UNDERSTANDING STREETISM FROM THE STREET CHILDREN’S PERSPECTIVE: A QUALITATIVE STUDY

BY

GLADYS NOMUSA MASHICOLO

BA ED; B.ED Hons.

A dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER EDUCATIONIS

In

Educational Psychology

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY

(VAAL TRIANGLE CAMPUS)

SUPERVISOR: DR M.J. MALINDI (CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY-WELKOM)

CO-SUPERVISOR: DR T.J. MAKHALEMELE (NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY-VAAL TRIANGLE CAMPUS)

2016
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

- I give glory to God Almighty, who provided me with strength, wisdom and patience to succeed in this study.
- My supervisors, Dr Macalane Junel Malindi and Dr Thabo Jan Makhalemele, thank you very much for all your guidance, great supervision and expertise which made this study a success. God bless you.
- To the following people, thank you very much:
  - My dear husband, for encouraging me and giving me undoubted support. Enkosi Jola!
  - My wonderful parents, Mr Mbuyiselwa and Mrs Mathabo Msibi, who believe in me and are always there for me.
  - My children, Mfuzo, Londeka, Sigqibo and Nyuleka. You are the best – all of you! You ensured that things were going at home well while I was busy with my research. Ukuzala ukuzelula.
  - My dear friend, Thoko, for encouragements regarding this study.
  - My colleague and study mate Lineo Molahlehi and her son, Reabetswe, thank you for your contributions.
  - The care giver, staff and participants of the drop-in-centre, thank you all.
  - My colleagues, Ms Amohelang Thene and Mr Mphana, am gratefull for everything you assisted me with.
  - To the librarian of North-West University, Mr Danny Moloto, and all the staff – thank you for all your assistance.
  - Last, but not least, I extend my gratitude to Khomotso Bopape of Let’s Edit (Pty) Ltd for having done an excellent job by editing this work.

GOD BLESS YOU ALL!!!
SUMMARY

Streetism is a worldwide phenomenon. A number of studies have been conducted on streetism and street children yet little is known about the views of street children on streetism. Studies that focused on streetism explored what adults said about streetism, and not what street children said. This is where I located my study. The aim of my study was to understand streetism from the street children’s perspectives.

This study was qualitative in nature and the draw-and-write technique was used to collect data. The draw-and-write technique involves the use of drawings accompanied by narratives that explain the drawing. The study involved 12 boys and 12 girls classified as children-on-the-street. Children-on-the-street typically “work” on the streets and return home in the evenings. I asked them to make drawings that depicted streetism and to write narratives in which they explained their drawings.

After a thorough examination of the drawings and the narratives, the following themes were derived: street children were dealing with loss or the death of loved ones; they were experiencing lack of safety and security in their communities; they were experiencing violence and abuse in their families; they had future hopes, which help them cope with poverty; and they had religious faith. The literature that I studied mentioned some of the foregoing themes as risk factors to streetism, and some are referred to as resilience resources. To the participants, streetism entailed risk and a measure of well-being.

Therefore, these findings contribute to theory and practice. The findings also suggest future research opportunities. Government, schools, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO), communities, psychologists and social workers can use these findings to help children at risk.

Keywords: Resilience; Risks; Protective Factors; Vulnerability; Streetism; Street Children
DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this study, Understanding streetism from the street children’s perspective: a qualitative study, is my own and original. I further declare that all the sources used in this study have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Gladys Nomusa Mashicolo

03 May 2016

Date
DECLARATION BY LANGUAGE EDITOR

15 May 2015

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

DECLARATION: LANGUAGE EDITING of MEd Dissertation

I hereby declare that I have edited the Magister Educationis in Educational Psychology dissertation of GLADYS NOMUSA MASHICOLO entitled "UNDERSTANDING STREETISM FROM THE STREET CHILDREN’S PERSPECTIVE: A QUALITATIVE STUDY" and found the written work to be free of ambiguity and obvious errors. It is the final responsibility of the student to make sure of the correctness of the dissertation.

Khomotso Bopape

Full Member of the Professional Editors’ Group

Address: P.O. Box 40208, Arcadia, Pretoria, 0007
Tel No: 012 753 3670, Fax No: 086 367 3164 and Email Address: khomotso@letsedit.co.za
# TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER ONE .......................................................................................................................... 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION .................................................................................................................. 1 

1.2 BACKGROUND .................................................................................................................. 1 

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT .................................................................................................... 4 

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION .................................................................................................... 4 

1.4.1 Secondary questions .................................................................................................. 5 

1.5 AIM ..................................................................................................................................... 5 

1.5.1 Objectives .................................................................................................................... 5 

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ......................................................................................... 6 

1.6.1 Conceptual framework ............................................................................................... 6 

1.6.2 Research paradigm .................................................................................................... 12 

1.6.3 Research design ......................................................................................................... 13 

1.7 STRATEGY OF ENQUIRY ............................................................................................... 14 

1.8 PARTICIPATION SELECTION .......................................................................................... 14 

1.9 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES ............................................................................... 15 

1.9.1 Data collection process ............................................................................................. 16 

1.9.2 Role of the researcher ............................................................................................... 17
2.10 HISTORICAL STUDY OF RESILIENCE ...............................................................53
2.11 RESILIENCE RISKS ..................................................................................54
2.12 PROTECTIVE RESOURCES .........................................................................56
2.13 RESILIENCE IN STREET CHILDREN ..........................................................62
2.14 ENHANCING RESILIENCE .........................................................................64
2.15 CONCLUSION ............................................................................................67

CHAPTER THREE ..............................................................................................68
3.1 INTRODUCTION ..........................................................................................68
3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM ..............................................................................69
3.3 RESEARCH METHOD ..................................................................................71
3.4 STRATEGY OF ENQUIRY ..........................................................................73
3.5 PARTICIPANTS SELECTION ........................................................................74
3.6 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES ..............................................................74
3.7 DATA ANALYSIS .........................................................................................76
3.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS ..................................................................................78
3.8.1 Credibility ..............................................................................................78
3.8.2 Transferability .........................................................................................79
3.8.3 Dependability .........................................................................................79
3.8.4 Confirmability .........................................................................................79
4.3.3. The participants witnessed and experienced domestic violence

and abuse ........................................................................................................95

4.3.4. The participants had hopes for the future ........................................107

4.3.5. The participants adhered to religious faith .....................................110

4.4. CONCLUSION ..................................................................................117

CHAPTER FIVE ........................................................................................118

5.1 INTRODUCTION .............................................................................118

5.2 THE AIM REVISITED .....................................................................118

5.3 CONCLUSIONS FROM LITERATURE STUDY .............................119

5.3.1 Exploring streetism .......................................................................119

5.3.2 Exploring the resilience phenomenon .......................................121

5.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION FROM EMPIRICAL STUDY ....122

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE ......................................123

5.6 CONTRIBUTION TO THE STUDY ...............................................124

5.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY ......................................................125

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH ..................125

5.9 CONCLUSION ................................................................................126

REFERENCES ......................................................................................127
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Themes for Chapter Two .................................................................6

Table 2.1: Expressions that were used to refer to street children in different
countries ..................................................................................................29

Table 2.2: The causes of streetism .................................................................33

Table 2.3: Summary of children’s rights as stated by Kids Report ..............37

Table 4.1: Demographic information of participants ..................................88

Table 4.2: A summary of main themes and sub-themes of this study ..........117

Table 5.1: Aims of the study .....................................................................119
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Contextual factors leading to streetism in Latin America ..................46

Figure 3.1: Layout of Chapter 3.................................................................................68
Figure 4.1: Layout of Chapter 4.................................................................................86
Figure 4.2 Drawing by Alusha..................................................................................89
Figure 4.3. Drawing by Stephany.............................................................................90
Figure 4.4. Drawing by Loyiso..................................................................................91
Figure 4.5. Drawing by Daniella...............................................................................92
Figure 4.6 Drawing by Peter.................................................................................94
Figure 4.7. Drawing by Selepe..............................................................................95
Figure 4.8. Drawing by Ina...................................................................................96
Figure 4.9. Drawing by Hennie.............................................................................97
Figure 4.10. Drawing by Jane................................................................................98
Figure 4.11 Drawing by Puleng...........................................................................99
Figure 4.12 Drawing by Ratu..............................................................................100
Figure 4.13 Drawing by Tumelo.........................................................................101
Figure 4.14 Drawing by Ofentshe........................................................................102
Figure 4.15 Drawing by Noni.............................................................................103
Figure 4.16 The first drawing by Hope.................................................................104
Figure 4.17 The second drawing by Hope.................................................................105
Figure 4.18 Drawing by Moeketsi.................................................................106
Figure 4.19 Drawing by Qhubeka.................................................................107
Figure 4.20 Drawing by Morena.................................................................108
Figure 4.21 Drawing by Sello.................................................................109
Figure 4.22 Drawing by Phehello.................................................................110
Figure 4.23 Drawing by Muva.................................................................111
Figure 4.24 Drawing by Texeria.................................................................112
Figure 4.25 Drawing by Moleboheng.................................................................113
Figure 4.26 Drawing by Thato.................................................................114
**LIST OF APPENDICES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APPENDIX</th>
<th>TITLE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX A</td>
<td>PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH AT DROP-IN-CENTRE</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX B</td>
<td>LETTER TO PARENT/ GUARDIAN/ CARE-GIVER</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX C</td>
<td>CONSENT FORM – CHILDREN</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX D</td>
<td>DRAWING BRIEF</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX E</td>
<td>ETHICS CLEARANCE APPROVED- UNIVERSITY</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the orientation to the study by explaining the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the research question and the aim of the study. The research methodology, the strategy of enquiry that was used when this study was conducted, the selection of participants, data collection, data analysis, trustworthiness, ethical issues as well as proposed layout of the study will also be discussed in this chapter.

1.2 BACKGROUND

Many studies have been conducted on street children and the phenomenon of streetism, yet street children remain a least understood group of at-risk children. The studies that were conducted focusing on street children and what street life entails did not incorporate the views of street children and how they understood streetism. This resulted in a skewed understanding of streetism, since study after study used adults as proxies. Despite the preceding assertions, the studies referred to provide useful information about the phenomenon of streetism. Many of these studies have confirmed that streetism is a growing contemporary problem worldwide (Le Roux, 1996:3; Vogel, 2001:230). Other researchers have attempted to define a street child, describe streetism, outline the causal factors of streetism, suggest interventions for preventing streetism, and deal with children who were affected by it.

2003a:12). While the earlier studies reveal that street children are mostly male, vulnerable, helpless and in need of care and support (Le Roux, 1996:2), a recent study points out that there is a difference between developed countries and developing countries concerning the issue of gender (Adeyemi, 2012:41). The studies reveal that there are more female among street children than males (Malindi, 2014:37; Ataöv, 2006:137).

The general public usually has a low perception of street children as they view them as “a shadowy presence that fills the background daily life doing odd jobs scavenging for food, begging and stealing” (Lalor, Taylor, Veale, Hussein Ali & Elimi Bhushra, 2002:344). Some members of the public have fear towards street children and they perceive them as antisocial delinquents, robbers and criminals (Idemudia, Kgokong & Kolobe, 2013:162; Kiros, 2016:216). This misperception results in the street children being harassed instead of being supported and protected.

The main observation of earlier street child studies is that street children can be categorised as children-on-the-street, children-of-the-street and street children in places of safety and shelters (Altanis & Goddard, 2004:300; Ayuku, Kaplan, Baars & Devries, 2004:25; Panter-Brick, 2002:149; Pare, 2004:220; Sauvé, 2003). Children-on-the-street are described as those children who are involved in activities such as working or going to school and return back to their homes at the end of the day while children-of-the-street participate fully in street life (Samuel, 2014:167). They may maintain their contact with their families but the street is their home. Children who are involved in rummaging and picking rubbish in addition to spending time on the streets are also called street children (Panter-Brick, 2002:149; Terrio, 2004:15; Van Rooyen & Hartell, 2002:191; West, 2003:10; Youth Zone, 2005). The study therefore seeks to investigate children-on-the-street who return back to their families after engaging themselves in activities such as working and going to school. These children usually visit the drop-in-centre in the afternoons with the purpose of getting food and some training.
The research shows that it is universally agreed that the street child population is highly heterogeneous contrary to what the term street children suggests (Panter-Brick, 2002:149). This heterogeneity results from different circumstances and life-style the street children experience (Panter-Brick, 2002:149; Panter-Brick, 2004:84). Furthermore, Panter-Brick (2002) alluded that it does not correspond to the ways many children relate their own experiences or to the reality of their movements on and off the street. Moreover, earlier studies show that the term street child cannot be defined satisfactorily because it is derogatory and loaded with emotional undertones (Guernina, 2004:100; Schurink, 1994:6; West, 2003:2).

Several reasons have been suggested for the constant migration of children to the streets. These reasons include family violence, abuse, parental alcoholism, poverty, and parental mortality due to HIV and AIDS (Evans, 2005:125; Human & Thomas, 2008:206; Vogel, 2001:205; Le Roux, 1996:2).

Furthermore, street children have been confirmed to be children who subsist in environments that pose several risks that can compromise their resilience. These risks include sexual assaults (boys and girls), theft, beatings and lack of security, extensive abuse at the hands of public authorities, and sodomy (Lalor, Taylor, Veale, Hussein Ali & Elim Bushra, 2001:344; Vogel, 2001:246).

Street children are exposed to a very dangerous and risky life, and they are therefore considered to be a psychosocially vulnerable group of children who are not coping resiliently (Lalor et al., 2001:343). However, various studies found that some street children tend to demonstrate resilience despite the risks that they are exposed to (Malindi, 2009:4; Malindi & Theron, 2010:318; Theron & Malindi, 2010:732-733; Kombarakaran, 2004:869). The findings of these studies call into question the commonly held views that these children are helpless individuals that need rescuing from the streets. It is important to note that these views are based on what adults said about street children and not what street children said. It is therefore important for researchers to find out more about the life-worlds of street children. This will enhance
the understanding of streetism from the perspective of street children themselves as well as how they resile in the daily life experiences. It was clear that streetism phenomenon should be studied together with resilience as street children display the characteristics of resilience (Speakman, 2005:40; Kombarakaran, 2004:869)

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The studies that were conducted on street children and streetism have broadened people’s knowledge about the phenomenon of streetism and the resilience of street children. These studies have informed the understanding of what street life entails and how street children cope (Benard, 2006:198; Mastern, 2003:171; Brooks, 2006:69; Malindi, 2009:149). However, in most of these studies, the voices of street children were not heard. Consequently, streetism is understood from the adultist perspective of what constitutes risk and vulnerability among them as well as the children’s needs (Ennew, 2003; Driessnack, 2005:416). The views of adults concerning street children have been criticised as weak and incompetent (Boyden, 2003:18). This is what constitutes the heart of this study. It would be useful to understand streetism from the perspective of street children themselves.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION

The central question that the study sought to answer was the following:

*How do street children understand streetism?*

My intention was to conduct an exploratory qualitative study in order to understand streetism or street life from the perspective of street children. The study focused on street children and what their daily experiences were, in order to paint a picture of what streetism entails, i.e. from the perspective of street children themselves. The following are the secondary questions for this study:
1.4.1. Secondary questions

- What is the meaning of streetism
- What are the risks that cause streetism?
- How is resilience among street children?
- What are the risks and resources of resilience in street children?
- What streetism entails according to street children?

1.5  AIM

The aim of the study was to explore how street children understood streetism.

1.5.1  Objectives

The objectives of this study are mainly to:

- explore the phenomenon of streetism
- outline the risks that cause streetism
- explore the phenomenon of resilience among street children
- outline the risks to resilience and the resources
- Investigate what streetism entails according to street children
- Come up with recommendations to prevent streetism and assist street children
1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was divided into two phases. The first phase was done by means of literature study. In this phase, I consulted the library and internet in order to obtain relevant literature. Tables below contain the themes that were gleaned from literature.

1.6.1 Conceptual framework

Table 1.1: Themes for Chapter 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEMES</th>
<th>SOURCES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The concept of streetism</td>
<td>• Altanis and Goddard (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Ayuku, Kaplan, Baars and De Vries (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Barrette (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Boakye-Boaten (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Bhukkuth and Ballet (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Cheng and Lem (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Ennew (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Human and Thomas (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Kok, Cross and Roux (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Le Roux (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Malindi (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Panter-Brick (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Panter-Brick (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Pare (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sauvé (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for streetism</td>
<td>Alenoma (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human and Thomas (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kiros (2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raffaeli, Koller, Rappold, Kuschick, Krum and Bandeira (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ward and Seagar (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>West (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kiros (2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kok, Cross and Roax (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malindi (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Samuel (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sauma (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Van Baalen (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Van Blerk (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ward and Seagar (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cockburn (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kids Report (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lefeh (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Le Roux (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Samuel (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Van Baalen (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Van Blerk (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street children in South Africa</td>
<td>Bukuth and Ballett (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Idemudia, Kgokong and Kolobe (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lefeh (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Le Roux (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moopa, Idemudia and Ofenedu (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perez and Salazar (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Van Blerk (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Van Eeden (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Van Jaarsveld, Vermaak and Van Rooyen (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vogel (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ward and Seager (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Outlook on Streetism</td>
<td>Ali and Muynck (2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charma (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contini and Hulme (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grundling, Jager and Faurie (2004)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Interventions for preventing *streetism*. | Anarfi (1997)  
| De Moura (2005)  
| Dybics (2005)  
| Kudrati, Plummer and Yousif (2008)  
| Ouma (2004)  
| Vogel (2001)  
| Ward and Seager (2010) |
| Resilience conceptualised | Brooks (2006)  
| Daas-Brailsford (2005)  
| Henley (2010)  
| Mampane and Bouwer (1999)  
| Mastern (2003)  
| Masten and Obravodic (2008)  
<p>| Noltemeyer and Bush (2013) |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Risks that compromise street children’s resilience</td>
<td>• Lalor, Taylor, Vaele, Hussein Ali and Elamin Bushra (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Malindi (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Noltemeyer and Bush (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Vogel (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street children demonstrate hidden resilience in</td>
<td>• Anarfi (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their street context</td>
<td>• Charma (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• De Benetez (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Kombarakaran (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Kruger and Prinsloo (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Lalor, Taylor, Vaele, Hussein-Ali and Elamin-Bushra (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Orme and Seipel (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Panter-Brick (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Malindi (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Theron (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Zarezadeh (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective resources that promote resilience in</td>
<td>• Bernard (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>children</td>
<td>• Bernard (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Bogar and Hulse-Killacky (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Brooks (2006)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- Chorley (2010)
- Henley (2010)
- Jackie (2004)
- Kruger and Prinsloo (2008)
- Malindi (2009)
- Malindi and Machenjendze (2012)
- Mampane and Bouwer (2006)
- Theron (2007)
- Theron, Lienberg and Malindi (2014)
- Theron and Malindi (2010)
- Sanders and Munford (2015)
- Vanderplaat (2015)
- Zarezadeh (2013)

**Resilience enhanced**

- Ataöv & Haider (2006)
- Bernard (2006)
- Brooks (2006)
- DeBenitez (2007)
- Henley (2010)
- Kruger and Prinsloo (2008)
- Malindi (2009)
- McAdams-Crisp (2006)
The second phase was empirical study. This study was guided by a paradigm and a method that was selected specifically to respond to the research questions. Below is the discussion of the research paradigm.

1.6.2 Research paradigm

According to Niewenhuis (2010:47-48) a paradigm is a collection of assumptions or scientific beliefs about important aspects of reality. Taber (2013:288) argue that paradigm generate a brief guideline of how research is conducted, what strategy to select as well as selecting the appropriate data collection techniques and data analysis methods.

