

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS  
OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN.

Implications for reintegration into the society

BY

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**DECLARATION**

I declare that the thesis hereby submitted to the University of the North for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at any other University, that it is my own work in design and execution, and that all material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

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MALETSE KIDDO MAKO



**DEDICATION**

I would like to dedicate this work to all the street children in the world, especially the street children of our country -South Africa.

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**SUMMARY**

The aim of this study was to make a psychological analysis of the lives of street children. A number of variables were investigated as they were deemed to form part of street children's psychological makeup. These are tenacity, purpose in life, interpersonal relationships, self-esteem, emotional stability and psychological wellbeing.

A total number of 216 children participated. Using a quasi-experimental design, a group of 54 hardcore street children, 54 sheltered street children, 54 part-time street children were compared with each other against a control group of 54 non-street children (school going children).

Tenacity was measured using the Hardiness and Sense of coherence scales; purpose in life was measured using Purpose in Life Scale. Interpersonal relationship skills were measured using a sub-scale of Personal, Home, Social and Formal relation (PHSF) test. The level of self-esteem was measured using Rosenberg's Self-esteem Scale, and emotional stability was measured using Koppitz's Human Figure Drawing (HFD) test. Psychological wellbeing was measured using Satisfaction with life and Affectometer scales.

Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) and post-hoc t-tests were the statistical methods employed to compare the differences between the groups on the six mentioned variables.

According to the findings of this research, there are significant differences between street children and non street children in respect of the above variables.

The findings in this research further yielded that street children in general (particularly the hardcore street children) are more tenacious than the non-street children.

According to this study, street children in general have less purpose in life, poor quality of interpersonal relationships; their level of self-esteem is low and they are emotionally unstable as compared to the non-street children. Furthermore, their psychological wellbeing is poor.

**CHAPTER 1****INTRODUCTION**

South Africa has just emerged from its tragic past during which the previous government had entrenched the policies of apartheid. After many years those pillars of apartheid crumbled. The disenfranchised people who are in the majority (the Blacks) were only allowed to cast their vote for the very first time on 27 April 1994. Every government structure as well as political and economic structures had to undergo dramatic metamorphosis. These included the social structures, which, inter-alia, represent street children. The second general democratic elections were held on 2 June, 1999. The question is whether the needs of street children are being catered for.

It is of significance to mention that although there are many non-governmental organisations that try to look at the plight of street children, many others cannot cope because the problem is growing bigger every day, the street children are becoming more sophisticated and their number is growing by the day.

Child-care centres around the country are faced with a mammoth task. They have to be very careful not to open their doors to children who would run to these centres because they do not accept discipline in their homes. At the same time, it is of utmost importance not to ignore the needs of these children. Therefore it is necessary to strike the balance.

Cornia (1980) says that in order to respond to the needs of the street children, it may be essential to view them first, as children with needs like any other children in society. This enables one to assess whether these needs are being met, and how, and to include measures that satisfy to some extent those needs that the children have been deprived of; within a structure designed to help them (street children).

Ashbey (1984) mentions that the needs of street children, like those of all other children, comprise physical and psychosocial aspects. He says that whereas it is easier to understand and satisfy physical needs (which include the need for food, shelter and clothing), it is not the case with psycho-social needs.

Nelson (1992) on the other hand states that needs change their importance during different developmental stages. Psycho-social needs to a larger or lesser extent exist throughout life.

Whereas Pringle (1974) has identified four psycho-social needs, viz., the need for love and security, the need for new experiences, the need for praise and recognition and the need for responsibility, this research focuses on the street children's lives from the psychological point of view. It investigates their tenacity, purpose in life, quality of interpersonal relationships, level of self-esteem, their emotional stability and psychological well-being. The present researcher argues that if the above psychological attributes as well as others are understood, it will be much easier for the street children to be reintegrated into the society.

Mako (1992), supported by Maphatane (1994), argues that the street child phenomenon occurs within a social and an environmental context. He argues that for one to be able to comprehend this phenomenon, it is very crucial that one should be able to focus beyond the family and examine

other factors within their environment. It is also crucial to look at their psychological state of mind.

Many factors are attributed to be the cause of the street children phenomenon. Aptekar (1988, 1989) mentions that street children represent a by-product of a community that has been exposed to industrialisation and rapid urbanisation without the support of a firm social infrastructure. They are not adequately protected, supervised or directed by responsible adults (Swart, 1988). Gerbers (1990) says that they have abandoned (or have been abandoned by) their families.

Cemane (1990) asserts that street children have been poorly socialised and therefore often fail to develop commitments and attachments within the society. These children usually roam the streets by day and sleep in culverts, empty buildings or vacant lots at night (Drake, 1989). Aptekar and Boore (1990) are of the opinion that their parents have abandoned them, and that they work and live on the streets. They have no permanent homes; they stray in public places, earn a living on the streets and tend to be victimised by criminals or the public.



In describing street children as a by-product of modern society, Le Roux (1993) says: "In the midst of sudden changes, a complicated social life, and rapid progress, contemporary society is characterised by an exceptional complexity. The Industrial Revolution ( $\pm$  1750 - 1851) with its accompanying urbanisation, brought about drastic changes in the primary form of society" (p.33).

Beecham, Fiehn and Gates (1983) postulate that although the Industrial Revolution brought about changes in the economy and the position of wealthy children in society, few changes have taken place in the attitude of society towards children of the poor. Child labour was considered to be very important during the Industrial Revolution and young children were encouraged to earn a living and to take up the responsibilities of working adults.

Hitherto, literature has not indicated any presence of White street children in South Africa. Ross (1991) and Mako (1992) argue that the previous government with its apartheid policies has played a major role in inventing the phenomenon of street children in South Africa.

Chikane (1986) cites that Blacks in South Africa were living (and are still living) in appalling conditions, in squatter camps and congested areas (like the Cape Flats, Crossroads, Mshenguville, etc.) and are experiencing poverty, lack of food and proper nutrition, poor education, etc. These conditions had become fertile soil for the germination of the seed of the street children phenomenon. These children feel obliged to go out and try to support themselves and their families by either working on the streets or making a living in any way they deem possible.

Chikane (1986) further contends that the world of the township child was extremely violent. It was a world made up of teargas, bullets, whipping, detention, interrogation and death on the streets. It was an experience of military operations and night raids, roadblocks and body searches. It was a world where parents and friends were carried away in the night to be interrogated; a world where people simply disappeared, where parents were assassinated and homes were petrol-bombed.

Mako (1992) concurs with Chikane (1986) that South Africa began to see street children in large numbers during the late 1970's.

Carr (1995) also concurs with the above authors that 1976 saw the genesis of street children in South Africa. A

generation of black and coloured children gave up their education to fight for their liberation. The Group Areas Act of 1950 had destroyed the concept of the extended family and there is no doubt that it is responsible for the development of the street children phenomenon, along with the socio-economic sanctions which South Africa had to face.

Carr (1995) further says that the 1980's gave birth to the concept that it was permissible to openly acknowledge social problems such as drug abuse and alcoholism, and the existence of street children in South Africa.

Political changes in South Africa witnessed the mushrooming of squatter camps all over the country, and the scrapping of all discriminatory legislation which included influx control laws. This resulted in rapid urbanisation, housing shortage, inadequate health, unemployment etc. This change also saw a further breakdown of the family unit, resulting in child abuse, neglect and even abandonment. Consequently the street child phenomenon gained momentum (Carr, 1995).

In many parts of South Africa, Street Children Committees were later established; firstly by concerned

individuals, then followed by the non-governmental organisations in trying to curb the growth of this problem. It is of crucial importance to mention that efforts to work with street children so as to help them are usually thwarted by adults' negative behaviours such as: selling drugs, glue, and alcohol to these children, exploiting them and further subjecting them to primary and secondary abuse (Carr, 1995).

According to Aptekar (1988) all street children are exposed to different forms and levels of street culture. This, inter-alia, includes the way they form groups, obtain food, drugs and money. Each group would have a group leader who is usually either intelligent or much stronger than others. Any newcomer will have to satisfy entry requirements.

Swart (1990) and Carr (1995) assert that within the group, young boys pay for their protection by providing food and in some cases by paying a specific daily fee to the group leader. Money is collected by begging, pushing grocery trolleys for the shoppers, petty theft, parking cars and sometimes by prostitution.

According to Tyler (1986), their places of abode vary considerably and amount to occupying a territory anywhere, where others will not worry them. Children have been found living on vacant pieces of land, in shop doorways, public toilets, back alleys and even underground sewers. Their diet is usually handouts from the backdoors of restaurants and cafés or whatever they can beg for. These boys sleep huddled together relying on body heat for warmth, on plastic sheets or cardboard and a few have blankets or extra clothes. They rarely wash themselves or their clothes. As a consequence, they have a characteristic appearance: a thin body covered in filth with dirt ingrained into the skin, open sores, two or three layers of filthy clothing, no shoes, their hair is usually not combed and they rarely brush their teeth. This is also aggravated by the problem of sniffing glue (Mako, 1992).

### **1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Street children in South Africa and all over the world have special needs and they should be treated as such - children with special needs.

A mistake is often made of treating them like normal

children thereby overlooking traumatic experiences they had to endure. These children, especially the hardcores, usually go through difficulties of incalculable magnitude. In the morning and during the day, they have to fend for themselves - they have to search for food. During the day they search for more food so that they can put some away for the night-time. During sunset and at night, they do not have a home to go to. To them **street is home**.

The part-time street children (the strollers) on the other hand, also do odd jobs. These include pushing trolleys for grocery shoppers (with the hope that they will give them some money so that they can buy glue or food), begging for food or money, parking cars in the city centres and so on. They have to go through a tough time - although their advantage over hard-cores is that at night-time they have a "home" to go to.

Street children in **shelter homes** find themselves confined to a foreign environment that has too many rules to follow. They must follow a specific daily routine of making their beds, washing themselves, eating breakfast, washing the dishes, and others going to school or streets (for various reasons). Usually this kind of lifestyle is

very irritating to them. Other street children in shelters do not exercise patience, and they would go back to the streets.

Generally, homeless children display an extraordinary range and scale of psychological and emotional problems. They are found to be higher than their peers in shyness, dependent behaviour, aggression, attention deficiencies, withdrawal and demanding behaviour (Bassuk, Rubin and Lauriat, 1986). These authors add that these children show increased stress, anxiety and depression, as well as a significantly lowered self-esteem. The majority of homeless children over the age of five acknowledge suicidal feelings.

Bassuk et al. (1986) highlight that an expert on homelessness - Tony Russo, the executive director of the Consortium for Services to Homeless Families (Conserve), located in Washington D.C.- notes that homeless children will present with a "flat affect". Other psychological problems such as maladaptive behaviour, alarmingly slowed cognitive development, hyperactivity and a great deal of anger and aggressive behaviour have also been indicated.

Bassuk et al. (1986) believe that those children will have also experienced developmental delays and sometimes with or without developmental regression and other stress-related symptoms and illnesses.

In the present study, the psychological make-up of street children was investigated and analysed with the implications for reintegrating them into the society. The specific variables under study were:

- (a) Tenacity
- (b) Purpose in Life
- (c) Quality of interpersonal relationships
- (d) Level of Self-esteem
- (e) Emotional stability
- (f) Psychological wellbeing

## **1.2 RATIONALE, SIGNIFICANCE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

While the majority of people in South Africa have their hopes raised as to the future of this country, the street children do not seem to have any hopes whatsoever. What about their purpose in life - do they have any, really? How do they relate to other people - or even to



other children? These children's level of self-esteem, is it high or low? They seem tenacious and this seems to make them survive.

This research sought to answer the above questions, more than that; it is necessary to understand these children's psychological wellbeing - emanating from the above questions to be able to reintegrate them into the society.

In support of the above statement, Resener (1988) submits that when one lives on the streets for any length of time, one soon begins to look like the rest of the people. One quickly loses one's particular traits and talents. Bock and English (1973) suggested that children who come from stressful homes are inclined to be on the street. They are afraid of being returned home against their will. Roberts (1982) also concurs.

According to Jayes (1985), Blum and Smith (1972), Bock et al. (1973), Liebow, Schamp, Shellow and Unger (1972), and Roberts (1982), parental and family conflicts are some of the stress factors that contribute to children running away from homes and ending up in the streets. According to

Jones and Labarre (1977), neglect, physical and sexual abuse by parents is also responsible for sending children into the streets.

Brennan and Dunford (1976) found that emotional abuse in the form of constant negative labelling and criticism with little warmth and negative affirmation from parents to children were contributing factors. According to Roberts (1982), parent alcoholism, death of a parent(s), divorce, unemployment and their own or a parent's severe illness were some of the causes.

Runaways were found to have a higher incidence of alcohol-prone parents and/or parents who physically abuse them - as compared to their non-runaway counterparts (Roberts, 1982).

Liebow et al. (1972) and Cull and Hardy (1976) indicate that street children often perceive themselves as unloved and unwanted by their parents. Their self-esteem is often low. They also feel that they are punished more than their non-runaway siblings are. They feel that they are unfairly treated and exploited by their parents. Furthermore, they do not think that their parents accord

them the necessary love and respect (Jenkins, 1971) and (Loventhal, 1963).

Bock et al. (1973) and Cockburn (1991) note that children usually believe the labels their parents give them. Such labels as bad, immature, incompetent, mean, stupid, dull and something-is-wrong-with-the-child are believed. Consequently children end up becoming those labels.

Mako (1992) notes that the same hostile family environment, which tends to "**breed**" these children can be reversed and the implications for reintegrating them, can be great- irrespective of the length of period a child may have been on the streets.

The present researcher argues that it is of vital significance to study these children's lives and the impact of their life-style and of their hostile environment on their psyche, thereafter one can then begin to develop appropriate rehabilitative or therapeutic programmes before reintegrating them back into the society.

### 1.3 AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter 2 will discuss the historical background, the United States government policies on street children, family foster care and homeless children in shelters.

It will further discuss conflict management with street children and the developmental lag among street children. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the phenomenon of street children in the developing countries in general, the phenomenon of street children in Latin America, in Africa and in South Africa.

Chapter 3 deals with the rights of children, Legislation and the Welfare policies, while Chapter 4 focuses on child labour. Chapter 5 examines the general behaviour of street children and their way of life, while Chapter 6 deals with different theoretical foundations relevant to the study. Methodology is discussed in Chapter 7, and Chapter 8 will present the results. The discussion of the study is in Chapter 9, whereas Chapter 10 deals with the conclusion, recommendations, as well as the limitations of the study.

**CHAPTER 2****HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND THE PHENOMENON OF STREET CHILDREN****2.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND**

In medieval times, there was little difference between being a child and being an adult. Children from peasant families were very important in the economy of the family and that of the society (Beecham, Fiehn and Gates, 1983). According to these authors, the attitude and practice of child-labour remained intact even during the industrial revolution. Children from poor families seemed destined for hard work for the rest of their lives; they often worked fourteen hours daily, six days a week. Child-labour was favoured since these children were paid poorly and had to work hard for long hours under unfavourable conditions.

Schurink (1995) mentions that throughout history, children had to fend for themselves. When the 1212 Children's Crusade failed, bands of children roamed the streets and most of them were sold as slaves.

According to Jayes (1985), the phenomenon of running away is not new - it has been known throughout history. In 1808, children living **on** the streets of London were estimated to be in the region of 9,288. These children were mostly between the ages of 8 and 12 years old. By 1876, a number of children living in the streets was estimated at 30 000. These children were under sixteen years of age.

Agnelli (1986) adds that the failure of the 1212 Children's Crusade resulted in bands of children roaming the countryside. During the Russian Revolution, street children (*besprizorni*) were seen everywhere (Zenzinov, 1931). Furthermore, Agnelli (1986) cites the fact that the 19th century's Industrial revolution ushered many street children who made a living on streets, begging, stealing and performing odd jobs. Charles Dickens and Victor Hugo wrote stories about these children, thereby reminding readers that the phenomenon of street children is a replay of past events.

Schurink (1995) points out that the New York Times has written about street children in New York as early as 1868. He estimates that the number of different homeless and vagrant children who were lodged in the various lodging

houses of the (Children's Aid) Society amounted to over 10 000. He further postulates that the number could be approximately 20 000. This could be so if, in addition, a number cared for by other institution and those who are not cared for, are considered. This number includes those street children arrested by the police.

Aptekar (1988) says that the plight of street children was only recorded in recent history, although the street-children phenomenon is as old as man is. According to Franklin (1986), a child who was able to lead a normal life without the constant care and supervision of parents or adults was classified as an adult. They were regarded as individuals in their own right. The other side of the coin also prevailed; that they were also regarded as the property of their parents, thus they were neglected, abused, abandoned, sold into slavery, mutilated and even killed (Franklin, 1986).

## 2.2 UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT POLICIES ON STREET CHILDREN AND HOMELESS CHILDREN

According to the US House of Representatives Congressional Record (1995), a certain Ms Furse addressed the House on the issues relating to the plight of American street and homeless children. She requested members of the house not to turn a blind eye on thousands of children who are hungry, homeless, frightened. She further requested America to put the children first.

This source states that the Republicans in the House had approved measures that would take food off the trays of children. They were working against programmes that assisted the poor and the homeless. Moreover, they had given the back of their hand to President Clinton's national service corps (Herbert, 1995).

The Los Angeles Times (1994) contends that the Federal Government of the United States is deliberately using its right to inflict harm on the least powerful people in the nation; and that the attacks on children in general have been the worst.



According to Herbert (1995), The Republican Leadership had targeted children for almost all of the pain. He speculates that the budget cut from the child nutrition programme amounted to \$7 billion. He further says that foster care and adoption have been cut by \$4 billion over five years. They have cut Aid to Families with Dependant children, and they were eliminating most of the entitlements. They were smashing their way through all of the children's programmes. Herbert (1995) perceives the above budget cuts as "a massacre of the innocents" (p.1).

President Clinton was against the above cuts and accused GOP majority in congress of "making war on children" (Herbert 1995. p.1).

When addressing the Greenfield Massachusetts Kiwanis Club, Adams (1990) indicated that she had focussed on the staggering emotional, psychological, physical and criminal after effects of child abuse and neglect. She said that Massachusetts had over 70,000 reported cases of child abuse and neglect in 1989, up 371% since 1980 - with about 75% of those cases unreported. Eighty-three (83) children died in Massachusetts in 1989 and 11 died in January of 1990. She

further said that street children are also included in the above statistics.

The above author provides that thousands of children (including homeless children) are in Massachusetts are beaten, raped and tortured all the time. "Out there are many children who are in danger of death or irreparable physical and psychological damage" (Adams, 1990,p.1).

#### **2.2.1 WHOLE FAMILY FOSTER CARE**

Nelson (1992) writes that there have been attempts by individuals and organisations in the United States to foster homeless children and their parents. The focus was on whole family foster care. The pilot project used foster families in the Minneapolis - St. Paul area to provide community - based housing and mentorship to homeless families for up to six months as they made the transition to greater stability.

According to Nelson (1992), the challenge in developing a whole family foster care programme was obtaining funding to support adults and children placed together. Another challenge stemmed from the adjustment

social workers and foster families had to make from fostering children to fostering adults, to be able to care for their children, including changes in conflict resolution, communication and problem-solving methods.

### **2.2.2 HOMELESS CHILDREN IN SHELTERS**

In another study, Master, Miliotis, Graham, Barman, Ramirez and Neemann (1993) examined the psychological adjustment of 159 homeless children. Their study comprised of families with 8 to 17 year old children who resided in a shelter in summer. Results yielded that homeless children had experienced substantially more negative life events than the average children of the comparison group. The results of their study found that homeless children have greater stress exposure and fewer resources. They further found that child behaviour problems were significantly higher in the homeless than in the normative sample, particularly the antisocial behaviour.

Furthermore, high proportions of homeless children and adolescents fell in the clinical range for global behaviour problems and syndrome dimensions. The above study further

revealed that there was an underlying continuum of risk, with homeless children.

### **2.2.3 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT WITH STREET CHILDREN**

Conflicts are an everyday occurrence among the street children all over the world. Consequently, constructive conflict management skills are very crucial during childhood and adolescence when peer relationships are a critical element in development (Coie and Cillesson, 1993). According to Coie, Lockman, Terry and Hyman (1992), children without adequate peer relationships are seriously at risk not only for future social maladjustment, but also for delinquency, school dropout, and psychopathology.

Coie, Underwood and Lochmen (1991) contend that those children in poorly functioning or highly stressed families learn to be aggressive and develop destructive conflict resolution patterns through interactions with their parents. These authors further argue that since children's extra-familial relationships are usually patterned after parent - child interaction, destructive patterns of problem solving and conflict resolution that begin in the home are maintained in other relationships. Dumas (1990) add that

the greater the environmental stress level, the more families appear to suffer from dysfunctions. This, according to the above method, appears to be true for homeless families whose lives are characterised by extremely stressful circumstances. Consequently, classmates frequently reject children who are homeless because of their status and lack of clothing and personal possessions.

#### **2.2.4 DEVELOPMENTAL LAG AMONG STREET CHILDREN**

Molman (1988) argues that street children display a variety of developmental delays and distressing behaviour problems. Most frequently observed include short attention span, withdrawal, aggression, speech delay, sleep disorder, regressive behaviours, inappropriate social interaction with adults, and immature peer interaction constructed with strong sibling relationships.

Whitman (1987) observed severe language disabilities and impaired cognitive ability among 88 children living in a dormitory style shelter for homeless families in St. Louis. On the other hand, Bassunk, Rubin and Lauriat (1986) assessed the development of 81 children living in

family shelter in Massachusetts. These assessors found that 36% of the children demonstrated language delays, 34% could not complete the personal and social developmental tasks, 18% lacked gross motor skills, and 15% lacked fine motor co-ordination.

In their study, Rafferty and Shinn (1991) found that homelessness impacts negatively on children. Areas affected are health problems, hunger and poor nutrition, developmental delay, anxiety, depression, behavioural problems, and educational underachievement. These factors, according to the above authors, threaten these children's psychological and future well-being.

Children who enter street life early tend to be more damaged than one who enters the street life as an older child. (Rescorla, Parker and Stolly (1991). These authors cite the fact that homeless pre-school children are less likely to be enrolled in any kind of early childhood education programme than those in the domiciled companion group. In the pre-school age group, homeless children were significantly more delayed in receptive vocabulary and visual motor development than comparison group children.

They also had significantly higher rates of behavioural / emotional/ symptoms related to children of similar age.

Molman and Rath (1990), concur with Whitman (1987) that homeless children are not simply at risk; most suffer specific physical, psychological and emotional damage due to different circumstances in which they find themselves.

### **2.3 THE PHENOMENON OF STREET CHILDREN IN THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES**

The phenomenon of street children is found in both developed and developing countries, first and third world countries in different magnitudes. The reason why the present author writes about street children in the developing countries is because of the seemingly common causes, dynamics and the manifestation of this problem. However, these will be dealt with at a later stage.

Jolly and Cornia (1984) argue that a comprehensive method of understanding the global reasons for being in the street has been inadequate. They argue that in the past, children's problems were approached narrowly. In this regard, the deeper causes for their poor quality of life

were ignored. In this case, individuals rather than the social factors were blamed. The focus was also on developing policies aimed at an individual rather than addressing the social environment. It is against the background of this misinterpretation that the above authors advise that there is a need to signify the connection between world economic conditions and child welfare.

Agnelli (1986) indicates that the causes of the street child phenomenon seem to lie in the historical context of economic conditions and in national and international policies accepted by various countries. What was more obvious was the fact that after thirty years of remarkable progress, child-care came to a halt in a number of areas. These include high mortality rate of infants and children, poor health in nutritional status, incidents of infections and diseases and the rate of morbidity, school dropout, broken families and homeless children. Cornia, Jolly and Steward (1988) attribute the reason for the above problems to the world recession that has been, and still is, very severe in the Third World, especially Africa and Latin America. These authors indicate that the average income in Latin America fell by at least 10% and 25% in Africa where the income was already the lowest in the world.



Schurink (1995) contends that nearly two thirds of the developing countries had a negative or negligible growth between 1980 and 1985. The result is that an extremely severe decline occurred (from about 3% per year to -1,1% per year) in the growth rate of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The latter represents the final output of goods and service produced by an economy. More than two-thirds of developing countries were affected by this and indicators of poor human welfare (malnutrition, infant and child mortality, poor health conditions with an increase in the incidence of communicable diseases, lack of education, etc.).

Cornia (1980) and Ashby (1984) say that in Africa and in Latin America the decline in GDP per capita over the period 1980 to 1985 as compared to the 1976 to 1980 period, appears to be more than twice as large as that experienced by the group of developed countries. Consequently, cutbacks on social services and prolonged use of foreign debt to cover increased deficits could not be avoided. At present 4,5% of the GDP of developing countries is still devoted to debt obligations as compared to 1,1% on health and 2,5% on education.

Therefore, the debt obligations claim a large proportion of the resources, which would have been available for investment in human progress. The debt obligations of the developing countries in 1991 stood at \$1,300 billion with an annual interest of \$200 billion which exceeded new net flows from industrialised countries by \$30 billion, resulting in levels increasing only marginally (Grant, 1991).

The result is that one in five child deaths from malnutrition and preventable diseases (measles, tetanus, diarrhoea, and pneumonia) occur daily. One hundred and fifty (150) million live in ill-health and experience poor growth, 100 million children between the ages of six to seven years are not in school and only 55% of children in the developing countries complete four years of primary education (Grant, 1991).

According to Annan (1998), the Secretary General of the United Nations, there are over 200 million children in the developing countries under the age of five who are malnourished. He is supported by Bellamy (1998) that the latter contributes to more than half of the nearly 12 million children dying under the age of five in developing

countries. Malnourished children often suffer the loss of precious mental capacities. They fall ill more often. If they survive, they may grow up with lasting mental or physical disabilities - adds Annan (1998).

European Network on Street Children Worldwide (1997) contends that they are a network uniting European organisations that address the rights and needs of street children in (Eastern) Europe and Developing countries. They aim at joining forces and working together, to share experiences and information, to build up the knowledge and the expertise, to increase resources, to raise public awareness and to intensify informed political debate. The network indicates that its origin was necessitated by the plight of street children worldwide.

### **2.3.1 THE STREET CHILDREN PHENOMENON IN LATIN AMERICA**

Novartis Foundation for Sustainable Development (1999) provide a brief analysis of the various causes and phenomena of street childhood in Brazil. It states that although this country has factors pointing to successful development, it is a land of contrasts between the rich and the poor, between modern industrialisation and colonial-

feudal agriculture and ownership structures. The Foundation points out that according to the index of poverty compiled by the UN Development Program and published in 1997, in Brazil's north-east, 46% of the population must be counted among those who, in respect of capacity to survive, education and standard of living, are at the lowest end of the scale. The comparable figures for the south and south-east are 17 and 14 percent respectively. A large number of the population is inadequately provided with health care, sanitary facilities, food, and education. It is only the privileged few who are provided with the above facilities. This source also mentions that whereas the literacy level in the Federal District was 91% in 1991, in the Alagoas Province it amounted to only 55%. On the Human Development Index Brazil was in the 63<sup>rd</sup> place, and 68<sup>th</sup> place in 1997.

According to the Novartis Foundation (1999), a great number of Brazil's most destitute live in the slums of the big cities. The slum dwellers squat on land to which they have no legal title.

Schurink (1995) holds the view that the recession experienced in the regions of Latin America including

Brazil, aggravated the economic conditions to a crisis. The following will shed some light on the above crisis. In 1981, the income per capita fell by over 4%, by 2% in 1982 and by 7,5% in 1983. On the other hand, in Chile it fell by 15% in 1982 alone. This is what the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean countries had to say: "Since 1981 most of the Latin American and Caribbean countries have been suffering from the deepest and longest economic crisis to hit them in the last 50 years" (Espert and Myers, 1988, p.8). The above author further mentions that real wages are lower than they were in the late 1970's and this was more prevalent among the poor than in the population as a whole. Consequently, it was also the poor whose access to nutrition, health and welfare services, and education was adversely affected.

According to Connolly (1990), there are more than 170 million people living in poverty-stricken conditions in Latin America; and this forms 40% of the region's population. Approximately 75 million of these are children between birth and fifteen years of age. Furthermore, an estimated 40 million children struggling to survive are found in the streets of all major urban areas (Meek, 1996).

In Brazil, the phenomenon of street children has reached catastrophic proportions, in which case more than 20 million are growing up in the streets. Death squads that prey on street children are well noted in Brazil (Power, 1993; Swart, 1990b). In Bogota, the capital of Colombia, there are between 3000 and 5000 *gamines* (street urchins). Therefore Bogota is internationally known as the "abandoned-child capital of the world" (Connolly, 1990, p.130).

According to Connolly (1983) and Swart (1990b), other factors responsible for children turning into street children include: declining family income, desperate poverty, unemployment, family disintegration, problems with a family member, for example stepfather, anguish, tension and violence at home. The distance between the child's home and place of work, transport fees, working late hours at night, fear of punishment because of the inability to comply with the demands of adulthood, rural to urban migration, overcrowding, illegitimacy, abandonment, political violence, etc. are other factors.

According to Meek (1996), the public scorns children who live in the streets of Rio de Janeiro in Brazil. The

situation is exacerbated by the fact that their parents sent them downtown or to the south part of town, which is richer, to ask for money at red lights. After two months or so, they never come back home because in the streets they find other boys and girls. They join a gang very young, at least at five years of age. They become pleased with the little money they get. They do not have to be answerable to any parent who may beat them up because they brought home little money (Meek, 1996).

UNICEF (1989) classified these children into the following categories, depending on their income-earning activity:

1. Minority of children working in the formal sector
2. Majority of children working in the informal sector as vendors, shoe-shiners, car-washers, etc, and
3. Children working in marginal income-earning activities. These include such as prostitution, drug trafficking, homosexuality etc.

UNICEF (1989) further observes that street children may be found on streets sporadically or permanently. As such, the children become victims of premature work activities, little or no schooling, and estrangement from

family members, physical abuse, sexual exploitation, and delinquency. Galdamez (1998) contends that another street children phenomenon is unfolding in Latin America. In this instance, street children are found in the dump and survive on garbage. This author further states that some of them are born and brought up on the dumps.

Smith (1997, March, and April), cite that street children also resort to Metro rail stations as their homes as in the Observatory Metro station in Mexico.

In the Dominica Republic, the YMCA is running a programme to care for working children who live on the streets or who are running the risk of doing so. Their ages vary between six and 18 years. When these children arrive at the centre at their own free will, they are immediately offered bathing and cleansing. Then medical and psychological evaluation is done on them (World Alliance of YMCA, 1999).

According to The Reporter, Belize (1996), the Belize Government has allocated an amount of \$30 million to street children programmes that concern their welfare and protection. The UN also indicated their eagerness to work



with the above-mentioned government.

### **2.3.2 THE STREET CHILDREN PHENOMENON IN AFRICA**

Schurink (1995) asserts that in Africa 84% of the population experienced a negative growth rate in the GDP per capita between 1981 and 1985. This situation has been worsened by domestic factors such as colonial heritage, technical and financial dependence. The other factors are chronological deteriorating terms of trade, lower food production (1,7%) and population growth (3%), lack of skilled people and technology, fading export prices, widespread severe drought, war and destabilisation, heavy indebtedness, skewed distribution of income and misuse of public finances.

Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO's) that support street children in Zambia have pointed out that they are not able to cope with the growing number of street children and children in desperate situations. They have consequently requested the government of that country to supplement their efforts (Syafunko, 1997). This author further adds that Children In Need (CHI) estimated that there were 45 000 street children in Zambia in 1997.

Tacon (1991) reports that street and working children are reportedly a widespread phenomenon in most African countries, although it is not well documented and reliable statistics are lacking.

The above author indicates that during the 46 years to 1991 (after the end of the Second World War), African countries and Latin American countries experienced a huge urban population growth. Urban growth in Africa in general now exceeds 5% or more. The urban populations of Rwanda, Niger, Mauritania and Kenya are growing at annual rates of more than 7%, and those of Tanzania, Mozambique and Botswana are increasing annually at rates of 10% and more. Yach (1990) predicts that by the year 2000, the urban populations in countries such as Zambia, Algeria, Morocco and South Africa will constitute more than 60% of the total urban population growth. These will therefore reflect the growth of street children population.

Khartoum is estimated to have about 20 000 street children. In Ethiopia 5 000 are housed in the Amba village near Lake Zwai; and 13 600 street children stay in the Starche Boys' Centre in Nairobi (Agnelli, 1986). Tacon's (1991) records of street children in three urban centres in

Namibia is 2 300 out of the population of 150 000, with 700 to 800 street children in Windhoek alone.

In 1985 a meeting on street children was held in Abidjan (Ivory Coast) in which 75 delegates (including field workers, government officials and representatives of concerned organisations) from fourteen African countries attended. These countries were Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Congo, Ivory Coast, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda, Central African Republic, Senegal, Chad, Togo and Zaire (Tacon, 1991).

Subsequently a workshop was held in Harare (Zimbabwe) in 1990 and delegates from Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa, Sudan, Zambia, Mozambique and Zimbabwe attended.

Schurink (1995) focuses on the responses of the above gatherings as they have relevance on the street children phenomenon; that some countries have identified and responded specifically to this phenomenon as early as 1959 (as in Kenya) while other countries such as Botswana and Zimbabwe have attended to this plight recently. In some instances, progress was made, whereas in some, very little progress was achieved. Mako (1992) attributes this lack of

progress to, inter-alia, public perceptions and attitudes.

According to Mako (1992) and Schurink (1995), the public responds negatively to street children. Often they are called names such as thieves, parasites, the hopeless, ruffians, thugs, hooligans, bad influence, mosquitoes (in Cameroon), and dirt. Although at face value street children seem to have similar characteristics, the Harare Workshop agreed that these children are not a uniform group.

According to Keen (1990), street children have always played an important role in African tradition, especially in the lives of young people; holding meetings and ceremonies under traditional trees. Traditional initiations also took place in the streets. Street children are therefore regarded as part of the landscape in these cultures. That is why efforts to arouse public attention and action in African societies are met with resistance.

A number of conventional child-care facilities meant to address the needs of these children, do exist. These include industrial schools, places of safety, and

residential centres. The Abidjan meeting agreed that it was difficult to meet street children's needs using a programme designed for non-street children who have different life and work experiences. In this regard Drake (1989), Barrette and Campos (1991) and Barrette (1995) highlight that conventional facilities not only fail to meet the needs of these children, they have also contributed to their problems by acquiring model kinds of behaviour and self-disclosure in return for services.

In her study in Lusaka, Zambia, Sampa (1997) found that the reasons children take to streets and consequently become street children are many. These include physical and mental abuse such as being denied food, being forced to carry out heavy tasks or menial house hold duties, or ironically the desire to enjoy freedom with their friends on the streets. On the other hand, Makombe (1992) agrees with Musengeyi (1996) that in Zimbabwe and Zambia, urbanisation and poverty can be directly attributed to parents abandoning and neglecting their children because they cannot support them. This author also indicates that many of these children end up on the streets. Their ages range from 6 to 16.

According to Peterson (1998), a surge of violence in Algeria has been responsible for the growing number of street children in that country. COMTEX Newswire / Inter-Press Service (1997) also attribute fighting in Sudan as one of the major causes of street children phenomenon.

BBC World Service (1998) and Bobak (1996) were able to identify approximately nine hundred street children in the southern Rwandan town of Butare. The latter is supported by Spry-Leverton (1995) in that war in Rwanda has destabilised families and therefore, many children became street children. The same has also taken place in Angola, which has experienced Africa's longest war (Duke, 1995; Njanji, 1995 and Virgilio, 1998).

In Freetown, Sierra Leone, since the military coup, hundreds of child soldiers have fled from camps for demobilised fighters and are roaming the streets armed with AK-47 and rocket propelled grenades. Although they are street children, they are different from the usual street children in that they are heavily armed (Inter-Press Service, 1997).

Street children are no longer rare in Swazi society which once prided itself on its traditional extended family system (Hlatshwayo, 1997). These children give as reason for their being on the street physical abuse by their parents and by their stepparents.

### **2.3.3 THE PHENOMENON OF STREET CHILDREN IN SOUTH AFRICA**

The phenomenon of street children in Africa and South Africa is well documented by, inter-alia, Richter 1988a, 1988b, 1988c, 1989, 1990; Scharf, Powell and Thomas, 1986, Scharf, 1988; Swart 1987, 1988b, 1990. According to Schurink (1995), the first media reports on street children in South Africa appeared towards the end of the 1970's.

The Rand Daily Mail Newspaper of 2 October 1976 reported that poverty, lack of adequate housing, school drop-out, lack of parental guidance, family violence and insufficient family income are factors contributing to children turning into street children. As in the case of the economic decline of countries previously discussed, South Africa also suffered from the same fate. Its economy started with the decline in 1989 after the introduction of economic sanctions by the world. The GDP per capita rate

declined for six successive quarters from the last quarter of 1989 to the first quarter of 1991 at annual rates varying between 0,5 and 2,5% per quarter (South African Reserve Bank, 1991a).

The present negative growth of the South African economy is complicated by the legacies of the old apartheid system. This is further compounded by uncertainty with regard to the political future of the country, internal unrest and the escalation of violence and crime, weak performance of international commodity prices and tensions in the labour market (Schurink, 1995).

There is no exact number of children *on* or *of* the streets in South Africa. Estimates of their number vary between 6 276 and 9 390 (three out of every 1000 South African children) (Richter, 1988a). However, according to the SABC Channel 3, 20h00 News (20 September, 1998: 11 October, 1998), Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO's) estimate that the number of street children at around fifty thousand in the whole country.

Atmore (1982) and Maree (1991) point out that the age range of the children is between seven and sixteen years,



with an average age of thirteen and a half years. The present researcher observed that there is a fast growing number of "street children" who are above the age of sixteen. The majority of street children are boys; girls comprise about 10% of the street children. Records in the "Malunde" in Hillbrow during research by Swart (1988) indicated names of 266 boys and six street girls. One would expect these numbers to fluctuate as "new" street children emerge and others move from city to city, from shopping complex to the other in search of new sources of income.

Cockburn (1988), Mako (1992), Richter (1988a), Schurink (1995) and Swart (1990) are in agreement that reasons why children should turn to the streets are complex and manifold. They include **push factors** (poverty, unemployment, overcrowding, family disintegration, alcohol abuse among parents, school failure, breakdown of alternative placements and family violence) and **pull factors** (the desire to earn money, contribute to family income, roam the streets freely etc).

Schurink (1995) further cites the South African National Council for Child and Family Welfare that it

attributes the phenomenon of street children to various inseparable factors that present themselves on three different levels:

***(a) Macro level (Community/Government)***

These factors involve a complex interaction between economy, public social policies about race, ethnicity, work, housing, health and welfare services, unemployment, increasingly rapid industrialisation, urbanisation, racially segregated child-care facilities, violence and the migrant labour system.

***(b) Meso level (Family)***

Factors in this category include breakdown of the extended family, nuclear family disintegration due to death, desertion and divorce, single-parent families, poverty, neglect, unemployment, overcrowding, remarriage, child-abuse, family violence, lack of bonding and of parental discipline.

*(c) Micro level (Individual)*

In this regard, factors include escape from an intolerable situation (hunger, shame, brutality, etc.), failure at school, lack of money for books/uniform, feeling unwanted and being a burden to the family, including runaways from welfare institutions.

Another trend of the street children phenomenon is emerging in South Africa. It is the one of scavenging street children. Mako (1992) established that these types of street children are found at the dumpsites. When a truck comes to dump the rubbish, they run towards it. After the rubbish has been dumped, each street child will try to find something to eat, copper material to sell and/or cardboard material to be used to build shelters. In fact, they live on the dumpsites.

Segalo (1989) mentions that Mmabana Cultural Centre in Mmabatho in the Northwest province has helped a number of street children with rehabilitation and psychotherapy. This institution also has programmes that include taking these children to school. Mmabana Cultural Centre employed one of the former street children who has benefited from

this programme as a secretary. She was also enrolled at a tertiary institution, furthering her studies.

In 1993, Le Roux (1996) conducted a research on street children of South Africa. He states that some of the contributory factors that led to the phenomenon of street children include the political system of migrant labour and racial segregation, as well as unrest and violence in the black residential areas. Other authors (Cockburn, 1991; Keen, 1990; Peacock, 1989; Richter, 1991; Ross, 1991; Scharf, 1988; Swart, 1988; and Swart, 1990) also cited the above reasons.

Le Roux (1996) concludes that the street children represent a worldwide phenomenon despite cultural differences. He also found that there are common aspects among street children internationally.

The ministry of health launched the National Programme of Action for Children - a co-ordinated strategy to provide for the needs of the South Africa's children in May 1996. The launch of the NPA emphasised the commitment of the government towards the improvement of the wellbeing of children in South Africa.

The ministry, various non-governmental organisations and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) are all involved in the implementation of the NPA (Makhubela, 1996). The above includes street children.

## CHAPTER 3

THE RIGHTS OF CHILDREN IN GENERAL AND THE SOUTH AFRICAN  
LEGISLATION REGARDING CHILDREN

Wringe (1981) identified three most important features of the rights of children.

1. Children's rights should be practical, that is; they should be declared and claimed within the society's conception of justice.
2. They should be genuinely universal (appropriate for all children all over the world).
3. They should be of optimal importance.

SAPA (1997) states that the National Assembly Speaker Dr. Frene Ginwala, once told the parliament that in South Africa, the new Constitution gives children rights which they should use to prepare themselves for the challenges of the future. Included herein are the right to education, proper health care and protection.

Schurink (1995) holds that some countries have experienced and reacted to the phenomenon of street

children for quite some time, other countries have attended to this phenomenon only recently. So far the only legislation that is relevant to this phenomenon is defined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

It is important to note that children's problems are not necessarily treated as national problems and that different countries do not have the same legislation or social phenomena which have negative effects on children and young people (International Catholic Child Bureau - ICCB, 1989).

