a total of nine (53%) attend church or mosque regularly, while seven (41%) attends church or mosque seldom, and one (6%) never attends church or mosque. This finding does not correspond with Donahue and Benson (1995), who state that adolescence is a time of questioning and examining belief systems. The authors also report that cross-sectional studies indicate a decline in religiousness during adolescence. Religion also plays an important role in the behaviour and attitudes of adolescents. According to Wright, Frost and Wisecarver (1993), lower rates of violence are also related to religiousness, and that adolescents who see religion as a meaningful part of their lives are less likely to be depressed.

The respondents were also asked to indicate their religious affiliation. It was found that 16 (89%) were Christians, while one (6%) of the respondents

belongs to the Muslim faith, and one (6%) respondent was not affiliated to any religious body or faith.

In terms of the mentoring programme, it should be noted that religion does play an important role in the lives of the young people. Mentors in the mentor programme should be sensitive to the fact that young people might hold different religious beliefs.

4.3.1.7 Emotional development and behaviour

In this section the respondents were asked to indicate their previous involvement in delinquent activities, and whether they have been in conflict with the law.

- **Delinquent acts during the last year**

The results of the finding on delinquent acts committed by the respondents during the previous year are presented in table 4.7

Table 4.7 Type of delinquent acts

Delinquent act	f	%
Stealing	6	33
Assault/vandalism	4	22
Drunkenness	6	33
Drugs/glue sniffing	5	28
Gang involvement	1	6
Run away from home	5	28
Other	2	11

n = 18

Table 4.7 reflects that six (33%) of the respondents reported to have been drunk in the last year, while six (28%) each were involved in stealing, drug use and running away from home. Four (22%) of the respondents were involved in acts of assault or vandalism, while only one (6%) was involved in gang activities. One (6%) of the respondents indicated “other” and stated his involvement in drug dealing. This finding corresponds with Patterson, Debaryshe and Ramsey (1989) who argue that anti-social behaviour is a developmental phenomenon that begins early in life and continues through childhood and adolescence into adulthood. Young people may take risks as a way of dealing with feelings of inadequacy or to gain inclusion in a group (Gonzales, Field, Yando, Gonzales, Lasko and Bendell 1994).

- **Conflict with the law**

The respondents were asked whether they had been in trouble with the law in the previous year, or prior to their involvement in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme

It was found that four (22%) of the respondents were previously (in the last year, prior to their participation in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme) in conflict with the law, while 14 (78%) were never in conflict with the law. In the case of the four (22%) respondents, the offences ranged from one (25%) assault, one (25%) malicious damage to property, one (25%) shoplifting, and one (25%) bomb scare. Two (50%) of the respondents had their cases withdrawn against them, while one (25%) was found not guilty, and one (25%) was diverted to Nicro’s Youth Empowerment Scheme. According to Glanz (1994), crime is becoming a major social problem within the South African society. The findings in this section should be read together with the above table (table 4.7), which indicates that even though young people engage in delinquent acts, that they are not necessarily arrested by the police.

An important aspect of the mentor programme is the assessment of the young person's previous criminal involvement. Mentoring is about sharing experiences of life and discussing ways in which obstacles can be overcome; therefore an important component of the mentoring relationship is the need to address the impact of peers on a wide range of adolescent behaviour.

4.3.1.8 Smoking and drinking habits

According to Greydanus (1997) alcohol, drugs and cigarettes have become an integral part of the adolescent culture. In this section, respondents were also asked to indicate whether they smoke cigarettes and use drugs and also whether they drink alcohol, and to what extent they engage in these activities.

- **Smoking habits**

McWirther et al (1998) are of the opinion that tobacco products may have severe negative personal and social consequences, even when they are used in relative moderation. In this section, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they smoke cigarettes or not, and also to indicate how many cigarettes they smoke a day. The findings are presented below.

The findings indicate that a total of ten (56%) respondents are not smoking, while eight (44%) respondents are smoking cigarettes. Of the eight (44%) respondents, a total of five (62,5%) smoke between one and two cigarettes a day, while two (25%) smoke between two and five cigarettes a day, and only one (15,5%) smokes five and more cigarettes a day. These findings suggest that about a quarter of the respondents do smoke cigarettes regularly and on a daily basis. The positive aspect is that the majority of the respondents do not smoke cigarettes. The findings correlate to studies by Lovelife (2000) which

found that 78% of their respondents never smoked a cigarette and that another 7% indicated that they hardly ever smoke.

- **Drug use**

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they use any illegal drugs. All 18 (100%) of the respondents reported not to use any drugs at present. This question should be read together with table 4.7, which indicated that five (28%) of the respondents used drugs in the previous year, and that one (6%) of the respondents was involved in drug dealing, prior to their participation in the **“Hearts of Men”** programme. During the administration of this questionnaire, respondents reported their discontinuation of drugs (mostly dagga) and drug dealing to be linked to their participation in the **“Hearts of Men”** programme. This finding is positive in terms of the re-evaluation of choices by the young people in the mentor programme. This finding is, however, open to interpretation and should be further explored.

- **Drinking habits**

The respondents were asked whether they drink alcohol, and if they do, whether they usually drink during the week, during weekends or on special occasions.

Thirteen (72%) of the respondents do not use alcohol, while five (28%) of the respondents do. Of the five (28%), a total of three (60%) use alcohol mostly at special occasions, such as parties, while two (49%) mostly drink over weekends. Rubenstein (1991:222) points out that adolescents often use substances such as cigarettes, drugs and alcohol owing to peer pressure. This finding correlates with studies by Barendse et al (1995), as found in Tshiwula (1995: 82), which found that of a randomly selected sample of 600 pupils from a population of 13 high schools in the Northern area of Port Elizabeth, 14,5%

of the pupils used alcohol at weekends, 18% used alcohol twice a month and 0.5% used alcohol on a daily basis.