This study was based on the interpretivist paradigm perspective that accepts that access to existing reality can be achieved through culturally specific mechanisms such as language consciousness and meanings that people share in a particular context (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:59; Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004:21). Interpretivists hold views that reality is built by people as social actors and their experiences of that reality (Wahyuni, 2012:69; Goldkuhl, 2012:6). According to Allen-Collinson (2012:1), interpretivists also assume that there is no reality outside of people’s social construction, and therefore, the researcher and the researched mutually influence and co-construct data, which is thus understood through an interpretation process (Goldkuhl, 2012:6). Both interpretivism and qualitative research aim to understand the life-worlds through the meanings and understandings of participants in context (Allen-
Collinson, 2012:1). In this study the meaning of streetism and resilience phenomena were both understood through meanings that street children assigned to them (Fouché & Schurink, 2011:309).

1.6.3 Research design

It was mentioned earlier that this study was based on the qualitative research approach. The qualitative researchers are concerned with understanding rather than explanation (Fouché & Schurink, 2011:308). The best way to understand the phenomenon in qualitative research method is to interact with and observe the participants in their natural environment (Krauss, 2005:759; Nieuwenhuis, 2010). The complex worlds of human experience and behaviour is investigated and understood from the participants’ point of view (Krauss, 2005:764). In this regard, the in-depth analysis is ensured to deal with apparently contradictory data and give insight into the perspectives of the participants (Griffin, 2004:3). The qualitative researchers therefore facilitate the meaning–making process because they have power to be transformative learning tools through their ability to generate new levels and forms of meaning (Krauss, 2005:764). Qualitative research has its strengths as well as limitations or challenges. Some of the challenges highlighted by Leedy and Ormrod (2010:136) are that qualitative researchers may experience difficulty to identify the exact method they will use due to open-ended questions they should ask participants. The afore mentioned challenge may lead to the study evolving over the course of research which may be time consuming (Griffin, 2004:3; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:136). Other limitations as mentioned by Griffin (2004:3) are that qualitative research are expensive, relies on the relatively small participants and reluctant to be taken seriously by academics, practitioners and policy-makers. The research experience I obtained from my prior degree of qualification as well as the good supervision prepared me to do thorough planning and preparations for my study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:136).

In this phase, I conducted a qualitative research study in order to understand the phenomenon of streetism from the street-involved children’s perspective. My aim was to
produce credible and unique knowledge about street life that street children experience in their context (Wahyuni, 2012:78). Qualitative research was the most suitable mode of enquiry for this study, since I was not interested in quantifying street children’s experiences and generalising the findings to their contexts as it is the case in quantitative research (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:51).

1.7 STRATEGY OF ENQUIRY

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:141), Creswell (2009:13), Lodico, Spaulding and Voegtle (2010:166) identified five qualitative research designs that researchers can choose from when conducting the study and the designs include case study, ethnography, phenomenological study, grounded theory study and content analysis research design. The strategy of enquiry used in this study is phenomenology.

Phenomenology can be defined as a strategy in which the researcher highlights the nature of human experiences about a phenomenon which is experienced or lived by the participants (Creswell, 2009:13). A phenomenological study is explained as a study that seeks to understand people’s perceptions, perspectives, and understanding about a certain situation (Delport, Fouché & Schurink, 2011:305; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:141). Phenomenological study was therefore suitable for this study as it aims to understand the life experiences of street children.

1.8 PARTICIPATION SELECTION

The process used to select the portion of the population for a study is called sampling (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:79). Sampling is very important when conducting a research because it is impossible for researchers to study the whole population. A small presentation of a whole should therefore be carefully selected (Fouché & Delport, 2011:73). Sampling procedure is composed of two groups, which are probability and non-probability and qualitative researchers mainly focus on non-probability sampling method (Strydom, 2011:228).
Non-probability sampling includes the following types; theoretical, deviant, sequential, purposive, snowball, case, volunteer sampling as well as key informant (Strydom & Delport, 2011:392). Purposive sampling was suitable for this study as I selected the participants according to their defining characteristics of street children (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:79). According to Driessnack (2006:416), interest is growing in engaging children as actors in their own right in studies, using participatory methods of gathering data such as drawings. This study therefore used a detailed reading or examination of street children’s drawings and narratives to get inside their viewpoints as a whole and then develop a deep understanding of the concept of streetism and their resilience (Henning, Van Rensberg & Smit 2007:20).

The participants were composed of girls (n=12) and boys (n=12) who are between the ages of 12 and 18. They were categorised as children-on-the-street who typically had street life experiences during the day and return to their families at night. They attended schools during the day, and then visit the drop-in-centre where they were provided with food and life skills lessons. They were between Grade 6 and Grade 9. Strydom and Delport (2011:392) emphasise that when purposive sampling is used, the judgment of the researcher plays a crucial role. They furthermore emphasised the importance of the researcher selecting the sample that have attributes that are typical of the traits of the targeted population so as to generate reliable and trustworthy findings.

1.9 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

The draw-and-write technique was used in order to collect data (Driessnack, 2006:416). The draw-and-write technique involves the use of drawings and narrative s as data collection strategies. Drawings and narratives were suitable for this study as data collection strategies, since the participants had low literacy levels.

Ennew (2003) argued that in research, children are rarely asked about their feelings and needs. Instead, adults are used as proxies in studies that should ideally study children directly (Driessnack, 2006:416). Ennew (2003) emphasised that drawings enable children to air their views, since they are child-friendly and less intrusive.
Drawing and writing are natural activities for children. In this study, the participants were provided with two pieces of paper. In one piece of paper, they were asked to each make drawings that depicted their lived experiences. On the other paper, they were asked to explain their drawings in their own words. How the participants drew was not important. The narrative descriptions assisted in the process of interpreting the drawings of the participants.

Participants were allowed to use their own language. All the participants were South Sotho speakers since the research was conducted in the drop-in-centre which is situated in Eastern Free State where majority of residents are Southern Sotho speakers. Some of the participants decided to explain their drawings in English and some explained in Southern Sotho. As a person who can speak most of the African languages, it was easy for me to translate what participants said in their mother tongues to English. The participants spent between 15 to 25 minutes on the drawings and narratives.

1.9.1-Data collection process

According to Creswell (2009:178), the data collection process involves setting the border lines for the study; collecting information through observations, interviews, documents or visual materials and lastly creating the protocol for the recording of information. In this study I aligned myself with Creswell (2009:178-183) throughout the data collection process and the following was used:

- To generate the empirical data, I had to purposefully select a site in which the research took place. Qualitative researchers aim at collecting data from participants within the environment that they experience the situation. Therefore I met with the participants in their natural setting (Creswell, 2009:175), which in this case was a drop-in-centre in Eastern Free State, where they assemble in afternoons to be provided with food and life skills lessons after school. This centre is situated in Eastern Free State and is owned by a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO). The area itself is characterised by poverty and has RDP
houses. The drop-in-centre uses old church buildings for preparing food for street children as well giving them lessons. The building where the study was conducted was a three roomed house, where one room was used as an office of the caregiver, and the other two rooms were used for motivating and teaching children life skills lessons. The room was furnished with plastic chairs and big tables. I therefore met the participant after school to avoid causing any interference with their school work.

- The brief that consists of two pages for drawing and narrative was given to each of the participants. The first page of the brief sought the participants to draw what they think streetism entails to them and in the second page, the participants were asked to explain what they have drawn. After the session I thanked all the participants and the drop-in-centre workers for the time spent during the draw and write session.

- I was aware that the qualitative research design was emergent and that when entering the research field to collect data, the phases and process in the initial plan might change (Creswell, 2009:175-176). Chapter 3 explains in details how data collection took place when this research was conducted.

1.9.2 Role of the researcher

Lichtman (2013:25) argue that the researcher’s role is very important when it comes to qualitative research and Nieuwenhuis (2010:79) maintains that he or she acts as a key instrument in conducting the research. After handing briefs to the participants, I loudly read through the instructions which were written in English and explained to them in the language that they understood better, which is Sotho and thus acted as a passage through which information was gathered and filtered.

In line with Lichtman (2013:25), it was vitally important that I understood the problem, issues and procedures as that was my main roles. Acting as the key instrument in collecting data, I brought my own personal values, assumptions, experiences and knowledge about the phenomenon into the study (Creswell, 2009:196). This was more
of an advantage than a disadvantage because it allowed me to recognise more readily what the participant meant (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:335). Experiences, knowledge and factors might have influenced my understanding and the way I collected and interpreted data. I tried my best to ensure objectivity (Creswell, 2009:196) by allowing another researcher with a similar topic to code my data. This coder developed codes and categories which were then compared to my own codes and categories as highlighted by Nieuwenhuis (2010:114). Any biases that were brought to the study were clarified and the strategies that were used to counteract those biases were communicated and indicated (Creswell, 2009:192). This self-reflection, according to Creswell (2009:192) created an open and honest study.

Working as an educator in a public secondary school in Sasolburg, I was exposed to many street children who are wandering in Sasolburg town begging for food, searching the dustbins for leftovers, standing in the robots and four way stops begging for money and also loitering the dumping sites looking for food, old clothes and residing there in plastic houses. Others are visible in parking areas where they help drivers to park their cars so that they get some cents. Most of educators treat street children very harsh, call them with nasty names and chase them away like dogs when they ask for money and food. Educators are only focusing on capable learners and ignore street children who are in need of love and care. This is how I developed an interest in the children-on-the-street and their resilience.

1.10 DATA ANALYSIS

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:152), there are several ways of analysing qualitative research data. In this study, I chose to use content analysis in order to process the narratives. I repeatedly read the narratives and put them into broad categories. I then applied open and axial coding strategies (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:101) so as to generate codes from the narratives and street children’s drawings. In open coding, data are divided into segments and then examined carefully to identify common themes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:143). Furthermore, Leedy and Ormrod (2010:143) highlight that
this process aims to reduce data into themes or categories that describe the phenomenon that is studied. After conducting an open coding, interconnections are therefore made among the themes to determine more about each theme, and that process is called axial coding. The coding process was repeated by another researcher who conducted a research with a topic that is similar to mine in order to compare the codes I came up with and also to ensure confirmability.

The following guidelines, as outlined by Schurink, Fouché and De Vos (2011:402-403), were ensured in the process of data analysis:

- Drawings were studied and analysed to capture participants’ life experiences.
- Narrative descriptions were studied and compared with the participants’ drawings.
- Studied data was grouped according to identified themes or topics.
- Data was then analysed according to the regularly appearing findings through the research process.

In summary, these steps enabled me to generate codes that I grouped in order to develop themes and sub-themes. The themes and sub-themes were analysed.

1.11 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness is very important in the research because every study is evaluated in terms of procedures used to generate findings (Graneheim & Lundman, 2003:109). There are differences in the use of concepts for describing trustworthiness in qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. For example, reliability and validity as part of quantitative research relate to credibility and trustworthiness in qualitative research (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:80). The qualitative research, therefore, uses the following criteria to evaluate trustworthiness: credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability (Schurink et al., 2011:419; Shenton, 2004:64).
1.11.1 Credibility

Credibility in qualitative research refers to processes that are aimed at ensuring that the findings of a study are believable. These processes would include peer debriefing and referential adequacy (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:277). Moreover, frequent debriefing sessions between a researcher and his/her superiors are required in addition to member checking whereby the researcher verifies his/her understanding of what he/she has observed with those observed (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:86). Chapter 3 elaborates further on this aspect.

1.11.2 Transferability

In a qualitative study, the researcher ensures that the findings of a study that was conducted in a particular setting could be transferred to another (Schurink et al., 2011:420). The researcher, therefore, needs to refer to the original framework for data collection and analysis in order to avoid too much generalisation (Schurink et al., 2011:420). Data collection methods, the length of data collection sessions and the number of participants determine whether or not the cases stated can be transferred to other settings (Shenton, 2004:70). More details on how transferability was ensured in this study are provided in Chapter 3.

1.11.3 Dependability

Dependability refers to how logical, well documented and audited a research process is (Schurink et al., 2011:420). In order to ensure that dependability is achieved, the research processes followed within the study must be explained in greater detail in order to make it possible for a future researcher to replicate the current study, if a need arises (Shenton, 2004:71). This may verify and strengthen the arguments made by the previous researcher. In Chapter 3, details with respect to how I ensured dependability in this study are provided.
1.11.4 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the extent to which the results of a particular study could be supported by others following similar studies in other contexts (Schurink et al., 2011:421). According to Kumar (2014:219), confirmability is only possible if researchers follow the process in an identical manner for the results to be compared. Chapter 3 discusses how trustworthiness was ensured in this study.

1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Researchers such as Strydom (2011:114) see ethics as moral principles that are adhered to individuals or groups, that specify rules and expected behavioural patterns in relation to the most correct conduct towards research participants and respondents, a sponsor, an employer, research assistants, researchers and students. Ethical considerations should be highlighted regarding research in order to guarantee processes such as the confidentiality of the findings or results of a study as well as the protection of the identities of the participants (Maree & Westhuizen, 2010:41). It is therefore the responsibility of the researcher to take care of the participants, himself/herself and other researchers (Allen-Collins, 2012:1). In this study I ensured the below ethical issues as prescribed by various authors (Strydom, 2011:115-126; Babbie, 2011:478-487; Kumar, 2014:284-289; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:101-102).

1.12.1 Avoidance of harm

The researcher needs to examine carefully if participants’ involvement in the study is likely to harm them in any way (physically, psychologically or emotionally) (Kumar, 2014:286; Strydom, 2011:115; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:101). If the study involves creating any discomfort, the participants should be informed about it ahead of time, and any debriefing and counselling should, therefore, follow after the session (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:101). I explained further how avoidance of harm was sought in this study in Chapter 3.
1.12.2 Voluntary participation

When the study is conducted, the participants should be notified at the outset that their participation is completely voluntary (Babbie, 2011:478; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:101). I explained further how voluntary participation was sought in this study in Chapter 3.

1.12.3 Informed consent

Giving informed consent involves informing participants fully about the research that they will participate in, and assuring them that their privacy will be respected and protected and what is going to happen to the information after it has been recorded (Henning et al., 2004:73). The consent letter or form which was pre-drafted by me was issued to the participants and it was accompanied by the letter in which the organisation agreed to the use of their resources (Henning et al., 2004:73; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:102). I explained further how informed concern was sought in Chapter 3.

1.12.4 Deception of the subject and/or respondents

Participants can be misled by the researcher through misinterpreting facts, withholding information or deceiving them either verbally or in writing (Strydom, 2011:118). Deceiving people in the research is unethical (Babbie, 2011:485). In chapter 3 I explain in more detail how this aspect applied to the study.

1.12.5 Violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality

Privacy can be guaranteed in a research project by making an agreement with the participants to limit others access to their private information (Strydom, 2011:119). Anonymity is guaranteed by ensuring that neither the researchers nor the readers will be able to connect given responses with particular respondents, while confidentiality ensures that although the researcher could connect a particular response to a particular respondent, the respondent or participant is sure that his or her name will be withheld (Babbie, 2011:482). Participants’ privacy, anonymity and confidentiality should not be
violated when the study is conducted. How privacy, anonymity and confidentiality were ensured in this study will be explained in more details in chapter 3.

1.12.6 Compensation

Some researchers provide incentives to participants for their participation in the study to show appreciation to them for their time (Kumar, 2014:285). Participants can be compensated financially or be given food parcels, but there is nothing unethical about it, as long as the participants are given incentives after the research study and it is ensured that the incentives are not the only reason participants take part in the study (Strydom, 2011:121). In this study, no participant was compensated. More details will appear in Chapter 3.

1.12.7 Debriefing of the participants

Debriefing refers to the interviews conducted by the researcher with the participants in order to learn about the problems caused by participation in a study so that the problems can be dealt with (Babbie, 2011:486). I involved someone who is more qualified and knowledgeable than me to conduct a debriefing session with the participants. I explained further how debriefing of the participants was ensured in chapter 3.

1.12.8 Actions and competence of the researchers

Researchers are expected to ensure that they have competencies, honesty and research capabilities when they conduct research involving humans as research subjects (Strydom, 2011:123). More details about this aspect appear in Chapter 3.

1.12.9 Cooperation with contributors and sponsors

Sometimes, a colleague or student may assist when a study is conducted, and some studies are commissioned and sponsored by organisations that have vested interests in the findings (Strydom, 2011:124). In this study, I did not enlist help from any other
student in collecting data. No sponsors funded this study. More details about cooperation with contributors and sponsors will be discussed further in chapter 3.

1.12.10 Publication of the findings

The findings of the research activities must be disseminated to interested parties who may find them useful through articles, books and presenting in conferences. Additionally, a researcher has an obligation of ensuring that the research was done correctly and without any deception (Strydom, 2011:126). The researcher should also ensure that the information collected for the study is not used in a way that will harm the participants directly or indirectly (Kumar, 2014:288). More explanation about publications of the findings in this study will be discussed in Chapter 3.

1.13 DEFINITION OF CONCEPT

1.13.1 Streetism

Streetism denotes street life. Therefore streetism refers to street-living and ways of coping and surviving on the streets (Ennew, 2003). Streetism is characterised by risk and diversity that may impair positive growth and development in children. It entails spending most of time in the streets, being deprived of the basic rights such as education, hygiene, nutrition, and security (Zarezadeh, 2013:1432; Crombach & Elbert, 2014:1043). The difficult life in streets may lead to mental-ill health among street children (Malindi, 2014:35).

1.13.2 Street children

Street children are girls and boys who adopt street life and make the street and other public spaces their alternative home, and/or ways of making a living but are unprotected and unsupervised by the responsible adult (UNESCO, 2006:8). Street children are categorised as children-of-the-street (who are totally estranged from their families), children-on-the-street (who spend the majority of the day on the streets but return

### 1.13.3 Resilience

Resilience refers to an individual’s capability to navigate and negotiate pathways towards health-enhancing resources and the ability of the individual’s culture, family, and community and to provide health-promoting resources in culturally significant ways (Ungar, 2005:55). Resilience develops through the interactions of children with their peers, schools, families, and neighbourhoods (Brooks, 2006:71). Recent studies show that street children are resilient and therefore the focus must be more on promoting resilience among them (Panter-Brick, 2004:36; Malindi & Theron, 2010:318; Ataöv & Haider, 2006:141).

### 1.13.4 Risks

Risks are factors that expose individuals to circumstances associated with high incidences. Those factors include personal, school-related, peer, family and community impacts that increase the possibility of behaviour such as leaving school permanently or engaging in delinquent behaviour patterns (Jenson & Fraser, 2005:5).

### 1.13.5 Protective resources

Protective resources are defined as operating to prevent those at risk from the effects of risk factors (Tusaie & Dyer, 2004:4). These protective resources are found within ecologies, and they include families, communities and cultures (Theron & Malindi, 2010:719).

### 1.13.6 Vulnerability

Vulnerability can be defined as the inherent physical factors or processes, ecological factors that include socio-economic and political processes as well as exposure community-related risk and adversity (Manyena, 2006:442). These processes increase
the likelihood of poor developmental outcomes in children such as pathological behaviour.

1.14. PROPOSED LAYOUT OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER ONE: Orientation to the study

This chapter provides the overview of the study. The overview includes the background of the study, the problem statement, research questions, participation selection and the strategy of enquiry. Furthermore, research methodology, the aim of the study, data collection and data analysis are discussed in this chapter. Finally I explained trustworthiness, ethical consideration, as well as the definition of concepts.

CHAPTER TWO: The street child phenomenon and resilience concept

In this chapter, I reviewed literature on street children. The focus of this chapter was on the concept of streetism, the reasons for migration of street children to the streets, the impact of streetism on street children, streetism in South African context, international outlook as well as prevention and integration strategies. This chapter also explores the concept of resilience by explaining the concept of resilience, the brief history of resilience research, risk to resilience, protective resources to resilience, street children resilience and the ways to enhance resilience in children.