Thus the information collected in this regard is from a multitude of countries (rich or poor), by organisations such as the United Nations (UN), United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisations (UNESCO) and the World Health Organisation (WHO). The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) led the United Nations General Assembly to proclaim on 20 November 1959 the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. The Declaration was a simple recommendation to countries, but without any legal force. Consequently, a number of declarations and treaties followed. These included the International Covenant on

Civil and Political Rights of 1966, the Convention to combat Discrimination in Education of 1960 and the Declaration of the Rights of Children had to be complemented by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

...its beneficial influence was not enough to mobilise countries, i.e. governments, nor the respective civil societies to implement radical reforms with respect to the unjust socio-economic and cultural structures, and all the conditions and customs which uphold and worsen the serious and sometimes tragic situations of children.

(ICCB, 1989, p.14).

The following are aspects of the articles included in the Convention on the Rights of the Child:

#### **Article 1**

For the purpose of the Convention, a child means every human being below the age of eighteen years unless, under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier...



**Article 2**

State parties shall respect and ensure the rights of each child set forth in the present Convention within their jurisdiction. This should be done without discrimination of any kind, irrespective of the child's or his or her parent's, legal guardian's race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status.

**Article 9**

State parties shall respect the right of the child who is separated from one or both parents to maintain personal relations and direct contact with both parents on a regular basis, except if it is contrary to the child's best interests.

**Article 20**

A child temporarily or permanently deprived of his or her environment or in whose own best interests cannot be allowed to remain in that environment, shall be entitled to special protection and assistance provided by the State ...

**Article 28**

State parties recognise the right of the child to education. This is also with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall in particular:

1. Make primary education compulsory, available and free to all;
2. Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take all appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;
3. Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means.
4. Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;
5. Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-outs (Grant, 1991).

Boyden and Hudson (1985) indicate that the issue of the rights of children is complex as it raises philosophical, moral and legal questions. Adults, particularly parents, tend to feel threatened by the mentioning of children's rights and regard this as a mechanism to undermine parental authority. These authors further argue that in the context of a loving, caring and stable family, children have no real need for rights. However, in the case of child-abuse and neglect, children must have rights to protection and proper independent representation in legal proceedings and the right to express their views although these will inevitably infringe on parental autonomy and family privacy.

Wringe (1981) contends that there are three theories which may affect how one approaches the justification of rights claims made by and/or on behalf of children, and these are:

- rights and power,
- rights and correlatives of duties and
- rights as claims.

When one is able to do, have or receive anything in question, that person may be said to **have the power**, and

when that person is justified in doing so he is said to **have the right**. Rights can also be defined by **the duties** of parents towards their children and may be claimed without knowing them.

### 3.1 THE MORAL RIGHTS

According to Wringer (1981), moral rights include the child's needs; interests and capacities and how these may affect the expectations others have of him.

Wringer (1981) has identified two notions of childhood in relation to the child's moral rights: the institutional and the normative. The **institutional** concept of childhood is usually defined by chronological age or whether the individual has undergone certain ceremonies of initiation, depending on the society; whereas the **normative** concept of childhood comes into focus using the society's definition of the concept. These two childhood notions therefore take into consideration the child's capacities, the acquisition of knowledge and experience, the possession of ethnical interests and reasonable expectations about an individual's likely behaviour at different stages of his/her development (for example puberty, adolescence, or early adulthood).

### 3.2 THE WELFARE RIGHTS

These have been posited by Wringe (1981) as a right to receive help or goods from others in circumstances of extreme need, when one is unable to fulfil these basic needs by one's own effort. In order to survive, Wringe (1981) further highlights that human beings depend on the use of: language, the elementary and factual details as well as knowledge of world inside and outside one's immediate experiences. Courtesy and morality are also included. These, therefore, indicate to some extent the deprivation that may be caused by lack of education.

It is not possible for any individual to achieve a high degree of social and economic competence or to lead an independent existence without constant guidance. Education can be regarded as both an end to increase knowledge and understanding and as a means to the implementation of the welfare right to be protected from material deprivation, depending on the age at which education is needed and the place (country). Education is therefore a means towards the right to a reasonably good life, the right to protection from gross material need and the right to participate in a democratic way.

### 3.3 THE LEGAL RIGHTS

The underlying assumption on moral rights is that an individual should have moral autonomy which grants him/her certain rights (irrespective of whether they are recognised by society / authorities or not). Moral rights may also be made legal obligation in this sense: the law requires people to engage in behaviours that are (already) morally good (e.g. reporting an accident to the police) (Wringe, 1981).

Identifying children's needs and the rights that they are entitled to does not necessarily clarify their legal status. Rodham (1973) contends that "infancy" and "minority" is commonly used to describe people under the age of 21 years for some purposes. The rights and duties of the child in the eyes of the law are determined by his/her infant/minority status regardless of actual age or circumstances.

The law features in those occasions where the state has to limit parental control for the sake of the child's protection or justifiable punishment. It can be said that the needs and interests of a powerless individual must be asserted as rights if they are to be considered and

eventually accepted as enforceable claims against other persons or institutions (Rodham, 1973).

The Convention on the Rights of the Child sets universal legal standards for the protection of children against neglect, abuse and exploitation, guaranteeing their basic human rights including survival, development and full participation in social, cultural and educational activities necessary for their individual growth and well being (Grant, 1991). The Convention forms part of the Plan of Action aimed at the implementation of the principles set out in the World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children that will be **enforced as international law** for those countries which have ratified the Convention (Schurink, 1995).

According to United Nations (1990), World Summit for children was held in New York in 1990, and new agenda for national action and international solidarity for children was set. It was considered to be the largest gathering of the heads of state in history because over 70 presidents and Prime ministers attended. The Convention on the Rights of the Child was signed by more than 120 heads of state and ratified by 22.

The 22 countries that ratified it declared themselves willing to be fully bound by the Convention's stipulations and answerable to the international community if they failed to comply. A committee of ten experts was elected to **monitor** compliance with the Convention (United Nations, 1990).

The Convention takes into consideration the **personhood** of the child within these parameters: significance of liberty, privacy, equality and nurturance as rights essential to the preservation of children's integrity as individuals by giving them the right to participate in decisions affecting them and their future (Melton, 1991). The convention stipulates further that children have the right to express their feelings, opinions and these have to be taken into account when making decisions that affect them. The survival rights should include adequate living standards and medical care (Articles 6,24 and 27) (Melton, 1991).

On the other hand, **development rights** should include education, access to information, play and leisure, cultural activities and the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (Articles 2, 5, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14,



15, 17, 23, 28, 29, 30 and 31). Rights that relate to protection are contained in the above articles.

Article 32 focuses on economic deprivation, sexual exploitation (Articles 34 and 36) and all other forms of exploitation. Cruelty and harm to any aspect of child welfare is dealt with in Article 36. Separation from family life is contained in Articles 9,20,25 and 27. Articles 38 and 39 focuses on children in armed conflicts. The needs of disabled children (Article 23), the needs of children of minority groups (Article 30), abuses in the criminal justice system (Article 40), drug trafficking (Article 33) and the selling of children (Article 35) are contained in their respective articles.

Schurink (1995) states that the underlying principle of the Convention is that the **best interests of the child** must always be the major consideration. The implication is a standard of **first call for children**, demanding that the essential needs of children should be given the highest priority in the allocation of resources (in bad times) at macro (international and national community), meso (family) and micro (individual) level (United Nation, 1990).

### 3.4 THE CHILDREN'S CHARTER OF SOUTH AFRICA

*(Adopted from the Internet as the present researcher found that it is of significance to the topic).*

#### **Preamble**

We, the delegates of the International Children's Summit held from 27 May to 1 June 1992, acting as representatives from the regions of Western Transvaal, Northern Transvaal, Northern Orange Free State, Transkei and on behalf of all the children of South Africa,

#### **Realising that,**

All children are created equal and are entitled to basic human rights and freedoms and that all children deserve respect and special care protection as they develop and grow and

#### **Recognising that,**

Within South Africa, children have not been treated with respect and dignity, but as a direct result of

Apartheid have been subjected to discrimination, violence and racism that has destroyed families and communities and has disrupted education and social relationships and

**Acknowledging that,**

At the present time, children have not been placed on the agenda of any political party, or the existing government or within the CODESA negotiations and are not given the attention that they deserve.

Taking into consideration the cultural values, languages, and traditions of all the children and,

**Recognising the**

Urgent need for attention to improving the life of the children and protecting their rights in every region, in particular those regions which have been especially subjected to violence, political unrest and poverty.

Have agreed upon the following:

## **Part 1**

### **Article One**

For the purposes of the charter, a child means any person under the age of 18 years old, unless otherwise stated.

### **Article Two**

Children have been and continue to be abused, tortured, mistreated, neglected and abandoned by the people of South Africa. Children are not treated with the respect and dignity that every human being deserves, but instead are subjected to violence, poverty, racism, and the ignorance of adults. Children continue to suffer from the inequalities of apartheid, especially in the area of education. Children do not receive proper health and medical care attention, yet do not have the right to demand treatment. Children are arrested, tried without lawyers and held in prisons.

Children are beaten and abused by the police and by gangs and other adults. Children are the future leaders of tomorrow, but they are not given the rights to participate in consultations or negotiations about their future. The government and other political parties have put children last, not first.

We therefore set forth that all children of South Africa are entitled to the following rights and protections:

## **Part II**

### **Article One**

1. All children have the rights to protection and guarantees of all the Charter and should not be discriminated against because of his/her or his/her parents or family's colour, race, sex, language, religion, personal or political opinion, nationality, disability or for any other reason.

2. All political parties, the government, CODESA, the future government, communities, families, and parents should everything possible to ensure that

children are not discriminated against due to his/her or his/her parents or family's colour, race, sex, language, religion, personal or political opinion, nationality, disability or for any other reason.

#### **Article Two**

All the children have the rights to a name and nationality as soon as they are born.

#### **Article Three**

1. All children have the rights to express their own opinions and the rights to be heard in all matters that affect his/her rights and protection and welfare.

2. All children have the rights to be heard in courtrooms and hearings affecting their future rights and protection welfare and to be treated with the special care and consideration within those courtrooms and hearings which their age and maturity demands.

3. All children have the rights to free legal

representation if arrested.

4. All children have the rights to participate in the government of the country and special attention should be given to consultations with children on their rights and situation.

#### **Article Four**

All children have the rights to freedom to practice their own religion, culture or beliefs without fear.

#### **Article Five**

##### **Violence**

1. All children have the right to be protected from all types of violence including:

Physical, emotional, verbal, psychological, sexual, state, political, gangs, domestic, school, township and community, street, racial, self-destructive and all other forms of violence.

2. All children have the right to freedom from corporal punishment at school, from the police and in prisons, and at home.

3. All children have the right to be protected from neglect and abandonment.
4. All children have to be protected from township and political violence, to have "safe places", and to have community centres where they can go for help and safety from violence.
5. All children have the right to be educated about child abuse and the right to form youth groups to protect them from abuse.
6. All persons have the duty to report all violence against, abuse of and neglect of any child to the appropriate authorities.
7. Children should not be used as shields or tools by the perpetrators of violence.
8. Children have the right to say no to violence.
9. The media has the duty to prevent the exploitation of children who are victims of violence and should be prohibited from promotion of violence.



10. All children have the right to be protected from violence by the police and in prisons.
11. Children should not be obliged or forced to follow adults in their political involvement.
12. All children have the rights to be from torture, detention, or any other physical or emotional violence during Apartheid or at times of unrest or war.
13. All children have to be protected from drug and alcohol abuse by their parents, families and others and to be educated about these forms of violence.
14. Special groups and organisations should be formed within the communities to protect and counsel victims of all types of violence.
15. No child should be held in prison or police cells at any time.

**Article Six**

**Family Life**

1. All children have the right to a safe, secure and nurturing family and the right to participate as a member of that family.
  
2. All children have the right to love and affection from their parents and family.
  
3. All children have the right to clothing, housing and a healthy diet.
  
4. All children have the right to clean water, sanitation and a clean living environment.
  
5. All children have the right to be protected from domestic violence.
  
6. All children who do not have family should be provided with a safe and secure place to live and clothing and nutritious food within the community where they live.

**Article Eight****Education**

1. All children have the right to free and equal, non-racial education. They also have a non-sexist and compulsory education within one department as education is a right not a privilege.
  
2. All children have a right to education, which is in the interest of the child and to develop their talents through education, both formal and informal.
  
3. All teachers should be qualified and should treat children with patience, respect and dignity.
  
4. All teachers should be evaluated and monitored to ensure that they are protecting the rights of the child.
  
5. Parents have the duty to become involved in their children's education and development and to participate in their children's education at school and at home.
  
6. All children have the right to play and to

free adequate sports and recreational facilities so they can be children.

7. All children have the right to participate in the evaluation and upgrading of curriculum which respects all the traditions, cultures and values of children in South Africa.

8. All children have the right to education on issues such as sexuality, AIDS, human rights, history and background of South Africa and family life.

9. All children have the right to adequate educational facilities and the transportation to such facilities should be provided to children in difficult or violent situations.

## **Article Nine**

### **Child Labour**

1. All children have the right to be protected from child labour and any other economic exploitation which endangers a child's mental, physical, or psychological health and interferes

with his/her education so that he/she can develop properly and enjoy childhood.

2. All children, especially in rural areas, should be protected from hard labour including farm, domestic or manual labour or any type of labour.
3. All children have the right to be protected from prostitution and sexual exploitation such as pornography.
4. There should be a minimum age of employment and no child should be forced to leave school prior to the completion of matric for the purposes of employment.
5. There should be regulations and restrictions on the hours and types of work and penalties for those who violate these regulations.
6. All children have the right to be protected from child slavery and from the inheritance of labour or employment from their parent or family.

**Article Ten****Homeless Children**

1. No Children should be forced to live on the streets.
  
2. Homeless children have the right to be protected from harassment and abuse from police, security guards and all other persons and every person has the duty to report any abuse or violence against children.
  
3. Homeless children have the right to a decent place to live, clothing and healthy diet.
  
4. Street children have the right to special attention in education and health care.
  
5. Communities and families have a duty to protect their children from becoming homeless and abandoned.
  
6. All persons should be made aware of the plight of homeless children and should participate in programmes, which act to positively eradicate the

problem of homeless children.

7. The government has the duty and responsibility for homeless children.

### **Resolutions**

**We, the children of South Africa, therefore demand that:**

1. The existing government, the African National Congress, the Pan Africanist Congress, Inkatha Freedom Party, CODESA, the National Party, the Democratic Party and all other parties presently involved in negotiations acknowledge, adopt and support the Children's Charter. This is done via the establishment of committees, working groups and commissions that will ensure that children's rights will no longer be ignored in South Africa and that children will be placed first on the agenda, not last. Also, that these groups act to support existing children's structures and organisations.

2. All children's representative or council of representatives should be placed on CODESA, and within existing and future governments. Children

have the right to participate in and be consulted with about Government.

3. The future constitution and bill of rights includes special provisions for children's care and protection and development.

4. The National Children's Committee (NCRC) and all other children's structures and organisations, both domestic and international, acknowledge, accept and support the Children's Charter in as many ways as possible.

5. That communities and regions act to acknowledge, adopt and support the Children's Charter and ensure that the needs of their children are address with urgency.

6. That the delegates of the Summit act to ensure that their regions, communities, schools, families, adults and peers are informed about the Children's Charter and that there is continuing evaluation about the way forward to a culture of children's rights.



Children will no longer remain silent about their rights, but will speak and even shout out about their needs and demands.

<http://gropher.anc.org.za/misc/childcht.html>

### 3.5 THE SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATION AND WELFARE POLICIES REGARDING STREET CHILDREN

South African legislation makes provisions regarding the situation of street children. The following acts will be taken into consideration:

#### 3.5.1. THE CHILD-CARE ACT OF 1983 (Act No. 74 of 1983)

Schurink (1995) indicates that this act acknowledges the general principle that the family is the normal social and biological structure within which a child must grow and develop.

The emphasis is placed on the *care of the child by the parents/those entrusted with the child's custody* and not on the (uncontrollable) child (Spiro, 1985). The Child-Care

Act of 1983 became effective in February 1987, replacing the Children's Act of 1960. The Child-Care Act makes provision for protection, care and treatment of children falling within its jurisdiction as well as for services to their families. The Act was amended by the Child Care Amendment Act of 1991 (Act No. 86 of 1991).

Schurink (1995) further indicates that the Child-Care Amendment Act of 1991 brought about significant changes to the previous act. It aimed at amending the Child-Care Act of 1983, by:

- substituting certain definitions;
- abolishing the Child Welfare Advisory Council;
- providing that a child who has a parent or guardian who cannot be traced, may be brought before a children's court, which can hold an inquiry and make an order in respect of such a child, further regulating the powers of the children's courts;
- further regulating the designation of a children's home or school or industries as a result of an order of a children's court;
- further regulate the qualifications for adoption of

children

- increasing fines;
- providing for the observation, examination and treatment of children in places of safety;
- further regulating the transfer of a child from an institution or custody of his parents or guardian;
- making it an offence to counsel, to induce or to aid a pupil or child to whom leave was granted not to return, or to prevent him from returning to the institution or custody from which leave of absence was granted.
- further regulating the medical treatment of children;
- abolishing the requirements that the race classification of a child and the person in whose custody the child is placed should be the same;
- further regulating the notification of injured children and children who suffer from a nutritional deficiency/disease;
- making it an offence if children applicable to all persons were to be ill-treated;
- prohibiting the employment of certain children;
- further regulating financial support for the maintenance of pupils and certain children;

- providing for incidental matters.

#### **3.5.1.1. Maintenance of certain children away from their parents**

Section 10 prohibits the receipt and maintenance of any illegitimate child. This applies to children under the ages of seven years or any child for the purpose of adoption without the consent of the commissioner or having applied to adopt the child. This is with the exception of the managers of a hospital, a maternity home, a place of safety or children's home.

Such consent will be considered after submitting a written application in which an applicant's particulars, the reason for keeping the child and the period as reflected in Regulation 8 are stipulated or after having applied for the child's adoption in terms of section 18.

#### **3.5.1.2 Factors determining if a child needs protection**

According to Schurink (1995), Section 14(4) stipulates that the court will determine whether:

- a) the child has no parent or guardian; or the child has a parent or guardian who cannot be traced; or
- b) the child has a parent or guardian or is in the custody of a person who is unable or unfit to have the custody of the child in that he/she:
  - (i) is mentally ill to such a degree that he/she is unable to provide for the physical, mental or social well-being of the child;
  - (ii) has assaulted or ill-treated the child;
  - (iii) has caused or conducted the seduction; abduction or prostitution of the child or commissioned the child to conduct immoral acts;
  - (iv) displays habits and behaviours which may seriously injure the physical, mental or social well-being of the child;
  - (v) fails to maintain the child adequately;
  - (vi) maintains the child in contravention of section 10 (as stated above).
  - (vii) neglects the child or allows him to be neglected;
  - (viii) cannot control the child properly so as to ensure proper behaviour such as regular school attendance;

- (ix) has abandoned the child; or
- (x) has no visible means of support.

Section 14(4)(a) has relevance to street children because often their parents cannot be traced when dealing with children. Other applicable sections are sections 14(4)(b)(ii), 14(4)(b)(iii), 14(4)(b)(v), 14(4)(b)(vii), 14(4)(b)(ix) and section 14(4)(b)(x) which refers to a child who "**has no visible means of support**";

### **3.5.1.3 Removal of children to a place of safety pending children's courts proceedings.**

The Act makes provision for the removal of children and for them to be brought before a children's court. The following are ways in which children can be removed from their parental care for the opening of children's court proceedings:

Section 11(1) provides that any court, if it is in the interests of the safety and welfare of any child, may order that a child be taken to a place of safety before being brought to the children's court.

Section 11(2) provides that if it appears to any commissioner of child welfare on sworn information, an oath given by any person, that there are reasonable grounds to believe that any child who is within the area of his jurisdiction has no parents or guardian, or that it is in the best interest of the safety and welfare of any child who is within the area of his jurisdiction that he be taken to a place of safety; that the commissioner may issue a warrant authorising any policeman or social worker or any other person to search for the child and to take him to a place of safety, to be kept there **until he can be brought before the children's court.**

Section 12(1) makes a provision for the removal of a child from any place by a police officer, social worker, or authorised officer to a place of safety. This is done without a warrant if that officer has reason to believe that the child is a child mentioned in Section 14(4) and that the delay in obtaining a warrant will be prejudicial to the safety and welfare of that child.

Any child removed to a place of safety by an order of court (Section 11(1)), on sworn information (Section 11(2)), or pending inquiry (Section 12(1) must be brought

before the children's court. The court must be in the district in which the child resides, or happens to be, by any police officer, social worker or authorised officer (Spiro, 1985).

#### **3.5.1.4 The process of bringing children before court**

Schurink (1995) cites the fact that children's courts in South Africa have been in existence since 1937. Children's courts are confined to the powers and jurisdiction of the Child Care Act of 1983. Proceedings in these courts are conducted in private, meaning that nobody is allowed into the court unless he/she is a legal representative of any person whose presence is necessary or unless the commissioner presiding has granted him/her the permission to be present.

A children's court shall sit in another room than the one in which any other court normally sits, unless no such room is available and suitable (Spiro, 1985). Regulation 9 clearly spells out the procedures for bringing children to the children's court. Section 13 stipulates that a child is brought before the children's court to determine whether he/she has a parent or guardian, or has a parent or



guardian who cannot be traced, or is in custody of a person unable or unfit to have the custody of that child. Section 13 (1) states that any child referred to in section 11(1) or (2) or (12)(1) shall be brought before the children's court of the district in which the child resides, or happens to be, by any police officer, social worker or authorised officer (Spiro, 1985).

According to Section 13(3) an inquiry may be referred to another children's court if the child brought before the children's court normally does not live in the district of the present children's court. A parent or guardian need not be present in the court and it is not because of the lack of interest, but practical problems such as transport and money and because they cannot be traced. The commissioner presiding over a children's court may, according to section 14(2), at any time during the inquiry request any social worker to furnish a report on any matter affecting the child concerned or his parents or guardian or the person having the custody of that child.

Furthermore, in terms of Section 14(3), provision is made for the postponement or adjournment of the inquiry. This is for periods not exceeding 14 days at a time and for

an order that in the interim the child remains in a place of safety or is kept in a place of safety for observation for the information of the court. Regulation 10 stipulates the records of inquiries in terms of section 14.

#### **3.5.1.5 Powers of the children's court after inquiry**

Section 15(1) provides for orders, which can be issued by children's court if satisfied that the child concerned has no parent or guardian. This also is the case if the child has a parent or guardian who cannot be traced or has no parent or guardian or is in the custody of a person unable or unfit to have the custody of the child. The children's court may:

1. order that the child be returned to or remain in the custody of his parent or, if the parents live apart or are divorced, the parent designated by the court or of his guardian or of the person in whose custody he was immediately before the commencement of the proceedings, under the supervision of a social worker, on condition that the child or his parent or guardian or such person complies or the parents of the child comply with such of the

prescribed requirements as the court may determine;  
or

2. order that the child be placed in the custody of a suitable foster parent designated by the court under the supervision of a social worker; or
3. order that the child be sent to a children's home designated by the Director-General, or
4. order that the child be sent to a school of industries designated by the Director-General.

If any requirement mentioned in (1) is, in the opinion of the social worker concerned, not being complied with, the social worker may bring the child before the children's court of the district in which the child resides, whether or not it is the children's court which issues the order.

The court shall hold an inquiry in terms of section 13(3), after which it may adjust that order or issue a new order under section 15(1).

As regards to orders (2), (3) and (4) the children's court may also order that the child be kept in a place of safety until such time as the court order can be executed. If the Director-General cannot designate children's home or school

of industries, he shall furnish the Minister with a report about the child concerned without delay.

The Minister may, after consideration of the Director-General's report, either transfer the child to another institution in terms of section 34 or discharge the child from the institution in terms of section 37 as if the child has been admitted to a children's home or a school of industries.

It is clear that the children's court has no authority to commit a child to a reform school, but a criminal court has such authority, and under certain circumstances, also the Minister. (It is also important to note that the magistrate hearing a criminal matter has no jurisdiction to send a child to children's home).

#### **3.5.1.6 Duration of court orders**

Any order made under section 15 lapses after two years, calculated from the day on which the order was issued or after such shorter period as a children's court may have determined. This is also subject to the provisions of section 16 and 34.

Therefore, the child should be returned to his parental care depending on the circumstances. Should the circumstances be uncondusive, the Minister will grant an extension of the court order for a further period not exceeding two years. This is done provided that the order may not be extended to a date after which the child turns 18 (Section 16 (2)) or, if the child was admitted to a school of industries, the year in which the pupil turns 21 (Section 16 (3)). Consequently, the court aims at providing a maximum chance for the success of reconstruction services to ensure the rehabilitation of the child and the family.

#### **3.5.1.7 Places of safety, children's homes and places of care.**

Schurink (1995) points out that Section 28 makes provision for the establishment of places of safety for the reception, custody, observation, examination and treatment of children under this Act and the detention of children awaiting trial or sentence for criminal offences. Such places may also be used for the reception, custody, observation, examination and treatment of children.

Section 29 makes provision for the establishment and maintenance of **government children's homes** and section 30 makes provision for **registration** of places of care and children's homes. Regulation 30 and 31 clearly spell out the requirements for registration.

These requirements include a constitution in the case of children's home and a certificate issued by the local authority within whose area the institution is to be erected to the effect that the building satisfies certain structural and health requirements. Such places will be subject to inspection by the officials of the Department as stipulated in section 31.

If the conditions do not satisfy the officials of the Department, such registration will be cancelled. In the case of institutional care or place of care, legal status should be sought before these places could start operating. Legal status is attained through registration with the relevant department. The government subsidises such institutions. No provision has yet been made for the registration of shelters.

Regulation 31 stipulates the conditions under which good order and discipline in children's home should be maintained. Relevant behaviours and punishment operating in these institutions are clearly spelt out.

#### **3.5.1.8 Absconding and illegal removal of children.**

According to Section 38(1), a police officer, social worker or authorised officer may apprehend, without warrant, and bring before a commissioner of child welfare in the district where apprehended **as soon as possible** any pupil who absconds from any institution. This is also the case to a child who has absconded from a place of safety or from the custody of any person in which he was placed and who on the cancellation or expiration of his leave of absence, fails to return to the institution, place of safety or custody from which he was granted leave of absence. Such an absconder can be kept in a place of safety **until he can be brought before a commissioner.**

Section 51 stipulates that it is an offence to abduct or remove any child or pupil from any place of safety. It is also an offence to directly or indirectly counsel, induce, or aid any child or pupil to abscond from any

institution, place of safety or custody in which the child or pupil was legally placed. An individual shall be guilty of an offence if he knowingly harbours or conceals a child or pupil who has been so abducted or removed or has so absconded or prevented him from returning to the institution, place of safety or custody from which he was abducted or removed or has absconded.

### **3.5.2 Legislation on Child Labour in South Africa**

The Child-Care Amendment Act of 1991 includes a new section 52 which stipulates that subject to the provisions of this Act, or any other law, no person may employ or provide work to any child under the age of 15 years. By special arrangements, children under the age of 15 years can be allowed to work (Section 52(A) (2)).

Inherent in Section 52(A) is the question of street children who are protected against exploitation by employers. The law is restricted in a situation where children are employed by the informal sector since it cannot trace them.



### 3.5.3 Medical treatment of children and pupils in institutions

Section 39, as amended, stipulates: (4)  
notwithstanding any rule of law to the contrary:

- (a) Any person over the age of 18 shall be competent to consent, without the assistance of his parent or guardian, to the performance of any operation upon himself; and
- (b) Any person over the age of 14 years shall be competent to consent, without the assistance of his parent or guardian, to the performance of any medical treatment of himself or his child.

### 3.5.4 Determination of custody of children.

Section 13 of Act 86 of 1991 abolished the requirement that the race classification of a child and the person, in whose custody the child is placed or transferred, should be the same.

*The child's religion and cultural background should still be considered in determining his custody.*

Furthermore, the act makes provision for such aspects as transfers, leave of absence, removals, discharges and transfer of parental powers.

### 3.5.5 COMMON LAW

South African common law stipulates that children under the age of 7 years are "*doli incapax*" and are therefore considered by law to be incapable of committing criminal offences. A child under the age of 7 who commits an offence can thus be dealt with in children's court.

Children between the ages of 7 and 13 years are presumed to be "*doli incapax*". Thus they can only be charged with a criminal offence if the prosecution can prove that the child was capable of distinguishing between right and wrong and that he was acting according to what he knew was wrong.

A 14 year old child and over (i.e. a juvenile) is considered to be liable and is therefore treated in the same way as an adult when charged with a criminal offence. The difference is that the trials of juveniles are held "*in camera*", parents and guardians may assist the child in the

proceedings and there are alternative sentencing procedures for juveniles.

**3.5.6. THE CRIMINAL PROCEDURE ACT OF 1977 (ACT NO. 51 OF 1977).**

The Criminal Procedures Act makes provision for the legal processing of offenders including children under 18 years who are charged with criminal offences. According to Schurink (1995), the Act spells out the various conditions under which children can be dealt with by law:

After arrest an accused may be:

- (i) released on warning in lieu of bail if he is under the age of 18 years and be placed in the care of the person in whose custody he is (see section 72(1)(a) and (b));
- (ii) granted bail (see section 59(1)(a));
- (iii) issued with a written notice to appear in court or an indictment (see section 56(1)(b)); or
- (iv) a child may be detained in a place of safety while awaiting trial or sentence (section 28 (1) of the Child-Care Act of 1983). It is important

to note that bail is denied for youths under the age of 18 years, because:

- (v) their parents cannot be traced
- (vi) their parents or guardian cannot take care of them
- (vii) their parents regard themselves as incapable of taking responsibility for the child's appearance in court;
- (viii) of the unavailability of a place of safety; and
- (ix) of the lack of security regulation to prevent children from absconding from places of safety.

Section 50(5) provides that a probation officer or correctional office in whose area of jurisdiction the arrest of a person under the age of 18 years has taken place should be notified. The parents (or guardian) of the arrested juvenile are also to be notified, provided that they can be readily traced or traced without undue delay (section 50(4)).

A parent or guardian's failure to attend is an offence (Section 74(6), but a parent or guardian may apply for exemption from the duty to attend (Section 74(3)).

Section 71 makes a provision for juveniles to be placed in

places of safety or under supervision of a probation officer or a correctional officer in lieu of release on bail or detention in custody (Section 71 amended by the Correctional Services and Supervision Matters Amendment Act of 1991).

The Act makes provision for **alternatives to release on bail, or detention in custody of** children (Section 71). An accused under the age of 18 is released under section 72(1)(a) and may be placed in the **care of the person in whose custody he is** (Section 72(1)(b)).

The accused has the right to a legal advisor from the time of arrest (Section 73(1)) **but the court is not responsible for informing the accused of this fact.** The State does not provide free legal counsel to indigent accused except in capital offences. An accused may apply for free State legal aid if he qualifies according to a means test, but aid is not automatically given if he/she qualifies (Legal Aid Act of 1969).

Section 254 makes provision for a procedure whereby a court may stop the trial and order that the accused under the age of 18 be brought before a children's court. This

is done if it appears to the court that the child is a child referred to in section 14(4) of the child Care Act of 1983 as amended (thus a child in need of care).

The children's court then investigates the background and circumstances of the child. If the order under section 254 (1) is made after conviction, the verdict shall be of no force in relation to the person in respect of whom the order is made and the person shall be deemed not to have been sentenced. The child may then be ***removed from the criminal justice system in which case no criminal conviction is recorded.***

Once a person has been convicted of an offence, there are, according to section 276 (1) (amended by the Correctional Services and Supervision Matters Amendment Act of 1991), several sentences available to the court:

- (a) imprisonment including imprisonment for life;
- (b) periodical imprisonment;
- (c) declaration as a habitual criminal;
- (d) committal to an institution established by law;
- (e) a fine;
- (f) correctional supervision;

- (g) imprisonment after which the convicted may be placed under correctional supervision.

Sentence may also be postponed (section 297 (1) and section 290 (1) as amended, stipulates that certain orders can be issued to impose **alternative punishments** available only for juveniles by any court in which a convicted person under the age of 18 appears. The court may therefore, instead of imposing prison sentence, order that the offender:

- (a) be placed in the custody of any suitable person designated in the order; or
- (b) be placed under the supervision of the officer or a correctional official; or
- (c) be dealt with in terms of paragraph (a) and (b); or
- (d) be sent to a reform school as defined in section 1 of the Child-Care Act of 1983 as amended.

Section 290 (2) makes provision for a sentence of a fine or a whipping, which may be combined with orders in section 290 (1). Section 291 provides for the order made under section 290 to lapse after the expiration of two years or after expiration of such shorter period as a court

may have decided on. A court, which in terms of Section 290 orders that any person be sent to a reform school may direct that such a person is kept in a place of safety as defined in section 1 of the Children's Act of 1983. This is done *until such time as the order can be put into effect (section 290 (4))*.

### 3.5.7 THE PROBATION SERVICE ACT OF 1991 (ACT NO. 116 OF 1991).

Schurink (1995) states that this Act provides for the establishment of programmes at the combating of crime and for the matters connected therewith. The sections relevant to street children are:

**Section 1**, which makes provision for the definitions of concepts as used in the Act. The most important concepts are:

**"Probationer"** which means a person who has been placed under the supervision of the probation officer by virtue of the provisions of any law. (For example, the Child-Care Act of 1983 as amended, the Criminal Procedures Act of 1977 as amended);



**"Shelter"** means an institution where shelter is temporarily provided for and after-care is temporarily rendered to people who have been released from prison. This also applies to people who are subject to supervision, candidates for programmes for the combating of crime and the rendering of probation services who have no accommodation or refuge immediately upon release or supervision and their families.

Section 2 makes provision for the appointment of probation officers, and in Section 3 programmes for combating crime and rendering probation services are outlined. These include:

- (a) the prevention of crime;
- (b) the performance of community service;
- (c) information to and the treatment of offenders and other persons;
- (d) the care and treatment of the victims of crime;
- (e) the observation, treatment and supervision of persons who have been released from prison or reform school and who are probationers or have been placed in the custody of any person in terms of the law;
- (f) the rendering of assistance to the families of

persons detained in a prison or reform school and the families of persons referred to in paragraph (e);

- (g) the establishment, financing and registration of shelters;
- (h) the compensation of victims of crimes;
- (i) the adaptation of persons referred to in paragraph (e) to the community and their families; and
- (j) general matters which the Minister considers necessary or expedient for the combating of crime.

Section 4 outlines the powers and duties of probation officers, which include the following:

- (a) the investigation of the circumstances of an accused with a view to reporting to the court on his treatment and committal to an institution, as well as the rendering of assistance to his family;
- (b) the rendering of assistance to a probationer in complying with his probation conditions in order to improve his social functioning;

- (c) the immediate reporting to the court or to the Commissioner when a probationer in any manner fails to comply with or in any manner deviates from his probation conditions;
- (d) the reporting to the court or to the Commissioner, in such manner and at such time as the court or the Commissioner may determine, on the progress and the supervision of, and the compliance with the probation conditions in question by a probationer;
- (e) the planning and implementation of programmes referred to in Section 3 in general or in respect of particular persons;
- (f) the recruitment and in-service training of volunteers, and the regulation of their activities;
- (g) the management of committees;
- (h) the conducting of information classes.

Schurink (1995) further states that of importance is the role of the probation officers play in assisting the court to arrive at an appropriate sentence. This includes rendering supervision to probationers, rendering reconstruction services to the children's families and

after-care services to those released from institutional care to ensure their successful adaptation in the community.

Provision is also made for the establishment of shelters to accommodate those released from reform schools and prisons, and their families and to make services accessible to them.

### 3.5.8 THE PRISONS ACT NO. 8 OF 1959

The Prisons Act as amplified by the consolidated Prison Regulations provides the role that governs all prisons, which include police cells and lock-ups. There are few provisions that refer to juveniles specifically. ***This results in little difference in the treatment of adult and juvenile prisoners.*** Prisons are established for, *inter alia*, the detention, treatment and training of juveniles.

The Prisons Act defines a "juvenile" as a person under the age of 21 years (Section 1). However, an unconvicted person under the age of 18 years should not be kept in prison or police cells unless necessary and a suitable place of detention is unavailable (Section 29 (1)).

If the unconvicted juvenile is kept in a prison or police cells he/she may not be kept with another who is older than 21, unless such a person is a co-accused or the **association** is *not considered to be* detrimental to the child (Section 29 (3)). As far as possible juveniles who have been sentenced to imprisonment must be kept separately from older and more hardened prisoners (Consolidated Prison Regulation 137).

Section 74 (1) of the Prison's Act allows for the transfer of children from a reformatory to a prison when the child is considered unnameable to reformatory rehabilitation programmes. The remainder of the Act and of the regulation deals with the general treatment and management of all prisoners (Schurink, 1995).

### **3.5.9 THE CORRECTIONAL SUPERVISION MATTERS AMENDMENT ACT (ACT NO.122 OF 1991).**

This Act came into effect on 14 August 1991 to amend the Prisons Act of 1959 (Act no. 8 of 1959). The purpose of this act is to extend the mission of the Department of Correctional Services regarding treatment and rehabilitation of offenders by establishing correctional

supervision as community-based punishment as an alternative in lieu of prosecution or upon passing a sentence. This Act is complementary to the Child-Care Act of 1983 as amended and the Criminal Procedure Act of 1977 as amended.

**3.5.10 THE ABUSE OF DEPENDENCE-PRODUCING SUBSTANCES AND REHABILITATION ACT (ACT NO. 41 OF 1971).**

This act provides for the prohibition of the possession, use or sale of a wide range of substances (opiates, stimulants, and hallucinogenics) that are deemed to bring about physical, psychological and physiological addiction.

The abuse of inhalants ("glue-sniffing") is not prohibited under the law. This law also provides for persons over the age of 18 (vagrants) addicted to the drugs mentioned to be voluntarily or involuntarily admitted to a rehabilitation centre. A person under the age of 18 can also be detained in a place of safety, where such a place of safety is deemed rehabilitation for the purpose of this Act.

**3.5.11 THE BASIC CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT ACT OF 1983  
(ACT NO. 3 OF 1983).**

According to this Act, no person under the age of 15 may be employed. If any child under the age of 15 is employed by either formal or informal sector, he/she is not protected by any legislation. The only protection offered to them is prohibition to work.

Street children who do not have the option to stop working must maintain themselves in the face of illegality without enjoying the necessary legal protection to defend at least their elementary rights as working children.

**3.5.12 THE CHILDREN'S STATUS ACT OF 1987 (ACT NO. 82 OF  
1987).**

Schurink (1995) asserts that this Act deals with parenthood and guardianship and does not protect the most vulnerable category; that of the child under the age of 21 who has to support himself and/or his family. Neither the status nor the unique situation of street children is addressed.

### 3.5.13 SECURITY LEGISLATION

Schurink (1995) notes that security laws in South Africa override all other laws, including those pertaining to children. Children are not granted any special protection in terms of security legislation. Security laws depart from normal principles of juvenile justice for children who are/were detained for "security reasons" as a result of participation in school boycotts, political riots and so on.

Until 1982, alternative sentencing procedures for juveniles were specifically excluded for political offences. The Internal Security Act (Act No. 74 of 1982) was enacted to consolidate the then existing security laws and to include certain procedural safeguards to protect detainees. It also provides for ministerial approval of detention for more than 30 days; and a review mechanism that comes into operation after the detainee has been imprisoned for 6 months.

It is important to remember that the discriminatory legislation has been abolished, and that, in the light of democratic South Africa, all separate development acts are



something of the past. These acts include the Population Registration Amendment Act of 1949; Group Areas Amendment Act of 1957; Bantu Education Act of 1953; Bantu Investment Corporation Act of 1959; Native (Urban Areas) Amendment Act of 1956, etc.) which had direct or indirect bearing on the street child phenomenon as it exists currently.

#### **3.5.14 SOCIAL WELFARE POLICIES AND THE COMMITTEE REPORTS**

The under-mentioned social welfare policies and committee report of South Africa have relevance to the care and treatment of street children in South Africa.

##### **3.5.14.1 SOCIAL WELFARE POLICY AND STRUCTURES OF THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA**

4 November 1987 saw the approval of the Social Welfare Policy and Structure by the South African cabinet (Schurink, 1995). These amended the National Welfare Policy of 1978 (Act no. 100 of 1978). The policy was released in April 1988 and was a result of an investigation into welfare policy in South Africa. This investigation aimed at determining:

- how far the government had already gone towards becoming a welfare state in regard to welfare financing; and
- whether the present welfare policy, which includes the welfare structures, should be adjusted in order to provide the best possible in raising the general quality of life of the people.

Schurink (1995) regards information contained in the welfare policy documents as very important for the development of social welfare in South Africa. The documents contain the policy guidelines and suggestions for welfare structures that have a bearing on street children.

The most important policy guidelines and structures are:

- the conception that the individual, the family and the community are primarily responsible for their own welfare. The state and private welfare organisations can only assist if the individual, family and community fail to procure welfare;
- that people are regarded as having the ability to develop themselves if given a chance. A conducive

climate should be created within which all people can develop maximally through their own efforts. It is therefore the responsibility of the state to create such a climate; and

- that the family as a natural and fundamental social unit should be protected. The family is thus regarded as the main agent concerning childcare and the socialisation process.

#### **3.5.14.2 THE NATIONAL FAMILY PROGRAMME FOR THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA**

According to Schurink (1995), the South African cabinet approved the National Family Programme on 4 November 1987. This Programme was prompted by an in-depth investigation into family life in South Africa, as numerous signs of family disintegration were showing. These included high divorce rate, statutory placement of children, child-abuse, family violence, high rate of extramarital births and cohabitation. The Programme was based on the fact that most children who are taken into care are the result of a breakdown in family life and that it is better to prevent the breakdown in the first place.

The Programme recognises the family as a core social unit, which needs to be protected. The aim of the Programme is to achieve the highest quality in marriage and family life. This can be realised by teaching individuals and families the necessary skills to cope with the demands imposed on the family by factors within and outside the family such as urbanisation, industrialisation, poverty, changed family roles, changing values and norms and inadequate preparation for marriage.