According to Greydanus (1997), suicide and homicide, which are strongly associated with alcohol and drug use, are second and third on a list of leading causes of death amongst adolescents in the United States. The mentoring programme should therefore take into account that adolescence is a time of experimentation, and that early alcohol use could potentially lead to the abuse of this substance.

4.3.1.9 Sexual relationships

In this section, the respondents were asked whether they have ever had sex before. The respondents were also asked whether they used any form of contraception, and whether any person/s have spoken to them about the dangers of sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS.

The findings are presented below.

- **Sexual experiences**

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they have had sexual intercourse before.

The findings indicate that only six (33%) of the respondents reported to be sexually active, while 12 (67%) never had any sexual intercourse before. Of the six (33%) respondents, five (83%) use condoms during sexual intercourse, while one (17%) respondent does not use any condoms during sexual intercourse. The fact that the majority of the respondents have never had sexual intercourse is positive in the light of the rapid spread of HIV/AIDS amongst young people in South Africa. However for those who are sexually

active, one of the predisposing factors that make South African young people susceptible to AIDS is the resistance to the use of condoms, based on cultural and social norms (Lovelife 2001).

In the face of the current threat of HIV/AIDS, mentoring programmes can play an important role in encouraging abstinence in young people, and encouraging safe sex practices.

- **Information received on the dangers of sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS**

The respondents were asked to indicate whether any person has spoken to them about the dangers of sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS, and also to indicate who that person was.

The findings indicate that all 18 (100%) of the respondents reported that someone spoke to them about the risks of contracting sexually transmitted infections or HIV/AIDS.

- **Sources of information on sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS**

The respondents were also asked to indicate who their sources of information on sex and the dangers of sexually transmitted diseases were.

Respondents indicated various sources of information. The sources of the information on sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS are illustrated in the table below.

Table 4.8 Sources of information on sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS

Source of information	f	%
Parents	7	38
Teacher	14	78
Doctor	5	28
Friends	7	38
Other organisation	1	6

n = 18

The above table indicates that fourteen (78%) of the respondents received their information on sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS from a teacher, seven (38%) from their parents, seven (38%) from their friends, five (28%) from a doctor and one (6%) from an external organisation. The findings correlate with findings of Lovelife (2000) that the majority of young people rely on their peers for information on sex, and that teachers are the second major sources of information for young people.

Mentoring programmes should understand that peers play an important role in providing information on sex to other young people.

4.3.1.9 School record

In this section, young people were asked to indicate in which grade they were, how well they think they are doing, how often they do homework, if they attend school regularly, and whether they have been suspended from school previously.

- **Grade**

Eight (44%) of the respondents are in grade 8, while eight (44%) of the respondents are in grade 9. One (6%) of the respondents is in grade 10, and one (6%) is not attending school at present, but has the desire to return to school in the next year. In terms of the age of the school-going respondents, two (11%) of the respondents are 18 years of age (see table 4.1), which suggests that they are at least two grade levels behind in their education.

- **Progress at school**

Respondents were asked to indicate how well they think they are doing at school. Of the seventeen respondents that do attend school, fourteen (82%) reported their progress to be average, while three (18%) reported their progress to be poor. Mentor programmes should also form partnerships with the local schools, in order to assist the young person in his/her full educational needs.

- **Completion of homework**

Respondents were also asked to indicate how often they complete their homework. Fifteen (88%) of the respondents reported that they only complete their homework on certain days, while only two (12%) complete their homework daily. This finding is an indication that the respondents, although not daily, do spend time at home to complete their homework.

- **School attendance**

All 17 (100%) of the respondents reported to attend school regularly. This is a positive sign that the respondents are serious about their schooling. Mentor programmes should encourage young people to attend school regularly.

- **Suspension from school**

Respondents were asked to indicate if they were ever suspended from school. Only five (29%) of the respondents have been suspended from school previously, while 12 (71%) have never been in trouble with the school authorities. With regard to this section on schooling, the findings correlate with those of McWirther et al (1998:97) who suggest that those most likely to drop out of school are those who are unmotivated by their classwork; who have had problems with either the school authorities, the police, or both; who skip classes or are often absent; or who have fallen two or more years behind a grade level.

Mentoring programmes should take into account that young people are often part of the educational system. Mentor programmes should assess the level of functioning of the young person in the school, in order to assist and encourage the young person to complete his/her education.

4.3.2 THE ROLE OF THE MENTEE

All of the respondents in this study are participants in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme in the Strand. Respondents were asked how often they attend mentor group sessions and workshops, what they think the purpose of these sessions are, how they find these sessions and workshops, whether their parents support them in their participation, and what they think their roles are in the mentor programme. Respondents were also asked whether they would encourage other young people to participate in a mentor programme.

The findings of this section will now be reported, starting with the attendance of sessions and workshops of the “**Hearts of Men**” programme by the respondents.

4.3.2.1 Attendance of Hearts of Men sessions and workshops

Table 4.9 Attendance

Attendance	f	%
Seldom	3	17
Often	15	83
Total	18	100

n = 18

The above table indicates that fifteen (83%) of the respondents reported that they attend the mentor sessions often (attending all sessions), while only three (17%) seldom attend sessions. This finding is positive in that mentees are required to attend weekly sessions, plus workshops, as was explained in the discussion of the requirements of the mentor programme in Chapter Three.