CHAPTER THREE: Research method

The chapter focuses on the research methodology of the study. This chapter also includes details about the research paradigm, research method, strategy of enquiry, participants selection, data collection strategies, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical consideration.

CHAPTER FOUR: Data analysis and interpretation

This chapter presents the data analysis of the study by tabulating demographic information of participants as well as describing analysis and interpretation of drawings.
and narratives of the participants. The themes that emanated from the analysed data are also presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE: Summary, findings and recommendations

In this chapter the aim of the study is revisited. Other sub-topics that are included in this chapter are conclusion from literature study, summary and conclusion from empirical study, recommendations for practice, contribution to the study, limitations of the study and recommendations for further research.

1.15 CONCLUSION

This chapter covered sub-topics such as the background and the problem statement of this study, research questions, participation selection, strategy of enquiry, research methodology, aim of the study, data collection and analysis. It also explained trustworthiness, ethical considerations, definition of concepts as well as the proposed layout of chapters of this study. The next chapter explores the phenomenon of streetism and the resilience concept in a more detailed manner.
CHAPTER TWO

STREET CHILD PHENOMENON AND RESILIENCE CONCEPT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an introduction and background to the study. This chapter focuses on literature study on streetism. The topics that are discussed in this chapter include the concept of streetism, the reasons why street children migrate to streets, the impact of streetism in the lives of street children, and the rights that street children have according to national and international laws. Streetism in South African context, international outlook on streetism as well as prevention and integration strategies revisited. The concept resilience was also explored. Aspects such as resilience definition, historical study of resilience, resilience risks, protective resources, resilience in street children and how it can be enhanced were also explored.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF STREETISM

Streetism is a growing contemporary problem worldwide (Le Roux, 1996:1; Vogel, 2001:229), and there are no signs of it abating. Ennew (2003) describes streetism as ways of life associated with living on the streets. The term streetism was initially used in Addis Ababa in order to avoid using the terms ‘on the streets’ and ‘of the streets’ when referring to street children (Ennew, 2003). However, the term street child was used early in the 19th century in reference to urban centres in Europe (West, 2003a). According to studies (Barrette, 1995:8; Panter-Brick, 2002:148; West, 2003b), there are many debates about the usage of the expression, “street children”, and these debates started in the 1980s. Even today, the usage and definition of the “street child” term is still problematic (Panter-Brick, 2002:154). There are different expressions that were used in different countries to refer to street children (Barrette, 1995:7-8). Table 2.1 outlines expressions that were used to refer to street children in different countries.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPRESSION</th>
<th>MEANING</th>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gamin Chinches</td>
<td>Urchin/Bed bugs</td>
<td>Columbia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marginais</td>
<td>Criminals/Marginals</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pajarofruterro</td>
<td>Fruit birds</td>
<td>Peru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polillas</td>
<td>Moths</td>
<td>Bolivia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resistoleros</td>
<td>Little rebels</td>
<td>Honduras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scugnizzi</td>
<td>Spinning tops</td>
<td>Italy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bui Doi</td>
<td>Dust children</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saligoman</td>
<td>Nasty kids</td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poussins or moustiques</td>
<td>Chicks or mosquitos</td>
<td>Cameroon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1: Expressions that were used to refer to street children in different countries

In South Africa, street children were known as *malalapipe* (pipe sleepers), twilight children (children who are active in the dark), *malunde* (those that sleep in the streets) (Barrette 1995:8; Le Roux, 2001:106) and also as the “lost generation” (Vogel, 2001:231). All the derogatory terms that were used to refer to street children portrayed street children as a nuisance that needed to be brushed or pushed away (Lalor, Taylor, HusseinAli & Elimin Bushra, 2002:343). Furthermore, the term street children raised debates. The following are some of those debates (Panter-Brick, 2002:149):
• The term “street children” does not reveal how heterogeneous these children’s actual circumstances are.

• The definition of the term, street children does not match ways in which many of these children recount their lived experiences.

• The term, street child, has powerful emotional overtones which promote social stereotypes towards the street children.

• It also deflects the focus away from the wider population of children experiencing poverty and social exclusion.

• Both street children’s matters and the problem of homelessness are deftly manipulated to mirror the various aims and interests of role players such as the welfare agencies.

These afore-mentioned debates about the usage of the term “street children” are still continuing. It is clear that due to the heterogeneity of street children, different countries will still continue to view the term differently and, due to that, the term, street children, is still generally used worldwide (West, 2003:3). A “street child” can therefore be defined as a girl or boy which is below the age of 18, who regard the street as home and a source of livelihood and since they are inappropriately supervised and protected by a competent adult (UNESCO, 2006:8).

The following is how street children are characterized by some researchers:

• General appearances of street children include the fact that they look much younger than their chronological age due to malnutrition (Van Niekerk et al., 2007:128), which makes it difficult to say their exact age. They dress in rags; have unkempt hair and the public fear them.

• Street children’s psychological well-being is affected by their exclusion from mainstream society (Cheng & Lem, 2010:353).
• Formal education is highly negligible, especially to those who were born on the streets (Human & Thomas, 2008:208).

• The majority of street children are males, and females only constitute a small percentage (10%) of street children due to reasons such as their usefulness at home (Ward & Seager, 2010:87; Le Roux, 1996:2; Boakye-Boaten, 2006:49).

Street children are categorised into four groups. These categories of street children are children-on-the-street, children-of-the-street, children residing in shelters and children who were abandoned by families (Altanis & Goddard, 2004:300; Ayuku et al., 2004:295; Panter-Brick, 2002:149; Pare, 2004:220; Sauvé, 2003; Malindi, 2009:66; Samuel 2014:170). A breakdown of these categories is as follows:

• **Children-on-the-street:** These are children working on the streets during the day and then go back to their homes after working hours. Children-on-the-street still has connections with their families. They constitute 60% of street children (Schurink, 1994:10) and are at risk of becoming homeless (Ward & Seager, 2010:85).

• **Children-of-the-street:** This category refers to children that live, eat and sleep in the street. These children are economically engaged in street life and socially centred on the streets. Streets are therefore regarded as their main homes (Ayuku et al., 2004:295).

• **Children in shelters:** These street children live in shelters provided by the government, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) or community-based organisations. Shelters meet the street children’s basic needs that include food, clothes and accommodation (Panter-Brick, 2002:149). They also provide them with life skills education, love and support.

• **Children who are completely abandoned and neglected by families:** This category involves street children who work on the streets and have absolutely no supporter or provider beyond themselves (Panter-Brick, 2002:148).
These categories of street children are closely linked. For instance, street children can change from being children-on-the-street to being children-of-the-street (Malindi, 2009:66; Bhukuth and Ballet, 2015:135) or vice versa. The term street child in this study, therefore, refers to the children on the street who, due to family problems, poverty and other life challenges, rely on drop-in-centres and shelters for survival. Some of these street children are maintaining contact with their families (Van Blerk, 2010:328; Kok et al., 2010:30). They are also under the care of a drop-in centre supervisor.

2.3 REASONS FOR MIGRATION OF CHILDREN TO STREETS

The reasons why children migrate to streets can be identified as “pull” and “push” factors (West, 2003; Raffaelli et al., 2001:407; Human & Thomas, 2008:208; Ward & Seager, 2010:87). “Push” factors can be described as those factors that due to circumstances force children to go to streets, whereas “pull” factors involve situations where children are attracted by excitement, independence and the 'glamorous life' on the streets (Human & Thomas, 2008:208). “Push” factors typically include unemployment, poverty, child abuse, overcrowding, family disintegration, failure at school, alcohol abuse by parents, alternative care facilities, and family violence (Ward & Seager, 2010:88).

A Ghanian study about the perspectives of the street children’s parents (Alenoma, 2012:77) also showed that parents believe that street children’s exodus to the street may be due to reasons such as wanting to learn a trade, gap in the educational system at the basic level, children’s need to raise pocket money for school the next day, poverty, divorce or separation, a need for children to support guardian in return for support for further education, guardian too old to work and provide households, avoiding idleness at home and raising money to buy cooking wares (especially the girls).

The causes of streetism can be divided into three categories. These categories include macro-level, meso-level and micro-level factors (Grundling, Jager & Fourie, 2004:97, Kiros, 2016:219).
Table 2.2 presents the causes of streetism.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MACRO-LEVEL FACTORS (COMMUNITY INSTABILITY)</th>
<th>MESO-LEVEL FACTORS (FAMILIAL FACTORS)</th>
<th>MICRO-LEVEL FACTORS (INDIVIDUAL FACTORS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Urbanisation</td>
<td>• Inadequate or unplanned moving by parents from rural areas, which leads to poverty unemployment</td>
<td>• hunger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Forced resettlement</td>
<td>• unfortunate standard of living</td>
<td>• Shame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Overcrowding</td>
<td>• Sicknesses due to malnutrition</td>
<td>• Failure at school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Non-compulsory education</td>
<td>• Single-parent families</td>
<td>• Lack of money for books and uniform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• School boycotts</td>
<td>• Physical and psychological maltreatment of children by parents</td>
<td>• Feeling unwanted and feeling like a burden to the family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The destruction of teaching facilities</td>
<td>• Lack of parental control and supervision</td>
<td>• Running away from welfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Few or no job opportunities</td>
<td>• The presence of step-parents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Low salaries</td>
<td>• Clashing values of parents and children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• High cost of living</td>
<td>• Corporal punishment by family members</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A lack of recreational facilities</td>
<td>• Lack of a father figure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Violence and unrest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of community involvement in the problems of families and individuals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2: The causes of streetism
2.4 THE IMPACT OF STREETISM IN STREET CHILDREN

The street life is not easy for the street children. There are many challenges that they are encountering in the streets. Some of the challenges that street children face in the streets (Kids Report 2012:9; Van Baalen, 2012:64) include: malnutrition or difficulty to access basic nutrition, susceptible to cuts and wounds due to lack of shoes and protective clothes, injuries and physical pain due to work and walking long distances. Exposure to drugs, violence and abuse by other street children, general public and law enforcement officials that street children endure in the streets may make them feel nervous, scared, angry or confused (Kids Report, 2012:10; Kiros, 2016:220). Other negative impacts of streetism include:

- Extreme deprivation and social exclusion of street children which create opportunities for engaging in crime.
- Street children perceive themselves as discriminated and hated by the members of society.
- Street children are stigmatized because they do not have power to demand attention from public and private agencies.
- Street children are also subject to social, physical, psychological and sexual abuse.

Some survival strategies of street children include menial income-generating activities in order to survive. Some of these activities include helping motorists at car park, washing cars, begging for money, selling fruit and vegetables, and prostitution, carrying personal belongings of passengers as well as collecting scraps from garbage and dumps and selling them (Samuel, 2014:170; Kiros, 2016:220). The money that they earn from these activities is used to purchase food, cigarettes, local beverages and other necessities.

Street children are known to survive through drug abuse and drug trafficking (Van Blerk, 2012:327). They survive and cope by engaging themselves in unlawful activities.
Abusing drugs helps them to numb their feelings of coldness and hunger (Kiros, 2016:220). Other unlawful activities comprise theft, robbery, assault, prostitution, petty offences, fighting among them, littering in public places, gambling, causing disturbances and deliberately damaging vehicles of people who decline their offer of parking assistance and car washing (Van Blerk, 2011:29-37; Ward & Seager, 2010:89). These unlawful and dangerous activities that street children engage themselves in may lead to serious injury or even death (Sauma, 2008:33).

The relationship of street children with people around them contributes to their means of survival. Van Blerk (2012:321) explained that street children’s relationship can either be intergenerational or intragenerational. Intergenerational relations refer to the state whereby street children still maintain their relationships with parents, particularly mothers, especially the “children-on-the-street”. These street children usually visit their homes to change clothes and eat; nevertheless, they stay only for a short period. Intragenerational relations refer to a situation where street children take care of their siblings on the streets, especially children of the street who stay with their families. In this case, the older siblings protect their young siblings in return of the younger siblings doing some work for them (Kok et al., 2010:30; Van Blerk, 2012:328). They also form friendships and alliances with adults who survive on the streets as a way of adapting to street life.

Kiros (2016:220) also reveal that street children’s coping mechanisms also include changing their sleeping locations to hide from their aggressors, sometime even hide in underground, creating their affiliated community where they could live in an atmosphere of love and sense of family hood. The survival means and coping mechanisms mentioned above point out that even though street children live dangerously in streets, they have hidden resilience in them. Malindi (2014:278) points out that the researchers should stop viewing street children from medical and charity perspectives by treating them as clients who need to be rescued from the street hazards, but instead, they should focus on the street children’s coping mechanisms and how they resilie during adversities.
2.5 THE RIGHTS OF STREET CHILDREN

There are laws that are put into place globally concerning the rights of children. It is noted that since street children cannot make claims for recognition of their own rights, they need surrogates who can speak on their behalf (Samuel, 2014:172). Number of organizations, public, private national and international have emerged to speak on their behalf but still the problem of children who migrate to the street is increasing rapidly (Samuel, 2014:172). Some of the children’s rights are highlighted in the following table as indicated by the Kids Report. The table identifies the article number as indicated in the international law of children’s rights, the children’s right covered in the specified article as well as people, organization and groups responsible for the ensuring that the rights are not violated.

The following table represents the rights of street children as quoted by the Kids Report (2012: 13-17):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ARTICLE</th>
<th>CHILDREN’S RIGHT</th>
<th>RESPONSIBILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Non Discrimination</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Best interest of the child</td>
<td>Both public and private institution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Protection of rights</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Survival and development</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Registration, name nationality and care</td>
<td>Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Preservation of identity</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Separation from parents</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Respect for the views of the children</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Protection from all forms of violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Children should not be deprived of a family involvement</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Children have a right to health and health services</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Children have a right to adequate standard of living</td>
<td>Parents and others with primary care for children, Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Children have a right to education</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Goals of education</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Children have a right to play, leisure and culture</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Child labour is prohibited</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Drug Abuse not allowed</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Children should be protected from sexual exploitation</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Other forms of exploitation. E.g. abduction, trafficking</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Detention and punishment</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Rehabilitation of children</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Juvenile justice</td>
<td>Governments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.3. Summary of children’s rights as stated by Kids Report.**

The table shows that street children have rights and that the states and parents/legal guardians should be responsible for protecting these rights. The study by Van Baalen (2012:29) states that African Charter on the Rights and the Welfare of the Child
(ACRWC) mentioned the similar rights of children as those in CRC which is the international organization.

In a South African context, street children are described as the victims of the former policy of apartheid since the 1940s (Le Roux, 1996:1). The first non-racial democratic election that took place in 1994 in South Africa brought positive thoughts and hopes for the previously disadvantaged groups (Le Roux, 1996:2). Street children are part of those disadvantaged groups. The following are contextual causes of streetism that were identified earlier in South Africa (Barrette, 1995:32-36):

- The abolition of apartheid and its restrictive laws: This resulted in many people migrating to urban areas to search for a better life.
- Black townships were not permanent homes: There was therefore lack of recreational families in these townships.
- African society in transition: There was a challenge of family versus outside home life.
- School crises since 1976: Learners opt for boycotting and violence as the only way to solve problems or ‘get their way’.
- The effects of sanctions in South Africa led to unemployment.

South Africa held the first democratic elections in 1994 which thereafter brought about more transformations in policies of the country. Cockburn (2004:48) pointed out that steps were taken to ameliorate the plight of street children, as comparing the legislations of the previous apartheid era and the post-apartheid era.

According to Cockburn (2004:48) the previous legislation had the following shortcomings:

- It contained few provisions focusing on street children in terms of funding, homes and shelter
- police cells and prisons were regularly utilised as places of safety for street children
• few pieces of legislation governing street children shelters and registration were mandatory
• service-providers, were not screened leading to the emergence of projects led by unscrupulous people
• in cases where quantities were made, fundraising failed to provide for the children.

Legislations that were introduced after 1994 tried to redress the imbalances of the past by ensuring equal rights for all, including street children. According to Van Blerk (2012:324), the post-apartheid era in South Africa has not yet brought significant changes in terms of transformation for most black Africans and coloreds.

South African constitution reflects children’s rights mentioned by the United Nations (Lefeh, 2008: 36). These children’s rights are stated in the South African Constitution’s Bill of Rights, Chapter 2. The children’s rights are: the right to be provided with care and protection, the right to reintegrate to the society, the right to a name and nationality, the right to family or parental care or appropriate alternative care, the right to social services, the right to be protected from exploitative labour practices and not to be required or permitted to perform work/services that are inappropriate their age, the right not to be detained except as a matter of last resort and the right to education, physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development placed at risk (SA, 1996). The researchers identified the shortcomings as far as the implementation of the rights is concerned.

According to Van Baalen (2012:50) and Lefeh (2008:41) some of the criticisms about South African Bill of Rights of children include the following:

• The children’s rights are too broad and are not given necessary interpretation.
There are challenges in the implementation of the Children’s Act which include the shortage of Human resources and inadequate salaries for those who are working for NGOs.

- Poor interdepartmental collaboration amongst Governmental departments.
- Barriers to educational opportunities due to lack of physical access, admission restrictions such as age and required documents.
- Barriers when trying to access public health care due to bad treatment of street children by doctors and clerks.
- Inability to access social grants because of children’s failure to produce documents.
- Barriers to housing since they do not have parents to represent them.

It is the responsibility of the states to ensure that all the necessary measures are taken to protect the rights of the children. According to Van Baalen (2012:27), it was stated by the United Nations that where states face challenges concerning children’s rights, international assistance should be required.

### 2.6 STREETISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

Street children can be seen on the streets of towns and cities in South Africa (Perez & Salazar, 2001:61). They are visible around market places, vehicle parking areas, busy road junctions, outside cinema houses and in other public places (Idemudia, Kgokong & Kolobe, 2013:162). At night street children sleep in uncompleted building, at bus stops, under bridges, in abandoned vehicles and in public gardens at parks (Idemudia, Kgokong & Kolobe, 2013:162).

In South Africa, streetism is a big challenge in the African population as compared to coloreds, Indians and whites (Le Roux, 1996:1). According to Van Jaarsveld, Vermaak and Van Rooyen (2011:5), the estimated number of children who are seen on the streets of South African towns and cities is 250 000, and this number is expected to rise as a result of higher levels of joblessness and the erosion of the well-known family
support that characterised African communities. It should be pointed out that the number of street children is hard to ascertain, since street children are very mobile and enter and exit street life as the need arises.

One of the biggest events that took place in South Africa is the Soccer World Cup in 2010. It was expected that this huge event would change the lives of many young people, including street youth/children in the country by providing them with employment opportunities. Instead of being employed street children were removed from the streets to ensure the safety of visitors, as they were always associated with crime (Van Blerk, 2011:35; Lefeh, 2008:73). They were beaten up, harassed and arrested with the aim of cleaning up the streets (Van Blerk, 2011:33; Van Eeden, 2006:11). Furthermore, street children were forced into becoming sexual partners, being denied the right of expression in newspapers (Van Blerk, 2011:29). This situation worsened the well-being of street children due to the harsh life experiences they were exposed to in prisons. Criminal records that they had obtained made it impossible for them to be employed and even be trusted by business people (Van Blerk, 2011:34). Street children are victimised by those who are supposed to protect them. The kind of life that street children live in the streets is characterised by feelings of loneliness and abandonment, which make them aggressive, lead them into drug taking and poor socialisation (Vogel, 2001:244).

The reasons why children migrate to the streets in South Africa are the same as those mentioned earlier, which were identified as “push” and “pull” factors (Ward & Seager, 2010:91). According to Idemudia, Kgokong and Kolobe (2013:175), street children in South Africa mentioned reasons such as poverty, anger, abuse, parental neglect, orphanhood, disobedience and non-conformity, non-involvement by extended families, and less favourable school facilities as motives for migrating to the streets. Parenting styles also contribute more in streetism. Children view their home environment as hostile and non supportive, especially where an autocratic parenting style is practices more than democratic and submissive parenting styles (Moepa, Idemudia and Ofenedu, 2015:561). A South African study conducted by Van Blerk (2012:330) also reveals that
gangsterism also contributes to streetism, as children, especially boys went to the streets to avoid being drawn into gang life in the community.