These are the objectives of the Programme:

- the enhancement of the society's well-being;
- the creation of the climate of involvement;
- preparation for marriage and family life;
- promotion of the quality of marriage and family life;
- and
- dealing with marriage, dysfunction and pathologies.

The fields proposed for the successful application of the Programme objectives are the government sector, regional welfare boards, universities and tertiary institutions, schools, welfare and other community organisations, health care, churches, trade and industry

and the media.

## CHAPTER 4

## CHILD LABOUR

## 4.1 A BRIEF HISTORY OF CHILD LABOUR

The practices of child labour seem to have been around for a very long time. According to Brown (1961), the shameful practice of child labour should have played an important role in the Industrial Revolution from its outset. The displaced working classes, from the seventeenth century on, took it for granted that a family would not be able to support itself if the children were not employed. The above author makes a reference to the effect that in "Defoe's day," it was admirable that in the vicinity of Halifax, scarcely anybody above the age of 4 was idle. The children of the poor were forced by economic conditions to work, as Dickens, with his family in debtor's prison, worked at the age of 12 in the Blacking Factory.

In 1840 approximately twenty percent of the children of London attended school. This number had risen by 1860, when about half of the children between the ages of 5 and 15 were in some sort of school (of the sort in which

Dickens's Pip finds himself in Great Expectations) or a Sunday school while others were working (Brown, 1961) and (Cunningham, 1975). Many of the more fortunate found employment as apprentices to respectable trades (in the building trade workers put in 64 hours a week in summer and 52 in winter). Some were employed as general servants (Cunningham, 1975). There were over 120,000 domestic servants in London alone in mid-century, who worked 80-hour weeks for one half-pence per hour - but many more were not so lucky. Many others became prostitutes (and there were thousands in London alone) at the age of around 15 years (Brown, 1961).

The above author further states that many children worked 16-hour days under atrocious conditions, as their elders did. Ineffective parliamentary acts to regulate the work of working children in factories and cotton mills to 12 hours per day had been passed as early as 1802 and 1819. After radical agitation, notably in 1831, when "Short Times Committees" organised largely by Evangelicals began to demand a ten hour day, a royal commission established by the Whig government recommended in 1833 that children aged 11 - 18 be permitted to work a maximum of twelve hours per day. Children aged between 9 - 11 were allowed to work 8

hour days; and children under 9 were no longer permitted to work at all (children as young as 3 had been put to work previously). This act applied only to the textile industry, where children were put to work at the age of 5. Children, both boys and girls, began work at age 5, and generally died before they were 25 years old. They worked in iron and coal mines, gas works, shipyards, construction, match factories, nail factories, and in the business of chimney sweeping. The exploitation of child labour was very extensive, and it was enforced in all of England by a total of four inspectors. After further radical agitation, another act in 1847 limited both adults and children to ten hours of work daily (Brown, 1961).

While doing literature review, the present researcher could not find material on the history of child labour in other countries. It is only in Great Britain.

#### **4.2 CHILD LABOUR IN THE USA**

According to Anti-Slavery Reporter (1997), President Clinton of the USA, signed an amendment to the 1930 Tariff Act to ban the importation into the USA of any goods, articles or merchandise mined, produced or manufactured by



forced or indentured child labour. On the other hand Foster and Kramer (1997) perceive street children as one of the markets for child labour practice. These authors indicate that fifty-nine (59) years after the American Congress outlawed child labour, underage children still toiled in the fields and factories scattered across America. The poorest and most vulnerable among them (including street children) would start working very early in life. Many earn wages below the legal minimum, often in exhausting, or even hazardous jobs.

Dobnik and Anthony (1997) support the contention of the above authors. They add that child labour has taken place in some parts of America.

The above authors and the Child Labour Study Group (1997) further indicate that these children, like any other person, have dreams and aspirations. They dream of being fashion designers, baseball players, and so on. Some of the children are very young, and others are approaching adulthood. From America's fields they harvest a variety of fruits and vegetables. In government factories, they iron pants, hang shirts and trim clothing. They toil in meat-

parking and egg-producing plants, in sawmills and furniture factories.

Among the children described above, are an estimated 61,000 child field workers, ages 14 to 17, who live far away from their parents (According to an unreleased US Labour Department report) Child Labour Study Group (1997). In thousands of cases, their parents are not even in the country. In all, about 123,000 children in that age group work in America's fields. Younger children in the fields are an all-but hidden, untracked work force, observe Dobnik and Anthony (1997).

On the other hand, The New York Times (1995) reports that a study conducted by the Luxembourg Income Study shows that poor children in the United States are poorer than the children in most other Western industrialised nations. Hence they find themselves working. According to the study, there appeared to be several reasons why the United States had such extreme poverty among children and indeed homeless children.

(a) The United States has the widest gap between rich and poor.

- (b) The United States has fewer generous social programs than the other 17 countries in the study. These countries are Australia, Canada, Israel and 14 European countries: Austria, Belgium, Britain, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland.
- (c) American households with children tend to be less affluent than the average European households.

American mothers are more likely than European mothers to return to work quickly after childbirth, partly because inexpensive, high-quality childcare is more widely available in Europe.

Foster and Kramer (1997) observe that working children live in a world apart from most Americans, hidden from consumers and even the companies that buy the products of their labour.

Within five months, The Associated Press found 165 children working illegally in 16 states, from the chilli fields of New Mexico to the sweatshops of New York City.

The above mentions that the press was able to follow the work products of 50 children to more than dozen companies including Campbell Soup Co., Chi-Chi's Mexico restaurants, ConAgra, Costco, H.J. Heinz, Newman's Own, J.C. Penney, Pillsbury, Sears and Wal-Mart (Foster and Kramer, 1997).

Kramer (1997) concurs with the above authors and further mentions that Associate Press had Rutgers University labour economist Douglas L. Kruse analyse monthly census surveys and other workplace and population data collected by the federal government. His study estimates that 290,200 children were employed unlawfully in 1996. Some were older teens working far too many hours in after-school jobs. Nevertheless, among them, there were 59,600 children under age 14 and 13,100 who worked in garment sweatshops, defined as factories with repeated labour violations. Close to 4 percent of all 12 - to 17 - year olds working in any given week were employed illegally.

Employers saved \$155 million in wages in 1996 by hiring underage children instead of legal workers.

It should be noted that Krusse's study could not account for all children who work illegally because available data is limited. For example, census-takers, like labour enforcement agents, have trouble finding the very children who are among the most easily exploited: children of migrant workers, illegal immigrants and the very young (Kramer, 1997).

Foster and Kramer (1997), highlight that Jim Sinegal, President of Costco Wholesale Corp., said his company had monitored overseas suppliers for years to avoid products made with child labour. However, the company acknowledged buying cherries from packing plants in Washington State where child workers under 16 were sickened by carbon monoxide in July 1996. Federal law prohibits children under 16 from working in such plants.

Antislavery Reporter (1997) provides the following background that pertains to child labour: that a century ago, more than 2 million children laboured in America's factories fields and mines.

The above report further asserts that in the early 1900s, however, public opinion moved toward a dimmer view of child labour. Too much work, too young, robs children of an education and condemns them to a lifetime of poverty and missed opportunity.

In 1938, Congress in the United States of America declared an end to "oppressive child labour," the most onerous forms of children's work, by enacting the Fair Labour Standards Act. Since its passage, child labour has declined, although it is far from eradicated. Kurse's study, which began with 1970s figures, shows the number of illegal child workers dropping until recently, but levelling off since 1995 (Antislavery Reporter 1997).

Foster and Kramer (1997) say that the 1938 law set age minimum designed to ease children into the adult world of work. Those standards remain at the heart of federal child labour law:

- Children must wait until age 16 to work in factories or during school hours.
- Children under 14 are barred from most jobs except farming.

- Children under 12, are banned from most farming jobs but can work on their parent's farm or on a small farm exempt from federal minimum-wage laws.
- Children below 18, or 16 on farms, are barred from a list of jobs deemed hazardous.

Responsibility extends beyond the child's employer. Under the federal law, the taint of illegal child labour clings to a product from the workplace to the final packager or distributor.

Reporters saw 104 children working illegally in agriculture in the past five months - nearly three times the 35 that U.S. Labour Department inspectors witnessed nation-wide in 1996. Underage children picked cucumbers in Michigan, green peppers in Tennessee, and apples upstate New York. Others packed peaches into crates in Illinois and hoed sorghum in Lubbock, Texas (Antislavery Reporter, 1997).

#### **4.2.1 United States Global March against child labour**

According to a report by United States March (1999), (an affiliate of an international organisation called

Global March Against Child Labour), the new and tougher child labour laws were marched for and were to be voted for by the US Senate in 1999. This source further explains that the Global March Against Child Labour takes the form of a combination of marches and bus caravans linked to an extensive program of local and national demonstrations, events and advocacy campaigns.

The above source explains that Global March is a massive expression for passage of the new proposed laws. It is an international alliance of more countries. It is committed to eradicating child labour.

#### **4.2.2 Codes of Conduct regarding Child Labour in the USA**

Child Labour Study Groups (CLSG) (1997) reports that corporate codes of conduct and other business guidelines prohibiting the use of child labour were becoming more common. Consumers as well as religious, labour and human rights groups are calling upon companies to take responsibility for the conditions under which goods they sell are manufactured. This source further indicates that many U.S. companies that import apparel, have adopted codes



of conduct that prohibit the use of child labour and promote other labour standards.

With the advice from child labour study group, the U.S. Department of Labour found that codes of conduct can be a positive factor in solving the global child labour problem. Most of the large U.S. apparel importers responding to the voluntary questionnaire have adopted codes prohibiting child labour in garment production (CLSG, 1997).

#### **4.3 CHILD LABOUR IN CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA**

Honduras launched a plan to take an estimated 240,000 children out of building sites and factories and put them back to school, (Reuters, 1998). Special Prosecutor Rigoberts Portillo told Reuters that eliminating child labour in a long term is possible, although achieving such a task in a short period of time is impossible (Reuters, 1998). This source further reports that in Honduras, children push overloaded wheelbarrows on building sites, work in dairy plant refrigerators, operate power saws, industrial knives and slicing machines in food processing factory.

According to the International Labour Organisation's International Program on the Elimination of Child Labour, some 241,000 Honduran children between 11 - 17 years are working mainly because they come from poor families (Reuters, 1998).

Gutman (1997) mentions that the reduction of family income in Guatemala and Honduras has reinforced child labour to support family subsistence.

In 1996, five Central American countries (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Panama) signed accords with the International Labour Organisation (ILO) aimed at booting their national programmes on eliminating child labour. These countries pledged to deepen co-operation with labour unions, employers and other organisations in a fight against the employment of children (Reuters, 1996).

The ILO indicated that these countries would be able to call the resources of the International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) which the United Nations agency set up in 1992. IPEC aims to achieve the phased elimination of child labour partly by strengthening national capacity to deal with the problem and also by

working around the world to raise public awareness of its nature and extent (Reuters, 1996).

According to the CLSG (1997), Brazilian President Herminge Cardoso launched a program to get back 5,000 children who are working illegally in orange groves in north-eastern Sergipe State. Parents of the children aged between 7 and 14 will receive \$22-30 a month for each child they send back to school. This \$22-30 is an amount roughly equivalent to the salary the youngsters would be earning in the groves.

#### **4.4 CHILD LABOUR IN ASIAN COUNTRIES**

Khan (1997) observes that in South Asian countries, different types of child labour practices exist. These are manifested in different forms:

- Child labour connected with export industries which are producing footballs, textile, leather, surgical instruments, cotton, thread, fish, and semiprecious commodities.

- Child labour connected with import goods and the workshops for repairing of these imported items like motor-vehicles, motorcycles, tractors, air conditioners, wool, pesticides and other chemicals.
- Child and bonded labour connected with agriculture dominated sector. Huge groups of children work during harvesting and cotton picking. This also includes children in domestic work and those in the teashops.

Khan (1997) cites the fact that in these countries 70 per cent child labour is directly related to import and export business and trade, which means that child labour in South Asia is providing cheap items and cheap service to industrialised and developed countries and to multinational companies. Consequently, children are losing their rights of a childhood, love, education, the right of playing and pleasure.

Due to pressure from America and other consumers, ILO has succeeded on the 14<sup>th</sup> February 1996 to bring representatives of big importers like Nike, Adidas and Sialkot Chamber of Commerce and industries into an agreement to eliminate child labour in football and soccer

ball industry within 15 months. But the weak point in this agreement is that there is no mention of anything about the leather which is also being used in the football making and where the tanneries are also using children. World of Work (1997) has further established that another problem is that nothing was said about the footballs coming from India, where the child labour is taking place. They are from places in the interior of Punjab like Jalander and surrounding places like Basti Bagho, Basli Nfithoo, Basti Sheikh etc. (Khan, 1997).

The above author further highlights the fact that there is no existing monitoring system which can guarantee that child labour is not used in processing of carpets, footballs, soccer balls etc. However, in many European countries like Sweden, Finland, France etc. carpets from India, Nepal and Pakistan are available which children have manufactured.

Khan (1997) also reports that due to child labour problems and other problems in the Asian countries, the economy and political situation is not stable and progressive. In fact, to meet these challenges it is very important that every country of the region has to make

short term and long term plans of action to overcome the problem. However, these evils can not be eradicated without the awareness and education of the people about the rights of the child and the importance of education for all. It is estimated that 80 million children in servitude exist in South Asia. Out of these, 55 million are in India and 7.5 million in Pakistan. Due to lack of political will the rights of the child are not enforced in these countries (Khan, 1997).

World of Work (1996 and 1997) and Free Labour World (1996), argue that mostly poverty and financial deprivation are reasons for sending small children to work under rigorous and hazardous conditions. But what forces the factory owners to employ child labour, which is a clear violation of the national law and the constitution and the UN declaration of the rights of the child? It cannot only be because they are caring for the poor and helpless families (World of Work, 1997). It has to do with the availability of cheap and obedient labour who will not ask for a raise of salary or less working hours, not even protection of social security allowed by the law. The intention is quite clear. It is to make larger and larger profit but at the cost of the future generation of the

nation. The goods made by children should not be allowed to be imported if it is not guaranteed that children did not manufacture them (World of Work, 1996).

In Turkey, child labour is also practised. Orizio (1998) contends that children younger than 14 years in that country are working illegally. They are employed in different occupations in factories, and in agriculture, instead of being at school. This author further indicates that a company called Beneton, which has employed young children in Turkey, held two world-wide publicity campaigns. One centred on children with handicaps. The other had to do with the 50<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the declaration on human rights from the United Nations and the convention on the rights of the child. Article 23 of this convention states: "Undersigned acknowledge the right of children to be protected against economic exploitation and the execution of labour that is dangerous or conflicts with the right on education " (Orizio, 1998, p.1).

According to Child Labour Bulletin (1996), the practice of child labour is also taking place in China, as it is the case with other countries. This source indicates that data collection in China is difficult due to limited

accessibility to information, particularly on sensitive issues like industrial accidents, child labour, prostitution, etc.

The Child Labour Bulletin (1996) estimates that half a million children migrated to the Southern coast and Guangdong Province in 1991. These children have served in the labour market. The report also states that the coastal provinces of Zhejiang and Jiangsu are the regions with the largest number of child workers. Their ages are estimated around 13 and 14 years of age.

Ka Wai (1996) and Change HKCIC (1996) concur with the Child Labour Bulletin (1996) that child labour in China is practised. However, the former author states that it is not as serious as in some countries such as Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Nepal. They indicate that more than 10 million children, aged 6-15 are not attending school in China. Five million of these are working in factories. The above authors further indicate that in Sichuan (the most populated province in China), 85 % of children who drop out from school are working in other provinces.



In Thailand, child labour plays an important role in the economic development of that country (Free Labour, 1996). According to this source, nearly one and half million children aged between 6 and 14 are not registered in schools, and at least 500 000 adolescents from 13 to 14 years work for an employer, especially in agriculture.

Underpaid, endlessly exploitable, children are easy prey for unscrupulous employers. They are recruited from the streets, in illegal employment agencies or directly from their parents. Some families do not hesitate to sell or hire out their sons and daughters to buy the consumers' goods (Free Labour World 1996). This source further reports that some fathers even use the money to satisfy their craving for alcohol or buy the services of a prostitute.

While Thai legislation protects children, the political will to apply it is missing. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs only gets 1% of the State budget, while 25% goes as to Defence Ministry. The 400 labour inspectors are expected to monitor 20 000 enterprises. This figure excludes clandestine workshops, which frequently use child labour. The inspectors cannot enter

these workshops without authorisation from the police officers if the employers bribe them. The law bans night searches, yet it is then that most children are made to work (Free Labour World, 1996 and 1997)

Hansenne (1996) and Free Labour World, (1997) indicate that there are 250 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 working in developing countries. Of this total, 120 million are working full-time, and 130 million work part-time.

Although the internationally recommended minimum age for work is 15 years and the number of child workers under the age of 10 is far from negligible, almost all the data available on child labour concerns the 10 - to - 14 age group. Combining various official sources, the ILO estimates that more than 73 million children in that group alone were economically active in 1995, representing 13.2 per cent of all 10 - 14 years olds around the world. The greatest numbers were found in Asia - 44.6 million.

#### 4.5 CHILD LABOUR IN EUROPE

Insofar as literature is concerned, not much is indicated about child labour in Europe. However, the Amsterdam Child Labour Conference highlights major issues on this topic. It points out that child labour is a worldwide problem occurring in both developing and industrialised countries (The European Conference on Street Children Worldwide, 1996).

The above conference further points out that the number of working children is increasing. The European Conference on Street Children Worldwide (1996) argues that the most vulnerable child workers are those exploited by slavery and forced labour systems. According to Hansenne (1996), adults' abuse of children as sexual partners and for the production of pornographic material is one of the most odious forms of violence against children.

According to The European Conference on Street Children Worldwide (1996), a conference was held in Amsterdam in 1996, and the conference identified the following factors in respect of street children:

- Poverty as a main reason for the supply of child labour.

- Households in which adult members are unemployed often need the money their children earn for survival. Consequently, children contribute to up to 20-25 percent of family income.
- Children subjected to the most intolerable forms of labour come from population groups that are not only economically vulnerable, but also culturally and socially disadvantaged. Poor single-parent families, often headed by women, tend to rely on child labour for family survival.
- Poverty and child labour reinforce each other. Poverty gives rise to child labour and child labour perpetuates poverty (Within the context of this discussion). Child labour excludes or restricts access to education and jeopardises the chance to upward social mobility. It therefore perpetuates poverty since lack of education impacts on earnings throughout life.

Makombe (1992) states that forty years after it joined the European Community, Italy still has about 300 000 child workers. The biggest concentration of under age workers is in and around Naples where their wages average about 70 000 lire a week. Many children are employed in the

manufacturing of fake designer clothes and accessories (The Guardian, 1998).

On the other hand, ITGLWF Newsletter (1997) mentions that in October 1997, a four-day International Conference against Child Labour was held in Oslo to address the plight of working children. International trade union organisations invited governments to put into practice the resolutions and promises made, and urged the multinational enterprise to finance programmes to bring children out of the workplace and into schools.

Most delegates who took part in the Oslo conference against child labour hailed it as a great success. International governments pledged about US \$100 million and they have declared war on child labour (Trade Union World, 1997).

There is evidence that child labour also exists in many industrialised countries, including Italy, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States. The problem is also emerging in many East European and Asian countries, which are in transition to a market economy. The results of an ILO survey published earlier showed that some 73 million children between ages 10 and 14 were working full-

time in some 100 countries. The latest estimates are based on a new and more accurate methodology recently tested by the ILO in Ghana, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Senegal and Turkey (World of Work, 1996).

#### **4.6 CHILD LABOUR IN AFRICA AND THE SOUTH AFRICAN SITUATION**

The practise of child labour occurs in Africa. According to Chilazya (1995), more than 72 000 adults have lost their jobs over a period of donor-supported reforms. At the same time children were becoming a force to be reckoned with in the labour market. This author says that in 1994 the total work force of children aged between 12 and above was 2.7 million, and that the annual growth rate of 2.1 percent was expected to increase to 3 million in 1995. The rising job losses seemed to have been the cause of child labour in Zambia.

Hitherto, South Africa does not practice child labour - or not openly because the Constitution does not allow it. (See figure 4.1).

#### 4.7 INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (ILO) AND CHILD LABOUR

The International Labour Organisation reports that there are approximately 250 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 who are working in developing countries, nearly double previous estimates. This organisation says that of this total, some 120 million children are working full-time, and 130 million works part-time (Hansenne, 1996).

"We all know that child labour is one of the faces of poverty and that many efforts over many years will be required to eliminate it completely," says Michel Hansenne, Director-General of the ILO. "But, there are some forms of child labour today which are intolerable by any standard. These deserve to be identified, exposed and indicated without further delay" (Hansenne, 1996, p.2).

World of Work (1996), contends that the ILO's perception is that the problem of child labour is enormous and the need for action is urgent and choices must be made about where to concentrate available human and material resources. The most humane strategy must therefore be to focus first on the most intolerable forms of child labour

such as slavery, debt bondage, child prostitution, work in hazardous occupations and industries, and on the very young, especially girls.

Some countries have pledged to end the practise of child labour and are doing something about it. Those countries include Brazil, United States, and some Central American countries (Diderich, 1998).

On the other hand, Reuters (1996) has established that five Central American countries have signed an accord in 1996 in Geneva with the International Labour Organisation (ILO). The aim of this accord was to eliminate child labour. These countries are Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Panama. Reuters (1998) on the other hand mentions that Honduras has vowed to combat child labour.

ITGLWF Newsletter (1997) reports that girls more often work in domestic labour; boys work in construction, fields and factories, leading to sexual differences in exposure to hazards.

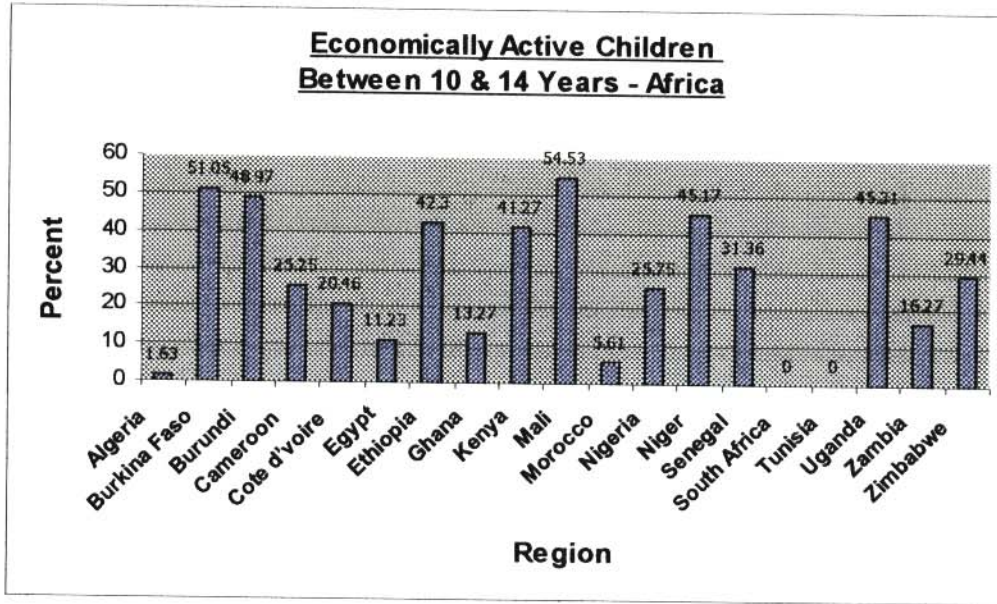


This source further indicates that girls, because of their employment in households, work longer hours than boys do each day. This is one important reason why girls receive less schooling than boys. Girls are also more vulnerable than boys to sexual abuse and its consequences, such as social rejection, psychological trauma, and unwanted motherhood. Boys, on the other hand, tend to suffer more injuries resulting from carrying weights too heavy for their age and stage of physical development. The ILO survey focuses on unsafe and abusive working situations for children. Some examples of these include:

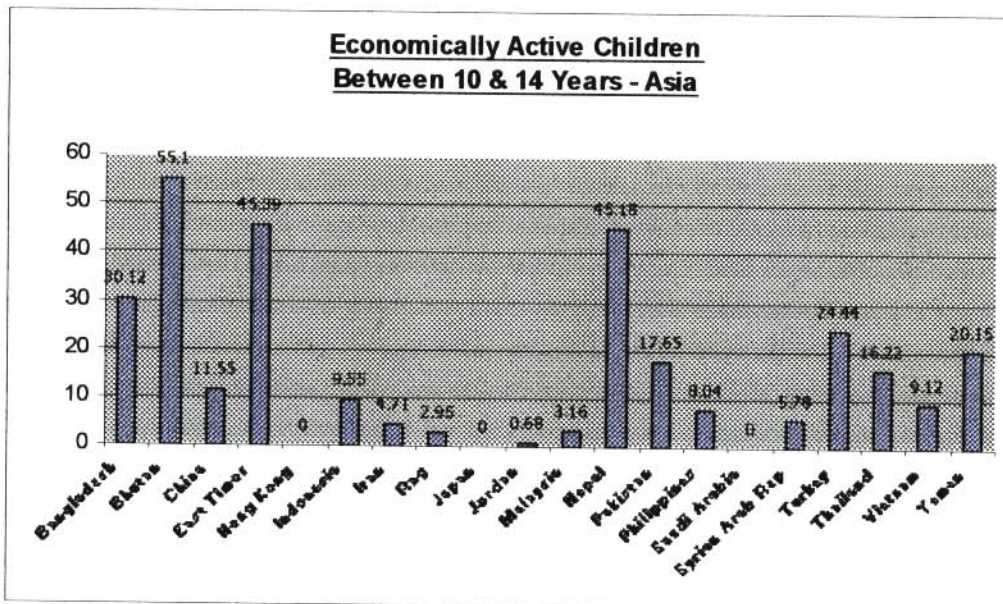
- Slavery and forced child labour
- Prostitution and trafficking of children
- Mining and agriculture
- Ceramics and glass factory work
- Matches and fireworks industry
- Deep-sea fishing
- Child domestic workers
- Construction

**4.8 FIGURES - ESTIMATED PERCENTAGES OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE CHILDREN BETWEEN 10 AND 14 YEARS OF AGE.1995. (SELECTED COUNTRIES AND TERRITORIES) (WORLD OF WORK, 1996, 6, 3-4).**

AFRICA (Figure 4.1)

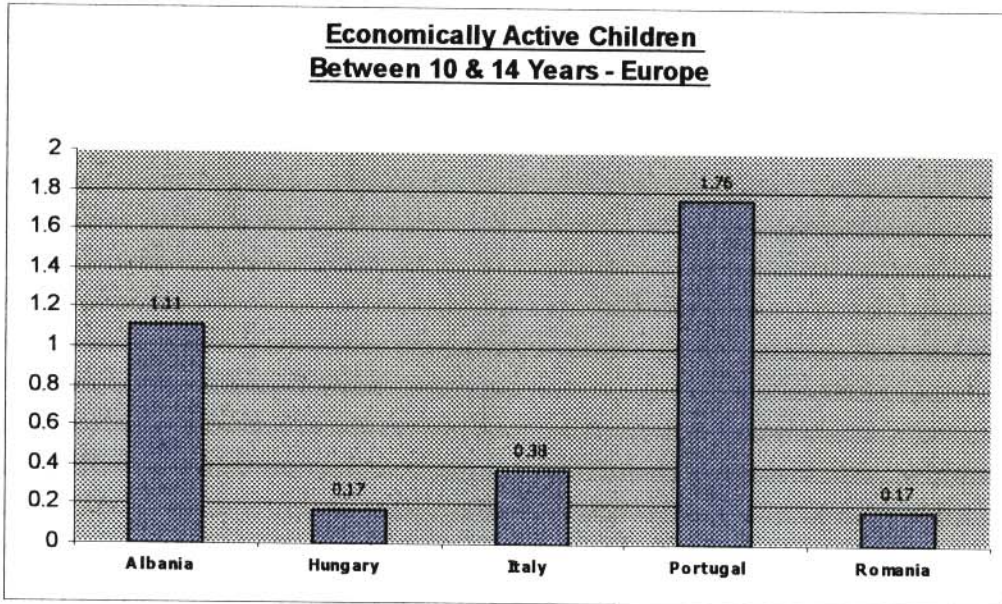


ASIA (Figure 4.2)

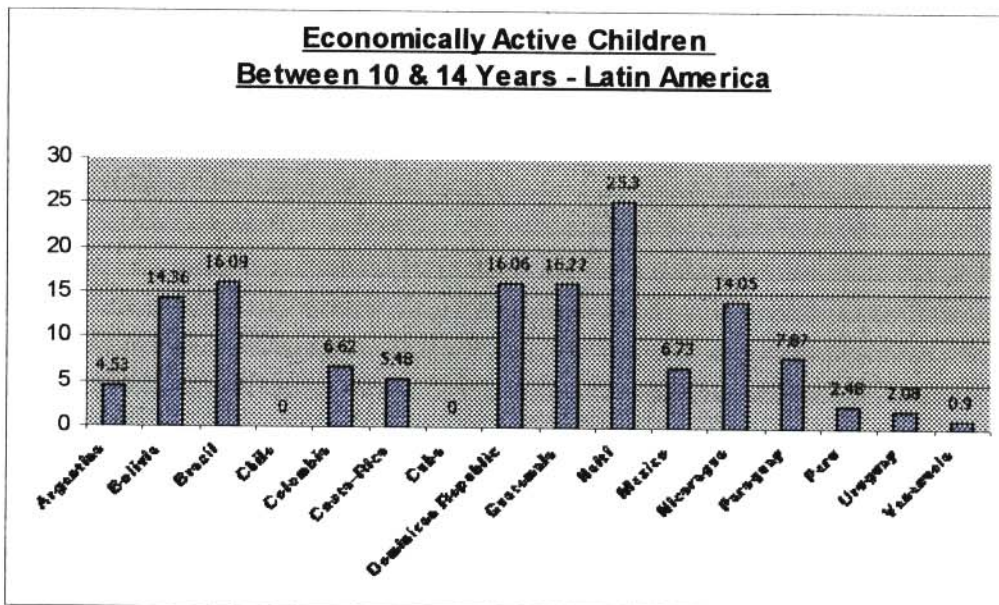




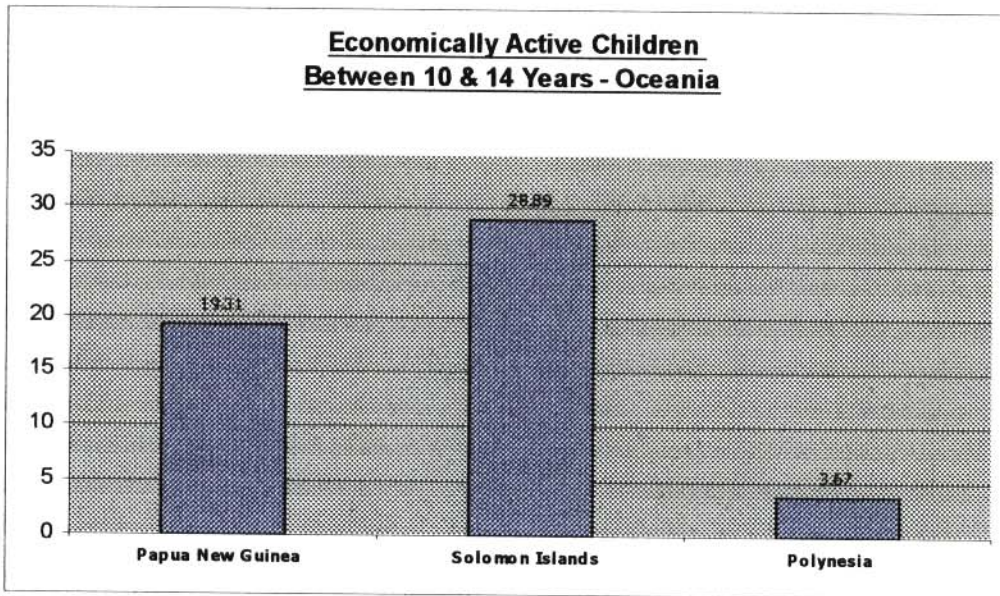
EUROPE (Figure 4.3)



LATIN- AMERICA (Figure 4.4)



## OCEANIA (Figure 4.5)

**4.9 FOOTBALL GIANTS PRACTISING CHILD LABOUR**

According to Campaign for Labour Rights (1997) and Christian Aid's report (1997), Indian children, some as young as seven are routinely stitching footballs for export to Britain. The above source has also established that boys as young as ten years old are employed in small workshops manufacturing items such as boxing and cricket gloves. Those children are usually employed under hazardous conditions. Christian Aid's report (1997) further states that big companies like Mitre, Umbro, and Adidas could help to solve the problem by persuading their existing supplies to implement codes of conduct pledging basic minimum labour

standards, with independent monitoring to ensure compliance.

According to the World of Work (1997), at an age when the children around the world are chasing footballs after school, many children in the villages of Sialkot in the Punjab Province of Pakistan are stitching them together. This source further indicates that children (of Sialkot) - some as young as seven, sew the balls together. This they do either at home or in small workshops. Some never go to school.

According to the IPEC study concerning the working children of Sialkot, 7 000 children between the ages of five and 14 years work full-time in the football stitching, with 7 700 in the same age bracket working full-time in grinding and polishing surgical instruments. Many thousands more work part-time in both industries outside school hours (World of Work, 1997)

Christian Aid's report (1997) and Campaign for Labour Rights (1997) mention that in February, 1997, representatives of the soccer ball industry signed a Partnership agreement with UNICEF and the International



Labour Organisation. The aim was to address the issue of child labour in the factories of South Asia where soccer balls are seen. These sources further note that despite the signing that took place between UNICEF, ILO and other parties, up to 20 % of the balls brought to the USA continued to be stitched by children under the age of 14. Thousands of children toil for poverty wages.

#### **4.10 RISKS AND HAZARDS OF CHILD LABOUR**

Bloser (1994) highlights that the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) has warned parents, students, teachers, and employers that thousands of young people are injured or killed at work each year. He further states that in 1992 study, NIOSH found an estimated 64,100 adolescents (aged 14 - 17) who were treated in emergency departments for workplace injuries. NOISH Alert (1995) adds that approximately 70 adolescents die from injuries at work each year.

Children may be crippled physically by being forced to work too early in life. For example, a large-scale ILO survey in the Philippines found that more than 60 % of working children were exposed to chemical and biological

hazards, and that 40 % experienced serious injuries and illnesses. In addition, a comparative study carried out over a period of 17 years in India on both children who attend school and children who work in agriculture, industry or the service sector, showed that working children grow up to be shorter and weigh less than school children. In studies carried out in Bombay, the health of children working in hotels, restaurants, constructions and elsewhere were found to be considerably inferior to that of a control group of non-working school children. The working children exhibited symptoms of constant muscular, chest and abdominal pain, headaches, dizziness, respiratory infections, diarrhoea and worm infection (World of Work, 1996).

### **Adolescent death on the job**

According to Bloser (1994), NIOSH previously found that 41% of occupational injury deaths of youth investigated by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) occurred while the child was engaged in work prohibited by federal child labour laws.

The above author says that the leading causes of occupational injury death were found to be motor vehicle-related, machine related, electrocution, homicide, and falls. He further says that although the overall risk of occupational death is lower for 16 - and 17 - year - olds than for adults, the risk for workplace death by electrocution, suffocation, poisoning, and natural environmental causes appears to be greater for young people.

### **Hazardous Industries**

In this category, deaths among the youth in the work place occurred mostly in the agriculture/forestry/fishing, construction, services, retail trade and manufacturing industries. Lacerations accounted for most adolescent injuries, that is (34%). Other common injuries include contusions and abrasions, sprains, and strains, burns, fractures and dislocations (Bloser, 1994 and 1997).

Fifty-four percent (54%) of injuries to adolescents workers occurred in the retail trade industries. With this industry, 71% of injuries occurred in eating and drinking establishments. Large portions of these injuries were lacerations and burns. In other industries where a large



number of adolescent workers were injured included service, agriculture, manufacturing, construction and transportation /communication/ public utilities (Bloser, 1994).

At a follow-up study on risks involving children at workplace, NIOSH in 1997 found that children of construction workers are at six times higher risk for lead poisoning than children whose parents are not employed in lead-related industries (Bloser, 1997). This author explains that lead is of concern for workers with young children since it has been shown that it causes a variety of health problems in children. These problems range from behavioural disorders to brain damage. Inherent in this study is that children who work at lead-related industries are at a greater risk of lead poisoning.

According to Bloser (1998), the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) was working with the nation's high schools to distribute a new poster and other information emphasising safety and health at work for students under 18 years of age. As the summer hiring season approached, the new poster would remind young workers that they have the right to safety and healthy workplaces, including required safety clothing, equipment,

and training. The poster also tells young workers that they have the right to know about and be protected from hazards. The poster also notes that both the federal and state governments must restrict the hours and type of work that adolescents are permitted to do (Bloser, 1997).

The HHS Press Release (1997) reports that the NIOSH the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services had launched a national research program designed to protect children on farms from injury and death. Under this program, NIOSH was to conduct and support research to identify factors that put children at serious risk of injury on the farm and to develop better information nationally about the prevalence and circumstances of such injuries. The program was also aimed at fostering new approaches for raising the awareness about safety risks for children on farms and providing information to help farm families, communities and organisations safeguarding young people.

#### 4.11 CONCLUSION

It is evident that however shameful the practice of child labour was, it did contribute significantly to the industrial revolution. Most affected children came from the poor working class families and they would help to maintain the financial positions of their families. These children had to work for about 16 hours a day under atrocious conditions as their elders did.

British parliament passed laws that reduced the working of children between the ages of 11-15 years to ten hours a day and those who were 9-11 years old were permitted to work for 8 hours a day. These laws applied only to the textile industry where children were put to work at the age of 5.

The United States of America, especially under President Bill Clinton, amended the 1930 Tariff Bill to ban within the USA, any goods, articles, or merchandise mined, produced or manufactured by children.

In the United States of America, the Child Labour Study Group (1997) found 61 000 child field workers and many of

these children's parents were not in the country but were probably working in other countries.

The following factors were found to be some of those that contribute to child labour in the USA (New York Times, 1995):

- USA has fewer generous social programs than 17 other countries under study.
- USA mothers are more likely than European mothers to return to work quickly after childbirth.

It should be noted that in the USA, there was a USA global march against child labour. Codes of conduct regarding child labour were also put in place (Child Labour Study Group, 1997).

South American countries including Honduras, Guatemala and Brazil practised child labour too. In Honduras, plans were devised to take 240 000 children out of building sites and factories by placing them back in schools (Reuters, 1998).

Reuters (1996) reports that in 1996, five Central American countries signed an accord with ILO which would address the question of child labour in those countries.

In South Asian countries, the practise of child labour included:

- Child labour connected to export industries, which are producing footballs, textiles, leather etc.
- Child labour linked to imported goods and the workshops for repairing them (e.g. vehicles, motorcycles, tractors etc.)
- Child labour connected with agriculture.

According to Khan (1997), what had hampered the elimination of child labour in the Asian countries was the lack of political and economic stability in those countries.

Invariably, the countries and unscrupulous employers that practised child labour and child exploitation were enriching themselves at the expense of these children.

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) is in support of eradicating child labour. Figures reported by

Hansenne (1996) show 250 million children aged between 5 and 14 who are working in developing countries.

It is interesting to note that the giants of football manufacturers like Mitre, Umbro and Adidas have practised child labour (possibly indirectly). The Campaign for Labour Rights (1997) as well as the Christian Aid Report (1997) have condemned this kind of practice.

The practice of child labour is not without risks and hazards. According to Bloser (1994), thousands of young people were injured or killed at work each year in the United States of America.

The present researcher views street children as a market sustaining the child labour practice. These children start working early in life. Foster and Kramer (1997) also share this view.

Poverty and financial deprivation are some of the reasons that send children to streets and consequently to working under rigorous and hazardous conditions (Free Labour World, 1996).

Like any other child, street children have dreams and aspirations. The practice of child labour thwarts them and prevents them from growth and development. Working too young has a tendency to rob the youth childhood, education and a child is usually condemned to poverty.

## CHAPTER 5

## GENERAL BEHAVIOUR OF STREET CHILDREN AND THEIR WAY OF LIFE

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Street children are faced with many challenges - some of which prove to be hazardous. The focus of this section is on inter alia, the processes of urbanisation and industrialisation, which are said to contribute to the phenomenon of street children. Family dysfunction and peer group pressure are also described as contributory factors to this phenomenon.

This section also discusses the characteristics of hard-core street children as well as substance abuse. The latter focuses particularly on glue-sniffing. Although other forms of substance abuse like dagga, petrol-sniffing and alcohol are mentioned, street children's main substance is glue.

Street children's sex practices including the dangers of AIDS as well as their attitudes towards the disease are examined. Violence against street children is also



discussed.

## **5.2 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO CHILDREN TURNING INTO STREET CHILDREN**

### **5.2.1 URBANISATION AND INDUSTRIALISATION**

Cemane (1990) takes an integrated approach in examining factors which contribute to children becoming street children. He points out that industrialisation and urbanisation have contributed, and are still contributing to this problem. Pandey (1991) and the United Nations (1990) support the above author and further point out that the head of the family takes up employment in an urban area and is absent from home for long periods. In the process, he cannot accept direct responsibility for his family and loses control over the young children during their formative years. The children experience a gradual or complete neglect of traditional customs and values, which eventually leads to ignorance of what is regarded as right or wrong. Feelings of confusion and despair develop among children and their parents (Maphatane, 1994).

### **5.2.2 FAMILY DYSFUNCTION**

According to Rip (1978), English (1973), United Nations (1990) and Bellamy (1998) the above is presented when a family unit does not function according to the approved and recognised ethical patterns of the society of which it forms part. Family dysfunction takes the following forms:

#### ***5.2.2.1 Communication breakdown in families***

Outwardly, these families manifest most of the characteristics of an organised and well-behaved family. A closer look reveals, however, that communication breakdown is a major problem. There is no emotional support. Physical and emotional needs are neglected. Thus, this situation is conducive to children leaving their homes and heading for the streets (Pandey, 1991).

