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SELF-CONCEPT AS A MEASURE OF SUCCESS
IN THE MILITARY ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

This piece of research is an attempt to evaluate the relationship between military 'success' and the psychological preparedness of recruits in terms of their self-concepts and locus of control orientations. The new recruit is forced to adapt to the military environment which will, in turn, attempt to change him into an effective soldier. It was noticed by the researcher, who was involved in military training at the time, that a number of recruits, even some with seemingly limited potential, coped well, while others who seemed to have the ability failed to cope adequately.

Recruits completed questionnaires which provided the researcher with biographical data and background information. In addition, the Bledsoe Self-Concept Scale and the Nowicki and Strickland Locus of Control Scale were used in order to determine their self-concepts and locus of control orientations respectively, prior to the beginning of national service. Detailed unstructured interviews were also conducted with a sample of military personnel, to provide another basis for gathering data and for clarifying some of the issues involved.

Briefly, the chief conclusion of this researcher is that a significant majority of 'successful' recruits in the military environment have a positive self-concept and an internal locus of control.

On the basis of the above finding, it is suggested that there is a need to guide pupils about certain aspects of military life before they begin their National Service. There would seem to be a need for this

guidance to be incorporated into the school curriculum, together with such practical aspects as cadets, shooting, etc.

There is a shortage of this kind of research on the military situation in South Africa, and it is suggested that numerous issues in this field need to be researched for the benefit of future conscripts and the military alike.

Introduction

The personal experience of being a recruit, completing a leadership course and becoming an officer at a military base has provided me with the source for this study. I noticed that a number of fellow recruits (and, at a later stage, a number of recruits in my platoon) who had limited potential coped well within the parameters of the given military environment. They did not allow themselves to be broken down, nor did they continuously rebel against the organisation. However, there were others who seemed to have the potential, yet they failed to cope adequately. This anomaly became more apparent as the two-year period of national service progressed.

I embarked on this project hoping to find out the reasons for this anomaly, so that some pupils at least might benefit from the research. I felt that, if one could enlighten a pupil to the extent where he could learn to 'play the game', it would provide him with bases from which to cope more successfully in this environment.

As a teacher-psychologist for the past two years, I have discovered that the most common enquiry made by the senior boys is one concerning 'hidden' knowledge. "Tell us what it's like" rather than "Tell us what you do" seems to be the more common request. They are far less interested in the military activities such as shooting, drilling, hikes, etc.; they want to know about the atmosphere, the pressure from authoritarian figures, and generally they strive to obtain a feeling about the military environment. It is for this reason that Chapter I, which attempts to exploit this 'hidden' knowledge within the military

environment, is viewed as crucial to this piece of research.

The focus of this study is to assess the military 'success' rate of recruits in terms of their self-concepts and locus of control orientations. The target population was on hand and I was able to count on the cooperation of most when administering the scales and questionnaires. The interviewees were in no way reluctant to volunteer honest opinions and information about the subject matter at hand, for it could not threaten or incriminate them (or me) in any way.

An immense problem to overcome was the tracking of recruits as they progressed from one course to another and from one military camp to another. A large number were 'lost' because I had neither the financial nor the administrative means of tracking them down. The problem of not being able to contact the sample at the end of their national service meant that I was unable to readminister the Scales. This was a disappointment as I expected some significant changes and interesting data to have been forthcoming. As a result of this, a major problem arose, viz. the need to accept the military criteria of 'success' or 'failure'. The relevant issues of methodology will be more exhaustively dealt with in the chapter on Method, Methodology and Analysis of Data (Chapter III).

Intuition, based on personal observations and experience of the military environment, suggested that recruits with a positive self-concept and an internal locus of control orientation would succeed better than the others. This research effort tends to support what was initially a personal, unsubstantiated opinion.

The findings of this particular piece of research cannot be generalised to any other context since it is very definitely specific in both context and setting. However, despite the limitations, it could be seen as a useful pilot study which might stimulate further research within the military environment and the field of guidance in schools. It might be useful, for example, to measure the self-concepts and locus of control orientations of subjects both prior to and after completion of military service, and to investigate the influence of environmental factors which might have effected some change.

Briefly, the thesis has been organised as follows:

Chapter I will offer an in-depth look at military life for a conscript in the South African army. It is also an attempt to clarify what 'success' or 'failure' mean in a military environment.

Chapter II will look at Self-Theory; Chapter III at Methods, Methodological Issues and an Analysis of the Data; and Chapter IV will offer Conclusions and Recommendations.

Chapter I : THE MILITARY ENVIRONMENT

NOTE : Chapter I is a detailed description of life in an army camp. It endeavours to discover the causes of the negative psychological impact that the camp can have on the recruits. Also, it attempts to clarify what 'success' and 'failure' mean in a military environment.

It should be noted that the description is global, incorporating a number of opinions about a number of camps. Because of the numerous transfers that take place as a result of course specialisation and promotion, as well as border duty, it is unlikely that a national serviceman will ever spend the whole duration of his service in one camp.

This investigation into the environment of the camp is based largely on the subjective experience of the writer and on the comments of randomly selected men who were about to serve, were serving or had served in the army.

This chapter offers useful information and insights into various aspects of the military environment. It has been offered as the opening chapter of this thesis because it is felt that a basic understanding of life in a military environment is essential before launching into a discussion of theoretical and methodological issues. Data from the unstructured interviews has been used in this chapter in an attempt to help clarify a number of perceptions. The interview itself, as a methodological tool, will be discussed in Chapter III.

In sum, then, this chapter is an attempt at providing the reader with a feeling of how the recruit experiences the environment of the camp, and to clarify what 'success' and 'failure' in a military environment mean.

1. The Army as an Organisation

Armies are very resistant to change and this fact can be ascribed, in part, to the very nature of the organisational structure by which they are run. Some constancy is needed in a large organisation for corporate goals to be achieved, but it would appear that all would benefit from a military system that permits more flexibility. Dalin (1978) criticises the bureaucratic systems that have been adopted in the Western world, and goes on to say that, according to Weber, it appears that armies have adopted the following elements typical of bureaucracies:

- a) Specialisation of tasks and division of labour - for example, corps training (i.e. infantry, personnel, medical, administration, parabats, etc.)
- b) A rigid and clearly defined hierarchy of authority
- c) Rules and regulations to limit the behaviour of individuals
- d) Impersonality of interpersonal relationships - people relate to each other through their role designations
- e) Military staff focus their attention on specific tasks rather than on broad military or political goals.
- f) Decision-making is located in the upper levels of the hierarchy.
- g) Subordinates are generally loyal and fail to criticise existing conditions.

Clearly, much of this is true of the South African Defence Force, but is there a better solution, one that is as acceptable and as functional or workable?

With regard to point (g) above, the South African Defence Force prevents anyone in its employ from criticising it or its function in public. Under certain circumstances only may military personnel of lower order rank be permitted to speak to the press or make statements.

The following are some of the possible dysfunctional consequences of the application of bureaucratic principles to military systems.

a) The hierarchical arrangement of superordination suggests that the man at the top is able to tell his subordinates what to do, and to guide their doing of it. While this may apply in a global view of the situation, it does not necessarily apply at the lowest level, where expertise and specialisation do not always refer to tasks, but rather to the people involved.

One of the major problems identified with a new intake of recruits is the balance created between task- and people-orientation. Both constituents are of the utmost importance in relation to military achievements; therefore both should be continually considered. For example, a leader who cares only about task completion will lose men, and a leader who cares only about men will never complete a task effectively.

Abbott (1969) suggests that a rationalisation has taken place and many leaders are seen as being charismatic, hence their position is accepted

by their subordinates. A nonsensical notion allied to this arrangement of authority, is that delegation is possible in such a system, but that ultimate responsibility rests with those in superordinate roles.

"When the concept of responsibility is used in this way, it readily becomes translated into blamability; that is, the administrator who feels that he must be responsible for the decisions of his subordinates must also accept the blame for their errors. For self-preservation, therefore, he must retain the ultimate power to make decisions, or to veto the decisions of subordinates. In doing so, he fails to provide for any effective delegation of authority, and he perpetuates the monistic conception of hierarchical role definitions." (Abbott, 1969, p. 46)

As a result of this organisation, any innovation or suggestion from below can be stifled from above, especially if it may result in the superordinate being blamed for failure.

b) A second dysfunction is the fact that in terms of roles, superordinate positions are defined more in terms of rights, while subordinate roles are defined in terms of obligations. Examples of some of the rights of superordinates are (Abbott, 1969):

i) The right to veto or affirm personal goals of subordinates. For example, those seeking promotion need to attend certain courses with a supporting recommendation from at least their immediate commander.

- ii) The right to control communications through the channels.
For example, a request from a national serviceman may not reach the intended person if it is vetoed by one of his immediate subordinates.

Abbott points out that subordinates reinforce the monistic hierarchy system through playing the game which he calls "status charade". The first step in the game involves solidarity from the performing team. This is achieved through only allowing hierarchical positions to be filled by those people who are able to create the right impressions - i.e. loyalty, sound judgement and looking busy at all times etc. - because, after all, the leaders must be the ablest, most loyal, most reliable, most industrious, most self-controlled etc. people in the organisation. In order to get into the hierarchy, the subordinates need to

"... follow the rules of this game of charades by creating the impression that they are awed by their superiors, that the performance of the superiors has gone off well, and by creating the impression that they need to be told what to do and how to do it."

(Abbott, 1969, p.43)

In this way, gaining promotion in the military organisation is usually guaranteed to those who conform and don't rock the boat. As a result of this, any possible change of the system by people who think 'differently' is unlikely, as these people rarely gain access to power that will enable them to effect changes. Therefore the resistance to change in bureaucracies arises from the costs of investment in training and

experience, and psychological commitment to programmes that represent a continuation rather than a change. This resistance can also be ascribed to the fact that people within the organisation are psychologically committed to constancy. The following practical example demonstrates this clearly:

Danie : "In Oudtshoorn we had a company commander who was 'different' to all the others. He treated us like human beings and built up our morale by rewarding us for good work with passes. Because of his approach we (nearly the whole company, without exception) gave him everything we had, and we won the consequent evaluations hands down. We liked him immensely. He was obviously taking extreme pressure from above about giving us unauthorised passes and rewards, etc. because it was not long before he was transferred away from our company and given an administrative position - even though our results had proved far above the required standard."

1.1 The Structure of the Camp

An Infantry army camp (Battalion) normally consists of five or six Infantry Companies and a Headquarter element. The Infantry Companies are involved with training, task execution and border duty, while the Headquarter element is involved in all the administration with respect to the camp as a whole - this includes aspects such as logistics, training schedules, general administration, medicals and payment.

A typical infantry company would consist of the following:

- a) A company commander (either a major or a captain)
- b) A company second-in-command (either a captain or a lieutenant)
- c) A company sergeant-major
- d) An administration lieutenant
- e) Four or five platoon commanders (lieutenants)
- f) Four or five platoon sergeants
- g) Four or five corporals
- h) A number of section leaders (lance corporals)
- i) Four or five platoons (sometimes more) of approximately thirty to forty troops

A typical company is between 150 and 200 strong, depending on how many platoons it contains and whether it has a special attachment, for example, troops especially trained in tracking and mine detection.

On arrival at the camp, however, the majority of the new recruits have very little idea about the structure involved and about how the system works.

Most of the towns in which infantry camps are situated - Oudtshoorn (where leadership training takes place), Bloemfontein, Walvis Bay, Potchefstroom, Ladysmith, Upington, Grahamstown and Phalaborwa - were chosen because of their harsh, extreme climate. This is to teach the recruit survival, and to cope with the most taxing of conditions. The winters are normally very cold, often temperatures below freezing are recorded, and the summers extremely hot. On the South West Africa/Namibia border with Angola, where operational duty takes place, the prevailing weather patterns are also extreme, hot and dry.

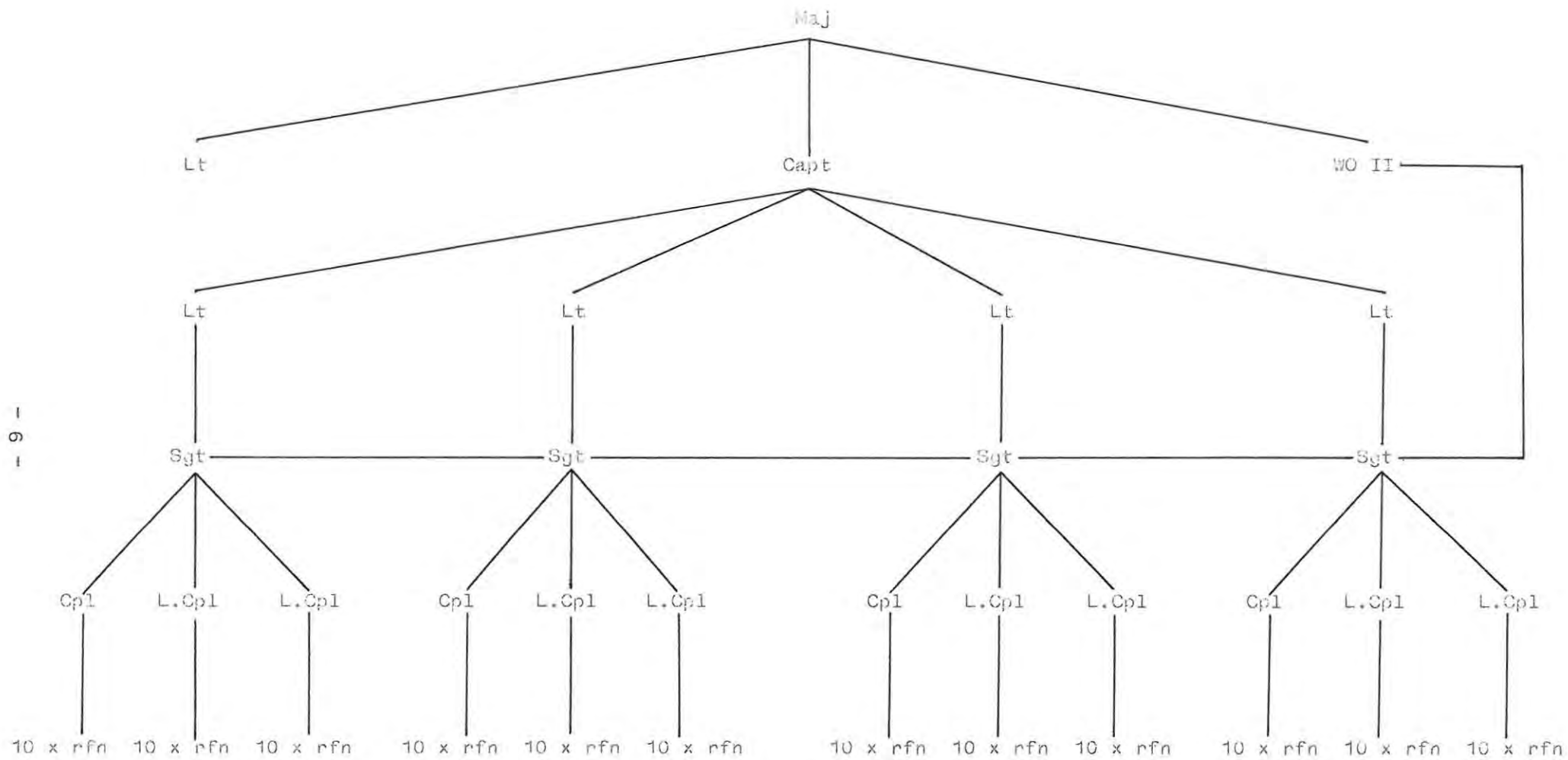
Arrival at the camp for the first time normally occurs very late at night or in the early hours of the morning. The probable reason for this is that none of the towns in which the camps are situated are railhead towns, and not too important either, which generally means that the train is passing through. In the case of Walvis Bay and Grahamstown the section of the train destined for these places is detached from the main line and then transported into the town. The first impression obtained is that the trip was organised in such a way that you would arrive at this time - something which tends to lower morale.

Sport takes place officially once a week in the afternoon, usually on a Wednesday, and everybody takes part. If one is not a sportsman, or has no preference, then one plays what is called 'potted sports'. This is a game or a series of games organised by the army, where one takes part in events such as hand-grenade throwing, pole P.T., and 'skaap-dra' (carrying a friend in a carcass position in a relay-type event).

In the first couple of weeks of training, much of the training time is devoted to the learning of menial tasks such ironing, bed-making, boot polishing etc. ... and, of course, the 'break down' technique which is intended to subject each and every troop to a series of hardships to which he will surrender. Eventually, however, he is rebuilt in a fashion suited to the army - in order to reach their so-called levels of 'combat soldier perfection'.

The formal power structure of an Infantry Company can be displayed diagrammatically as shown in Table 1 on the following page.

Table 1



1.2 The Daily Programme

Each day is divided into a number of periods during which training takes place. Much of the training is of the practical kind, for example, loading a magazine with rounds in a certain time, or drill. Many of these facets of training are learnt by repetition. Day in and day out certain tasks are practiced until completely mastered. Competitions are held and motivation becomes a very important ingredient. Morale among the troops is normally high during this phase, if handled correctly. Encouragement is of utmost importance, and even though strict disciplinary codes are adhered to there are times when fun and joking is in order. If you are lucky enough to have a good leader-group element in your platoon, someone who can handle the position he is in and not feel threatened, a very good situation can evolve. Most things he presents will be presented as a challenge and the esprit de corps in the platoon will soon become one where the troops are proud of what they've achieved and proud to be members. The rivalry on intra-company level is healthy for the company itself - word soon gets around that 'Lieutenant X' is the best guy around. His troops stick up for him, trust him, and approach him when they have problems. The assigned duties of a lieutenant in the army can be favourably compared to the position of a teacher, with two exceptions:

- a) The syllabus is task-oriented and practical.
- b) Pastoral care of your men is total and your day is at least sixteen hours long at the beginning of basic training.

The following is an example of a typical daily programme:

04h30	wake up
04h45 - 05h15	breakfast
05h15 - 06h00	inspection
06h00 - 06h10	quiet time
06h10 - 10h10	training (depending on the phase)
10h10 - 10h30	tea
10h30 - 12h30	training
12h30 - 13h30	lunch
13h30 - 15h30	training
15h30 - 16h30	physical training
16h30 - 17h30	sport/free time
17h30 - 18h30	supper
18h30 - 22h20	preparation for next day's inspection, etc.
22h20 - 22h30	quiet time
22h30	lights out

1.3 The Platoon

The regimental tradition in existence in the South African Army originated from the British influence, and has been moulded over the years to attain its present form and stature. Military tactics have traditionally been based on the need for mutual support among the men, which involves highly institutionalised groups. The interrelationship of the group and the individual is important in determining the soldier's willingness to fight for the group, his resistance to psychological breakdown and his relationship with the formal structure of the army.

The group is a fundamental social situation. The average person, particularly one from an urban environment, has a more or less continuous association with groups of one sort or another; for example, school groups, sports teams and clubs and occupational groups.

The platoon is a task-oriented group and, although not always recognised by the military authorities, the social dimension never becomes unimportant. This social dimension includes the way members perceive, relate and interact with one another. Much communication within the group will relate to the social-emotional needs of the participants. They spend time talking about their problems, their love lives, their parents and other aspects of civilian life. Such talk helps identify and maintain their individuality as people.

Few members are sure about how they stand within the group. If they perceive some trivial task-related comment as a threat, they become preoccupied with social matters. Inevitably, aspects of a social nature within the group make it difficult for many members to concentrate their attention on the group's work.

Task-oriented groups, like the platoon, are forced to devote most of their time and effort to the 'work' at hand. The problems posed by working together rather than alone can initially complicate the group's effort. The coordination of a number of members for a job requires messages that are clear, adequate and not redundant. The communication networks established within the platoon are crucial to this process. Through these networks flow the messages that the group uses to transmit information, to create and combine concepts and to give

directions. The group's ability to concentrate all its talents and energy on the task may be hampered by misunderstanding, faulty reasoning and by the way directions and orders are given and received.

Group formation is notably rapid in the army. From the onset recruits are confronted with a strange and stressful new environment that combines firm discipline, loss of privacy and liberty, rigorous physical demands and a degree of humiliation. These stresses lead a recruit to associate himself with others in the same predicament. During basic training, with the exception of a few close friendships, group ties are usually relatively loose and unorganised. It is found that although one is comforted by the cohesion of the whole group, one has one or two especially close friends with whom nearly everything is shared, for example, news from home, amenities and food.

The friendships that form eventually create a bond within the group, and interaction begins on a wider, more frequent basis. The interaction of the group is especially helpful when a member becomes discouraged about carrying on, is homesick or has any other problem he is prepared to share. In the border area particularly, one often sees how these 'rather tough men' feel free to admit that they are scared and how they give acceptance to each other.

The following is the initial impression obtained by a recruit. It serves to illustrate the arrival into the military environment, the formation of the group and the bonding of friendships.

Danie : "When I arrived at the camp the only person I knew was the chap I had met on the train from Johannesburg. After the first day even we were separated into different platoons. It was funny in the beginning, because we were a whole bunch of strangers (I think there were only two sets of friends who had known each other well from before our training started) thrown together and forced to live and survive so close to one another that you could literally touch someone at any given time during the day or night.

"Another aspect that amazed me on arrival was the poor quality of person drawn into the army. I realised, of course, that nobody's going to arrive dressed up for the occasion, but there were some real misfits in my intake. Some of them even jumped off the train before we reached our destination because they thought that because they had been marked present on the roll held at Johannesburg station they wouldn't be missed again during the two years! The general standard of education also amazed me ... although it seemed as if a fair amount had matric it certainly looked as if the majority had Standard Eight and even less. There were some guys you couldn't believe ... they were really uncivilised ... they didn't know how to use eating utensils correctly ... and the stealing was very bad. If you didn't lock

your washing on the line it disappeared without trace.

"The worst time for me in the beginning was (other than being homesick, of course) the adaptation to sleeping in a bungalow which housed forty men ... every second one snored, and seemed to have funny little habits which were irritating ... there were those who insisted on working on their inspections virtually the whole night through ... arguments and even fights used to break out about silly, stupid things because of the pressure ... the next day it all seemed laughable. The best example that springs to mind is the shortage of plugs for irons ... we were told to have all our clothing ironed for the first real inspection in the morning, and there were only two plugs for forty of us ... our corporal knew it was impossible ... then some chaps used them for much longer than their allocated time, and arguments and fighting broke out. It seems childish when I think about it now, but the pressure, threatening power and fear of the authoritative corporal made it very real at the time.

"After a couple of days' training we eventually had our first 'buddy P.T.' session (a form of physical training where one is forced to use a 'buddy' as a part of the physical training programme). We were ordered to find a partner approximately the same

height and weight ... and we suffered. We carried each other for kilometres and more, at least it felt like it ... suffering all the way. My buddy and I, I'm sure it happened to many others as well, struck up a friendship and actually became very good and close friends. Even these days, when we do field exercises, or when we sleep in the bush ... we share everything, even our private lives ... he knows all about my home situation, my girlfriend ... even some of the intimate things I wouldn't have dared tell some of my lifelong friends at home. I know I can trust Tony (the buddy) because I've had to ... and he's come out tops. We share things ... even talents. For example, I'm better at making 'pakkies' (the manner in which clothing is folded and ironed into symmetrical box-like shapes) than he is, and he's better at polishing boots than I am - so we do each other's and both gain. Actually our whole platoon is quite decent about that sort of thing now ... in the beginning it was pathetic, we were a whole bunch of individuals working not only against the cause, but against ourselves and each other as well. For example, our corporal might make us run somewhere (normally to a tree) and back. You would get some 'fools' who would virtually sprint all the way, then, because we didn't do it together, as a team or platoon, we'd do it again ... it didn't take long before they were "forced", by the sheer pressure of

the group, to tow the line and run together. The corporal always found an excuse to send you again anyway, even if you did run as a group, but you were nevertheless taught never to leave behind or neglect a platoon member ... once you're eventually working as a group then they try and break you down ... the corporal tries to antagonise you to a point where you retaliate, even if only verbally, so that he can punish the platoon. That's another aspect that I found irritating ... one person does something wrong and all forty of you are punished for it. At the time its pretty rough on the guy who blunders, because all the others let him have it ... at the end of the day you realise he was just the excuse they were looking for to put their group psychology into practice."

2. Motivation.

Motivation is considered to be the 'why' of behaviour; its study comprises a search for the determinants of human activity and for an explanation of the processes that underlie an individual's overt actions and are not apparently attributable to sensory processes or to habits. Underlying processes may be grouped into three major categories:

- a) environmental determinants
- b) internal urges, instincts, feelings, emotions, desires, aspirations, and needs, conscious or otherwise, that give rise to an action, and
- c) the incentive or goal that attracts or repels.

Motivation has been defined by Atkinson (1964, p.11) as "the contemporary influences on the direction, vigour and persistence of action". Vroom (1964, p.6) defines it as "a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisms among alternative forms of voluntary activity". When considering why a soldier fights, motivation could be defined as

"the conscious or unconscious calculation ... of the material and spiritual benefits and costs likely to be attached to various courses of action arising from his assigned tasks. Hence motivation comprises the influences that bear on a soldier's choice of, degree of commitment to, and persistence in effecting, a certain course of action."

(Kellett, 1982, p.6).

Although motivation and morale are essentially different concepts, there has sometimes been a tendency to confuse them or to treat them as synonymous. While motivation research has largely been conducted in non-military milieus, notably in such areas as perception and learning, morale has been discussed largely in military contexts. Military writers have tended to relate morale to such characteristics as mission orientation, pride, cohesion, leadership, discipline and triumph over adversity. According to Morgan and King (1975) the three prominent elements among the various definitions of morale are satisfaction (for example, happiness and fulfillment of needs), motivation (energisation) and group concerns (for example, cooperative action and common goals).

The interest of military organisations in morale and motivation is clearly related to the concept of effectiveness. Morale has usually been coupled with the will to fight; therefore, the psychological state of troops is usually defined in terms of high morale or demoralisation. However, the relationship between morale and effectiveness is by no means clear-cut since performance depends on a variety of factors in addition to motivation and morale.

The army has a considerable degree of influence over measures that relate to individual satisfaction - for example, the propagation of values and ideals supportive of the military, the distribution of material rewards and the control of institutional recognition. However, there is a more personal element to such factors that distinguish them from factors like esprit de corps, assimilation, discipline, training and leadership, which tend to be more corporative, more overtly military and less susceptible to external influences. The second and most important aspect for the purpose of this study is the measures relating to individual values and satisfaction.

It was widely accepted a century ago in most Western countries that soldiers, along with such public figures as explorers and sportsmen, were actuated by highly patriotic motives. Montgomery (1946, p.72) says the following:

"The soldier, as a citizen, must be convinced of the rightness of his country's cause. At the very least his reaction to the declaration of war must be acquiescence; even if he is only passive, he must not be hostile. For a few men, however, 'cause' will be a

sustaining and strengthening factor, and such men are essential, even if their devotion to their cause does not influence all their fellows."

The following comments were made by Danie, Derek and Michael when asked about the effectiveness of motivation techniques and patriotism in the current South African Army.

Danie : "I suppose patriotism and ideology do enter into the matter, although one does not consciously think about them realistically. Personally, it was a case of not really having much choice in the matter ... one is basically brought up expecting to do your little bit. Perhaps we accept the situation too easily, but what are the alternatives? I have friends who considered taking out citizenship of their father's or grandfather's country of birth in order to escape it, but it makes no difference now, anyway, we all have to go."

Derek : "I think that these factors (patriotism and ideology) come into play once you are in the army. Those that are patriotic and sympathetic towards the cause willingly participate and strive to reach goals and attain heights of recognition. Those who are against it might rebel, or only do what they have to in order to get by."

Michael : "Age is of importance and is a variable here. An older person like myself finds the change much more difficult

in the beginning and I think I'm probably less likely to change as a result of these two years. I think I tend to question everything a little more than I would have ... the younger chaps willingly accepted conditions and appalling behaviour without question. I would guess and say that the impression of military service on an eighteen-year-old is going to be far more profound than on a person who has already formulated opinions towards a country or an ideology ... it must be much easier to convert impressionable teenagers than adults ... or at least to get them to fall in with the system.

"I found the propaganda quite irritating, although I'm not saying it didn't have the desired effect. Right from the beginning one undergoes exercises with imaginary enemies, who somehow always end up being 'black terrorists'. It is not often said that they are black terrorists - it's quite a general imposition of thought which takes place, and is readily accepted as such. The desired effect is attained, and for the chaps who do not have a very strong political stance, I think it definitely sways them pro. On a weekly basis we had a lecture, usually with our company commander or any other relatively senior officer, about the progress being made on the border in South West Africa/Namibia. These were actually quite informative and, even if they were slightly biased, the most ardent non-supporter had to believe we had an enemy. The lectures normally took the form of informing us about where an attack took place, the number of enemy

involved, the response, the casualties and the lessons learnt from these attacks. Counter-attacks and operations were then also discussed - including aspects such as tactics, fire power and strategy.

"Eventually the whole effect of the army driver at conversion takes its hold and you begin to see the 'sense' in it ... although you ardently defy the manner in which they go about training you (at least most of us did!) ... I arrived in a relatively positive frame of mind, resigned to the fact that I was to do two years' national service ... I don't think I was actually keen, but in the beginning I looked forward to it ... so many of my friends had been through it, and spoken of the hardships and the camaraderie ... I think I viewed it as something to be done, and it was pointless fighting against it ... I don't know, I guess many had feelings of remorse, others were probably keen, but I think most were just doing it without really having any feeling, one way or the other. We were expecting a tough time ... but hoped we would cope and eventually learn to enjoy it."

Motivation in the Defence Force can be viewed as a classic case of behaviour modification. It is not considered that some would willingly participate anyway, or that some would try to AWOL and sneak out of training, or pretend to be sick all the time, or that the majority would be pretty neutral about it. Instead, right from the beginning, a system of punishment and reward is practised. For example, if the whole platoon could complete a run in a certain time, then a break of ten

minutes would be granted. The demoralising aspect of this type of bargaining is that the recruits have nothing with which to bargain so that often, when their side of the bargain has been kept, the corporal will ignore his side of the bargain. This all forms part of the break-down process. What, then, motivates the troops to continue? The fact that the corporal might just keep his end of the bargain, and one is forced to do the training anyway, so there is no escape. Very often troops are forced to strive for unattainable goals, which serve as increasingly important sources of frustration and anxiety within the group.

3. Attitude

The threat directed towards valued objects - whether home, family or country - does not always enhance motivation; it can also damage it. The extent to which a threat might undermine morale would appear to be a function of the degree of threat. In a democracy, it is also a function of the civilian population's morale and their commitment which facilitates successful engagement in war. It is probably more difficult to sustain popular commitment in a limited war, such as in South Africa, which does not require mobilisation of the home front and which imposes a heavy cost while not obviously involving important national stakes. Thus, the impact on the soldier of events and attitudes in his country, as well as such things as the distraction caused by fears for dependants, play an exceptional part in his global motivation.

Just as public recognition (or lack of recognition) of the soldier's efforts and sacrifices can bolster or undermine his morale, so his will

to continue can be eroded by his sense of war-weariness or of flagging support at home.

Not only is the civilian population in South Africa threatened by terrorist strategy, but it provides the material and administrative support so essential to modern armies. Moreover, civilian attitudes towards the war effort are rapidly transmitted to the troops through the instruments of modern communication. From a military point of view, then, it is increasingly difficult to assign purely institutional causes to military cohesion and disintegration and to ignore wider societal pressures.

Danie : "I think that attitude is probably the most important issue involved with the successful completion of national service. By successful I mean making the most of a situation which is forced upon you, whether you like it or not. There were many of my friends who despised the fact that they had to do national service ... there were even those who were anti everything, but nevertheless volunteered for promotion courses; some even ended up obtaining a commission. They were the ones who thought rationally and realised that they had to be there for two years anyway, therefore why not make the most of it? There were others that more than had the ability, but no will to improve their lot ... they ended up suffering for the whole duration.

"I was probably very undecided in my attitude, but was relatively positive about not wanting to vegetate for two

years ... so I volunteered to go on a Junior Leadership course in Oudtshoorn. During the time I spent in Oudtshoorn I often cursed the decision I had made ... I really found it very tough ... but certainly don't regret it now. I have a commission and basically the privileges received now easily outweigh the suffering I underwent whilst on the course. In fact, I can hardly identify with the bad times ... I remember all the friends I made and the good times we had together ... I think it needs to be experienced to be appreciated fully. You are basically forced to make friends, very close friends, because without them you would not survive ... even if you are a loner, you have to make friends because others make friends with you ...they are pressurised into doing so. Obviously, not everyone in a platoon becomes bosom-buddies, but you learn to co-exist, which is an aspect imperative to making the course".

Michael : "Those who exhibit a negative attitude in the beginning are the first to crack up when the pressure comes. They cannot cope because they don't want to ... and therefore they get sought after by the corporal. If a miserable task needs to be done, the negative troop is forced to do it ... in our platoon many of them changed and became pleasant ... and worked towards making life bearable for the rest of us in the platoon ... those that did not change, or did things that caused the whole platoon to be punished were very few and far between ... probably due to group pressure. We had one or two that never changed in our platoon and they had a terrible

time ... from us on the one hand and the authorities on the other. Forced "transfers" were eventually granted to them and they disappeared from our company.

"One of the nicest aspects I found in the army in connection with attitude is probably best explained by example. On the first night we were separated into our new bungalows. The guy that moved into the bed next to me was obviously from a lower socio-economic class. He only had a standard six certificate, but was very helpful, pleasant and positive in his attitude. (Michael himself is a B. Com graduate). The morning of our first inspection we all woke up at approximately 3 a.m. This chap next to me insisted on making my bed for me (his was already completed in the dark) because his brother, who had already completed his national service had shown him exactly how to do it. I did some menial task for him, I think it was writing out his bed card, name tag and kit list ... which, in retrospect, was a very unfair trade ... the irony of the matter ... the corporal completely destroyed his bed and complimented me on mine. Deon and I became good friends after that ... although I doubt very much (without being derogatory) whether I would or could ever be friends with him in 'civvy street'. Our values differ far too much."

3.1 Conditions at Home

Soldiers normally endure hardships. They learn to face this fact, but more depressing than their own suffering is the knowledge that there

are unsolved problems at home either with their families or any other loved ones.

Military researchers have noted the effect on troops' morale of conditions at home. Penton (in Kellett 1982) found that some form of domestic stress appeared to be a significant factor in nearly one-third of the cases of desertion he studied. He pointed out that while domestic stress was seldom the sole factor, or even the most important, it must often have been the deciding one because it gave the soldier the feeling that his family obligations justified his deserting. Montgomery also remarked: "Nothing weakens a man more than trouble at home" (Montgomery, 1946, p.22). An Israeli psychologist (in Kellett, 1982) reported that prior or ongoing civil stresses were found in 80 percent of the cases of combat reaction in the Yom Kippur War; 50 percent of psychiatric casualties had wives or girlfriends who were pregnant or who had given birth within the year preceding the war, and in 23 percent of the cases there had been a recent death in the family. Financial worries were another major source of stress.

Danie : "Of those chaps in our bungalow that were RTU (returned to unit), all of them, without one single exception, had serious problems of one sort or another. The most common problem was usually a girlfriend that was pregnant or a family that had lost a breadwinner. These were the genuine cases, but there were numerous attempts at inventing welfare cases that were virtually non-existent ... and some got away with it ... we eventually became resentful and antagonistic towards those chaps who one knew had no case but were trying

to obtain a transfer closer home. The reasoning was pretty logical; why should they be able to get away with it and others (who really had problems but were too proud to approach the welfare officer about them) suffer?

"The worst was the amount of AWOL (Absent Without Leave) that took place. The reasons varied but of those that I knew of, nearly all were related to home or a close acquaintance in one way or another. The worst time to return to the army for us was after our first pass, which normally takes place after the initial basic period. Somehow, after spending a long weekend with your family and girlfriend and friends, it takes real willpower to return on time. Many soldiers just fail to turn up, although a large percentage normally do arrive late, within the following day or two, normally after considering the implications. Some, however, just disappear from the scene altogether, and hide from the military police. When they are eventually found they are charged, and if found guilty they undergo a spell in the DB (detention barracks), which is no joke. The miserable aspect about this situation is that if you miss too much training you are not returned into your original bungalow, so that all the friends and relationships built up are lost. Another important point is that the days you were on AWOL are added on to your national service at the end of your two years. Can you imagine staying behind in camp when your whole intake clears out and leaves for home! The incorrect attitude or the inability to cope is, in my opinion, a no-win situation."

Michael : "I agree it must be very difficult for those who have poor home conditions to cope with the stress and pressure of the camp in addition to worrying about home. I suppose it's a case of some being able to handle it better than others. I am sure that there are many who come from dreadful home circumstances and have a relatively successful time in the defence force. I think the crux of the matter is attitude and the will to get on in life."

3.2 Ties with Home

The interrelationship between the civilian environment and the army situation is based on a number of factors in addition to the obvious and profound link supplied by a man's pre-army background. For example, the spread of literature (and hence the copious flow of letters back and forth), the development of the mass media (newspapers and television), and the leave policies have all helped to facilitate the transmission of attitudes among the civilian population to troops in the army.

Michael : "I think that letters from home have the single greatest positive effect on the morale of troops in the army. Often one sees chaps who are physically clapped, lying on their backs exhausted after P.T., jump up and run to their quarters on hearing that mail is being delivered. One chap near me used to complain to his girlfriend that her failure to write used to keep him uneasy all the time, while another told his fiancée that he was almost hysterical in his anxiety

to hear from her. I must in all fairness to the defence force say that we were impressed with the efficient, organised postal service which prevailed. Now and again one would hear of a letter or parcel going astray, but considering the bulk of the daily postage I think the service was exceptional. So far not one single letter or card of mine has gone missing and we have written eighty-seven; they are numbered, you see. Occasionally an earlier letter arrives after one written at a later date, but that is more than acceptable.

"I don't think that family and friends realise the importance of letters to a soldier. Even though they might think that the news is trivial and of poor quality, it is of utmost importance to the troop, for his constant thought is ... what are they doing at home?"

It is inevitable that a certain percentage of the morale boosting letters should bring bad news. Graves (1973) thought that such news might affect a man in one of two ways : It might either drive him to near suicide (or to recklessness amounting to the same thing), or it might seem trivial in contrast to the soldier's experiences and hence be laughed off.

A common form of letter bringing bad news from home takes the form of the well-known "Dear John" letters (letters of rejection from girlfriends or even wives). The reaction to these letters differs from individual to individual, but generally a severely hard bump needs to

be absorbed by the already pressurised soldier, who sometimes cannot cope. Attitude is always affected in this case, even if the incident is laughed off.

The telephone also plays a vital role in the communication between the soldier and his family. There are specific times allocated per company for the use of the telephones, which end up as a gathering and social point where news from home is exchanged.

Michael : "One problem that arises at the telephones is the selfishness that exists among the men. There are not sufficient telephones for every man in the camp to phone home during the allocated time, so impatience among those members still waiting in the queue is tremendous, especially when some chaps expect to speak to their families for half an hour or more. After a couple of minutes one finds projectiles being hurled at the telephone booths to distract the members inside. Often fights result from this situation.

"With regard to attitude, I think the media plays a very important role. Before I went to the army, the only knowledge I had about what it would be like was from my friends who had already been, plus the coverage given in the media - mainly on television. The things you learn and hear about from your friends nearly always emphasise the toughness of the camp that they were at, and how difficult it was to survive etc. which is not always a very objective view, but nevertheless a valuable one."

The aspects highlighted by the media and the war correspondents seem to be the opposite. For example, it is obvious to see that the media need sensation for their message to make a good impact, so one tends to see parabats, horse riding and motorised troops on television. Very seldom does one see a documentary accurately depicting the lot of the normal foot-slogging infantryman - the most common position in the defence force. Be this as it may, the correspondents in the border area play an important role in shaping public opinion, either positive or negative. Their presence and their activities in the area, as well as their perceived relationship between the soldiers and their published accounts of the realities of the military situation, have an important bearing on the attitudes of the troops. Many correspondents, as well as the military and civil authorities, have often regarded the maintenance of public and troop morale as one of their major functions. There is certainly no denying, however, that censorship and propaganda successes bias the media transmissions and reports.

In South Africa, television is a crucial factor in promoting the image of a tough, highly effective and dedicated army, which sometimes contrasts with the visible evidence of occasional bungling, i.e. accidents (some of them fatal) and brutality among the local inhabitants.

3.3 Leave

The most powerful bridge between home and military service is leave, or a pass as it is called in the army. These passes play the largest role in making the soldier aware of the attitudes of his family, friends and

'countrymen'. The men who return home on leave are frequently disconcerted by the divergence of their outlook from that of the population at home. In particular it was noticed just how unaware most civilians were of what was going on, and such misunderstandings sometimes led to friction. Furthermore, the soldiers were often shocked that the people back home were 'not really troubled' by their situation, and this sometimes led to feelings of alienation between the soldier and his family.

Danie : "When I got home during my first pass all I wanted to do was tell my family and friends about the tough time we were having. Obviously I did not have anything else to talk about all I had been doing was eating, drinking and sleeping army, for twenty-four hours a day. We had hardly seen a newspaper or television set, although they were available, because we were so busy. My family and friends, especially my girlfriend expected me to be exactly the same as before I left, and were very understanding about my 'army attitudes' in the beginning. I was the same, of course, it's just that the experiences over the last few weeks had had a tremendous effect on me. I'm not denying that I thoroughly enjoyed being with her, my whole pass was spent in her company; it's just that the communication between us seemed to be one-way traffic - either from her to me, telling me about our friends and things that had happened, or from me to her, telling her about the army. Basically, we were not quite on the same wavelength ... eventually, though, after things became settled in the army a few months later and we were not

too busy, our communication improved and, at the moment, things are almost back to normal."

Johan : "When I arrived home during my first pass my folks were ecstatic to see me. All my dad and I did was drink and talk about the army. He loved talking about his old war days and I was keen on talking about the army so all my friends that came to visit just joined the party. For the first time in my life I felt very close to my father - I had done something he could identify with, and I now realise what he was talking about when he spoke about his friends from the war. I think a very intense type of mutual respect built up between us. I've never been as happy or successful in my relationship with my father as I am at present".

Kevin : "The army definitely changed me a lot ... and I think my parents came off second best due to no fault of their own, though I am an only child and I think that before I went to the army my parents' lives revolved around mine and mine revolved around pleasing them. I used to regularly sacrifice my own fun to do something with my parents or something they would have preferred me to do. When I arrived home on that first pass they had everything prepared ... big surprise party, all my aunts and uncles, grandparents and family!

"I had arranged to meet some chaps who were in the army with me to "hit the town". To cut a long story short ... I eventually left my parents to entertain the family while I

went out with my friends. In retrospect I suppose I was a bit unreasonable, but I didn't really care ... the last thing I felt like doing was to sit at home with a bunch of old cronies. I eventually arrived home at about 3 a.m. the following morning, very sick and very drunk, something which gave my parents their second heart seizure of the evening. They did not know that I had started drinking. My mother was in tears and I was too drunk to console her so I just went to bed. They told me afterwards that they couldn't believe I was the same person that left home twelve weeks before. It is quite obvious that the army had made me a lot more independent and a lot more insensitive than I had realised.

"The next morning at approximately 11.30 my parents woke me up to breakfast in bed ... I don't think I would have been as understanding if I was my son, and we sat and talked and talked. Eventually my father said that he realises that I have "grown up" now, and that I should be treated as such. I don't think my mother was too happy about the situation but she silently agreed with him. I must admit I felt quite miserable about what I had done ... we struck a compromise and the rest of the weekend and all those after were very successful".

3.4 Hatred

A corollary of patriotic sentiment and of fears for one's family and country is the feeling of hatred for the enemy, a powerful instinct that can have a marked effect on motivation.

Danie : "Right from the first couple of weeks during basics they (the army authorities) start their onslaught about 'terrs' or 'boy', as the terrorist force is commonly called in the army. If your platoon does not do something well enough, reference to how well the 'terrs' would have done it is used as a motivating force for it to be done again - faster or better.

"Personally, I found it rather unnerving when told that what we had just done would have cost lives in a real situation or 'contact'. Perhaps I was one of the suckers, but it certainly worked for me. Many of my friends thought it ludicrous; they thought these references were merely being used to try and scare us and as an excuse to make us repeat certain aspects of training.

"One important issue involved with the motivating aspect of hate, was the effect it had on racialism in the camp. Because most terrorists are black, blacks seemed to be viewed as terrorists. I think this phenomenon has far-reaching effects into the lives of many civilians, especially those who come into close contact with a person who has spent many months on the border. Take, for example, a normal infantry troop from the camp where I did my basic training. They spend their first nine months being trained for border duty and the rest of their twenty-four months on the border, which means anything up to a year and three months. There is absolutely no doubt in my mind that even the most liberal person would

not become affected by the conditions and impact of the hatred for the enemy experienced over such a period of time.

"So far I have had two trips to the border, one as a troop, and the other as a platoon commander, and I am aware of how differently I react in certain situations compared to before I went. For example, I lose my patience in traffic jams, or just heavy traffic; I have absolutely no time for beggars whereas in the past I was always sympathetic and sensitive; and there is nothing that irritates me more than being jostled in a crowded street, something which never troubled me before ... there are many other small changes that I have undergone - none of them positive - even in my relationships with my girlfriend and parents.

"Friends of mine who have been in an 'ops' (an operation - normally into Angola) tell how they were motivated by the memory of some act of treachery or a contact in which the army was attacked and lost lives. They say that when the moment for moving out comes, the adrenalin and motivation techniques induce a form of total commitment they had not experienced before. Most of them say its a feeling of fear combined with a type of pride."

3.5 Religious belief

Religious belief appears able to inspire men of all faiths to fight for what they believe in, as Muslims, Christians and Jews have shown in the

Middle East. The conflict between Protestants and Catholics in Northern Ireland is also illustrative, although whether and to what degree religion is a cause for fighting is difficult to assess. The Communist basis of the terrorist onslaught in Christian South Africa draws parallels here.

Since World War II it has been postulated that 'there are no atheists in foxholes'. The South African army subscribes to the belief that religion raises and strengthens morale. A data survey completed on World War II soldiers by Stouffer et al. (1949) indicated that prayer was regarded by combat-experienced enlisted men as a very important source of support. This held true regardless of educational level and of whether the respondents were privates or non-commissioned officers. Officers more frequently reported being helped by the desire not to let others down, but even with them prayer ranked second.

A definite relationship between stress and prayer was found in the survey. When infantrymen were compared with men in other, less arduous and dangerous branches, it was found that prayer was particularly important to those men who were subjected to the greatest stress. The men of the other branches were more likely, and infantrymen less likely, to say that other means of adjustment were helpful. Furthermore, prayer was found to be more helpful than other thoughts among men who reported finding battle becoming more frightening the more they saw of it, or who claimed to be frightened all the time. Men who reported that they were helped a great deal by prayer were more likely than others to say that they had seen close friends become casualties, or that they had come under attack several times - situations that would

be particularly hard to endure. It was the more fearful, less self-confident men who said they were helped by prayer - men who might have had fewer resources for coping with high stress. For example, such men tended to be replacements, who would derive less support from the group than would the original members of a unit.

According to Stouffer prayer is not a sufficient indicator of religious faith; it may have been adopted as an instrument of psychological self-defense in much the same way as belief in talismans (for example, a rabbit's foot) or in fatalism (for example, a shell with one's number on it). He could find practically no data that would throw light on the relationships between prayer in battle and formal religion. However, battle did have a lasting effect upon religious attitudes - 79 percent of the combat-experienced men surveyed believed that their army experience had increased their faith in God, while 19 percent admitted to decreased faith.

Danie : "Religion and religious time seem to be very well established in the army. Normally twice a day the whole camp has what is called a 'quiet time', during which personal prayer can take place. This usually occurs in the early morning as well as at night, normally directly before lights out. For those that are religious it is a time of enjoyment and Bible reading, while for those who are not so religious, like myself, it is a time for sitting quietly and thinking about home or girlfriends. I used to look forward to this respite in the hectic events of the normal day to day army life, just to sit quietly and ponder about things, or write home.

"The only other compulsory times of religion are at meals, where grace is said before and after, and on most Sundays when one is compelled to attend a church service. The facilities were normally more than adequate and often we used to go into town to attend the civilian services as well. Often these civilian services were used as an excuse to get out of camp.

"Generally I found that the Afrikaans speaking chaps were more religious than us, I suppose as a direct result of their home background and upbringing. We tended to be rather lackadaisical in this regard and sometimes even felt embarrassed by the situation which frequently occurred - the English speaker would often forget his Bible - while with the Afrikaans speaker it was one of the first possessions packed, even if going on pass for the weekend. I suppose when I think about it now I enjoyed the approach and the basic teaching of principles, if nothing else."

Michael : "... there was a chap a couple of beds away from me who was as close to an atheist as ever I've seen and even he eventually sat still during quiet time. I think it was a case of group pressure - he just had to sit quietly for the ten minutes in the morning and evening.

"The rest of the platoon were not prejudiced against him in any way, he was a great guy, full of fun, a good sportsman and very popular ... we viewed quiet time as a time of

privacy, whether it be religious or not."

Deon : "... when we went to the border even the chaps who did not take religion all that seriously had Bibles with them I wonder whether there is a moral there or not?"

3.6 Military Ideals

Among the personal philosophies that can powerfully motivate some men, and perhaps unconsciously move many more, are patriotism, ideology, religion, hatred and a sense of threat. However, an army's 'leaders' for the most part adhere to their own socially derived code. This code primarily revolves around concepts of honour and is oriented toward the group rather than the individual.

In South Africa much of the ethics and honour stem from the majority of regular officers in the old British army, who thought it highly important to be a 'gentleman'. This was a status that conferred social acceptability and imposed high standards of responsibility and behaviour, usually centered on honesty and courage. The sense of duty is highly developed in the officer, but it is also inculcated in the other ranks through training and through the realisation that if a man does not do a job himself, someone else will have to do it. Many South African soldiers tend to consider their national service as a disagreeable necessity, with very little regard for the 'honour' in serving their country.

Danie : "I had absolutely no military ideals when called up to do national service. I never really even thought about it. It was always something that just had to be done, and I was resigned to this fact."

Deon : "I did not want to go ... hated the idea of following orders and running around in the bush, and still do."

Michael : "I was keen to go to the army and get it over with. I was definitely not keen to go for the sake of the army, although I suppose deep down inside me there are fairly strong feelings of love for my country."

Keith : "Ever since I was a little boy I've had this fantasy about being a soldier and fighting in wars. I lived on war books and comics and always looked forward to the day when I could go to the army. I don't think I ever really grew up! Although I must admit it was a lot different to what I expected, I loved it. I enjoyed the friends I made, the training and even the discipline. It was tough but it was fair - something which has always been very important to me. I am considering the Permanent Force as a career."

3.7 Reward and Recognition.

The soldier may derive comfort, pride and security from such factors as his membership of a group, his acquisition and utilisation of certain skills and the success of his unit, either on the border or in any

other sphere. In addition a soldier may anticipate explicit and personal rewards as a return for meritorious combat behaviour, for example, medals of honour. Rewards, such as the so-called 'danger pay' may also accrue to the soldier for acceptance of this role and thus of exposure to hardship and risk.

"A good commander will use his soldiers just as a good Father uses his children ... But though I would have you love your Men well, because you can do nothing without them, I would not have you spoil them with over much Kindness. It is the wise Dispensing of Rewards and Punishments which keeps the World in good order."
(Richardson, 1978, p. 88).

In the South African Army little consistent thought appears to have been given to the question of material and psychological rewards, despite the fact that psychological learning principles demonstrate that positive reward is more effective in producing desirable behaviour than punishment is in eliminating undesirable behaviour.

In 1965 a study completed by the United States Army (Taylor et al., 1961) found that in general peer and/or social recognition and autonomy (for example, certain freedoms such as passes) were more effective than material incentives. It is postulated that the same trend exists in South Africa.

Danie : "When we got a pass we went home, or to our girlfriends and loved ones; it did not matter how far it was

or how much it would cost us, even if we flew every time. Personally, money devalued tremendously for me while I was in the army. It became a necessary commodity, but an unimportant one. When we got home on a pass, we made sure we enjoyed ourselves ... one never penny-pinched at the expense of enjoyment - we only got one long weekend every two months, so the money accumulated was spent on those weekends. Obviously it's plain stupid to spend everything you have ... but it must be realised that the weekends off are intense and hectic because of the limited time involved."

Kevin : "On passes I used to take the money I allocated myself out the bank and leave my bank book in the camp, so there was no way I would spend everything I had. I used to always arrive back from pass broke ... it did not matter if I took a little or lot of money."

Stephen : "I managed to save quite a bit during my national service, because I was employed before I went in and my employers saved a part of my salary for me every month. I don't think I would have had the discipline to save on my own ... somehow I just didn't care about my future then."

Public recognition of their efforts has long been a concern of the soldier. Hence Montgomery listed propaganda as an important, though not in itself an essential, contributor to high morale. He observed that a man's morale is raised immediately when his efforts are appreciated and applauded. Modern publicity methods could facilitate that appreciation,

but to be successful, publicity needs to distinguish between the men on the border and those within the borders of the country. However, Montgomery added that an artificially stimulated feeling of self-importance was of largely momentary value (Montgomery 1946).

Danie : "I went to the border on two occasions, and not at any stage was I in a 'contact' or even saw a terrorist, but when I arrived home after each trip I received a hero's welcome from my family and friends. They would tell me about all the attacks they had seen and heard about on the television and in the newspaper, and ask me about them. It actually made me feel good for a while, even though I knew I had very little, if anything at all, to do with their compliments. Afterwards I would realise that all I was doing was fooling myself by accepting acclaim that had nothing to do with me."

3.8 Conclusion

The subject matter discussed, such as motivation and attitude, serves to highlight certain kinds of behaviour which will indicate whether the recruit is 'successful' or 'unsuccessful' by military standards. Parallel to these behavioural and attitudinal aspects one finds improved promotional prospects, higher remuneration, more responsibility, etc. higher up the hierarchical ladder.

'Success' in the military context is therefore denoted as the ability to cope and survive adequately within the parameters of the

military environment. There are also different degrees of 'success', depending on the attainment by the recruit involved; for example, a recruit who becomes a parabat will have been much more 'successful' than a recruit who remains a rifleman for the duration of his National Service. One would naturally expect a recruit who becomes a parabat in an elite unit to be more motivated, perhaps better equipped physically, more likely to strive for the status and to want to achieve. The differences between the degrees of 'success' for the purposes of this project, however, were not quantifiable. For the purposes of this study, a recruit who achieved the mustering he set out to achieve (e.g. an Infantry officer, a parabat, a chef, etc.) was deemed to have been 'successful', and it was also assumed that he was coping with the kinds of stress, etc. detailed throughout this chapter.

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Implicit in this discussion of the military life of the recruit there are very clear implications for the notions of self-concept and locus of control. With this in mind, Chapter II attempts a close look at these two areas and serves to link much of what has been said here to a more fundamental theoretical perspective.

Chapter II : SELF-THEORY AND LOCUS OF CONTROL

1. The Self-Concept

1.1 Introduction

Prior to 1890, interest in the existence of a 'self' centred on issues which attempted to distinguish between physical and non-physical aspects of human functioning (Gergen, 1971). William James' monumental work The Principles of Psychology (1890) is a historical landmark separating the older philosophical and religious views from more modern psychological conceptions of the self. During the 1920's, the growth of positivism threw a shadow over the traditional 'armchair' theorising that was typical of literature dealing with the self up until that time (Gergen, 1971). Positivism, while providing a more scientific approach to this field of psychology, lacked precision, as research demanded incorporation of many concepts that were 'internal' to the organism, and therefore not amenable to empirical validation. At present there is still a great deal of confusion and lack of clarity regarding what is meant by the term 'self-concept' (Wylie, 1961).

"Any self-referent concept has problems because the notion of self is itself so deceptive. It has an intuitively obvious meaning, yet it is used in such a confusing number of ways that its meaning seems to have no single, simple core" (Wells and Marwell, 1976, p.38).

Epstein (1973) believes that there are two schools of thought in psychology: one in which a subjective self-concept is central and

another school in which the self-concept is superfluous. With this in mind, he attempts to join these two disparate schools within a framework which views self-concept, quite simply, as a 'self-theory'. This self theory is based on the accumulative contributions to the body of knowledge in the field of the self-concept by social scientists such as James, Cooley, Mead, Rogers, Allport and Sarbin. A summary of the major contributions made by these theorists towards understanding the self-concept is given below.

- "a) It is a subsystem of internally consistent, hierarchically organized concepts contained within a broader conceptual system.

- b) It contains different empirical selves, such as a body self, a spiritual self, and a social self.

- c) It is a dynamic organization that changes with experience. It appears to seek out change and exhibits a tendency to assimilate increasing amounts of information, thereby manifesting a growth principle.

- d) It develops out of experience, particularly out of social interaction with significant others.

- e) It is essential for the functioning of the individual that the organisation of the self-concept be maintained. When the organisation of the self-concept is threatened, the individual experiences anxiety, and attempts to defend himself against the threat.

- f) There is a basic need for self-esteem which relates to all aspects of the self-system, and, in comparison to which, all other needs are subordinate.

g) The self-concept has at least two basic functions. First it organises the data of experience, particularly experience involving social interaction, into predictable sequences of action and reaction. Second, the self-concept facilitates attempts to fulfil needs while avoiding disapproval and anxiety."

(Epstein, 1973, p.407).

1.2 Self-Concept as a Theory

The self-concept is:

"... a theory that the individual has unwittingly constructed about himself as an experiencing, functioning individual, and it is part of a broader theory which he holds with respect to his entire range of significant experience. Accordingly, there are major postulate systems for the nature of the world, for the nature of the self, and for their interaction."

(Epstein, 1973, p.407)

It is interesting to speculate on the nature of a self-theory that may be developed in an environment which sees the nature of man in a materialistic way, such as in a military situation. Exposure to conditions in which the individual must develop a sense of self within a strict and accepted social definition of personhood is likely to lead to a very different theory of self and the world, compared with an individual in a situation that does not disguise human agency in self and world construction. In this way, self-construction forms a part of world-construction, but it is a process which distinguishes the self from the world:

- a) A self-concept provides one with a means of separating subjective experience from common experience, thereby allowing one to act in a world of shared reality.
- b) Behaviour can be controlled if one knows what is self and what is not self.
- c) Separation of the self from other selves allows for harmonious social interaction (Epstein, 1973).

Further, Epstein believes that a self-theory serves the purpose of optimising the balance between pleasure and pain in the course of one's life. Together with this, the self-concept serves to facilitate self esteem, and provides a platform for organising data for effective living.

Hamachek, 1971, postulates that the self and self-concept are closely related to mental health and personal adjustment and that they depend deeply on each individual's basic feelings of personal adequacy. Derlega and Janda (1979) claim that:

"Feelings of personal inadequacy, helplessness, inferiority, insecurity, or worthlessness tend to erode and weaken, sometimes to the point of collapse, the main pillars of one's self-structure" (p.84).

Hamachek states that in the daily struggle to cope with the requirements of self and of the reality to deal with threats, frustrations, and conflicts, we must have a firm grip on our own identity. Attaining a healthy self-image with its concomitant feelings of adequacy, ability, personal worth, and confidence is not some lofty goal beyond mortal reach.

1.3 Development of the Self-Concept

The understanding of self-concept development is based largely on theoretical insights and its development is seen as a process that continues throughout life. Initially, in the early years of life, discrimination of a bodily self from the rest of the world provides a foundation for the later development of an inferred, inner-self. Neurological and psychological development increases the child's ability to perform complex mental activities, and thereby provide the means for establishing more abstract conceptions of what is 'me' and what is 'not me' (Burns, 1979; Epstein, 1973).

1.3.1 Self-perception in Childhood

Perception of the world is simultaneously perception of oneself, and this takes place in several ways. Some parts of the body are available to visual inspection, while others can be seen only with a mirror. Most of our inner anatomy has no clearcut perceptual representation for us. When in good equilibrium, our physiological functioning is a blend of sensations, although we can make some functions stand out, such as when we attend to our breathing or our heartbeat. Various physiological imbalances have their own perceptual qualities, as in pain, aches, illness, hunger, fever, thirst, fatigue, sexual arousal and the physiological components of emotion. We also experience our own behaviour in terms of motivation, emotion and aesthetic and moral considerations.

The baby's implicit knowledge of his own body is fairly well advanced by the end of infancy, as indicated by his ability to deal adaptively

with objects. His active exploration of hands, feet, genitals, navel and facial features suggests that he has brought some parts of his body into explicit consciousness and so made them his own.

1.3.2 The Development towards Self-knowledge and Autonomy

The principle of development toward self-knowledge and autonomy points to the progressive differentiation of self from environment, and of various aspects of self from the totality, and to the integration of self-awareness into an emergent self-image or self-schema. It also points to the child's increasing ability to regulate his own behaviour and to think and act on his own. This development of self-awareness is accompanied by increasing autonomy, ability to think, decide and act for oneself, to consider one's own actions in perspective, and to find original modes of acting. It is obvious that some of what we experience as self-determination or 'will' had its actual beginnings outside ourselves, in the knowledge and understanding and values that other people taught us. But it is possible to make other people's teachings truly one's own, so that they cease to be external to oneself and instead are part of one's own equipment for behaviour.

The development of self-awareness involves several sorts of differentiation, such as the differentiation between private self and public self. Here we have a subprinciple of duplicity, of being able to think one thing and say another, to have an inner life, and eventually to dissemble and to lie. The first manifestation of duplicity appears in late infancy or early toddlerhood with the child's simulation of an emotion, as when he pretends to be hurt so as to be cuddled or soothed.

Self-awareness comprises a number of constituents, such as a sense of identity, of who we are and what we believe in, what we want out of life, what our virtues, failings, competences and inadequacies are. We develop a certain perspective of ourselves so that we can judge our own acts in terms both of how they look to others and of how they measure up to abstract, ideal standards; when we fail to measure up to abstract moral standards we feel guilt, and when we fail to meet abstract standards of competence we feel shame (Lynd, 1966). We become able, within limits, to shape our own characters and destinies, and we come to have a conscience and to be concerned for other people.

Burns (1979) suggests that the child relies on five sources for the contents of his self-concept. These sources are:

- a) the child's image of his body;
- b) language development and the ability to conceptualise about self and others;
- c) interpretation of feedback from the environment about how others perceive us - and how we stand relative to societal norms and values;
- d) identification with appropriate sex role models;
- e) child-rearing practices experienced.

These five factors indicate that the human environment in which the growing person finds himself plays a significant part in the development of the individual's self-theory. Hamachek (1971) believes that the child learns to conceive himself as having attributes which are perceived and encouraged by significant others.

1.3.3 The Adolescent Self

The central psychological theme of adolescence is finding an identity - a sense of self in relation to the world at large. The adolescent's self-awareness is in great part expressed in self-consciousness, a concern about how well he 'measures up'. Some young people acquire a sense of going somewhere, while others drift aimlessly or flounder in agitated despair.

Filled as they are with ambivalences, few adolescents feel really in control. They tend to be trapped between impulses that are not really a part of themselves, and what often seem like unreasonable or capricious adult constraints. But lack of control also carries the hidden blessing of lack of responsibility, and they learn to rationalise their behaviour like adults. They project blame onto motives beyond their control or onto an environment that does not understand the real, interior adolescent.

Erikson believed that the adolescent years were likely to be very stormy ones as young people go about the establishment of a stable identity (Burns, 1979). Research has not really validated this premise - i.e. that adolescents experience large fluctuations in levels of self-esteem. Engel (1959) found that the self-concept of the subjects he tested was pretty stable from 13 to 17 years. Engel found further that those children who had a low self-concept at the first testing had significantly less stable self-concepts at the later testings than those with initial positive self-concepts. Coopersmith (1967) found in his study that adolescents have a pretty stable and resilient self-

concept. Some studies (e.g. Livesley and Bromley, 1973) have shown that adolescents are more socially aware than younger children. As a result of this, teenagers are typically concerned with the way others evaluate them.

The adolescent therefore escapes from the adult world into the peer society. He is also escaping from himself, for the roles the peer culture offers him are a refuge from the doubts, ambiguities and ambivalences that confront him in solitude. The peer group, of course, is not a perfect refuge. It makes demands, too, and these demands may violate the adolescent's self-image or concept.

Many authors speak of 'finding one's identity', but it is as much a matter of constructing an identity as of discovering who one already is. Perhaps one reason that adolescents avoid self-knowledge even as they seek it is a vague sense that, once one acknowledges traits and motives, they crystallise as permanent features and so obstruct the formation of a superior self.

By late adolescence the young person may, with luck, be able to reintegrate the various selves he knows - his body, his personality and the private core of feeling that is the 'real me', his past, his present and an image of the future - into a single functioning schema that he can take for granted without endless embarrassment, introspection and anxious reading-off of other people's reactions.

The constancy versus flexibility dimension of the self-concept is probably more significant during adolescence than at any other time. A good self-theory needs to be:

- a) extensive - so that a person is able to cope in a variety of situations. Accordingly, a self-theory needs to be flexible and open enough to allow for novel experience, and
- b) expansive - i.e. to allow for inclusion of new material to the contents, as additional data is made available

(Epstein, 1973).

Montemayer and Essen (1977) studied the self-concept development of 262 children ranging in age from 10 to 18 years. They report:

"The results of this study support the general hypothesis that, with increasing age, an individual's self-concept becomes more abstract and less concrete. The children in the study described themselves in terms of concrete, objective categories such as their addresses, physical appearance, possessions and play activities, while adolescents used more abstract and subjective descriptions such as personal beliefs, motivational and interpersonal characteristics."

(p.317)

An important characteristic of the individual who becomes mature is that he is at home with reality. This does not mean that all mature people see reality in the same way. They will share a common body of facts governed by more or less fixed principles, but they will differ as to which facts are most important, what meaning to attach to them and what opinions to hold about them. Being in touch with reality has two sides: being at home with oneself, and being at home with conditions in the outside world. The individual has to accept the stubborn reality of things as they are, without retreating from them or being

overwhelmed by them. Each of the content sources for the self-theory is more or less significant, depending on the developmental stage through which the person is passing.

1.3.4 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem develops in conjunction with the growth of self-concept, and is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds towards himself (Coopersmith, 1967).

Self-esteem is the result of the evaluation each person makes of the contents of his self-concept. This process of self-evaluation is based on three principal reference points:

- a) A comparative, matching the known self-image against that of an ideal self-image that each person has
- b) An acceptance and internalisation of the individual's perception of how others view him
- c) An evaluation of actual performance against what one believes one is capable of, i.e. high self-esteem will result if a person seems to be good at what he does

(Burns, 1979).

Points a) and b) above indicate that self-evaluation is private and is probably conducted against a backdrop provided by the individual's level of aspiration. The individual's level of aspiration in every situation arises as a result of a dynamic balance between the need to achieve and the fear of failure.

"This pressure for the highest possible self-level also induces conflict between the desire to lower the level of aspiration so as to avoid failure, and the desire to raise it to assure success at the highest possible level."

(Epstein, 1973, p.122)

In spite of the fact that a great deal of self-evaluation is a private affair, many of the comparative measures arise from social interaction with parents, teachers and peers (Hamachek, 1971).

Gergen (1971) believes that internalisation of the reflected appraisal of others will influence the development of the self-concept and/or self-esteem under the following conditions.

(a) Appraiser characteristics

- (i) Significance of the appraiser - e.g. parents, family members during childhood (Coopersmith, 1967) and teachers and peers during adolescence (Rosenberg, 1965)
- (ii) Credibility of the appraiser

(b) Appraisal characteristics

- (i) The level of discrepancy between the appraisal and the individual's view of himself
- (ii) The number and consistency of confirmations made by the appraiser

A study completed by Coopersmith (1967) concluded that high self-esteem will result from:

- a) the amount of respectful, accepting and concerned treatment the individual receives from significant others in his life
- b) the individual's history of success in life
- c) the individual's values, wishes and aspirations which serve to guide his goals in life - and provide a measure of the achievements he has made
- d) the way in which the individual responds to the demeaning actions of others

In summary, the social environment in which a child matures has a major role to play in the formation of the individual's self-concept and the development of his self-esteem.

1.4 The Implications of Positive Attitudes toward the Self

Rogers (1959) saw the need for all people to have, what he called 'positive regard' for themselves. If people see others as liking, respecting and accepting of them, it is likely that they will experience high self-esteem. Feelings of self-worth arise when the discrepancy between the view of the actual-self and the ideal-self is minimal. Rogers (1967) termed this close match, between perceptions of the contents of self, as a feeling of 'congruence'. Once attained, and maintained, this feeling of self worth permeates the whole personality and becomes a dominant mood of the individual. This concept of self-worth is very similar to the definition of self-esteem provided by Rosenberg:

"High self-esteem expresses the feeling that one is good enough" (Rosenberg, 1965, p.31)

The value of this positive regard for one's self, lies in the behavioural consequences that ensue. Hamachek (1971) believes that the individual will act like the sort of person he believes himself to be. Diggory (1966) found that those persons who have a high regard for themselves are less easily discouraged and depressed by failure to achieve personal goals.

Self-esteem and self-concept are most heavily emphasised in the humanistic approach to adjustment. Rogers, perhaps the most prominent representative of this viewpoint, believes that the healthy personality and the self-accepting individual are essentially one and the same. Other theoretical approaches, such as the psychodynamic and behavioural, may not place as much emphasis on self-concept and self-esteem, but virtually all theorists would agree that one's feelings about the self are crucial to one's level of adjustment.

Gergen (1971) presents the idea that self-concept is not a single, enduring image that people have of themselves. He suggests that one's self-concept is influenced by the situation one is in and that each person actually has many self-concepts. On the surface Gergen appears to contradict Rogers' ideas, which treat self-concept and self-esteem as though they were a single, stable trait. However, the differences between Gergen and Rogers are more semantic than real. Rogers' contention that the healthy individual is in touch with his feelings and is self-accepting complements Gergen's point that in two different

situations one can have apparently contradictory self-concepts.

Rogers and other clinicians contend that the development and maintenance of a positive regard for one's self, is in most cases, synonymous with mental health. A study conducted by Rosenberg linked low self-esteem with a wide variety of adjustment problems. Adolescents with low self-esteem were found to be:

- a) More anxious
- b) More interpersonally awkward and shy
- c) Less straightforward and direct
- d) Had less faith in other people
- e) More submissive
- f) Less involved in extra-curricular activities
- g) Less interested in national and international affairs
- h) More likely to anticipate occupational failure and frustration

(Rosenberg, 1965)

It seems clear that persons with low self-esteem are more vulnerable to societal forces than individuals who have a more positive view of themselves. Burns (1979) states that a positive self-view has been correlated with creativity, the ability to assume leadership roles and the ability to express feelings and ideas openly. Persons not burdened by self-doubt move more directly and realistically towards the realization of their personal goals (Coopersmith, 1967).

Hamachek (1971) provides interesting experimental results suggesting that individuals with extremely positive self-concepts may be less

popular than those with lower levels of self-esteem. It seems that high levels of self-esteem, at least under some circumstances, may be related to a lack of self-acceptance by others.

It is clear, however, from the vast majority of research that the possession of a positive self-concept is a valuable psychological asset.

1.5 The Influence of the Military Institution on Self-Concept

The recruits arrive at the base, all of them with a way of life and a realm of activities taken for granted. It is of minimal concern that these activities are poles apart or incompatibly diverse by nature. Upon arrival at the camp they bring with them a "presenting culture from a home world" (Goffman, 1961). The previous environment and experiences of the recruit provide him with a tolerable conception of self, and allow for a set of social behaviours exercised at his own discretion, for coping with all facets of life.

Normally he arrives at the camp at awkward early hours of the morning or late at night, to find himself stripped of support provided by the stable social arrangements in his home world.

Goffman (1961) on total institutions:

"In the accurate language of some of our oldest total institutions, he begins a series of abasements, degradations, humiliations and profanations of self. His self is systematically, if often unintentionally, mortified."

The barrier that the total institution places between the recruit and the outside world marks the first curtailment of the self experienced by the new soldier.

For the recruit a clean break with the past is achieved in a relatively short period. For the first eight weeks, therefore, he is not allowed to leave the base, or to engage in social intercourse of a permanent or semi-permanent nature with non-military personnel. There are only occasional visits and telephone calls. This almost complete isolation helps to produce unified platoons (groups) of recruits, rather than a heterogeneous collection of persons of high and low status. A uniform is issued soon after arrival and a defacing haircut insisted upon, both of which force the role of the recruit to supersede other roles the individual has been accustomed to play. There are very few clues left which will reveal social status to the outside world.

Although some roles are quickly re-established by the recruit when he returns to the outside world after his two years, it is plain that some losses necessarily must take place and may be painfully experienced as such, especially if much of this time is spent in relative social isolation on the South West Africa/Namibia border. It may not be possible to make up, in any later phase of his life-cycle, the time now lost in educational or job advancement, in courting or in the rearing of his children.

The reception procedures which take place with the new recruit take away the influences on his life from the outside. He becomes a number in the organisation, a small cog in a huge wheel, to be worked upon and

honed down through the nine months of preparation training which follow, until the end product - an effective combat soldier - is produced.

Because the military deals with so many aspects of the recruit's life, there is a special need to obtain initial co-operation from him. This beginning phase of training is termed 'Basics'. On occasions staff members demand of recruits their obligations in such a way that they can be viewed as a challenge. The recruit will either reject, and question the authority, or he will forever hold his peace. Thus these initial moments of socialisation may involve an 'obedience test' and even a will-breaking contest. A recruit who shows defiance receives immediate visible punishment, which increases until he eventually humbles himself. The underlying aspect at play here is one of uniformity. One command equals one movement and one execution of that command by one group of recruits. A propensity to obey is attained, if not readily from the recruits, then by demand of higher rank and consequential punishment.

In the beginning it would seem that staff members go out of their way to give the recruit a humiliatingly clear image of where he stands in the organisation. He is told, in no uncertain terms, that he occupies a place of especially low status even in this low group.

The recruit is stripped of most of what gives even the faintest clue to the outside world, and in this way curtailment of the self is achieved by the authorities. Firstly, he loses his name, then he is stripped of most of his physical possessions as well; his civilian clothes, for

example, are relegated to a storeroom to be taken home on his first pass, never to be brought back again. Sports equipment and kit, however, may be kept in the possession of the recruit.

Obviously, replacement of the stored material is made by the establishment, but these take the form of the standard army issue, uniform in character and uniformly distributed. When objects or materials are used up or worn out (for example, the clothing during training), the recruit is required to return the remnants of the article before obtaining a re-issue.

Recruits are, however, provided with individual lockers and the property they are issued with is viewed by the authorities as their own. A certain amount of sanity can be obtained from this, even though a strong authoritarian stress is placed on immaculate uniformity, cleanliness and neatness. Inspections are held with monotonous regularity nearly every morning in the beginning, usually long before the sun rises, until a very high standard of discipline and uniformity is obtained.

In the beginning, loss of identity seems to prevent the individual from presenting his usual image of himself to the others around him. There are constricting regulations, commands and tasks that force him to adopt certain movements which may, at least, disagree with his personal view of the situation. For example, he is at all times (day or night) required to stand to attention and greet an officer or a non-commissioned officer when he enters the immediate area of the recruit.

Just as the individual can be required to hold his body in a pose which may be humiliating, so he may have to provide humiliating verbal responses. In the military the recruit is required to punctuate his social interaction with a staff member by calling him by his rank, for example, "corporal" or "captain". Also, the recruits as a group shout out responses to commands in order to obtain correct timing and discipline among themselves and to act as a unified group. At no time would a group of recruits saunter from one point to another, whatever the reason. They would be "drilled" or marched, and then dismissed at their destination. The authoritarian figure would shout the commands and the recruits respond with loud verbal timings, which aids them in acting together as a squad. There are certain times laid down, for example, when a recruit may do things such as smoke a cigarette or even drink some water. In all conceivable aspects, restrictions are imposed.

Whatever the source or the form of these various indignities, the individual has to engage in activity which has symbolic implications that are incompatible with his conception of self. A more diffuse example of this kind of mortification occurs when the individual is required to undertake a two year stint of life that he considers alien to himself - to take on a disidentifying role.

There is another form of mortification which takes place in the military establishment, and this is a kind of "contaminative exposure" (Gordon and Gergen, 1968) which begins upon entry into the base. On the outside, the individual can hold objects of the self, such as his body, his immediate actions, his thoughts and some of his possessions, clear of contact with alien and contaminating things. But in the military

institution these territories of the self are violated in that the boundary that the individual places between his being and the environment is invaded, and the self treated with disrespect.

There is a violation of one's information regarding the self. During admission, facts about the recruit's social status and past behaviour are collected and recorded in a file available to the staff members. Later, in so far as the establishment officially expects to alter the self-regulating tendencies of the recruit, there is an individual confession concerning political neutrality and military matters for the duration of and directly after the service period. On these occasions the recruit has to expose facts (albeit on paper) and feelings about himself to new kinds of audiences (the military personnel).

The most obvious type of contaminative exposure is the physical kind. Medical examinations often expose the recruit, while collective sleeping arrangements and communal latrines cause a similar exposure. The direct physical contamination of the body and other objects closely identified with the self (for example, the black cream used for camouflage, which is not easily removed, even with soap and water) involves a breakdown of the usual environmental arrangements for insulating oneself from one's own source of contamination.

When the agency of contamination is another human being, then the recruit is in addition contaminated by forced interpersonal contact and, in consequence, a forced relationship. When the recruit loses control over who observes him in his predicament he is being contaminated by a forced relationship with these people, for it is through

such perception that relations are expressed. The most relevant example here would be the 'humorous' inspections which occur at regular intervals - room inspections, kit inspections, equipment inspections and even foot inspections - some of which penetrate the private reserve of the individual and violate the territories of his self.

1.5.1 Conclusion

The army disrupts precisely those actions that in civilian society seem to have the special role of attesting to the person and to those in his presence that he has some command over his world, that he is a person with 'adult' self-determination, autonomy and freedom of action. A failure to retain this kind of adult competency, or at least symbols of it, can produce in the recruit the terror of feeling radically demoted.

A margin of self-selected expressive behaviour - whether of antagonism, affection or unconcern - is one symbol of self-determination. This evidence of one's autonomy is weakened by such specific obligations as, for example, having to write at least one letter home a week.

There are certain bodily comforts significant to the individual that tend to be lost upon entrance into the army - for example, a soft bed or stillness at night, and even such aspects as regular and reasonable sleeping hours.

Loss of self-determination seems to have been ceremonialised in the army, where for example, recruits work at ludicrously useless tasks, like running around a bush or to a fence and back. In such cases the recruit is made to display a giving up of his will.

Another clear-cut expression of personal loss in the army has to do with the recruit's use of speech. One implication of using words to convey decisions about action is that the recipient of an order is seen as capable of receiving a message and acting under his own power to complete the command. Executing the act himself, he can sustain some vestige of the notion that he is self-determining. The recruit in the army will find himself denied this kind of self-action, for example, instead of being told to move in a particular direction at a particular rate, he will be marched.

There is a rationale that is employed by the army for the assaults upon the self. The most obvious one being the necessity to 'break down' all the recruits to the same level, before 'rebuilding' of this homogeneous group can take place. Many of the remaining mortifications are officially rationalised on other grounds, such as sanitation (in connection with latrine duty), responsibility for life (in connection with forced feeding), combat capacity (in connection with army rules for personal appearance) and security (in connection with restrictive regulations). In total institutions (Goffman, 1961) however, the various rationales for mortifying the self are very often merely rationalisations, generated by efforts to manage the daily activity of a large number of persons in a small space with a small expenditure of resources. Further, curtailment of the self occurs, even in the case where the inmate is willing and the management has ideal concerns for his well-being.

1.6 Locus of Control

1.6.1 Introduction

Epstein (1973) believes that under certain conditions the development of a self-theory can be impeded.

"It can be assumed that one such condition is an absence of feeling of control - as such a feeling provides one of the important sources for inferring an inner self." (p.414)

The notion that a person's behaviour reflects his belief in internal or external control was developed by Rotter in 1966 (in Epstein, 1973). Individuals who believe in external control are likely to explain what happens to them as being the result of external forces, for example, chance, luck, fate and forces in society. The converse is true of those who believe in internal control i.e. that most of the events in their lives are contingent upon their own directed behaviour. For the internal individual, what happens in life is not generally ascribed to chance, luck or fate - but determined by the decisions he makes and the courses of action he takes.

1.6.2 Locus of Control as an Environmental or Personal Determinant of Behaviour

Psychodynamic and trait theorists believe that dispositional factors outweigh situational variables as determinants of behaviour (Phares, 1976). In recent years, research findings by psychologists have shown

that human behaviour is less than consistent across situations. Social learning theory, for example, sees behaviour as being completely determined by both dispositional and situational factors.

If locus of control is viewed from the 'situational' perspective, then when people

"... construe outcomes of their behaviour in certain specific situations as chance determined, outside of their personal control, or otherwise unpredictable, the stage is set for several important consequences. Most fundamental is the fact that the regularities of the past cannot be relied upon in the future. The effects on learning are considerable. Equally serious are the debilitating affective responses that may ensue. Such reactions are the understandable outgrowth of a perceived lack of control - an awareness that one's efforts to cope with the world are not effective."
(Phares, 1976, p.36)

Seeman (1967) investigated the social conditions which he thought would lead to a changed perception of locus of control in people:

"Mass theory argues that the structural conditions of mass society, for example high mobility and bureaucratization, encourages a sense of powerlessness which leads the individual to be insensitive to, and uninformed about, an environment over which he believes he has little influence."
(p.106)

1.6.3 Beliefs in Locus of Control

Like self-concept, parenting style has been associated with the development of locus of control beliefs. Katkovsky et al. (1967) found that

parents who were protective, nurturing, approving and non-rejecting had children who believed in internal control. Phares (1976) confirms that 'internal' children perceive their parents' behaviour as being warm and accepting. Other factors relevant to parenting style have shown that parents who expect their children to be competent and cope on their own have children who believe in internal control of life events. Beyond this, parents who allow their children the opportunity to exert influence over their environment - and reward their children with praise for coping behaviour - are likely to instil a sense of personal power in their children.

"Children who learn that their demands and suggestions are treated seriously and have a significant effect at home may come to believe that similar efforts will have similar effects in a variety of other situations."

(Solomon and Oberlander, 1974, p.131)

The classroom has also been shown to play an important function in locus of control beliefs. Reimanis (quoted in Phares, 1976), for example, found that, if teachers encourage children to believe in internal control through their teaching and classroom behaviour, children take on a more internal orientation. De Charms (1972) pointed to the motivational advantages of allowing pupils greater freedom in the classroom. Students who believed that they could have some influence in controlling their education were more likely to work hard for, and express a liking for, their teachers.

Solomon and Oberlander (1974) report an interesting investigation which found that locus of control beliefs predispose children to benefitting

from certain types of instruction, rather than others. A group of pupils classified as underachievers were exposed to two types of science instruction, viz. pupil-centred or teacher-centred. Predictably, children found to be external in their orientation learned considerably more under the teacher-centred conditions. Internal pupils performed equally well under both instructional conditions (ibid.).

Several other factors have been associated with the development of external control beliefs. Socio-economic status (for example, belonging to less privileged groups) and race have been associated with different beliefs in locus of control (i.e. internal or external). It would seem that groups of people who cannot compete effectively for social status or power are likely to experience an inability to control their own destiny (Phares, 1976).

1.6.4 Locus of Control as a Motive

Phares (1976) believes that many of the experimental findings that indicate differences in the behaviour of internals and externals can be explained by considering locus of control beliefs to have both a motivational and a cognitive effect.

A number of psychologists (for example, Rank and Sullivan) have proposed that man is motivated to manipulate and control his environment (Phares, 1976). To be effective and have some impact on the environment, the individual would need to have some confidence in himself.

"If individuals possess a general set of beliefs that they are not the effective agent in controlling the occurrence of rewards in their lives, then it is hard to understand how they could be expected to engage in actions calculated to attain power or influence over their environment. Therefore, if the individuals are going to make an effort to exercise such power, then a belief in the internal locus of control would appear to be a prerequisite." (Phares, 1976, p.74)

1.6.5 Locus of Control as a Cognitive Influence

Research has revealed that persons with an internal locus of control orientation are:

- (a) able to assimilate and retain more information than externals
- (b) more active and alert than externals
- (c) less field dependent than internals
- (d) more perceptive and attentive than externals

(Lefcourt, 1976).

Phares (1976) sees the cognitive component to the internal person's greater effectiveness as follows:

"To a great extent, the superior mastery and coping of internals seems to be accomplished through their superior cognitive processing activities. They seem to acquire more information, make more attempts at acquiring it, are better at retaining it, are less satisfied with the amount of information they possess, are better at utilising information and devising rules to process it, and generally pay more attention to relevant cues in the situation" (p.78)

With the motivational and cognitive features of locus of control in mind, an overview of the literature reveals that locus of control is likely to influence all of the following.

- a) Information-seeking behaviour
- b) Personal effectiveness
- c) Conformity and resistance to influence
- d) Achievement
- e) Personal adjustment

a) Information-seeking behaviour

A variety of experiments have shown that 'internal' people are more motivated than 'externals' to seek out and use information for decision making. Seeman and Evans (1962) found that, in hospital settings, internal patients are more knowledgeable about their condition than externals. Seeman (1963) found that internal Reformatory inmates were more familiar with the rules and regulations concerning the opportunity for parole than external inmates.

b) Personal effectiveness

Partly because of their greater attention to cues in the environment (i.e. information seeking), internal subjects have been found to be more effective than externals in problem-solving tasks (Kleinke, 1978). Wolk and du Cetto (1974), for example, found that, in a reading task, internal subjects were far more perceptually sensitive than externals and, as a result, learned more both incidentally and intentionally. After reviewing a wide variety of experimental data on environmental mastery, Phares (1976) sums up the findings as follows.

"A capsule description might be that internals are more cognitively active. They exhibit better learning and acquisition of material, they more actively seek information, they show a superior utilisation of information or data once it is acquired, they are more attentive, alert and sensitive than are externals, and they seem to be more concerned with the informational demands of situations than with any presumed social demands." (p.78)

c) Conformity and resistance to influence

"Because internals believe in personal control, they are less susceptible than externals to influence" (Kleinke, 1978, p.131). Internals are more likely to argue against what appears to be the majority opinion. Internals were also found to be far less yielding than externals (Phares, 1976). Doctor (1971) found in a study of verbal reinforcement susceptibility that internals were more resistant to influence than externals. In other studies, externals were found to be significantly more susceptible to influence from other people. Externals were found to be easily influenced by 'prestigious' people. Internals were susceptible to influence by the prestige of the person presenting the information only when the communicator's status was relevant to the contents of his argument (Kleinke, 1978).

d) Achievement

In academic settings, investigations from primary school through to university have found a positive correlation between belief in internal control and measures of school achievement (Kleinke, 1978).

Predictably, people are more likely to strive for results if they believe there is a possibility that they will succeed. Many pupils do not perform well in school because they believe their success or failure is determined more by luck than by their own efforts (Kleinke, 1978). Internals have the advantage of having fewer negative reactions to the experience of failure - as they are more able to persist in their efforts to gain mastery, and they are more able to delay gratification (Solomon and Oberlander, 1974).

e) Personal adjustment

"Externals have been found to score higher than internals on measures of such factors as anxiety, dogmatism, suspiciousness of others and hostility, all of these possibly reactions to feelings of frustration engendered by a sense of powerlessness."

(Solomon and Oberlander, 1974, p.131)

1.5.6 Changes in Locus of Control Beliefs

Most studies in the literature which have measured general expectancies for locus of control indicate that locus of control is a fairly stable attribute (Lefcourt, 1976). However, locus of control changes have been recorded as a result of the following.

- a) Age changes
- b) Environmental changes
- c) Therapeutic intervention

Age and environmental changes are relevant to this study, and so are discussed in brief, below.

a) Age Changes

Typically, internal control increases with the age of the child. This has been established by Penk (1969), Bisler (1961) and Nowicki and Strickland (1973). In a study of South African first-year student teachers, Skuy and Erikson (1979) have confirmed the age-relatedness of the Internal-External score. Penk found chronological age alone to be less highly correlated with an internal orientation than the growth of mental age.

"Young children are relatively helpless and can effect little control over their own lives. They can be picked up, punished, hauled around and generally controlled by all-powerful adults in their lives. It is not surprising, then, that, as they become older, locus of control is increasingly internalised. It is not age alone that increases the strength of their internal beliefs, but the accompanying growth in the capacity to care for themselves, independence, the real ability to influence their surroundings."

(Phares, 1976, p.158)

b) Environmental Changes

Very little research has been done to pinpoint specific environmental conditions that influence locus of control scores. Phares (1976) reports that, in a study of Reformatory inmates, locus of control

scores were significantly more external on admission and prior to leaving the institution.

"As time passes, the prisoners 'learn the ropes' and become increasingly capable of predicting and controlling the rewards and punishments in their immediate (albeit narrow) institutional world. Accordingly, both externality and anxiety decline. As prisoners near the end of their sentences, the old uncertainties return."
(Phares, 1976, p.160)

Deliberately contrived changes in school environments have had significant effects on locus of control scores recorded by pupils (de Charms, 1972). Other experiments have shown that a sense of personal causation can be instilled in young people through training (Lefcourt, 1976).

In summary, it seems that internals are better able to cope with and control their environment. Belief in internal control will enhance resistance to influence and increase achievement behaviour and coping efforts. Changes in locus of control scores can be expected to follow environmental changes.

Conclusion

Locus of control and self-concept are important psychological variables. Self-concept is a theory about one's self which acts as a mediator through which each individual interacts with the world. The nature of one's self-concept is a central core around which self-construction and world-construction take place. It has been shown that

the environment in which a person matures will have a great deal of influence on the self-theory a person acquires. This has also been found to be true for locus of control. Locus of control describes beliefs people may have about the efficacy of their own behaviour in achieving desired goals. In the wider sense, belief in a personal capacity to have impact on the world is probably a healthy attitude for people to have.

A recruit who begins military training with an initial internal locus of control belief will have to come to terms with the fact that he has less control over his destiny but, within the parameters of the military environment, he will have freedom to exercise control over his life. As long as he goes about his daily tasks in a satisfactory manner and does not contravene any military law, he has freedom to determine his own destiny.

It is the psychological resistance to these military parameters that the pupil should be made aware of prior to the commencement of military service, for it can play a deciding role in the 'success' he achieves in this abnormal society.

Chapter III : METHOD, METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

1. Introduction

The object of this dissertation is to determine which recruits succeeded in the forced military environment according to the criteria of self-concept (positive versus negative) and locus of control (internal versus external orientation). In order to determine the validity of these statements, a large sample of an intake of new recruits was administered self-concept and locus of control measures before the beginning of national service. In addition, a historical questionnaire was administered and detailed unstructured interviews were conducted to provide another basis for gathering data and for clarifying some of the issues involved.

These two particular methods were chosen for the following reasons.

- a) The target population was on hand and it was reasonable to assume that the researcher would be able to count on the cooperation of the new recruits. There would be no need to follow up in the hope of getting an acceptable number of returns.
- b) They seemed the most suitable for the tackling of a specific problem in a specific setting. Since no attempt would be made to generalise findings beyond the specific population, it was reasonable to assume that definite conclusions could be drawn about the population under scrutiny.

- c) There would be no problems attached to the kind of sample chosen. It was possible to encourage all the recruits to participate in order to counter the large loss expected.
- d) Since financial and manpower resources were minimal, it was not possible to employ the services of a researcher and to compare his results with the results obtained from the Scales, Questionnaires and Interviews.
- e) The Scales and Questionnaire would be very easy to administer and would not require the services of any other persons.
- f) It would be possible to collect all the data within a very short space of time.
- g) Since the target population was a 'captive' one, it would be a simple matter to decide upon the most opportune time to arrange the administering of the Scales and Questionnaires.
- h) Unstructured interviews can be very open-ended, and were conducted as such, excepting for the relevance to the subject matter at hand.

2. The Population

Approximately 500 men were chosen to be the experimental population for this study. They constituted approximately two thirds of the total intake of a military base in South Africa.

Close vigilance was then kept on their progress in the army over a period of three months, during which time they completed their basic training and volunteered for specialised courses. The criteria as determined in the army were accepted for the purposes of this project, i.e. if a person was accepted for the course for which he volunteered, then he was regarded as successful.

3. Resources

The resources available were minimal, but this did not really affect the study itself - except for the fact that there was no possibility of following up the subjects at the conclusion of their National Service (permission was denied). Had this been possible the number of 'lost' subjects would have been minimal.

Since the study was situation-specific, none of the normal problems pertained: there was no fieldwork involving the employment of investigators and interviewers; no training and supervising of personnel was needed; and no mailing costs were involved. Such financial costs as minimal travelling, printing, typing and the purchase of tapes (for the interviews) were easily borne by the researcher himself.

4. Research Design

The two scales used were:

- a) the Bledsoe Self-Concept Scale
- b) the Nowicki Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children

In addition, general questionnaires were administered and a number of unstructured interviews were conducted.

Both these scales are paper and pencil measures, suitable for use with adolescents. The vast majority of the annual army intake consists of young men of approximately eighteen or nineteen years old. Occasionally a recruit may be as young as sixteen years old and sometimes in his late twenties. The majority, however, were catered for by the use of these scales. The scales were combined with a questionnaire which provided personal background information.

The recruits-to-be were given the scales and questionnaires to complete. This large sample (500) was necessary, initially, to counter the large proportion of expected 'lost' subjects. These losses can be accounted for as follows:

- a) Those that were not correctly filled in, which invalidated them
- b) Those that were not filled in or were spoiled on purpose for political reasons (mostly by ex-university students)
- c) Those recruits who were exempted from national service for medical reasons
- d) Those recruits who were transferred to the base nearest their home because of welfare and other reasons
- e) Those recruits who did not 'succeed' or 'fail' by military standards but who just accepted the course determined for them by the army, i.e. they did not volunteer for courses, nor did they fight against the responsibility when 'being volunteered' by the army

- f) Those recruits who were transferred to an 'untraceable' destination, i.e. a border unit, or a base in South West Africa/Namibia

The 'reduced' sample size used for the purpose of this study was therefore 202 new recruits, of which, according to the military criteria used, 123 'succeeded' and 79 'failed' (see Table 2, p.93).

- a) The Pledsoe Self-Concept Scale (Appendix A, p.1)

This scale consists of thirty trait-descriptive adjectives which the subject marks as a characteristic of himself on a three point rating scale. The subject decides whether each adjective is true of himself: 'Nearly always', 'About half the time' or 'Just now and then'. The score for each recruit is found by assigning a weight of three to the positive adjectives in the 'Nearly always' column, two for 'About half the time' and one for those positive adjectives marked in the 'Just now and then' column. Negative adjectives are scored in the reverse of this i.e. a score of three for 'Just now and then', a score of two for 'About half the time' and a score of one for the 'Nearly always' column.

The subject works down through the list of adjectives twice: firstly under the column marked 'This is the way I am', and then the same adjectives are judged under the column heading marked 'This is the way I would like to be'. The scale can provide a number of self-perception measures. Firstly, self-concept from the 'This is the way I am' score; secondly, ideal-self from the 'This is the way I would like to be' score; and, thirdly, a measure of self-esteem can be gauged by studying

the discrepancy between the 'This is the way I am' and the 'This is the way I would like to be' scores provided by each subject.

The advantages of the scale are that it is brief and easily completed, being largely self-administering. Bledsoe (1979) claims a test-retest reliability ranging between 0,81 and 0,66 for children in the twelfth grade. Correlations with anxiety scales are consistently negative, ranging from -0,50 to -0,46. For boys, correlations are positive with intelligence and scholastic achievement. Bledsoe also claims that the scale correlates with the California Test of Personality Self-Adjustment Scale at 0,39. This phenomenon could also prove significant to the current investigation i.e. the manner in which the new members are able to adjust to their new environment in the military base. The scale was used in this study as it was seen to provide a multi-dimensional picture of each subject's self-perception.

b) The Nowicki and Strickland Locus of Control Scale

(Appendices D (p.vi) and E (p.ix))

This scale was first published in 1973. The scale is intended to be a measure of a generalised expectancy for locus of control, thus the items describe reinforcement in a variety of areas. The authors of the scale report split-half correlations from 0,63 to 0,81. Test-retest reliabilities are as high as 0,71 for children in the tenth grade (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973).

The authors sum up the findings of a number of comparative studies as follows:

"Generally, the results are clearly supportive of the utility and validity of the new instrument ..."

(Nowicki and Strickland, 1973, p.153)

The scale itself consists of forty sentences to which the subjects respond by making a cross in the columns marked 'yes' or 'no'. For example, question one asks "Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't mess around with them?" A response of "yes" to this question would indicate an 'external' orientation. The total score is obtained by counting the number of questions scored in the external direction i.e. the lower the score, the more 'internal' the subject's orientation. Some of the original wording of the scale items was changed to fit with typical White South African language for the purpose of this study. For example, it had to be translated into Afrikaans to accommodate the Afrikaans-speaking members, and American words such as 'smart' were changed to 'clever' etc.

The use of the scales (both the Bledsoe Self-Concept Scale and the Nowicki and Strickland Locus of Control Scale) raises the question of validity when administered to a South African sample. They were, however, administered to white South African recruits who, it is argued, come from a culture similar to that of America. Like America, 'white' South Africa is a sophisticated, predominantly urban and capitalist society, and many share English as a mother tongue.

There are no equivalent standardised South African tests, so use had to be made of what was available. The researcher translated them into Afrikaans, to accommodate that language group in the sample.

The average age of the sample was 18, which compares favourably with the intended target population of the tenth grade (for the Nowicki and Strickland Locus of Control Scale) and the twelfth grade (for the Bledsoe Self-Concept Scale).

Having said that, the question of validity is still a problem. However, the researcher is confident that the use of these scales has provided a reasonable basis upon which to assess the self-concepts and locus of control orientations of the subjects.

c) The Interview

Earlier a number of reasons were offered for the choosing of both a questionnaire and a number of interviews. Also, the purposes of the enquiry were made explicit (see note at the beginning of Chapter I). In addition, the following points need to be made:

- i) Given the purpose of this piece of research, the researcher believed that the transcribed extracts would be an essential part of the core of this project. In addition, they would help to clarify some of the statistical findings. It is therefore not intended that the interviews quoted in Chapter I stand on their own: they are used in conjunction with the data obtained from the questionnaires and the Scales.

It was believed that the added data from the interviews would enhance the value of both the qualitative suggestions and the quantitative data concerning the military environment. In particular, it was believed that the interviews might offer further insights into the positive and negative perceptions of the military environment. As mentioned earlier, this data is suggested material applicable to the man about to begin his national service.

- ii) Cohen and Manion (1980, p.253) point out that the interview and questionnaire have some common characteristics but, more importantly, each has some advantages when compared with the other. Taken together, it was assumed that the questionnaire and the interview would positively enhance the reliability and validity of the data.

The methodological aim of this piece of research was thus to attempt to create a balance by obtaining both quantitative and qualitative data in an attempt to obviate the problems attached to the collection of either one or the other. The interviews were an attempt to collect subjective data in the hope that such data would be useful when comparing it with data gleaned from the responses to the scales. The interview is a useful technique for gaining in-depth insight into the opinions, attitudes, beliefs, motivations and values of the interviewee.

iii) The researcher decided to opt for an informal, open-ended and non-directive interview (it was anticipated that the interviewees would restrict their responses to the subject matter at hand) in the hope that this would encourage as full a response as possible.

At no stage during the interviews did the researcher perceive that the interviewees were trying to avoid issues or that they felt threatened by the approach or subject matter. All the interviewees experienced or were experiencing National Service and the researcher was interested in their subjective experience of it.

By definition, the interview is an interaction between people and the relationship between the people involved will affect what is said by the interviewee and what is heard and how it is interpreted by the interviewer. For this reason, the extracts of the transcribed interviews are direct quotes in order to facilitate the emergence of a personal feeling and interpretation by the reader concerning the military environment.

The researcher did not expect the interviewees to attempt to anticipate what he wanted to hear in the hope that they would help or hinder him in some way. It was impressed upon the interviewees that it was absolutely imperative that they be honest.

5. Analysis of the Data

The proportion between recruits with high and/or low self-concepts in comparison to their observed 'success' and/or 'failure' rates was statistically tested by making use of the Coefficient of Contingency (C). The upper limit for C is related to the number of categories used, and was 0,5 for this study.

In addition, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) and the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient (rho) were used for computing the correlations between the different sets of data. The hypotheses tested were:

HO 1 That there is no difference in the self-concepts of members who either 'succeed' or 'fail'

HA 1 That there is a difference in the self-concepts of members who either 'succeed' or 'fail'

Results A C value of 0,21 was obtained at $df = 1$, so that HO 1 is rejected at the 99% level. The 'success' group was therefore significantly dominated by members with high self-concepts, while the 'failure' group was significantly dominated by members with low self-concepts.

HO 2 That there was no relationship between the self-concept and locus of control orientation in 'successful' subjects

HA 2 That there is a relationship between the self-concept and locus of control orientation in 'successful' subjects

Results A rho value of 0,667 was obtained, so that HO 2 was rejected at the 99% level. The 'successful' subjects therefore displayed a positive 'internal' orientation with respect to locus of control.

HO 3 That there is no relationship between the self-concept and locus of control orientation in the 'unsuccessful' subjects

HA 3 That there is a relationship between the self-concept and locus of control orientation in the 'unsuccessful' subjects

Results A rho value of 0,089 was obtained, indicating no evidence against HO 3, which is consequently accepted.

Table 2 (p.93) displays the destinations of the individuals of the random sample used in this study. The courses are ranked in approximate degree of perceived status and, therefore, it is also a 'success' ranking. However, this does not mean that being a chef is indicative of a lack of 'success'. The recruit can choose his mustering and, if he chooses to be a chef and achieves this position, he is as successful as the recruit who chooses to be a parabat and attains his goal.

Table 2

COURSES	HIGH SELF- CONCEPT	LOW SELF- CONCEPT	
PARACHUTE BATTALION	12	1	
INFANTRY SCHOOL (INCLUDES SECTION LEADERS)	59	14	
AIRFORCE (GENERAL)	2	0	
STATE PRESIDENT'S GUARDS	22	5	
POLICE	3	0	
DOG SCHOOL	3	2	
PERSONNEL SERVICES CORPS	7	7	
MEDICS	2	0	
CHEFS	2	2	
' UNSUCCESSFUL '	11	48	
TOTAL	123	79	202

5.1 Conclusions

To conclude that self-concept and locus of control orientation are determinants of 'success' in the narrowly defined context presented here is not to claim that they are definitive 'causes' or that they are the only 'causes' or prerequisites of 'success'. For example, a recruit with a high self-concept might want to be a rifleman or a private. The methods employed by the researcher necessitated that this recruit would fall into the 'unsuccessful' group because none of the military criteria were satisfied.

However, there does seem to be sufficient evidence to suggest the importance of a positive self-concept and internal locus of control orientation upon entry into the military environment. If these findings are accepted, then they would suggest that useful work could be done in schools to help pupils develop more positive self-concepts and internal locus of control orientations, in the hope that they would be better equipped to meet the demands of compulsory National Service.

A problem of major concern to the researcher was some of the ways in which the military selected personnel for particular musterings. Many of the procedures were unscientific and sometimes questionable but, due to the lack of suitable alternatives, were accepted for the purpose of this study. It would have been senseless to use a psychological test in order to determine 'success', when the subject was randomly 'chosen' to be a chef, for example. It should be mentioned that very few of the army requirements are determined by academic prowess, although attained educational level is taken into consideration. In the army a number of

factors are highlighted, and combined into a test of 'suitability'. For example, a person wishing to volunteer to attend the junior leadership course must be able to run a distance of 2,4 kilometres within a time limit of twelve minutes with full kit. In addition he should have at least a matriculation certificate and no trace of ill-health. He must also have no probable welfare situation in his home environment. There are therefore a number of elimination points in completely different spheres that cannot be combined into a single successful test unit. The sample was also 'modified' by the initial large number of 'lost' subjects. This needs to be kept in mind when viewing the results of this study, regardless of how significant they are. For example, there might have been an excellent candidate for one of the courses, but because he had a minor health defect, was not even considered, and confounded the results in that he was 'unsuccessful'.

As was previously contended, the most successful army candidates are those with a positive self-concept combined with a strong internal locus of control orientation. However, from the contrasting results obtained from null hypotheses 2 and 3 it may be inferred that there were numerous subjects within the unsuccessful group who also displayed a strong internal locus of control orientation. It therefore seems reasonable to conclude that of the two measures used in this study, locus of control is of secondary importance, while self-concept is the dominant feature in determining 'success' in the army.

In summary, the results indicate that self-concept and locus of control have a considerable impact on the success rate of new recruits in the army. On the one hand, men with positive self-concepts combined with an

internal locus of control orientation proved to be the most 'successful' members in the army. On the other hand it was found that the majority of failures exhibited a poor self-concept, irrespective of their locus of control orientation. The self-concept therefore appears to be the more important variable of the two.

Personal observations of changes in self-concept and locus of control were made by the researcher and, as mentioned earlier, these psychological changes are known to occur developmentally and after environmental changes. However, since it was not possible to retest the subjects at the end of the two-year training period, it was not possible to draw any significant conclusions about such changes.

It was unfortunate that the researcher was unable to retest the subjects after the completion of military service. Briefly, the reasons for this are as follows.

- a) Permission to re-test during military service was denied.
- b) Even if (a) above had been granted, the task of tracing and retesting 500 men throughout South Africa and South West Africa/Namibia, after more than two years, would have been 'impossible'.
- c) The researcher completed military service a year and a half before the sample. (The sample completed their service in July 1986).

A further comparative analysis of the data indicates that those men with the most positive self-concepts volunteered for the most difficult

and/or toughest courses; for example, the parabat battalion or the junior leadership course for infantrymen.

There is also a significant difference in the self-concept scores of successful English- and Afrikaans-speaking candidates - something which the researcher had not hypothesised about. This occurrence was unintentionally discovered when the data was being analysed. A number of reasons could explain this phenomenon, such as the different background experience undergone by each group prior to military service, different school environments and family structure. It was found that the self/ideal-self measures of English-speaking subjects in the 'success' group were significantly higher. (An r value of 0,387 was obtained for Afrikaans-speaking subjects, while the r value for the English speakers was significantly higher at 0,804.) An investigation into the causes for this anomaly could highlight some significant phenomena in the South African society.

Chapter IV : RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Introduction

The majority of new recruits in the army are school leavers, men who, a couple of months earlier, were sitting in the classroom. The magnitude of the change experienced cannot be overestimated, and the realities of 'success' are soon with one. For example, it is not uncommon for a school leaver to volunteer for a junior leadership course - sixty-three in this sample did -- and less than a year later take charge of a platoon in the combat zone of South West Africa/Namibia.

The psychological implications of this situation are enormous, and above all, the young leader needs to believe in himself. He has to make decisions continually, decisions which influence the lives of at least thirty other men. Seemingly simple decisions, such as where to rest, or which route to use for patrols etc, suddenly take on enormous proportions. A healthy self-concept, therefore, is of the utmost importance, and directly related to success in the army.

"A person who doubts himself is like a man who would enlist in the ranks of his enemies and bear arms against himself. He makes his failure certain by himself being the first person to be convinced of it."

Alexandre Dumas (in Purkey, 1970, p.20)

The development of a healthy self-concept is the primary issue underlying this study; a self-concept which is developed before the individual can prove successful. The task of developing this self-concept falls on the parents and teachers in the life of the child.

Another aspect in contention here is the system of cadets currently being developed in most South African schools. At the highest level it will introduce the pupil to relevant aspects such as army discipline and functioning as well as practical issues such as drill, shooting and camps. The practical preparation is, however, not a major concern in this study, although its value from the instruction point of view is not discredited. Teaching the pupil how to master some of the basic skills of the military environment will certainly simplify the initial adaptation process experienced upon entry into the army.

2. The Relationship between Self-Concept and Achievement at School

For generations, wise teachers have sensed the significant and positive relationship between a pupil's concept of himself and his performance in school. They believed that the pupils who feel good about themselves and their abilities are the ones who are most likely to succeed, an aspect emphasised in this study. From his extensive research on self-image and achievement, Brookover (1967) concluded that the assumption that human ability is the most important factor in achievement is questionable, and that the pupil's attitudes limit the level of his achievement.

Over-all, research evidence clearly shows a persistent and significant relationship between the self-concept and achievement. Shaw, Edson and Bell (1960) conducted a study to determine the differences between achievers' and underachievers' perceptions of themselves. They reported that male achievers scored significantly higher than underachievers in the following characteristics: Realistic, Optimistic, Enthusiastic,

Reliable, Clear-thinking and Intelligent. A major conclusion of the study was that male achievers feel relatively more positive about themselves than male underachievers.

Bledsoe (1967) explored the relationship of the self-concepts of children to their intelligence, achievements, interests and anxiety and found significant correlations between the professed self-concept and the achievements of boys. Irwin (1967) studied the self-reports of freshmen college students and reported significant relationships between reported self-concept and academic achievement.

3. How the Successful Pupil sees Himself

The successful pupil is one who is likely to see himself in essentially positive ways. Gowan (1960) reported that achievers are characterised by self-confidence, self-acceptance, and a positive self-concept. A composite portrait of the successful pupil, therefore, would seem to show that he has a relatively high opinion of himself and is optimistic about his future performance (Ringness, 1961). He has confidence in his general ability (Taylor, 1964) and his ability as a pupil (Brookover, 1969). He needs fewer favourable evaluations from others (Dittes, 1959), and he feels that he works hard, is liked by others and is generally polite and honest (Davidson and Greenberg, 1967). Judging by their statements, successful pupils can generally be characterised as having positive self-concepts and tending to excel in feelings of worth as individuals (Purkey, 1970).

4. The Self-Concept and Performance

With regard to the research discussed, there is no doubt about the persistent relationship between the self and achievement. Purkey (1970) suggests that there is a continuous interaction between the self and achievement, and that each directly influences the other. The writer experienced incidents of this in the army when the seemingly most unlikely men turned into the most suitable candidates. An insignificant recruit might report for military service not having ever achieved anything really worthwhile, then, within the military environment he is afforded the opportunity of doing something he has never done before, for example, shooting, and discovers that he is not so bad after all - and the more he achieves the better he feels about himself, and the better he feels about himself the wider his achievements spread. For example, Brookover (1967) found that changes in the professed self-concept of academic ability are associated with parallel changes in academic achievement. As a result it is generally postulated by researchers that people who underachieve, or fail to live up to their own expectations, suffer significant losses in self-esteem.

5. The Aim of the Teacher and the School

Because very little can be done about educating parents in the methods and manners used in nurturing the healthy development of the self-concepts of their children, it would seem that the major portion of this development task becomes that of the school, and ultimately that of the teacher. With the functioning of the teacher-psychologists in South African high schools it was hoped that a guidance programme

incorporated into the general high school guidance 'syllabus' might help to improve the self-concepts of 'ailing' pupils. A recently completed study by Luiz and Bauer (1983), however, dispels any such hope.

"The effectiveness of general Guidance in improving self-concept and interpersonal relationships was evaluated. The self-concept and interpersonal relationships of 573 White adolescent pupils who have participated in general Guidance programmes were studied. The general Guidance programmes did not improve self-concept or interpersonal relationships and the authors concluded that there is a need for teacher-psychologists (and teachers) to operate more in the area of non-formal education if psychological growth is to be facilitated."

Luiz and Bauer (1983)

in Education Journal (Nov. 1985, vol.95, no.3, p.19)

By non-formal education reference is being made to the global educational and psychological impact made by the school, its teachers and the occurrences which take place. Reference is not being made to the formal classroom situation where the teacher and pupil are seen as such, teacher teaching pupil, be it mathematics, geography or even group guidance (to a lesser degree). Here we find aspects such as the interaction between teacher and pupil extramurally, where the teacher is scrutinised as a role model, the impact he has on the pupils by his deeds, his sensitivity toward them and the attitudes he conveys.

How does the teacher help the pupil to gain a positive and realistic image of himself? The first step is the prevention of negative

self-concepts, for once a child has formed a negative image of himself, this task of the teacher becomes extremely difficult.

The following is a discussion (mainly from Purkey, 1970) of some of the recommendations applicable to the teacher and his role in improving the self-concepts of his pupils.

As in the army (although to a lesser degree), it is traditionally expected of the child to adjust to his school, rather than the school adjusting to the child. The child is expected to learn to live in a new environment and to compete for the rewards of obedience and achievement. Often, because of the approach adopted by schools, negative attitudes develop towards learning and school in general. The principle that negative self-concepts should be prevented is ignored by many schools. All too often, school becomes a place where pupils face failure, rejection, and daily reminders of their limitations. Because some schools are unable to adjust to individual differences between pupils (in spite of their written philosophies), untold children face daily deprecation and humiliation. Competitive evaluations, which ignore varying sociological backgrounds and individual differences in ability often begin in the sub-standards and continue throughout school. It is logical that a complete contradiction of the above picture might provide an even worse situation, with no academic or social prowess, self-discipline or healthy competition being included in the child's education.

The problem experienced here is one of suitability; which path to follow in developing a curriculum where the expected academic learning

takes place as well as the building of positive self-concepts. While curricular innovations and programme arrangements are important, it is obvious that the role of the teacher is imperative to the development of a positive self-concept. Staines (1958) concluded that changes in the child's self-concept do occur as an outcome of the learning situation, and that the self must be recognised as an important factor in learning. Teaching methods can be adapted so that definite changes of the kind sought for will occur in the self without injury to the academic programme in process.

In order to influence pupils it is necessary to become a significant other in their lives, for we are seldom changed by people whom we see as insignificant or unimportant. The way a teacher becomes significant seems to rest on two forces:

- a) what he believes, and
- b) what he does

(Purkey, 1970).

A basic assumption of the theory of the self-concept is that we behave according to our beliefs i.e. the teacher's beliefs about himself and his pupils are crucial factors in determining his effectiveness in the classroom. Combs (1969) indicates that the teacher's attitudes toward himself and others are as important as, if not more so than, his techniques, practices or materials.

There seems to be general agreement that the teacher needs to have positive and realistic attitudes about himself and his abilities before he is able to reach out to like and respect others. Berger (1953)

reported that there is a marked relation between the way an individual sees himself and the way he sees others. Those who accept themselves tend to be more accepting of others and perceive others as more accepting.

Jersild (1965) argues that the self-understanding of teachers is a necessary factor in coping with their feelings and in becoming more effective in the classroom. The personal problems of teachers often interfere with their effectiveness in the classroom, and an understanding of the influence of these and other attitudes and emotions is vital in working with pupils. A similar view is reported by Combs (1969) who found that effective teachers, counsellors and priests could be distinguished from ineffective helpers on the basis of their attitudes about themselves and others. Such findings as these have long-range implications for the professional education of teachers. When teachers have essentially favourable attitudes toward themselves, they are in a much better position to build positive and realistic self-concepts in their pupils (Purkey, 1970).

The way in which significant others evaluate the pupil directly affects the pupil's concept of himself. This in turn establishes limits on his success in school. Therefore, teachers need to view pupils in essentially positive ways and hold favourable expectations. Davidson and Lang (1960) found that the pupil's perceptions of the teacher's feelings toward him correlated positively with his self-perception.

The key to building positive and realistic self-images in pupils lies largely in what the teacher believes about himself and his pupils, yet

one cannot ignore what the teacher does in the classroom, for the behaviour he displays and the experiences he provides, as perceived by the pupils, have a strong impact in themselves. The most important aspects of the teacher's role are:

- a) the attitudes he conveys, and
- b) the atmosphere he develops

(Purkey, 1970).

It is difficult to overestimate the need for the teacher to be sensitive to the attitudes he expresses towards pupils. Even though teachers may have the best intentions, they sometimes project distorted images of themselves. What a person believes can be hidden by negative habits picked up long ago. The teacher must check himself to see that he is conveying his beliefs in an authentic and meaningful fashion.

There are a number of factors which are important in creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to developing favourable self-images in pupils:

- a) High academic expectations and a high degree of challenge on the part of teachers have a positive and beneficial effect on pupils.
- b) If the pupil is to grow and develop as an adequate human being, he needs the opportunity to make meaningful decisions for himself. This also means that he must have the freedom to make mistakes, and even to laugh at his inadequacies.

- c) A basic feeling by the teacher for the worth and dignity of pupils is vital in developing a positive self-concepts. No aspect of education is more important than the feeling on the part of the teacher that the individual pupil is important, valuable and can learn in school. Sometimes teachers forget the importance of respect and ride roughshod over the personal feelings of pupils.
- d) A psychologically safe and supportive learning situation encourages students to grow academically as well as in feelings of personal worth i.e. the warmth exhibited by teachers.
- e) Children who are brought up in a permissive environment tend to develop less self-esteem than those reared in a firmer and more demanding atmosphere. It is important for the teacher to maintain discipline, for the type of control under which a child lives has considerable effect on his self-image.
- f) Perhaps the single most important step that teachers can take in the classroom is to provide an educational atmosphere of success rather than failure.

(Purkey, 1970).

Entering a person's private world in order to understand how he is seeing things is difficult, for the individual self can only be approached through the perceptions of some other person, perceptions filled with all sorts of prejudices, aspirations and anxieties. Fortunately, most teachers have a great supply of sensitivity, which needs to be applied to their teaching. To the degree to which a teacher is

able to predict how his students are viewing themselves, their subject, and their world, to that degree he is in a position to become a successful teacher.

In conclusion it should be said that teachers should consider self-concept as a vital and important aspect of learning and development which the school, through its educational process, should seek to promote and foster in every child. It must be stressed that the teacher must give the self-concepts of pupils far greater emphasis than is presently given.

Little has been done to equip teachers with simple techniques and instruments which would enable them to be more sensitive to their pupils' needs. This problem may be partially solved by using one or both of the following aspects; firstly, by evaluation of the self through observations from which inferences may be drawn, and, secondly, by evaluating the self through self reports such as The Bledsoe Self Concept Scale and The How-I-See-Myself-Scale.

6. Implications for the Military Environment

Because of the high success rate of achievers in the military environment it is inappropriate to make claims that the men are damaged psychologically. However, the adaptation into and out of this environment after two years certainly requires a strong psychological resistance and a mature mental attitude.

The degree to which conformity is required (forced) in the army is a source of apprehension and fear of the unknown experienced by pupils about to begin their military service. The environment attempts to obtain total submission to authority, a situation in which only those who are very well prepared to play the charade or those who submit willingly will cope easily. For a man with a high self-concept combined with a positive attitude i.e. viewing military service as a challenge in personal effectiveness and to himself, the problem of coping would be virtually non-existent. On the other hand, a man with a low self-esteem and an external locus of control would appear to be ill-equipped to meet the demands.

It would seem that we in education have the responsibility, within the limits of our training, to investigate, to understand and to utilise the self-concept as a means of facilitating success. It is surely every pupil's right, and the responsibility of the educators, to see that as many young people as possible go out into the world with a positive conception of themselves.

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APPENDIX A

HOW I SEE MYSELF

HOE EK MYSELF BESKOU

I would like to know a little more about you. This page will help you describe yourself, and how you would like to be. There are no right or wrong answers - each person may have different ideas. I am interested in knowing how you really feel, so please be honest.

In the columns below, please mark, with a cross, once next to each word first on the left, and then on the right, next to each word. Think carefully before you answer. All you need to do is decide if you are like the word given, NEARLY ALWAYS, ABOUT HALF THE TIME, or JUST NOW AND THEN. Please do the same in the right hand column.

THIS IS THE WAY I AM				THIS IS THE WAY I WOULD LIKE TO BE		
DIT IS HOE EK IS				DIT IS HOE EK GRAAG WIL WEES		
NEARLY ALWAYS	ABOUT ½ THE TIME	JUST NOW AND THEN		NEARLY ALWAYS	ABOUT ½ THE TIME	JUST NOW AND THEN
BYNA ALTYD	DIE ½ VAN DIE TYD	NOU EN DAN		BYNA ALTYD	DIE ½ VAN DIE TYD	NOU EN DAN
			Friendly Vriendelik			
			Cold Kil			
			Brave Dapper			
			Small Nederig			
			Helpful Behulpzaam			
			Honest Oprek			
			Cheerful Vrolik			

			Healthy Gesond			
			Timid Skugter			
			Slow Stadig			
			Faithful Getrou			
			Lonely Eensaam			
			Polite Hoflik			
			Talkative Spraaksaam			
			Happy Gelukkig			
			Mean Onaangenaam			

APPENDIX B

ALGEMENE VRAELYS NO. 1 GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE NO 1.

COMPANY AND PLATOON
KOMPANIE EN PELETON :

NO :

NAAM
NAME :

NAME OF YOUR HIGH SCHOOL
NAAM VAN JOU HOERSKOOI :

1. What were your favourite school subjects?
Wat was jou gunsteling vakke op skool?
.....
2. What sports did you play at school?
Aan watter sportsoorte het jy deelgeneem?
.....
3. Were you given any responsibilities at your school (e.g. prefect, team captain, etc.)?
Het jy enige verantwoordelikhede op skool gehad (b.v. prefek, spankaptein)?
.....
4. Have you achieved any high standing in things out of school (e.g. scouts, private soccer club, etc.)?
Het jy enige aansien geniet in buite skoolse aktiwiteite (bv voortrekkers, landsdiens, debatsvereniging, ens)?
.....
5. What events or situation, if any, made you feel that you were better than others at your school?
By watter geleentheid het jy jouself beter as andere beskou?
.....
6. What events made you feel that perhaps you were inferior to other pupils at your school?
Wanneer het jy minderwaardig gevoel op skool?
.....
.....
7. Did you enjoy cadets at school? If so, why?
Het jy kadette op skool geniet, en waarom?
.....
.....

APPENDIX C

GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE NO 2

ALGEMENE VRAELYS NO 2.

COMPANY AND PLATOON

KOMPANIE EN PELETON :

NO :

NAME

NAAM :

WHICH SCHOOL WERE YOU AT?

WAT WAS DIE NAAM VAN JOU SKOOL?

1. What aspects of high school did you enjoy most?
Waarvan het jy die meeste op hoërskool gehou?

.....
.....

2. What aspects of high school did you not enjoy?
Waarvan het jy nie op hoërskool gehou nie?

.....
.....

3. What were your best achievements at high school?
Wat was jou beste prestasie op hoërskool?

.....
.....

4. What did you not do well at high school?
Waar mee was jy onsuksesvol op hoërskool?

.....
.....

5. List those things you believe you will make a success of in the army.
Noem die aspekte waarin jy dink jy suksésvol sal wees in die Weermag.

.....
.....
.....

6. List those things that you think you may fail, or not make a success of
in the army.
Noem die aspekte waarin jy vermoed dat jy onsuksesvol in die Weermag sal
wees.

.....
.....

APPENDIX D

COPY OF ORIGINAL NOWICKI-STRICKLAND SCALE.

1. Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't fool with them?
2. Do you believe that you can stop yourself from catching a cold?
3. Are some kids just born lucky?
4. Most of the time do you feel that getting good grades means a great deal to you?
5. Are you often blamed for things that just aren't your fault?
6. Do you believe that if somebody studies hard enough he or she can pass any subject?
7. Do you feel that most of the time it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway?
8. Do you feel that if things start out well in the morning that it's going to be a good day no matter what you do?
9. Do you feel that most of the time parents listen to what their children have to say?
10. Do you believe that wishing can made good things happen?
11. When you get punished does it usually seem it's for no good reason at all?
12. Most of the time do you find it hard to change a friend's (mind) opinion?
13. Do you think that cheering more than luck helps a team to win?
14. Do you feel that it's nearly impossible to change your parents' minds about anything?
15. Do you believe that your parents should allow you to make most of your own decisions?
16. Do you feel that when you do something wrong there's very little you can do to make it right?

17. Do you believe that most kids are just born good at sports?
18. Are most of the other kids your age stronger than you are?
19. Do you feel that one of the best ways to handle most problems is not to think about them?
20. Do you feel that you have a lot of choice in deciding who your friends are?
21. If you find a four leaf clover do you believe that it might bring you good luck?
22. Do you often feel that whether you do your homework has much to do with what kind of grades you get?
23. Do you feel that when a kid your age decides to hit you, there's little you can do to stop him or her?
24. Have you ever had a good luck charm?
25. Do you believe that whether or not people like you depends on how you act?
26. Will your parents usually help you if you ask them to?
27. Have you felt that when people were mean to you it was usually for no reason at all?
28. Most of the time, do you feel that you can change what might happen tomorrow by what you do today?
29. Do you believe that when bad things are going to happen they just are going to happen no matter what you try to do to stop them?
30. Do you think that kids can get their own way if they just keep trying?
31. Most of the time do you find it useless to try to get your own way at home?
32. Do you feel that when good things happen they happen because of hard work?

33. Do you feel that when somebody your age wants to be your enemy there's little you can do to change matters?
34. Do you feel that it's easy to get friends to do what you want them to?
35. Do you usually feel that you have little to say about what you get to eat at home?
36. Do you feel that when someone doesn't like you there's little you can do about it?
37. Do you usually feel that it's almost useless to try in school because most other children are just plain smarter than you are?
38. Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better?
39. Most of the time, do you feel that you have little to say about what your family decides to do?
40. Do you think it's better to be smart than to be lucky?

- 33. Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better?
- 39. Most of the time, do you feel that you have little to say about what your family decides to do?
- 40. Do you think it's better to be clever than to be lucky?

YES	NO

NAAM :

RANG :

NOUMER :

Maak 'n kruisie in die kolom regs, vir die antwoord wat op jou betrekking het.

1. Glo jy dat die meeste probleme hulself oplos indien jy eenvoudig aan die noodlot oorlaat?
2. Glo jy dat jy jouself van 'n verkoue kan weerhou?
3. Word sommige mense eenvoudig as geluksvoëls gebore?
4. Veroorsaak goeie uitslae meestal dat jy gelukkig voel?
5. Word jy dikwels blameer vir gebeure wat nie jou fout is nie?
6. Glo jy, dat indien 'n persoon hard genoeg probeer hy/sy enige mikpunt kan bemeester?
7. Glo jy dat dit meestal nie moeite werd is om hard te probeer nie omdat dinge in elk geval reg uitwerk nie?
8. Glo jy dat as jy met die regte voet uit die bed uitklim, dit vir jou 'n goeie dag gaan wees, al gebeur wat ook al?
9. Voel jy dat ouers gereeld luister na wat hul kinders te sê het?
10. Glo jy dat wens droom goeie gevolge kan hê?
11. As jy gestraf word, voel jy gewoonlik dat daar nie werklik 'n goeie rede voor is nie?

	JA	NEE
1. Glo jy dat die meeste probleme hulself oplos indien jy eenvoudig aan die noodlot oorlaat?		
2. Glo jy dat jy jouself van 'n verkoue kan weerhou?		
3. Word sommige mense eenvoudig as geluksvoëls gebore?		
4. Veroorsaak goeie uitslae meestal dat jy gelukkig voel?		
5. Word jy dikwels blameer vir gebeure wat nie jou fout is nie?		
6. Glo jy, dat indien 'n persoon hard genoeg probeer hy/sy enige mikpunt kan bemeester?		
7. Glo jy dat dit meestal nie moeite werd is om hard te probeer nie omdat dinge in elk geval reg uitwerk nie?		
8. Glo jy dat as jy met die regte voet uit die bed uitklim, dit vir jou 'n goeie dag gaan wees, al gebeur wat ook al?		
9. Voel jy dat ouers gereeld luister na wat hul kinders te sê het?		
10. Glo jy dat wens droom goeie gevolge kan hê?		
11. As jy gestraf word, voel jy gewoonlik dat daar nie werklik 'n goeie rede voor is nie?		

38. Is jy van die soort wat glo dat vooruitbeplanning dinge beter laat uitwerk?
39. Voel jy dat jy meestal min te sê het op wat jou familie besluit om te doen?
40. Dink jy dit is beter om slim te wees as om 'n geluksvoël te wees?

JA	NEE