Bhukuth and Ballet (2015:141) mentioned that street gangs have both positive and negative impact in the lives of street children. Positivity is when gangs play a protective role in street children by protecting them from other children, police aggression, and being harrased in times of illness. The negative side of gangs is associated with drug abuse and violence.

It is crucial to know what happens to street children when they grow up or what their end is. The number of street children does not decrease because they are replaced by other street children (West, 2003a:9). It is not quite clear what happens with street children when they become old, but according to some studies (Kok et al., 2010:36; West, 2003a:9), it is assumed that fully grown up street children move into the shack population; reside in adult homes or shelters; or find jobs. They also opt for rented accommodation or subsidised houses or return to housed populations; live with relatives; become homeless or die accidentally, violently or due to HIV, or become full-time members of groups of criminal.

2.7 INTERNATIONAL OUTLOOK ON STREETISM

This study covers the international study of street children from African countries, Latin American countries and European countries.

2.7.1 African countries

Poverty, death of parents, sexual abuse, violence in the home, neglect, and divorce in the family are some other reasons why street children exist on the streets of African countries (Orme & Seipel, 2007:490). Furthermore, other reasons include civil war and children trafficking to other neighbouring countries, which lead to exploitative domestic servitude, street labour and commercial sex work (Hayes, 2008:39). HIV/AIDS is also identified as one of the major causes of streetism (Charma, 2008:411).
In order to explain further how HIV/AIDS contribute to streetism, West (2003b) identified several factors. Some of these factors are as follows: children care for parents who are infected; they drop out of school due to lack of money that is channelled towards medication for their ailing parents; parent perish due to HIV/Aids; society and families are unable to care for young people; children become homeless; and in the streets, they become vulnerable and exploited to HIV/AIDS through unprotected sex and drug abuse.

Street children are labelled as criminals, thieves, rebels, gangsters and prostitutes by neighbourhood residents (Hayes, 2008:44). Life in the streets is not easy for street children. Because of these difficulties, street children develop bad behaviour such as aggressive behaviour, theft, drug abuse and inadequate socialization (Vogel, 2001:244). The study of Orme and Seipel (2007:497) revealed heterogeneity of street children in the way they conduct themselves. While street children are known of their bad behaviour, this study revealed that sometimes street children decide not to engage in crime and anti-social behaviour because they are encouraged by other street children to endure challenges. Street children have a high degree of hope of a better future, believe in God and play by rules so that they will be able to succeed (Orme & Seipel, 2007:497).

Kudrati et al. (2008:441) indicate that street life is characterized by working hours that are defined by eating, glue-sniffing, begging for food from restaurants customers or purchasing restaurant food from restaurant staff. They walk barefoot, have two or three clothes changes, and engage in activities for pleasure (football and music). They obtain money by working for others, independent work, theft and sex work for girls.

The most common problem in street children in African countries is the abuse of inhalants (Olga, Dindar, Artugrul, Omeroglu & Aydogan, 2007:59). These inhalants include substances such as petrol, tobacco or glue. Street children end up in jail, car accidents, drowning or succumbing to sudden death because of these inhalants abuse (Olga et al., 2007:59). Their health too is at risk since they lack nutritious food and
subsist on less than adequate diet and they have no access to medical facilities (Ali & Muynck, 2005:527).

Sicknesses that result from this are skin infections, wounds from fighting, stomach ailments and viral contagions. Street children have the following health problem that they refer to as minor health problems: heart pains, headaches, chest pains, back pains, abdominal colic, renal colic, blood in urine, shortening of breath from running, cough, wounds and bruises, diarrhoea, dental problem, fever, and discharge from the ear (Ali & Muynck, 2005:527). In countries such as Ghana, street children are in danger of getting malaria as a result of their exposure to mosquitoes (Orme & Seipel, 2007:497).

The activities that are done by street children are the same as in other countries, and they include begging, carrying of goods for people, small income-generating activities such as shoe shining, car window washing, truck pushing, and collecting refuse (Grundling et al., 2004:102). Victimisation of street children is also evident. People that children trust become the perpetrators of violence (Contini & Hulme, 2007:219). The positive qualities that street children have include the ability to improve their conditions of life on their own and the ability to earn income that help them buy food and other necessities (Lalor et al., 2002:348).

2.7.2 Latin American countries

The study on streetism in Brazil reveals that the number of street children there varies from 200 000 to 8 million (Fernandes & Vaughn, 2008:669). Street children in Brazil are also referred to as social orphans, and this term does not imply that they do not have parents. It highlights their reason of being on the streets as a result of families that are incapable of taking care of or ignoring them due to reasons such as poverty, alcoholism and violence (Schwinger, 2007:800). This also raised a concern about the usage of the term children-of-the-street (meninos/as de Rua). This term is believed to refer to the permanent location of the children in the streets. It was therefore substituted with the term children and adolescents in a street (Crianc as e Adolescentesensituacao de
Rua), which state the temporary nature of their circumstances (Schwinger, 2007:801; Fernandes & Vaughn, 2008:670).

Most street children in Brazil come from poor families, extended families headed by a mother or a grandmother or an aunt (Fernandes & Vaughn, 2008:671). In some families, even though there is a father or a stepfather, they do not play their expected role as the family head. This results in children and adolescents sharing domestic and economic responsibilities from an early age, thus working on the streets (Schwinger, 2007:801; Fernandes & Vaughn, 2008:676).

Figure 2.1 illustrates the contextual factors leading to streetism in Latin America.
The study conducted by Raffaelli and Koller (2001:258) reveals that the kind of life that street children live affects their future hopes. This study showed the following:

- there is a worrying scarcity of future opportunities for street children in Brazil.
- an absence of positive role models for family life prevents street youth from envisioning a future for the family.
- there is lack of perceived life options.
The programmes that are in place to assist street children in Brazil include organisations such as The Children at Risk Foundation and The Street Migration Prevention programme, which were formed to assist former street children and other children at risk in the community with shelter, counselling and other social services (Fernandes & Vaughn, 2008:676).

2.7.3 Asian countries

The number of street children in Asian countries is estimated to be 30 million (West, 2003a:3). Initially, street children were seen as a problem that had to be resolved, and therefore, the initial response to them was a need to adopt a welfare approach in order to support them (West, 2003b). Poverty is identified as the major cause of streetism in Asian countries (West, 2003a:5). The causes of poverty included floods, drought, earthquakes, scarcity or loss of land, economic decline, and the closure of industries (Seth, Kotwal & Gaguly, 2005:1661; West, 2003b). Moreover, West (2003a:12) mentioned that parents go to the extent of selling their children or abandoning them due to poverty.

Other reasons for streetism in Asian countries are bullying at school from teachers and other children, discrimination, domestic violence and abuse, availability of drugs, armed conflict, natural disasters and HIV/AIDS (West, 2003a:14). According to West (2003a:13), street children in Asian countries also experience such things as homelessness, exploitation, abuses, health difficulties, lack of identification, and castes. Other consequences of being in the streets for street children are differences and discrimination in terms of gender, ethnicity, disability caste, and age (West, 2003a:13). Girls are at risk of being abused by the public, authorities and other street children. Furthermore, many street children in Asian countries are disabled, and the reason for that is that they are deliberately maimed by adults so that they could obtain money.

According to West (2003a:15), national and international child-trafficking for the sex industry and various activities is rife in Asia. Children are trafficked from Asia-Pacific.
and Africa to both Northern America and to Western Europe in order to work in the sex trade or domestic service (West, 2003a:15).

Migration from other states contributes to the increase of the number of street children. The migration is caused by persecution from those on power and the police, dread of punishment for crime, the influence of friends, and weather. Two-thirds of street children in Asian countries are illiterate (Kombarakaran, 2004:861).

2.7.4 European countries

According to European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007:17), the situation of street children in European countries has improved, although it is hard to say how many children are on the streets. The issue of street children is not new in Russia (Elliot, 2008:4; Balachova, Bonner & Levy, 2009:27) and it already existed prior to World War 1. In the 1990s, the ranks of children at risk in Russia were fuelled by the failure of numerous industrial enterprises, rising unemployment, inflation and a collapsing safety social net (Elliot, 2008:6), and that resulted in the increase in the number of street children.

During the period sovereignty, police force provided care to street children; departments look like prisons, and children were made to believe that it was their mistake that they migrated towards the streets (Balachova et al., 2009:28). On that account, when police catch them on the streets, they made means of returning them to their families without trying to investigate their home situations. The major reason why children end up on the street in European Countries is because of family problems such as alcohol addiction, which leads to neglect, poverty, abuse, failure of numerous industrial enterprises, rising unemployment, inflation and a collapsing social safety net (Balachova et al., 2009:28).

The foregoing problems resulted in the increase in the numbers of street children within the Russia society. During the post-sovereign era, police confusion led them to not knowing how to intervene in cases of street children, unless they committed a crime. As
a result, law enforcement was unsuccessful in responding in an appropriate way to the problem of street children (Balachova et al., 2009:28).

Balachova et al. (2009:28) also reveal that street children in European countries were those who remained in contact with their families of origin and shelter-staff, while some continued to live on their own (for example children of the street). Balachova et al. (2009:28) furthermore specify that 50% of street children start working at the age of 10-11, and they are engaged in activities such as collecting empty bottles, washing cars, begging for food and money, cleaning, carrying goods and within market places.

2.8 PREVENTION AND INTEGRATION

There are actions that should be taken in order to deal with streetism. First, the reasons why children leave their homes and reside in streets need to be examined. The reasons for streetism are common worldwide. One of the most common reasons of streetism is poverty and family dysfunction. Dealing with these contextual challenges will therefore reduce the problem of street children. Dybics (2005:765) suggests that the myth that street children are delinquents and that they adopted their life styles due to the appeal of freedom and adventure that the streets offered, should be dispelled.

According to West (2003b), there are four strategies that can assist in dealing with the issue of streetism. Those issues are covered under the following headings: prevention, the street, the street children protection centre, and reintegration. The first step is prevention. Dybics (2005:765) refers to this stage as a primary intervention. The “push” and “pull” factors leading to streetism are imbedded within extreme poverty (Dybics, 2005:765). Prevention of streetism can be done through community-based programmes that support employment creation in the informal market and increasing people’s sense of responsibility for their own development (De Moura, 2007:198). Government should also play a crucial role in eradicating poverty through skills development and employment creation (Ward & Seager, 2010:96).
Government can also assist by providing housing for children, offering them skills training, giving them grants, providing primary healthcare and emergency assistance, providing assistance with identity documents (IDs) and residence permits, and reuniting street children with their families and returning them to schools (Dybics, 2005:766). Furthermore, children migrate to streets due to physical, sexual, emotional abuse and lack of parental skills (West, 2003b). West therefore suggests that in this case, children who are at “risk” of migrating to streets due to the above-mentioned reasons should be identified, removed from dangerous family circumstances and placed in other forms of care such as foster care or adoption families.

The second step focuses on children who are already on the streets. Dybics (2005:765) refers to this stage as secondary intervention and mentions that to assist these children, micro-enterprises should be developed so that street children are able to secure their legal income on the streets. Other strategies that can be applied in this category include drop-in-centres, shelters, children’s homes, as well as street education (Ward & Seager, 2010:96; West, 2003b). Education can be used to intervene in the problem of street children (Ouma, 2004:37; Vogel, 2001:232; Anarfi, 1997:302). Education should be prepared in such a way that it allows street children to express their views, thoughts and ideas in order to develop their self-esteem (Ouma, 2004:37).

The creation of institutions such as shelters and drop-in centres will also enable street children to receive formal and informal education, rest, bath, have food, social recreation, counselling and a place of safety (Dybics, 2005:765). To strengthen their services, the centres should collaborate, be assessed and evaluated to establish the physical and mental needs of children and also engage in psychiatric care and substance abuse treatment (Ward & Seager, 2010:97).

According to Vogel (2001:235), skills such as orientation skills, perception skills, emotional skills, communication skills, creative thinking skills and critical thinking skills can play a pivotal role in assisting street children cope with street life challenges. Assisting street children to acquire these skills will prepare them to be able to deal with
their everyday challenges without engaging themselves in dangerous activities such as drugs and prostitution. Street children also have needs such as the need for belonging, the need for power, the need for freedom, as well as the need for fun (Vogel, 2001:232). Understanding of all these basic needs for children will lead into uniting all the stakeholders into ensuring their well-being.

The third stage will then be protection centres where the staff should be trained on the convention of the rights of children, counselling and communication skills (West, 2003b). These centres should focus on the creation of a warm and developmental environment for those who have undergone traumatic experiences (Dybics, 2005:766).

West (2003b) identified reintegration as the last stage and suggests that before reintegration is done, it is important to first find out why children left their homes. Kudrati et al. (2008:447) specified that reintegration should be done provided that children's migration to the streets is not due to abuse, poverty or war in their home setting. The same reason can make children return to the streets.

Further, West (2003b) indicated that the reintegration process should be done through personal relationships at home, in life in the neighbourhood and at school. Prior to the reintegration process, it is important that children's homes are visited to make a follow-up concerning the reasons why they left and to identify if there are any issues in the family that need to be resolved (West, 2003b). During the reintegration process, the following should be ensured (Kudrati et al., 2008:447):

- The focus must be on building trust first and rapport with the children so that they leave the streets voluntarily.
- There must be a length of period of counselling and exposure of children to life in the community for them to be successfully integrated.
- Police must be trained in child-protection and designing preventative, educational programmes to work with marginalized children.
In the case of migrants and street children who have never experienced family life before, interventions should be done through the economic and social welfare programmes at a national level (De Moura, 2007:198).

### 2.9 RESILIENCE DEFINED

Several attempts have been made to define the resilience phenomenon. Resilience-focused research consistently shows that resilience is a context-specific term that is not easy to define (Dass-Brailsford, 2005:575; Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2007:2; Henley, 2010:297). Further research indicates that resilience processes, namely, risks and protective resources, are likewise context-bound. A risk in one context may not necessarily be a risk in another context, and the same applies to protective resources. This notwithstanding, there is consensus that resilience depends on what Masten (2001) calls the ordinary magic of lives that are lived well. In this regard, resilience depends on the full functioning of adaptive systems such as families and well-performing schools.

Mampane and Bouwer (2009:445) pointed out that people that demonstrate resilient coping are those who have “...a disposition to identify and utilize personal capacities, competencies and assets in a specific context when faced with perceived adverse situations”. This view suggests that one requires personal assets, which according to Masten (2001), must then combine in complex ways with assets found within one’s social and physical ecology to promote resilient coping. Ungar (2005) argues convincingly that resilience is a process that depends on what is built into the child and what is built outside the child. This underscores the need for one to mobilise one’s personal resources and then navigate and negotiate one’s pathways towards health-promoting resources that must be made accessible in culturally meaningful ways (Ungar, 2006:55).

One of the pioneers of resilience research, Rutter (1999:119), noted that resilience refers to the demonstration of “…relative resistance to psychosocial risk experiences”. It is noteworthy that the notion of resilience comes to the fore in the context of risk (Ungar,
An important caveat is that such risk must be significant and be of such a nature that it could potentially result in the attainment of poor developmental outcomes.

Masten and Obravodic (2008) mentioned that resilient people:

- achieve better-than-expected outcomes in the context of risk;
- sustain competence under highly adverse conditions; and
- regain or attain effective or normal functioning following a period of exposure to traumatic experiences or conditions of overwhelming proportions.

### 2.10 HISTORICAL STUDY OF RESILIENCE

According to the study (Malindi, 2009:38; Luthar et al, 2007:2; Ungar, 2006:53) resilience was understood as an individual trait but now it is seen as a process associated with bi-directional person-ecology interactions that enable resilience regardless of risk. There are four trends that resilience researchers followed (Ungar, 2006:53; Malindi, 2009:30).

The first trend took place between 1950’s and 1970’s was when studies conducted by the researchers between 1950’s and 1970’s on human and social development used a problem-focused approach (Bernard, 1998:4; Dearden, 2004:187; Masten & Obravodic, 2008; Ungar, 2006:53). These historical studies focused more on examining the problem and risk factors of various disorders such as alcoholism, mental illness and delinquencies (Bernard, 1998:4). This approach according to Dearden (2004:187) posed difficulties in a manner that even though risk factors were identified, it was not easy to change them. These earlier studies perpetuated a problem perspective and implicated an inevitability of negative outcomes (Bernard, 1998:4).

The second trend took place in 1980’s. There were improvements pertaining understanding the concept of resilience, the studies focus was no longer on examining problems but on preventing them (Bernard, 1998:3). During this time it was also discovered that vulnerable children who were at risk, displayed multiple successes in

In the third trend resilience was perceived as an innate quality (Ungar, 2005b:91). There was therefore a shift from preventing risks to promoting growth and development and generating lists of asset that predict healthy outcome (Ungar, 2006:53).

The forth trend was introduces which focused on studying resilience by considering the context and culture of those who are studied (Ungar, 2006:53, VanderPlaat, 2015:8) and was based on identifying protective factors that can assist children to cope during adversities (Mastern & Obradovic, 2008; Malindi 2009:37). Resilience was then associated with the context in which people live, their culture and the opportunities in which each brings for individuals and group of individuals and should be understood as something paradigmatically different than intrinsic quality or conventional behaviour among those who face significant behaviour (Ungar, 2005b:90).

2.11 RESILIENCE RISKS

Resilience cannot be conceptualized in a context that is risk free (Theron & Malindi, 2010:719). According to Malindi (2009:42), risks refer to variables and processes that interact to increase an individual’s likelihood of psychopathology. McAdam-Crisp (2006:461) views risks as situations and processes (race, ethnic group, gender and biological predispositions) that have the potential to increase the probability of a maladaptive state, for example.

The following risk factors are identified by studies (Brooks, 2006:69; Panter-Brick, 2002:159): racial discrimination, poverty, social injustice, inadequate opportunities for educational advancement and joblessness, child abuse and neglect, parental skirmishes and psychopathology, inadequate parenting, and biomedical problems. According to Chambers (2000:108), family can impose risks of abuse and neglect to a child when parents who should support a child are abusing chemicals. This situation
may result in a child developing stress, fear-based perspective on life, which leave them avoidant, ambivalent or detached from others (Chambers, 2000:108; Zarezadeh, 2013:1432). These risk factors make a child vulnerable because he/she becomes angry, shameful, confused, fearful, guilty and embarrassed.

Another risk factor that is identified by the study is bereavement. Losing loved one/ones is a potentially traumatic life event all of us at some point in our lives (Dutton & Zisook, 2005:878). Childhood bereavement may have both a short term and longer term impact on children’s wellbeing, in their psychological health and educational achievement (Akerman & Statham, 2014:11). Bereavement is characterized by intense emotions such as sadness, loneliness, anguish, disbelief, hopelessness, guilt, anxiety, fear and anger. Bereaved child often experience an increase in anxiety with a focus on concern about further loss, the safety of other family members and fears around separation. Moreover, the study of Akerman & Statham (2014:13) shows that bereaved children also have greater risk of hospitalization for all types of psychiatric disorder, suicidal attempts, drinking alcohol as well as violent criminal conviction.

Nevertheless, in the face of grief, many individual are able to draw strength and vitality from struggling with the trauma of losing the loved one/s (Dutton & Zisook, 2005:876). Children may develop to the experience of death of a parent or sibling with some finding ways to turn their experience towards positive outcomes (Akerman & Statham, 2014:14).

There is a difference between risk traits and contextual effects (McAdam-Crisp, 2006:461). Risk traits are the congenital biological disposition. They therefore include low birth-weight, physical and mental incapacity, or any genetic susceptibility that may hinder survival. Contextual effects, on the other hand, are factors such as poverty, poor living conditions, political instability, civil strife and war (McAdam-Crisp, 2006:461).