#### ***5.2.2.2 Stress, misfortunes and tragedy***

Cemane (1990) and Bellamy (1998) assert that stress factors such as a debilitating physical or mental illness can influence the role function of the affected person within the family group. This puts a lot of strain on other family members and children feel stressed. Consequently

they take to the streets.

In their discussion of misfortunes that affect normal family functioning, Cemané (1990) and Acharya (1997) include incarceration of one or both parents for long periods. This also includes being caught up in the midst of the ravages of riots, political unrest, or wars; and being affected by long periods of adverse climatic conditions, which sometimes results in severe food shortages and starvation. During difficult times, families may, in their despair, neglect their children (SAPS, 1997).

Tragedy, as explained by Cemané (1990) and Cornish, (1992), includes structural disruption of the nuclear family because of the death of one or both parents. In the case of divorce, the remaining parent may enter into a relationship with a new partner who may neglect and even abuse children from the original marriage. Because of this, the child experiences emotional trauma and becomes isolated and alienated from the rest of the family. He may end up roaming the streets begging, scavenging at food outlets or even "selling his body" to survive.

### 5.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF HARDCORE STREET CHILDREN

Bernstein (1964) acknowledges that associated with even the most successful work with the alienated youth groups, there tends to be a hard-core of residual members who were relatively uninfluenced towards more constructive functioning and attitudes. These seem to be those with the greatest personal and family pathology. The Group Guidance Section in Los Angeles calls them the "gang psycho" according to Bernstein (1964). These individuals have their entire psychic and physical energy devoted to the gang, obtaining no satisfaction in other aspects of life.

As the group moves toward new and healthier developments, the hard-cores tend to be left behind. During some of the interviews the author had with groups, there were boys who were antagonistic when discussions turned toward plans for the future dealing with education and jobs. If and when the residuals are left behind, some of them turn to younger groups, trying to stir up their hostility and fighting spirit so that the old gang behaviour can be resurrected (Bernstein, 1964).

McEnroe (1996) and Gulati (1992) support the above author that agencies and workers expressed their concern for, and awareness of, the residuals. Upon noticing and identifying pathological personality patterns, the agencies or street-workers will not hesitate to secure an appointment in the psychiatric hospital for the residuals. The position was therefore taken that residuals are largely not amenable to the usual therapeutic approaches which build on the patients' or clients' readiness for treatment; that they are a danger to themselves and others if left in the community in their present state. Usually, they do something which justifies arrest, after which, it was felt they should be incarcerated long enough to allow for intervention (Cornish, 1992).

#### **5.4 PEER GROUP INFLUENCES**

Peer group influence is real when it comes to youth. The child's decision to leave home is usually the culmination of a series of events leading to the disengagement from the family. This period of uncertainty and anxiety leaves an emotional vacuum most easily filled by his peer group or friends. Peer group acceptance, support and guidance becomes a source of solace and

emotional support (Cornish and Nelson, 1992).

Westhoff, Coulter and McDermott (1995) state that street children often form peer groups that are indifferent to society because they have no hope of achieving success or carving a niche for themselves. Consequently, they channel their goals in other directions.

The child turns to friends of the same age and in similar circumstances. He is vulnerable, lacks self-confidence and is starved of acceptance and appreciation—he consequently becomes a victim of group pressure (Rosenman and Stein, 1990).

Cemane (1990) argues that the child who lacks social and emotional stability is inclined to associate with an identifiable group. Usually the world of this group differs from the world of children under parental guidance and from the world of adults. The patterns of behaviour, life-styles, language codes and musical tastes of these children distinguish them from children in normal social circumstances.

According to Bronson (1974) the world of his peers exerts an influence on the individual child through his entire life and provides the images and experiences incorporated into his perception of life. Joining a peer group presupposes support for the group's norms and values. McGibson (1989) observes that surrogate nuclear families are sometimes formed on the streets with older boys or girls acting as parents to younger ones, while the boys go out to earn money by parking cars and begging. Prostitution is the most lucrative source of income for both boys and girls.

According to Swart (1988), street children should not necessarily be seen as dropouts of the society. Instead they should be recognised for the exceptional fortitude, creativity, and knowledge of human nature they must possess to survive life on the street. It is this kind of resilience that the present author sought to investigate.

## **5.5 SUBSTANCE ABUSE AMONG STREET CHILDREN**

### **5.5.1 Glue-sniffing: its neuropsychological impact on street children**

Jansen, Richter, Griesel and Joubert (1990) cite the fact that glue-sniffing was first observed during the early

1960's in North America when authorities in Denver noticed an alarming outbreak of the activity. The abuse of other inhalant substances like paint thinners, nail varnish remover, petrol and lighter fluids subsequently emerged. The above authors further state that the toxic effects of inhaling these substances were investigated to determine their psychological and social impact on the users (Barker and Adams, 1962; Massangale, Glaser, LeLievre, Dodds & Klock, 1963). Ellison (1965) and Reed and May (1984), associate glue-sniffing with social deprivation and extreme poverty. Gellman (1968) and Press and Done (1967) report that middle-class adolescents have also participated in glue-sniffing activities.

According to Pritchard, Fielding, Chondry, Cox and Diamond, (1986), glue-sniffers are usually male, have older siblings and come from large disorganised families. Reed and May (1984) and Watson (1986) observe that glue-sniffers usually come from one-parent family situations.

These researchers also concur with Cemane (1990), that the absence of a father in the home is a contributory factor.



Glue-sniffers have a poor academic performance and they show high rates of truancy (Smart, 1986; Watson 1986). Rubin and Babbs (1970) cite the lack of educational support from these children's families as playing a role in glue-sniffing. Jacobs and Ghodse (1987), indicate that the glue-sniffers are prone to depression. They have a strong negative self-concept (Meloff, 1970), outgoing, heedless and adventurous characteristics (Woolfson, 1982) and a strong tendency towards anti-social behaviour (Reed and May, 1984).

Barker and Adams (1962); Lockhart and Lennox (1983) and Masterton (1979) contend that glue-sniffing is often a forerunner to alcohol-abuse. Glue is used as a substitute because of low cost as compared to alcohol. Although Cohen (1977), Korman (1977) and Ekeh (1997) argue that glue-sniffing is an early introduction to later drug use, little is known of glue-sniffers who graduate to using other drugs.

According to McEnroe (1996) big companies turn a blind eye to the consequences of their product - glue.

Jansen et al. (1990) acknowledge that studies on the

cognitive performance of glue sniffers have not yet yielded consistent results. They report that several investigators including Allison and Jerrom (1984) Ryan, Morrow and Hodgson (1988) have reported that solvent inhalation over a prolonged time period, either deliberate or through occupational exposure, has effects on cognitive performance, particularly in the areas of memory, concentration, attention and visio-spatial skills.

#### **5.5.2 Other substances**

Interviews with street children under study yielded that they use glue more than other substances. Some of the reasons they provided include the fact that glue is cheaper and it is easily available. They do drink alcohol (any kind), sniff petrol, and smoke dagga if they can find them. Furthermore, they indicated that if they have money - if they were to choose between food and glue, they would use it to buy glue.

### **5.6 SEX PRACTISES**

#### **5.6.1 Sexual exploitation**

Sexual exploitation is rife among street children. According to Birch and Salvado (1998), sexual exploitation

also takes the form of prostitution. Young girls sell their bodies to foreign tourists for 120 US dollars. Children involved in this practise are as young as 12 or even younger.

Davidson and Taylor (1995) found that some factors contribute directly to sexual exploitation in Costa Rica. These include the fact that:

- 40% of female adolescents do not attend school.
- 28% of youths aged between 12 and 19 work as domestic for below poverty level wages.
- Children are legally minors in Costa Rica until the age of 18. However, 25% of Costa Rican mothers have had their first baby between the ages of 15 and 18; and 41% of births are to single mothers.
- Similarly, there is a serious drug problem in Costa Rica, which both reflects and compounds poverty. This is an economic and social environment where the one thing which many women and children have to sell is their own sexuality and their bodies.

Last Minute News (1999) reports that representatives from Casa Alianza, a non-profit organisation that is

dedicated to the rehabilitation and defence of the estimated 100,000 street children in Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Mexico, National Child Trust (PANI) and the Working Commission Against the Sexual Exploitation of Children in Costa Rica met to discuss the plight of sexual exploitation that is taking place among children in Central America and in Costa Rica.

De Oliveira (1995) contends that the prostitution of girls in Brazil is the direct consequence of years of economic recession, and the low status afforded to women in that country. These girls use the money they earned from prostitution to buy food for their families.

Sexual exploitation takes place in Africa as well. It becomes formalised in the sense that girls are sold into marriages especially to older men (Matloff, 1996). This author further points out that from the refugee camps of Sierra Leone to the city streets of Nairobi and truck routes of Tanzania, children are offering their bodies for as little as a sandwiches or shoes. The offenders are employers, foreign peacekeepers, soldiers, and even guardians who encourage girls to earn money by whatever means (CNN, 1996).

SAPA (1997) has established that black child prostitutes are present in South Africa. This source conducted a survey in and around Pretoria. It found that these children, aged between 13 and 18 years, sell their bodies to white professionals.

According to SAPA (1997), the South Africa's criminal law fails to offer children sufficient protection against sexual abuse. This source mentions that few offenders are being convicted and that most aspects of the existing legal position need to be revised. The Act on sexual offence does not address problems of sex tourism, which is growing in South Africa (SAPA, 1997).

The Working Committee of the South African Law Commission approved the publication of an issue paper on sexual offences against children on 31 May 1997 (SAPA, 1997). This source further indicates that throughout the world, there is a general awareness that child abuse and neglect is a serious and growing problem and South Africa is no exception. According to SAPA (1997), the 1996 statistics as provided by the Child Protection Unit of the South African Police Services (SAPS) stands at 35 383 of reported cases.

There are no studies specifically focussing on sex practices and their consequences on street children in South Africa, except for their knowledge of AIDS and how it is transmitted. The discussion on AIDS will follow in the next section.

### **5.6.2 Street children and AIDS**

DiClemente, Zorn and Temoshok (1987), Gutman (1994) and Sugerman, Hergenroeder, Chacko and Parcel (1991) indicate that street children and adolescents have been identified as a group at high risk for HIV infection. In South Africa as in the United States of America, persons in the regions of 20 years of age account for a significant proportion (24,5% and 20%, respectively) of all known AIDS cases. The recent statistics on HIV/AIDS on street children was not available at the time of writing this research report. However, the Sunday Times Newspaper (14 November 1999), indicate that to date, about 33,4 million people world-wide have HIV/AIDS. It further cites that a third of those infected are between the ages of 10 and 24. Nearly 11 million Africans have died from the disease and a further 10 million are expected to die by 2005. This source highlights that almost four million South Africans have been infected with HIV since the epidemic began in

1982.

DiClemente et al. (1987) further state that given the media latency period of 8-10 years between HIV infection and the development of AIDS, many of the young adults with AIDS must have acquired the infection during their teenage years. In addition, adolescents in the USA, as a group, currently have the highest rates of other sexually transmitted diseases. This factor increases susceptibility to HIV infection (Strunin and Hingson, 1992).

Richter and Swart-Kuger (1995) concur with DiClement (1990) that adolescents' behavioural and social characteristics have been linked to their high HIV-risk status with the onset of sexual activity during the teen years. Hein (1992) and Moore and Rosenthal (1991) assert that the probability of multiple partnerships and the general non-use or inconsistent use of condoms by adolescents are the some reasons why the incidence of AIDS is high among them. The latter authors further report the tendency of adolescents to perceive themselves to be both physically and psychologically invulnerable. This characterisation is thought to be related to adolescents' engagement in a wide range of high-risk behaviours (Moore

et al, 1991). Hein (1992) adds that external risk is thought to originate in the fact that existing health and counselling services are generally agreed to be neither convenient, appropriate nor attractive to young people.

In South Africa, the mean age of street children is 13 years and they comprise black and coloured children - report Richter (1990), Swart (1990) and Mako (1992).

According to Athey (1991), street children and youth are regarded amongst adolescents generally, as being at increased risk for HIV infection. In the USA, they are reported as being sexually active at a younger age than adolescents generally (Rotheram-Borus, Koopman and Kaplan, 1991). They tend to have more sexual partners, (Luna and Rotheram-Borus, 1992). They are also vulnerable to rape and various forms of "survival sex" (Athey, 1991). They have been found to use condoms infrequently and more inconsistently than other adolescents (Strunin et al., 1992); and drug and alcohol use on the street exacerbates HIV-infection risks (Athey, 1991).

The above author adds that street children and youth are cut off from customary sources of information about



AIDS, such as the school and the family. Consequently these youths are reported to have lost faith in the "establishment" and the information emanating from members of the establishment has little credibility among them (Sondheimer, 1992).

Furthermore, a number of individual descriptors have been associated with young people living on the streets. These include low self-esteem, indifference and fatalism-attitudes that are likely to mitigate against behaviours that could reduce the risk of HIV infection (Athey, 1991).

A report by Smith (1997) states that over 13,370 children work in the streets of Mexico. Of those, 87% live on the streets and are exposed to violence, drugs and AIDS through sexual promiscuity. This author refers to it as a time bomb waiting to go off in five or ten years.

Survival on the streets entails giving higher priority to obtaining food, clothing and shelter than concern with health or safer sexual practices (King, Day, Oliver, Lush & Watson, 1981). The prevalence rates of street children and youth, in both developed and developing countries have been reported to vary between 2%-10% (Athey, 1991, Knaul and

Barker, 1990). The rates for adolescents in general are estimated to be in the region of 0,2%-0,4% (Sondheimer, 1992).

Richter et al. (1995) assert that these figures indicate that the super-prevalence rates among street youth are in the region of 10-25 times higher than for other groups of adolescents. When infected, street youth may show a more rapid progression from HIV infection to AIDS because of their general state of poor health and lack of health care (Sondheimer, 1992). According to Childhope (1989), the average latency reported for street children and youth is between three and five years.

#### **5.6.2.1 Street children's beliefs and attitudes towards AIDS**

Richter et al. (1995) note that any talk about AIDS induces a high level of anxiety in street children. They further claim that groups under their study expressed anger at the danger presented by the disease and its "mysterious" origins. Most boys perceived AIDS as a "foreign disease" imposed on Black people in South Africa. Nearly half the boys perceived it as a germ, developed by the white government of South Africa to wipe out all Blacks or at

least to stop them from having babies. Others said that AIDS was introduced by undesirable groups like "the city", inter-racial sex, homosexuals, exiles and Battalion 32 (a notorious military division). The youths in the above study perceived moralistic foundations also playing a role. Homosexuals, prostitutes, people who do not sleep at home everyday, lower-class people, hobos and criminals were perceived to be at a high risk by the youths.

In this study Richter et al. (1995) found that attitudes towards anonymous other people with AIDS were angry and intolerant. The boys generally recommended that such people should be isolated and even be killed. On the other hand, a reaction to an imaginary friend with AIDS generally elicited care, empathy and a sense of urgency to lend a helping hand. However, strongly negative feelings were expressed at the thought of themselves being infected, and this tended to be associated with impulses for revenge.

Richter et al. (1995) found there were some problem areas of their knowledge about AIDS, namely that:

1. Vulnerability to AIDS was attributed to unspecified properties of casual sex, and sex with particular

groups of people like homosexuals, prostitutes, and adults, and not to the critical mechanism of sexual transmission, which is unprotected penetrative sex. No boy had ever heard of HIV, nor was anybody able to specify that the media for transmission were sperm and blood. Information conditioning existed for perceiving AIDS as "something you get" fairly mysteriously from "bad" behaviour with "bad" people (Richter et al., 1995).

2. Richter et al. (1995) further found that AIDS was inappropriately associated with appearance; that 68% of the sample in their study were certain that one could not get AIDS from a person who looked healthy. The above researchers also found that 35% of the boys claimed that one could tell from observation if a person is infected: signs and symptoms most likely to be visible were being thin, weak and without energy, and having pimples, sores, sunken eyes, and dry lips. Some of the symptoms these boys mentioned were looking like a leper, losing one's hair, bleeding, and paralysis.

3. A large number of mundane behaviours were endowed with the assumption that saliva, air, and skin were media for transmission.

### **5.7 VIOLENCE AGAINST STREET CHILDREN**

Violence against street children is a common occurrence. In South Africa it is not as widespread as in Latin America and the Caribbean Countries, as for example, Guatemala and Mexico (Mako, 1992).

Police brutality on street children in some African countries does take place. Living on the streets of Nairobi is dangerous. According to Young (1995), estimated to number between 30 000 and 150 00, these children whose parents have died of AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis, traffic accidents, or some other calamity, are the targets of many cruelties, both brutal and casual. These range from letters to the editors of local newspapers advocating their detention and punishment, to sexual abuse by strangers and older or stronger street dwellers. The abuse further emanates from police sweeps, in which the children are rounded up and sent to the remand homes where overcrowding, underfeeding, and diseases (such as scabies) are rampant.

It has to be noted however that while the present researcher was collecting data from street children, they gave chilling accounts of police and army brutality. They stated that when they are found cuddled under their cardboard boxes, the police would kick them all over their bodies. They further reported that when soldiers found them, they would force them to roll on the ground and on the tarred roads - as the soldiers did in the army when attacking an enemy.

Kline (1998) reports that in Guatemala, thousands of street children who inhabit Guatemala do what they can to scrape by, begging, selling bananas for a few pennies, salvaging what they can from the garbage dump. Some join gangs and then turn to crime. The above source indicates that they (street children) face another menace - death squads practising what is referred to in Guatemala as "social cleansing". Some members of the security force feel that torturing, kidnapping, and murdering street children will teach others to leave the streets. There are few prosecutions against perpetrators (Kline, 1998).

Casa Alianza (1997), Gutman (1997) and Kline (1998) concur that there is a systematic proactive, state-

sponsored "cleansing" of street children in Guatemala and Honduras. The "cleansing" is accompanied by torture.

Gutman (1997) views the poor economic condition as one of the reasons for the escalating number of street children in Guatemala and Honduras. These two have a combined population of about 15 million. Gross inequalities in wealth and status is about 8% of the people who own and control over 90% of the national resources. Unfavourable currency and exchange rates and mounting trade deficits have helped further weaken faltering economy by increasing unemployment, with the consequence of rising numbers of street children.

Last Minute News (1998; 1999) report that Casa Alianza (street children's organisation) in Guatemala, announced that its Legal Aid Office statistics for 1997, has shown a continued violence towards street children. Casa Alianza has since its inception in 1981 presented a total of 365 pending criminal cases against people who torture street children.

The Casa Alianza Legal Aid Office reported that in 1997, there was an increase in the number of private

citizens who took to harming the street children (Last Minute News 1998) and Casa Alianza, 1998).

The murder of two teenage escapees from a juvenile detention centre had renewed fears that the Honduran police were engaging in "social cleansing" operation (Gunson, 1997). These 16 years old boys were found to have bullet wounds on their heads. One of the boys had earlier ran away from abusive parents.

Ferrari (1999) reports that children, particularly those who are at high social risk, are the main focus of the programme of the YMCA in Argentina. He says that the home is intended to provide security and conditions essential for a life with dignity for children who live on the street. He points out that violence against street children has also occurred in Argentina.

Bobak (1996) and Jeffrey (1994: 1997) also report that there had been cases in Guatemala City where street children had been beaten, robbed and short by the police. The former attributes the police actions to "social cleansing". On the other hand, the Inter Press Service (1996) claims that there was a plan in 61 Salvador to



exterminate street children. This was to be carried out by the sectors that consider the youngsters as criminal scourge littering the city streets.

Oscar Villacorta of the Olof Palme street children organisation says that in the case of murder, investigations have always been halted. He further mentions that the legal system does not consider the evidence given by street children to be binding (Inter Press Service, 1996, 16 August). The Attorney General's Office for the Defence of Human Rights comment that in 1995, the National Civil Police (PNC), was the worst violator of the children's rights, violating the law for child offender's and the international conventions (INTER Press Service, 1996, 16 August).

At night-time street children in Mexico would move among the partying crowds, doing whatever they can to earn a living (Preston, 1996). This author adds that for a dollar or so, street boys would dive from a high rock into roaring surf. At busy street corners, they'd become flame throwers, spitting mouthful of lighted kerosene into arms of fire, then passing the cup to motorists before the traffic signal turned green.

New Internationalist (1996) states that some of the boys who roam the streets, earned a place to sleep and a meal by following American men to their Acapulco hideaways and having sex with them. At times these boys would have sex with one another in front of a video camera (Preston, 1996).

According to Harris (1996), two former private police officers in Guatemala were sentenced to 30 years in prison for the murder of two street children.

They are called "the disposable ones"; the children who live -and sometimes die in the streets and rubbish dumps of the cities of Colombia in South America. These "gamins" range from six-year-olds to teenagers. They are unloved, unwanted, beaten, robbed, abused, raped and murdered (Preston, 1996).

Casa Alianza made a formal request to the United Nations Committee Against Torture in 1997 for their immediate intervention in Guatemala to stop the systematic use of torture against street children. For Casa Alianza to make such a request to the UN is an indication of how

serious the abuse was (Last Minutes News, 1997).

CNN Interactive (1996) and Amnesty International (1996) also report about the police brutality on street children. These sources claim that it is not only the police who are brutal to street children, but other members of the public too.

Casa Alianza (1998) mentions that its organisation in conjunction with the Centre for Justice and International Law (CEJIL) began a historic battle for justice by bringing to court the case of five street children who were murdered by two National police officers in 1990 in Guatemala. These children were aged between 15 and 20 years.

Street children often turn to crime to obtain money in order to buy food and drugs. According to SEJUP (1995, 1996), serious crimes that are committed by street children are on the increase. Over 60% of the adolescents arrested with drugs in 1995 in Sao Paulo were noted.

## CHAPTER 6

## THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Since the aim of this study was to provide a psychological analysis of the lives of street children, the following variables were selected:

- Tenacity
- Purpose in life
- Quality of interpersonal relationships
- Emotional stability and
- Level of self-esteem
- Psychological well-being

The present researcher deemed it fit that the appropriate theoretical basis for both **tenacity** and **purpose in life** is Viktor Frankl's Search for meaning. Maslow, on the other hand, provided a clear picture on **self-esteem**. Sullivan's interpersonal theory was used to explain the **quality of interpersonal relationships**. Horney's theory provided a better theoretical framework for **emotional stability**. Psychological well-being was explained in terms of **Telic theories, Personology theories, and Holistic models**.

## 6.1 VIKTOR FRANKL'S THEORY ON TENACITY AND PURPOSE IN LIFE: A PARADIGM OF PARADOXICAL EXPOSITION

For the purpose of this research, a paradoxical exposition of Frankl's theory should be understood within the context and framework of this study on the lives of street children.

Corey (1991) asserts that a distinctly human characteristic is the struggle for a sense of significance and purpose in life. Humans by nature search for meaning and personal identity. Frankl (1963) indicates that the following questions are very important, that people in general ask themselves: Why am I here? What do I want in life? What is the source of meaning for me in life? Therefore challenging the meaning in life is a landmark of human beings. The will to meaning is the person's primary striving. Life is not meaningful in itself; the individual must create and discover meaning (Frankl, 1963).

It is the present researcher's contention that street children's tenacity derives from their will to find meaning in the situation they find themselves thrown into - the existential thrownness. Being-in-the-world as characterised by *Umwelt* (world around a person), *Mitwelt* (the world of

persons and fellow human beings, and **Eigenwelt** (internal dialogue of a relationship to oneself). Equally important are the following questions - What is the purpose street children have in life? Do they have any purpose in life at all? This is the real world with which street children are faced.

Whereas Freud (1960) believes that all behaviour is motivated by the unconscious motives, Frankl (1966) contends that behaviour is largely motivated by the conscious. The propensity of the individuals necessitates formulating their lives as a series of decisions or choices. Human beings naturally are intelligent - symbolising, imagining and judging organisms and therefore cannot avoid decisions, however much he or she might wish for some easier path.

Maddi (1989) contends that since there is no alternative to decision-making for the human beings, life will be led to the fullest by recognising and accepting this fact. In order to properly recognise the necessity of continual decision-making, it is useful to practice vigorous symbolisation, imagination, and judgement, because this will ensure complex cognitive mass. Life is a series of decisions whether or not one recognises it. Nevertheless, life is best led by preparation for and commitment to, the decisions that one must face. Maddi (1989) further states that in the decision-making

process, emotions play an overshadowing role. A decision, whatever its content, always takes the form of posing one alternative that pushes the person into the future, the unknown, the unpredictable, another alternative that pulls the person into the past, the status quo, the familiar.

The present author argues that street children do experience that push-pull dichotomy as indicated above. It is this push-pull factor that makes them (street children) to be tenacious, but it also makes their sense of purpose in life to be negligible. Choosing the future provides an attractive prospect, but it also provokes anxiety. On the other hand choosing the past is also attractive because it provides one with comfortable and relaxing prospects, but it involves the possibility of sacrificing the personal development and consequently bringing with it the guilt of missed opportunities.

Frankl (1963) cites Binswanger (1958) that the more stubbornly the human being opposes his being-thrown into existence, the more this thrownness gains in influence.

This clearly depicts the lives of street children as they end up with a low sense of purpose in life. The present researcher adds that as this thrownness gains influence on

street children, they in turn oppose and resist it with tenacity. Maddi (1989) says that the end result is debilitating

... in that a person does not stand automatically in his world. He blocked himself off from the ground of his existence, that he does not take his existence upon himself but hands it over to alien powers, that he makes alien powers responsible for his fate instead of himself

Binswanger (1963), p. 290.

Antonovsky (1974; 1979) and Maddi (1989) concur that this is an equivalence of one accepting the limits set on the possibilities of one's existence by certain imposed biological and social forces that enable one to be more authentic because a person does not have to lie to himself.

Maddi (1989) further argues that the value of accepting the given is the same as accepting ontological anxiety and guilt as inherent aspects of living. It is only by remaining honest that one has any chance at all of pursuing those possibilities that are available. Accepting one's inability to influence certain things makes one more aware of what one can influence; and this is a paradoxical reality.



Frankl found himself forced into the concentration camps during World War II. It does not mean that existential psychologists advocate passive acquiescence to social and biological forces.

Frankl (1985) believes that those persons who could not survive the concentration camps succumbed either because they considered themselves completely and unalterably trapped or because they denied that they were incarcerated at all. But those who survived did so through a frank acceptance that some portion of their existence was not under their control and a continual exploration, through symbolising, imagining and judging, of what freedom or manoeuvring space was left to them.

Maddi (1989) recognises the two values inherent in Frankl's approach. The first value is that they discover some portion of freedom and therefore could retain some sense of human dignity. The second value is that as they set their wits to work constructively on the matter, they carved out more freedom than they initially would have imagined. They recognise that their fortune was self-determined by their own courage to face straightforwardly a horrendous imposition on freedom in spite of the pain of such honesty. Thus, one accepts a necessity so that one could explore more clearly the

possibilities of freedom. In this, one often discovers that the necessity is smaller and less important than initially thought.

The current researcher draws a parallel between street children in South Africa and people who have been in the concentration camps. They were forced into the South African apartheid concentration camps by the previous government until 27 April 1994 when the first general and democratic elections were held. One part of their psychological necessity influences them to be tenacious whereas the other part influences them to recognise their limits to what they can achieve. The consequence of the latter is their limited sense of purpose in life.

## **6.2 SULLIVAN'S INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP THEORY**

This theory's tenet relates to an enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal relationships which characterise human life (Sullivan, 1953). Sullivan (1953) believes that if an individual has to be studied, this has to be done in terms of taking his social relationships into account.

From the first day of life, the baby is a part of an interpersonal situation, and throughout its life, it remains a

member of a social field.

Even a hermit who has resigned from society carries with him into the wilderness memories of former personal relationships that continue to influence his thinking and acting (Sullivan, 1953).

Hall and Lindzey (1978) state that although Sullivan does not deny the importance of heredity and maturation in forming and shaping the organism, he feels that that which is distinctly human is the product of social interactions. He also believes that personality only manifests itself when the person is behaving in relation to one or more other individuals. These people do not need to be present; in fact, they can even be illusory or non-existent figures. Perceiving, remembering, thinking, imagining and all of the other psychological processes are interpersonal in character. Even nocturnal dreams are interpersonal, since they reflect the dreamer's relationships with other people. Personality according to Sullivan (1953) is a dynamic centre of various processes that occur in a series of interpersonal fields.

The present author submits that street children also acquired skills of interpersonal relationships firstly when they were with their parents or parent-substitutes. Then upon

meeting with other people including other street children, their interpersonal relationship skills become moulded to suit their environment. This Sullivan (1953) calls **dynamism** ... ".... is the relatively enduring pattern of energy transformation, which recurrently characterises the organism in its duration as a living organism". (p.103). Hall et al. (1978) also concur with the above author, that an energy transformation is any form of behaviour; overt and public, like talking, or covert and private, like thinking and fantasising.

The dynamisms that are distinctly human in character are those that characterise one's interpersonal relations. Hall et al. (1978) indicate that a person may behave in a habitually hostile way toward a certain person or group of persons - this is an expression of a dynamism of malevolence. A man who tends to seek out lascivious relationships with women displays dynamism of lust. A child who is afraid of strangers has dynamism of fear. Any habitual reaction toward one or more persons, whether it is in the form of a feeling, an attitude, or an overt reaction, constitutes dynamism.

According to Hall et al. (1978) all people have the same basic dynamism - but the mode of expression of dynamism varies in accordance with the situation and the life experience of

the individual. It is the present researcher's impression that the dynamism of street children is therefore different from those of non-street children in that their personal situations and circumstances as well as their life experiences are different from those of the non-street children. It is of paramount significance to note therefore that street children in their various categories have different dynamisms.

Another important aspect that constitutes interpersonal relationship is **self-system**, which Sullivan links closely with anxiety. He says that anxiety is a product of interpersonal relationship, being transmitted originally from the mother to the infant and later in life by threats of one's security. To avoid or minimise actual or potential anxiety, people adopt various supervisory controls over their behaviour.

Hall et al. (1978) indicate that these security measures form the self-system that sanctions certain forms of behaviour (the good-me self) and forbids other forms (the bad-me self). For a street child, the good-me self and the bad-me self are not distinct from each other. These attributes will not change people's attitudes towards him to the positive, for as long as he is on the streets. His anxiety level will of course be expected to be low because of the poor quality of interpersonal relationship he has.

Sullivan (1953) adds another aspect of *personification* to the dynamics of interpersonal relationships. He refers to personification as an image that an individual has of himself or herself or of another person. It comprises a complexity of feelings, attitudes, and conceptions that grows out of experiences with need-satisfaction and anxiety. For example, the baby develops a personification of a good mother by being nursed and cared for by her. Any interpersonal relationship that involves satisfaction tends to build up a favourable picture of the satisfying agent. The reverse is also true. A bad mother will result in a child's personification being negative and consequently anxiety will be evoked (Hall et al., 1978). A street child's personification will be reflective of his interpersonal relationship field.

Hall et al. (1978) mention that the pictures that people carry around in their heads form descriptions of people around one. They are formed in order to cope with people in fairly isolated interpersonal situations, but once formed, they usually persist and influence their attitudes toward other people. Hence, street children behave like street children because society expects them to. Also important is the dynamic that street children influence the societal attitudes towards them because this has an anxiety-reducing function for

them.

### 6.3 SELF-ESTEEM: MASLOW'S THEORY

According to Maslow (1970) every person has a need for a stable, firmly based high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem and for esteem of others. Maslow (1970) further classifies into two, viz.:

- (a) The desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and for independence and freedom.
- (b) The desire for reputation or prestige (defining it as a respect or esteem from other people), status, fame and glory, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, dignity or appreciation.

Allport (1955), Dollard and Miller (1950) and Maslow (1970) believe that satisfaction of self-esteem needs leads to positive feelings of self-confidence, worth, adequacy, strength, and capability, of being useful and necessary in the world. Thwarting of these needs leads to feeling inferior, weak and helpless. These feelings give rise to either basic discouragement or compensatory or neurotic tendencies.

***Mother Figure***

Seventeen percent of the children reported that their mothers were still alive, 43% reported that their mothers were deceased, 30% reported that they did have step-mothers and 11% reported that they did not know the whereabouts of their mothers. (*see Figure 8.7.2*).

Sheltered Street Children***Father Figure***

Nineteen percent of the children in this category reported that their fathers were still alive, 24% reported that their fathers were deceased, 33% reported that their step-fathers were still alive and 24% reported that their step-fathers were deceased. (*See Figure 8.7.1*).

***Mother Figure***

Twenty percent of the children reported that their mothers were still alive, 32% reported that their mothers were deceased, 22% reported that their step-mothers were still alive, and 26% reported that their step-mothers were deceased. (*See Figure 8.7.2*).



Figure 8.7.1 Family circumstances - Father figure

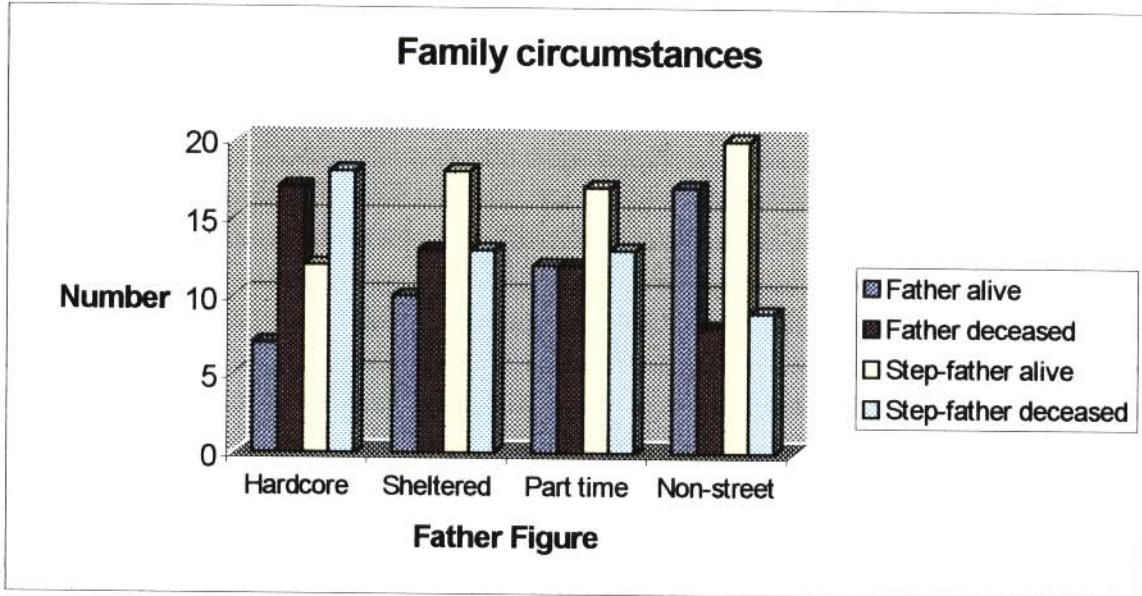
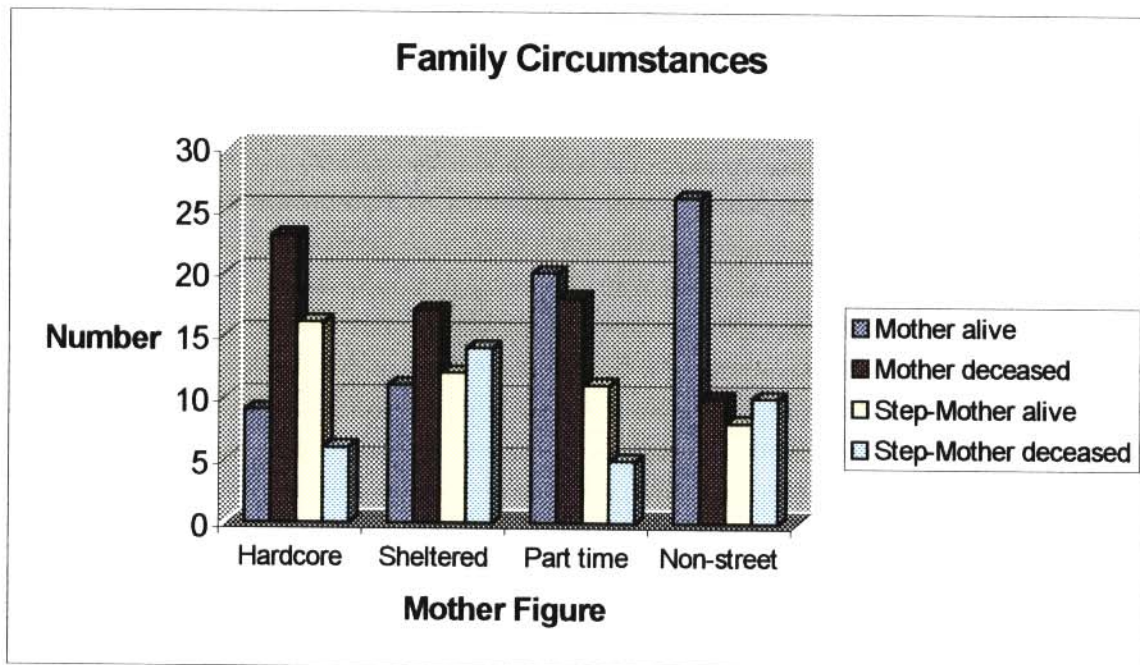


Figure 8.7.2 Family circumstances - Mother figure.



### Part-time Street Children

#### ***Father Figure***

Twenty-two percent of the children in this category reported that their fathers were still alive, 22% reported that their fathers were deceased, 32% reported that their step-fathers were still alive, and 24% of the children reported that they did not know anything concerning the whereabouts of their fathers.

*(See Figure 8.7.1).*

#### ***Mother Figure***

Thirty-seven percent of the children reported that their mothers were still alive, 33% reported that their mothers were deceased, 20% reported that their step-mothers were still alive, and 9% reported that they did not know the whereabouts of their mothers. *(See Figure 8.7.2).*

### Non-street Children

#### ***Father Figure***

Thirty-two percent of the children in this category reported that their fathers were still alive, 15% reported that their fathers were deceased, 37% reported that their step-fathers were still alive and 17% reported that their fathers were deceased. *(See Figure 8.7.1).*

***Mother Figure***

Forty-eight percent of the children reported that their mothers were still alive, 19% reported that their mothers were deceased, and 15% reported that their stepmothers were still alive and 19% reported that their stepmothers were deceased. (*See Figure 8.7.2*).

**8.3.1.8 *Parents living together/separated***Hardcore Street Children

Twenty-four percent of the children in this category reported that their parents were living together, 56% reported that their parents were not living together - separated/divorced, and 20% reported that they did not know anything about parents because they did not live with them as they (street children) were on their own on the streets. (*see figure 8.8*).

Sheltered Street Children

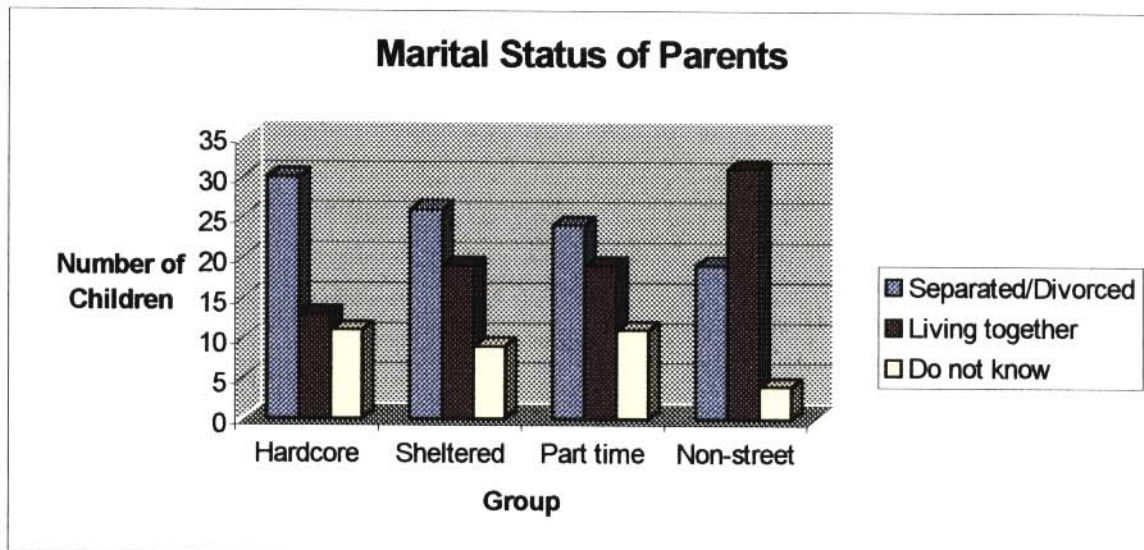
Thirty-five percent of the children in this category reported that their parents were living together, 48% reported that their parents did not live together, and 17% reported that they did not know anything about their

parents because the only people they knew were those in the shelters. (See figure 8.8).

### Part-time Street Children

Thirty-five percent of the children in this category reported that their parents were living together, 44% reported that their parents were not living together (separated/divorced), 20% reported that they did not know the whereabouts of their parents and that they lived with other people, (relatives, strangers etc.) (See figure 8.8).

Fig. 8.8 Marital Status of Parents.