4.3.2.2 Purpose of the sessions

The respondents were asked to indicate what they thought the purpose of these sessions and workshops were. They gave various reasons for attending these sessions. Their responses can be divided into three categories, namely i) personal gains, ii) family gains, and iii) gains for the community. The responses will now be discussed according to these categories.

i) Personal gains

Respondent 1 indicated that “the sessions help me to be a man/ to be a man of my word”

Respondent 6 and 12 indicated that it is “to be a better person/ to reach my full potential”

Respondent 2 indicated that the sessions “help me to solve problems”

Respondents 3 and 4 indicated that “to make us aware of gangsterism/to find myself and to communicate with others”

Respondent 5, 14,15 and 18 indicated “to help me achieve my goals”

Respondent 7 indicated that the sessions “teach me more about life/to prepare myself for the future”

Respondent 8, 16 and 17 indicated that the purpose is “to help me take responsibility for my actions”

Respondents 9 and 13 indicated that it is “to make men out of the boys”

ii) Family gains

Respondents 10 and 11 indicated that “it changes me and my relationship with my father”

iii) Community gains

Respondents 12 and 14 indicated that the aim is “to make a difference in the community”

From the above responses it is clear that the sessions and workshops do have benefits for the respondents. The benefits also do not only include personal, but also family and community benefits.

4.3.2.3 Experience of the sessions

The respondents were asked to indicate how they find these sessions and workshops.

Fourteen (78%) of the respondents reported to find the sessions and workshops interesting, while nine (50%) also indicated the sessions and workshops to be helpful. Only one (6%) of the respondents found the sessions to be boring.

Based on the above findings, it is evident that mentor programmes should take into account the experiences of those young people who are participating in the programme. Mentor programmes should also find ways of making the programme interesting and exciting for the participants.

4.3.2.4 Parental support for the mentee

Respondents were asked whether their parents support their participation in the mentor programme.

Seventeen of the respondents reported their parents do support their participation in the mentor programme. Only 1 (6%) indicated that his parents do not support his participation in the programme. One reason for this respondent's feedback could be that he does not have a good relationship with his natural parents, and the fact that he is currently living with another family member. This finding corresponds with Rossouw (1999:62), who states that parents will have more influence on a young person's behaviour than their peers when there is a supportive, positive and cooperative relationship between the parent and the adolescent.

4.3.2.5 Forms of parental support

Respondents were asked to indicate in what way their parents support their participation in the mentor programme. Five (28%) of the respondents indicated that their parents often encourage them to attend the sessions. Six (33%) of the respondents felt that their parents showed an active interest in what they learned in each session. Twelve (67%) of the respondents felt supported through the parent's attendance of monthly parent meetings. Support from parents is vital in assisting the young person to achieve his goals. The findings correlate with Tuckman (1995), and Waas and Graczyk, (1998), who state that lack of parental support for the young person's participation in a group programme may militate against the achievement of useful gains for the young person, whereas parental and family support may help produce the desired outcomes.

Mentor programmes should also assess the attitudes of parents towards the participation of their children in a programme. Parental participation and support in the mentor programme hold benefits for both the programme as well as the parent-child relationship.

4.3.2.6 Role as a mentee

The respondents were asked to describe what they thought the role of the mentee was in the mentor relationship. The purpose was to ascertain their views about what they regard as their roles. Respondents were asked to mark those roles that they thought were applicable mentee roles. Their responses are presented in table 4.10.

Table 4. 10 Mentee role

Role	f	%
To listen to advice	10	56
To work together as a team	14	78
To ask for advice if I need it	8	44
To support other mentees on the programme	7	39
To learn from others	9	50

n = 18

The above table indicates that fourteen (78%) of the respondents felt that their role in the mentor programme was to work together as a team. This finding is consistent with the group-mentoring approach adopted by Hearts of Men. Ten (56%) of the respondents felt that their role was to listen to advice, nine (50%) felt that their role was to learn from others in the programme, eight (44%) to ask for advice when needed, and seven (39%) to support other mentees on the programme. These findings are in line with Lacey (2000) who states that successful mentoring relationships require that the young person has developed the character and ability to learn from others, to engage as a protégé in an intimate relationship with a person who can serve as a teacher. Valliant (1993) as found in Horne and Jollif (1999: 16), also indicates that the role of a young person in the mentor programme is the ability to listen to advice, work in collaboration with others, and manage anger and other strong emotions well.

Mentor programmes should have clear guidelines of the role of the mentee in the mentor relationship. The type of mentor programme (group vs. one-to-one mentor relationships) will also determine the nature of the mentee role.

4.3.2.7 Encouraging other young people to participate in a mentor programme

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether they would encourage other young people to be involved in a mentor programme. Respondents were also asked to motivate their responses. All 18 (100%) of the respondents reported that they would encourage other young people to be involve in a mentor programme.

The following responses were recorded:

Respondents 1, 3, 8 and 10 stated that “They will also learn to become a man’

Respondents 2 and 5 stated that “Yes, because they can also help other young people in the community”

Respondents 14,15 and 18 stated that “So they can also achieve their goals in life”

Respondents 6 and 16 stated that “Because people learn more from other people”

Respondent 7 stated that “So that they can make a difference in their circumstances”

Respondent 4 stated that “Because it helps young people with problems”

Respondents 9 and 11 stated that “It is a good programme”

Respondent 12 stated that “It does wonders to belong to a mentor programme. You learn more about yourself”

Respondents 13 and 17 stated that “To get young people off the streets and prevent them from becoming gangsters”

The responses of the respondents seem to indicate their positive experience of being involved in the mentor programme. It corresponds with the view of Reglin (1998) that involving young people in a personal relationship with an adult mentor helps in fostering a feeling of belonging and renewed interest in school. The mentoring process also allows for a positive outlet for leisure time and energy, which reduces involvement in negative behaviour.

4.3.3 ROLE OF THE MENTOR

In this section the respondents were asked to indicate whether they have a good relationship with the mentors in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme. They were also asked whether they know all the names of the mentors, whether they would trust a mentor with a personal problem and what they thought the role of the mentor was in the mentor programme.

4.3.3.1 Relationship with mentors

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they had a good relationship with the mentors. Their responses are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Relationship with mentors

Nature of relationship	F	%
Not good	2	11
Good	12	67
Excellent	4	22
Total	18	100

n = 18

The above table indicates that twelve (67%) of the respondents described their relationship with the mentors as good, four (22%) describe the relationship with the mentors as excellent, while only two (11%) described it as not so good.

4.3.3.2 Knowing the names of the mentors

Respondents were also asked whether they know all the names of the mentors on the “**Hearts of Men**” programme.

Fourteen (78%) of the respondents indicated that they know all the names of the mentors, while 4 (22%) do not know all the names of the mentors. An important aspect of the mentor programme is the development of the relationship between mentor and mentee. The finding suggests that more interaction and sharing should take place between mentors and mentees.

Mentoring programmes should develop mechanisms through which mentee and mentors get to know each other much better. The “**Hearts of Men**” programme gives each mentor and mentee, after their return from the

wilderness component, an animal name that symbolises the positive qualities in the individual. The weekly Hearts of Men sessions are started with a “check-in” whereby each person says his name and animal name and tells the group how he is doing. This helps in learning each others’ names.

4.3.3.3 Trusting mentors with a personal problem

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they would trust a mentor with a personal problem. The findings are presented below.

Sixteen (78%) of the respondents felt that they could trust a mentor with a personal problem that they have, while two (22%) felt that they could not trust the mentors with a problem. The 16 (78%) respondents who felt that a relationship of trust has been built with the mentors also felt that the mentors would not tell other people about their problem. Two (22%) of the respondents felt that they don’t know all the mentors that well to be able to trust them. Respondents also indicated that the ability to trust mentors did not necessarily relate to all mentors. These findings relate to Erikson (1963) who states that the sense of basic trust is one of the critical foundations for human development and bonding. The establishment of trust between the mentor and mentee is regarded as an essential dynamic in the professional helping profession (Samantrai, 1999: 33).

Mentor programmes should take into consideration the importance of trust in the relationship-building process. Growth and development will only occur when mentees feel that they can trust the mentors enough to be open about their problems.

4.3.3.4 Role of the mentor

Mentoring is a multifaceted activity. Mentors often support, guide, teach,

counsel, encourage, develop skills, compassion and intellect, and set an example (Mullen 1999). The respondents in this study were asked what they thought the role of the mentor is in the mentor relationship. Respondents were asked to mark off those roles that they felt were more relevant to the mentor. Their responses are presented in table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Mentor roles

Role	f	%
To listen to me when I have a problem	13	72
Help to solve my problems	12	67
Encourage me to do my best	12	67
Offer support	10	55
Encourage me to share my ideas and thoughts	10	55
Be my friend	8	44
To confront me if I did something wrong	7	39
Must give advice when I ask for it	7	39

n = 18

The above table reflects that thirteen (72%) of the respondents felt that the most important role of the mentor in the mentor programme was that of *"listening to the young person when he has a problem"*. *"Encouraging me to do my best"* and *"helping me solve my problems"* was rated as the second (twelve respondents or 67%) most important role of the mentor, while *"support"* and *"encouraging me to share my ideas and thoughts"* was rated as the third (ten respondents or 55%) most important role of the mentor. Eight (44%) of the respondents rated *friendship* as the fourth most important role, and *"confronting me if I did something wrong"* and *"giving of advice "* as the fifth (seven respondents or 39%) most important role of the mentor.

The findings correlate with Lacey (2000: 12) who advises that the mentor may be required to fulfill a number of roles which might include encouraging the exploration of ideas; encouraging risk taking in learning; listening when the mentee has a problem; providing appropriate and timely advice; providing appropriate skills training; assisting the mentee to identify and solve a problem; helping the mentee to shift their mental context; and confronting negative intentions or behaviours. It is thus clear that the mentor is expected to play an active role in the mentoring relationship.

Mentoring programmes should define the nature and role of the mentor, in order to assist the mentor in performing those functions and roles which are expected of them.

4.4 SUMMARY

The research findings contained in this chapter reflected the experiences and perceptions of young people participating in the Strand **“Hearts of Men”** programme. The findings gave a profile of the young persons participating in the mentor programme.

Several positive outcomes for the young people in the programme have been noted through the findings. It became clear in the findings that parents plays a very important role in supporting the young person in his development. Young people feel good about themselves when parents take an active interest in their activities. The findings also support the view that mentoring is a two-way, active process involving both mentors and mentees. The experiences of the respondents in this study is based on their participation in the mentor programme. Respondents gave their view of what they thought their role as well as the role of the mentor is in the mentor programme.

The data contained in these findings will be valuable to both mentors and programme staff to focus on areas of improvement in the programme. The information will also assist other agencies that might consider establishing mentoring programmes, with a focus on young people in particular. Mentoring programmes should set guidelines with regard to mentor and mentee roles and functions, in order to assist in the relationship-building process. Unrealistic expectations placed on both mentors and mentee might result in them exiting the programme.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The goal of this study is to provide guidelines for the development of a youth mentor programme based within a community setting. This goal was achieved and supported through the description of adolescence, factors influencing the development of adolescents, as well as the requirements needed for a youth mentor programme, based on a review of the literature and an empirical study. The study is descriptive and exploratory in nature. In this chapter, conclusions will be drawn, and recommendations will be made which can be regarded as guidelines for the development of youth mentoring programmes.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of the literature review and the empirical study, the following conclusions can be drawn. The conclusions will focus on identifying information, the role of the mentee and the role of the mentor.

5.2.1 Identifying information

All the respondents were male, and between the ages of 13 and 18. The gender of the participants should be consistent with the objectives of the mentor programme. The ages of participants in a mentor programme are important indicators of the development phases that they are in. It can be concluded that a mentor programme should take the gender and age of the mentees into consideration.

The findings indicate that while most of the respondent's parents were married, the majority of the families are stepfamilies or reconstructed families. It can be concluded that both programme staff and mentors need to know the family composition of the young person on the mentor programme, in order to understand the impact of family disintegration on the development of the young person.

- **Relationship with peer group**

The majority of the respondents reported to have more than two friends, and eleven (61%) of the respondents do have a special friend with whom they can talk if they have a problem. It can be concluded that peer friends are important in the lives of the young people because they prefer to be in the company of groups of other young people.

- **Trusted relationship with adults**

The establishment of a significant and positive relationship with adults is an important indicator of resilience in young people. The findings, however, indicate that the majority of the respondents do not have a trusted relationship with an adult, other than their parents, to whom they can turn in a time of crisis. Those respondents that indicated that they do have a trusted relationship with an adult indicated the trusted adult to be their sibling, a friend and other family members.

It can therefore be concluded that the objective of the mentor programme should be to build a relationship between adults and young people. It is important for mentors to understand the importance and function of the mentoring relationship with regard to the development of the mentor-mentee relationship.

- **Community involvement**

Community involvement and interaction is an important factor in young people's development. In respect of the respondent's level of involvement in their community, it was found that the majority of the respondents are not involved in any community organisations, like sports and youth clubs.

It can be concluded that the mentor programme should provide mechanisms and activities, such as community service projects, to get young people involved in their community.

- **Religious affiliation and activity**

Religion plays an important role in the behaviour and attitudes of adolescents. It was found that the majority of the respondents belong to a church or mosque, and that they attend regular religious activities. It can be concluded that mentors in the mentor programme should be sensitive to the absence or presence of religious activity of a particular community. Mentors should have an understanding of the effect of "religiousness" on the young person's behaviour, and be sensitive to the fact that young people might hold different religious beliefs.

- **Delinquent activities**

Anti-social behaviour is a developmental phenomenon that starts early in life, and often continues through childhood and adolescence into adulthood. The findings indicate that the respondents were involved in a number of delinquent activities, prior to their involvement in the "**Hearts of Men**" programme. Some of the respondents were previously in conflict with the law. It can be concluded that assessment of the young person's previous criminal involvement is an important indicator of continued criminal involvement. Mentor programmes

should address the issues of crime and particularly youth crime, and the effect that it has on the development of the mentees.

- **Smoking and drinking habits**

Ten of the respondents do not smoke while eight do. About a quarter of the smokers smoke cigarettes on a daily basis. None of the respondents reported using illegal drugs. It can be concluded that those respondents who used illegal drugs before their involvement in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme reported not using those substances anymore.

The majority of the respondents also do not use any alcohol. It can be concluded that the use of alcohol should be included in the prevention programme of a mentor programme.

- **Sexual experiences**

The findings indicate that the majority (twelve or 67%) of the respondents never had sexual intercourse before. While those who are sexually active do use condoms during sexual intercourse, only one respondent indicated not using condoms during sexual intercourse. It can be concluded that sexuality and sex education should be an important aspect of a mentor programme.

All the respondents indicated that they have been informed by their teachers, parents, friends, doctors and other organisations about the dangers of sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS. Teachers account for 78% of those that supply information on HIV/AIDS. It can be concluded that young people receive their information about sex from a variety of sources.

- **School record**

The findings indicate that only one respondent did not attend school. The majority of the respondents indicated their progress at school to be average, while all of the respondents indicated that they attend school regularly. The majority of the respondents have never been suspended from school before, while only five of the respondents have been suspended from school previously. It can be concluded that education is an important aspect of young people's development and that they should be encouraged to complete their schooling.

5.2.2 The role of the mentee

- **Attendance of Hearts of Men sessions and workshops**

The findings indicate that fifteen (83%) of the respondents attend the mentor sessions and workshops regularly. The respondents indicated that the purpose of these sessions and workshops was to develop them as young people. The respondents listed the gains of these sessions to be personal, where the development focused on improving their social skills; familial, where the sessions and workshop assisted them in improving their relationship with their fathers in particular; and community gains which focused on making a difference in the community where they live. It can be concluded that participation in a mentor programme have positive outcomes for young people.

The majority of the respondents found the "**Hearts of Men**" sessions and workshops to be interesting and helpful. The findings also indicate parental involvement and support for the respondents to be very high. Parents support the respondents by encouraging them to attend the weekly "**Hearts of Men**" sessions, asking feedback from the respondents about these sessions, and by

attending monthly parent meetings. It can be concluded that parent support for young people is important.

- **Mentee roles**

The respondents identified the roles that are important for a mentee on a mentor programme. The majority of the respondents indicated that working together as a team is important, followed by listening to advice, learning from others in the programme, asking for advice when needed, and supporting other mentees on the programme. It can be included that mentees are aware of their role in the mentor programme.

- **Encouraging other young people to participate in a mentor programme**

All 18 of the respondents indicated that they would encourage other young people to participate in a mentor programme. It can be concluded that the young people participating in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme have a positive experience of the programme.

5.2.3 The role of the mentor

The findings related to the role of the mentor are as follows:

- **Relationship with mentors**

The findings indicates that twelve of the respondents have a good relationship with the mentors, while four described the relationship with the mentors as excellent, with only two respondents indicating their relationship with the mentors to be not so good. It can be concluded that the development of the mentor – mentee relationship is important in a mentor programme.

- **Knowing the names of the mentors**

The majority of the respondents indicated that they know all the names of the mentors, while only four indicated that they don't know the names of all the mentors in the programme. It can be concluded that mentor programmes should encourage interpersonal sharing and communication between mentors and mentees.

- **Trusting mentors with a personal problem**

Most of the respondents indicated that they trust mentors with personal problems, while two felt that they could not trust mentors with a personal problem. The two respondents who indicated that they do not trust the mentors with a personal problem attributed their responses to the fact that they do not trust the mentors enough. It can be concluded that trust building is an important component of a mentor programme.

- **Role of the mentor**

The findings indicate that the majority of the respondents perceive the role of the mentor to be that of listening to the young person when he has a problem, followed by 'encouraging me to do my best', and "helping me solve my problems". Other roles that were identified included "support", "encouraging me to share my ideas and thoughts", "friendship", "confronting me if I did something wrong" and "giving advice". It can be concluded that mentors and mentees should receive training in the roles and functions of the mentor in a mentor programme.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings in the empirical study, and the subsequent conclusions drawn from this study, the following recommendations are made. These recommendations can be used to develop guidelines for the establishment of youth mentoring programmes.

5.3.1 Timing of intervention

It is recommended that timing in the development of youth mentor programmes takes into account the development phases of the young person. As observed in the study it was clear that young people in the mentor programme was between their early and late adolescent development phase. It is therefore important to understand the developmental tasks of the particular stage as well as the impact of moving to a next phase without completing the tasks of the previous phase.

5.3.2 Assessment of mentees

It is recommended that programme staff should assess every young person participating in a mentor programme. This assessment should include a psychosocial, an educational as well as a medical assessment. Assessments are tools that programme staff could use to help vulnerable young people.

5.3.3 Screening of mentors

It is recommended that organisations wishing to establish mentor programmes should develop a thorough screening process for its potential mentors. Every volunteer who is interested in becoming a mentor, should indicate at least three references and should be interviewed. Factors such as the reason for volunteering, emotional maturity, job stability, the quality of family relationships

as well as previous criminal records, should be focused on during the screening process.

5.3.4 Mentor training and support

It is recommended that mentors should be properly trained in order to fulfil the mentor function. Mentors should receive training in identifying at-risk youth, understanding youth development, as well as understanding theories relating to youth development and the roles and responsibilities of a mentor. Mentor programmes should provide the necessary ongoing support to mentors.

5.3.5 Parental involvement

The involvement of parents is critical in ensuring positive outcomes for the young person in a mentor programme. It is therefore recommended that the involvement of parents should be regarded as an integral part of the youth mentoring programme.

5.3.6 Community involvement

It is recommended that community-based youth mentoring should provide activities and mechanisms through which young people can become more involved in their communities. Mentoring programmes should therefore have a community service component to contribute to the spirit of volunteerism and community building in South Africa.

5.3.7 The programme content

Because adolescence is characterised by physical development, including the development of sexual maturity, it is recommended that youth mentor programmes should pay specific attention to addressing the issue of sexual

development of the adolescent, with specific reference to HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted infections and the dangers of unprotected sex.

5.3.8 Further research

It is recommended that further studies be undertaken to determine:

- Ways of involving fathers more in the lives of their sons
- The impact of father-absence on juvenile delinquency
- The experience of the mentor in the mentoring relationship

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University of Stellenbosch

Department of Sociology & Social Work

2003

TITLE: GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH MENTOR PROGRAMMES

QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to explore the socio-economic circumstances of young people participating in the “**Hearts of Men**” programme. The aim is also to explore their perception of their role as well as the role of the mentor in the mentoring programme.

INSTRUCTIONS

The questionnaire consists of a number of questions. Indicate your response next to the appropriate answer with an “X”. Please give your opinion if necessary.

1. IDENTIFYING PARTICULARS

1.1 Respondent's Age: _____

Answer boxed questions by placing a cross (x) in the appropriate box.

1.2 Where do you live?

	Broadlands Park
	Gustrouw
	Cassablanca
	Rusthof
	Sercor Park
	Helderberg Park
	South fork
	Lwandle

1.3 With whom do you live?

Mother	Father	Both Parents	Step Parent	Foster parent	Guardian	Friend	On my own	Other Family	Other

1.3.1 If other, specify:

1.4 The persons I live with are:

Married	Separated	Widowed	Divorced	Living together	Single	Not Applicable

2. RELATIONSHIP WITH PEERS

2.1 How many good friends do you have?

Many (5 & more)	Few (2 – 5)	One	None

2.2 Do you have a special friend with whom you can talk about things that bother you?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

2.3 Do you have a close relationship with any other adult (not parent) to whom you could turn to in a crisis?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

2.3.1 If yes, with whom?

Sibling	Teacher	Friend	Other
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2.3.2 If other, specify

3. SOCIO-CULTURAL ACTIVITIES

3.1 Do you belong to any sports clubs, youth groups or organizations in your community?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

3.1.1 If yes, specify

3.2 Do you belong to any church or religious body?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

3.2.1 If yes specify.

3.2.2 How often do you attend church/mosque?

Often	Seldom	Never

4. Emotional and Behavioural Development

a. Delinquent offences

4.1 About which of the following have you been in trouble in the last year?

	Stealing / Shoplifting
	Assault/threatening behaviour/vandalism
	Getting drunk
	Glue sniffing/drugs
	Involvement with gang activity
	Running away from home
	Other

4.1.1 If yes to any of the above, please specify:

4.2 Have you been in trouble with the police and / or charged with a criminal offence within the last year prior to your involvement in the programme?

	Yes
	No

4.2.1 If yes, give details of the offence

Date of offence	Charge	Were you found		Case withdrawn	Case still pending
		Guilty	Not guilty		

4.2.2 If you were convicted for the offence, what was the sentence or punishment that you received ?

	Formal caution
	Suspended sentence
	Attended a diversion programme e.g. (Youth Empowerment Scheme or community service)
	Prison
	Other: _____

b. Smoking and drinking habits

4.3 Do you smoke:

	Yes
	No

4.3.1 If yes, how many a day?

Between 1 -2	Between 2 -5	5 and more

4.4 Do you drink alcohol:

	Yes
	No

4.4.1 If yes, do you normally drink

	During the week
	Weekends
	Mostly at special functions (parties etc.)

c. Sexual relationships

5.1 Are you sexually active (have you had sexual intercourse before?)

	Yes
	No

5.1.1 If yes, are you using any contraception? (like condoms)

	Yes
	No

5.2 Has anybody talked to you about the risk of catching sexually transmitted diseases, including AIDS?

	Yes
	No

5.2.1 If yes, who?

	Parents
	Teacher
	Doctor
	Friends
	Other:

6. SCHOOL RECORD

6.1 In which grade are you?

Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12

6.2 How well are you doing at school?

Poor	Average	Excellent

6.3 How often do you complete homework?

Daily	Some days	Never

6.4 Do you attend school regularly?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

6.5 Have you ever been suspended from school?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

7. ROLE AS A MENTEE

7.1 How often do you attend sessions (weekly meetings) and workshops?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Not often
<input type="checkbox"/>	Often
<input type="checkbox"/>	Very often

7.2 What is the purpose of these sessions (weekly meetings) and workshops?

7.3 How do you find these sessions and workshops?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Exciting
<input type="checkbox"/>	Boring
<input type="checkbox"/>	Helpful
<input type="checkbox"/>	Unhelpful

7.4 Do your parents support your participation in this programme?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

7.4.1 If yes, how do they support you?

7.4.2. If no, how does that make you feel?

7.5 What do you think is your role as a mentee?

	To listen to advice
	To work as part of a team
	To ask for advice and support if I need it
	To support other mentees on the programme
	To learn from others
	Other: _____

7.6 Would you encourage other young people to be part of a mentor programme?

	Yes
	No

7.6.1 Motivate:

8. ROLE OF THE MENTOR

8.1 How would you describe your relationship with the mentors?

	Not Good
	Good
	Excellent

8.2 Do you know all the names of the mentors on the programme?

	Yes
	No

8.3 Do you feel that you can trust the mentors with a personal problem?

	Yes
	No

8.3.1 Motivate:

8.4 What do you think is the role of the mentor in the programme?

	Support
	Listen to me when I have a problem
	Provide advice when I ask for it
	Help me solve my problems
	Confront me when I do something wrong.
	Encourage me to do my best
	Be my friend
	Encourage me to explore and share my ideas

THANK YOU

Universiteit van Stellenbosch

Departement Sosiologie & Maatskaplike Werk

2003

TITEL: GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH MENTOR PROGRAMMES

VRAELYS

Die doel van hierdie vraelys is om die omstandighede van jongmense in die “**Hearts of Men**” mentorprogram te ondersoek, asook hulle persepsies en ervaring van deelname aan ‘n mentorprogram te bepaal.

INSTRUKSIES

Die vraelys bestaan uit ‘n aantal vrae. Merk telkens met ‘n “X” teenoor die gepaste antwoord vir u respons. Gee asseblief u mening waar dit gevra word.

1 IDENTIFISERENDE BESONDERHEDE

1.1: U ouderdom: _____

Beantwoord die vrae deur ‘n kruisie (X) te plaas in die toepaslike blokkie.

1.2 Waar woon u?

	Broadlands Park
	Gustrouw
	Cassablanca
	Rusthof
	Sercor Park
	Helderberg Park
	South Fork
	Strand

1.3 By wie woon u?

Moeder	Vader	Beide ouers	Stiefouer	Pleegouer	Voog	Vriend	Op my eie	Ander Familie	Ander

1.3.1 Indien ander, spesifiseer:

1.4 Die persone by wie ek woon is:

Getroud	Vervreemd	Wewenaar/weduwee	Geskei	Woon saam	Enkel	Nie van toepassing

2. VERHOUDING MET PORTUURGROEP

2.3 Hoeveel goeie vriende het jy?

Baie (5 & meer)	'n Paar (2 – 5)	Een	Geen

2.4 Het jy 'n spesiale vriend met wie jy kan gesels indien iets jou pla?

	Ja
	Nee

2.3 Het jy 'n goeie verhouding met enige volwassene (nie jou ouers) met wie jy kan gesels in krisistye?

	Ja
	Nee

2.3.1 Indien ja, met wie?

Broer/suster	Onderwyser	Vriend	Ander

2.3.2 Indien ander, spesifiseer

3. SOSIO-KULTURELE AKTIWITEITE

3.3 Behoort jy aan enige sportklubs, jeuggroep of organisasie in jou gemeenskap?

	Ja
	Nee

3.1.1 Indien ja, spesifiseer

3.4 Behoort jy aan 'n kerk of enige godsdienstige liggaam?

	Ja
	Nee

3.2.1 Indien ja, spesifiseer.

3.2.2 Hoe gereeld woon jy kerk of moskee by?

Gereeld	Baie min	Nooit

4. Emosionele Ontwikkeling en Gedrag

a. Jeugoortredings

4.1 Vir watter van die volgende was jy die laaste jaar in die moeilikheid?

	Steel/winkeldiefstal
	Aanranding/vandalisme en dreigende gedrag
	Dronk
	Dwelms/gom snuif
	Betrokkenheid by bende aktiwiteite
	Weggehardloop van die huis
	Ander

4.1.1 Spesifiseer :

4.2 Was jy in die laaste jaar, voor jou betrokkenheid by die program, in die moeilikheid by die polisie, of aangekla van 'n kriminele oortreding?

	Ja
	Nee

4.2.1 Indien ja, verskaf besonderhede van die oortreding.

Datum van oortreding	Klag	Wat was die bevinding		Saak teruggetrek	Saak is steeds aan die gang
		Skuldig	Nie skuldig		

4.2.2 Indien jy skuldig bevind is, wat was die vonnis of straf wat jy ontvang het?

	Formele waarskuwing
	Opgeskorte vonnis
	Verwys na afwentelingsprogram bv. (Jeugskool of gemeenskapsdiens)
	Gevangenisstraf
	Ander: _____

b. Rook en drinkgewoontes

4.3 Rook jy?

	Ja
	Nee

4.3.1 Indien ja, hoeveel 'n dag?

Tussen 1 –2	Tussen 2 –5	5 en meer

4.4 Gebruik jy enige dwelmmiddels, bv. dagga, mandrax ens?

	Ja
	Nee

4.4.1 Indien ja, watter dwelmmiddels gebruik jy?

	Dagga
	Mandrax
	Ecstasy
	Kokaine
	Heroïne
	Ander: _____

4.5 Drink jy alkohol?

	Ja
	Nee

4.5.1 Indien ja, drink jy gewoonlik:

	Gedurende die week
	Naweke
	Meesal by spesiale geleenthede (partytjies ens.)

c. Seksuele verhoudings

5.1 Is jy seksueel aktief (het jy al voorheen seksuele omgang gehad)?

	Ja
	Nee

5.1.1 Indien ja, gebruik jy voorbehoedmiddels? (soos kondome)

	Ja
	Nee

5.2 Het enige persoon al met jou gesels oor die risiko wat jy het om seksueel oordragbare siektes, insluitende Vigs, op te doen?

	Ja
	Nee

5.2.1 Indien ja, wie?

	Ouers
	Onderwyser
	Dokter
	Vriende
	Ander: _____

6. SKOOL REKORD

6.1 In watter graad is jy?

Graad 8	Graad 9	Graad 10	Graad 11	Graad 12

6.2 Hoe goed vorder jy op skool?

Swak	Gemiddeld	Uitstekend

6.3 Hoe gereeld doen jy huiswerk?

Daaglik	Slegs sekere dae	Nooit

6.4 Woon jy gereeld skool by?

	Ja
	Nee

6.5 Is jy al ooit geskors uit die skool?

	Ja
	Nee

7. ROL AS 'N MENTEE

7.1 Hoe gereeld woon jy sessies (weeklikse byeenkomste) en werksinkels by?

	Nie gereeld nie
	Gereeld
	Baie min

7.2 Wat is die doel van hierdie sessies en werksinkels?

7.3 Hoe vind jy hierdie sessies en werksinkels?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Interessant
<input type="checkbox"/>	Vervelig
<input type="checkbox"/>	Helpvol
<input type="checkbox"/>	Nie helpvol

7.4 Ondersteun jou ouers jou deelname aan die program?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Ja
<input type="checkbox"/>	Nee

7.4.1 Indien ja, hoe ondersteun hulle jou?

7.4.2. Indien nee, hoe laat dit jou voel?

7.5 Wat dink jy is jou rol as 'n mentee?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Te luister na advies
<input type="checkbox"/>	Saam te werk as 'n span
<input type="checkbox"/>	Te vra vir advies en ondersteuning indien ek dit benodig
<input type="checkbox"/>	Om ander mentees op die program te ondersteun
<input type="checkbox"/>	Te leer van ander
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ander: _____

7.6 Sal jy ander jong mense aanraai om deel te neem aan 'n mentorprogram?

	Ja
	Nee

7.6.1 Motiveer:

8. ROL VAN DIE MENTOR

8.1 Hoe sal jy jou verhouding met die mentors beskryf?

	Nie goed nie
	Goed
	Uitstekend

8.2 Ken jy al die name van die mentors op die program?

	Ja
	Nee

8.3 Voel jy dat jy die mentors kan vertrou met 'n persoonlike probleem?

	Ja
	Nee

8.3.1 Motiveer:

8.4 Wat dink jy is die rol van die mentor in die program?

	Ondersteuning te bied
	Na my te luister wanneer ek 'n probleem het
	Advies gee indien ek vra daarvoor
	Help om my probleme op te los
	Om my te konfronteer indien ek iets verkeerd gedoen het
	My aanmoedig om my beste te doen
	My vriend wees
	My aanmoedig om my idees en gedagtes te deel

BAIE DANKIE