Risk processes are linked to poor outcomes, unlike protective processes that change the impact of risk and adversity thereby promote resilience (Rutter, 1999:122; Mampane & Bouwer, 2006:447).
2.12 PROTECTIVE RESOURCES

Protective resources are processes that typically contribute to positive outcomes despite risk and adversity (Brooks, 2006:69; Theron & Malindi, 2010:719; Henley, 2010:297). Since protective resources are context-specific, no single protective resource can be considered to be generally protective; instead, protective process must be scrutinized in order to comprehend how they enable individuals and groups to demonstrate resilience despite exposure to risk and adversity (Bogar & Hulse-Kilacky, 2006:319).

Resilience resources would include having interpersonal skills such as verbal skills, capacity for emotional intimacy, independent-mindedness or assertive behaviour, enthusiastic outlook on life or optimism, competence, self-worth, and supportive contexts (Bogar & Hulse-Kilacky, 2006:319; Malindi, 2009:55). Protective factors are divided into individual and ecological resources (Malindi, 2009:55). Ecological factors are familial, extra-familial and cultural resources. Other protective factors contributing to resilience are intellectual ability, self-esteem, self-efficacy, effective parenting attachment to caring and supportive adults, and environmental opportunities (Brooks, 2006:69).

Nevertheless, it is evident that the type of family that provides love, warmth and guidance is likely to produce successful individuals (Malindi, 2009:55; Henley, 2010:297). An unrelated person can also play a significant role in providing a child with warmth and healthy living that contribute to helping him/her to be able to cope with adversities (Henley, 2010:297). These unrelated people can be teachers, caregivers and all people who are close to or working with the child. Schools and communities can play a primary role that fosters healthy, physical, social, emotional and cognitive development (Bernard, 2004:2015; Mampane & Bouwer, 2006:443).

The presence of a healthy attached peer relationship also enables one to gain trust, support, and encouragement (Henley, 2010:297). In this relationship, a child also gains the ability to negotiate and be provided with realistic feedback. The community plays a
crucial role in developing a child (Bernard, 2004:199; Malindi, 2009). How the person or the child interacts with his/her community will determine his ability to deal with challenges.

This interaction with the community includes engagement in informal and formal actions, institutions and organisations, and can therefore build structure and stability in a person. It also encourages opportunities for emotional development and promotes the identification of a person with a larger group (Henley, 2010). All these processes promote the development of various problem-solving skills, coping abilities as well as adaptation skills.

The following list represents the characteristics of resilient people (Chorley, 2010:4; Mampane & Bouwer, 2006:445; Bernard, 1998:5):

- a secured identity and believe that they are lovable
- an internal locus of control, with a sense of purpose, challenge, commitment, responsibility and independence
- a sense of coherence
- trust and believe in others
- hope, positivity, faith and optimism
- loving, empathetic, altruistic to others
- see adversity as something that makes them stronger
- are determined to have a sense of humour
- have a sense of autonomy, spirituality and emotional stability
- have a proactive, achievement-orientated nature, the ability to plan and have aspiration
- identify with competent role models
- have physical well-being
- attractive to peers
- have community, nurturance, and socialisation
- competent (socially) and have a perceived efficacy
A person can either be resilient or do “reintegration with loss” when facing life challenges (Mampane & Bouwer, 2006:446). According to Bogar and Hulse-Killacky (2006:321-323), the following processes may enable people to be resilient when dealing with the most stressful situations they encountered in their lives:

- coping strategies (e.g. writing, praying, keeping busy, and symbolism);
- refocusing (redirecting physical and emotional energy to activities such as education, family engagement, career interests, sports, religion or spirituality);
- active healing (assuming responsibility for one’s recovery and refusing to accept the role of being a victim); and
- achieving closure by being able to integrate one’s experiences without undue emotional pain.

Recent studies focus on construction of resilience and the importance of context and culture in promoting resilience for the development of children (VanderPlaat, 2015:8). Schools have become the most important place to develop resilience in children and youth can play in promoting resilience in children or youth by providing access to a number of developmental opportunities for children (Sanders & Munford, 2015:2). Theron, Lienberg & Malindi (2014: 253) reveal that schools have the responsibility to support rights of children and thus promote resilience. It is also clear that the schools should practise this role in children as early as when a child is introduced to school or doing the first grade (Kampulainen, Theron, Kahl, Bezuidenhout, Mikkola, Salmi, Khumalo & Malmivaara, 2015:7). According to Dearden (2004:188), the protective factors associated with education include stability and continuity, learning to read early and fluently, having a parent or carer who value education and saw it as a route to good life, having friends who did well at school, developing out-of-school interests and hobbies, meeting significant adult who offered consultant support and encouragement and acted as a mentor or a role model as well as attending school regularly.
The study conducted by Malindi and Machenjendze (2012:75) revealed the following aspects as the role played by schools in enhancing resilience in street children:

- school engagement changes children’s lives after they have been disrupted by streetism. Children get a chance to interact with peers and adults (teachers) which brings their loneliness to an end,
- it prepares children for the future and expose them to different careers so that they are able to achieve their dreams,
- it enables them to enjoy social support,
- enable teachers to assist learners who need help,
- promote a resilience-promoting sense of belonging, enjoy feelings of safety and expose children to positive role models,
- enables street children to learn academic skills such as reading, writing, and mathematics, and
- school gives children opportunities to play and be involved in extra-mural activities.

In this regard, all stakeholders in the process of education need to work together in ensuring the development of a child. Failure to support children during their first year at school can result in children’s failure to adjust, which can lead to disengagement or even dropping out from school (Kampilainen et al, 2015:7). According to Malindi and Machenjendze (2012:710) considerable numbers of at risk children continue to disengage from school by dropping out and adopting street life for reasons that are personal and contextual. School dropout is a serious problem in South Africa. Zarezadeh (2013:1431) states that the minister of education estimated the number of school dropouts to 350 000 and the majority of dropouts are street children. School psychologists, teachers, social workers and school staff must all work together in promoting resilience in children. The researchers are emphasising the importance of
school psychologists in ensuring that all school personnel adapt the practices that promote resilience in children at risk (Sanders & Munford, 2015:7).

Resilience in children should be enhanced as early as when they are doing their first grade in school so that they are able to adjust well in their whole schooling life experiences (Kampulainen et al, 2015). It is therefore crucial that school psychologists play their role which VanderPlaat (2015:20) describes as “part of the professional and bureaucratic system that define and explain the circumstances of people’s lives”. It is also pointed out that children are relying on the school psychologists to define their lives as unfavourable, inevitable and deserved (VanderPlaat, 2015:11).

According to the study (Theron et al, 2014, Kumpulainen et al.: 2015:15, Sanders & Munford, 2015), school psychologists can promote resilience in children by:

- sensitizing school staff to how positive experience impact child development,
- helping teachers to expand their focus to home, environment and community factors that impact daily school experience,
- sharing their knowledge about child development with teachers,
- assisting grade 1 learners to adjust by creating and maintaining constructive relationship with them, by assisting them to have access to basic resources, adhere to cultural norms and beliefs and assist them to develop a powerful identity and opportunities to exercise control,
- ensuring a collective warm support by teachers, families, siblings and other staff members,
- learning continually from all parties involved, and from children in particular,
- familiarising them with school ecology that they serve,
- Practicing P( perseverance), A( adaptability), R( relationship) and T(time).

School psychologists and other stakeholders have a responsibility to ensure that schools do not become frightening, hostile, foreign and unwelcoming to children because that can result in children exiting schools prematurely instead of accessing
resilience building resources (Sanders & Munford, 2015:2; Malindi & Machenjendze, 2012:73). The study of Sanders and Munford (2015:9) reveal that vulnerable children face challenges from their homes and that affects their behaviour in school. They may display a feeling of anger and frustration which may lead to them being judged by school professionals. Children with learning or cognitive impairment according to this study are also at risk if they are not provided with the educational support that will assist them to succeed in mainstream classrooms (Sanders & Munford, 2015:10).

Schools can also play a critical role in instilling resilience in children through subjects such as Life Orientation in South African schools (Theron, 2007:5). Life Orientation was introduced to equip youth with problem-solving skills in order to overcome challenges. Schools can ensure that a child respects adults as well as other fellow peers (Theron, 2007:5; Kruger & Prinsloo, 2008:243). Moreover, schools can ensure that the following is done to promote resilience in school children (Kruger & Prinsloo, 2008:243; Brooks, 2006:72):

- The manner in which teachers plan and structure their activities, assignments and lessons should incorporate competences, integrate and utilise children’s innate abilities, experiences, learning styles and prior knowledge.
- Educational psychologists should be employed to identify children who are at risk, work with them, their teachers and their parents with the aim of enhancing resilience.
- Training of parents by educational psychologists in order to continually enhance and develop resilience modalities in children at home.
- Further development into developing an objective instrument to measure resilience in the South African context needs to be made.
2.13 RESILIENCE IN STREET CHILDREN

Growing number of street children, school drop outs of children and poverty are some of the reasons why the topic of streetism attracts many researchers (Zarezadeh, 2013:1433). This curiosity in streetism phenomenon aims to contribute on prevention of social problems that lead to streetism. (Zarezadeh, 2013:1433). Panter-Brick (2004:) specifies that current studies are focusing not on demarcating street children from other children who are facing adversities, but seeks to examine the lives of street children in light of broader analysis of childhood adversity, poverty and social exclusion. It is noted that there are similarities between risk factors and the reasons why children leave their homes to stay on the streets. Factors contributing to streetism can be categorises as economic (poverty, injustice, unemployment big gab in social classes, unjust distribution of wealth), social and cultural (population growth, migration, war, change in cultural and social values, the differences among generation and difference in attitudes, wrong beliefs such as considering children as sources of income, being harsh towards children and lack of support for them), familial (extended, populated and stressful families with delinquency and addiction background, parents unawareness of children's appropriate needs, divorce in the family, sexual abuse and death of parents) and individual or bio-psycho factors (Zarezadeh, 2013:1433; Orme & Seipel, 2007:489; Charma, 2008:411). Violence and poverty are identified as the root cause of streetism (De Benitez, 2007:6).

Street children are exposed to the risk of violence in the streets (De Benitez, 2007:6; Lalor et al.,2001:343), and this risk is influenced by factors such as gender, age, ethnicity and disability. Boys, in particular, tend to be more aggressive, and girls tend to be more vulnerable to violence such as sexual abuse (De Benitez, 2007:7). Street children are also subject to abuse and neglect in detention centres and welfare homes which are supposed to protect them (De Benitez, 2007:6).
When children migrate to the street, they hope that their lives will be better, but when they are there, they encounter challenges that make them more vulnerable. Some of the challenges that they face include being without shelter, especially in cold and rainy weather, and lacking health care.

Street children are the most vulnerable group in the society (Charma, 2008:411; Anarfi, 1997:282; Orme & Seipel, 2007:490, Lalor et al., 2002:345). Some of the reasons that researchers mentioned that make street children be labelled as vulnerable include the following:

- They lack protection, security and support from their families.
- They are regarded by the public as a nuisance to be tolerated.
- They are perceived as lazy and criminals.
- They are exploited by the authorities, e.g. the police.
- Street children, especially girls, are also subject to a high risk of sexual attacks.
- They are subject to bullying by older street people.

Because of the above-mentioned factors, street children are regarded as the most vulnerable and disadvantaged group of at-risk youth, and their strengths and coping strategies are not emphasised (Kombarakaran, 2004:854).

Research shows that although street children are facing many challenges due to the risk factors mentioned above, they still show that they rise above those challenges (Orme & Seipel, 2007:491; Theron, 2007:2; Malindi, 2009:58). These children learn to cope with dangerous street conditions (Kruger & Prinsloo, 2008:242).

This study therefore outlines the strategies that are mentioned by the researchers on how resilience can be promoted or enhanced for children who are at risk.
2.14 ENHANCING RESILIENCE

There are many development organisations and governmental agencies that implement programmes to assist vulnerable youth (Henley, 2010:295). Enhancing resilience in children needs cooperation from all relevant stakeholders such as parents, teachers, social workers, police, significant others and children themselves (Kruger & Prinsloo, 2008:243). According to Bernard (2006:198), resilience is a gift to all human services, one that gives “hope”, and it (resilience) also shows how useful protective processes are in enhancing resilience.

Some of the risks that are regarded as reasons for the migration of children to the streets are poverty, racial discrimination and injustice, limited opportunities for education and employment, child abuse and neglect, poor parenting, as well as biomedical problems (Malindi, 2009:42; Panter-Brick, 2002:159). These risks can be overcome if there are strong protective factors (internal) such as temperament, physical health, sense of humour, self-esteem, locus of control, family support, intelligence, coping techniques, sense of direction or mission (McAdam-Crisp, 2006:463), as well as external protective factors such as familial, extra-familial and cultural resources (Malindi, 2009:53).

Researchers have identified the presence of hidden resilience in street children (Malindi, 2009:58; Kombarakaran, 2004:869; Ungar, 2006:57; Speakman, 2005:40; Kruger & Prinsloo, 2008:242) and have mentioned that what can be seen by people as unacceptable actions or behaviour (e.g. sexual activities, drug abuse, theft, begging) may be a resilience source to children “at risk” (Malindi, 2009:87; De Benitez, 2007:7; VanderPlaat, 2015:8).

Resilience may therefore be promoted in children by families (parents), teachers (schools) and society (Brooks, 2006:70; Malindi, 2009:53; Perez & Salazar, 2001). Families are identified as the primary source of resilience enhancement by studies (De
Benitez, 2007:8). They have a responsibility to prevent negative developmental outcomes in children facing multiple stressors and nurture unborn development systems (Bernard, 2006). The role of social workers in supporting families to strengthen resilience is also regarded as one of the interventions. Social workers should advocate for reducing poverty-enhancing employment opportunities and creating communities that promote a positive quality of life for all (Brooks, 2006:74).

Schools can also play a critical role in instilling resilience in children through subjects such as Life Orientation in South African schools (Theron, 2007:5). Life Orientation was introduced to equip youth with problem-solving skills in order to overcome challenges. Schools can ensure that a child respects adults as well as other fellow peers (Theron, 2007:5; Kruger & Prinsloo, 2008:243). Moreover, schools can ensure that the following is done to promote resilience in school children (Kruger & Prinsloo, 2008:243; Brooks, 2006:72):

- The manner in which teachers plan and structure their activities, assignments and lessons should incorporate competences, integrate and utilise children's innate abilities, experiences, learning styles and prior knowledge.
- Educational psychologists should be employed to identify children who are at risk, work with them, their teachers and their parents with the aim of enhancing resilience.
- Training of parents by educational psychologists in order to continually enhance and develop resilience modalities in children at home.
- Further development into developing an objective instrument to measure resilience in the South African context needs to be made.

De Benitez (2007:15) also recommends that social policies should work to secure a social protection system with a wide variety of options for supporting children who have experienced multiple cases of abuse and created a variety of coping strategies. In these policies, children's perception and experiences must be incorporated into planning and evaluation processes.
For street children, the following can be done to promote resilience (De Benitez, 2007:15):

- **Peer Education.** It deals with training a certain number of children on aspects such as reproductive health and peace building.
- **Child Protection Training and Networking with the Police.** Here the police form partnerships with children centres to establish Family Support Units where they promote protection of women and children.
- **Reproductive Health Information and Services.** Children are educated about protection from life-threatening diseases such as HIV/AIDS and sexual transmitted diseases.
- **Family Mediation and Reunification.** This one is for children who wish to return home but fear that their families will punish or be ashamed of them due to the things they did.
- **Adult Mentors.** In this case, an adult mentor is identified from the community who will guide and take care of a child – it should be someone who is trusted.
- **Service for children should be personalised and offer protection from violence, counselling to address the experience of violence and techniques to protect themselves from future violence.** They should also nurture resilience and children’s well-being, addressing harmful coping strategies such as drug use and promoting healthy coping strategies which enhance children’s current and future health.
- **Community, networks and organisations should work together** with service providers, children and other stakeholders to foment a positive approach to child protection in the locality.
2.15 CONCLUSION

This chapter explored the concept of a street child by explaining streetism. It therefore revealed the problems that were identified by the researchers concerning the usage of the term street child. It was also clear that the attempts to replace this term have been unsuccessful so far. International studies as well as South African studies were also discussed in this chapter. Prevention and intervention strategies were explored. Additionally, the phenomenon of resilience was explained. Furthermore, resilience risks, protective resources and strategy for enhancing resilience were elaborated. The next chapter will therefore broadly explain the research method that was used to conduct this study.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter was a review of literature relevant to this study. This chapter explains in detail the empirical study that I conducted. That will be done by discussing the following aspects: the research paradigm, the research method, strategy of enquiry that was used to conduct this study, the selection of participants, data collection strategies, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical consideration. Figure 3.1 shows the layout of all the topics covered in chapter.

Figure 3.1: Layout of Chapter
3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Niewenhuis (2010:47-48) explains that paradigm is a collection of assumptions or scientific beliefs about important aspects of reality. According to Taber (2013:287) paradigms are used to describe approaches to educational enquiry. Furthermore, Taber (2013:288) argue that paradigm generate a brief guideline of how research is conducted, what strategy to select as well as selecting the appropriate data collection techniques and data analysis methods. This research study was based on the interpretivist paradigm perspective that accepts that access to existing reality can be achieved through culturally specific mechanisms such as language consciousness and meanings that people share in a particular context (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:59; Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004:21).

In this research study, data was collected from participants, reflecting their experiences in street life and resilience towards challenges they encounter (Creswell, 2009:8). I spent time in the field in direct contact with participants to explore their ideas, views or understanding of reality. Interpretivists hold views that reality is built by people as social actors and their experiences of that reality (Wahyuni, 2012:69; Goldkuhl, 2012:6). As mentioned in Chapter 1, this research was underpinned by interpretation. Interpretation involved my attempt to inductively develop a pattern of meaning from the information provided by the children-on-the-street.

According to Allen-Collinson (2012:1), interpretivists also assume that there is no reality outside of people’s social construction, and therefore, the researcher and the researched mutually influence and co-construct data, which is thus understood through an interpretation process (Goldkuhl, 2012:6). Both interpretivism and qualitative research aim to understand the life-worlds through the meanings and understandings of participants in context (Allen-Collinson, 2012:1). In this study the meaning of streetism and resilience phenomena were both understood through meanings that street children assigned to them (Fouche & Schurink, 2011:309).
Interpretivists assume that by putting people in their social contexts, there is a better opportunity to understand their perceptions of their own actions (Goldkuhl, 2012:10). I personally approached the participants in their drop-in-centre which was their specific contexts whereby their basic needs are met (Creswell, 2009:8). This was done in order to understand how these participants perceive streetism and being in the context in which allowed them to recall experiences more easily (Niuewenhuis, 2010:59).

Wahyuni (2012) mention that interpretivist researchers explore the richness, depth and complexity of the phenomenon. In this research the focus was also on the complexity of views instead of narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas (Creswell, 2009:8). These complex views were gathered from participants who are regarded as children-on-the-street who visit the drop-in centre. As the researcher, I attempted to generate a pattern of meaning from the data generated within the research field instead of starting with a theory and applying it to the research field (Creswell, 2009:8). This was attained through constant interaction with the participants within the context of their drop-in-centre.

Goldkuhl (2012) and Nieuwenhuis (2010:60) highlighted that interpretivist paradigm has limitations that include researcher subjectivity or bias and the unwillingness of participants to open up and share their life. To avoid these limitations I controlled bias through exposing every step of my research process and providing comments about how I interpreted data and how my background has shaped my interpretations (Creswell, 2009:192). The interpretivist paradigm gives consideration towards the researchers’ professional judgements, perspectives, experiences and background, in the interpretation of data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:6; Creswell, 2009:9). I spent a considerable amount of time on the field to develop a relationship with participants before giving the drawing briefs, with the intention to make them comfortable and open up.
3.3 RESEARCH METHOD

In chapter 1 the qualitative research was defined (cf. 1.6.3). Qualitative research method aims to understand the life-worlds through the meanings and understandings of participants in context (Allen-Collinson, 2012:1). My aim was therefore to have a clear understanding of streetism by involving street children who shared their life experiences with me through drawings and narrative descriptions.

According to Mertler and Charles (2011:192), McMillan and Schumacher (2010:322) and Creswell (2009:175) three key characteristics of qualitative research are naturalistic, rich and descriptive, and emergent design. These key characteristics were evident in this research study and the below paragraphs will elaborate on them.

Qualitative research is naturalistic in that the researchers go directly to the particular setting of interest in order to collect their data (Mertler and Charles, 2011:192). The interest of this study focused on understanding the views of the street-involved children, I went to the shelters where these children live to collect my data because if the children were taken out of this setting it was possible that different sorts of behaviours would be derived from them.

Qualitative research is being rich and descriptive in nature (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:322). Qualitative research provide rich data by making use of words or pictures rather than numbers and every detail contribute to a better understanding of the phenomenon. According to McMillan & Schumacher (2010:322) in this design the descriptions capture observations in the same form in which they occurred naturally in the particular context and that no detail escapes scrutiny or is taken for granted as to ensure that a complete understanding is obtained.

Qualitative research is an emergent design (Creswell, 2009:175). This was realised during a pilot study. Initially, the intention was to concentrate on children from three drop-in-centres but once being at the research field I realise that it was difficult to get access to drop-in-centres. This could have been due to a long procedure with lot of
personnel to be consulted. Therefore, the sites were changed to only one drop-in-centre and the focus was then on 24 participants. Again, when conducting the research, one of the participants decided to no longer take part in the research and I had to find another participant that was willing to take part in the study. All the above-said challenges justified the emergent nature of qualitative research.

In this phase, I conducted a qualitative research study in order to understand the phenomenon of streetism from the street-involved children’s perspective. It was also clear that streetism phenomenon should be studied together with resilience as street children display the characteristics of resilience (Speakman, 2005:40, Kombarakaran, 2004:869). Qualitative research was the most suitable mode of enquiry for this study, since I would be focusing on the participants’ views and opinions influenced by their lived street life experiences. I was not interested in quantifying their experiences and generalising the findings to their contexts as it is the case in quantitative research (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:51).

Most research involving vulnerable children such as street children was based on adultist research approaches that did not see children as people who could provide reliable data from which findings can be made (Driessnack, 2005). Parents and other adults (teachers, guardians and health-care professionals) were interviewed as proxies, and this meant that in such studies, children were studied indirectly rather than directly. Didkowsky, Ungar, and Lienbenberg, (2010:12) highlight the value of visual methods in vulnerable communities, especially in South Africa, a country that is yet to overcome poverty and underdevelopment. It was for this reason that in this study I considered using visual methods, namely, the draw-and-write technique (Driessnack, 2006).

In a study that used the draw-and-write technique with street children in institutional care by Malindi and Theron (2012), it became apparent that the draw-and-write technique can be useful, especially while doing research with children whose literacy levels are low, such as street children. Drawing and writing are natural activities for children; therefore, this data collection approach is less intrusive.
3.4 STRATEGY OF ENQUIRY

The strategy of enquiry used in this study is phenomenology. Phenomenology can be defined as a strategy in which the researcher highlights the nature of human experiences about a phenomenon which is experienced or lived by the participants (Creswell, 2009:13). A phenomenological study is explained as a study that seeks to understand people’s perceptions, perspectives, and understanding about a certain situation (Delport, Fouche & Schurink, 2011:305; Leedy and Ormrod, 2010:141). Phenomenological study was therefore suitable for this study as it aims to understand the life experiences of street children.

Leedy and Ormrod (2014:147) is of the opinions that in a phenomenological study the researcher aims at listening closely to the participants as they describe their everyday experiences which are linked to the phenomenon. In this research study, I carefully read the drawings and narratives from my participants as the way to air their views about streetism and resilience. While participants were answering, I was also observing their expressions, pauses, questions and side tracks to try to understand their experiences through this.

According to Driessnack (2006:416), interest is growing in engaging children as actors in their own right in studies, using participatory methods of gathering data such as drawings. This study therefore used a detailed reading or examination of street children’s drawings and narratives to get inside their viewpoints as a whole and then develop a deep understanding of the concept of streetism and their resilience (Henning et al., 2007:20).
3.5 PARTICIPANTS SELECTION

Sampling focuses on a few cases which are studied in depth in order to generate insights about the topic (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014) various sampling methods can be used in qualitative research. In this research study, the purposive sampling is employed. Purposive sampling is a method of selecting certain segments of the population for a particular study (Mertler and Charles (2011:103). As the researcher, I used my own preference to select the parts which should be included.

Lodico et al. (2010:134) affirm that the goal of purposive sampling is to gather smaller sample sizes in order to select participants that can provide the most detailed information in order to answer the research question. The participants that I purposively sampled were children, according to the South African Constitution (South Africa, 1996). In this regard, a child is – in South Africa – anyone who is 18 years old and below. Therefore, the participants who took part in this study were children aged from 12 to 17. They were street children who are classified as children-on-the street (Panter-Brick, 2002:149), who irregularly attended school due to street life activities. The number of the sample in this study was 24, involving 12 boys and 12 girls.

The participants were advised that their names were not important, but rather their gender was. I therefore identified their gender by using letters such as ‘M’ for males and ‘F’ for female participants, as shown in Table 4.1.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

In section 3.3, I explained that the draw-and-write technique (Driessnack, 2006; Malindi & Theron, 2012; Malindi, 2014) was used to collect data for the study. I met participants at the drop-in-centre where they routinely went for meals and life skills training. The drop-in-centre used to be a stable in the past, but it had been modified for human inhabitation. In his regard, the stable was converted so that it could serve a high school,
and some of its buildings were allocated to the NGO that cares for the participants who took part in the study.

The venue that I used was large enough to accommodate all the participants at the same time. It had adequate lighting and was well ventilated. There were enough chairs in the venue, since it doubled up as a church and a classroom for life skills training. Tables were however insufficient; as a result, some of the participants had to use other chairs in order to draw and write their narratives. I provided the participants with pencils and erasers. I then handed each one of them a brief which had been printed on two pages.

On one page the following instruction appeared:

Think about life on the streets and how it is. In the space provided, please make a drawing of what streetism or street life is about. How well you draw is not important.

I read the instruction out to the participants and explained what it meant in their African languages. They understood the instruction, and they started working. I explained that the activity was not going to be long and that they could take as long as they wished. I also explained to the participants that how they drew was less important and that there was no need to copy from one another. The participants took between 10 and 15 minutes to finish their drawings.

When they finished their drawings, I read the second instruction that appeared on the next page.

The second instruction was as follows:
Any researcher who chooses to collect data through the draw-and-write technique is in a position to enable any participant who cannot write the narrative to dictate to him or her so that the researcher can write the narrative on their behalf (Horstman, Aldiss, Richardson & Gibson, 2008). Therefore, before the participants could compile their narratives, I indicated to them that any participant who had problems in writing the narrative could ask me to write it on their behalf. In this regard, they would have to say it verbally, and I would write it down.

All participants were able to write the narratives. The grammar was not always correct, and in my analysis, I did not make any attempt to correct the grammar. Rather, I looked for the meanings intended. The draw-and-write technique makes communication between the researcher and the participant possible and easier (Hostman, Aldiss, Richardson & Gibson, 2008). I then collected the drawings and subjected them to inductive content analysis (Elo & Kyngas, 2007). The participants had kick-started the analysis processes by writing description paragraphs, in which they described their drawings. I grouped the drawings according to the main themes that I discusses in detail in the next chapter.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:152) mention that data analysis in a qualitative research method includes sorting and categorising it. This is done after reading data thoroughly (Schurink et al., 2011:402-403), which then is followed by grouping data into themes. The data that I collected through drawings and descriptive narratives were therefore analysed and grouped into themes. The fact that the participants described their drawings meant that I did not impose any meaning on the drawing.
The participants had, by writing the narratives, led me in analysing and interpreting the drawings. In the study, the drawings were not used as projective techniques that psychologists use in order to penetrate the subconscious levels of traumatised children. The narratives were very useful in my attempt to group the drawings. The paragraphs below entail how the data were analysed in this research study.

In this research study content analysis was used. According to Nieuwenhuis (2010:101) content analysis is used for the analysis of books, brochures, written documents, transcripts, news reports and visual media. There are certain steps that need to be followed when conducting content analysis (Mertens, 2010:424). In the first step of content analysis the researcher prepares the data for analysis including transcribing the data and ascribing a number to each participant. The next step pertains to reading through the data and reflecting on the overall meaning of the data, then the coding process whereby the researcher ascribe codes to significant parts in the data follows (Cresswell, 2009:185-190). The final step is making meaning of the data (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:104-113).

The inductive approach was used in the study as Mertler and Charles (2011:200) affirm that conclusions and theories are developed from the data. Therefore, the inductive coding was used during the analysis process as I developed the codes by examining the data directly. Creswell (2012) is of the opinion that coding suggests that a text is reduced to descriptions and themes of people, places or events. During the analysis process I used open and axial coding techniques.

To open code the data, I breakdown the transcripts into fragments and labelled according to lists of codes. I carefully examined the transcript line by line and assigning a code next to the text. After the open coding process I progressed to axial coding to link together codes that were developed. According to Evans (2013:166) process of axial coding link together codes that were developed during the process of open coding. In this process I searched connections and links between various open codes that related to a certain category and formulate a theme.
3.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness in qualitative research is the equivalent of reliability and validity in quantitative research (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:276-278; De Vos, 2007). Trustworthiness is simply the process in which the researcher can persuade his or her readers that his or her findings are worth paying attention to and worth taking account of (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:290). Trustworthiness in qualitative research includes credibility, transferability, confirmability and dependability (Schurink et al., 2011:419). What follows next relates to what was done to ensure trustworthiness in this study.

3.8.1 Credibility

The term credibility, in qualitative research, refers to believability and how much the data is believable. A qualitative research can enhance credibility in the findings through peer debriefing and ensuring referential adequacy (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:277). In this study, I explain in detail (in chapter 4) the context in which I conducted my study and, in so doing, includes descriptions of participants (De Vos, 2007:346). I also went back to the NGO staff and asked them to look at my findings and the narratives and to confirm or dispute them. Their advice and opinions helped me to fully understand the narratives and street life even better. Asking colleagues to be involved in the member-checking exercise promoted credibility in my findings, and I am obliged to keep drawings and narratives for easy reference (Shenton, 2004:64).

Shenton (2004:64) suggests that in order to ensure credibility, a researcher should adopt well-established research methods and follow the specific procedure that will generate valid data. I familiarised myself with the culture of the organisation before the research was conducted. This allowed me to have a better understanding of the participants and the research context. Shenton (2004:66) recommends the usage of different methods to collect data. Data collection in this study involved the use of drawings as well as narratives. This study was conducted under the supervision of a highly experienced supervisor, and therefore, consultations and debriefing sessions were done.
3.8.2 Transferability

Transferability refers to the extent to which the findings of a qualitative study are transferable to other contexts and participants that bear similarities to one’s research site and participants (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:277; De Vos, 2007:346). Transferability can be heightened in a qualitative study through purposive sampling and by maximising the depth and richness of the data collected.

In this qualitative study, I recognised the need to ensure that findings could be transferred to other contexts, as suggested by Schurink et al. (2011:420). I therefore ensured that the limitations of the study are stated (in Chapter 6), the size of the sample is specified, the methods are clearly described and the duration of the data collection process is specified as per recommendations of Shenton (2004:70).

3.8.3 Dependability

Dependability refers to the need for a qualitative researcher to logically document and audit the entire research process (Schurink et al., 2011:420). The researcher must also review preceding studies and highlight their findings, those that are similar and those that are different to his or hers (De Vos, 2007:346). Furthermore, Shenton (2004:71) adds that describing one’s procedures and referring to similar and different findings from previous studies will enable a future researcher to repeat the study if there is a need to confirm the reported findings. The research design and its implementation were clearly described in Chapters 1 and 3. Data gathering methods were also explained in Chapters 1 and 3.

3.8.4 Confirmability

Confirmability in qualitative research captures the traditional concept of objectivity (Schurink et al., 2011:421). It refers to the extent to which other people can confirm the findings that the researcher made in his or her study. In order to enhance confirmability
in my study, I went back to the research site and provided the participants with opportunities to comment on the findings, and their comments were compared to my own interpretation. I had reviewed literature and doing so enabled me to be aware of findings and results from previous studies. Those findings were incorporated in my own analysis in Chapter 5.

3.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Maree and Van der Westhuizen (2010:41) stress the importance of ethics when the research is conducted. I made sure that the following ethics were implemented during data collection.

3.9.1 Permission to Conduct Research

My first step was to get ethical approval from North-West University (VTC). My proposal was reviewed by The OPTENTIA Ethics Committee at the North-West University (VTC) and granted approval to undergo with research. My number in the approval letter was FH-SB-2012-0020; the letter of approval is attached in the appendices (cf. Appendix E).

As my research involves street children, permission to conduct research was obtained from the Non-Governmental Organization care giver with the agreement that the findings of the study be shared with them on completion of the study. Therefore, a final copy of this dissertation will be submitted to the Drop-in-centre. The letter of approval by the caregiver of the drop-in-centre to conduct research at the shelters attached (cf. Appendix A).

After obtaining permission from the care giver, participants were approached and informed about the nature of the research. Participants were presented with a letter from the care-giver granting permission to do research at the drop-in-centre (cf. Appendix B). Participants were then provided with the informed consent form which they completed voluntarily (cf. Appendix C). Permission to participate in the study was sought from the individual participants.
3.9.2 Avoidance of harm

There is a widespread recognition of the fact that participants in research can be vulnerable to physical or psychological harm (Babbie, 2011:479; Babbie & Mouton, 2007:522; Strydom, 2011:115). There is therefore a need for the participants to be shielded from any harm, be it physical or psychological (Kumar, 2014:286; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:101). This study bore no physical or psychological harm to the participants. Risks involved in the study were not beyond the normal day-to-day risks of life for a child (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:101).

The data collection strategy was child-friendly and comprised drawings and the writing of narratives, which are natural activities for learners. Debriefing and other forms of psychological assistance were available in case any learner showed signs of emotional hurt.

3.9.3 Voluntary participation

According to Rubin and Babbie (cited by Strydom, 2011:116), participation in the research study should be voluntary, and no one should be forced to participate in any study. The participants were not forced to participate in this study when data was collected, but they were engaged in the study out of their own will. I designed consent forms that were filled by the participants. These forms were co-signed by the NGO staff as well as their caregivers. This is to ensure that the participants will be treated with utmost respect and dignity. The participants knew that they could withdraw from the study even if their caregivers and the NGO staff had agreed to let them participate in the study. The participants, and not the NGO staff or their caregivers, voluntarily agreed to let me use their drawings in this study.
3.9.4 Informed consent

It is important that participants be fully informed about the study they are about to participate in. It is only then that they will make informed decisions about participation, since they have been made aware of the nature of the study, the type of information that will be collected from them, the reasons why the information is needed, how they are expected to participate in the study and how it will directly or indirectly affect them (Kumar, 2014:285). They also need to know that their privacy and sensitivity will be protected (Henning et al., 2004:73).

I provided the participants with letters that asked for their permission to take part in the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:102). The letters contained all the information about the objectives of the study, the steps that would be followed for data collection, and the duration that the session will be conducted. The consent letter was also accompanied by another consent letter from the organisation, which permits me to use the resources of the centre (Henning et al., 2004:73).

3.9.5 Deception of subjects and/or respondents

According to Babbie (2011:485), it is not desirable to deceive participants into taking part in a study for ethical reasons. There was no deception of the participants in this study. All the information was disclosed correctly, without misleading the respondents. The nature of the study, the aim of it and the manner in which the data would be collected were explained in the languages that they understood. This was done in the presence of the NGO staff who had received a letter explaining the study in detail prior to commencement of the study.

3.9.6 Violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality

The principle of privacy ensures that the subject has a right to make decisions about where, when, to whom and to what extent his attitude and behaviour will be revealed (Strydom, 2011:119). Anonymity and confidentiality can also be kept by ensuring that
the source of the information that has been collected cannot be identified (Kumar, 2014:286). Confidentiality and privacy of the participants were maintained by ensuring anonymity in the data that I collected. The participants were given pseudonyms so as to conceal their identities. The name of the NGO was not disclosed, again, as a way of protecting their privacy and respecting their human dignity.

3.9.7 Compensation

There are researchers who offer their subjects incentives after obtaining information from them (Kumar, 2014:285). Nonetheless, according to Strydom (2011:122), such incentives should not be the only reason why participants take part in the study. In fact, participation in a study should be voluntary so as not to deny participants their rights to withdraw from the study or to say whether or not their responses should be used or not. In this study, the participants volunteered to take part in the study and were aware that they would not be compensated for their participation. They could refuse to take part, withdraw their participation at any time and decline to let me use their drawings I therefore decided to thank them for their participation and let them retain the pencils and erasers, since they needed them for school.

3.9.8 Debriefing of participants

Debriefing entails interviews to discover any problem generated by the research experience so that those problems can be corrected (Babbie, 2011:486). According to Strydom (2011:122), debriefing interviews must take place in a supportive and therapeutic context. After data collection process, I conducted a debriefing interview with the subjects by asking them about their feelings after completing their drawings and narrative descriptions. This session aimed to correct any misconceptions that might have aroused during the process of data collection. I honestly answered the participants’ questions. I also asked the participants how they felt about the whole process. I furthermore used that opportunity to give the participants words of motivation and encouragement, using my teaching experience in that regard.
3.9.9 Actions and competence of the researchers

Researchers are ethically obliged to ensure that they are competent, honest and skilled when conducting an investigation (Strydom, 2011:123). My competence was assured by my qualification, i.e. an honours degree, before the study was conducted. The guidance and supervision by my supervisor contributed to the quality of this research. Plagiarism was avoided at all cost. All the work of researchers that I used in this study was recognised in the reference list.

3.9.10 Cooperation with contributors and sponsors

Contributors in a research are normally the colleagues that participate in the research process, and sponsors are organisations that contribute financially to the research project (Strydom, 2011:124). The sponsors may provide funds to develop a programme or evaluate it (Kumar, 2014:288). My colleague and the centre manager contributed in the study by ensuring that all the materials required for the study were available.

3.9.11 Publication of the findings

Strydom (2011:126) recommends that the findings of a study be disseminated to the reading public. As per the recommendations of North-West University and the supervisor, I intend to disseminate the findings of my study by co-publishing them with my supervisor. I also intend to read a paper based on the findings at a conference in 2016.

3.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter explained the method of research by discussing issues such as research paradigm, research method, strategy of enquiry, participants selection, data collection strategy, data analysis, participants, trustworthiness and ethical issues that were followed when data was collected for the study. The next chapter focuses on data analysis and interpretation.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The foregoing chapter discussed the research methodology employed in this study. The data from the empirical phase of this study are discussed in this chapter. This was a qualitative study that used the draw-and-write technique as a data collection method. I collected the drawings and the narratives, and I repeatedly studied the drawings and read the narratives in order to understand what was going on in the lives of the participants. I needed to unearth their lived experiences, past and present, in order to understand how they experienced their lives and how they made meaning out of them. This chapter will provide details of the themes that emerged from the data. Figure 4.1 provides an overview of this chapter.
Figure 4.1: Layout of Chapter 4

4.2. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Table 4.1 shows the demographics of the participants of this study:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPANTS</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>GRADE</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>DURATION ON STREET</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alusha</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texeria</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sello</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daniella</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>6 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selepe</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moeketsi</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moleboheng</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>4 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hope</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ina</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>5 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ofentshe</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratu</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>4 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumelo</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noni</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puleng</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>1 month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peter</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qhubeka</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muva</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>5 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.1: Demographic information of participants

Table 4.1 shows that there were 24 participants that took part in this study, and they were between the ages of 14 and 18. An equal number of boys and girls participated in this study, meaning that there were 12 girls and 12 boys in it. I did not use the real names to label the participants, but instead I used pseudonyms to ensure privacy in line with ethical principles.

4.3. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DRAWINGS

I immersed myself in the data by viewing the drawings and narratives repeatedly. I was able to group the drawings according to the main themes. The drawings were grouped into the following themes:

- The participants were struggling to deal with the loss or death of a loved one/loved ones.
- The participants were not feeling safe and secure.
- The participants witnessed domestic violence and abuse.
- The participants had hopes for the future.
- The participants adhered to religious faith.
In this discussion, I included the drawings and the narratives. I made no attempts to language edit the narratives. This means that I included them as they were originally written by the participants.

4.3.1. The participants had experienced the loss of loved ones

Four participants made drawings and wrote narratives that show that they were struggling to cope with the loss of their loved ones. In this regard, Alusha made two drawings: a drawing of the upper half of a human body. The human body does not have arms. Underneath the human body, there was a drawing of a coffin.

![Figure 4.2: Drawing by Alusha](image)

That drawing that I draw is my grandmother and the coffin of my parents. My parents past away when I was seven years. My grandmother helped me a lot. She made the funeral of my parents. And I want God to help me about my grandmother to be ok.
Alusha indicated that the human figure represented his grandmother and that the coffin represented the death of his parents, which occurred when he was only seven years old. It is noteworthy that the participant’s grandmother was instrumental in helping him cope and that she made funeral arrangements for the burial of the participant’s parents. In other words, the presence of and the support from his grandmother enabled him to cope with the difficult time that he was experiencing. This means that the sub-themes that are contained in the narrative are death, social support and religiosity. Earlier studies showed that supportive family members can be a source of resilience for youth who are at risk of poor developmental outcomes (Malindi & Theron, 2010:318; Panter-Brick, 2002:159).

A second participant, Stephany, drew two coffins and a car. The car represented her dream car, while the coffin represented the death of her parents. She then wrote a narrative explaining her drawings.

Figure 4.3: Drawing by Stephany
The explanation is as follows:

What I draw here it was my mother and father’s death. I was so break down, I feel my life is ending up, now, other picture is what I want in life. A big house with fancy car and clothes that I wear. Firstly I don’t want to share my secret of where I come from so. Thank you!!!

The participant (Stephaney) was still experiencing sadness which she characterised as being broken down. It is clear that the participant felt like her life had come to an end when her parents passed away. She dealt with her loss by thinking about the positive and successful life she would like to have in the future. Orphaned children are increasing worldwide (Charma, 2008:411) and some of them lose hope of a better life. Killian (2004) found that hope and focusing on the future can serve as protective resources that can lessen the impact of risk and adversity. It is noteworthy that the participant would not disclose where she came from. The sub-themes that emerged from the narrative compiled by Stephany are sadness, experiencing catastrophe, optimism about the future and shame about her place of origin.

Loyiso made a drawing that contained a theme of death and loss. In this drawing, there are two human faces, a male and a female face. The faces are detached from the bodies. It is noteworthy that these are smiling faces.

Figure 4.4 Drawing by Loyiso
The narrative by Loyiso follows.

The drawing is the story to tell that my mother and my father dead [died] when I was 10 years old. I did not cry but I stand up and ask God what is happening I am alone. They are gone after that I started cry. My grandmother supported me there. I leave at Welkom and go to stay here at Senekal.

The narrative shows that Loyiso took time to accept that his parents had passed away. His grandmother supported him during the hard times. Sub-themes contained in Loyiso’s narrative include sadness resulting from the death of parents, feeling alone, seeking answers from God, support from his grandmother and migration from one town to another.

The drawing by Daniella shows five people standing in a row, with the sixth one (a woman) lying inside a coffin. The five people who are in a row are labelled as father, son, daughter and twin daughters. Lying inside the coffin is the picture of the mother.

Figure 4.5: Drawing by Daniella
Her story is as follows:

Me and my family lived happy with each other until one bad thing happened; it was in July when the thing happened. It was one morning when I told my mother that it was time for medication, I only thought she was sleeping but little did I know. I shook [shook] her but she didn’t wake up. I ran off to my dad’s room to tell him to wake mom up, when he got out of the room, he was crying, I asked him what was the matter, he said “I’m sorry my child but (it) was time”. I asked again, he said my mother is dead, I did not understand because I was just 13 years of age. My mother was the only person who kept my family together but now, we go our own ways. I miss my mother so much and wish to see her again but she is gone now. I love my mother so much.

MAY HER SOUL REST IN PEACE!!!

The narrative shows that Daniella was still struggling to cope with the loss of her mother, and that cut her happiness short. It is clear that she longed to see her mother, whom she loved. The narrative contains sub-themes such as the long-term illness of the mother, a parentified child, the shock when the participant’s mother died, loneliness, longing for her mother, love for her mother, wishing to see her mother again and wishing her mother a peaceful rest.

It can be concluded that the participants were battling to overcome grief due to the loss of attachment figures.

4.3.2. The participants did not feel safe and secure

Some of the challenges facing youth nowadays are lack of safety and security. There are two drawings and narratives that show that the participants felt unsafe and insecure. In his drawing, Peter made a drawing of a boy sitting at the table reading a book in front of him.
Figure 4.6: Drawing by Peter

In his narrative, Peter said the following:

*I want to do well in my school work and I also want to stay away from drugs. I want my mother and father to be proud of me. I want to go to university and after that find a good job. I want to help my parents financially. I want my parents to be proud of me that I am attending school.*

From the narrative, it is clear that Peter was motivated to do well despite exposure to risk and adversity. The narrative further shows that he aspired to achieve success in life so that he could support his parents. The sub-themes that emerge from the narrative are as follows: wanting to do well at school, the desire to avoid drugs, making parents proud, a wish to go to university, finding a good job, and financially supporting parents.

Another participant (Selepe) made a drawing that has three human figures and a bicycle. The human figure in the middle is of himself running away from a known criminal who abused substances. In front of the human figure in flight is another, a child, who is also running away. A bicycle is left unattended.
Figure 4.7: Drawing by Selepe

In explaining the drawing, Selepe said the following:

*There is a person called XXXX. He likes to smoke dagga and he also like to rape and kill girls. He breaks into people’s houses at night. Every time when we pass near his place, he chases and beat us up with stones. When he is bored he goes to the sports ground just to cause chaos there. He has chased my friend up ten times when he was going to school.*

The narrative provides details on how Selepe feels unsafe in the community. Feeling unsafe is listed as a risk factor that can impair resilience from functioning in young people. The narrative contains themes of fear and anxiety.

4.3.3. The participants witnessed and experienced domestic violence and abuse

Families play a prominent role in the development of a person as a whole. The role of the community can also be stressed in ensuring safety and support to its citizens. Some of the participants made drawings that depicted domestic violence and abuse. These
drawings and narratives show that street-involved children subsisting environments where there are violence and abuse. For example, Ina made a drawing in which there are three human figures. One of three human figures is male and the other two figures are females.

![Image of a drawing by Ina](image)

**Figure 4.8: Drawing by Ina**

The following narrative was compiled by Ina to shed light on the drawing. In it, she says the following:

*When my mother and father fight, I did feel bad about it. My father did not love my mother. I have learned that fighting is not good. It makes me scared.*

Ina had witnessed domestic violence and strife in the family. Abuse, violence and the breakdown of trust within households cause children to migrate to the streets (Contini & Hulme, 2007:203). In her narrative, Ina expresses doubt that her father loved her mother as well as an understanding that fighting is not undesirable. The sub-themes of sadness and fear emerge from this short narrative.

Hennie made several drawings on one page. In the first drawing, there is a woman cooking on a stove and a man sitting at a table. This part is labelled “not good”. The
second part of the drawing has in it trees, furniture and a house. This part of the drawing is labelled “very good”.

![Figure 4.9: Drawing by Hennie](image)

In explaining the drawing, Hennie said the following:

*I want to have a good and big house and a family. No fighting or punishment. Only peace. I want to have my own car; kids and good mosadi (wife). I really want that in my life. I also want a very good job.*

This narrative shows that even though there was no peace in the home where the Hennie resided, he had hope for the future nonetheless. He also wishes to change the life he was living then, which is characterised by violence and abuse. The narrative contains sub-themes such as violence, abuse and a yearning for peace.

Jane made a drawing in which there are two children and a book between them. One is male and the other is female.
Figure 4.10: Drawing by Jane

Jane explained her drawing by saying:

*When I grew up my father did not want me to succeed in life. Every day when I come home from school, he did not want me to touch books. He usually rebuked me every day and then chased me out of the house. Sometimes he did not want me to go to school. Today I am proud of myself because I am succeeding in life and God has been with me all along. I am doing grade 10. My father has changed; he treats me like his child. He even encourages me to do my school work.*

It is evident from the narrative that Jane experienced neglect (a form of abuse) in the hands of her father. The sub-themes of feeling unloved, tenacity, religiosity and a sense of accomplishment are evident from the narrative.

Puleng made a drawing of two human figures. One of the two human figures represents her parent and another represents herself. The two figures stand apart from each other.
Puleng wrote the following narrative that explains his drawing:

*Here I am going to talk about me and my parent. This parent of mine sometimes rebukes me but I know that she loves me and is showing me the right ways. She has taught me that what goes around comes around…*

The narrative by Puleng shows that she was raised in a family context in which she was physically abused. It is also evident that her mother was extreme in her way of dealing with transgressions, so much that she was scared of her. The sub-theme of abuse, fear and helplessness occur in the narrative.

The drawing made by Ratu shows two female human figures. The bigger figure’s mouth is open wide, while the mouth of the smaller figure is closed.
The narrative by Ratu follows.

My grandmother used to rebuke me when I do not go to church. She used to tell me that I cannot stay with her if I don’t go to church. I was so hurt when she told me that I do not respect her anymore and she will chase me out of her house because I am grown up now. One day I beat my sibling and she asked me why I did it. She did not even listen to the reasons why I did it. She also accused me of stealing her money. She continues to rebuke me harshly and I feel so bad that I asked myself what is going on with me? Why am I treated this way that I fend for myself?

Ratu subsists in an environment beset with threats and hurt caused by the parenting style of her caregiver. It is evident that the caregiver was unreasonable in dealing with conflict among the children and often accused her of theft. The sub-themes that emerged from the narrative are abuse, hurt, anger, disrespect, harsh punishment, harsh treatment and sadness.

The drawing made by Tumelo shows a house, car, a couple and a child. The two adult figures are his mother and father.
Figure 4.13: Drawing by Tumelo

The following narrative explains his drawing:

_When my mother and father fight, I felt bad. My father did not love my mother. The car you see is my dream car and my dream house is also there. I have learnt that fighting is not right._

It is evident from the narrative that Tumelo was growing up in a family where parents fought physically. This is evidence of domestic violence fuelled by what he perceived to be lack of love on the part of his father. It is noteworthy that the participant felt that the violence that characterised his life was unacceptable. The sub-themes contained in the narrative include domestic violence, lack of love and hope for a bright future.
Ofentshe was cared for by her grandparents. In her drawing, her grandparents can be seen. She made a drawing of herself too.

Figure 4.14: Drawing by Ofentshe

The explanation of the picture is as follows:

*That house is where I live and my grandfather tell me that all my parents die and they did have their own house so I must go and look where I can live.*

It is clear that the drawing of the human figure that represents Ofentshe is shedding tears. In her narrative, She explains that the reason for crying is because of expulsion by the care-giving grandparents. This is a form of child abuse, namely, neglect. The sub-themes of parental mortality, rejection and neglect are evident from the narrative.

The drawing made by Noni shows two human figures, one labelled “my sister” and the other labelled “myself”.

102
Figure 4.15: Drawing by Noni

The narrative that explains the drawing follows.

That is the picture where me and my sister were fighting. We like to fight and I don't like to fight with her or shouting at each other. I like her to show me where I'm doing mistakes and then I can learn from my mistakes. So I wish that me and her would stop fighting because when I fight with her, our fight affect my school work and I don't concentrate easily in the class and I don't want to see myself failed at the end. I don't want to see myself failed at the end of the year. So that is the challenge I faced in my life.

The narrative by Noni shows that she was worried by the bad relationship she has with her sister. She was afraid that this bad relationship might affect her studies badly. The sub-themes that are found in this narrative are sibling rivalry, lack of communication, longing for peace, and love for school work or studies.
Hope made two drawings. The first drawing shows two people. One is younger, and the other is older. The older one is saying to the younger one, “I’ve just said I’m sorry” and the younger one is saying “I’m going to tell my mother”.

Figure 4.16: The first drawing of Hope

It is evident from the drawing that there was rivalry between Hope and his brother. This is evidenced from the narrative:

*Story 1: I do not like it when my brother is teasing me and making lame jokes about me. Especially I feel hurt because we are family and we must respect and care for each other.*

The narrative shows that Hope was teased and made to endure unsavoury jokes. It is also clear that the participant was hurt and felt disrespected and uncared for.

Hope made a second drawing which shows a girl standing next to a board. The girl is pointing at the chalkboard that has sums on it.
Figure 4.17: The second drawing by Hope

The narrative for the second drawing by Hope is the following:

Other times are very hard and embarrassing that I will have to get in front of every learner in the classroom and make a revise of the same work we did. I think that they will just laugh at me just the way I am and look.

The narrative that Hope wrote tells about the classroom situation where she had to stand in front of other learners and solve mathematical problems. She was not happy about the activity, and her unhappiness was caused by the fear that they might laugh at her because of the ‘way she looked’. The narrative by Hope has sub-themes such as
lack of self-confidence, difficult school work, and lack of self-love (McAdam-Crisp, 2006:463).

Moeketsi made a drawing showing two people. One of them is crying, while another looks angry with a belt in hand.

Figure 4.18: Drawing by Moeketsi

The narrative explanation of the participants is as follows:

I was playing in the street when my siblings caused the planks to fall. My aunt came and asked me who did that. When I went back home she said I must call others and asked us again about the planks. We told her that we did not know who exactly did it then she began to beat us with a belt.
It is evident that Moeketsi and his peers had experienced physical abuse for something he claims they did not do. The narrative contains a sub-theme of physical abuse and unfairness that characterised the life of the participant.

4.3.4. The participants had hopes for the future

Life’s challenges experienced by youngsters do not stop them from hoping for a brighter future, and a good education is believed to be the key to success. For example, the drawing made by Qhubeka shows a school building and two human figures inside it. One is older, and the other is younger. From the drawing, it is clear that one of them is a learner, and the other is a teacher.

![Figure 4.19: Drawing by Qhubeka](image)

The narrative explanation of Qhubeka follows.

*I want to get education because education is good and when I don’t learn so much and rich (reach) want to rich (reach)...I like to be educated because education is important in our lives. Through education you can be employed anywhere.*
The narrative suggests that it is Qhubeka’s dream to live a better life in the future. She believes that education can enable her to achieve success in her life. The sub-themes that are contained in her narrative are the importance of education, hope for a better life and a good job.

Morena drew a male human figure and a shack next to him.

**Figure 4.20: Drawing by Morena**

In his narrative explanation, Morena wrote:

*My name is XXX. When I grow up I want to be a doctor or a chemical engineering (engineer) because I see that many of Africans die of diseases. I want to live in a beautiful house with all the things I have done. But I suffer and I don’t want to live in a shack for the coming generations.*

Morena’s narrative shows that he wants to be a doctor when he grows up so that he can treat patients. His life is however characterised by suffering associated with poor living
conditions. Destitution did not discourage the participant, since he continued to dream about a better life. The narrative by Morena contains sub-themes such as destitution and hopes for a brighter future.

There are two pictures of houses in the drawing that Sello made. The first house is a shack, and the second drawing shows a house and a car outside. The shack represents the kind of life that Sello was living; the life was characterised by poverty.

Many young at-risk people are not happy with the life they are living. Some of them try to escape poverty by engaging in illegal activities such as crime and abusing drugs and end up on the streets in their search for a better life.

Figure 4.21: Drawing by Sello

Sello’s narrative is as follows:
The drawing is all about different houses. The first is the shack that representing the hard life or poverty. The other is a house and a car which represent better life. The shack describes the situation that I am certainly in, which is poverty and hard life that I found myself in. The house represents the better life and the car will be representing wealth which in future I want to see myself achieving. The drawing is all about changing. The situation and conditions that I am facing, into the better situation of the whole family.

Sello’s narrative is about the kind of life he does not like and the life he wished to live in future. He did not like the life he was living, which was characterised by poverty and hardship. He hoped that his life would change for the better in the future. The sub-themes in his narrative include poverty, hope for a better life and a desire to be wealthy.

4.3.5. The participants adhered to religious faith

Religious faith plays an important role in enabling strength or resilient coping in young people such as street children who are typically facing life’s challenges. Phehello made a drawing of a big and beautiful house. Outside the house, there is a tree, and near the tree stands two people who are in love.

Figure 4.22: Drawing by Phehello
The narrative explanation of Phehello’s drawing is as follows:

In my life I want to be rich and good with wives and not suffer. I want to work hard than yesterday. I wish the Lord can help me to find my dreams and I’m really sure that I’m going to do it.

In his narrative, Phehello shows a desire to live a life free of suffering. It is evident that he aspires to have a beautiful house and live a life characterised by love. Research shows that street children have histories of feeling unloved and unwanted (cf. 2.3). His narrative has the sub-themes of suffering, wishing for good life, hard work, faith and determination.

Muva made a simple drawing of a human figure and the Bible next to it.

![Image of Muva's drawing](image)

**Figure 4.23: Drawing by Muva**

This is how Muva explained his drawing:

When I grow up I want to respect other people so that they respect me. I want to live in the house of God because God is the one that made us and I want to thank him for what He did to us all.
The narrative that Muva wrote shows that he wants to have good relationships with people around him and with God. The narrative contains sub-themes such as religious faith, respect, church going and gratefulness to God. Research focusing on what enables resilience in street children shows that they have faith (Theron, Theron & Malindi, 2013: 77).

In the drawing made by Texeria, there are two girls and a Bible between them.

![Figure 4.24: Drawing by Texeria](image)

**Figure 4.24: Drawing by Texeria**

The narrative by Texeria is as follows:

*It is me, my sister and the Bible. If I have some problems I told my sister about that thing that are not good for me and also pray for her to God. I have to pray in many times when I’m in troubles and told my sister about it. And I also love to go to church to prays God, and my sister help me about what I told him that is not good for me. Many times my sister ask me that if I’m ok and I will told him if I’m not good as well as I’m. I love to take my sister especially when from somewhere and ask him about what I here and*
what I see. My sister is so good to me. Because he can understand what I am going through and what I want and what I did if it is good/wrong.

The narrative by Texeria shows that her relationship with the Lord and her sister was strong. Despite what she was experiencing as a street child, she led a prayerful life. She and her sister shared their problems with each other. She trusted her sister a lot. The sub-themes in this narrative are a strong relationship with a sister, prayerfulness, faith in God and love for church.

Moleboheng made a drawing of a big cross. The name “Jesus” is written in big letters on the cross, and around the cross, it is written in small letters. She also wrote the phrase “God bless us”.

Figure 4.25: Drawing by Moleboheng
Moleboheng’s narrative explanation says:

_I like that picture because the Satanism they will never get me and it gives me a power to go to church. I like it because I attend church every Sunday, and when I have some problems I pray, then my God answer my problems. Thank you for listening to me._

Moleboheng believed that if she was at church, she would be safe from Satanism and that the symbol of a cross as well as the name “Jesus” was a shield for her. The strong faith in the Lord, which she had, enabled her to survive risk and adversity. The sub-themes of her narrative are faith (cross), fear of Satanism, going to church as a solution to problems and believing in God.

The drawing made by Thato shows a building with three crosses in the front. The door of the building is half open. It is clear that the building is a church. Just below the church drawing, there is another drawing that shows different types of drugs.

**Figure 4.26: Drawing by Thato**
The narrative of Thato’s drawing follows.

*Drawing 1:* The pictures that I have drawn shows where I will go when I am in trouble because God says come to me while time is still there. When we are in temptations we must run to HIM because we will find help in church. Even at home, when we are in troubles we know that we must go and speak with the pastor who will help us. What I have written therefore is that in times of sorrows and troubles, the church is where we get our help from.

The narrative shows that the life of Thato was characterised by tribulations and that he kept his faith in the Lord nevertheless. The narrative shows that the pastor was instrumental in enabling him to cope with risk and adversity. The extension of the narrative was written in Sesotho, and it is indicated under Drawing 2.

*Drawing 2:* Drugs are not important because they make you lawless therefore you will always be in troubles because of them. In this drawing, I’m just saying children must respect each other and stay away from dealing with drugs.

It is clear that his life was affected by substance abuse; however, he was aware that drugs were not to be abused.

Several sub-themes emerged from the narratives that depicted the daily struggles of street-involved children. These themes provide an understanding of streetism as experienced by the participants who took part in this study. Table 4.2 provides a summary of these themes and sub-themes.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MAIN THEMES</th>
<th>SUB-THEMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The participants were struggling to deal with the loss of loved ones.</td>
<td>Sadness, lonesomeness, social support, religiosity, devastation, experiencing catastrophe, optimism about the future and shame about her place of abode, anger, support, change of environment due to parents’ death, long time illness of a parent, parentified child, shock due to parents’ death, loneliness, longing for a parent who passed away and accepting that the parent is gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The participants did not feel safe and secure.</td>
<td>Wanting to do well at school, desire to avoid drugs, giving pride to parents, a wish to go to university, finding a good job, financially supporting parents, fear and anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The participants witnessed and experienced.</td>
<td>Sadness, fear, violence, (physical) abuse, tenacity, religiosity, a sense of accomplishment, feeling unloved, helplessness, hurt, anger, disrespect, harsh punishment, harsh treatment, lack of love, hopes for bright future, parental mortality, rejection, neglect, sibling rivalry, lack of communication, longing for peace, love for school work (studies), bullying by sibling, lack of respect, lack of self-confidence, difficult school work, lack of self-love and unfairness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The participants had hopes for the future.</td>
<td>Importance of education, hopes for a better life, good job, future plans in career path, better life, poverty, wish of being wealthy, future achievements, better life for family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The participants adhered to</td>
<td>Wishing for better life, hard working, faith in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2: A summary of main themes and sub-themes of this study

| religious faith. | God and determination, respect, attending church, gratefulness to God, strong relationship with the sister, love for church, fear of Satanism, pastoral counselling, church roles, danger and troublesomeness of drugs |

4.4. CONCLUSION

Risk factors such as death of parents, poverty, and family abuse and social violence make children more vulnerable. Other challenges that were mentioned in this chapter are abuse of drugs and the religion of Satanism. These challenges have a negative impact on the lives of children in communities. Familial, social, community and governmental support seem to bring hope in children’s lives. Those factors include a strong family support and community structures such as churches, social workers, police and others. From this analysis, it is therefore evident – as was indicated in literature – that street children are in need of support. The following chapter will focus on the conclusions, findings and recommendations of this study.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The penultimate chapter was a presentation of the data from this study. This final chapter revisits the aim of this study and presents the conclusions that emanated from the findings of the two phases of this study, namely, the literature and empirical study. This concluding chapter also outlines the limitations and contributions of this study as well as the recommendations for further research and practice.

5.2 THE AIM REVISITED

The aim of the study was to explore how street children understood streetism. To achieve this aim, the sub-aims in Table 5.1 were pursued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVE OF PHASE 1</th>
<th>ACHIEVED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To conduct a literature study in order to:</td>
<td>This objective was achieved by conducting a literature study on both the concepts of streetism and resilience. The streetism phenomenon was discussed in Chapter 2, where the risks that cause streetism were outlined. Global and local trends regarding streetism were explored. Resilience was also explored in Chapter 3, where the risks to resilience and resilience resources were discussed. It was evident that indeed, there is resilience in street children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• explore the phenomenon of streetism;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• outline risks that cause streetism; and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• explore the phenomenon of resilience among street children.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVE OF PHASE 2</th>
<th>ACHIEVED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To conduct an empirical research in</td>
<td>This objective was achieved by conducting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

118
order to:

- investigate what streetism entails according to street children.

| empirical research in which the researcher explored the life-worlds of street children’s understanding of streetism. This was done through the use of symbolic drawings and narratives. |

**Table 5.1: Aims of the study**

It is evident from Table 5.1 that the aims of this study were all achieved.

### 5.3 CONCLUSIONS FROM LITERATURE STUDY

#### 5.3.1 Exploring streetism

Literature study shows that the term, streetism denotes street life (Ennew, 2003) with the deleterious consequences that it entails.

The term, street child is used worldwide to refer to children who live and work on the streets; however, the term is still problematic (Panter-Brick, 2002:149). A street child could be a homeless or neglected girl or boy below the age of 18 (Cheng & Lam, 2010:355).

There are many derogatory terms that were used in different countries to refer to street children. Some of these names highlighted the negative perceptions that the public have of street children (Banette, 1995:8; Vogel, 2001:231; Le Roux, 2001:106; Lalor *et al.*, 2002:343).

Street children are categorised as children-on-the-street, children-of-the-street, children who are completely neglected by their families and children who are doing rubbish picking and scavenging, and former children-of-the-street who reside in shelters (Ayuku *et al.*, 2004:25; Panter-Brick, 2002:149; West, 2003:10).
More boys than girls are found on the streets. The reason for this is that vulnerable girls are taken into homes for domestic work, or they join the sex industry (Le Roux, 2001).

Street children survive by doing odd jobs such as begging for money, helping motorists park their cars, washing cars, shoe polishing and prostitution. Some of the children on the street do the afore-mentioned work with the aim of making financial contributions to their families, to abuse drugs and for drug trafficking (Schurink, 1994:5; Boakye-Boaten, 2006:49; Van Niekerk et al., 2007:12; Ward & Seager, 2010:87).

Generally, street children are subjected to sexual, emotional and physical exploitation (Cockburn, 2004:46).

Reasons why children migrate to the streets are identified as either “pull” or “push” factors (Le Roux, 1996:3). Push factors are those factors that push children to the streets, such as poverty, overcrowding and abuse, while pull factors include factors that pull children to the streets (Ward & Seager, 2010:88). Children are pulled to the streets by factors such as attraction, independence, excitement and enjoyment of a “glamorous life” (Le Roux, 1996:3; Human & Thomas, 2008:208; Raffaelli et al., 2001:407).

Some researchers explained the causes of streetism as falling into the following categories (Schurink, 1994:108; Grundling et al., 2004:92):

- **macro level** (factors that are within the community and governmental factors and include policies such as economic policies, unemployment policies, and non-compulsory education);

- **meso level** (familial factors such as movement of parents from rural areas to cities, poor standard of living, single-parent families, lack of parental control and supervision, and presence of step-parents); and

- **micro level** (individual factors such as escaping from intolerable situations such as hunger, brutality, shame, failure at school, lack of money for books or uniform, feeling unwanted and as a burden to the family, and runaway welfare institutions).
5.3.2 Exploring the resilience phenomenon

There is still no consensus on how resilience can best be defined (Luthar et al., 2007:2). The definition of resilience has been improved since early years. Later, resilience was perceived as an innate quality that makes people invulnerable (Ungar, 2005:91). The latest studies identified protective factors that were associated with the context in which a person lived (Ungar, 2005:91).

The literature study shows that resilience is a context-specific construct that is difficult to define (Dass-Brailsford, 2005:575; Henley, 2010:297). A risk in one context may not be a risk in another context. A protective resource in one context may be a risk in another context.

The risks that render children vulnerable and threaten their resilience are poverty, racial discrimination and social injustice, limited opportunities for education and employment, child abuse and neglect, parental conflict and psychopathology, poor parenting, and biomedical problems (Brooks, 2006:69). These risks may result in mental ill-health, school dropouts, teenage pregnancy, substance abuse and juvenile crime (Mampane & Bouwer, 2006:16).

Protective processes enable people to cope resiliently despite risk and adversity (Brooks, 2006:69; Theron & Malindi, 2010:719). These protective processes are internal and external protective resources. Personal protective resources include interpersonal skills, competency, high self-regard, intelligence, self-esteem and self-efficacy (Bogar & Hulse-Killacky, 2006:319; Brooks, 2006:69).

External resources include familial, extra-familial and cultural resources, pre-schools and schools, community-based organisations, youth groups and friendships (Henley, 2010:297). The literature study shows that risks and protective resources are context-specific too. The study shows that there is resilience among street children even though they are facing adversity (Malindi, 2009:58; Theron, 2007:2; Orme & Seipel, 2007:491).
5.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION FROM EMPIRICAL STUDY

The data collection method used to conduct the empirical study in this research involved symbolic drawings and narratives, as was mentioned in Chapter one. After reading the drawings of participants, the following themes were therefore yielded:

- The participants were struggling to deal with the loss or death of a loved one or loved ones.
- The participants were not feeling safe and secure.
- The participants witnessed domestic violence and abuse.
- The participants had hopes for the future.
- The participants adhered to religious faith.

These themes reveal what the participants were experiencing in their lives and what enabled their resilience. Three themes represent negative life experiences such as losing parents (a mother or a father, or both) through death, a feeling of being unsafe and insecure because of bullies, domestic violence, and physical, emotional and verbal abuse. Some of these life challenges were mentioned in the literature, and therefore, this study proves the existence of these challenges (Charma, 2008:411).

There were positives such as having hopes about the future and religion that assisted the participants to cope during hard times. Religious faith also contributes in dealing with threats. Therefore, both religion and future hope are contributing factors to the resilience of street children.

Poverty was identified as one of the root causes of streetism, and hoping for a better future is a coping mechanism for street children (Orme & Seipel, 2007:497).
5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

All stakeholders (families, schools, churches, social workers, psychologists, etc.) should take care of children who are bereaving due to their loss of parent/parents.

Extended families, if there are any, should be assisted in ensuring that these children are taken care of by providing them with love, food and a sense of belonging. In a case where there is no extended family, the community should play a vital role by involving NGOs, who can ensure wellbeing of bereaving children. Churches should provide spiritual healing and a sense of hope to these children. Businesses people can also contribute food parcels and clothes as part of social responsibility programs to assist street children. Schools are working mostly with children and they should identify those learners and work together with education districts, provincial and national Department of basic Education to ensure that grieving learners are healed.

Children’s rights should be recognized and respected by everyone.

Children (including street children) should be protected against any form of violence and abuse, either familial or societal. Children’s rights should be respected and nurtured by everyone. The community members should work together to stop all the actions of violence and child abuse and ensure that all children are benefiting in their rights to be educated, right to health and health services and right to play, leisure and culture. Government must make sure that people are knowledgeable about all children’s rights.

Education can be used as a tool to eliminate streetism

Department of education should ensure that resilience promoting programs for schools are at place. Teachers should be well trained to assist learners who are facing life challenges. Educational programs to support all learners, including street children should be in place in all schools. This will provide them with relevant career path that will lead them their bright future.
Building more shelters, drop in centres and orphanage homes for vulnerable children

Government and NGOs should work together to build more shelters, drop-in centres and orphanage homes for street children. More funding should be provided by government and NGOs to ensure that those institutions cater for all the needs of street children and orphans. These centres must also train children about skills such as entrepreneurial skills and trade skills. This will equip street children to start their own businesses and become employable. It will also ensure that these children contribute to the country’s economy when they become adults.

5.6 CONTRIBUTION TO THE STUDY

This study contributed to revealing the perception of street children on the topic of streetism. Children voiced out their views about their life experiences and what put their lives at risk. Some of the issues that were described by participants were in line with what researchers pointed out earlier. From this study, it is clear that although poverty puts children’s lives at risk, hopes about a bright future make them stronger and resilient. Children-on-the-streets seem to experience negative aspects of streetism but they have more ways and mechanisms that enable them to cope resiliently.

Furthermore, losing a loved one through death was mentioned in literature as something that contributes to the vulnerability of children. Dealing with the loss of a loved one is a difficult process to go through for everyone. This study also revealed the fear that orphans have of losing their grandparents. To deal with this pain, faith in God and religion contributed to keeping some of the children going. This finding is unexpected in street children, since they are viewed with much suspicion by society.

Violence in families, lack of love between parents and corporal punishment are some of the risk factors that were mentioned by the literature study that may result in streetism.
Social workers should play an important role in ensuring that family violence is dealt with and children are safe in homes. Community members should work hand in hand with social workers by identifying those children who are affected.

5.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limiting factors are worth noting:

- This study was conducted among children who visited a drop-in centre where their physiological needs were met. The findings are therefore transferable and limited only to children-on-the-streets who visited drop-in centres and work less on the streets. The findings are limited to children-on-the-streets who attended school.

- Only one drop-in centre was used for the study. If data was collected from more than one centre, it could have yielded more information and that could have even ensured that the researcher obtained data from participants of different races, cultures and language backgrounds.

- A mixed method of both qualitative and quantitative research methods could have provided a deeper understanding of streetism.

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Further future studies should take care to cover the following:

- The study of streetism should be done on children who live full time on the street in order to allow them to give a deeper understanding of streetism from their perspectives.

- The role of NGOs in promoting resilience in street children should be given attention.

- This study could be duplicated using other research designs
• Government’s role in assisting street children should also be put in the spotlight.

5.9 CONCLUSION

This final chapter provided a synopsis of the conclusion and the recommendations of the study. The aims that the study intended to achieve were all achieved. It is therefore clear that there are risks that lead to vulnerability of children. Risks identified by literature were also discovered by the empirical study. More focus should be on promoting and enhancing resilience in children, either on the streets, in shelters or in families. Stakeholders such as community organisations, churches, schools, social workers, government and peers should work together to build the nation by taking care of children and eliminate streetism.
REFERENCES

Acts see South Africa


Chorley, C.2010. Enhancing resilience in street children in Tanzania. (Human development and Consciousness In-depth Paper submitted by Kate McAlpine Fielding Graduate University on 1st August 2010.).


Hortsman, M., Aldiss, S., Richardson, A. & Gibson, F. 2008. Methodological issues when using the draw and write technique with children aged 6 to 12 years. *Qualitative health research*, 18(7); 1001-1011.


133


Sanders, J. & Munford, R. 2015. Fostering a sense of belonging at school-Five orientations to practice that assist vulnerable youth to create a positive student identity. School psychology International. 1-7


Van Eeden, J. 2006. Street children have been sidelined in the Children’s Amendment Bill. The Witness: 31 October.


VanderPlaat, M. 2015. Activating the sociological imagination to explore the boundaries of resilience research and practice. *School psychology international*, 1-15.


APPENDIX A

PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH AT DROP-IN-CENTRE
Dear Student (Mashicolo G.N)
North West University
(Vaal Triangle Campus)

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE RESEARCH

We the above mentioned organisation, received your request to conduct your research at our Drop in centre, which will be from 24 to 25 April 2013.

We are hereby granting you a permission to do your research at our Drop in centre by interviewing children (beneficiaries) as you have requested.

Hope to see you then

With thanks

Makhongoana J.M
Project Manager
APPENDIX B

LETTER TO PARENT/ GUARDIAN/ CARE-GIVER
REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE CENTRE

Dear Parent/Guardian / Care-giver

My name is Gladys Nomusa Mashicolo. I am a Masters student at North West University under the supervision of Dr Macalane Junel Malindi. I am conducting a study on children in difficult circumstances. The title of my dissertation is: **Understanding streetism from the street children’s perspective: A qualitative study.** The findings of this study will assist on coming with solutions of how best children can be assisted on their challenges.

I am therefore kindly requesting for the permission to come and conduct this study in your center (Bophelo CCF) whereby children will be using drawings as a mode of collecting data. Ethical issues will be observed during the process of data collection.

Your response in this matter will be highly appreciated. My e-mail address (gladys.msibi@webmail.co.za) can be used when responding. My cell number is 0732397597. Thank you in advance.

Regards

Mrs G. N. Mashicolo
APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM - CHILDREN
Title: Understanding streetism from street children's perspective: A qualitative study

If you agree, please place an "X" in the "yes" box to show that you understand and agree with each statement:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I understand the information about the study in the information letter. Any questions I had were answered.</td>
<td>Yes, I understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I realize that participation is completely voluntary and that I can stop the study at any time. If I am uncomfortable answering any question, I may choose not to answer.</td>
<td>Yes, I understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I will be asked to make drawings and explain them in writing. My participation will be confidential. I understand that my full name will not be used, nor will specific details of where I live be shared, when information from the interviews is used by the researcher.</td>
<td>Yes, I understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I understand that what I say may be quoted at great length in publications, presentations and the final report. If I become concerned with anything I said, I can ask for parts, or all, of what I said not to be quoted. I may also have deleted any parts of the interview I want deleted.</td>
<td>Yes, I understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I understand that if my parent or guardian consents to my taking part in the study, it is my decision whether I want to participate. If I do not wish to participate, or want to withdraw from the study at any time, my wishes will be respected without penalty. My parent's or guardian's consent does not make me have to participate.</td>
<td>Yes, I understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I understand that if something troubles me while participating, the researcher will provide me with the information about the community resources (e.g. a local psychologist) that might help me.</td>
<td>Yes, I understand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I agree to take part in this study.

(Research Participant's signature) ___________________________ Date __________

I agree to allow my child to participate

(Parent's/Guardian's/Care-Giver's Signature) ___________________________ Date __________

The study has been explained to the young person and this form signed voluntarily.

(Researcher's signature) ___________________________ Date __________

The study has been explained to the children and this form signed voluntarily.
Think about life on the streets and how it is. In the space provided please make a drawing of what streetism or street life is about. How well you draw is not important.
I would like to understand your drawing. Help me to understand your drawing by writing a paragraph explaining it. You may write in any language you like. Should you have any problems in writing you may tell me what you wanted to say and I shall write it down for you. I shall read it back to you thereafter.
APPENDIX E

ETHICS CLEARANCE APPROVED – NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
1 July 2013

Dear Dr MJ Malindi,

ETHICS CLEARANCE APPROVED

This letter serves to indicate that your ethics application was approved in principle by the VTC Ethics Sub-Committee for Basic and Educational Sciences of the Faculty of Humanities:

Faculty application number: FH-SB-2012-0020  
Project Leader: Dr MJ Malindi  
Applicant: GN Mashicolo  
Meeting date: 24 June 2013

Kindly remember to forward outstanding documents (if applicable) to the chairperson of the ethics sub-committee. In the case of post graduate research, please remember to submit your proposal to Ms. D. Claasens (Ext: 103441) for approval and title registration by the Faculty Board.

The VTC Ethics Sub-Committee wishes you well with your research project.

Yours sincerely

Christanne van Eeden  
Chair: VTC Ethics Sub-Committee: Basic and Educational Sciences.

Prof. Chrizanne van Eeden  
Psychology: School of Behavioural Sciences  
Tel: (016) 910-3419  
Fax: (016) 982-4415  
Mobile: 082 469 1642  
E-mail: chrizanne.vaneeden@nwu.ac.za  
PO Box 1174, Vanderbijlpark  
South Africa, 1900