### Non-street Children

Fifty-seven percent of the children reported that their parents were living together, 35% reported that their parents were not living together, and another 7% reported that they do not know anything about their parents, that they live with strangers. *(See figure 8.8).*

#### **8.3.1.9 Family Size**

### Hardcore Street Children

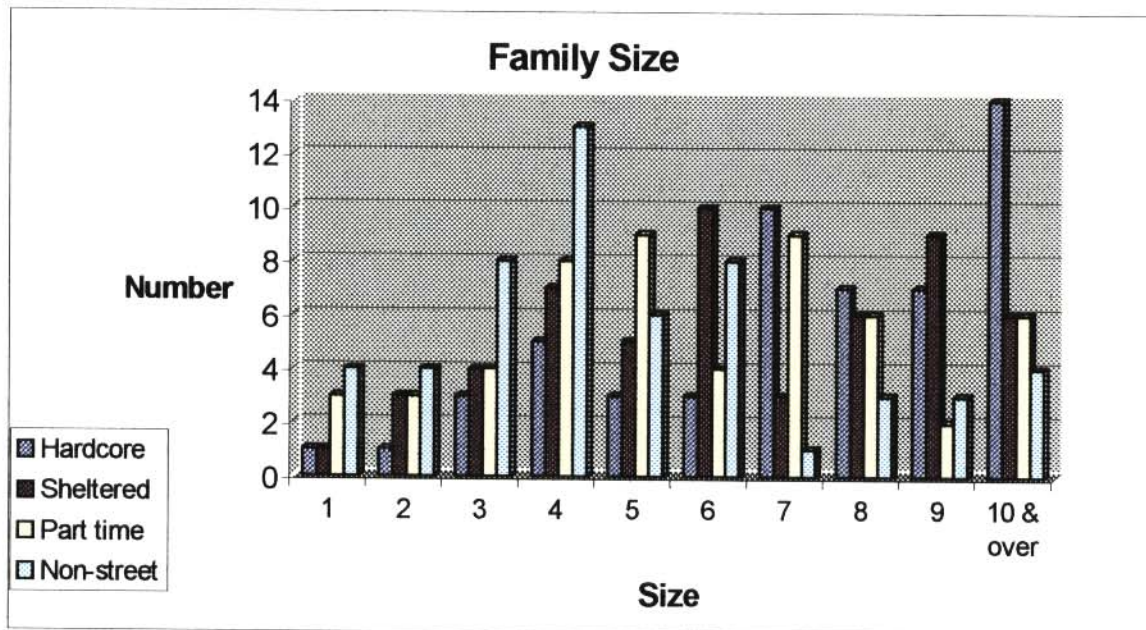
Two percent of the children reported that the number of children at their homes was 1 and 2 children each, 6% reported 3, 9% reported 4, 6% reported 5 and 6 children each, 19% reported 7, 13% reported 8 and 9 children each and 26% reported 10 and more. *(See figure 8.9).*

### Sheltered Street Children

Two percent of the children in this category reported 1, 6% reported 2, 7% reported 3, 13% reported 4, 9% reported 5, 19% reported 6, 6% reported 7, 11% reported 8, 17% reported 9, and 11% reported 10 or over. *(See figure 8.9).*



Figure 8.9 Family Size.



#### Part-time Street Children

Six percent of the children in this category reported 1 and 2 children per family, 7% reported 3, 15% reported 4, 17% reported 5, 7% reported 6, 17% reported 7, 11% reported 8, 4% reported 9, and 11% reported 10 or over. (*See figure 8.9*).

#### Non-street Children

Seven percent of the children in this category reported 1 and 2 children each, 15% reported 3, 24% reported 4, 11% reported 5, 15% reported 6, 2% reported 7, 6% reported 8 and 9 children each and 7% reported 10 or

over. (*See figure 8.9*).

#### **8.3.1.10. Birth Order**

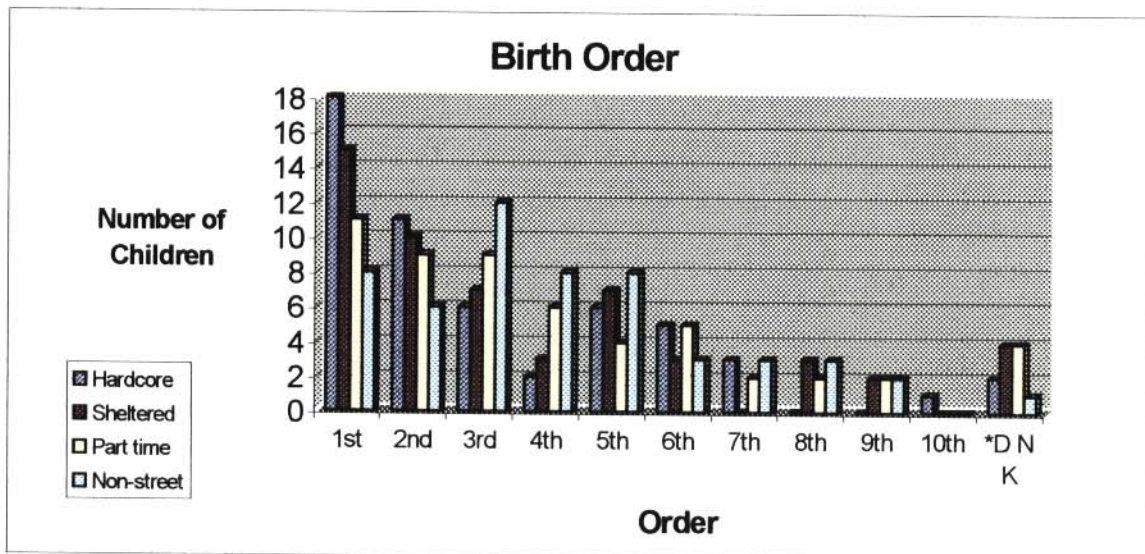
##### Hardcore Street Children

Children who were first born were 33%, second born were 20%, third born were 11%, fourth born were 4%, fifth born were 11, sixth born were 9%, seventh born were 6% eighth and ninth child were 0%, tenth child and beyond was 2%, and 4% did not know anything about their birth order. (*See figure 8.10*).

##### Sheltered Street Children

Twenty-nine percent of the children in this category reported that they were the first born children, 19% were second in the family, 13% were third, 6% were forth, 13% were fifth, 6% were sixth, 6% were eighth, 4% were ninth, and another 7% reported that they did not know their birth order. (*See figure 8.10*).

Figure 8.10 Birth Order.



#### Part-time Street Children

In this category, first born children formed 20%, second and third born children were 17%, fourth born children were 11%, fifth in the family were 7%, sixth were 9%, seventh, eighth and ninth were 4%, and 7% did not know their birth order. (See figure 8.10).

#### Non-street Children

In this category, the first born children were found to be 15%, second in the family was 11%, third in the family was 22%, and fourth and fifth was 15%, sixth, seventh, and eighth children were 6%, the ninth children were 4% and 2% did not know. (See figure 8.10).



### **8.2.1.11 Educational Level of the Parents**

#### Hardcore Street Children

The parents of the children in this category who went to school up to grade 6 and lower were 37%, grade 7 were 9%, and grade 8 were 9%, grade 9 were 6%, grade 10 were 11%, grade 11 were 9%, grade 12 were 7% and those who attended school beyond grade 12 were 11%. **(See figure 8.11).**

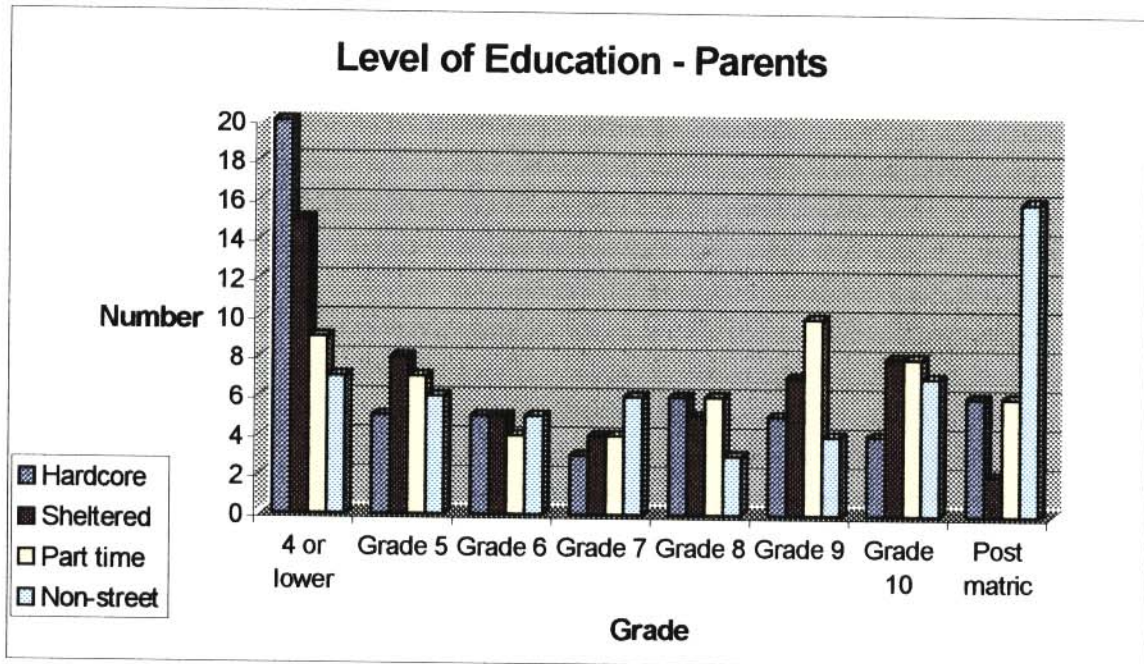
#### Sheltered Street Children

The parents of the children in this category who went to school up to grade 6 and lower were 28%, grade 7 were 15%, and grade 8 were 9%, grade 9 were 7%, grade 10 were 9%, grade 11 were 13%, grade 12 were 15% and those who attended school beyond grade 12 were 4%. **(See figure 8.11).**

#### Part-time Street Children

The parents of the children in this category who went to school up to grade 6 and lower were 17%, grade 7 were 13%, and grade 8 and 7 were 7% each, grade 10 were 11%, grade 11 were 19%, grade 12 were 15% and those who attended school beyond grade 12 were 11%. **(See figure 8.11).**

Figure 8.11 Educational Levels of parents of participants.



#### Non-street Children

The parents of the children in this category who went to school up to grade 6 and lower were 13%, grade 7 were 11%, and grade 8 were 9%, grade 9 were 11%, grade 10 were 6%, grade 11 were 7%, grade 12 were 13% and those who attended school beyond grade 12 were 30%. (See figure 8.11).

### 8.3.1.12 *Occupations of the parents*

#### Hardcore Street Children

Seven percent of the children in this category reported that their parents are bank tellers and clerks each, 6% reported that their parents are nurses, 4% are pastors, 11% teachers, 19% reported that their parents are labourers, 13% reported that their parents are domestic workers, 20% reported that their parents are unemployed, 13% reported that they did not know whether their parents were employed or not. The latter further indicated that even if they were employed, they did not know where they work or the type of work their parents do. (*See figure 8.12*).

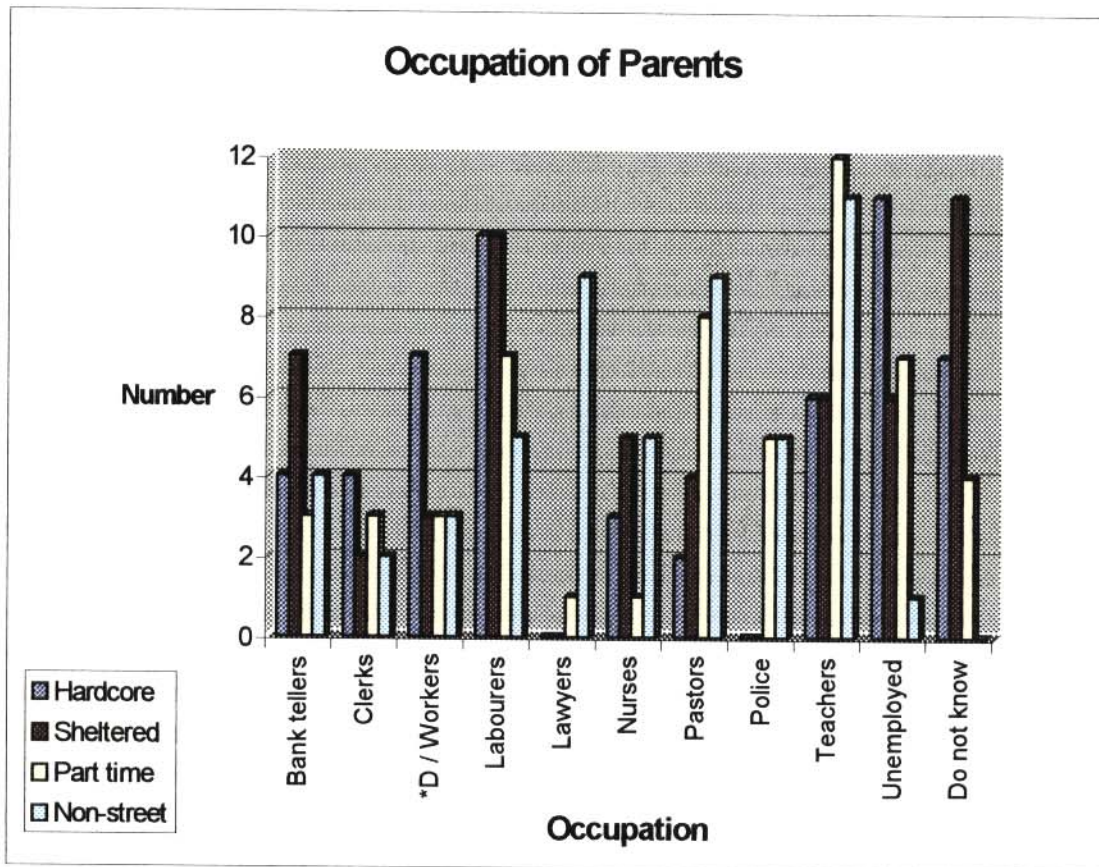
#### Sheltered Street Children

Nineteen percent of children in this category reported that their parents were labourers, 13% are bank tellers, office clerks are 4%, 9% are nurses, pastors are 7%, 11% are teachers, 6% reported that their parents were domestic workers, 11% reported that their parents were unemployed whilst 20% reported that they did not know if their parents were employed or not, and they did not know the kind of work they did. (*See figure 8.12*).

### Part-time Street Children

Nine percent of the children in this category reported that their parents were police, 6% reported that their parents are bank tellers, office clerks and domestic workers, 13% reported that their parents were labourers, 2% reported that their parents are lawyers and nurses each, 15% reported that their parents are pastors, 22% reported that their parents are teachers, 13% reported that their parents were unemployed, 7% reported that they did not know whether their parents were employed or not, and the kind of work they did if any. (*See figure 8.12*).

Figure 8.12 Occupations of parents of participants.



### Non-street Children

Twenty percent of the children in this category reported that their parents were teachers, 9% reported that their parents are nurses, 7% reported that their parents are bank tellers, 17% reported that their parents were lawyers, 17% reported that their parents were pastors, 9% reported that their parents were police, 4% reported that their parents were office clerks, 4% reported that their

parents were bank tellers, 9% reported that their parents were labourers, 6% reported that their parents were domestic workers, 2% reported that their parents were unemployed. (*See figure 8.12*).

#### **8.3.1.13. Factors that contributed to the Children becoming Street Children**

The present researcher asked the participants (street children in different categories under study) many questions pertaining to factors that contributed to their becoming street children. The responses were classified into major factors. It is important to note that each child mentioned one, two, or a combination of factors. Therefore, the responses are as follows:

##### Hardcore Street Children

The following data pertains to the children in this category:

Parental and family conflict (P & F Conflict) constituted 24% of the causes whilst, physical abuse (P Abuse), peer group pressure (P G Pressure) and sexual abuse (S Abuse) constituted 11% each. Death of a parent, unemployment, divorce, and their own or a parent's severe



illness (D,U,D,I) were 17% and school failure/drop-out(S F D) of school, emotional abuse(E abuse), parental alcohol abuse(P & A Abuse) constituted 7% and the least was neglect which constituted 4%. *(See figure 8.13)*.

#### Sheltered Street Children

The following data pertain to the children in this category:

Parental and family conflict and parental alcohol abuse each constituted 11% of the causes, neglect was 20%, physical abuse was 13%, sexual abuse and peer group pressure at each 6%, emotional abuse (negative labelling and criticisms) was 9%, death of a parent, unemployed, divorce and their own or a parent's severe illness was 7%, school failure/Drop-out of school was 17% *(See figure 8.13)*.

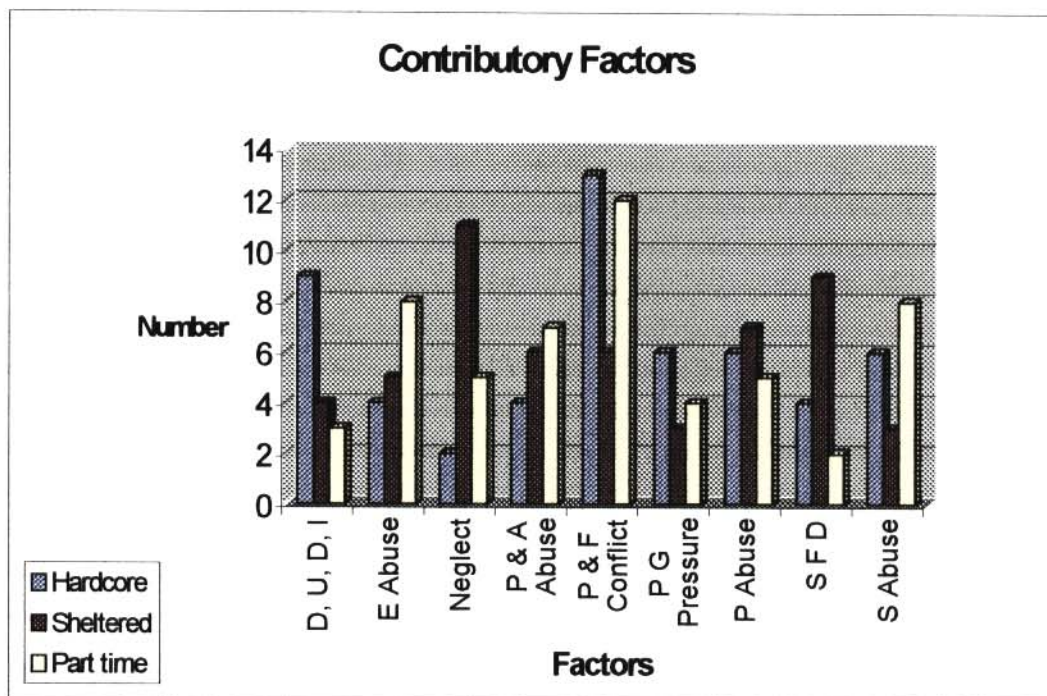
#### Part-time Street Children

The following data pertain to the children in this category:

Parental and family conflict constituted 22% of the causes, neglect and physical abuse each constituted 9%, sexual abuse and emotional abuse (negative labelling and criticisms) was 15%, parental alcohol abuse was 13%, death

of a parent, unemployment, divorce and their own or a parent's severe illness was 6%, school failure/Drop-out of school was 4%, and peer group pressure was 7%. (See figure 8.13).

Figure 8.13 Contributory factors





## **8.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS**

### **8.4.1 TRANSLATION**

A number of tests and scales were used in this study for each variable. The researcher translated all the questionnaires from English into Sesotho. An independent translator back-translated these translations into English. Discrepancies were identified and corrected. The final versions were given to a clinical psychologist, talking the language fluently to check the terminology of the final version of each translation.

### **8.4.2. TENACITY**

#### **8.4.2.1. HARDINESS SCALE**

Kobasa's (1979) hardiness scale was used. This scale assesses the presence and degree of commitment, challenge and control. The behaviour is rated on a four-point scale, which comprised of 50 items. The grading ranges from 0 to 3 with 0 indicating not at all true. One = partly true, 2 = true and 3 = completely true.

Because hardiness is a multifaceted style, six scales were included for its measurement (Kobasa, Maddi and

Courington, 1981). Emphasising commitment are alienation from self and alienation from work scales of the Alienation Test (Maddi, Kobasa and Hoover 1979). These have shown an average internal consistency (coefficient alpha) of .85 and .79 respectively. As to stability, the scales show correlations of .77 and .70 respectively (Maddi et al., 1979). These authors further indicate that these scales are consistent with their existential psychology. They show construct validity in negative relationships with such variables as empathy and achievement motivation.

An emphasis on control was measured negatively by the external locus of control scale (Rotter, Seeman and Liverant, 1962) and the powerlessness scale of the Alienation Test (Maddi et al., 1979). Considerable research has shown that this scale is a reliable and valid index of belief in whether one is controlled by external forces (Phares, 1976). The powerlessness measure shows an average internal consistency of .88 and a stability correlation of .71 (Maddi et al., 1979). The Cronbach's alpha reliability index of this scale has been reported to be .89 by Hull, van Treuren and Virnelli (1987). For the present study it was established at 0.70, which can be considered as fair.

#### 8.4.2.2. SENCE OF COHERENCE SCALE (SOC) (Antonovsky, 1987, 1993)

Antonovsky's (1993) scale of sense of coherence was used. It seeks to find out people's continued ability to stay well even in the face of severe stress and hardships.

It is a seven-point scale consisting of 13 items ranging from 1 - 7. One (1) is the lowest score whereas 7 is the highest score. Items preceded by the letter **R** meant that when scoring those items, reversal-scoring system should be employed.

Cronbach alpha reliabilities reported in the 26 studies range from .82 to .95 (Antonovsky, 1993); and from .52 to .97 with a mean alpha of .87 in 27 South African studies (Strumpfer and Wissing, 1998). Wissing, Thekiso, Stapelberg, van Quickelberge, Choabi, Moroeng, Nienaber (1999) cite a number of authors who report good content, criterion and construct validity. These are Antonovsky (1993); Flannery, Perry, Penk and Flannery (1994); Frenz, Carey and Jorgensen (1993) and Strumpfer and Wissing (1998). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  computed for the present sample was 0,46 which is considered as less than satisfactory.

#### 8.4.3 PURPOSE IN LIFE SCALE (Crumbaugh, 1968).

This scale is based on Viktor Frankl's thesis of the meaning of life. This test is made up of 20 items rated from 1 (low/no purpose) to 7 (higher purpose).

##### Reliability

A split-half correlation of .85 was reported for 120 parishioners (Robinson and Shaver, 1973).

##### Validity

Robinson and Shaver (1973) indicate that this scale's validity has been supported. The PIL scale correlate significantly with the depression scale of the MMPI ( $r = .65$ ). Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , computed for the present sample was found to be 0,70, which can be considered as fair.

#### 8.4.4 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

The Sociobility scale of the PHSF (Personal, Home, Self and Formal) relations questionnaire, developed by the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) has been employed. This scale contains points ranging from zero to three. For the purpose of this study, the scale was allocated three points, from 1 (the lowest) to 3 (the highest) and - 2, average. The highest score indicates good quality of

interpersonal relationship whilst a low score indicates poor quality of interpersonal relationships.

Minaar and Van Staden (1982) report that the coefficients of internal consistency of this scale have been established at .84 (K-R 8). The Cronbach  $\alpha$  computed for the present sample was found to be 0,94 which can be considered as very good.

#### **8.4.5 SELF-ESTEEM SCALE (Rosenberg, 1965)**

This scale assesses self acceptance and how one feels about oneself and consists of ten items on a four point scale with 1 indicating strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree and 4 = strongly agree (Robinson and Shaver, 1980).

#### Reliability

In as far as the reliability is concerned, Robinson and Shaver (1980) report that a Guttman reproducibility coefficient of .92 was obtained. On the other hand, Silber and Tippett (1965) found a test-retest correlation over two weeks period of .85 (N = 28).

### Validity

Convergent: Silber and Tippett (1965) found that the scale correlated from .56 to .83 with several similar measures and clinical assessment (N = 44). This scale scored for Guttman scalability correlated .59 with Cooprsmith's Self-esteem Inventory and scored as ten items, .60.

Robinson and Shaver (1980) indicate that Lorraine Broll (personal communication) reports the following correlations: with the CPI self-acceptance scale .27 (N = 643), and with one item esteem scale .45 (N = 643) and .66 (N = 101).

Discriminant: Correlations with measures of self-stability were established (.21 to .53). Correlations with (1) stability of ratings of others, and (2) stability of perceptual performance were close to zero (Tippett and Silber, 1965).

Predictive: According to Robinson and Shaver (1980), Rosenberg (1965) presents a considerable data about the construct validity of both this measure and self-esteem in general. He relates positive self-esteem to many social

and interpersonal consequences such as less shyness and depression, more assertiveness, and more extra-curricular activities. Crohnbach's  $\alpha$  computed for the present sample was found to be 0,87 which is considered as good.

#### **8.4.6. EMOTIONAL STABILITY: HUMAN FIGURE DRAWING (HFD) TEST (Koppitz, 1968)**

This test was developed by Koppitz (1968) to help with a diagnosis of children with emotional instability vis-à-vis children with emotional stability.

A list of 30 signs on HFD was selected which were believed to possess all the characteristics of Emotional Indicators. This in line with research which was done by Koppitz (1968). The latter derived the items from Machover (1953) and Hammer (1958). According to these authors the list must consist of three different types of items: It should include:

1. Items that are related to the quality of the HFD
2. Signs that are made up of special features not usually formed on HFD's
3. Omission of items which would be expected on the HFD's of children at a given age level.

### Reliability

The reliability of scoring the HFD's by the present author was in line with the way Koppitz (1968) suggests. It was determined with the aid of another qualified Clinical Psychologist. The other psychologist and the researcher scored independently of each other all the HFD's. The 216 drawings were checked for the presence of emotional indicators. The emotional indicators were scored as present or absent. Both persons differed only on 5% of the items. They concurred on 95%. Thus concluded that the scoring of the HFD's was adequate.

Sundberg (1961) conducted a study in North America. The latter was able to state with confidence that the Draw-A-Person test, as a projective clinical tool, was second only to the Rorschach technique in popularity as an adjunct to the work of clinicians in hospitals, clinics and counselling services.

In his study, Stones (1984) found that the reliability of DAP was .82 (split-half).



### Validity

Koppitz (1968) studied 76 pairs of public school children. They were matched for age and sex. After using an elimination method to exclude the clinically valid from the non-valid, "30 items remained and these qualified as emotional indicators" (Koppitz, 1968, pp. 40 - 41).

Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was computed for the present sample and found to be 0.80, which is a good indication of internal consistency.

#### **8.4.7 PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING**

##### **8.4.7.1. SATISFACTION WITH LIFE SCALE (SWLS): Diener, Emmons, Larson, Griffin, 1985).**

SWLS was used to determine the respondents' perceived satisfaction with life from their own perspective. This scale measures a person's assessment of his/her quality of life as experienced on a cognitive-judgmental level.

This is a 5-item scale whose ratings range from 1-7. One (1) is the lowest and 7 is the highest.

Wissing et al. (1999) cite Pavot and Diener (1993), who report that the Cronbach alpha reliabilities of this scale vary between .79 and .89, and .84 and .79 in the South African samples (Wissing and van Eeden, 1998). According to Wissing et al. (1999) Pavot and Diener (1993) have reported extensively on the construct validity of SWLS. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  (internal consistency) was calculated for the present sample and found to be 0,75, which is considered as satisfactory.

#### **8.4.7.2 AFFECTOMETER 2 (AFM) Kammann and Flett, 1983)**

Street children's psychological well-being was also determined using Affectometer 2. This scale measures general happiness or sense of well-being as experienced on the emotional/affective level. The overall level of well-being is expressed as the extent to which positive feelings predominate over the negative feeling (Wissing et al., 1999).

This is a 20-item scale (10 items indicating negative affect and 10 indicating positive affect). Wissing et al. (1999) cite the alpha = .88 as reported by Kammann and Flett, (1983), and that the Cronbach alphas in South

African samples vary from .81 to .92 (Wissing and van Eeden, 1998). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the present sample was calculated and found to be 0,85 which means that the internal consistency can be considered as good.

## 8.5 PROCEDURE

### 8.5.1 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study was conducted using participants, i.e. 10 hardcore street children, 10 sheltered street children, 10 Part-time and 10 Non-Street children. The researcher found that the experimental group (street children in different categories) was sceptical and uncooperative at first, as they wanted to know what it was that they would get out of this exercise in return. The researcher reassured them that nobody was going to harm them in any way and that the results would be presented to the government as well as to the social welfare agencies so that they help them too. The most sceptical of the group were the hardcores. The investigator visited them at their places in the streets and forged "friendship" with them.

The researcher assisted by post-graduate students in psychology, asked questions - reading them out to street children and carefully marking their responses. Street children's concentration span was very short and each examiner asked each street child questions from one questionnaire per day only. The following days each examiner met his/her previous day's street child and continued with testing.

Ten (10) post-graduates psychology students whose language was predominantly Sesotho assisted the researcher. The researcher had three days workshop with them focusing on how to conduct the tests and to how handle anticipated problems such as lack of or short concentration span, having to repeat one question more than once before the participant could understand, irritability of street children, comprehension etc. The workshop lasted for five hours a day.

Children in the pilot study came from major urban areas in the Vaal Triangle.

### **8.5.2 THE ACTUAL STUDY**

The actual study was conducted on 216 subjects: 54 hardcore street children, 54 sheltered street children, 54 Part-time street children, and 54 Non-Street children. It should be noted that the first group to obtain was the hardcore and other subsequent groups were selected based on the availability of the hardcore. The sheltered was the next group to conduct tests on. They were also difficult to find, although less difficult, than the hardcore. At times they would be in their shelters and at times not.

Similar problems to those encountered in the pilot study were experienced, though at a larger magnitude given the large number of the participants. The same procedure as effected in the pilot study also took place in the actual study. It took approximately one hundred research days to conduct the tests on all the 216 participants.

### **8.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

The data from all the questionnaires was analysed using STATISTICA' as the statistical software application.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the performance of the sample across the different groups on all the eight scales. Performances on the eight scales were compared across groups using multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA).

The Levene test for homogeneity of variances was computed for each of the scores.

Post-hoc Least Significant Difference (LSD) tests were conducted to determine significant differences on each scale across the four groups.

All tests were performed at 95% ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) significance level.

**CHAPTER 9****RESULTS****9.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of the present study was to describe the psychological profile of three different groups of street children and a group of non-street children and to explore the differences on eight different psychometric scales across these four groups. In this Chapter the results of the study will be presented.

**9.2 RESULTS OF THE STUDY****9.2.1 Descriptive Statistics**

Table 9.1 represents the descriptive data obtained for each of the test scores obtained on the scales administered: Tenacity, Satisfaction with Life, Purpose in Life, Interpersonal Relationships, Affectometer, Self Esteem, Hardiness and Emotional Stability across three groups of Street Children and one group of Non-street children.

TABLE 9.1 Descriptive Statistics for the performance on all eight scales

|     | Tenacity  |      | Satisfaction |      | Purpose Life |       | Interp. Rel. |       | Affectometer |       | Self Esteem |      | Hardiness |       | Emot. Stab |      | N   |
|-----|-----------|------|--------------|------|--------------|-------|--------------|-------|--------------|-------|-------------|------|-----------|-------|------------|------|-----|
|     | $\bar{x}$ | SD   | $\bar{x}$    | SD   | $\bar{x}$    | SD    | $\bar{x}$    | SD    | $\bar{x}$    | SD    | $\bar{x}$   | SD   | $\bar{x}$ | SD    | $\bar{x}$  | SD   |     |
| HC  | 46.30     | 6.21 | 7.80         | 4.21 | 51.20        | 14.25 | 30.74        | 17.57 | 29.11        | 10.86 | 14.89       | 8.47 | 60.30     | 12.57 | 9.35       | 5.23 | 54  |
| SH  | 45.35     | 7.8  | 8.74         | 3.7  | 54.41        | 13.21 | 34.70        | 16.14 | 31.15        | 10.60 | 16.59       | 8.95 | 58.50     | 11.18 | 11.14      | 5.50 | 54  |
| PT  | 43.26     | 7.03 | 9.20         | 3.8  | 57.17        | 13.14 | 37.46        | 16.48 | 33.33        | 10.03 | 17.92       | 9.03 | 56.01     | 11.92 | 11.74      | 5.38 | 54  |
| NS  | 42.04     | 7.3  | 10.07        | 4.1  | 59.77        | 12.75 | 40.59        | 16.54 | 34.85        | 10.66 | 20.31       | 8.67 | 53.31     | 14.64 | 13.03      | 5.17 | 54  |
| All | 44.24     | 7.3  | 8.95         | 4.05 | 55.63        | 13.64 | 35.88        | 17.00 | 32.11        | 10.70 | 17.43       | 8.95 | 57.03     | 12.83 | 11.32      | 5.45 | 216 |



## 9.2.2 Statistical Analysis

### 9.2.2.1 Homogeneity of Variances

The Levene  $F$  test of homogeneity of variances was computed for each of the scores. The results of this test revealed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated and therefore the analysis of variance techniques could be conducted with confidence.

Table 9.2 depicts the results of the Levene's test at 95% confidence.

**Table 9.2. The Levene F Test**

| Variable | MSS    | MS Error | F    | p-level |
|----------|--------|----------|------|---------|
| SOC      | 19.92  | 16.20    | 1.23 | 0.30    |
| SWLS     | 0.33   | 5.26     | 0.06 | 0.98    |
| PIL      | 24.04  | 71.10    | 0.34 | 0.80    |
| IR       | 67.86  | 71.75    | 1.10 | 0.35    |
| AFM      | 5.83   | 30.79    | 0.19 | 0.90    |
| SE       | 12.43  | 22.74    | 0.55 | 0.65    |
| HD       | 124.71 | 54.56    | 2.29 | 0.08    |
| ES       | 2.84   | 10.70    | 0.26 | 0.85    |

Degrees of freedom for all  $F$ 's: 3.212

### 9.2.2.2 Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

Scores on the various psychometric scales were compared across groups using a multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). The results of MANOVA were reported as Rao's  $\underline{R}$ . Rao's  $\underline{R}$  is a transformed value of Wilk's lambda which is used to determine the significance of the given effect. Rao's  $\underline{R}$  follows an  $\underline{F}$  distribution exactly. The results for MANOVA were reported as an  $\underline{F}$  statistic.

The MANOVA results showed a significant difference between the four groups as depicted in Table 9.3. Post-hoc analysis for all the variables to reveal the differences were carried out.

**Table 9.3: MANOVA Results**

| Wilks' Lambda | Rao's R  | df1 | df2 | p-level |
|---------------|----------|-----|-----|---------|
| 0.694751      | 3.317998 | 24  | 595 | 0.0000* |

\*  $p < 0.05$

### 9.2.2.3 Post Hoc LSD Tests

#### 9.2.2.3.1 *TENACITY*

##### 9.2.2.3.1.1 Sense of Coherence (SOC)

Results of the Post-hoc LSD test (Table 9.4.1) for sense of coherence are as follows: -

Table 9.4.1 The Post-Hoc LSD test for Sense of Coherence

|            | Hardcore | Sheltered | Part Time | Non-Street |
|------------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Hardcore   |          | 0.492     | 0.028*    | 0.002*     |
| Sheltered  | 0.492    |           | 0.128     | 0.016*     |
| Part Time  | 0.028*   | 0.128     |           | 0.374      |
| Non-Street | 0.002*   | 0.016*    | 0.374     |            |

\*p < 0.05

### HYPOTHESES

1. Hardcore street children are more tenacious than all the groups.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} > \mu_{sh}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} > \mu_{pt}$  or;

(c)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} > \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.492$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.028$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  is rejected;

(c)  $p = 0.002$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

## Conclusion

Hardcore street children are not more tenacious than sheltered street children but there is a significant difference between the tenacity of hardcore street children versus part-time street children and hardcore street children versus non-street children.

2. Sheltered street children are less tenacious than the hardcore street children, but they are more tenacious than the part-time and the non-street children.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} > \mu_{pt}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} > \mu_{ns}$

## Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

## Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.128$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.016$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

**Conclusion**

Sheltered street children are not more tenacious than part-time street children but, sheltered street children are more tenacious than non-street children. The results from the test of hypothesis 1 have proved that there is no significant difference between the tenacity of hardcore street children versus the sheltered street children.

3. Part-time street children are less tenacious than the hardcore and the sheltered street children, but they are more tenacious than the non-street children.

To test  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  vs. the Alternative Hypothesis  $H_1: \mu_{pt} > \mu_{ns}$ .

**Decision Criteria**

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

**Test Results**

$p = 0.374$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;

## Conclusion

Part-time street children are not more tenacious than non-street children and not less tenacious than sheltered street children (as seen in the results of the test of hypothesis 2)

### 9.2.2.3.1.2 *Hardiness (HD)*

Results of the Post-hoc LSD test (Table 9.4.2) for Hardiness are as follows: -

**Table 9.4.2 The Post-Hoc LSD test for Hardiness**

|            | Hardcore | Sheltered | Part Time | Non-Street |
|------------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Hardcore   |          | 0.461     | 0.080     | 0.005*     |
| Sheltered  | 0.461    |           | 0.309     | 0.034*     |
| Part Time  | 0.080    | 0.309     |           | 0.268      |
| Non-Street | 0.005*   | 0.034*    | 0.268     |            |

\*p < 0,05

## HYPOTHESES

4. Hardcore street children are more tenacious than all the groups.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} > \mu_{sh}$  or;

(d)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} > \mu_{pt}$  or;

(e)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} > \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.461$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.080$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(c)  $p = 0.005$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is rejected.

### Conclusion

Hardcore street children are not more tenacious than sheltered street children there is also no significant difference between the hardness of hardcore street children versus part-time street children but there is a significant difference between hardcore street children and non-street children.

5. Sheltered street children are less tenacious than the hardcore street children, but they are more tenacious than the part-time and the non-street children.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} > \mu_{pt}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} > \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

- (a)  $p = 0.309$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;
- (b)  $p = 0.034$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

### Conclusion

Sheltered street children are not more tenacious than part-time street children but, sheltered street children are more tenacious than non-street children. The results from the test of hypothesis 1 have proved that there is no significant difference between the hardness of hardcore street children versus the sheltered street children.

6. Part-time street children are less tenacious than the hardcore and the sheltered street children, but they are more tenacious than the non-street children.

To test  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  vs. the alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu_{pt} > \mu_{ns}$ .



### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

$p = 0.309$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted;

### Conclusion

Part-time street children are not more tenacious than non-street children are and not less tenacious than sheltered street children (as seen in the results of the test of hypothesis 2).

#### 9.2.2.3.3 PURPOSE IN LIFE (PIL)

Results of the Post-hoc LSD test (Table 9.5) for the Purpose in Life test as follows: -

**Table 9.5. The Post-Hoc LSD test for the Purpose in life**

|            | Hardcore | Sheltered | Part Time | Non-Street |
|------------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Hardcore   |          | 0.214     | 0.021*    | 0.001*     |
| Sheltered  | 0.214    |           | 0.284     | 0.038*     |
| Part Time  | 0.021*   | 0.284     |           | 0.311      |
| Non-Street | 0.001*   | 0.038*    | 0.311     |            |

\* $p < 0,05$

## HYPOTHESES

7. Hardcore street children have less purpose in life than all the other groups.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{sh}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(c)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{ns}$

## Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

## Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.214$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.021$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  is rejected;

(c)  $p = 0.001$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

## Conclusion

Although hardcore street children are not significantly different from sheltered street children in terms of purpose in life, there is a significant difference between the hardcore versus part-time street children and the hardcore versus the non-street children.

8. Sheltered street children have a greater purpose in life than the hardcore street children, but have a less purpose in life than the part-time and the non-street children.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.284$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.038$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

### Conclusion

There is no significant difference between sheltered street children and part-time, but non-street children have a greater purpose in life when compared to sheltered street children.

9. Part-time street children have less purpose in life than non-street children, but have more purpose in life than sheltered street children.

To test  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  versus the alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu_{pt} < \mu_{ns}$ .

#### **Decision Criteria**

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

#### **Test Results**

$p = 0.310$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted;

#### **Conclusion:**

There is no significant difference in purpose in life between part-time versus sheltered street children nor part-time versus non-street children.

#### **9.2.2.3.4 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS (IR)**

Results of the Post-hoc LSD test (Table 9.6) for interpersonal relationships are as follows: -

**Table 9.6. The Post-Hoc LSD test for the Interpersonal Relationships**

|            | Hardcore | Sheltered | Part Time | Non-Street |
|------------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Hardcore   |          | 0.219     | 0.038*    | 0.002*     |
| Sheltered  | 0.219    |           | 0.391     | 0.068      |
| Part Time  | 0.038*   | 0.391     |           | 0.331      |
| Non-Street | 0.002*   | 0.068     | 0.331     |            |

\* $p < 0,05$

### HYPOTHESES

10. Hardcore street children have poorer interpersonal relationships than all the groups.

- (a)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{sh}$  or;
- (b)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{pt}$  or;
- (c)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

- (a)  $p = 0.219$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;
- (b)  $p = 0.038$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  is rejected;
- (c)  $p = 0.002$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

**Conclusion:**

Although hardcore street children are not significantly different from sheltered street children in terms of interpersonal relationships, there is a significant difference between the hardcore versus part-time street children and the hardcore versus the non-street children.

11. Sheltered street children have better interpersonal relationships than the hardcore street children, but have poorer interpersonal relationships than the part-time and the non-street children.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{ns}$

**Decision Criteria**

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

**Test Results**

(a)  $p = 0.391$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.068$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted.

### Conclusion

There is no significant difference between both sheltered street children and part-time and sheltered versus non-street children.

12. Part-time street children have poorer interpersonal relationships than non-street children, but have better interpersonal relationships than sheltered street children.

To test  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  versus the alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu_{pt} < \mu_{ns}$ .

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

$p = 0.331$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted;

### Conclusion

There is no significant difference in interpersonal relationships between part-time versus sheltered street children nor part-time versus non-street children.

### 9.2.2.3.5 SELF ESTEEM SCALE (SE)

Results of the Post-hoc LSD test (Table 9.7) for self-esteem are as follows: -

**Table 9.7. The Post-Hoc LSD test for Self-Esteem**

|            | Hardcore | Sheltered | Part Time | Non-Street |
|------------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Hardcore   |          | 0.315     | 0.074     | 0.002*     |
| Sheltered  | 0.315    |           | 0.431     | 0.029*     |
| Part Time  | 0.074    | 0.431     |           | 0.159      |
| Non-Street | 0.002*   | 0.029*    | 0.159     |            |

\*p < 0,05

#### HYPOTHESES

13. Hardcore street children have less self-esteem than all the other groups.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{sh}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(c)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{ns}$

#### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .



### Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.315$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.074$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;

(c)  $p = 0.002$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

### Conclusion

Although hardcore street children are not significantly different from sheltered street children and part-time street children in terms of self-esteem, there is a significant difference between the hardcore street children versus the non-street children.

14. Sheltered street children have a greater self-esteem than the hardcore street children, but have a less self-esteem than the part-time and the non-street children.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

**Test Results**

- (a)  $p = 0.431$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;
- (b)  $p = 0.029$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

**Conclusion**

There is no significant difference between sheltered and part-time street children, but a significant difference prevails between sheltered versus non-street children.

15. Part-time street children have less self-esteem than non-street children, but have more self-esteem than sheltered street children.

To test  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  versus the alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu_{pt} < \mu_{ns}$ .

**Decision Criteria**

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

**Test Results**

$p = 0.164$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected;

## Conclusion

There is a significant difference in self-esteem between part-time versus sheltered street children but no significant difference between part-time versus non-street children.

### 9.2.2.3.6 EMOTIONAL STABILITY (ES)

Results of the Post-hoc LSD test (Table 9.8) for emotional stability are as follows: -

**Table 9.8 The Post-Hoc LSD test for Emotional Stability**

|            | Hardcore | Sheltered | Part Time | Non-Street |
|------------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Hardcore   |          | 0.081     | 0.021*    | 0.000*     |
| Sheltered  | 0.081    |           | 0.563     | 0.066      |
| Part Time  | 0.021*   | 0.563     |           | 0.207      |
| Non-Street | 0.000*   | 0.066     | 0.207     |            |

\*p < 0,05

## HYPOTHESES

16. Hardcore street children are less emotionally stable than all the other groups.

- (a)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{sh}$  or;
- (b)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{pt}$  or;
- (c)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.081$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.021$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  is rejected;

(c)  $p = 0.000$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

### Conclusion

Hardcore street children are not significantly different from sheltered street children in terms of emotional stability. There is, however, a significant difference between the hardcore street children versus part-time street children and hardcore street children versus the non-street children.

17. Sheltered street children have a greater emotional stability than the hardcore street children, but are less emotionally stable than the part-time and the non-street children.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

- (a)  $p = 0.563$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;
- (b)  $p = 0.066$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted.

### Conclusion

There is no significant difference between sheltered street children and part-time nor between sheltered versus non-street children in emotional stability.

18. Part-time street children are less emotionally stable than non-street children, but are more emotionally stable than sheltered street children.

To test  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  versus the alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu_{pt} < \mu_{ns}$ .

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

$p = 0.207$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted;

### Conclusion

There is no significant difference in emotional stability between part-time versus sheltered street children and no significant difference between part-time versus non-street children.

#### 9.2.2.3.7. *PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING*

##### 9.2.2.3.7.1 Satisfaction with Life

Results of the Post-hoc LSD test (Table 9.9.1) for satisfaction with life are as follows: -

**Table 9.9.1 The Post-Hoc LSD test for Satisfaction with Life**

|            | Hardcore | Sheltered | Part Time | Non-Street |
|------------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Hardcore   |          | 0.221     | 0.069     | 0.003*     |
| Sheltered  | 0.221    |           | 0.548     | 0.084      |
| Part Time  | 0.069    | 0.548     |           | 0.259      |
| Non-Street | 0.003*   | 0.084     | 0.259     |            |

\* $p < 0,05$

**HYPOTHESES**

19. Hardcore street children are less satisfied with life than all the other groups.

(c)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{sh}$  or;

(d)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(e)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{ns}$

**Decision Criteria**

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

**Test Results**

(a)  $p = 0.221$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.069$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(c)  $p = 0.003$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

**Conclusion**

Although hardcore street children are significantly different from non-street children in terms of satisfaction with life, there is no significant difference between the hardcore versus the sheltered or the hardcore versus the part-time street children.

20. Sheltered street children are more satisfied with life than hardcore street children, but they are less satisfied with life than the part-time and the non-street children.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.548$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.084$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted.

### Conclusion

There is no significant difference between sheltered street children and part-time or non-street children.

21. Part-time street children are less satisfied with life than non-street children, but they are more satisfied with life than sheltered street children.



To test  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  versus the alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu_{pt} < \mu_{ns}$ .

### **Decision Criteria**

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### **Test Results**

$p = 0.259$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted;

### **Conclusion**

There is no significant difference in satisfaction with life between part time versus sheltered street children nor part time versus non-street children.

#### **9.2.2.3.7.2. AFFECTOMETER (AFM)**

Results of the Post-hoc LSD test (Table 9.9.2) for affectometer are as follows: -

Table 9.9.2. The Post-Hoc LSD test for Affectometer

|            | Hardcore | Sheltered | Part Time | Non-Street |
|------------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Hardcore   |          | 0.317     | 0.039*    | 0.005*     |
| Sheltered  | 0.317    |           | 0.283     | 0.069      |
| Part Time  | 0.039*   | 0.283     |           | 0.455      |
| Non-Street | 0.005*   | 0.069     | 0.455     |            |

\* $p < 0,05$

### HYPOTHESES

22. Hardcore street children have the least sense of psychological well-being than all the groups.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{sh}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(c)  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{hc} < \mu_{ns}$

### Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

### Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.317$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{sh}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.039$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{pt}$  is rejected;

(c)  $p = 0.005$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{hc} = \mu_{ns}$  is rejected.

## Conclusion

Although hardcore street children are not significantly different from sheltered street children in terms of psychological well-being, there is a significant difference between the hardcore versus part-time street children and the hardcore versus the non-street children.

23. Sheltered street children have a greater sense of psychological well-being than the hardcore street children, but scored lower on Affectometer than the part-time and the non-street children.

(a)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{pt}$  or;

(b)  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  versus  $H_1: \mu_{sh} < \mu_{ns}$

## Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

## Test Results

(a)  $p = 0.283$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{pt}$  is accepted;

(b)  $p = 0.069$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{sh} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted.

## Conclusion

There is no significant difference between both sheltered street children versus part-time and sheltered versus non-street children in relation to psychological well-being.

24. Part-time street children have less sense of psychological well-being than non-street children, but have more sense of psychological well-being than sheltered street children.

To test  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  versus the alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu_{pt} < \mu_{ns}$ .

## Decision Criteria

To test the null hypotheses versus the alternative hypotheses, the null hypotheses are rejected if  $p < 0.05$ .

## Test Results

$p = 0.442$  therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_{pt} = \mu_{ns}$  is accepted;

## Conclusion

There is no significant difference in the sense of psychological well-being between part-time versus sheltered street children nor part time versus non-street

children.

### 9.3 SUMMARY

It is evident from the results of the hypotheses tests above that there are no significant differences between hardcore street children and sheltered street children in all the treatments. The same applies to sheltered street children versus part-time street children and part-time street children versus non-street children.

No conclusion can be drawn for comparisons between hardcore street children versus part-time street children and sheltered street children versus non-street children. In some instances, there is a significant difference whilst in other cases there is no significant difference depending on which treatment is being observed.

On the other hand, comparisons between hardcore street children versus non-street children reveal that there is certainly a significant difference in all treatments observed.

**CHAPTER 10****DISCUSSIONS ON THE STUDY****10.1 INTRODUCTION**

The aim of this study was to make a psychological analysis of the lives of street children. A number of variables were investigated as they were deemed to form part of street children's psychological makeup. These are tenacity, purpose in life, interpersonal relationships, self-esteem, emotional stability and psychological wellbeing. According to the findings of this research, there are significant differences between street children and non street children in respect of the above variables.

No significant differences could be established between Hardcore versus Sheltered street children, Sheltered versus Part-time street children, and Part-time versus Non street children in all treatments.

The findings of each variable will be discussed separately.

The researcher has also suggested some recommendations. In view of the limitations of the study as indicated hereunder, the researcher has made suggestions for future research areas relevant to street children.

## 10.2 TENACITY

This research has yielded that Hardcore street children are generally more tenacious than the non-street children. They seem to have the internal resources to cope with the harsh environment around them despite of the nature of that environment.

No distinct conclusion could be inferred upon Hardcore versus Part-time street children and Sheltered versus Non street children on the variable of Tenacity.

Whereas people seem to rely on the environmental resources like social support, one can hardly say the same about the street children especially the hardcores.

Ben-Sira (1985) suggests that resources constitute the fulcrum both of initial coping and of homeostasis restoration. Resources comprise innate or achieved traits or properties, for example, education, cultural

characteristics, knowledge, money, amenities, etc., as well as environmental support that have the potential of enhancing successful coping

Possessing the quality of tenacity implies that the stressors that impinge on him do not negatively affect an individual. He is capable of coping with difficult circumstances. Street children have proven to possess this quality. It is interesting to note Pearlin and Schooler's (1978) position on stress and stressors as well as on coping. They contend that the psychological dimension of stress is not in the demand that makes it a stressor. It is to a great extent the individual's subjective perception that determines the quantity and the summonability of that demand. The same experience may be threatening to one person but harmless to another. In the light of the present research, street children's environmental conditions place a lot of stress on them, whether subjective or objective. Their tenacity was also demonstrated on the 21<sup>st</sup> March 1998's sleep-out experiential exercise (to be discussed later in this section).

According to Ben-Sira (1985), if a person fails to cope with the consequent disturbance of homeostasis, there exists another set of mechanisms, which have the capacity



over and above the initial resources to be effected.

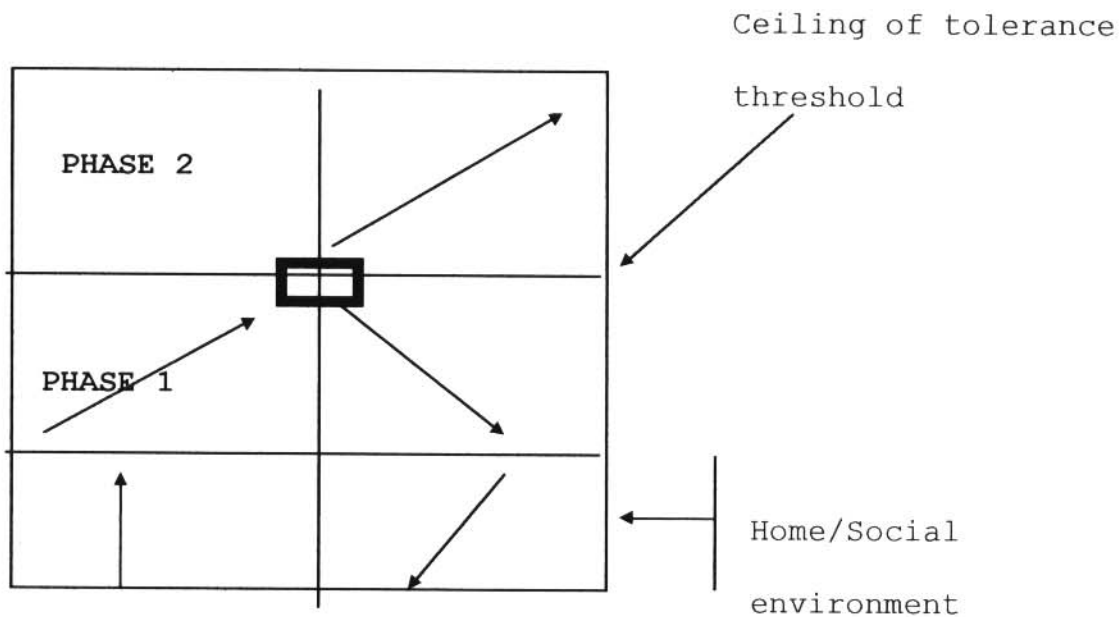
Therefore, in line with the above author's argument, it would seem that the consequent disturbance of homeostasis might also emanate from the home environment. As a result, the child may leave home for various reasons (see figure 8.13) and enters the streets at phase 1 (see figure 10.1). The present researcher theorised that if he stays on the street for a longer period of time until he reaches the **ceiling of tolerance threshold**, the more able he is to cope with the harsh environment. On the basis of that, those that are able to go through this ceiling into phase 2 (see figure 10.1) will draw from the other defence resources and survive. They would then graduate into hard-core street children and ultimately become more tenacious. Shuval (1957) calls it "hardening hypothesis". Her study was based on the Israel survivors of the concentration camps.

Antonovsky's (1979) sense of coherence, Kobasa's (1982a, 1982b) personality hardiness, the concept of stamina coined by Thomas (1988) and Colerick (1985), Bandura's (1982) self-efficacy and human agency, as well as Rosenbaum's (1988) theory of learned resourcefulness try to explain the construct of tenacity. This implies that, some

people though faced with hardships, are able to survive. That is they have a tenacious personality (to be discussed later).

It is therefore logical to hypothesise that other street children who do not make it through the ceiling of tolerance threshold would then become either part-time street children, sheltered street children or they may actually become non-street children.

Figure 10.1 Schematic presentation of the ceiling of tolerance threshold.



The latter's tolerance threshold may be too weak that they would feel that they would rather stay at home even if problems exist. This could be extrapolated from the fact

that 52% of the hard-core street children in this research were found to have spent six (6) years and more on the streets. Twenty-eight percent (28%) of them have been on the streets for a period of three (3) to five (5) years. Twenty percent (20%) of the children in this category (hardcore) were found to have been on the streets for one (1) to two (2) years.

On the 21<sup>st</sup> March 1998, a number of street children organisations and societies in the Vaal Triangle organised what was called "sleep-out experiential exercise". The aim of this exercise was to make the communities aware about the plight of street children. It was expected of people to sleep out on the streets, on the pavements, at the dumps, in the alleys, in the passages and anywhere possible. They were to get first hand experience about life on the street, especially the type of life the hard-core street children lead. According to the present researcher's observation, about 79% of the people who participated in the sleep-out experiential exercise (including the researcher), had to seek medical treatment the following day. People suffered from different physical ailments like flu, headaches, abdominal and bodily pains, gastro-intestinal problems etc. Some of these problems may

have been the manifestations of stress. However, street children did not experience the above ailments, which could be ascribed to their high level of tenacity.

One distinct flaw with the sleep-out exercise is that it was a once off situation. Therefore, as to whether the participants had a real experience is highly questionable. Maybe if they were to be involved in such an exercise on more occasions than one, they might start to feel how the life on the street is really like.

According to Ganellen and Blaney (1984), stressful life events such as those experienced by street children, play a precipitating role in the onset of physical and psychological disturbances. Therefore, a natural question to follow would be: what acts as buffers against the adverse effects of life stressors? In this regard Selye (1956) posits that individuals respond in a distinctive manner to stressors. Antonovsky (1974) on the other hand claims that an individual possesses "resistance resources".

Although not quite the same, the lives of street children could be likened to the life experiences of women in the German concentration camps whom Antonovsky, Maoz and Wijsenbeek (1971) found to possess an enormous strength to survive despite their traumatic experiences. A number of

them were found to be well adapted and happy.

Strumpfer (1990) holds the view that people who possess general resistance resource (GRR) would be able to avoid or combat a wide variety of stressors including lack of food, money and shelter. This seemed to be the case in as far as street children are concerned. Strumpfer (1990) argues that when a person regularly experiences the availability of GRRs, a sense of coherence (SOC) develops.

According to Strumpfer (1995), fortigenesis refers to the origins of psychological strength in general. In terms of street children, the paradigm of fortigenesis is applicable, as they seem capable to cope despite their harsh environment. However, as to what makes them to survive deserves a separate research.

When discussing street children's tenacity, we should also pay attention to the important moderators of the effects of life stress. In this regard, the present researcher suggests **social support** and **personality characteristics**. Johnson and Sarason (1979a, 1979b) and Rabkin and Struening (1976) are in agreement that social support and personality characteristics play a significant role in the lives of people in general, who are faced with a stressful situation. These variables will be discussed

in the context of their presence or absence in the lives of street children and how they impact on them.

### ***SOCIAL SUPPORT***

Johnson and Sarason (1979b) and Lin, Simeone, Ensel and Kuo (1979) believe that social support is characterised by the degree of support provided to an individual, particularly in times of need, by the persons involved with them. On the other hand Cobb (1976), proposes that social support is information that leads an individual into believing that they are cared for and loved, are esteemed and valued, and belong to a network of communication and mutual obligation. These three areas of information provide individuals with very specific kinds of support: esteem support, emotional support and community support respectively.

The social support as indicated above is a scarcity in the lives of street children and in their acquisition of tenacity. What it is then, that is present in them that make them tenacious? This topic deserves a separate research. However, it may be prudent to consider an earlier discussion on stress and stressors: that when an individual is under severe stress, his initial mechanisms come into play. But as the stress continues and the

initial mechanisms become inadequate, he draws from another set of mechanisms (Ben-Sira, 1985). These mechanisms may be called reserve mechanisms. It should be noted that the present researcher's focus was on the presence or absence of tenacity on street children - with the hypothesis stating that generally speaking, they are more tenacious than the non-street children, and this hypothesis was confirmed by the results. In the light of this research, one could think of street children as possessing extended reserve mechanisms. However, the hypothesis that hardcore street children are more tenacious than the sheltered and the part time street children was not confirmed.

#### ***TENACIOUS PERSONALITY***

The present researcher would like to propose the construct tenacious personality. This has been prompted by the results of this study, which found that Hardcore street children are more tenacious than the non-street children. In the present researcher's view, tenacious personality refers to individuals who remain healthy during the process of, and after experiencing high degrees of stress. Inherent in this construct is control. It is again the present author's opinion that street children have more control in their lives on the street. What is implied here, is that non-street children have less control of

their lives in times of stress, that they seem unable to withstand the harsh, and stressful life events as this research discovered.

Tenacious personality is considered a moderator by this researcher to the extent that it determines the extent to which a street child under stress may or may not be vulnerable. It is this personality that will probably determine if they are to become hard-core, sheltered, part-time or non-street children.

Kobasa (1979), Kobasa (1982a and 1982b) maintain that people with hardy personality characteristics, tend to stay healthy in spite of stressful life events. Hardy individuals who are high in challenge believe that change rather than stability is normal in life (Kobasa, Maddi and Kahn, 1982). Kobasa (1982a) proposes that hardy individuals who are high in commitment have a tendency to be involved in whatever they are doing rather than experience alienation. Hardy individuals who are high in perceived control tend to feel and act as if they are influential.

### **10.3 PURPOSE IN LIFE**

In the context of this research, purpose in life refers to the meaning one finds in life. It also refers to



the aims and objectives one has about his life. Implied herein, is the researcher's presupposition that human beings generally attempt to move toward pleasure, and that they move away from pain. They are attracted toward pleasure by what the present researcher calls **pleasure factors**. These include love, care, attention, food to eat, place to sleep, etc. On the other hand they are repelled from pain by **pain factors**. The pain factors include poverty, unhappiness, and disease. It is the researcher's view that the former bring about purpose in people's lives. According to the above description, street children in general experience a lot of pain factors. Hardcore street children experience the more pain factors than non-street children do - as this research has established. Their sense of purpose in life is low. Furthermore, the purpose in life for Hardcore street children was found to be lower than that of the Part time street children. Similarly the purpose in life for the Sheltered street children is lower than that of the Non street children.

According to Fabry (1968), even if one's life is negatively affected by the presence of misery, insecurity, and apparent senselessness, life always has meaning to humans, but those adverse conditions tint it. The present author argues that it is difficult for street children to

start to find meaning in life when their basic needs are not met; like to sleep without eating any food, without having any place to stay etc. Basic to this logic are the findings of this study. On the other hand, Frankl (1963) concurs with Fabry (1968) that an individual who is suffering, can find meaning in his situation.

The general hypothesis stated in this study is that street children's purpose in life is low compared to the non-street children. This hypothesis was confirmed. The impression to be drawn is that the more a street child suffers, the more he finds no purpose in life.

Some of the pain factors established by this study are lack of formal education, how to earn a living and the general factors that contribute to these children to becoming street children. In so far as the hardcore street children's level of education is concerned, this research established that fifty-two percent (52%) have never attended school. (see figure 8.5 for more statistics).

Unlike non-street children who go through normal stages of development, i.e. of being children (who do not have to earn a living), a large number of the street children in this study use different methods of earning a living. These include parking cars, pushing trolleys for

grocery shoppers, gambling, begging for money and eating at the shelters (see figure 8.6).

Furthermore, the present researcher found that other pain factors that contribute toward street children's low sense of purpose in life involve their personal home circumstances and upbringing. Accordingly, these include parental and family conflict, neglect, physical abuse (corporal punishment, pouring water on a child, ordering the child to stay out in the cold or sleep outside the house at night, etc.) and sexual abuse, emotional abuse like negative labelling, insults and criticisms. Parent's abuse of alcohol, death of a parent, unemployment, divorce, and their own or their parent's severe illness, school failure or being a school drop-out as well as peer group pressure were also established as the pain factors (see figures 8.7.1, 8.7.2, 8.8 and 8.13).

Street children in this research felt repressed, they felt that life has no purpose, no challenge, and no obligation. They also felt that it makes no difference what they do, that life was over-powering, and that they have no significance. This lack of sense of purpose on the part of the street children was more pronounced on hardcore street children than the sense of purpose in life of the

non-street children.

The researcher also found that street children felt trapped by circumstances beyond their control, that they are stuck. They also felt that they have been defeated by life, and that there was a vast emptiness in them - which Frankl (1966 and 1985) calls "existential vacuum".

Street children perceived their lives as boring. They also did not have any clear goals and aims especially the hardcores. They felt that their personal existence was utterly purposeless. They have shown the preference of never to have been born at all than to lead life under those horrible conditions. They indicated that even if they were to try hard to lift themselves up, nobody would care about their endeavours. They have also thought of suicide at least once.

The street children under the study did not regard themselves as having the ability to find purpose in life. They have also felt that their lives were in the hands of some other external factors like God, Priests, ancestors, witch doctors, etc.

#### 10.4 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

The general hypothesis relating to this variable stated that street children's quality of interpersonal relationships was poor as compared to that of the non-street children. The present researcher suggests that the pain factors described earlier do contribute to the poor quality of interpersonal relationships of the street children.

Hardcore street children in this research were found to have poor interpersonal relationship skills than the Part-time street children whereas no significant differences could be established between Sheltered and Non street children.

The present researcher asserts that early in life a mother or mother substitute invites and allows a child to take space in life. This means giving time and taking the child along with her in the different sectors of her life. So is the case with other members of the family and the community. This kind of interaction is essential for the formation of sound interpersonal relationships, which street children may not have experienced. Also important is the quality and not the quantity of interpersonal relationships. In explaining the general situation of

interpersonal relationships, Sullivan (1953) states that from the very first day of life, a child becomes part of an interpersonal situation and remains as such throughout his life. This kind of relationship includes formal and informal situations. According to the present research, street children's interpersonal relationship was negatively affected by circumstances in which they find themselves, namely pain factors.

Their relationship with each other and with the general members of the society was found to be hostile and they do not readily trust people. The present researcher further found that they (street children) did not enjoy talking to people, except among themselves. They indicated that people hurt them a great deal if they trust them. They also found it difficult to make new friends. The street children who have been on the street longer, are able to make friends with the new-comers only if the latter have something to offer; like possessing the ability to acquire food or if they are street-wise.

The street children do not feel guilty if they swear at another person. This probably makes them feel better after a conflict because they may not possess enough energy and physical prowess to fight. It should however be noted

that they fight a lot among themselves; but they are also able to make up quickly.

Howells (1971) and Kanner (1972) posit that closeness is the essential feature of the family relationship. It gives the child the sense of security and the foundation of being close to other members of the society. Street children in general did not enjoy this kind of relationship as this research has established. This was more so regarding the hardcore street children who felt distant and pushed away by their parents and the community.

The tonality of the relationship regarding street children was shallow. This means that they relate to people for the sake of relating without attaching any significance to it. Their relationship with people is generally based on what the people can give them.

Street children expressed the need to feel pleasure and to enjoy the company of other people at all times. Their need to be close to other people did not indicate their dependency. They have shown a preference towards autonomy. Therefore a balanced view of closeness and autonomy should be considered. This will lead to an improved interpersonal relationship with other people, including strangers.

## 10.5 SELF-ESTEEM

The Hypothesis for this section of the research stated that street children's level of self-esteem is lower than that of non-street children.

Hardcore and Part-time street children did not show significant differences in their level of self-esteem. However, Sheltered street children's level of self-esteem was found to be lower than that of Non street children.

As was the case regarding other variables in this study, the present researcher contends that the pain factors have contributed to the lower level of self-esteem of the street children. They (street children) felt that they were worthless. They perceived themselves as having poor qualities, and that they are failures in life. They further thought that other people are better than they are in every respect; that they are unable to do as well as other people, and that they have nothing to be proud of.

Maslow (1970) asserts that every person has a need called self-esteem. This need manifest itself in the form of a need for strength, for adequacy and for mastery. He further indicates that people have a desire for reputation and for prestige. Street children also have these desires.



Maslow (1970) and Allport (1955) concur that the satisfaction of the self-esteem needs leads to positive feelings of self-confidence, worth, adequacy, strength and capacity. If these needs are thwarted, this leads to feelings of weakness and helplessness. This point is also emphasised by Wolman (1972). The researcher found that street children have feelings of weakness and helplessness.

Maddi (1989) maintains that a human being has a natural core tendency to push toward actualisation of inherent potentialities, which finds its roots in the gratification of self-esteem needs. It is therefore understandable that the preceding statement does not hold true for street children because their self-esteem needs are not met. Also in terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the basic needs have to be satisfied before other needs can be met (see figure 6.1). In so far as the street children are concerned, their basic or physiological needs are not met - hence their unmet needs of self-esteem.

The present researcher has also found that street children had a negative attitude towards themselves. They were dissatisfied with themselves, and that they lacked self-respect. Furthermore, they felt useless most of the time, and that they were not good at all.

According to the findings of this research, street children presented with feelings of constriction. This supports Coopersmith's (1967) findings that generally, children with low self-esteem tend to interact less with their immediate communities. According to Wolman (1972), most of the time they are preoccupied with their inner problems and they are more constricted than children with high self-esteem.

The present researcher contends that self-esteem evolves via evaluation by others. Society's repetitive introjections of depreciatory attitudes and feelings of unworthiness to the street children make those negative attributes to form part of their self-concept.

This study also established that street children felt rejected by the community. External criticisms and hatred formed the basis of the way they perceived their future. This entailed the negative ways in which they would be treated by the society. Wolman (1972) further cites that negative criticisms would reinforce the poor self-concept, which in turn might perpetuate low self-esteem.

Street children in this study felt unhappy because they were less successful than others were. They also felt dissatisfied with their whole being. They have attributed

Maslow (1970) further points out that from the theologian's discussion of pride and hubris, people have been learning more and more of the dangers of basing self-esteem on the opinion of others rather than on real capacity, competence and adequacy to the task. Fromm's theories about the self-perception of untruth to one's own nature, the Rogerian work with self, also echo the same sentiments. Essayist like Rand (1975) as well as the above-mentioned sources take the view that the most stable and therefore most healthy self-esteem is based on deserved respect from others rather than on external fame or celebrity and unwarranted adulation. Even in this regard it is essential to distinguish the actual competence and achievement that is based on sheer will power, determination and responsibility from that which comes naturally and is easily out of one's biological fate or destiny. Horney (1950) conceptualises it as out of one's real self rather than out of the idealised pseudo-self.

Maddi (1989) concurs with Maslow (1962, 1967, 1968 and 1970), Rogers (1961) and Goldstein (1939) that self-esteem needs to play a vital role in a person's personal fulfilment. Maddi (1989) further says that a person has a core tendency of pushing toward actualisation of inherent potentialities, which uncompromisingly find its roots in the gratification of self-esteem needs.

On Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the first levels of needs (physiological needs) are hardly satisfied when it comes to the lives of street children. Therefore it is comprehensible to find that the level of self-esteem is equally unsatisfied (see figure 6.1).

#### **6.4 EMOTIONAL STABILITY - HORNEYS THEORY**

Horney (1950) views emotional stability as very crucial for the normal development of human beings. She sees aggressive conflict between the child and his parents and society as an anxiety growing out of basic disturbances, for example, rejection, overprotection, and punishment in the child's relationship with his parents and society. She further contends that aggression is not inborn, but is a means by which humans try to protect their security.

According to Horney (1950), insecurity, aggression, rejection etc. are negative emotions and these constitute emotional instability.

Horney (1945) asserts that anxiety is the feeling a child has of being isolated and helpless in a potentially hostile world. She cites the following adverse factors in the environment that can produce this emotional instability in a

child. They include, inter-alia: direct or indirect domination, indifference, erratic behaviour, lack of respect for the child's individual needs, lack of real guidance, disparaging attitudes, absence of admiration, lack of reliable warmth, isolation from parents, other children, society, injustice, discrimination, unkept promises and a hostile atmosphere. The present author asserts that such are the circumstances in which street children find themselves.

Hall et al. (1978) say that the insecure, anxious child develops various strategies by which to cope with his feelings of isolation and helplessness. He may become hostile and seek to avenge himself against those who have rejected or mistreated him. On the other hand, he may be overly submissive in an attempt to win back the love he feels he has lost. He may, according to Horney (1950), develop an unrealistic, idealised picture of himself in order to compensate for his feelings of inadequacy and inferiority. The child may try to bribe others into loving him, or may use threats to force people to love him. He may also wallow in self-pity to gain people's sympathy.

If the child does not receive love, he may want to obtain power over others. When doing so, he compensates for his sense of helplessness. He finds an outlet for hostility, and

he is able to exploit people. The child may also become highly competitive, in which the winning is far more important than the achievement. He may turn his aggression inward and belittle himself.

Hall et al. (1978) argue that any of the above strategies may become a more or less permanent attribute in the personality; and may assume the character of a drive or need in the personality dynamics.

Horney (1942) mentions a list of needs that are acquired during the period of attempting to find solutions to emotional problems. She calls these needs "neurotic needs" because they are irrational solutions to the problem, viz.:

#### 1. .THE NEUROTIC NEED FOR AFFECTION AND APPROVAL

This need is characterised by an indiscriminate wish to please others and to live up to their expectation. A child lives for the good opinion of others and is very sensitive to any signs of rejection or unfriendliness.

#### 2. THE NEUROTIC NEED FOR A PARTNER WHO TAKES OVER ONE'S LIFE

This happens when the person or child feels threatened and therefore needs a parent or a support system. At this point, a person feels afraid of being deserted and left alone.

### 3. THE NEUROTIC NEED TO RESTRICT ONE'S LIFE WITHIN NARROW BORDERS

In this regard a child has an "understanding" of his situation, he is content with little and prefers to remain inconspicuous, and values modesty. This also manifests itself in the form of feelings of inferiority, inadequacy, and weakness.

### 4. THE NEUROTIC NEED FOR POWER

This need expresses itself in craving for power, in disrespect for others. It does so in an indiscriminate glorification of strength and contempt for weakness.

### 5. NEUROTIC NEED TO EXPLOIT OTHERS

The basic principle of this need is: "exploit others first before they exploit you". Children who do this derive pleasure and they feel fulfilled. They also see exploiting people as a way of controlling others.

### 6. THE NEUROTIC NEED FOR PRESTIGE

Horney (1950) states that a child's self-evaluation is determined by the amount of public recognition received. If the society and the parents have a negative recognition for the child, he will evaluate himself negatively. On the contrary, if they recognise him positively, his self-evaluation will be positive.

#### 7. THE NEUROTIC NEED FOR PERSONAL ADMIRATION

People with this need have an inflated picture of themselves and wish to be admired on this basis, not for what they really are. They play big. Their self-worth does not match their expectations.

#### 8. THE NEUROTIC AMBITION FOR PERSONAL ACHIEVEMENT

People with this characteristic want to be the very best; they drive themselves to greater and greater achievements because of their basic insecurity.

#### 9. THE NEUROTIC NEED FOR SELF-SUFFICIENCY AND INDEPENDENCE

People in this category have previously been disappointed in their attempts to find warm, satisfying relationships with people, the person sets himself or herself apart from others and refuses to be tied down to anyone or anything. They become loners.

#### 10. THE NEUROTIC NEED FOR PERFECTION AND UNASSAILABILITY

People who have this need try to make themselves infallible and impregnable, because they are afraid of making mistakes and of being criticised. They are from time to time searching for mistakes and weaknesses in themselves so that they may be covered up before they become obvious to others.



Hall et al. (1978) contend that the above ten needs are the sources from which inner conflicts develop. Horney (1950) also classifies the above ten needs under three headings:

- (i) Moving toward people, for example, the need for love.
- (ii) Moving away from people, for example, the need for independence, and
- (iii) Moving against people, for example, the need for power.

Horney (1950) argues that each of the above characteristic behaviours represents a basic orientation toward others and oneself. She finds in these different orientations the basis for inner conflict. Hall et al. (1978) concur with Horney (1950) that the essential difference between a normal and a neurotic conflict is one of degree "... the disparity between the conflicting issues is much less great for the normal person than for the neurotic" (p.179). These authors say that everyone has these conflicts, but some people, primarily because of early experiences with negative emotions such as rejection, neglect and other kinds of unfortunate parental and societal treatment, possess them in an aggravated form.

Whereas a normal person can resolve these conflicts by integrating the three orientations, since they are not mutually exclusive, the neurotic person, because of greater basic anxiety, must utilise irrational and artificial solutions. He or she consciously recognises only one of the trends and denies or represses the other two. Alternatively, the person creates an idealised self-image in which the contradictory trends presumably disappear, although actually they do not (Hall et al., 1978). Horney (1950) posits that the search for glory, feelings of self-contempt, morbid dependency upon others and self-abasement are some of the unhealthy and destructive results that grow out of an idealised self. Again, Horney (1950) identifies another strategy employed by the neurotic person for inner conflicts, is to externalise them. The person says, "I don't want to exploit other people, they want to exploit me". This solution creates conflicts between the person and the outside world.

The present author found it appropriate to employ the exposition of this theory on emotional stability to serve as a theoretical foundation on emotional stability versus instability of street children.

Street children find themselves in a world that is hostile. Adverse environmental factors, for example, society's

indifference, lack of warmth, rejection by the general public and the fact that they do not feel loved - make them emotionally unstable. Furthermore, they have feelings of inferiority, inadequacy, and weakness. These children find themselves in a situation where they are all by themselves, with no support systems at all from the society. Consequently, they tend to perceive society negatively

#### **6.5 PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING**

This section focuses on the construct of psychological well-being. In this regard, the emphasis is placed on the concept of salutogenic or fortigenic orientation rather than the pathogenic orientation. According to Wissing and van Eeden (1997), the construct "mental health" has been variously used to indicate the degree of psychopathology, absence of psychopathology, or sometimes to indicate aspect of psychological health.

In this research, attention was accorded to street children's Sense of Coherence (SOC), Satisfaction with Life (SWL) and positive-negative affect balance. A number of researchers have attempted to explain the concept of psychological well-being. These include Antonovsky's (1979, 1984b, 1987) sense of coherence, Kobasa's (1982a) personality hardiness,

BenSira's (1985) potency, Thomas's (1988) and Colerick's (1985) stamina, Rosenbaum's (1988) learned resourcefulness and Diener's (1984) subjective well-being (SWB). These constructs deal with "how people manage stress and stay well". It seems however, that there is no single definition in the conceptualisation of this particular construct.

The focus of this section is to provide theoretical perspectives in respect of psychological well-being and how it is operationalised in this research.

#### **6.5.1 Telic theories**

It seems that much of the research on SWB is based on need theories and goal attainment. According to Wilson (1967), the satisfaction of needs leads to happiness. The reverse is also true. If these needs are not satisfied, unhappiness will result. Fundamental to goal theories is the fact that an individual is aware of his specific desires. The person is consciously making efforts to attain certain goals and the consequence is happiness if these achieved (Michalos, 1980). Whereas Murray (1962b) asserts that needs may differ significantly from one individual to the other, Maslow (1970) holds the view that needs may be universal. There is a widespread concurrence that there is a relationship between happiness and the fulfilment of needs, goals and desires.

### 6.5.2 Personology theories

There seems to be no particular agreement among psychologists on the basic understanding of positive psychological health. Different personality theories postulate that optimal psychological functioning is characterised by different aspects. Allport (1961) contends that the bases of a healthy personality are deliberate and conscious intentions, which will manifest in the development of interest in activities beyond self, warm relationship with others, emotional security, realistic perception of the world, a level of competence and self-insight. On the other hand, Rogers (1961) believes that a fully functioning person is the one who leads a challenging, enriching and meaningful life. Such an individual is free to experience all feelings and attitudes. He lives fully in every moment of existence, has trust in his own organism, has a sense of freedom, and is highly creative.

Maslow (1962) mentions that a self-actualising person has an efficient perception, acceptance of others, nature, others, and oneself. Such a person has spontaneity, simplicity, and naturalness. He has a focus on the problems outside himself, a need for privacy and independence. The above author further postulates that a self-actualising person has good interpersonal relationships.

Psychological health is seen in terms of being able to find meaning in life and having a freedom to choose a path of one's life. It is further characterised by having personal responsibility of one's conduct and the ability to determine one's personal destiny (Frankl, 1963).

### 6.5.3 Holistic models

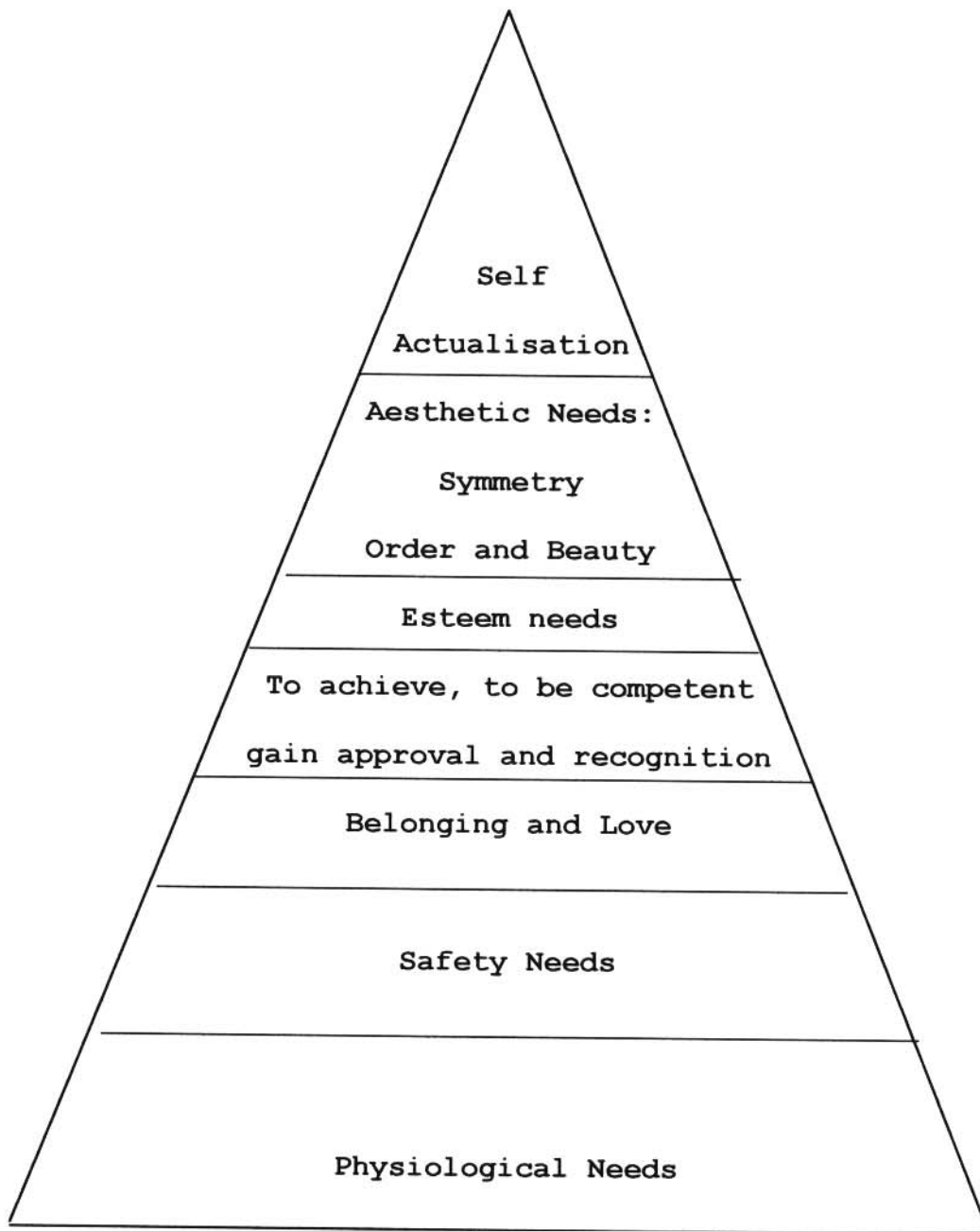
Seeman's (1983) view of health is all encompassing and transactional in nature. His theoretical conceptualisation of positive health focuses on most of human behavioural predispositions like the cognitive, perceptual, psychological, biochemical and interpersonal dimensions. He undoubtedly recognises the role of communication as a necessity among human beings.

The concept of positive health is a reflection of subjective well-being (SWB). Diener (1984) argues that subjective well-being encompasses happiness, life satisfaction and positive affect. This author focuses on what leads people to evaluate themselves in positive terms. Concomitant to this viewpoint is life satisfaction. Do street children view their lives in positive terms? Do they experience life satisfaction or not?

Shin and Johnson (1978) write: "happiness is a global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his own

chosen criteria" (p. 478). Inherent in this assertion is the Bradburn's (1969) view that psychological well-being is also defined in terms of happiness. This denotes the preponderance of positive affect over negative affect. This position thus stresses pleasant emotional experience.

**Figure 6.1: Maslow's hierarchy of Needs**



## CHAPTER 7

THE PROBLEM: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF  
STREET CHILDREN

## 7.1 INTRODUCTION

Like normal children, street children in South Africa as anywhere in the world have also needs. Their basic needs like food and shelter are not met. Worse still, are their psychological needs. The latter needs seem to be severely neglected.

This research focussed on the psychological make-up of street children (hardcore, sheltered and part-time) from the viewpoint of:

- (a) Tenacity
- (b) Purpose in Life
- (c) Quality of interpersonal relationships
- (d) Level of Self-esteem
- (e) Emotional stability and
- (f) Psychological wellbeing



The present researcher contends that if one understands the psychological make-up of street children from the above perspectives, the task of reintegrating them into the society will be much easier.

## **7.2 HYPOTHESES**

The hypotheses for this research were as follows:

### **7.2.1 Research hypothesis 1**

Hardcore street children are more tenacious than all the other groups. Sheltered street children are less tenacious than the hardcore street children, but they are more tenacious than the two other groups (part-time and non-street children). Part-time street children are less tenacious than the hardcore and the sheltered street children - but they are more tenacious than the non-street children are. Non-street children are less tenacious than all the other groups viz.: hardcore, sheltered and part-time street children.

### **7.2.2 Research hypothesis 2**

Hardcore street children do not have or have less purpose in life than the sheltered, the part-time and the

non-street children. Sheltered street children have a better purpose in life than the hardcore street children, but they have less purpose in life than the part-time and non-street children. Part-time street children have a better purpose in life than the hardcore and the sheltered street children, but they have less purpose in life than the non-street children. Non-street children have a better purpose in life than the hardcore, sheltered and the part-time street children.

### **7.2.3 Research Hypothesis 3**

Hardcore street children have poorer interpersonal relationship skills than the sheltered, the part-time and the non-street children. Sheltered street children have better interpersonal relationships than the hardcore street children, but they have poorer interpersonal relationships skills than the part-time and the non-street children. Part-time street children have better interpersonal relationship skills than the hardcore and the sheltered street children, but they have poorer interpersonal relationship skills than the non-street children do. Non-street children have the best interpersonal relationship skills, better than the hardcore, sheltered and the part-time street children.

#### **7.2.4 Research Hypothesis 4**

Hardcore street children's level of self-esteem is lower than that of the sheltered, part-time and non-street children. Sheltered street children's level of self-esteem is higher than that of the hardcore street children, but it is lower than that of the part-time and the non-street children. Part-time street children have a higher level of self-esteem than the hardcore and the sheltered street children: but they have a lower self-esteem than that of the non-street children. Non-street children's level of self-esteem is higher than that of the hardcore, sheltered and the part-time street children.

#### **7.2.5 Research hypothesis 5**

Hardcore street children are emotionally more unstable compared to the sheltered, the part-time and the non-street children. Sheltered street children are more emotionally stable than the hardcore street children, but they are more emotionally unstable compared to the part-time and non-street children. Part-time street children are more emotionally stable than the hardcore and the sheltered street children, but they are emotionally more unstable as compared to the non-street children. The non-street

children are more emotionally stable than the hardcore, sheltered and the part-time street children.

#### **7.2.6 Research Hypothesis 6**

Hardcore street children enjoy poorer psychological wellbeing than the sheltered, the part-time and the non-street children. The sheltered street children enjoy better psychological wellbeing than the hardcore, but poorer psychological wellbeing than the part-time and the non-street children. The part-time street children experience poorer psychological wellbeing than the non-street children, but better psychological wellbeing than the hardcore, and the sheltered street children. The non-street children experience better psychological wellbeing than the other groups (hardcore, sheltered and the part-time street children).

### **7.3 Specific hypotheses derived from the Research hypotheses**

#### **Null hypothesis 1:**

There are no significant differences among the tenacity of hardcore-, sheltered-, part-time-, and non-street children as measured on the Sense of Coherence and

Hardiness scales.

Null hypothesis 2:

There are no significant differences among the purpose in life of hardcore-, sheltered-, part-time- and non-street children as measured on the Purpose in Life scale.

Null hypothesis 3:

There are no significant differences among the interpersonal relationships of hardcore-, sheltered-, part-time- and non-street children as measured on the Sociability scale.

Null hypothesis 4:

There are no significant differences among the level of self-esteem of hardcore-, sheltered-, part-time- and non-street children as measured on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale..

Null hypothesis 5:

There are no significant differences among the emotional stability of hardcore-, sheltered-, part-time- and non-street children as measured on the Koppitz HFD scale.

Null hypothesis 6:

There are no significant differences on psychological wellbeing of hardcore-, sheltered-, part-time- and non-street children as measured on the Affectometer and Satisfaction with Life scales.

A description of the experimental investigation to accept or reject the hypotheses formulated in this research will be supplied in the next chapter.

**CHAPTER 8****METHODOLOGY****8.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this investigation was to make an analysis of the lives of street children. The following variables were measured using different measuring instruments. Tenacity was measured using hardiness and sense of coherence scales, while purpose in life was measured using the purpose in life scale. Interpersonal relationship scale of the Personal, Home, Self, Formal (PHSF) scale was used to measure the interpersonal relationship. Self-esteem scale was used to measure self-esteem. Human Figure Drawing (HFD) test was used to measure the emotional position and lastly, psychological wellbeing was measured using Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) as well as Affectometer scale.

**8.2 RESEACH DESIGN**

The present study could not be described as being a true experiment since direct manipulation of the

independent variables was not possible. Since the aim of the study was to compare responses on the various psychometric scales among three groups of street children and a group of non-street children, the different groups (hardcore, sheltered, part-time and non-street children) could be described as being the independent variable, which is not amenable to direct manipulation and control by the researcher.

The research design employed in this study is a quasi-experimental design that approximates a true experimental design in that the effects of a non-manipulated variable on a dependent variable are investigated. (Christensen, 1985; Creswell, 1994 & McGuigan 1978).

### 8.3 PARTICIPANTS

A total of 216 children were selected for the purpose of this study. 54 **Hardcore street children** were involved, through the use of purposive sampling techniques. These children have not anywhere to go at dusk and at night. They live **on** the street every day. They sleep on the street. The other groups were selected in such a way that they match the hardcores, especially in age. These groups



included 54 *sheltered* street children, 54 *Part Time street children* and 54 *Non-Street children*.

### 8.3.1 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF THE CHILDREN WHO PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY

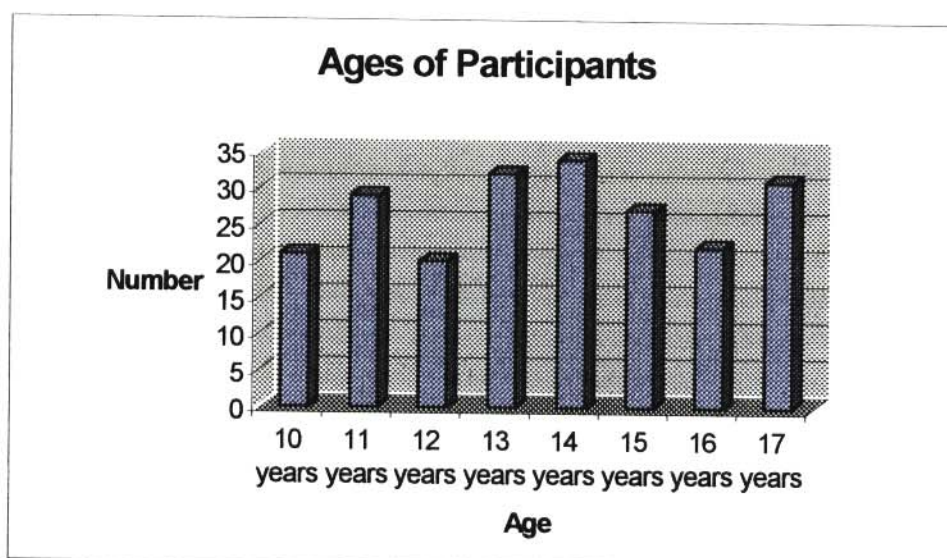
Non-Street children were randomly selected from 10 traditionally black schools in the Vaal Triangle's Townships. The rationale is that the majority of street children come from the townships.

#### 8.3.1.1 Age

Ten percent of all the children who participated in this study were 10 years old and 13% were 11 years old whilst 9% were 12 years old. Fifteen percent of the children were 13 years old, another 16% were 14 years old, 13% were 15 years old, 10% were 16 years old and the remaining 14% of all the children in this study were 17 years old.

(see figure 8.1 ).

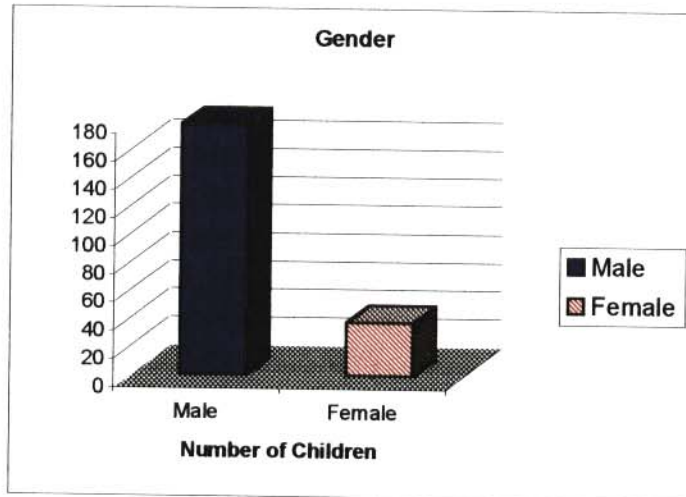
Figure 8.1 Ages of Participants.



#### 8.3.1.2 Gender

Eighty-two percent of all the children in this study (Hardcores, sheltered street children, the Part Time and the Non-Street children) were boys and only 18% were girls. (see figure 8.2).

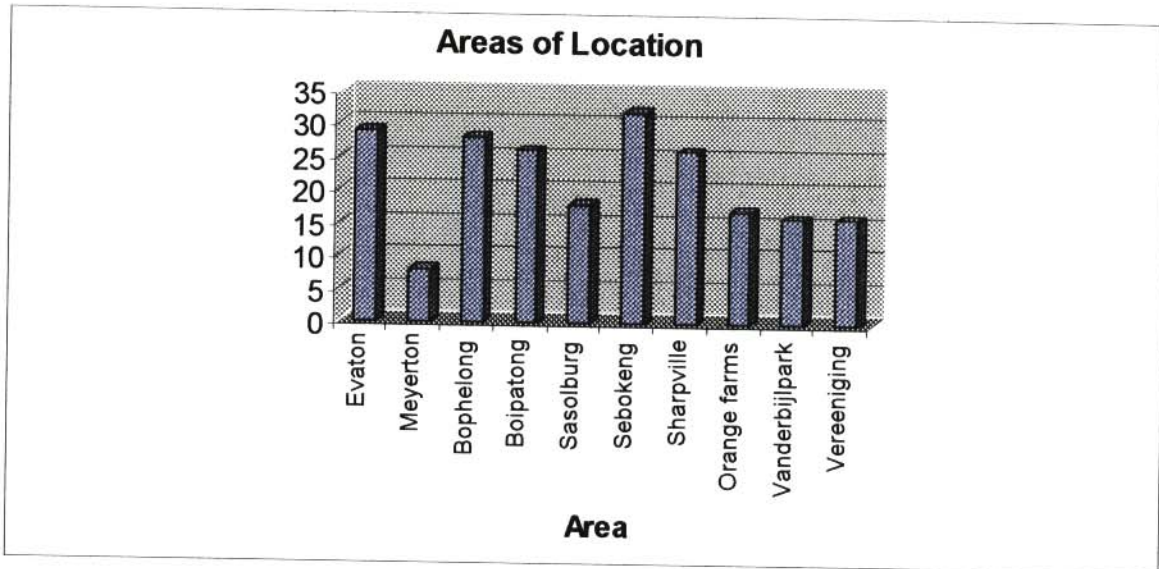
Figure 8.2. Gender of participants



### 8.3.1.3 Areas of Location in the Vaal Triangle

Seven percent of all the children used in this study came from Vereeniging and Vanderbijlpark each and only 4% were located in Meyerton. Another 13% were located in Bophelong and Evaton each whilst Sharpeville and Boipatong had 12% each. Fifteen percent of the children were located in Sebokeng, while Sasolburg and Orange Farms had each 8% of children who participated in the study. (*see figure 8.3*).

Figure 8.3 Areas of Location.



#### 8.3.1.4 *Duration/Period the Children have been on the Streets/Shelter*

##### Hardcore Street Children

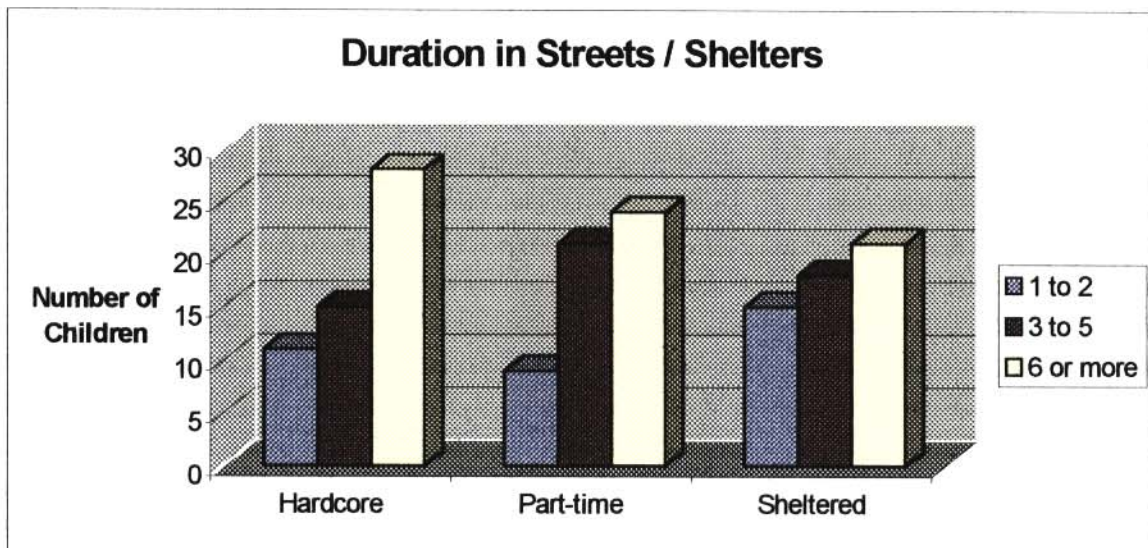
Twenty percent of all the children in this category had been on the streets for a period between 1 to 2 years, 28% had been on the streets for a period between 3 to 5 years, and 52% of them had been on the streets for a period of 6 years and more. (*see figure 8.4*).

##### Sheltered Street Children

The researcher ascertained that all the children falling in this category who had been on the streets for a

period of 1 to 2 years made 17 percent of the total. Thirty-nine percent of the children have been on the streets between 3 to 5 years. Children who have spent 6 or more years on the streets are 44%. The caregivers at the shelters indicated that the above situation could be accounted for by the fact that these children are relatively new-comers. They may have not become used to the street environment yet when they were placed in the shelters. (See Figure 8.4).

Figure 8.4 Duration on the streets/shelters.



#### Part-time Street Children

Twenty-eight percent of all the children in this category had been on the streets for a period of between 1 and 2 years, 33% had been on the streets for a period of 3 to 6 years, and 39% had been on the streets for a period of 6 years and over. (*See figure 8.4*).

#### Non-street Children

All the children in this category have not been on the streets or in the shelters for any period of time.

#### **8.3.1.5 Level of Education of all the Children in the Study**

#### Hardcore Street Children

In as far as the educational levels of the children in this category were concerned, the present researcher established that 19% of the street children in this category have never attended school. Those that did grades 1 and 2 were 17% each, grade 3 were 15%, grade 4 were 7%, grade 5 made 9%, grades 6 and 7 were each 7% and grade 8 or higher were 2%. (*See figure 8.5*).



### Sheltered Street Children

The educational levels of all the children in this category are as follows: 13% never attended school, 7% did grade 1, 13% grade 2, 4% grade 3, 19% grade 4, 9% grade 5, 15% grade 6, 9% grade 7 and 11% grade 8 or higher. **(See figure 8.5).**

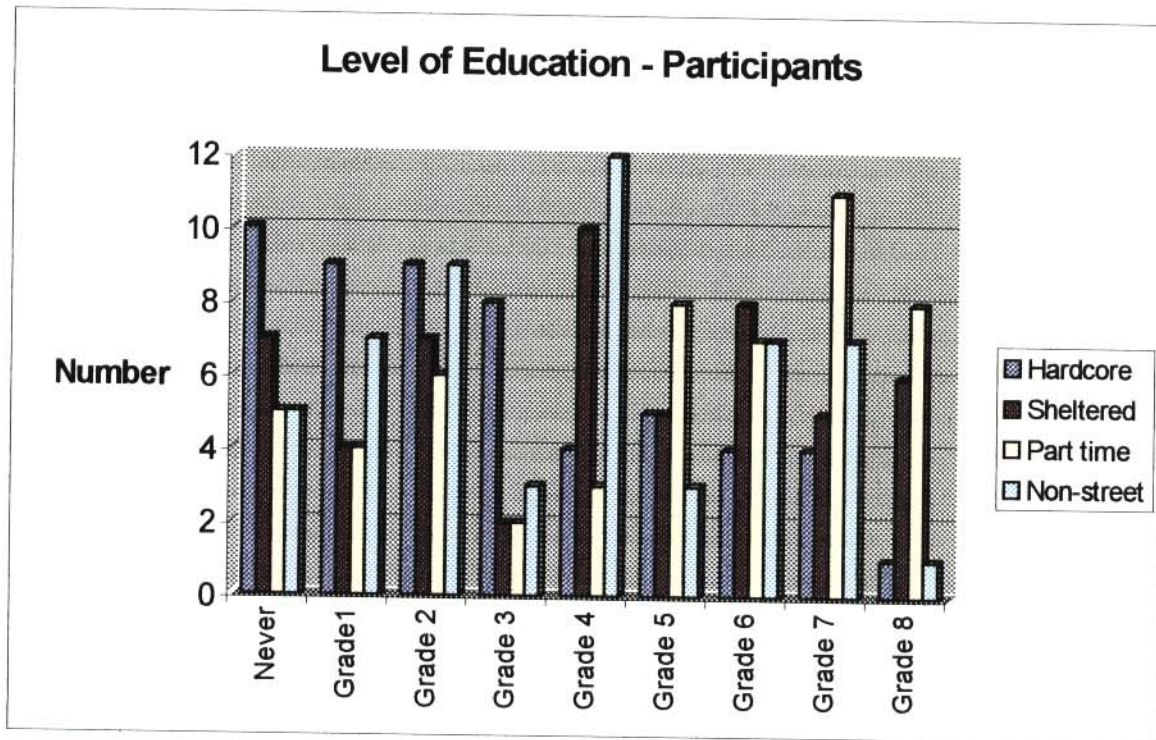
### Part-time Street Children

The educational levels of children in this category are as follows: those children that have never attended school were 9%, those that did grade 1 were 7%, grade 2 was 11%, grade 3 were 4%, grade 4 were 6%, grade 5 were 15%, grade 6 were 13%, grade 7 were 20% and grade 8 or more were 15%. **(See figure 8.5).**

### Non-street Children

Generally, all the children in this category attend school, with the exception of 9% who have never attended school before, those that did grade 1 were 13%, grade 2 was 17%, grade 3 were 6%, grade 4 were 22%, grade 5 were 6%, grade 6 were 13%, grade 7 were 13% and grade 8 or more were 2%. **(See figure 8.5).**

Figure 8.5 Levels of education of participants.



#### 8.3.1.6 *Methods Street Children use to make a Living*

##### Hardcore Street Children

The data relating to the methods children in this category used to earn a living are as follows: 22% were parking cars, 19% pushed trolleys for grocery shoppers, 11% were involved in gambling, playing cards and /or dice etc., 15% begged for money and/or food, and 33% were eating at the shelters. (See figure 8.6).



### Sheltered Street Children

The following data relates to the methods children in this category used to earn a living: 13% were parking cars, 22% pushed trolleys for shoppers, those who were involved in gambling, playing cards/dice was 22%, begging for money and/or food was 22%, and those that were eating at the shelters was 20%. (*See figure 8.6*).

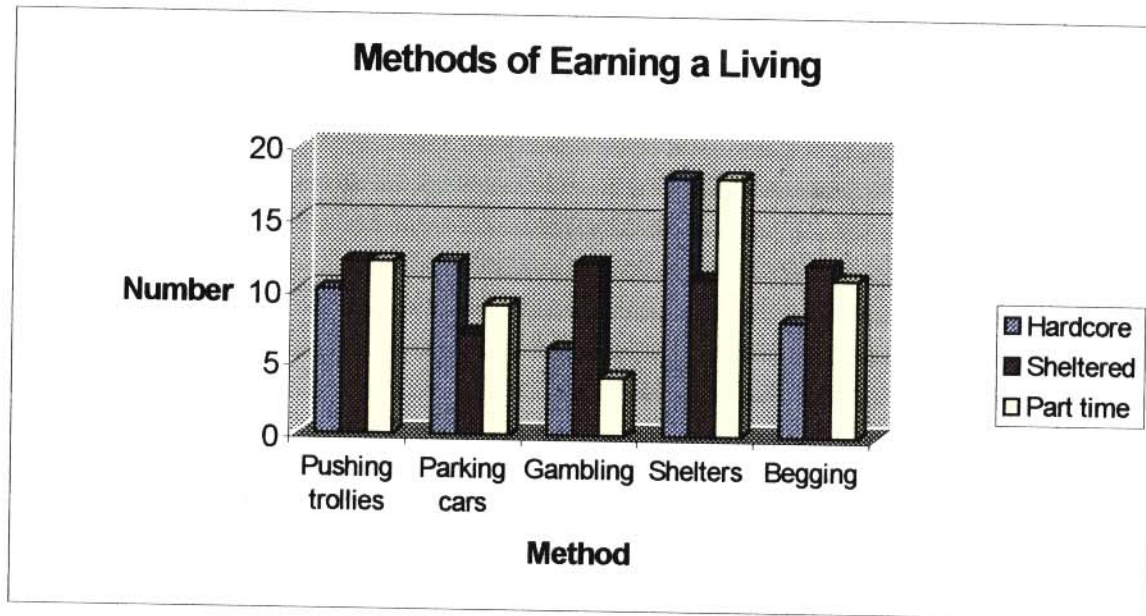
### Part-time Street Children

The following information relates to the method children in this category used to earn a living: those that were involved with parking cars were 17%, pushing trolleys for shoppers was 22%, gambling, playing cards and /or dice was 7%, begging for money and or /food was 20% and eating at the shelters was 33%. *See figure 8.6*).

### Non-street Children

All the children falling in this category did not earn a living because their families provided for them.

Figure 8.6 Methods of Earning a Living.



### 8.3.1.7 Family Circumstances

#### Hardcore Street Children

##### **Father Figure**

Thirteen percent of the children in this category reported that their fathers were still alive, 32% reported that their fathers were deceased, 22% reported that their step-fathers were still alive, and 33% of the children said that their step-fathers were deceased. (See Figure 8.7.1).

many of the wrong things about them to themselves. They thought that they deserved to be criticised when things went wrong. Despite the fact that they have survival skills, they did not consider themselves as having any talents.

#### **10.6 EMOTIONAL STABILITY**

According to Koppitz (1968), there appears to be a consensus among experts on Human Figure Drawings (HFD) that different children can express anxieties, conflicts or attitudes and other emotions on HFD's in different ways.

Children in the present study presented with the different frequencies of emotional indicators on their drawings. The street children have presented with the highest frequency of the following emotional indicators: poor integration, shading of face, shading of limbs, shading of hands and neck, asymmetry of limbs, big figure, crossed eyes, short arms, big hands, monster or grotesque figures, three figures, no eyes and no mouth.

They further presented with the highest frequency of the following emotional indicators; poor integration, shading body limbs, slanting figure, big figure, crossed

eyes, teeth drawn unusually or the absence of teeth, arms clinging to body, genitals showing, three figures, and mouth drawn unusually or mouth being absent.

This study has shown that Hardcore street children are more emotionally unstable than non-street children are. Hardcore street children were also found to be emotionally unstable than the Part-time street children. On the other hand, sheltered street children were not found to be significantly different from Non-street children in regard to emotional stability.

The emotional instability was manifest in the form of acting out and aggressive behaviour. They also presented with personality instability, a poorly integrated personality, poor co-ordination, impulsiveness, and serious emotional disturbances. These findings are consistent with Koppitz's (1968) findings. Also as in the case of Koppitz's results the present researcher found less emotional instability on normal children.

The hardcore street children have shown a serious manifestation of anxiety, poor self-concept, and discontent with their selves. They have also indicated shyness, aggressive behaviour, impulsiveness, and rigidity more than the other street children. Koppitz (1968) and Machover

(1949) say that the above constitute manifestations of emotional instability.

Their personality influx and tendencies to steal, aggressive and shy behaviours, were expressed on their HFD's (Koppitz, 1968; Machover, 1953; Hammer, 1958).

The clinical significance of the drawings by the street children in this study have indicated expansive tendencies, immaturity, poor inner controls, feelings of inadequacy, narcissism and paranoid delusion of grandiosity.

Further emotional instability as indicated by street children were feelings of insecurity, withdrawal, and depression. Machover (1953) and Lewinson (1964) concur that a drawing of a tiny figure is a reflection of feelings of inadequacy, a shrunken ego, and concern over dealing with the environment.

Street children's HFD's have indicated a rebellion, anger and obsessive-compulsive behaviour pattern (Koppitz, 1968).

The findings in this study further suggest that the street children have difficulty in reaching out into the world and towards others. This is further associated with the withdrawal tendency, to turn inward toward oneself, and to

try to inhibit one's impulses (Koppitz, 1968). Timidity and lack of leadership abilities were also indicated.

Street children have exhibited striving for love and affection.

In keeping with Machover's (1953) contention on emotional instability, street children have demonstrated a rigid inner control. The lack of flexibility, a deep-seated conflict, and poor interpersonal relationships were also indicated.

According to the results of this study, street children are manipulative, their relationships with others are hostile and they experience passive resistance.

Street children's HFD's have reflected what Richey (1965), calls feelings of intense inadequacy and very poor self-concept and they felt as though they were outsiders who do not fully belong to the society they live in.

They further exhibited lack of feelings of identity and lack of independence. The present researcher submits that street children's lack of independence could be attributed to their culture of interdependence on one another.

In their environment, street children felt threatened by adults. Koppitz (1968) and Vane and Eisen (1962) have also noted this tendency in respect of children who are emotionally unstable.

Koppitz (1968) and Stone and Ansbacher (1965) concur that emotionally unstable children display the refusal to face the world and escape into fantasy. They also show poor social interests. They have castration anxiety, feelings of immobility and helplessness and inability to go forward with self-assurance. This study has also yielded the above emotional conditions pertaining to street children

#### **10.7 PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING**

The construct psychological wellbeing refers to how and why people experience life in a positive way, including both cognitive and affective reactions. Inherent in this construct are feelings of happiness, satisfaction and general positive affect (Wilson, 1967). Hardcore street children in this study have shown poor psychological wellbeing compared to non-street children. The study has indicated that they are not satisfied with their lives and their environment. They have reported that the general

condition in their lives is poor and that they do not have the most basic and important things they want in life.

On the basis of the findings in the present study, no conclusion could be inferred regarding other individual comparisons of street children in respect of the variable of psychological well-being.

Constructs such as subjective wellbeing (Diener, 1984), and emotional wellbeing (Bradburn, 1969) attempt to explain psychological wellbeing (Diener, 1984).

Street children's psychological wellbeing was further found poor in that they felt the need to change everything about their lives, and that their future looks bleak. They did not feel good about themselves and they indicated that everything was wrong with them. They had negative attitudes about life in general and about themselves. These attitudes include the fact that they are not capable of handling problems that usually come up. They also experienced feelings of being failures, and feelings of being unloved and untrustworthy. They did not feel close to people around them, and have lost interest in other in life and in people in general.



The present study has further shown that because of their poor psychological wellbeing, they felt that they could do whatever they wanted without any regard for authority.

## 10.8 CONCLUSION

This study confirmed that street children tend to be more tenacious than non-street children are. Seemingly, the harsh reality of the adverse environment, the knowledge that they have to survive and that they have nobody but themselves to depend on - inoculated them. Indeed many other factors may have contributed to that. This study also affirms the fact that their purpose in life is very poor. They seem to lack direction of life - they do not anticipate anything for the future in spite of their search for meaning in life. They find themselves thrown (existential thrownness) in their situation and they have to survive - approaching life on a moment-by-moment, and on a day-by-day basis.

The street children's level of self-esteem was found to be low and their quality of interpersonal relationship poor.

This research has also established that street children have a higher level of emotional instability. This could be attributable to pain factors discussed earlier. Their psychological wellbeing was found to be poor.

A biographical questionnaire provides a very compelling and significant information as to personal life situations of the street children (See figures 8.3.1-8.13)

The present author sees the street child phenomenon as a symptom of social-structural and environmental defect and it may therefore be expected that the youths may try to escape from these environments (see figure 8.13 - factors that contributed to the children in this study to becoming street children).

Although primary prevention which focuses on the family structure's psychosocial aspects would be the best focal point in regard to street children programmes, the children who are already on the streets will need programmes directly on the streets, job-training and placement. The goal of any programme should be to create a community environment in which the child can be prepared to move into the larger society equipped with work skills, a high level of self-esteem, good interpersonal relationship skills, having a purpose in life etc.

## 10.9 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this research, the recommendations and guidelines suggested here would be helpful to different welfare organisations and agencies that deal with the plight of street children in reintegrating them back into the society. The guidelines and techniques may not be followed in a stereotypical manner - but may be adapted in order to fit the dynamics of a particular organisation that will adopt them.

The present researcher further recommends the following approaches and actions in addressing the problem of street children:

### **HOTLINE SERVICE**

This research has established that generally, street children suffer from emotional instability. A hotline service approach will assist young people (the potential street children) who call. Hotline service staff could provide basic counselling over the telephone and refer a child to relevant professionals or institutions. This approach follows very closely the perceptions of General Systems Theory which views a crisis as an upset or disequilibrium in an individual's efforts to organise experience such that it is reasonably predictable and need

fulfilling. A crisis is experienced when an individual is faced with a problem that is perceived as difficult and beyond solution.

#### ***LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENT AND REHABILITATION INSTITUTIONS***

Because street children have shown poor interpersonal relationship skills, they often find themselves at loggerheads with the police. They are picked up for a variety of reasons in addition to crimes for acts of violence against each other and for gang vandalism. It is not clear where they are taken to, but street children under study indicate that they are usually dumped to a far away place which will cause them to walk back quite a distance. It is the present author's contention that such behaviour and attitude of police may make them more delinquent.

The present author suggests that police should work in collaboration with social workers, welfare agencies, and street children organisations in helping these children.

#### ***RECEPTION-EXIT CENTRES, HALF-WAY HOUSES AND OBSERVATION CENTRES***

In view of street children's poor psychological wellbeing and emotional instability, reception centres, half-way houses and observation centres should be built

where these children could be accommodated on arrival, before they could be transferred to care facilities. A register should be kept which will include their biographical data.

It is critical to involve street children's parents or parents-substitutes as much as possible when putting relevant programmes in place for them.

At the above centres, initial counselling should be provided. These will help to make them feel at home. Counselling should be made available to them even after transfer to care facilities where they will spend a great deal of time. Such facilities should view their ultimate responsibility as the one of placing these children back into the society.

Upon discharge from the care facilities, street children should be sent to observation centres which will serve the purpose of evaluating street children's developmental level in terms of life skills, educational competencies and positive in personal behaviour which were acquired during their stay at the care facilities.

The next phase would be to take them to the half-way houses so that if other life skills are found to be

inadequate, they could be taught them and then be allowed to proceed to the next and final phase, that is the exit centres.

The main purpose of the exit centres will be to give the street children the confidence that they can do it outside the care facilities. At this point, each child shall have been given thorough training in order to have a purpose in life through different programmes.

Their homes and parents or parents substitutes should be located and consequently be exposed to parent effectiveness training programmes (PET).

It is possible to find that some street children may not have been fully exposed to street culture, others may have been on the streets much longer than others. They will need different programmes in order to reintegrate them into the society.

#### ***DROP-IN CENTRES***

The distinct feature that differentiates the reception centres from drop-in centres is that street children can drop in for one night or so without the formalities of register or biographical information. They would then receive food. Recreation and washing facilities should be

present at these centres. The aim would be to place the children in the care facilities later.

#### ***STREET-BASED PROGRAMMES***

Because of the fact that street children will have to be reintegrated into the society, life skills programmes should be brought to the children in the street. These will include cleanliness, teaching them about dangers of smoking cigarettes, and taking drugs, alcohol and sniffing glue. Also important is to teach them about AIDS. The present researcher argues that because of their high level of tenacity, they will be able to tolerate the teachings involved. Almost the same skills that they are going to learn in the society, they might as well start learning on the streets before they are even integrated. Their ability to master the life skills and to grasp knowledge of concepts taught to them will greatly enhance their self-esteem and their general psychological wellbeing. It will also give them sense of purpose in life.

#### ***OPEN-DOOR APPROACH***

Child care institutions should attempt to focus on the open-door approach which stipulates that a street child should be given the liberty to come and go because this is probably the greatest and the only possession the street

child has. Then stricter control of their movements could be introduced gradually. They must be made to take part in the decision-making process to regulate their own movements. In this way, they will have feelings of acceptance and of recognition. Their self-esteem will again be enhanced.

### ***RECREATION / SPORTS***

In view of the poor quality of their interpersonal relationship skills and their low self-esteem level, the present researcher suggests that recreation and sports should be included in any programme that is aimed at helping these children reintegrate into the society. These will help the child with a healthy (unlike a hostile) competition urge, which will channel his negative emotions and behaviour like anger and aggression (emotional instability) positively. This will also increase their sense of tenacity, which this study has established that they already have.

### ***OUTREACH PROGRAMMES***

The aim of the outreach programmes will be to involve the social workers and community structures such as civic organisations, to help with the quick location of the family members of the street children. These persons will



also have to establish the nature of problems that exist in that family which may have been responsible for a child to turn into a street child.

#### ***LOVE AND AFFECTION***

Street children need love and affection on a one-to-one basis from a dependable adult. With love, their level of self-esteem can be restored, their quality of interpersonal relationship can be improved, they can have an improved purpose in life, and they can be emotionally stable. Their psychological wellbeing could also improve tremendously.

#### ***DIVERSION v/s DETENTION***

Instead of the police to place street children in detention and to emotionally detain them, diversion should be a viable option. Street children need re-schooling - probably in alternative education programmes if it is too difficult for them to get mainstream education. This particular kind of education could include manual skills development programmes like welding, basket weaving car cleaning etc.

#### ***MENTORSHIP PROGRAMMES***

Childcare institutions should make provisions for

mentorship programmes in different trades and skills for the street children. This will ultimately give these children a sense of purpose in life and a sense of accomplishment. This will also form the basis for reintegrating them into the society because in real life mentorship programmes do exist.

#### ***ADOPT-A-CHILD PROGRAMMES***

Companies should be approached with the proposal of adopting a street child from the centres so that they can provide for the financial needs of a street child or of individual centres. This will go a long way in helping to reintegrate them into the society.

#### ***NGWANA WA RONA (OUR CHILD PROGRAMME)***

The basis of the *ngwana wa rona* is to make a return to the communal type of ethos in which the child staying in a particular street would be brought up by the adult persons of that street. This was practised among Black people many years ago. In a way, this will make it difficult for a child to run away and to become a street child because they will be providing for needs of that child. In the event that a child leaves home and become a street child, the same adult community could adopt that child. This will provide the child with a firm basis of purpose in life.

**FORMAL EDUCATION/ STREET SCHOOL**

With the level of tenacity the street children have shown in this research, the present researcher recommends that formal education should be introduced to them. This will have to be accompanied by the support from their families, social workers, schools, and the government.

If it is impossible for these children to be admitted into the formal schools, then street schools offering formal education should be considered. These will have to follow prescribed syllabi. In this instance, the co-operation of all the stakeholders (the government under the banners of the department of Education and the Department of Social Welfare, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO's), Community Based Organisations (CBO's), street children's organisations, and others) will be a necessity.

**10.10 IMPLICATIONS**

It is the present researcher's conviction that the findings of this study have implications for reintegrating the street children into the society. These findings also provide a basis for formulating prevention measures for ameliorating the problems of street children and improving their lives. The significance of the latter is to avoid a

vicious cycle in which after introducing these children back into the society, they should find themselves swept again back to the streets by the very factors that sent them to the streets in the first place.

#### **PRIMARY PREVENTION**

Social conditions and poverty, which characterise the lives of these children and their families, call for drastic social policy changes if their lives are to be significantly improved. According to Hartup (1983), social changes of that magnitude require first the establishing of a need for such change by demonstrating the destructive impact of conditions as those which characterise the lives of these children. They can also be facilitated by demonstrating the pro-social value of changes such as strengthening family units and providing resources and pro-social options for the children.

The researcher contends that secure family relations are the basis for entry into the peer system and success within it. Therefore family breakdown tends to interfere with adaptation to the peer culture, and good family relations are needed throughout childhood and adolescence as the basis for peer relations.

It is Tyler's (1986) contention that most adolescents

remain attuned to parental norms although much time is spent with other children. Dissonance may be considerable when adolescents are alienated from their parents and associated with age-mates that endorse misconduct, although the majority of adolescents are able to synthesise their understandings and expectations of their families and their peers.

Tyler (1986) disagrees with Hartup (1983) on the above facts. He states that children can and do develop sound and pro-social peer relations even in the context of adult abuse and abandonment. Moreover, children can and do develop a sense of and a commitment to commendable societal norms even without parents or with parents who do not or cannot support those norms.

### ***SECONDARY PREVENTION***

Institutions and homes can build on the children's strengths and be responsive to their input and ideas when planning, implementing and evaluating progress. Social services can recognise the coping capabilities of families and should them so that their integrity can be maintained. In the absence of intact families, social service agencies can work to strengthen the relationships between street children and their primary caretakers - even if these

caretakers are peers.

Dealing with street children should be based on pro-social empowerment of children which:

1. Deals with street children's sophistication and trauma
2. Recognises their tenacity and strength
3. Acknowledges that their role and skills are valued
4. Acknowledges their emotional problems and takes an empathetic approach
5. Recognises that they are human beings and they need to improve on the quality of their interpersonal relationships.
6. Will help them map out their purpose in life
7. Increase their level of self-esteem and their psychological wellbeing in general.

### ***TERTIARY PREVENTION***

When the child enters the street world, he acquires street values and norms, experience, tenacity and coping strategies. Programmes can be designed to utilise those characteristics for self-empowerment. The imposition of institutional values in a harsh manner may be counterproductive to the extent that according to Tyler (1986) they devalue children, lead them to devalue

themselves and make them dependent. The present author disagrees with Tyler (1986) because of the fact that institutional values include skills training which children will use after being integrated with the society.

#### **10.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Random sampling was not done in this research because it was not possible to do so. The nature of the research was contingent on the availability of the participants, especially the hardcore street children who were difficult to find. Therefore, the study dictated that a purposive sampling should be used.

The other problem inherent in this study involved establishing rapport with street children. They seemed incapable of trusting anybody. They ran away from the researcher on a number of occasions. At last, they somehow realised that he did not pose any danger to them, only then did they become approachable. The researcher did not establish the effect of this initial relationship on the children in as far as responding to questionnaires is concerned. It may have had a negative effect.

The time that the researcher could be able to find the

hardcore street children was late at night, between 22h.00 and 23h.00 in their different hideouts. After gaining their confidence, they told him that the reason why they were always running away from him was that they thought that he was a police officer. According to their testimony, police have always harassed them. It took the researcher approximately seven (7) days to establish rapport. Responding to questionnaires at that time of the night may have had negative outcomes that were also not established.

Questionnaires had to be read to them because their ability to read was poor. Although care was taken not to influence their responses, they may have been influenced.

The street children showed poor concentration ability. This was evident when questions were to be repeated on more than one occasion. It should be noted that the poor concentration may have been due to different factors like fatigue, and probably thinking about where and how to get food, as well as the fear of police who might come around in spite of the reassurances that the researcher gave them. These became known when he asked them.

Street children's poor concentration could also be attributable to glue they may have sniffed that day or many



days before as many of them do use it daily. This could have had an impact on the results.

It is the researcher's impression that testing condition should be adequate in order to yield optimal results. This could not be done because of the nature of the population sample in this study.

The street children under study had to be called to order from time to time because they would disturb the one answering the questions. They probably thought that they were being neglected.

Some rewards and positive reinforcement systems were used when the street children showed co-operation. The extent to which this could have influenced their responses was not determined.

Instruments used for gathering data in this research were translated. This may also have had negative consequences on the outcomes on this research.

Vaal Triangle is predominantly South Sotho speaking when it comes to the African languages. Indeed, there are other ethnic groups including the Zulus, the Tswanas, the

Xhosas etc. Given the fact that the researcher was born and brought up in that area, he is well aware about the fact that the majority of African people in the Vaal Triangle community are conversant with many African languages including South Sotho. Questionnaires were translated taking the above fact into consideration. However, the author notes that translating questionnaires into South Sotho only could serve as a confounding variable as other children could have been more comfortable if they were to respond to the questionnaires in the language of their mother tongue.

The 10 Honours Psychology students who helped to administer these tests could have had an effect on the respondents and their responses, as they were not psychologists. This point could be considered a confounding variable.

A further limitation in this study is that the researcher's focus was quantitative and not qualitative. In this regard, more valuable information could not be secured especially in respect of what make them more tenacious and what makes them have poor purpose in life, poor interpersonal relationships, low self-esteem, emotional instability and poor psychological wellbeing.

## 10.12 FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research should focus on the development of appropriate psychological scales and tests that would be more relevant to street children.

Other future research projects should endeavour to focus on what makes street children survive even if they are faced with difficulties, not only to focus on their level tenacity. This will include both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

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## APPENDIX 1 (a)

## BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

## (SESOTHO VERSION)

**STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).**

1. Dilemo
2. Bong
3. Tulo ya heno eo o tswang ho yona e bitswa mang
4. Ke nako e kae o le mmileng?
5. O fihlelletse sehlopha sefe sa dithuto sekolong?
6. Ke eng seo o se etsang hore o phele (ha o le mmileng)?
7. Ebe ntate wa hao o sa phela?
8. Ebe mme wa hao o sa phela?
9. Ebe batswadi ba hao ka bobedi ba dula mmoho?
10. Ke bana ba bakae lapeng leno (ho kennyelletswe le wena)
11. O ngwana wa bokae ka hlahlamano lapeng leno?
12. Ebe ke dithuto dife tseo batswadi ba hao ba difihlelletseng sekolong?
13. Batswadi ba hao ba sebetsa mosebetsi wa mofuta ofe?
14. Ke eng tse entseng hore o qetelle o se o le mmileng?

## APPENDIX 1 (b)

## BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

## (ENGLISH VERSION)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIUES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATOIN INTO THE SOCIETY)

1. Age
2. Sex
3. Which Town/ Township do you come from?
4. How long have you been on the streets/shelter?
5. What level of education / standard did you do?
6. How do you earn your living on the streets?
7. Is your father alive?
8. Is your mother alive?
9. Are both parents living/staying together?
10. How many children including yourself are in your family?
11. In terms of birth order are you a 1st, 2nd or 3rd born child in the family?
12. What is the education level/standard of parents?
13. What is the occupation of your parents?
14. What are the factors that made you to go to the streets?

## APPENDIX 2 (a)

**STREETWISE : A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).**

**TENACITY. (HARDINESS SCALE)**

(Kobasa, S.C., 1979).

**(SESOTHO VERSION)**

Dipolelong tse na tse latelang, o ka dumellana le tsona kapa o hanane le tsona. Ka kopo tshwaya nomoro (pakeng tsa 0 le 3) e tsamaisanang le maikutlo a hao.

| Ha se nnete | Nnete ngenyane | Nnete kgolwanyane | Nnete phethahetseng |
|-------------|----------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 0           | 1              | 2                 | 3                   |

Bala ka hloko dipolelwana tsohle. Nnetefatsa hore o araba dipotso tsohle ho ya ka moo o ikutlwang ka teng ha jwale. O se nke nako e telele polelwane e nngwe.

|  |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Ka nako tsohle ha ke tsoha, ke thahasella ho fetelletseng bophelo ba ka moo bo qetelletseng teng ka la maobane. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. Ke rata dintho tsa ho fapafapana mosebetsing wa ka.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. Ka nako tsohle, ba baholo honna ba ye ba mamele seo ke tlang ho se bua.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4. Ho Hlophisa nako e sa le teng, ho thusa ho qoba dikgathatso tsa ka moso.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5. Ke ye ke ikutlwe ke batla ho fetola se ka nnang sa estahala ka hosasa ka se ke se estang kajeno.                                       | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6. Ha ke ikutlwe monate ebang ke tlameha ho etsa diphehoho tsamaisong ya ka ya letsatsi le letsatsi.                                      | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7. Ho sa kgathalletsehe hore ke leka ho le ho kae, matla aka ha a no fihlella letho.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8. Ke fumana ho le thata ho ho nahana ke thabela mosebetsi.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 9. Ho sa kgathalletse hore etsa eng, ditsela tse lekilweng tsa nnete ke tsona tse nepahetseng.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10. Ke ikutlwa ho le thata ho fetola kelello ya wa heso ka ntlha tse ding.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11. Boholo ba batho ba sebelletsang bophelo, ba mmpa ba sebediswa ke ba ka sehlohong ho bona.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 12. Melao e metjha ha e a tlameha ho etswa ebang e tlo hlekefetsa mekgolo ya batho.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 13. Ha o nyala mme o eba le bana, o se o lahlehetswe ke bolokollohi ba hao ba ho kgetha.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 14. Ho sa kgathalletsehe hore o sebetsa ka matla ho le hokae, ha o bonahale o feihlella sepheo sa hao.                                    | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 15. Motho eo kelello ya hae e sa fetoheng ha bonolo, a ka itshetleha ho yena bakeng la diqeto tse phethahetseng.                          | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 16. Ke kgolwa hore bongata ba dintho tse etsahalang bphelong di ntse si tlameha ho etsahala.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 17. Ho sa kgathalletsehe hore o sebetsa ka matla kapa tjhee mosebetsing wa hao, hobane ke ba ka sehlohong ho wena ba tlang ho una molemo. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 18. Ha ke rate meqoqo eo ba bang ba bonahalang ba ferekannwa ke se ba batlang ho se bua.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 19. Boholo ba nako ha ho thuse ho sebetsa ka matla ka ha dintho ha di be ho ya ka moo di lebelletsweng ka teng.                           | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 20. Se nthabisang ka ho feta ke di tabaatbelo tsaka.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |



|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21. Nkeke ka araba dipotso tsa motho hofihlela ho hlaka hore hobaneng a mpotsa potso tseo.                      | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 22. Ha ke etsa lenane, ke tshepa hore le tla sebetsa  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 23. Ke lebelletse ka matla mosebetsing wa ka.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 24. Ha ho nkgathatse ho emella ka thoko ho seng ke se etsang, ebang ke kotjwa ho etsa ho hong.                  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 25. Ha ke le mosebetsing ke etsa mosebetsi o boima, ke tseba nako eo ke tlamehang ho kopa thuso.                | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 26. Ho a nthabisa ho ithuta ho hong ka nna.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 27. Ke rata ho ba le batho bao o tsebang se ba se nahanang.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 28. Ke ye ke fumane ho le thata ho fetola mohohpolo wa motswalle  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 29. Ha o nahana ka ho ba motho ya lokollohileng ho etsa hore o ikutlwe o tsiellehile mme o sa thaba.            | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 30. Ke a kgathatseha eba ho ena le ntho e etsahalang ka tshohanyetso mosebetsing wa ka wa letsatsi le letsatsi. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 31. Ha ke etsa phoso, ha ho letho leo nka le etsang ho etsa dintho tse nepahetseng hape.                        | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 32. Ha ke fumane ho le molemo ho sebetsa ka matla hobane ha ho tlisi phapang.                                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 33. Ke hlompha melao hobane e a ntataisa.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 34. Tsela e nngwe ya ho qoba mathata ke ho se nahane ka ona.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 35. Ke kgolwa hore bo radipapadi ba tswallwa dipapadi.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 36. Ha ke rate ha dintho di sa hlaka.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 37. Batho ba sebetsang ka matla ba tlameha ho fumana tshehetso e phethahetseng ya ditjhelete setjhabeng.        | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|   |   |   |   |   |

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 38. Boholo ba bophelo ba ka bo senyeha feela ke ho etsa dintho tse se nang molemo.                              | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 39. Ka nako tse ngata ha ke tsebe menahano ya ka.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 40. Ha ke kgathalle dipolelo tse se nang molemo mme di sa sebetse.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 41. Mosebetsi feela o senang ntlha o ye o ntene.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 42. Ka nako eo batho ba ngalefetse, ka nako tse ngata ebe e le ntle le mabaka a tiileng.                        | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 43. Ha ntho tseo ke di etsang ka mehla di fetoha, ke a kgathatseha.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 44. Ke fumana ho le thata ho kgolwa batho ba reng mosebetsi oo ba o etsang ke molemong wa setjhaba.             | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 45. Ke ye ke fumane hore eba motho a leka ho nthlekefetsa, ha ho letho leo nka le etsang ho leka ho mo thibela. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 46. Ke ka matsatsi a mangata moo ke fumanang hore bophelo ha bo nthabisi.                                       | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 47. Ke nahana hore batho ba kgolwa bobong ba bona ho thabisa ba bang.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 48. Ha ke omanngwa mosebetsing, ka nako tse ngata e be e le ntle le lebaka.                                     | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 49. Ke batla ho nnetefatsa hore ho na le motho ya tla ntlhokomelang ha ke se ke tsofetse.                       | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 50. Bo radipolotiki ba tsamaisa maphelo a rona.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

## APPENDIX 2 (b)

**STREETWISE : A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).**

**TENACITY. (HARDINESS SCALE)**

(Kobasa, S.C., 1979)

**(ENGLISH VERSION)**

Below are some items that you may agree or disagree with. Please indicate how you feel about each one by marking a number next to the statement.

| Not at all true | A little true | Quite a bit true | Completely true |
|-----------------|---------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 0               | 1             | 2                | 3               |

Please read all the items carefully. Be sure to answer all on the basis of how you feel now. Don't spend too much time on any one item.

|  |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I often wake up eager to take my life where it left off the day before.           | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. I like a lot of variety in my work  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. Most of the time, my bosses or superious will listen to what I have to say.       | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4. Planning ahead can help avoid most future problems.                               | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5. I ussually feel that I can change what might happen tomorrow, by what I do today. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|  |   |   |   |   |

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. I feel uncomfortable if I have to make any changes in my everyday schedul.                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7. No matter how hard I try, my efforts will accomplish nothing                                 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8. I find it difficult to imagine getting excited about working.                                | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 9. No matter what you do, the "tried and true" ways are always the best.                        | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10. I feel that it's almost impossible to change my relative's mind about something.            | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11. Most people who work for a living are just manipulated by their bosses.                     | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 12. New laws shouldn't be made if they hurt a person's income.                                  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 13. When you marry and have children, you have lost your freedom of choice.                     | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 14. No matter how hard you work, you never really seem to reach your goals.                     | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 15. A person whose mind seldom changes can usually be depended on to have reliable judgement.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 16. I believe most of what happens in life is just meant to happen.                             | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 17. It doesn't matter if you work hard at your job, since only the bosses profit by it anyway.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 18. I don't like conversations when others are confused about what they mean to say.            | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 19. Most of the time it just doesn't pay to try hard, since things never turn out right anyway. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 20. The most exciting thing for me is my own fantasies.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 21. I won't answer a person's questions until I am very clear as to what he is asking.          | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 22. Whan I make plans, I'm certain I can make them  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| work.   |   |   |   |   |
| 23. I really look forward to my work.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 24. It doesn't bother me to step aside for a while from something I'm involved in, if I'm asked to do something else. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 25. When I am at work performing a difficult task, I know when I need to ask for help.                                | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 26. It's exciting for me to learn something about myself  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 27. I enjoy being with people who are predictable   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 28. I find it's usually very hard to change a friend's mind about something.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 29. Thinking of yourself as a free person just makes you feel frustrated and unhappy.                                 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 30. It bothers me when something unexpected interrupts my daily routine.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 31. When I make a mistake, there's very little I can do to make things right again.                                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 32. I feel no need to try my best at work, since it makes no difference anyway.                                       | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 33. I respect rules because they guide me.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 34. One of the best ways to handle most problems is just not to think about them.                                     | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 35. I believe that most athletes are just born good at sports.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 36. I don't like things to be uncertain or unpredictable.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 37. People who do their best should get full financial support from society.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 38. Most of my life gets wasted doing things that don't mean anything.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 39. Lots of times I don't really know my own mind.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 40. I have no use for theories that are not closely tied to fact.                                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 41. Ordinary work is just too boring to be worth doing.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 42. When other people get angry at me, It's usually for no good reason.                             | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 43. Changes in routine bother me.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 44. I find it hard to believe people who tell me that the work they do is of value to society.      | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 45. I feel that if someone tries to hurt me, there's usually not much I can do to try and stop him. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 46. Most days, life is just isn't very exciting for me.   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 47. I think people who believe in individuality only impress other.                                 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 48. When I'm reprimanded at work, it usually seems to be unjustified.                               | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 49. I want to be sure someone will take care of me when I get old.                                  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 50. Politicians run our lives.  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

## APPENDIX 3(a)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

TENACITY (*ANTONOVSKY'S ORIENTATION TO LFEE QUESTIONNAIRE*)

SENSE OF COHERENCE (SOC)

(SESOTHO VERSION)

DIPOTSO TSE MABABI LE TSHEKAMELO YA BOPHELO

Lena ke letoto la dipotso tse amang dintlha tse fapafapaneng tsa maphelo a rona. Tshwaya nomoro e tsamaisanang le karabo ya hao. Nomoro ya 1 le ya 7 di supa maemo a fetelletseng. Ebang mantswe a ka tlasa nomoro ya 1 eleng ona a nepahetseng (ho ya ka wena), Tshwaya 1; ebang mantswe a ka tlasa nomoro ya 7 eleng on a nepahetseng ho ya ka wena, tshwaya 7. Ebang tsena ha di amane le wena, tshwaya nomoro eo e amanang hantle le maikutlo a hao. Fana ka karabo e le nngwe feela potsong ka nngwe.

**(R) 1. Ebe o na le maikutlo a hore dintho tse etsahalang ha di ho ame?**



|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------------------------------|
| Hohang / Ha nyenyana.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Haholo / Ka nako tsohle               |
| <b>(R) 2. Ebe ho kile ha etsahala hore batho ba o ba tsebang ba etse ntho eo makatsang:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Hohang  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ha ngata                              |
| <b>3. Ebe ho kile ha etsahala hore batho bao o ba tshepileng ba o sitele?</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Ho hang   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Hangata                               |
| <b>4. Ho filhela ha jwale bophelo ba hao:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Bo ne bo sena maikemisetso le molemo  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Bo ne bo na le maikemisetso le molemo |
| <b>5. O ikutlwa e kare ha o a tshwarwa hantle?</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Ha ngata  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Tjhe. Ka nako e nngwe                 |
| <b>6. Ebe o ikutlwa o le tikolohong eo o sa e tlwaelang mme ha o tsebe hore o tla etsa eng.</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Ha ngata  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ka nako e nngwe. Tjhee..              |
| <b>(R) 7. Ho etsa seo o se etsang ka matsatsi ohle ke:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Se thabisang ka hohle –hohle  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Se sa thabiseng                       |
| <b>8. Ebe maikutlo a hao le mehopolo ya hao di ferekana?</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Ka nako tsohle  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ka nako tse ding/ Tjhee               |
| <b>9. Oye o ikutlwe o na le maikutllo ao o sa batleng?</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Ka nako tsohle  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ka nako tse ding / Tjhee              |
| <b>(R) 10. Batho ba bangata – esita le ba serithi, ka nako tse ding ba ye ba ikutlwe ba lahlehetswe ke tsepojwalo. Ke ha kae o ikutlwa jwalo?</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                       |
| Ha ke so ka ke  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ke ha ngata ke                        |



|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                               |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------------------|
| ikutlwa tjena  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | ikutlwa tjena                 |
| <b>11. Ha ho na le se etsahetseng, ka kakaretso o ikutlwa:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                               |
| O ekeditse<br>kapa o<br>nyenyefaditse<br>boleng ba teng  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | O bone dintho ka<br>tshwanelo |
| <b>12. Ke ha kae o ikutlwa hore dintho tse o di etsang letsatsi ka leng<br/>ha dina molemo bophelong ba hao?</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                               |
| Ka dinako<br>tsohle  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ka nako enngwe<br>/ Tjhee     |
| <b>13. Ke ha kae o ikutlwa hore ha o kgone ho laola bophelo ba hao?</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                               |
| Ke ha ngata  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ka nako e nngwe               |

## APPENDIX 3 (b)

STREETWISE : A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY) .

TENACITY. (ANTONOVSKY'S ORIENTATION TO LIFE QUESTIONNAIRE) .

## SENSE OF COHERENCE (SOC)

## (ENGLISH VERSION)

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------------|
| <p>Here is a series of questions relating to various aspects of lives. Each question has seven possible answers. Please mark the number which expresses your answer with number 1 and 7 being the extreme answers. If the words under 1 are right for you circle 1, if the words under 7 are right you circle 7. If you feel directly circle the number which best expresses your feeling. Please give only one answer to each question.</p> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                 |
| <p><b>(R) 1. Do you have the feeling that you don't really care about what goes on around you?</b></p>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                 |
| Very seldom or never   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very often      |
| <p><b>(R) 2. Has it happened in the past you were surprised by the behavior of people whom you thought you knew well?</b></p>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                 |
| Never happened   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Always happened |
| <p><b>3. Has it happened that people whom you counted on disappointed you?</b></p>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                 |
| Never happened   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Always          |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| <b>4. Until now your life has had:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| No clear goals or purpose at all  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very clear goals and purpose           |
| <b>5. Do you have the feeling that you're being treated unfairly?</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| Very often  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very seldom or never                   |
| <b>6. Do you have the feeling that you are in an unfamiliar situation and don't know what to do?</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| Very often  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very seldom or never                   |
| <b>(R) 7. Doing the things you do every day is:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| A source of deep pleasure and satisfaction  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | A source of pain and boredom           |
| <b>8. Do you have very mixed-up feelings and ideas?</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| Very often  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very seldom or never                   |
| <b>9. Does it happen that you have feelings inside you would rather not feel?</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| Very often  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very seldom or never                   |
| <b>(R) 10. Many people – even those with a strong character – sometimes feel like sad sacks (losers) in certain situations. How often have you felt this way in the past?</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| Never   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very often                             |
| <b>11. When something happened, have you generally found that:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| You overestimated or underestimated its importance  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | You saw things in the right proportion |
| <b>12. How often do you have the feeling that there's little meaning in the things you do in your daily life?</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                         |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------------|
| Very often   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very seldom or<br>never |
| <b>13. How often do you have feelings that you're not sure you can<br/>keep under control?</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                         |
| Very often   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very seldom or<br>never |

## APPENDIX 4 (a)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

PURPOSE IN LIFE SCALE (Crumbaugh, 1968).

## (SESOTHO VERSION)

Bakeng sa dipolelo tse latelang, araba ka ho etsetsa nomoro e batlang e dumellana le nnete ya seo o leng sona sedikadikwe. Hlokomela hore dinomoro di tloha lehlakoreng le itseng la maikutlo ho isa ho le leng la mofuta wa lona le kgahlanong. Karabo ya *ka nako tse ding* ho bolela hore ha o na maikutlo a dumellanang kapa a hanyetsang.

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------------|
| Polellong e ngwe le e ngwe ho tse di latelang, thallela nomoro eo o tsamayelang le yona. "Mahareng" e bolela hore ha hona kahlolo efe kapa efe. Leka ho sebedisa patliso ena ka bonyane kamoo o ka kgonang. |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                |
| <b>1. Ka mehla ke:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                |
| Ye ke nyahame   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ke na le thahasello le bophelo |
| <b>2. Bophelo ho nna bo shebhala e le bo:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                |
| Nthabisa ka mehla   | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Nyahamisang ka mehla           |
| <b>3. Bophelong:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                                |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ha ke na maikemisetso  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ke na le maikemisetso   |
| <b>4. Ho ba teng ha ka lefetsheng:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Ha ke na maikemisetso le moelelo   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ke na le maikemisetso a maholo le moelelo                     |
| <b>5. Letsatsi le letsatsi honna:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Le letjha mme le fapane le a mang  | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Le tshwana le a mang  |
| <b>6. Ebang ke ne ke tla tshwanelwa ke ho kgetha, ke ne ke tla :</b>               |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Kgetha hore nkabe ke sa tswalwa  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Kgetha hore ke ekelletswe bophelo hape ka makgetlo a robongwe |
| <b>7. Ha ke tse ke sa sebetse, ke tla:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Etsa dintho tsohle tse nkgotsofatsang, tseo e sa le ke lakatsang ho di etsa        | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Ke phomole bophelong bohle baka                               |
| <b>8. Hore ke filhella ditakatso tsa ka tsa bophelo:</b>                           |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Ha ke so be le tswelopele efe kapa efe   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ke fihlelletse tswelopele e phethahetseng                     |
| <b>9. Bophelo ba ka:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Ha bo na letho hape bo bosula  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Bo tletse lethabo   |
| <b>10. Ebang ke tshwanelwa ke ho shwa kajeno, ke tla ikutlwa bophelo ba ka bo:</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Kgotsofatsa  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Sa kgotsofatse  |



|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| <b>11. Ha ke nahana ka bophelo ba ka:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Ke ha ngata ke ipotsa hore ke phelelang   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ke ka mehla ke yeng ke ipone thabele bophelo            |
| <b>12. Ka moo ke bonang lefatshe le leng ka teng ha ke le bapisa le bophelo ba ka, lefatshe le:</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Le nkopanya hloho   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Le na le moelelo bophelong ba ka                        |
| <b>13. Nna ke:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Motho ya senang maikarabelo   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Motho ya nang le maikarabelo                            |
| <b>14. Mabapi le tokollo ya motho ho ikgethela, ke kgolwa hore motho o:</b>                         |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| O ikgethela ka bolokollohi bophelo ba hae ka moo a ratang   | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Tlangwa ke ditekanyetso tsa sebakeng seo a leng ho sona |
| <b>15. Mabapi le lefu ke:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Ke ikemiseditse hape ha ke le tshabe  | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Ha ke a ikemisetsa hape ke a le tshaba                  |
| <b>16. Mabapi le ho ipolaya, ke:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Nahana ke yona tsela e bobebe   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ha ke be le monahano o jwalo                            |
| <b>17. Ke bona bokgoni ba ka ho fumana moelelo, maikemisetsa bophelong:</b>                         |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Ho kgotsofatsa  | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Ha ke bone hore ke phelelang                            |
| <b>18. Bophelo ba ka bo:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Matsohong a ka hape ke a bo   | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Ha bo matsohong a ka hape bo                            |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| laola  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | laolwa ke dintho<br>tsa ka ntle                          |
| <b>19. Ho kopana le mosebetsi wa ka wa letsatsi le letsatsi:</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| Ho a nthabisa<br>hape ho a<br>nkgatholla                         | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Ho bohloko hape<br>ho a nnyahamisa                       |
| <b>20. Ke fumane:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
| Ke sena<br>maikemisetso<br>bophelong                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ke na le<br>maikemisetso a<br>kgotsofatsang<br>bophelong |



## APPENDIX 4 (b)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

PURPOSE IN LIFE SCALE (Crumbaugh, 1968).

## (ENGLISH VERSION)

For each of the following statement, circle the number that would be most nearly true about yourself. Note that the numbers always extend from one extreme feeling to its opposite kind of feeling. The response of the word **sometimes** implies that the response can fall either way.

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                              |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|------------------------------|
| For each of the following statements, circle the number that would be most nearly true for you. Note that the numbers always extend from one extreme feeling to its opposite kind of feeling. "Neutral" implies no judgment either way. Try to use this rating as little as possible. |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                              |
| <b>1. I am usually:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                              |
| Completely<br>bored   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Exuberant,<br>enthusiastic   |
| <b>2. Life to me seems:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                              |
| Always exciting   | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Completely<br>routine        |
| <b>3. In life I have:</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                              |
| No goals or aim<br>at all   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very clear goals<br>and aims |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| <b>4. My personal existence is:</b>                                    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Utterly meaningless, without purpose                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very purposeful and meaningful          |
| <b>5. Every day is:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Constantly new and different   | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Exactly the same                        |
| <b>6. If I could choose, I would:</b>                                  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Prefer never to have been born   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Like nine more lives just like this one |
| <b>7. After retiring, I would:</b>                                     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Do some of the exciting things I have always wanted to                 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Loaf completely the rest of my life     |
| <b>8. In achieving life goals I have:</b>                              |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Made no progress whatever  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Progressed to complete fulfillment      |
| <b>9. My life is:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Empty, filled only with despair  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Running over with exciting good things  |
| <b>10. If I should diet today, I would feel that my life has been:</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Very worthwhile  | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Completely worthless                    |
| <b>11. In thinking of my life, I:</b>                                  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Often wonder why I exist   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Always see a reason for my being here   |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| <b>12. As I view the world in relation with my life, the world</b>                |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Completely<br>confuses me   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Fits meaningfully<br>with my life                                       |
| <b>13. I am a</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Very<br>irresponsible<br>person   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Very responsible<br>person  |
| <b>14. Concerning man's freedom to make his own choices, I believe man is:</b>    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Absolutely free<br>to make all life<br>choices                                    | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Completely<br>bound by<br>limitations of<br>heredity and<br>environment |
| <b>15. With regard to death, I am:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Prepared and<br>unafraid  | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Unprepared and<br>frightened  |
| <b>16. With regard to suicide, I have:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Thought of it<br>seriously as a<br>way out  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Never given it a<br>second thought                                      |
| <b>17. I regard my ability to find a meaning, purpose, or mission in life as:</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Very great  | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Practically none  |
| <b>18. My life is:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| In my hands and<br>I am in control of<br>it                                       | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Out of in my<br>hands and<br>controlled by<br>external factors          |
| <b>19. Facing my daily tasks is:</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| A source of<br>pleasure and<br>satisfaction                                       | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | A painful and<br>boring<br>experience                                   |

| <b>20. I have discovered:</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|-------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No mission or purpose in life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Clear-cut goals and a satisfying life purpose |

## APPENDIX 5 (a)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS. (SOCIOBILITY SCALE OF THE PHSF TEST QUESTIONNAIRE)

DIKAMANO TSA BATHO :

(SESOTHO VERSION)

## DITAELO

Hona ke dipotso e seng hlahlobo. Ka baka leo ha ho na dikarabo tse nepahetseng kapa tse fosahetseng. Dipotso kaofela di amana le tseo bohle re kopanang le tsona bophelong. Batho ba bang ba ka ba le maikutlo a reng ba se ba kile ba teana le tse ding tsa tsona, ha ba bang ba ka re bona ha ba eso kopane le tsona. Ho a hlokahala kahoo he hore o arabe potso ka nngwe ka botshepehi, ho ya ka maikutlo a hao.

3

2

1

|                   |                  |                  |
|-------------------|------------------|------------------|
| KGAFETSA/HANGATA/ | KA NAKO TSE DING | KA SEWELO/HOHANG |
|-------------------|------------------|------------------|

|         |  |  |
|---------|--|--|
| KAMEHLA |  |  |
|---------|--|--|

Mohlala

Ke ha kae .....

1. O sebedisang mohala (founu) ka nako ya ho phomola?

|                              |                  |                     |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Ka sewelo/ha nke be |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------------|

Jwale etsa geto ka ho sebedisa kahlolo kapa tsebo ya hao hore ke ha kae o sebedisang mohala, ebe o tshwaya e nngwe ya mantswe: kgafetsa/hangata/kamehla/ka sewelo leqepheng la hao. Haeba mohlomong o sebedisa mohala **kgafetsa/hangata/kamehla** ka nako ya hao ya ho phomola, tshwaya **kgafetsa/hangata/kamehla** ka mokgwa wa ho etsa letshwao la **X** ka thoko/pela lentswe leo.

1.1

|                                       |                  |               |
|---------------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla <b>x</b> | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|---------------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

#### HLOKOMELA/ELA HLOKO

1. Nehelana ka karabo e le nngwe potsong ka nngwe.
2. Araba dipotso tsohle. Hlokomela ho araba potso e nngwe le e nngwe sebakeng se nepahetseng leqepheng la hao.

3. Potso tse buang ka batswadi di akaretsa "batswadi" kapa "bahlokamedi".

4. Dipotsong tse ding mantswe a sebedisitsweng ke "mosuwe/morupelli/ mookamedi".

"Mosuwe" o ameha ho barutwana. (pupils)

"Morupelli" o ameha ho baithuti/ (students).

"Mookamedi" o ameha ho batho ba baholo.

5. Hlakola/phumula ka bohleweki ebang o batla ho fetola karabo.

6. Ha ho tekanyetso ya nako empa sebetse ka potlako kamoo ho ka kgonahalang, hobane karabo ya hao ya pele potsong ka nngwe ke yona e tshepahetseng/ya nnete.

KE HA KAE ...

1. O tlola molao oo o dumelang hore o boima haholo?

3

2

1

|                           |                  |               |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|

2. O kopa motho e mong e be moratuwa wa hao/o kopa lerato ho emong?

3

2

1

|                     |                  |               |
|---------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|---------------------|------------------|---------------|

|       |  |  |
|-------|--|--|
| mehla |  |  |
|-------|--|--|

3. O thabela ho bua le batho ba bang?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

4. O leka ho se utlwisi motho e mong bohloko?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

5. O thabelang ho intsha le motho wa mofuta

(botona/botshehadi) o fapaneng le wa hao?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

6. O ikutlwang o sa phuthuloha ha o kena ka tlung e tletseng batho?



3

2

421

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

7. O yeng o nahane ho amohelohile/nepahetse ho qhekanyetsa motho ya kileng a o qhekanyetsa?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

8. O etsang setswalle le motho wa mofuta (sex) o fapaneng le wa hao?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

9. O yeng o etse setswalle se setjha?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

10. O yeng of kopise mosebetsi wa metswalle ya hao  
sekolong/hae?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

11. O yeng o tlohele tseo o di etsang ho ya kopana le motho  
e mong wa mofuta o fapaneng le wa hao?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

12. O yeng o thusi ho hlophisa leeto kapa ho intsha?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

13. O yeng o qobe ho bua hampe/rohakana?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

14. O yeng o leke ho qoba ho kopana le motho eo e seng wa mofuta (sex) wa hao?

3

2

1

|                           |                  |               |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|

15. O yeng o be dihlong ha o na le batho ba bang?

3

2

1

|                           |                  |               |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|

16. O yeng o kgathatsehe ha o entse phoso?

3

2

1

|                           |                  |               |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|

17. O yeng o qobe ho kopana le motho eo e seng wa mofuta wa hao?

3

2

1

|                           |                  |               |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------------|

18. O yeng o phutholohe ha o le moketjaneng?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

19. O yeng o be le maikutlo a reng ho nepahetse hore o etse ntho e thibetsweng?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

20. O yeng o leke ho qoba ho ba tulong/sebakeng se patehileng le motho eo e seng wa mofuta wa hao?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

21. O yeng o rate ho ba mong?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

22. O kileng wa thusa metswalle ya hao ka lekunutu kapa ho ipata dihlahlobong?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

23. O yeng o leke ho ikamahanya le motho wa mofuta oo e seng wa hao ka tswalo?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

24. O yeng o thole mokguping wa ba bang?

3

2

1

|                              |                  |               |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Kgafetsa/hangata/ka<br>mehla | Ka nako tse ding | Sewelo/hohang |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------|

## APPENDIX 5 (b)

STREETWISE : A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY) .

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS. (ADAPTED FROM THE SOCIOBILITY SCALE OF THE PHSF TEST QUESTIONNAIRE)

## INSTRUCTIONS

## (ENGLISH VERSION)

This is a questionnaire and not a test. There are thus no correct or incorrect answers. All the questions are about things which everyone experiences. Some may feel that they always experience certain of these things while others may feel that they have never yet experienced them.

It is therefore necessary that you answer each question honestly according to your own feelings.

Example

How often .....

1. Do you use the telephone in your spare time?

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

Decide, using your own judgement, how often you do this, and mark with an X next to your answer either **almost always/always/often; sometimes; rarely/ never** on your answer sheet. If, for instance, you **always** or **almost always** or **often** use the telephone in your spare time, mark, with **X** **almost always/always/often** in with your pencil :

1.1

|   |           |              |
|---|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often <b>X</b> | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|---|-----------|--------------|

**NOTE**

1. Give only one answer to each question.
2. Answer all the questions. Ensure that you answer each question next to the right number on the answer sheet.
3. Questions referring to your parents imply "parents or guardians".
4. In some questions the words "teacher/lecturer/superior" are used . "Teacher" will be applicable to pupils, "Lecturer" to students and "Superior" to adults.

5. Erase neatly should you wish to alter an answer.
6. There is no time limit but work as quickly as possible because your initial reaction to each question is usually the most reliable.

How often .....

1. Do you break a rule which you regard as unreasonable?

3

2

1

|                               |           |              |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost<br>Always/Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

2. Do you seek affection from someone of the opposite sex?

3

2

1

|                               |           |              |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost<br>Always/Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

3. Do you enjoy talking to people?

3

2

1

|                               |           |              |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost<br>Always/Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|



4. Do you try to avoid hurting someone else?

3

2

1

|                               |           |              |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost<br>Always/Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

5. Do you enjoy going out with someone of the opposite sex?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost/<br>Always/Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

6. Do you feel ill at ease when you enter a room full of people?

3

2

1

|                               |           |              |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost<br>Always/Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

7. Do you feel it is justifiable to cheat someone who has cheated you?

3

2

1

|                               |           |              |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost<br>Always/Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

8. Do you make friends with a member of the opposite sex?

3

2

1

|                               |           |              |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost<br>Always/Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

9. Do you make new friends?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

10. Have you copied homework from your friends at school?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

11. Do you go out of your way to meet someone of the opposite sex?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

12. Do you help to organise a party or outing?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

13. Do you avoid swearing?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

14. Do you try to avoid being alone with someone of the opposite sex?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

15. Are you shy in the company of others?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

16. Does it bother you when you have done wrong?

3

2

1

|                                 |           |              |
|---------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/ Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|---------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

17. Do you try to avoid contact with someone of the opposite sex?

3

2

1

|                                 |           |              |
|---------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/ Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|---------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

18. Are you at ease at a party?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

19. Do you feel that you are justified in doing things that are prohibited?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

20. Do you try to avoid being in a secluded spot alone with someone of the opposite sex?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

21. Would you like to be alone?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

22. Have you secretly helped your friends in a test examination?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

23. Do you try to associate with someone of the opposite sex?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

24. Are you quiet in the company of others?

3

2

1

|                                |           |              |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Almost Always/<br>Always/Often | Sometimes | Rarely/Never |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|

## APPENDIX 6(a)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

SELF-ESTEEM - ROSENBERG SCALE

(SESOTHO VERSION)

Hona ke dipotso e seng hlahlobo. Ka baka leo ha ho na dikarabo tse nepahetseng kapa tse fosahetseng. Dipotso kaofela di amana le tseo bohle re kopanang le tsona bophelong. Tshwaya karabo e tsamaelanang le maikutlo a hao ka ho etsa letshwao X ka "lebokosong" le tsamaelanang le karabo eo o e kgethileng. Kgetha karabo e lenngwe feela bakeng la potso e nngwe le e nngwe.

4. HO DUMELA KA MATLA 3. HO DUMELA 2. HO SE DUMELE 1. HO SE DUMELE O TIILE

1. Ke ikutlwa kele motho wa bohlokwa ho lekana le babang ka boemo.

4 3 2 1

|                    |           |              |                      |
|--------------------|-----------|--------------|----------------------|
| Ho dumela ka matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele o tiile |
|--------------------|-----------|--------------|----------------------|

2. Ke ikutlwa ke na le dintle tse itseng.

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|

R. 3. Bophelong ke ye ke ikutlwe ke le ya hlotsweng.

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|

4. Ke na le bokgoni ba ho etsa dintho jwale ka batho bohle.

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|

R. 5. Ke ikutlwa ke se na tse ngata tseo nkabang motlotlo ka tsona.

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|



6. Ke ipha tjhebeho entle ka bo nna.

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|

7. Ke ikgotsofaletse ka hohle-hohle.

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|

R. 8. Ke lakatsa ha nka itlhompha ho feta.

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|

9. Ke na le nako ya ho ikutlwa ke le ntho feela (sekatana).

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|

10. Nako tse ding ke nahana

hore ha ke a loka hohang.

4

3

2

1

|                       |           |              |                         |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Ho dumela ka<br>matla | Ho dumela | Ho se dumele | Ho se dumele<br>o tiile |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|





|       |  |  |          |
|-------|--|--|----------|
| Agree |  |  | Disagree |
|-------|--|--|----------|

6. I take a positive attitude towards myself.

4                      3                      2                      1

|                   |       |          |                      |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|
| Strongly<br>Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly<br>Disagree |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|

7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

4                      3                      2                      1

|                   |       |          |                      |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|
| Strongly<br>Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly<br>Disagree |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|

R. 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

4                      3                      2                      1

|                   |       |          |                      |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|
| Strongly<br>Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly<br>Disagree |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|

9. I certainly feel useless at times.

4

3

2

1

|                   |       |          |                      |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|
| Strongly<br>Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly<br>Disagree |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|

10. At times I think I am no good at all.

4

3

2

1

|                   |       |          |                      |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|
| Strongly<br>Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly<br>Disagree |
|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|

APPENDIX 7(a)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

HUMAN FIGURE DRAWINGS (HFD) TEST

(Koppitz, 1968)

(SESOTHO VERSION)

DITAELO: Ngola setshwantsho sa motho ofe kapa ofe eo u ka mo ngolang.

APPENDIX 7(b)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

HUMAN FIGURE DRAWINGS (HFD) TEST

(Koppitz, 1968)

INSTRUCTIONS: Draw a picture of a human being, any human you can draw.

## EMOTIONAL INDICATORS OF HUMAN FIGURE DRAWINGS (HFD) (Koppitz 1968)

|                              |                       |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Poor integration          | 16. Big hands         |
| 2. Shading of face           | 17. Hands cut off     |
| 3. Shading of body limbs     | 18. Legs together     |
| 4. Shading of hands and neck | 19. Genitals          |
| 5. Asymmetry of limbs        | 20. Monster/Grotesque |
| 6. Slanting figure           | 21. Three figures     |
| 7. Tiny figure               | 22. Clouds/rain/snow  |
| 8. Big figure                | 23. No eyes           |
| 9. Transparencies            | 24. No nose           |
| 10. Tiny head                | 25. No mouth          |
| 11. Crossed eyes             | 26. No body           |
| 12. Teeth                    | 27. No arms           |
| 13. Short arms               | 28. No legs           |
| 14. Long arms                | 29. No feet           |
| 15. Arms clinging to body    | 30. No neck           |



## APPENDIX 8(a)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

## SATISFACTION WITH LIFE SCALE

(Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985)

## (SESOTHO VERSION)

Dipolelong tsenā tse hlano tse latelang, o ka dumellana le tsona kapa o hanane le tsona. Ha o sebedisa sekala se latelang sa 1-7, tshwaya nomoro e tsamaisanang le maikutlo a hao.

1. = ho se dumele ka matla
2. = ho se dumele
3. = ho se dumele ha nyenyana
4. = ho ba mahareng feela
5. = ho dumela ha nyenyana
6. = ho dumela
7. = ho dumela ka matla

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1. Nakong tse ngata, bophelo ba ka bo tsamaisana le ka moo ke neng ke rerile bophelo ka teng. |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |
| 2. Maemo a bophelo ba ka a ntlafetse haholo.  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |
| 3. Ke kgotofetse ke ka moo bophelo ba ka bo leng ka teng                                      |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |
| 4. Ho fihlele ha jwale, ke fihleletse dintho tseo ke neng ke dibatla bophelong                |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |
| 5. Ebang ke ne ke ka phela bophelo ba ka hape, ha ho letho leo ke neng ke tla le fetola.      |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |

## APPENDIX 8 (b)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

## SATISFACTION WITH LIFE SCALE

(Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985)

## (ENGLISH VERSION)

Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by crossing the appropriate number in line with that item.

1. = strongly disagree
2. = disagree
3. = slightly disagree
4. = neither agree nor disagree
5. = slightly agree
6. = agree
7. strongly agree

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.                     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |
| 2. The conditions of my life are excellent.                       |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |
| 3. I am satisfied with my life.                                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |
| 4. So far I have gotten the most important things I want in life. |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |
| 5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |

## APPENDIX 9(a)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

## AFFECTOMETER

(Kammann, R. & Flett, R., 1983)

## (SESOTHO VERSION)

Lenane-thuto le na le dipolelwana tse 20. Bala polelwana ka nngwe ebe o nahana hore ke ha kae o eba le maikutlo a polelolwaneng eo bakeng sa beke di se kae tse fetileng.

| Hohang | Ka nako tse ding | Maharene | Haholo | Ka nako tsoh |
|--------|------------------|----------|--------|--------------|
| 1      | 2                | 3        | 4      | 5            |

Tshwaya numero ho ya ka maikutlo a hao.

|  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Bophelo ba ka bo tsepame  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Eka nkabe ke na le bokgoni ba ho fetola karolo tse ding tsa ka tsa bophelo. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Bokamoso ba ka bo bonahala bo le botle                                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Ke ikutlwa jwalo ka hoja dilemo tsa ka tse molemo di fetile                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5. Ke a ithata.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Ke ikutlwa eka ho na le se phoso ka nna.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Ke na le bokgoni ba ho rarolla mathata a mang le a mang a hlahellang. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Ke ikutlwa ke le ya holehileng.                                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Ke ikutlwa ke ratwa ebile ke tshetjwa.                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Ke ikutlwa ke silwe ke le mong ka nako eo ke sa batleng.             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Ke ikutlwa ke le haufi-ufi le batho ba mpotapotileng.                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Ha ke na thahasello bathong ba bang etswe ha ke ka kgathalle.        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Ke ikutlwa hore nka etsa se ke se retang.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Bophelo ba ka bo bonahala bo sa tswele pele.                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Ke na le matla a mangata.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Nkeke ka kgathatswa ho etsa eng akpa eng.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Ke tsheha le ho bobosela haholo.                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Ha hona se natefelang.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Ke nahana ka ho hlaka le ka bohlale.                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Mehopolo ya ka e tsamaya ka ho dika-dika ntle le molomo.             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## APPENDIX 9(b)

STREETWISE: A PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE LIVES OF STREET CHILDREN. (IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTEGRATION INTO THE SOCIETY).

## AFFECTOMETER

(Kammann, R. & Flett, R., 1983)

## (ENGLISH VERSION)

This inventory consists of 20 items. Read each sentence and decide how often the feeling was present over the past few weeks, according to the following graded response scale.

| Not at all<br>1 | Occasionally<br>2 | Some of the time<br>3 | Often<br>4 | All the time<br>5 |
|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------------------|
|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------------------|

You are to mark your answer next to each statement as it applies to you. Please answer every statement.

|  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My life is on the right track.              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I wish I could change some part of my life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. My future looks good.                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I feel as though the best years of my life  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| are over.   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 5. I like myself.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I feel there must be something wrong with me.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I can handle any problems that come up.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I feel like a failure.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. I feel loved and trusted.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I seem to be left alone when I don't want to be.                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I feel close to people around me.                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. I have lost interest in other people and I don't care about them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I feel I can do whatever I want.                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. My life seems stuck in a rut.                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I have energy to spare.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. I can't be bothered doing anything.                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. I smile and laugh a lot.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Nothing seems very much fun any more.                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. I think clearly and creatively.                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. My thoughts go round in useless circles                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |