

CHILD ABUSE : A PSYCHOPEDAGOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

VISHNU ABHILAK

B.A.(UNISA), B.Ed.(University of Natal)

L.S.E.D.(Springfield College of Education)

**DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE MAGISTER EDUCATIONIS IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY OF THE
FACULTY OF EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND.**

SUPERVISOR : PROFESSOR G.URBANI

DURBAN

JANUARY 1992

"I declare that : 'CHILD ABUSE, A PSYCHOPEDAGOGIC PERSPECTIVE'
is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or
quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of
complete references."

V. Abhilak.

V. ABHILAK

DURBAN

JANUARY 1992

DEDICATED TO :

Upasna, Yashveer and Vivek ;

Ma, Sudhir and Ashveer ;

Giovanni Urbani ; and

All abused and neglected children.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to the many people, who either through word or deed, ensured the completion of this project :

- * Dear God who accompanied me in thoughts and effort and granted me the opportunity to undertake this task according to His given abilities;
- * Prof. G. Urbani who inspired and motivated me with his enthusiasm and dedication, for the many sacrifices he made, and for his guidance and interest shown throughout the planning and writing of this dissertation, and for his friendship and confidence in my abilities;
- * Reshma Dayal for the editing of the text in this study and her efforts to improve my ability in this regard;
- * Dirk Bakker, for his patience and his thorough and critical reading of this dissertation and helpful suggestions;
- * Ashveer and Sudhir who patiently typed the major part of this study;
- * A special "thank you" to Daya, Sally, Stephen and Kathy of Computer Services, University of Natal, for their assistance and guidance;
- * To my friends who offered help and encouragement in my many moments of frustration, your help and encouragement are very much appreciated ; and
- * Finally, to my mother and brother-in-law, whose unfailing support and encouragement enabled me to complete this study, a special "thank you."

(i)

LIST OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
CHAPTER 1	
ORIENTATION	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM	2
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	9
1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS	9
1.4.1 Abused child	9
1.4.2 Battered child	9
1.4.3 ✓ Broken home –	10
1.4.4 Child abuse	10
1.4.5 Child neglect	10
1.4.6 Deprivation	10
1.4.7 ✓ Dysfunctional education	<u>11</u>
1.4.8 Family milieu	11
1.4.9 Life-world	12
1.4.10 Pedagogical neglect ✓	12
1.5 AIM OF THIS STUDY	12
1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH	12
1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF THIS STUDY	13

CHAPTER 2		PAGE
A PSYCHOPEDAGOGICAL PERSPECTIVE		
2.1	INTRODUCTION	14
2.2	PEDAGOGICS AND PSYCHOPEDAGOGICS	15
2.3	THE PSYCHIC LIFE OF A CHILD IN EDUCATION	18
2.3.1	Feeling	18
2.3.2	Cognition	22
2.3.3	Orientation (Action)	30
2.4	THE PEDAGOGIC SITUATION	32
2.4.1	Pedagogic trust	33
2.4.2	Pedagogic understanding	36
2.4.3	Pedagogic authority	41
2.5	SYNTHESIS	44
 CHAPTER 3		
RELEVANT RESEARCH REGARDING THE LIFE-WORLD OF THE ABUSED CHILD		
3.1	INTRODUCTION	48
3.2	ETIOLOGY OF CHILD ABUSE : REVIEW OF LITERATURE	49
3.2.1	Studies pertaining to family violence	50
3.2.2	Studies pertaining to the major etiological factors in child abuse	51

	PAGE
3.3 THE CONCEPT EXPERIENCE	82
3.4 THE LIFE-WORLD OF THE ABUSED CHILD	84
3.4.1 Relationship with himself	87
3.4.2 Relationship with others	95
3.4.3 Relationship with things and ideas	102
3.4.4 Relationship with moral and religious values	102
3.5 SYNTHESIS	104
 CHAPTER 4	
ACCOUNTABLE SUPPORT FOR THE ABUSED CHILD	
4.1 INTRODUCTION	106
4.2 THE CHILD CARE ACT No. 74 OF 1983 AS AMENDED	107
4.2.1 Certain definitions in the Act	107
4.2.2 Provisions in the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended	108
4.3 OVERVIEW OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN WELFARE SYSTEM	
4.3.1 Legislation	112
4.3.2 Structure	113
4.4 WELFARE SERVICES PERTAINING TO THE ABUSED CHILD	116
4.4.1 State welfare services	116
4.4.2 Volunteer welfare services	132
4.5 DE LANGE REPORT	133

	PAGE
4.6 SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK	137
4.7 SYNTHESIS	138
CHAPTER 5	
SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
5.1 SUMMARY	141
5.1.1 Statement of the problem	141
5.1.2 A psychopedagogical perspective	141
5.1.3 Relevant research regarding the life-world of the abused child	143
5.1.4 Accountable support for the abused child	145
5.1.5 <i>Aim of this study</i>	147
5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS	
5.2.1 Appointment of school social workers	147
5.2.2 Training of teachers	150
5.2.3 Educational programmes	152
5.2.4 Further research	155
5.3 FINAL REMARK	156
LIST OF SOURCES	157

SUMMARY

The aim of this study was :

- * to describe the life-world of the abused child from a psychopedagogical perspective; and
- * to determine, in the light of the findings obtained, certain guidelines according to which accountable support could be instituted in order to meet the needs of the abused child.

The study initially outlines current thinking and research on child abuse, first identified as a clinical phenomenon in the 1960's. The early definition of child abuse included only physical abuse, known as "baby battering", but the definition has been broadened to include neglect, emotional abuse, failure-to-thrive, sexual abuse and cultural abuse. Furthermore, the characteristics of abusing parents and those factors that appear to pre-dispose a child to become the object of abuse are discussed.

From a psychopedagogical perspective the abused child finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education mainly because he goes through the difficult road to adulthood without the assistance and guidance of a responsible parent or adult. This results in the psychic life of the abused child being under-actualised. The lack of responsible adult intervention and guidance, which is based on the pedagogical principles of understanding, trust and authority, results in the abused child forming relationships within his life-world which are inadequate for his emancipation. The abused child thus fails to constitute a meaningful life-world.

It would seem that poverty together with cultural sanctions which condone violence, stressful living conditions such as overcrowding, insufficient personal, financial and social resources, discrimination and deprivation, all interact with each other to produce fertile ground not only for abuse, but all forms of deviance. It was found that mothers were mainly responsible for abuse, particularly emotional abuse, neglect and

abandonment. This phenomenon can be explained by the fact that they are in the main responsible for the care of the children.

The literature has shown that abusing parents have been abused themselves as children and know no other way of disciplining their children. They have not learned how to "parent". There are factors that pre-dispose the child to abuse : prematurity, retardation, physical handicaps and the fact that the child is perceived by the parents as being "different".

The review of the literature has emphasised the importance of the multi-disciplinary team in the treatment and prevention of child abuse. The role of a specialised unit in treating and preventing child abuse is recommended by some authors. Case conferences are described as a useful means of discussing cases intensively and reporting back to a committee or specialised unit.

Education for family life, the outlawing of family violence, involving lay people in running community programmes, the development of better services in the community are all discussed as ways of preventing child abuse.

In the light of the findings of this research, the following was recommended :

- * school social workers should be trained and placed at schools to assist and identify pedagogically neglected children;
- * that there should be a staff training programme for teachers with regard to the identification, intervention and counselling of abuse cases;
- * educational programmes directed at school children, parents, parents-to-be and professionals, are essential for the prevention of child abuse.

OPSOMMING

Die doel met hierdie studie was :

- * om die leefwêreld van die mishandelde kind vanuit 'n psigopedagogiese perspektief te beskryf; en
- * om aan die hand van die bevindinge sekere riglyne daar te stel waarvolgens verantwoordbare ondersteuning aan die mishandelde kind gebied kan word.

Ten aanvang is huidige navorsing oor die mishandelde kind belig, wat in 1960 vir die eerste keer as kliniese fenomeen geïdentifiseer is. Die vroegste definisie van kindermishandeling het slegs fisiese mishandeling, bekend as "baby battering", ingesluit, maar die huidige definisie het sodanig verbreed dat verwaarloosing, emosionele mishandeling, "gebrek-aan-voortgang", seksuele mishandeling, en kulturele mishandeling nou ook daarby ingesluit word. Professionele mishandeling word ook by die definisie ingesluit aangesien die fenomeen huidiglik baie aandag verdien.

Vervolgens is die kenmerke van ouers wat kinders mishandel, asook die faktore wat daartoe lei dat 'n kind die tekenen van mishandeling word bespreek.

Vanuit 'n psigopedagogiese perspektief beskou, bevind die mishandelde kind homself in 'n problematiese opvoedingsituasie hoofsaaklik omdat hy die moeilike weg na volwassenheid sonder die ondersteuning en leiding van 'n verantwoordelike ouer of volwassene moet bewandel. Dit lei tot die onder-aktualisering van die psigiese lewe van die mishandelde kind. Die gebrek aan verantwoordelike volwasse ingryping en leiding, wat op die pedagogiese beginsels van ken, vertrou en gesag rus, lei daartoe dat die mishandelde kind onvoldoende verhoudings met sy leefwêreld stig. Dit lei weer tot ontoereikende emansipering.

Dit wil voorkom asof armoede en kulturele sanksies wat onrus aanmoedig, 'n spanningsvolle lewenswyse soos byvoorbeeld: oorbevolking, onvoldoende persoonlike,

finansiële en sosiale bronne, diskriminasie en onderdrukking, meewerk om 'n vrugbare teelaarde vir mishandeling asook talle ander vorms van afwyking daar stel.

Daar is bevind dat hoofsaaklik moeders verantwoordelik vir mishandeling is, veral emosionele mishandeling, verwaarlosing en verlating van kinders. Hierdie verskynsel kan verduidelik word weens die feit dat moeders hoofsaaklik verantwoordelik is vir die versorging van kinders. Navorsing het ook bewys dat ouers wat hul kinders mishandel self slagoffers van mishandeling in hul kinderjare of jeugjare was, en hulle ken geen ander manier om hulle kinders te dissiplineer nie. Daar is sekere faktore wat die kind vatbaar maak vir mishandeling, onder andere vroeë volwassenheid, gestremdheid, fisiese belemmering en die feit dat die kind as "anders" deur die ouers beskou word.

'n Oorsig van bestaande navorsing het duidelik aan die lig gebring hoe belangrik dit is dat 'n multi-dissiplinêre span betrokke behoort te wees by die behandeling en voorkoming van kindermishandeling. Die rol van 'n gespesialiseerde eenheid in die behandeling en voorkoming van kindermishandeling word deur meeste navorsers aanbeveel. "Gevalle besprekings" word omskryf as 'n betekenisvolle wyse om gevalle intensief te beskryf en terugvoer aan 'n komitee of gespesialiseerde eenheid te gee.

Gesinsopvoeding, wetgewing teen gesinsgeweld en die betrokkenheid van vrywilligers in die funksionisering van gemeenskapsprogramme word almal beskryf as wyses om kindermishandeling te voorkom.

In die lig van die bevindinge is die volgende aanbevelings gemaak:

- * skoolmaatskaplike werkers behoort opgelei en geplaas te word in skole ten einde pedagogies verwaarloosde kinders te identifiseer en te help;
- * opvoedkundige programme wat op skoolkinders, ouers, voornemende ouers en professionele persone betrekking het, is essensieel vir die bekamping van kindermishandeling; en

- * onderwysers moet opgelei word om pedagogies verwaarloosde kinders en mishandelde kinders te identifiseer en aan hulle hulp te verleen.

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The number of children abused and neglected each year, even by conservative estimates, is staggering. Each year at least 700 American children are killed by their parents or parent surrogates. It has been estimated that some 10 000 are severely battered every year; 50 000 to 70 000 are sexually abused; 100 000 are emotionally neglected; and another 100 000 are physically, morally and educationally neglected (Iverson & Segal 1990 : 2).

Typical of a so-called "Third World" country, South Africa has a much higher percentage of young people in its total population, compared to the USA. According to the 1980 census figures 48,1% of the total South African population was below 19 years of age. Computing the figure of 9 900 abused children per year against the total youth population, a prevalence rate of 0,06% is found, exactly double that of the USA. In view of Straker's 1988 findings, and of the general knowledge of circumstances in the country at this point in time, this estimate is probably far below reality, but well within the estimates of some other researchers (De Vos 1991 : 14).

Child abuse can never be seen as simply "caused." Nor is it merely the inevitable consequence of a child being born into a violent and disturbed family. In every case a sequence of interrelated events leads up to the final catastrophe. While the "pedigree" of the family generally sets the stage for abuse, the final outburst is a result of the interaction between parent and child. Abuse is an extreme manifestation of bonding failure. The formation and maintenance of a healthy bond is a two-way process, influenced both by attributes in the child and by the perceptions and expectations of the parents (Martin 1976 : 43).

According to Cook (1980 : 20) child abuse and neglect are not typical biological diseases like measles or polio. They must be viewed in other conceptual frameworks to understand their genesis and consequences. They must be viewed as a syndrome. In such a framework, it is recognised that the acts of physical abuse or neglect per se are not the disease but part of the mosaic pattern. If abuse and neglect of a child are present in a family, then it must be assumed that there are other pathological characteristics in that family and in the parent-child relationship. Abuse and neglect can be viewed as signals; as signs that there is family disorganization and failure in parenting.

The need for action is urgent (Maher 1988 : 45). Many children continue to suffer severe and avoidable deprivations; many more fail to achieve their optimum potential. Much of their pain, so often hidden, is the responsibility of adults. Society should strive for "circumstances of living which facilitate the optimal development of children", and it should evaluate treatment of children in terms of its effect on "a child's right to develop freely and fully"(Cook & Bowles 1980 : 15).

Although both the adult and the child are to be held responsible for the success of the child's education, the adult is the one who should mainly be called to account for any dysfunction in the dynamics of the upbringing. Educational distress occurs where the quality of the education offered is intrinsically unacceptable. The participation of both parties is insufficient and the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled, because the child is not involved in an intimate pedagogical relationship with an educator who focusses on adulthood (Van Niekerk 1987 : 11).

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

An incident of child abuse is an action (commission) or a failure to act (omission) on the part of some adults who have responsibility for the provision of those things to which the child is rightfully entitled (Cook & Bowles 1980 : 15).

The first and foremost fact to be mentioned here is that no reliable figures exist (De Vos 1991 : 13). The reasons for this are given as follows by Gil (1979: 326):

- * No uniform definition exists for the events being counted. While some experts employ narrow definitions, such as the one implicit in the phrase "battered child syndrome", others include in their estimates children who are neglected or have suffered emotional abuse.
- * Estimates which derive from cases reported to state and local authorities reflect bias toward the reporting of certain demographic groups in particular areas.
- * Incidence estimates derived from child abuse case reports lump together data from many different jurisdictions, and these have diverse criteria for reportability.

These considerations can be identified as equally applicable to South Africa. Consequently, all figures are mere estimates, albeit often based on real cases dealt with by social agencies, courts and hospitals, but recognised by most authors as representing merely the proverbial tip of the iceberg. Faller (1981) states in this regard that child abuse and neglect are present in society today in alarming proportions, but precisely how extensive the problem is, is not known (De Vos 1991:13).

The South African Council for Child and Family Welfare is the organisation whose figures are probably most representative of the South African situation, as their affiliated agencies serve all population groups countrywide. In 1986 they reported 549 cases of physical abuse per month and 276 cases of sexual abuse per month (Herman & Theart 1988 : 14). This reflects an average of 9 900 cases per year. The possibility that some of these cases may be overlapping with themselves in that the same case may be carried for a prolonged period of treatment, can be offset against the fact that these figures reflect the work of only one national system of family agencies, while there are at least two more systems of more or less equal strength, namely, the state departments of welfare and the religious bodies, who also work in the field of child abuse and neglect (De Vos 1991: 14).

political rights, so that he may fully realize his inherent potential and share equally in life, liberty and happiness. Green, Gaines and Sandgrund refer to child abuse and neglect as a "dysfunction in parenting" and Giesmar calls them "the most virulent kinds of faulty socialization" (Cook & Bowles 1980 : 20).

The abuse of children must be seen as part of a wider problem, i.e. family dysfunction, which in turn is part of a community problem, in other words, a problem for the whole society. Upbringing is primarily a matter of personal relationships, which come into being when actualising educational aims, and could be qualified as educational dynamics (Van Niekerk 1990 : 39).

The parents and the child grow together within the context of a mutually fulfilling relationship, and lay the foundation for the trials of life which inevitably follow. In a healthy, reciprocal relationship, the parent reaps the rewards of knowing that he is a good parent and is able to meet all his child's needs. The reality is, however, that not all children experience this nurturing environment. It occurs not only when children are separated from their biological parents, but also when both are physically present, but psychologically distant. The reality is also, that "being a parent is not a right but a privilege, and that being valued and protected as a child is not merely a privilege but a right" (Pawl 1984 : 264).

When the adult, who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are met, the child is usually affectively, cognitively and normatively neglected. The adult's "neglect of duty" especially lies in his failure to carry out the educative task as he ought to, and consequently allowing the fundamental pedagogical structures to be inadequately realised (Van Niekerk 1987 : 11).

Whenever an educator and a child communicate inadequately, all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately. The pedagogically inadequate actualisation of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result. A distressful educational situation gives rise to experiences fraught with unfavourable meanings for the child, e.g. with feelings of extreme and uncalled for anxiety, loneliness, insecurity,

helplessness and uncertainty. The child's level of development does not in this situation coincide with his attainable level. Guidance towards the actualisation of his psychic life within the educational situation is then inadequate. A dysfunction in the dynamics of upbringing is therefore clearly brought about by both the child's inadequately actualising his psychic life, and the educators inadequately supporting him. The child is consequently impeded in his progress towards adulthood (Van Niekerk 1987 :9-10).

Pretorius (1979 :56-58) sees the secure environment of the family milieu as providing the child with the following vital aspects which are essential in the child's efforts of becoming:

- * the family milieu provides the child with a safe place from which he can explore his life-world;
- * the family milieu supplies the child with answers to problems he may encounter during his explorations;
- * the family milieu is a world where love is personally directed towards the child;
- * the family milieu is the primary socialising agent where the child learns socially accepted behaviour;
- * the family milieu is dynamic in that it adjusts according to, and accommodates changes and new influences from outside the family milieu;
- * the family milieu is one of lasting personal relationships which enable the child to discover personal norms and values.

The problem that faces the abused child is that his life-world is deprived of this vital component for his successful emancipation, i.e. he must constitute a life-world in the absence of the supportive family milieu.

Ter Horst (1973) has identified categories that might contribute to confusion and perplexity in the child, in respect of his educational situatedness. He mentions the following: anti-authoritative education, poverty, poor housing, deprivation (whenever parents are absent), setting too high or too low a standard, hunger, inconsistency, indoctrination, lack of love, underestimation, disorderliness, authoritarian education, illness, permissiveness, exaggerated ambition and a disregard of challenges. The abused child is subjected to most of these categories.

Sonnekus (1976 : 124-129) also refers to matters such as :

- * the physical care of the child (including his diet, health and hygiene);
- * social well-being (also implying that the child should be properly housed, have enough friends, be allowed to take part in recreational activities and have adequate relationships with adults);
- * affective neglect which could occur in various ways, e.g. by too much or too little petting or lack of togetherness;
- * inconsistent educational attitudes of the parents which signify an incoherent and disjointed approach to the child, confusing him and causing feelings of insecurity; and
- * marital problems where tensions exist between the parents, and broken marriages, where the child may feel that he has been rejected or neglected by one or both parents.

The neglect of the physical, social and effective aspects of the abused child are therefore all contributing factors to his negative educational situatedness, i.e. a dysfunction of the pedagogic situation (Sonnekus 1976 : 129).

The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 defines the "child in need of care" as a child that :

- * has been abandoned and is without any noticeable means to survive; or
- * has no parents or guardian, or has no parent or guardian that can exercise any control over the child, or is incapable of exercising control; or
- * is in the care of a person that has been found guilty of a criminal act against or regarding the said child; or
- * cannot be controlled by his parents or guardian; or
- * is guilty of acts of persistent truancy; or
- * keeps company of an immoral or inherent "bad" person or live in conditions that will lead to seduction, degradation or give rise to prostitution by the child; or
- * begs for a living; or
- * is younger than twelve years old and runs a street trading business within the area of jurisdiction of a local authority unless allowed by that local authority according to the regulations of article twenty two; or
- * is older than twelve but younger than sixteen and runs any kind of street trading business within the area of jurisdiction of a local authority that is contrary to the by-laws of the local authority; or
- * is supported away from the parents or guardian in an environment that is contrary to the needs of the child whose parents or guardians cannot be traced, or neglect to provide for the child although being instructed to provide adequately; or
- * is in a state of physical or mental neglect.

The main aim of the above law is to protect the child "in need of care" (Mbanjwa 1990; Blignaut 1990). This implies that the pedagogically neglected child or abused child is protected by this law.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem that will be investigated in this study concerns problems surrounding abused children as viewed from a psychopedagogical perspective.

In essence the study investigates the following :

- * the abused child is hampered in the unfolding of his potentials; and
- * the abused child is a child in educational distress with special educational needs.

1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

For the sake of clarity it is essential that certain relevant concepts be clearly defined :

1.4.1 Abused child

According to Terminology (1984 : 54) an abused child is a person under the age of 18 years old who is ill-treated physically or psychologically by the person in whose care the child is. An abused child also refers to a battered child.

1.4.2 Battered child

A young child that shows symptoms (battered child syndrome) that results from repeated serious injuries which have been administered to him over a period of time (Terminology 1984 : 56).

According to Terminology (1984 : 56) battered child syndrome refers to a clinical condition resulting from serious physical injury (such as fractures, haematoma and bruising), caused by gross ill-treatment of an infant.

Kempe (1976 : 175) defined the "battered child syndrome" as a clinical condition in young children who have received serious physical abuse, generally from a parent or foster parent."

1.4.3 Broken home

This refers to a family that is fragmentary due to divorce or desertion of a parent (Terminology 1984 : 56).

1.4.4 Child abuse

Kadushin & Martin (1981 : 75) define abuse as "any interaction or lack of interaction between a caregiver and child which results in non-accidental harm to the child's physical and/or developmental state."

1.4.5 Child neglect

According to Terminology (1984 : 57) child neglect refers to the inadequate care of a child which may retard or adversely affect his growth or development.

1.4.6 Deprivation

According to Terminology (1984 : 58) a deprived person is a person whose psychic, physical, emotional or social needs have remained unsatisfied for reasons beyond his control.

1.4.7 Dysfunctional education

If any of the pedagogic relationships of trust, understanding and authority is absent from the pedagogic situation, it will result in a dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation, that is, dysfunctional education (Van Niekerk 1987: 9). Dysfunctional education is characterised by an attenuated or distorted appearance of the essences of education. Such education lacks both coherence in its manifestation, e.g. not realising the aim of education. In terms of its constituents, dysfunctional education points to a child who underactualises his psychic life and an adult who provides inadequate guidance and an environment which impedes authentic education.

1.4.8 Family milieu

Perquin (1965 : 144-154) sees an education milieu as an environment that must :

- * provide a safe living space from which the child can explore and experience life ;
- * provide answers to his experiences which will guide him on his life discovering explorations ;
- * provide the child with personal experiences of security, caring, love and trust ;
- * equip the child with cultural and socially accepted virtues and behaviour;
- * must be dynamic to accommodate the changing world and circumstances;
- * must be a permanent intimate circle of personal relationships in order to enable the child to discover his own potentials and capabilities and others around him.

1.4.9 Life-world

According to Vrey (1984 : 15) life-world is the Gestalt of the individual person's meaningful relationships. One's life-world includes all the people, objects, ideas, systems, forces, attitudes, self, - everything to which one has attributed meaning and which one therefore understands.

1.4.10 Pedagogical neglect

Without the sufficient participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the child is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focusses on adulthood. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately, all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately (Van Niekerk 1987 : 9). The pedagogically inadequate actualisation of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result.

1.5 AIM OF THIS STUDY

The aim of this study stems from the statement of the problem and can be formulated as follows :

- * To describe the life-world of the abused child from a psychopedagogical perspective at the hand of the available relevant research literature.
- * To determine in the light of the findings obtained from the literature study, certain guidelines according to which accountable support can be instituted in order to meet the needs of the abused child.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

Research with regard to this study will be conducted by means of a literature study of available relevant research literature. In addition to the literature study, visits to families and informal interviews will be conducted with authoritative persons such as

social workers, doctors, "child care workers", the SAP child protection unit, school guidance counsellors, teachers and school principals regarding this phenomenon.

1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF STUDY

Chapter 2 deals with pedagogics and psychopedagogics.

In chapter 3, relevant research regarding the life-world of the abused child will receive attention.

Chapter 4 discusses accountable support for the abused child.

Chapter 5 contains a short summary and a number of recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

A PSYCHOPEDAGOGIC PERSPECTIVE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to study the phenomenon of abused children from a psychopedagogic perspective it is important to give an exposition of the term "psychopedagogic perspective".

Education is essentially the accompaniment or rather, the leading upwards of a child by adults in his own ascent to adulthood, as the formal and ultimate or total aim of education. The term pedagogy is also indicative of a course of action or a structural procedure which is followed in everyday life with a view to helping children to achieve adulthood eventually. The concept pedagogy thus actually functions in the field of pedagogics as a synonym for the concept education (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer 1982 : 22-23).

In the education situation two persons are involved : an adult knowing the way the child has to go, and the child as an adult-to-be who does not know yet which way to go. The adult as an educator wants to transfer something to the child (as an educand) as a beneficiary; he wants to communicate with him while he is sacrificing his time and energy to do so because he understands the child's situation in life as one in which he still wants to find his way with the adult's help. The educator is connected with the adult-to-be in a special way as they are related to each other pathically, but also intellectually and even volitionally (Du Plooy & Kilian 1981 : 7).

Sonnekus (1979), Landman & Roos (1973) and Van der Stoep (1972a.) have shown how the categories and essences of Psychopedagogics, Fundamental Pedagogics and Didactical Pedagogics are inter-related and how they are concurrently actualised in the classroom situation. The question which invariably arises is : "What constitutes the

unity of pedagogics as a science?" The point of departure of all pedagogic part disciplines is the pedagogic situation. This implies that the pedagogic situation and only the pedagogic situation is the aspect which unifies the part perspectives into pedagogics as a science. It also implies that the idea of autonomous pedagogic part perspectives can be questioned (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 2).

2.2 PEDAGOGICS AND PSYCHOPEDAGOGICS

From the first moments of the child's existence in the world, he announces that he is someone who will take part in the life-world, a taking part which continues to the end of his life. Because of the child's openness and directedness to the world, from the beginning he is actively busy actualising his given possibilities and this implies that he is busy changing. This becoming involves a progressive and continuous movement in the direction of the life-world of the adult. Becoming, as the necessary change which must arise in the child's life, is directed to becoming a proper adult. This means that a child must and should become different. Because the child is a human being he is someone who himself will become (change). As given possibilities, the structure of his psychic life disposes the child to become grown up. Because of this, the child is able to take an active part in his becoming. It is also an irrefutable fact that a child, because of his essential nature, needs the help and support of an adult. Without upbringing the child cannot become a proper grown up. The child's becoming adult implies the necessity for education (Sonnekus 1985 : 47-48).

Learning (as is becoming) is an original mode by which a human being finds himself in the world. The child learns because he is a person, and he learns as a person. In becoming, the child shows himself also as someone who himself will learn. Learning by the child is the basis for his becoming and changing since, in essence, becoming cannot be actualised without learning. The child does not learn because he is brought up, but rather, the child is brought up precisely because he can learn. The relationship of upbringing between adult and child is carried by the adult's educative instruction and by the child's readiness to learn. Thus, education, becoming and learning are

meaningfully connected as far as the child's becoming an adult is concerned (Sonnekus 1985: 48).

The child as someone who wishes to be an adult in his own right, that is in accordance with his given psychic potential, does not become an adult automatically. Integrally implied in this event are, a purposeful involvement by the adult and self-actualising initiatives by the child within the constraints of an environmental reality. By participating in the educational event, the child demonstrates his will or intentionality to become an adult. This "demonstration" manifests as a self-actualisation of psychic life in terms of the theoretical constructs of "becoming" and "learning", as observed in "ways of becoming" and "ways of learning" (Sonnekus 1985 : 51).

Vrey (1984) explains the act of "becoming" as meaning to "come to someone". Sonnekus (1985 : 51) identifies the following inter-related modes of becoming : exploration, emancipation, differentiation, distantiation and objectivation. However, "becoming" is not to be separated from "learning": there will be a change in the child's becoming only if he learns or has learned; that is, the child becomes as he learns, and learns as he becomes.

Sonnekus (1985 : 57) makes three important assumptions :

- * The child's psychic life is a totality, and it is actualised as a totality by the child in his relation to reality ;
- * becoming and learning are the modes of manifestation of the psychic life of the child-in-education ; and
- * the actualisation of the child's becoming and learning takes place within the framework of the situation of upbringing.

Sonnekus (1985 : 45) maintains that the psychic life of a child is given with child-being; it is his wealth of possibilities which are given at conception; possibilities that are to

be transformed into realities through education. As given possibilities, the essentials of the structure of his psychic life disposes him to become an adult. Because of this, he is able to take an active part in his becoming an adult. However, he needs the help and support of an adult to do so.

According to Sonnekus (1985 : 54), the child's modes of becoming (exploration, emancipation, distantiation, objectivation and differentiation) can be used as psychopedagogic criteria to judge the extent to which the child has succeeded in actualising his psychic life. In other words, the modes can be used to evaluate not only the level of becoming on which the child finds himself, but also the effect or outcome of the adult's educative instruction. In the child's becoming, his change becomes evident. The change comes about when the child relates to his world physically, socially, intellectually, emotionally and spiritually. Change can only come about when learning takes place. In order to learn and discover new ideas, the child must explore. Exploration takes place only when the child takes initiative to do so. In other words the child must want to discover the new ideas (to learn) - unless there are inhibiting "circumstances" which prevent the child from learning. During early childhood, the child explores through his senses (touch, smell, taste, sight and hearing); but as he grows older, he becomes able to attend, perceive, think, compare, analyze and interprets his surrounding (modes of learning), thus becoming more and more independent: emancipating himself from the adult. This results in the child becoming more and more detached from the adult - distantiating himself from the adult. Distantiation can only take place when the child feels confident about himself. Confidence in the child only prevails when he feels secure and safe. Unless safety and security are provided in the child's upbringing, the child can never really distantiate himself from the adult. He then develops an inferiority complex, feels insecure and never really actualises his psychic life. The confidence found with distantiation allows for objective thinking whereby the child refrains from viewing things from a subjective point of view. Objective thinking allows for differentiation whereby the child can distinguish between wrong and right, proper and improper. Because of this reasoning, his becoming then becomes real and actual (Sonnekus 1985 : 51-54).

Against this background Sonnekus (1985 : 57) lists and describes the following essences of the child's psychic life: experiencing (or feeling), willing (or volition) lived-experiencing, knowing and behaving. The child's psychic life therefore manifests itself as a totality-in-function. This finds form in the child's becoming and learning.

2.3 THE PSYCHIC LIFE OF A CHILD IN EDUCATION

The psychic life of a child shows a categorical structure. The categories and essences of the psychic life of a child are anthropological categories. It is only when they are placed within the context of the pedagogic situation that they acquire psychopedagogic status.

The psychic life of a child is composed of three discernible but inseparable inter-related structures, namely, feeling, cognition and action (orientation) (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 21).

2.3.1 Feeling

Heller (1979 : 7) maintains that to feel, means to be involved in something. Feeling is thus the *inherent constructive factor in acting, thinking, perceiving, etc.* and may be regarded as a fundamental characteristic of the intentionality.

Feelings are characterised by :

- * active feelings which refers to being actively involved; and
- * reactive feelings which refers to being reactively involved on the secondary level.

Feeling is a mode of cognition. Feeling informs us of the importance the object, event or person has for each of us individually. Cognition through feeling is thus subjective and idiosyncratic in nature.

Feelings may be classified as follows (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 26-34) :

(1) Drive feelings

In their pure form drive feelings are sensations. They are not directed at objects, events or persons outside a person. Examples include hunger, thirst, feeling ill, feeling fresh and the sex drive. Drive feelings hardly ever appear in their pure form, e.g. the sex drive becomes an affect when a desire develops for a specific person.

(2) Affects (Evaluating or accompanying feelings)

"Affect" refers both to a disposition and to a (psychic-spiritual) force to act. The disposition is not a passive one but one that aims at "affecting" reality in the sense of making things happen, i.e. at changing situations. Affects form the basis of orientating (action). To understand the affect we must also understand both values and evaluative feelings.

(a) Values

Rokeach (1973 : 5) defines values as follows : "A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse code of conduct or end-state of existence. A value system is an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-state of existence along a continuum of relative importance."

In a learning environment, outside the home, the child is often faced with reality where cultural beliefs are replaced with brute facts. In this regard it is important to note that cognition, feeling, emotion, orientation and motivation are easily separated by abstraction, but not a single one of these can function independently of the other. If we now turn our attention to affectivity, we follow briefly Garber's classification of the evaluative or accompanying feelings (the affects) (Nel, Sonnekus & Garbers 1965: 344-346).

(b) The affects (Evaluative or accompanying feelings)(i) Physical or sensory feelings

These feelings are closely related to sense-impressions and concomitant with smell, taste and touch. Sensory feelings acquires broader existential meaning as a person becomes older.

(ii) Social feelings

These are feelings which give content to relationships between persons, e.g. sympathy, love, compassion, egoism, jealousy, hate, etc. and are to a large extent rooted in cultural norms.

(iii) Intellectual feelings

Heller (1979 : 115) maintains: "... there is no knowledge without feeling, there is no action without feeling, there is no perception without feeling - but all our feelings as 'feelings' either include the factor of cognition, goals and situations and only become relevant as feeling through interaction with these." Intellectual feelings are thus feelings experienced when something is comprehended.

(iv) Aesthetic feelings

These are feelings experienced during creative action, e.g. drawing, painting, acting, playing a musical instrument and dancing. Aesthetic appreciation of the Arts and nature also falls under this group. Aesthetic feelings are more susceptible to temporary influences than any of the other groups or feelings.

(v) Ethical or moral feelings

These feelings are aroused when something is experienced as good or bad and includes feelings of guilt, remorse and obligation. According to Nel (1988 : 38) even these feelings can be culturally determined.

(vi) Religious feelings

According to Van Wyk & Van der Walt (1979 : 120-121) these feelings are the most profound feelings affecting the core of human existence. These feelings accompany the relationship of man with God and the sublime, with all-connectedness, with the meaning or meaningless of existence. Examples are admiration, awe, humility, respect, trust, desolation, dependence, smallness, security and responsibility.

(3) Emotions

Thatcher (1971 : 285) sees emotions as one of the three fundamental properties of the mind, the other two being volition and intellect. He describes it further as: " A moving of the mind or soul; a state of excited feeling of any kind, as pleasure, pain, grief, joy and astonishment."

In line with the above Buitendijk (Nel, Sonnekus & Garbers 1965: 350) defines emotion as a reaction from an object, event or person which has symbolic meaning. Heller (1979) sees emotions as being partly feeling occurrences and partly feeling dispositions.

(4) Moods

A mood is a feeling disposition which lasts for a relatively long time and may be positive or negative. To a large extent it predisposes a person as regards his involvement in situations. Moods may have causes, (e.g. illness, rejection, etc.) or can

appear without any apparent reason. Some persons can thus be more moody than others.

(5) Life-feelings

Every person has a basic affective orientation toward life which is more permanent in nature than moods. This "basic life-feeling" forms part and parcel of a person's character. This basic life-feeling may to some degree originate from genetic factors (Vrey 1984). The development of a basic life-feeling is rooted in the nature of the child's experiences, especially from birth to about 6 years of age. It is thus the outcome of education (or the lack of education). A negative basic life-feeling can be changed through orthopedagogic intervention (Van Niekerk 1987 : 36-49).

2.3.2 Cognition

According to Nel & Urbani (1990 : 40), the cognitive dimension can be divided into categories which are mostly referred to as intentionalities. They are: perceiving; memorising; imagining and thinking. We find, however, a precognitive dimension or foundation on which all intentionalities rest, namely, sensing. Sensing as a foundation must be stable in order for the child to learn.

(1) Sensing - perceiving

(a) Sensing

Straus (1963) describes sensing as the immediate communication between a subject and his world, as a mode of experiencing on the precognitive level. Sensing is thus concerned with here and now because a person senses what he experiences momentarily, "now and here", and grasps its meaning immediately. Each moment of sensing is therefore unique and can never be repeated. Sensing is not a process inside a person but a mode of communication and is an experience of being unified with the world.

(b) Perceiving

Perceiving is closely inter-related with sensing, moving, memorising and thinking. Perceiving as a mode of experiencing is available to the child from the moment of birth. Perceiving is, however, subject to change which shows two dimensions namely physical growth and refinement gained through experiences.

The object of the study of psychopedagogics is thus not perception, but perceiving as a mode of experiencing. Although perceiving is an anthropological category, it is within the pedagogic situation that perceiving becomes a psychopedagogic category. This does not imply that the essential characteristics of perceiving change within the pedagogic situation, because, perceiving remains the first, immediate communication with the world. It is the foundation on which more complex and complicated experiences are built.

Nel & Urbani (1990 : 54) contend that experience culminates in orientation. To be orientated means to understand. This means that even the most basic mode of experiencing, namely perceiving, should lead to a structuring into an orderly scheme or pattern which will enable the person to understand. Only then will perceiving have existential meaning.

Perceiving also shows a close relationship to the affectivity. Solly (Kidd & Rivoire 1966) maintains that the affective system and the perceptual system do not exist as different systems in the infant. In the course of the child's becoming, affect and perceiving begin to function more and more independently. This implies that affect does not destroy the basic laws of perception. Affect does have an influence on what is perceived, but does not alter the fundamental ways in which a person perceives. A well differentiated and refined affectivity will thus assist differentiated perceiving on the cognitive level. No person can ever be effectively uninvolved in what he perceives. The extent and nature of involvement is determined by the measure of cognitive control over the affectivity.

(2) Motoric or human movement

Strictly speaking human movement is not a psychopedagogic category. Movement is, however, of such importance for the unfolding of the psychic life of a child that psychopedagogics must give more attention to it. Straus (1963) states that sensing as such is bound to vital living movement, e.g. dance. Dance illustrates the unity of sensing and movement. Movement thus has a place in experiencing and therefore also in learning.

With reference to the sensori-motor stage of development (the first 18 months of a child's life), Piaget & Inhelder (1969) use the term sensori-motor intelligence. The sensori-motor intelligence succeeds, according to their view, in solving numerous problems of action (such as reaching distant or hidden objects) by constructing a complex system of action schemes and organising reality in terms of spatio-temporal and casual structures. They further maintain that during this period, a child constructs all the cognitive sub-structures that will serve as a point of departure for his later perceptive and intellectual development, as well as a certain number of elementary affective reactions that will partly determine his subsequent affectivity. They specifically emphasize that intelligence proceeds from action as a whole, that it transfers objects and reality, and that knowledge, whose information can be traced in the child, is essentially an active and operatory assimilation. The term 'action' as used by Piaget & Inhelder (1969) implies more than mere movement, but movement constitutes a very important dimension of 'action' (action implies orientation). It is a matter of fact, only when the child reaches the stage of formal operations that reflective thinking starts to play a more important role in his life than physical action (Piaget & Inhelder 1969 : 47).

It is not only in the case of children that movement is important. Nel & Urbani (1990: 49) contend that perceiving, acting and expressing are the three most important characteristics of a person's relations with every thing that he is confronted with. According to Buitendijk (1966) movements are hardly ever learnt for the sake of movement itself. Human movement always has an existential meaning. Each

movement is inter-related to the entire network of relationships which exists between a person and his world. Buitendijk (1966) notes that human movement is not the sum total of separate movements but a dynamic unity or Gestalt which is in essence an expression of a relationship and which transcends the partial connections of physical processes. This implies that human movement is to a greater or lesser degree qualified by a psychic-spiritual dimension.

Views on human movement may be summarised under the following headings (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 51-52) :

(a) Moving

During early childhood years moving is the most important way of exploring, thus also of learning.

(b) Automatisms

All human movement must be learnt and become automatisms. Only when a movement has become part of the precognitive dimension of experiencing will it support experiencing.

(c) Dynamic unity

Human movement must form a dynamic unity or Gestalt and not the sum total of separate movements. This Gestalt is in essence an expression of a person's total relationship within a situation. The nature of each human movement is determined by a goal which reflects the existential meaning of the present situation.

(d) Individual differences

The aptitude or 'talent' for movement which reflects individual differences is determined by :

- * the physical processes necessary to perform movement; and
- * a psychic-spiritual dimension, e.g. an 'ear for music' or 'feeling' for spatio-temporal relationships when performing delicate manual work, etc.

(3) Memory

As highlighted before, the basic assumption of psychopedagogics is that experiencing is an act. In the case of memory, the question of whether we deal with an act of a person or something within a person, becomes more problematic. Sonnekus (1977 : 126-129) uses the term memorising which he classifies as a cognitive mode of learning. Memory thus refers to one aspect of cognitive functioning. According to Piaget & Inhelder (1969 : 124) memory is a form of actualisation involving the conservation of the entire past or at least of everything in a subject's past that serves to inform his present action or understanding. The psychic life of a child is a unity of which memory is thus only an essential characteristic or, more descriptive, it is the mode of actualising the psychic life. Nel & Urbani (1990 : 76) support this view and state that memory is closely interwoven, not only with the cognitive modes of experiencing, but also with the precognitive ones and with the affectivity. Memory is often equated with learning. Even the learning of skills is regarded as a form of memorising. Memorising or remembering is, however, not learning but it does fulfil an all important supporting role in learning. Memory has been described as a mode of actualising the psychic life. This implies that memory is not only reproductive but also productive in nature.

Explore and emancipate do not disappear when a person remembers. A person more often than not, remembers because he wants to understand his present situation to be able to act, to solve problems, in other words to reconstitute his situation. A child wants to understand the meaning of a specific situation for his emancipation and while remembering, constitute his inner life-world.

Nel & Urbani (1990 : 83-85) clearly indicate the relations between memory and the other modes of experiencing. These relations can be summarised as follows :

* **Perceiving and sensing**

A person perceives selectively. Memory is one important factor which determines what a person perceives.

* **Imagining**

Images are not always true imitations of reality. Images can be created in efforts to establish sensible links between aspects which ostensibly need to be linked in order to reflect a sensible unit.

From the above brief explanation it should be clear that it is impossible to study memory in isolation from, for instance, sensing, perceiving, imagining, thinking, etc.

(4) **Thinking**

Thinking is an act of solving problems. There is, however, no general consensus on how a person goes about solving a problem (Vrey 1984 : 24). Thinking consists of envisaging, realising structural features and structural requirements. Thinking proceeds in accordance with, and is determined by these requirements, thereby changing the situation in the direction of structural improvements.

(a) **Thinking in progress**

(i) **Becoming aware of the problem**

According to Nel & Urbani (1990) two of the essential characteristics which best serve to clarify the becoming aware of a problem are :

- * "Wonder" is a subjective experience of the difference between what one understands and what one observes in reality; and
- * wonder has two dimensions, namely a gnostic and a pathic. The gnostic refers to the knowledge that one does not know enough about a thing - that there is something strange to it. The pathic refers to the feeling that one is able to know and is able to conquer the unknown.

In real life situations thinking thus originates in wonder.

(ii) Personal orientation with regard to the problem

During this stage the pupil determines his own position with regard to the problem situation. According to Nel & Urbani (1990) this involves different aspects :

a) The emancipatory feelings

Any problem is regarded as a challenge. The child's intellectual feelings are actualised to a high level. A child's affective disposition towards a subject or category of events will influence his decision on whether to give more attention thereto. From a psychopedagogic point of view the demand is that a child must be actively involved otherwise he will not even start thinking about a problem.

b) Facts about the situation

A pupil with the necessary background knowledge will be able to relate the problem-setting proposition (situation) to his own cognitive structure and thus understand the nature of the problem confronting him. Experiences in solving problems enhances a pupil's ability to understand the nature of problems. Research has shown that although the solution to many difficult problems appears suddenly, in

a flash, it is usually preceded by thorough thinking which may proceed for hours or even months (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 86).

(5) Imagining

Imagining refers to a sequence or a composition consisting of images, ideas, memories, etc. which eventually should form a composite whole, i.e. a story or painting. Sonnekus (1974) describes imagining as an intentional act of constituting a world, but a world of unreality or, at the most, a world as "reality in distance". Imagining is the act of constituting an imaginative world. In constituting an imaginary world one employs perceiving, imaging, remembering and thinking.

(a) A classification of modes of imagining

(i) Reproductive imagining

This encompasses mainly a recalling of past events or experiences, but it also encompasses a re-organisation of the past to fulfil present needs. This may occur when a child tries to flee from situations which are too problematic for him to solve.

(ii) Anticipatory imagining

When a person plans for the future, anticipatory imagining plays an important role. Planning for the future basically means creating an imaginary future. Anticipatory imagining is directed at intercepting possible problems with a view to having a repertoire of solutions ready.

(iii) Creative imagining

In creative imagining the creation of an imaginary work is the sole purpose of the imagining act. There are, however, no programmes or tricks available which a teacher can employ to help a child to actualise his imagining potential.

2.3.3 Orientating (action)

Experiencing culminates in orientation. Put in another way; experiencing is an act of orientating oneself. To orientate oneself means to determine one's own position in relation to that with which one is confronted. One determines the nature of one's relationship with the situation as a Gestalt, but also with the constituent parts of the situation. Emancipate and explore are the two most fundamental forces underlying experiencing. Orientating also reflects a dynamic dimension. Orientating also implies to determine what opportunities are available for further exploring and emancipating. Orientating also means to create a safe, personal world for oneself (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 99).

According to Joubert (1978?) a child must gain a thorough knowledge of his actualisable potentialities.

Joubert (1978?) discusses six essential characteristics of orientating. They are :

(1) Exploring

Exploring implies a study of those aspects of reality which are relatively unknown to the child. He explores those aspects of reality which reflect both known and unknown characteristics. As a child grows older his emancipating becomes socially influenced. Objectives of emancipation becomes more refined and the will to overcome his helplessness becomes a will to succeed. Exploring becomes more formal and organised and less subjective to wonder and anticipate.

(2) Discovering

This refers to the actual discovering of essential characteristics of reality. Not all exploring culminates in the discovery of essential characteristics.

(3) Evaluating

Once essential characteristics of a certain section of reality have been discovered a child must determine what value these characteristics have for him as regards his total situatedness, but also as regards his immediate directedness.

(4) Understanding

This refers to an understanding of the inter-relationship between the different essential characteristics of reality and also between the essential characteristics and his own abilities and actualisable potentialities.

(5) Acceptance

This refers to the child's acceptance of the opportunities which the essential characteristics of reality offer for actualising his own potentialities.

(6) Actualising

Once a pupil understands the essential characteristics of a situation, he must act to actualise his potentialities in accordance with the opportunities that he has discovered.

(7) Criteria for the evaluation of the quality of orientation(a) Differentiate

Differentiate has been used to describe the unfolding of the affectivity. The affectivity of the small child is global and diffuse. As a child grows older and "gets educated" his affectivity gradually becomes differentiated into identifiable feelings which have been classified as sensory-physical, social, intellectual, aesthetic, ethical or moral, and religious. Differentiation is also affected in respect of sensing-perceiving, motoric, imaging and imagining, memory and thinking. Differentiation alone will not assist the

child in finding his way through the maze of relationships, values, feelings, convictions, knowledge, etc. His orientation must be more refined.

(b) Refinement

Differentiate implies the identification of a class, while refine means to understand the finer constituents of a situation and the inter-relations between the different constituents. It refers to the understanding of the essential characteristics of the class.

(c) Objectify

To objectify means to be able to see and evaluate an object, event, person, etc. as it is, irrespective of whether I am subjectively involved or not. I see a thing as it appears to everyone, stripped of the personal meaning it may have for me. This does not mean that I am not involved. If I am not involved the object does not form a constituent part of my situation. My involvement is characterised by differentiation, refinement and objectification.

2.4 THE PEDAGOGIC SITUATION

The point of departure of psychopedagogics is the pedagogic situation. A psychopedagogic perspective must, therefore, develop from the pedagogic situation. This implies that categories such as experiencing, cognition, feeling, perceiving, thinking, etc. only acquire psychopedagogic status within the pedagogic situation (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 10). Outside the pedagogic situation they remain anthropological categories. Within the pedagogic situation, they become psychopedagogic categories. The matrix within which the pedagogic situation develops is the pedagogic relationship. The pedagogic relationship can be defined as a relationship between an educator and one or more educands formed with the specific aim of educating the child or children. The pedagogic situation develops within this relationship. The quality of the relationship has a direct influence on the success or otherwise of the education act.

Conversely, the quality of the relationship is also influenced by the success or failure of the education act (Van Niekerk 1987 : 9; Nel & Urbani 1990 : 11).

In the pedagogic situation, according to Landman (Du Plooy & Kilian 1981 : 66), the educator(s) and the educand(s) are related in a special way. They get involved in education relationships. They are :

- * The Pedagogic relationship of trust.
- * The Pedagogic relation of understanding and knowing.
- * The Pedagogic relation of authority.

These pedagogic relationship structures are fundamental-pedagogic structures. If they are not realised, no genuine education (pedagogic) situation will come into existence, and education cannot be fully actualised.

2.4.1 Pedagogic trust

To become adult, a child must learn to explore his life-world and come to know it. If the child does not feel confident and secure, that child will be reluctant to venture into the unknown and his learning will tend to stagnate. This confidence and security are experienced by the child when the adult accepts the child as he is and the child trusts and accepts the adult as a guide to and an image of his own future. This resulting sense of confidence and security promotes the child's readiness and willingness to explore and to learn (Yonge *et al.* 1987: 145).

From the above, it can be seen that the relationship of trust is markedly pathic/affective in nature. It is primarily within this relationship that the trusted adult accompanies the trusting child and provides emotional support. The quality of the relationship of trust, or affective guidance, is directly related to the quality of the child's learning (Yonge *et al.* 1987 : 146).

Whatever the educator and the educand accomplish during their pedagogic encounter, one thing is certain, and that is that the events are aimed toward a future about which the educand is still uncertain. He searches for certainty. His human form of existence is a venturing out to the future. As this is inevitable, he has to rely on the support of the adult to do so. Since his future actually represents a greater existential venturing than in the present, he searches for or is in need of someone whom he can trust and in this way gain a foothold in life, today, tomorrow and in the days to follow. He wants to make sure that life (with his educator) is meaningful, and that his participation in life and in reality is not without significance. He yearns for safety and security, and once he has acquired this, he experiences emotional security (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer 1982 : 95).

A trusting sphere in which child and educator accept each other as persons who are bearers of human dignity is necessary to constitute the education relationship. In accepting the child, the adult must accept the child as he is, but also as he wants to be, must be and should be. The mutual involvement of educator and child is manifested in the adult's accosting of the child as "child". In calling out the name "child" the adult concurs that he accepts the existence of an ontic bond between himself and the child. This ontic bond is a pre-condition for the constitution of a co-existential world as life-world in which the child can trust the adult as someone who welcomes him on the grounds of his indisputable human dignity (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 167-169).

The child should not be viewed in a cold and unsympathetic manner, but he should be lovingly accepted by the adult as a fellow human being. Since one is concerned here with the mutual involvement of adult and child it is also of utmost importance for the child to trust the adult. The child's trust in the adult is manifested in his willingness to accept and realise the norms himself that are exemplified through the adult's life. The relationship of trust as a precondition for education implies active participation of adult and child. In actively calling to the child the adult exhibits his trust in the child. In other words, the adult shows his trust in the child to lead a life which is worthy of being human. In his being together with the child, in trust the adult is

presently related to the child in the pedagogic situation on account of his faith in the child's potential to become that which he ought to be through increasing humanisation (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 169).

The relationship of trust can only be actualised if the educator is accessible to the child. In other words, to trust it is necessary to accept. Educator and educand resume further actions from their respective "positions" in the fear of acceptance. In other words, they break away from a homeostatic existence: "Die 'plek' van die opvoeders is hulle saamwees as duursame en troue verantwoordelikeitsaanvaarding en toekomsontsluiting, en betreffende die kind sy steeds toenemende in-verantwoording-staan as 'n steeds toenemende selfstandigwording" (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 169).

The key to the understanding of trust is faith. One can only trust a person if one has complete faith in him. Faith always appears within a relationship. Faith is lasting, firm and consistent. It embodies the sensible, the valuable and the truth for the one who has faith. It is dynamic and a fulfilment of the demands emanating from what the person who has faith sees as the "good order". Faith forms the foundation for trust. It ensures security, consistency and safety to the person who trusts (Stoker 1967). Pedagogic trust shows numerous dimensions. The educator must have faith that the child is educable within the society which the school serves. Of equal importance is his trust in the social order within which he educates. If his faith in any of the two wavers the pedagogic situation will be weakened. More important, however, is the child's faith in the educator and this depends on the educator's trustworthiness.

A child has expectations of "his world" which, although still very much founded in the present situation, are also to a large extent future directed. A well educated small child has a diffused, still naive but complete faith in his educator. His orientatedness is equally undifferentiated and unrefined. As a child grows older and his psychic life develops within the pedagogic situation, his orientatedness becomes more differentiated and refined (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 76). Enough evidence exists to prove that the psychic life of a pedagogically neglected child (abused child) develops

unsatisfactorily and that his orientatedness remains relatively undifferentiated and unrefined (Van Niekerk 1987 : 11). The crux of the problem seems to be the underdevelopment of the feelings which are not only attenuated but mainly directed at satisfaction on the sensory level.

The pedagogically neglected child will neither love nor trust. It is even doubtful if he can hate. Behaviour which may seriously harm others may often emanate from lack of feelings of either love or hatred (Van Niekerk 1987 : 16). In the school situation, the phenomenon of "conditional trust" is a reality. Many teachers are not unconditionally trusted as educators by all pupils. If a teacher proves to be an expert in his subject, pupils will respect him for that. If he also proves to be a dedicated educator they will have faith that he will assist them in learning that subject. If he also proves to be a dedicated educator they will also trust him with many existential problems which they know their parents cannot solve (Urbani 1990 : 14-15).

2.4.2 Pedagogic understanding

In wanting to be someone , the child also wants to and needs to know and understand. For the child to adequately actualise this cognitive directedness (intentionality), he depends on the accompaniment or guidance of a trustworthy as well as understanding adult. This accompaniment of the child by the adult toward increasing knowledge and understanding not only requires that the educator generally understands the nature of children and the role of education in their becoming but also the uniqueness and particularity of this child in his actuality and potentiality. This understanding should also reflect a respect for the dignity of the individual child. On the other hand, the child's receptivity for such accompaniment stems from his belief and trust in the adult as someone who offers advice and knowledge worth following. This means the child experiences the adult as someone who really understands him and as someone who is there for his benefit. A child wants to be grown up and, thus, has an intuitive understanding that he is directed towards adulthood. This provides the inherent motive for the child's willingness to explore and learn to understand the life-world as learning content. This wanting to be grown up, as motive, is what allows Langeveld (Yonge *et*

al.1987) to say that a human child is a being who is committed to upbringing (Yonge et al. 1987 : 147).

In a fundamental sense, this relationship revolves around the mutual, though not equivalent, interpersonal understanding of adult and child. However, it also includes understanding for the sake of grasping aspects of the life-world. In this latter respect, the relationship of understanding implies a relationship of exploration within the pedagogic situation. It is also the task of the educator to support the child in this exploration toward a knowledge of the life-world as learning content. This aspect of the relationship becomes salient when one takes a didactic-pedagogic or teaching perspective on educating. Obviously, the pedagogic relationship of understanding has a strong cognitive flavour. The essential purpose of this modality is for the adult to be in a position to assist and accompany the child to self-actualisation of his cognitive potentialities, (i.e. cognitive modes of learning) with respect to the content presented to the child by the adult (Yonge et al. 1987 : 147).

The relationship of knowing is a condition for creating and maintaining the education relation. To be able to educate the educand, the educator has to learn to know the child well, and to acquaint himself progressively and more thoroughly with him, especially regarding whether and to what extent he is educable, and who he actually is. On the other hand, the educand should know who his educator is and also what to expect of him. He also has to learn to know him. On the basis of their mutual knowledge, they both establish the education relationship which can be initiated from the educator's side or from that of the educand. In the relationship of knowing within the education situation, also characterised by trust, the educator wishes to teach the educand that each one of his actions (as self-becoming action) in accordance with behavioural expectations, (i.e. as educative events aimed toward influencing and improving) represents a breakthrough of his situatedness in the education situation, and actually an extension of the horizons of his life-world. He acts only after he has decided, with the help, support and guidance of his familiar educator, who is significant for the educand in view of his future. It is therefore a responsible decision and a justified action as a characteristic of adulthood. His action is essentially the design of

a significant world as home for him. His decision allows him to know as a person who is open to and directed toward the world of knowledge which his educator, with due observance of norms, holds up for him as example, and practises in his own life (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer 1982 : 98-101).

In order to constitute the education relationship, the educator should know the nature and destination of the child. This necessitates that the educator should have real-essential knowledge of the child in his totality and always bear in mind a particular child's destination. Initially, the child does not understand himself, because the horizons of the situation in which he finds himself are still unclear. For this reason, the adult must continuously clarify and explain the as yet unknown reality to the adult-in-the-making. However, in explicating reality to the child the adult must simultaneously call on the child to participate so that the child himself will also start giving meaning to reality with the view to getting to know himself. The child could not know himself or life reality unless the educator assisted him by showing the way. The educator must explain the reality of life to the child. It will then become known and understandable to the child. In explaining and clarifying reality the educator calls on the child to arrange reality by giving meaning to it with the view to getting to know reality and his own reality situatedness (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 163).

It is imperative for the child to give meaning to reality and his own reality related position. Meaning-giving is essential for knowing reality as life reality. This meaning-giving is essential and must be done by every human being (child) and of his own accord. By constituting meaning through giving meaning the child is in fact realising himself. In verbalising reality the child verbalises himself. By verbalising the self the child gets to know himself and reality. However, it must be continuously born in mind that reality to the child is initially a concealed reality. Reality as concealed reality must be illuminated so that the child can get to know it. It is the educator's task to increasingly and explanatorily illuminate life reality to the child. The child must also start giving meaning to illuminate reality and himself. The adult who knows his life-world must spell it out to the child that it is essential to his becoming an adult to

personally know reality and his related position to reality (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 165).

The pedagogic relationship of knowing is not merely knowing, but it is also and especially understanding of the other's mutual involvement in the education situation. The act of understanding implies action. This means that the adult through being actively involved in the child's life bodily encounters him by confronting him with norms. The adult gets to know the child's being-in-the-world through a vis-a-vis encounter of the child in his situation. To know the child pedagogically it is therefore necessary for the adult to accept the child as fellow constituent of the education relationship (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 167).

To understand pre-supposes that one must have knowledge of that which one wants to understand (Van Niekerk 1987 : 11). Understanding implies thinking, in other words, the solving of a problem. This implies a phenomenological approach to that which one endeavours to understand. One will have to differentiate between essential and non-essential knowledge, then proceed to a refined analysis of that which is essential before one can arrive at an understanding of the nature of the relationships between the different essential characteristics of the situation with which one is confronted. In everyday life we rely heavily on intuition to understand situations. Intuition operates on the pre-cognitive level; it is an essence of sensing (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 11).

Sensing is described by Straus (1963) as the grasping of meanings on the pre-cognitive level. It supplies the stable supportive base for perceiving. Intuitive understanding means that as long as the senso-pathic moment of perceiving remains stable we accept that we understand what we perceive. Our understanding may be correct or not correct. As long as we feel satisfied that we understand, we will proceed to act according to our interpretation of the situation. When the senso-pathic gets disturbed, doubt will undermine our feeling that we understand and we will then seek for the reason for our doubt (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 44). Once we have identified it, the problem to be solved will be to fit the aspect about which we have doubted sensibly

into its correct place within the network of relations which form the structure of the situation which we face. The foregoing means that if the realisation that we do not understand does not effect one's feeling, one will not regard it as a problem and one will not even try to understand.

It is obvious that in the pedagogic situation we cannot rely wholly on intuitive certainty and intuitive doubt. On the other hand to always reject intuitive certainty will undermine the educand's trust in the educator. The educator will then have to be over inquisitive and the educand will feel that the educator does not trust him.

The educator will have to know the following in order to understand within the pedagogic situation :

- * Essential nature of man.
- * Cultural society.
- * Functioning of a school.

(1) Essential nature of Man

The educator needs to understand the essential nature of Man. Knowledge and understanding of man rests on common sense. This common sense is the outcome of a well-balanced education and usually operates on the intuitive level (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 12).

(2) Cultural society

The educator needs to have knowledge and understanding of the cultural society in which he lives and in which he educates his children. Education means, inter alia, to lead a child into a cultural society. The child is led to discover facts, principles, norms, values, customs, etc. which to some extent differ from culture to culture and even from

different social groups within the same culture (Luthuli 1982 ; Cemané 1984). Once the essential characteristics of man have been actualised in the life of an educand, he will be able to orientate himself within any group where the characteristics are accepted as fundamental structures upon which the society rests (Nel & Urbani 1990: 13).

(3) Functioning of a school

It is of great value if parents have knowledge of and understand how a school functions. Parents need to understand their children as school children. This is often very difficult especially in rural black societies where many parents have never been to school and may tend to base their interpretation of the function of the school on traditional life and world views (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 13 ; Luthuli 1982).

This places additional responsibilities on teachers. Teachers must not only understand the families of their pupils but they must actively endeavour to bring the school to the families (figuratively speaking). They must help the parents to understand their children as school children (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 13).

2.4.3 Pedagogic authority

Initially, most of the life-world is concealed from or unknown to the child. The educator must gradually present aspects of the life-world which have been reduced to their essential core such that the child can grasp and learn to know that content. Also, it is clear to the educator that within the particular community into which a child is being brought up, there are important and unimportant aspects of the life-world as well as hierarchies of acceptable and unacceptable meanings and behaviours. Thus, the issue of the responsible giving and receiving of meaning becomes evident. That is, the giving and experiencing of meaning are always matters of norms and values. Since the adult already understands and lives these norms and values, he has something to "show and tell" the child regarding them. But this showing and telling must take place within a dialogue between adult and child and not a monologue directed at the child by the

adult. If the modalities of trust and understanding have been adequately actualised, the adult can appeal to the child to listen to and respond to the authority of these norms and values. At the same time, the child, through his helplessness, is appealing to the adult for normative guidance (Yonge et al. 1987 : 147-148).

It is important to note that the source of pedagogic authority is not the adult as such but rather the norms and values to which the adult is committed and which are exemplified to the child in the adult's word and deed. When the adult accompanies the child in a trusting, understanding way within the relationship of authority, the child experiences what in psychopedagogics is called sympathetic and authoritative guidance (Yonge et al. 1987 : 148). Without authority and sympathetic but authoritative guidance, adulthood can never be attained, while acknowledgement of and obedience to authority are of the best qualities of mature adulthood. Without some kind of authority there can be no pedagogic situation, and education is unable to emerge (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer 1982 : 102-103).

The pedagogic relationship is amongst others realised through the relationship of authority. The child accepts the parent's authority and the latter assists the child in his craving for support. In their being together both educator and educand are continuously giving meaning to reality as life-reality. On account of the relationship of authority the educator has something to say to the child and the child listens to what the educator has to say. However, the child will not listen to the adult unless he trusts him completely. On the other hand, the adult will not have anything to say if he is not aware of the child's potential. This shows very clearly that the relationship of knowing and the relationship of trust are pre-conditions for the existence of the relationship of authority. In actual fact each one of these pedagogic relation structures is a pre-condition for the appearance of the other relationship structures (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 171).

The initially concealed and unknown reality must be explained to the child by the adult before it becomes life-reality. In designating and verbalising reality the child gives meaning to reality through arranging it. One of the characteristics of adulthood

is responsibility and therefore the child is obliged to increasingly constitute meaning of his own accord. In other words, he must increasingly give meaning to life by verbalising it. This brings another facet of the relationship of authority to the fore. There is no place for a monologue in the pedagogic situation; it must be a dialogue. The child is also entitled to speak in the pedagogic situation and not only the adult. The child has a right to speak in the pedagogic situation, because he participates in the pedagogic occurrence. Had the child not been co-constituent of the pedagogic occurrence he would not have had anything to say. However, the pedagogic occurrence cannot be actualised without mutual involvement of both educator and educand (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 171).

In the relationship of authority the adult further gives evidence of the fact that he not only has authority, but also accepts the authority of norms which have a distinct bearing on his life and actions. This means that the adult should be a living example of normed exemplification and norm acceptance to the child. If the child is increasingly showing signs of changing his life through norms he is in fact answering to the normed embodiment of the adult in the relationship of authority as dialogue relationship (Kilian & Viljoen 1974 : 173). Pedagogic authority differs from all other forms of authority. It has its roots in love which in the case of teachers shows a triangular foundation :

- * Love for children.
- * Love for the subject which he teaches.
- * Love for his culture.

(1) Love for children

An educator who does not love children, or who stands neutral or feels animosity towards a specific child or children can never be entrusted with pedagogic authority (Nel & Urbani 1990: 15).

(2) Love for the subject which he teaches

Love for the subject which the teacher teaches implies that he must have enough knowledge of his subject to teach children and not confuse them (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 16). It is maintained that the parent, when intervening in the life of his child, basically teaches that child. It is of little value if a child's actions or attitudes are condemned without teaching him what is correct. It is imperative that the parent should have knowledge of those aspects in respect of which he intervenes in the life of his child. Without this knowledge he cannot accept pedagogic authority (Van Niekerk 1987 : 21).

(3) Love for his culture

In today's fast changing modern societies this can pose a problem to the educator. Aspects of culture which may have been regarded as sacred twenty years ago, may today have disappeared (Rossouw 1990 : 61-64). A too fervent love for a specific culture may easily degenerate into a chauvinism, which because of its selfish character may hamper or misdirect education. Cultures become more and more fluid. More and more so-called fundamental aspects of life and world views upon which different cultures rest become purified and accepted over an ever widening spectrum of cultures. Differences in lifestyles disappear (Nel & Urbani 1990 : 16).

An educator is not invested with pedagogic authority merely on account of his status as parent or teacher. He is vested with pedagogic authority on account of the fact that he represents pedagogically acceptable principles, norms and values (Du Plooy & Kilian 1984 : 124-129).

2.5 SYNTHESIS

Although both the adult and the child are to be held responsible for the success of the child's education, the adult is the one who should mainly be called to account for any dysfunction in the dynamics of the upbringing (Van Niekerk 1987 : 11). When the

adult, who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are met, the child is usually affectively, cognitively and normatively neglected. It is not suggested that this neglect is always intentional. It may for instance happen that the adult's appeal to the child is not sufficiently clear and unambiguous, and is consequently misunderstood. This example does, however, imply that the pedagogic relationship of understanding is not being adequately constituted. If any of the pedagogic relationships of trust, understanding and authority are absent from the pedagogic situation, it will result in a dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation. The abused child thus finds himself in this situation of dysfunctional education. Without sufficient participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the abused child is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focusses on the child's adulthood. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately (Van Niekerk 1987 : 9). The pedagogically inadequate actualisation of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result.

As mentioned before, experience culminates in orientation, or is an act of orientating oneself. The abused child finds himself in an insecure home environment in which he has to orientate himself. To orientate himself the abused child will have to determine his own position in relation to that which he is confronted with. The abused child determines the nature of his relationship with his situation as a Gestalt, but also with the constituent parts of the situation. At home the abused child continuously orientates himself in relation to his parents, to himself, to the social worker, to his peers, to things/ideas and to God.

Emancipate and explore are two of the most fundamental forces underlying experiencing. The abused child's experiencing of reality does not allow him to determine what opportunities are available for his emancipation. The exploring and emancipation that the abused child experiences always has a negative connotation. This results in the psychic life of the abused child being pedagogically inadequately actualised. This directly pertains to the mode of his exploring, emancipating,

distantiating, objectivation and differentiating, which are in the same event inadequately actualised in terms of the pedagogical norm. He is indeed obstructed in his progress towards adulthood. The rate of his becoming is slowed down and his progress is much slower than it ought to be; there is a developmental lag between the level which the abused child has in fact attained and that what he should have been on according to his potential. In short, there is a discrepancy between what the child is and what he ought to be as a person. His actions of ascribing significance to matters, of exerting himself, venturing forth, hoping, planning, fulfilling his future, valuing, gaining insight, attaining the freedom to be responsible of accepting norms, are all of an *insufficient* quality.

Joubert (1978?) noted that a child must gain a thorough knowledge of his actualisable potentialities. These potentialities must relate to the opportunities available for actualisation. It is of little meaning for the abused child to realise that he can become a responsible adult if the opportunities for the actualisation of his potentials do not exist and are not created for him. The abused child must in other words gain an understanding of the opportunities which are available in society. He must be brought to understand the relation(ship) between his potentials and the available opportunities for actualisation.

Differentiate has been used to describe the unfolding of the affectivity. The affectivity of the small child is global and diffuse. As a child grows older and "gets educated" his affectivity gradually becomes differentiated into identifiable feelings which have been classified as sensory-physical, social, intellectual, aesthetic, ethical or moral, and religious. The feelings form the foundations for the entire intentionality of the child. The reality of these feelings is of utmost importance for relevant research regarding abused children, as these feelings will also form the foundations of the entire intentionality of the abused child. Concurrently, with a differentiation of the affects, differentiation is also inadequately actualised by the abused child in respect of sensing-perceiving, motoric, imaging and imagining, memory and thinking, i.e. the abused child does not learn according to his learning abilities. The abused child is hampered in his will to actualise his potentials. Without the need to learn and a

differentiation of the affects, the cognitive aspects of the abused child's becoming are not actualised.

According to Van Niekerk (1987 : 12) the absence of specific ethical and moral factors in the educational setting could also hamper the child's education. The lack of educational dialogue between an adult and the abused child is one of the major factors that short-circuit the dynamics of the educational situation. The point where the subjective interpretations of the adult and the abused child intersect is insufficient and results in the progression of the abused child being replaced by retrogression. The self-evident norms are passed over in silence and thus actually disregarded.

From a psychopedagogical perspective the abused child finds himself in an educational relationship which is dysfunctional. Dysfunctional education implies that the abused child's psychic life is under-actualised. According to Van Niekerk (1987 : 20-30) this under-actualisation of the psychic life of the child will eventually result in :

- * inadequate exploration;
- * inadequate emancipation;
- * inadequate distantiation;
- * inadequate differentiation;
- * inadequate objectification; and
- * inadequate learning.

Having examined pedagogics and psychopedagogics in relation to the abused child in this chapter, it is now necessary to examine the relevant research concerning the life-world of the abused child in chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

RELEVANT RESEARCH CONCERNING THE LIFE-WORLD OF THE ABUSED CHILD

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Life-world is the Gestalt of the individual person's meaningful relationships. A life-world is not conceivable apart from a person, since it is the totality of meanings discovered or assigned by a person. No two people can have the same life-world. In the same way, a child without a life-world is inconceivable. To constitute this life-world he uses his genetic potential, instincts, passions, psychological abilities, etc. in a particular cultural world, his norms and values being aligned with his ideals and expectations, all constituted as one dynamic, interacting whole in which he is involved and to which he assigns meaning (Vrey 1984 : 15).

According to Vrey (1984 : 21) the child must form relationships with his world because he needs to orientate, survive and mature within this world. Buitendijk (1966) characterises this ontic phenomenon by saying that the child "initiates" relationships. By forming relationships, the child thus constitutes the life-world that forms his psychological space and reality to which he is orientated. Van Niekerk (1987 : 7) noted that through learning the child constantly raises the level upon which he communicates with life and gives meaning to his world. In learning, the child will also constantly form new relationships and improve the quality of existing relationships. Landman & Roos (1973 : 143-147) state that the child in a dysfunctional educational situation, (e.g. the abused child) under-actualises his psychic life.

The abused child finds himself within a dysfunctional educational situation. His actions of ascribing significance to matters, i.e. the formation of meaningful relationships are of insufficient quality. This gives rise to inadequate actions of hoping, planning, gaining insight into himself, of never attaining the freedom to be responsible and thus also of

disregarding accepted norms and values. This view is supported by Maree (1990 : 4) by noting that the ascribing of significance of insufficient quality is clearly evident in the life-world of the abused child: "...the abused child shows clear signs of being unloved and left alone, of poor self-esteem, of poor interpersonal trust as well as signs of anxiety and depression."

Due to this insufficient ascribing of significance the abused child finds himself in a situation whereby insufficient learning in a pedagogical sense takes place. The level upon which he communicates with life and gives meaning to his world is inadequate and insufficient. Because of the inadequate nature of existing relationships the abused child cannot improve the quality of existing relationships, or form new meaningful relationships within his life-world at home. Because of this inability to establish a meaningful life-world there is a discrepancy between what the abused child is and what he ought to be as a person.

A child being borne into this world after his birth has to find his own abode in his own life-world. In his utter helplessness he cannot do this without the assistance, acceptance, purposeful intention and responsibility of a well disposed adult to whose care he has been entrusted, and whose duty it is to accompany him in such a way that he will live and experience his childhood fully as a mode of living humanly. What is more, the adult has to exemplify to him how to improve his humanness on his way to adulthood, and ultimately to live his adulthood in his own life-world fully as another mode of living which differs from that of the child "in degree, not in kind" (Du Plooy & Kilian 1981 : 118).

3.2 ETIOLOGY OF CHILD ABUSE : REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Numerous theories have been put forward in an attempt at explaining and alleviating the growing international problem of child abuse. In view of the fact that child abuse is not an isolated phenomenon but very often occurs within the context of family violence, it is necessary firstly, to review the literature focussing on the reasons for family violence.

3.2.1 Studies pertaining to family violence

Violence in the family, says Clifton (1982 : 37) "is overwhelmingly violence to children and women." Lystad (1975 : 45) states that family violence may be defined as "behaviour that involves the direct use of physical force against other family members." The family referred to is the nuclear family, comprising mother, father and children.

Zalba (Lystad 1975 : 329) relates family violence to parental personalities ranging from violent to episodic schizophrenia to highly impulsive character disorders, which cause parents to vent their anger over marital conflicts on the children.

Gelles (Lystad 1975 : 329) using a socio-cultural model, concentrates on factors such as unemployment and social class, and believes that something should be done to alleviate the problems of the poor. The most often used social structural theory on family violence relates to the socialization of aggression. The theory states that parents who punish aggressively, teach their children that such aggression is the norm. They in turn use the same mode of aggression when punishing their children.

Gil (1975 : 331) believes that society sanctions violence through approving cultural norms which are amenable to the use of physical violence. Societal approval of violence is further manifested in infant hunger and malnutrition, mortality, poverty, inadequate medical care, housing and education and officially approved abuse in schools, child care facilities, correctional institutions and the juvenile court.

Other studies, cited by Lystad (1975 : 334) concentrate on the socio-economic differences among the various classes, and see the great majority of abusers as coming from the lower-class. However, we should not take this to mean that people from the lower-class are more likely to abuse their children. What it does mean is that people from the higher classes are more likely to hide the abuse as they are able to get help from private doctors who may not recognise the injury as abuse, or may be unwilling to accept that abuse has in fact occurred.

Goode (1982 : 10) states that violence is used to achieve desired ends, as "the family, like other social systems, is a power system, which rests to some degree on force or its threat."

Conflict or family violence may also occur:

- * because of the undesirable habits or behaviour of its members;
- * because the family demands a high level of commitment which may cause stress;
- * because the various members often want to do different and incompatible things at the same time; and
- * because members grow and develop in different directions, leading to conflict in roles, status and expectations.

3.2.2. Studies pertaining to the major etiological factors in child abuse.

Researchers have written extensively on the possible cause of abuse and have classified them under various headings. In the present analysis, the writer has grouped the causes under four broad headings, i.e. interactional aspects, biological, psychological and sociological. It should be realised that the abuse of children cannot be ascribed to any one particular reason. Generally a variety of factors interact to produce the end result.

(1) Interactional aspects

(a) Studies pertaining to the generational cycle of child abuse

By far one of the most popular reasons advocated for child abuse is the generational cycle of child abuse. Battered children tend in turn to become battering parents in the classical battered child syndrome (Lystad 1975 : 334).

Theorists have recognised that patterns of child rearing, be they good or bad, are passed on from one generation to the next. One would suppose that parents who had been subjected to abuse as children would be more sympathetic and adopt more emphatic means in rearing their children. It seems that this is not so, and that parents tend to use the same disciplinary measures as did their parents. Caffo *et al.* (1982 : 457) state that abused children tend to become abusing parents, and that many abusing parents were themselves abused as children. Such parents integrate into their psyche the mode of behaviour of their parents which emerges during moments of crisis, even when they have been rationally denied.

Smith (1975 : 45) after reviewing numerous studies, maintains that abusing parents received the same treatment from their parents during childhood. The stresses and strains of day to day living, coupled with their own early abuse, creates a climate favourable for abuse. We can conclude from the foregoing that abusing parents were themselves abused as children and abusing parents tend to unconsciously adopt the child-rearing practices of their own parents.

There is general agreement among researchers that abusing parents were themselves physically and emotionally abused. According to Main & Goldwyn (1984 : 204) case histories reveal "a consistent picture of aggressive, physically punitive childhood experiences." Caffo *et al.* (1982) however, state that not all abused children become abusing parents. Parents tend to suppress unhappy childhood memories, and if they are helped to recall these experiences, work through their distress and anger, then they are able to come to terms with it, and "stop" the generational cycle of abuse (Fraiberg 1984 : 214).

(b) Studies pertaining to lack of bonding or attachment

Related to what was said above, Vesterdal (1977 : 240) sees child abuse as a disruption of the parent-child relationship which may exist together with any other psychological state. In a normal relationship, the bond between a mother and a child is very strong. The child depends on the mother initially to provide its basic needs, i.e.

food, nurturance and protection. As the child matures and becomes more independent physically, he is still dependent on the parents to provide love, guidance and instruction on the norms and values that pertain in the society. The family remains the anchor, even though the child's social contacts are gradually expanding. The parents in return, are rewarded by the child's smile, a hug and his later achievements, carried out with the express purpose of pleasing them.

In an abnormal relationship, this symbiosis between parents and child is disturbed. The mother may, because of unwanted pregnancy, difficult or caesarian, false expectations, etc. fail to respond adequately to the needs of the child. The temperament of the child may also trigger the non-responsiveness of the mother. If the child is continually frustrated by the mother's rejection, he will later in life have difficulty in establishing friendships and bonds of trust with others. The disruption of the bond, coupled with other pressures and frustrations, often erupts into acts of violence against the child in moments of stress.

(c) Studies pertaining to marital difficulties

A great deal has been written about the role of marital difficulties as a contributory factor in child abuse. A review of the literature reveals that abusing families are categorised by a high degree of disorganisation, conflict, separation and divorce (Clifton 1982 : 29). Strauss (1984 : 390) reports that abusing parents are less satisfied with their marriages. Oates (1984) found that there was less participation in shared decision-making, and more disagreements among abusing parents. Further evidence in support of marital difficulties among the parents of abused children is cited by Clifton (1982 : 30). The literature reveals that many authors found a great deal of marital disharmony, while others found an extremely close and claustrophobic type of relationship in the families of abused children.

(d) Studies pertaining to social isolation

A study of the literature reveals unanimously that abusing parents are socially isolated,

and that such isolation correlates with higher rates of abuse. Howze & Kotch (1984: 404) state that isolation from friends and relatives, no participation in formal or informal organisations and even the lack of a telephone, have all been clearly connected with child abuse. Ikeda (1982 : 488) in her study of child abuse in Japan, found that abusing families were nuclear families, with no close friends, relatives or roots in the immediate area. Clifton (1982) states that social isolation increases the likelihood of other problems which are associated with child abuse.

It could also be that families experiencing severe discord, even violence, deliberately isolate themselves in an attempt to conceal the situation. Conversely, friends and family avoid such families so as not to become embroiled in their domestic upheavals. Whatever the reason for the isolation, the fact remains that abusing families often have no-one to turn to in a crisis situation, no-one to provide a hand when the situation is potentially explosive.

(2) Studies pertaining to biological aspects

(a) Premature infants

Premature infants, it would seem from reviewing the literature, are at greater risk of abuse than their full time counterparts. The suggested reasons are, that they require a good deal more care in the early months, and the lack of intimate contact between mother and child in the first few weeks, interferes with the vital bonding or attachment process. There is also the fear on the part of the mother of forming an attachment with a child that may not survive. The mother's ill health after the birth and feeding problems with the infant, may all serve to tip the balance in favour of abusive behaviour towards the child (Kempe & Kempe 1978 : 34).

(b) Illness or abnormality of mother and/or child

Illness on the part of the mother or the child frequently provides the matrix within which abuse occurs. Chronic illness, with its accompanying frustrations, makes it

extremely difficult to provide physical and economic care, even in the most well-intentioned mothers (Kempe & Kempe 1978 : 35).

According to Urbani (1982) children born with congenital defects or mental deficiency are also at risk of abuse. The mother often rejects the child, possibly because of frustration, guilt or the social stigma attached for failing to give birth to a normal child.

(c) Crying, problem feeding and soiling

One of the most disturbing behaviours of the child, and likely to cause abuse, is crying. Kempe & Kempe (1982: 459) state: "Crying seems by far the behaviour which disturbs most, and in many parents who abuse the child crying causes an intolerable anxiety which must be interrupted." The crying of the infant is often misinterpreted by the abusing parent, who interprets it as accusatory and as a rejection of the caretaker, the end result being rage and abuse of the child. The crying infant is seen also as attacking or defiant, and as "depriving the parent of basic needs, and thus morally corrupt" (Call 1984 : 188).

Soiling, like crying, produces immeasurable frustration in parents and lack of control, which often gives rise to abuse. The act of soiling just after the mother has bathed and changed the infant, is seen as deliberate naughtiness by the infant, who has done it purposely to "get back" at mother. Refusal to be toilet-trained, is probably the second highest reason for abuse (Kempe & Kempe 1978 : 43). Likewise, difficulties in feeding are extremely upsetting to the mother, and is once again interpreted as a deliberate attempt to frustrate her.

(d) "Special" kind of children

There are some children, who right from birth, are regarded^o as "different" or unlovable. Parents tend to have certain expectations of the child, and a preconceived image of what he will be like. If the child is able to meet these expectations, sleeps

well, eats well, is healthy and responsive to their care, their attachment to him is likely to increase, and the child, in turn, will become attached to them.

On the other hand, there are those infants who do not meet their parents' expectations, and perfectly normal behaviours, like soiling and crying, are regarded less than favourably, hence no attachment develops. Such children may be of the wrong sex, irritable, sickly, dark instead of fair, fat instead of thin, unresponsive, small for age, or may resemble a hated relative, which contribute to the parents' disappointment and consequent rejection and abuse (Call 1984 : 190).

(3) Studies pertaining to psychological aspects

A survey of the literature indicates extensive writings on the personality of the abusing parents. Many researchers have attempted to produce a typology of the abusing parent, these being valuable in so far as establishing predictive and preventive techniques. It should be remembered though, that abusing parents do not fall into any one psychiatric type as it were, and that cognisance should be taken of the fact that child abuse is related to a dysfunctional parent/child relationship, which can exist in conjunction with any other psychological state (Vesterdal 1977).

(a) Characteristics of abusing parents

Prodgers (1984 : 413) has identified five personality characteristics typical of abusing parents. These are:

(i) Arrested emotional development

Researchers have found abusing parents to be emotionally immature. As a result of inadequate mothering, especially during the first two years, the individual's emotional development does not progress, but remains fixed at the infantile level. Trojanowicz (1978) says that the emotionally immature parent constantly places his own early unfulfilled needs above those of his child and expects the child to fulfil these needs.

Kaufman (1978 : 194) states that the abusing, emotionally immature parent may wish to be "babied" and consequently reacts hostilely to his child's needs for nurturance.

(ii) Poor self-image

One of the most constant and recurring features of abusing parents, seems to be that of poor self image, low self-esteem or inadequate self-identity. Associated with this are feelings of themselves as bad, worthless, unlovable, no sense of personal value and the tendency to underrate their own capabilities. Pollock & Steele (1982 : 286) formulate as follows: "Abusive parents have no basic firm cushion of self-esteem or awareness of being loved and valuable to carry them through periods of stress...and they turn to their own infant or child for the nurturing or reassurance they so sorely need to restore this sense of self-esteem."

(iii) Emotional isolation

Abusing parents tend to be withdrawn and introspective, and find it difficult to form meaningful relationships. The ones that they do form, are superficial often resulting in marital discord. Mulford & Cohen (1978 : 190) state that the relationships of neglecting parents are isolative and destructive and that they feel "isolated, alienated, frustrated, powerless and incompetent." The inability to form close emotional attachments means that they are unable to empathize with their children and other people, and lead isolated lives trapped by their feelings of worthlessness.

(iv) Depressive loneliness

The depressive loneliness is not of a clinical nature, but rather a "pervasive sadness or loneliness." Pollock & Steele (1982 : 286) in their clinical study of abusing parents, have also found the presence of depressiveness among them.

(v) Poorly suppressed aggression

The actions of abusing parents are characterised by a high degree of aggression, stemming from within themselves, and which may be directed at one individual, or the world in general. Evans (1984 : 415) states that the parents' behaviour often alternates between anger and depression, which is expressed either through depression or "selective brutality".

(b) Categories of abusing parents

Merrill (1983 : 444) classifies abusing parents into four categories. These are :

(i) Hostile-aggressive parent

This parent exhibits continuous uncontrolled anger stemming from internal conflicts and childhood history of emotional abuse and deprivation. This type is similar to Prodgers (1984) poorly suppressed aggressive type.

(ii) Rigid-compulsive parent

Parents of this type believe it is their right to punish their children, whom they hold responsible for their problems. They lack empathy and make excessive demands on their children. This type corresponds with Prodgers' poor self-image type as regards the lack of empathy and unrealistic expectations such parents have.

(iii) Passive-dependent parent

This type of parent is dependent, immature and prone to depression. He competes with the child for the attention of the spouse. We can compare this type with "arrested emotional development" in Prodgers (1984) classification.

(iv) Identity/role crisis (Physically disabled parent)

Owing to unemployment and consequent loss of status and physical abilities, mother has to work, causing father frustration as he has to care for the child. This type corresponds with Prodggers (1984) second type, i.e. poor self- image.

(c) Types of abusing parents

Zalba (1983 : 444) classifies abusing parents into six distinct types. These are:

(i) Pervasively angry and abusive parent

With this type of parent, abuse is uncontrollable and impulsive, and stems from the parents' "childhood determined personality". This type corresponds with Merrill's hostile-aggressive parent and Prodggers (1984) poorly suppressed aggressive type.

(ii) Cold, compulsive, disciplinarian parent

Like Merrill's rigid-compulsive type, these parents also believe it is their right to punish their children and the abuse occurs in reaction to the child's need for love and affection.

(iii) Depressive, passive-aggressive parent

This type of parent is resentful of the dependency needs of others and is unable to meet his role expectations. The child is seen as a burden to the dependent parent and the abuse is uncontrollable.

(iv) Parent with identity-role crisis

This type coincides with Merrill's (1983) fourth type, i.e. physically disabled parent. According to Zalba (1983) abuse occurs owing to the father's lost role performance.

He stays with the children while mother works. Abuse occurs because of his displaced anger and is controllable.

(v) Impulsive, generally controllable parent with marital conflict

Once again, the abuse is controllable. Father tends to displace his anger over marital conflicts onto the child, who in this case seems to be a specific child who is singled out for the abuse.

(vi) Psychotic parent

Abuse is uncontrollable, unpredictable and ritualistic.

(d) Multiple personality

A further personality type to which not much attention has been given, is the multiple personality. The characteristic features of this personality type, are constant and frequent personality changes and "mood swings, headaches, drug abuse, suicide attempts, stormy interpersonal relationships, hysterical conversion reaction and history of child abuse." Factors giving rise to this personality type relate to a childhood history of neglect, emotional, physical and sexual abuse (Zalba 1983 : 446).

(e) Mental illness

Some researchers point to the presence of mental illness among abusing parents such as schizophrenia, psychopathy or chronic depression. Young (1964 : 13) found mental illness to be a prevalent feature in the histories of abusing parents.

Fontana (1978 : 191) classifies abusing parents into various types, one of which is the neurotic or psychotic abuser. He sees them as having disturbed personalities owing to their unhappy upbringing. They feel threatened by their children and lash out at them in an attempt at self-preservation.

(f) I.Q. level

As regards the I.Q. level of abusers, findings seem to be divergent, with some researchers finding abusers to be of low intelligence, while others do not.

(g) The psychopathology of the abusing parent

In an attempt to understand the workings of the abusers' personality structure, Prodgers (1984 : 417) lists three specific areas as central to such an understanding. These are :

(i) Inadequate ego development

The personality structure comprises of id, ego and superego. The id represents the aggressive impulses, while the ego has to control these impulses. If the ego is not properly developed, it is unable to control these impulses. The abusing parent is seen as having failed to develop certain ego skills, consequently he is unable to learn from experience. However, lack of ego strength does not explain why one particular child is subject to violence in the family.

(ii) Superego structure

Steele & Pollock (1984 : 417-418) state that superego "evaluates and directs the discharge of aggression." The superego represents the internalized attitudes of the parents. The punitive, harsh, inflexible parent causes the child to develop a similar ego.

(iii) Ego defenses

Abusing parents have distorted perceptions of their victims. They tend to project their own bad perception of themselves onto someone else. Projection is normally preceded by denial, whereby the parent denies his unacceptable traits, and is proceeded by

splitting, whereby the denied part of his self (bad) is split, and projected onto someone else, while the good part is self retained.

(4) Studies pertaining to sociological aspects

(a) Poverty

Much has been written on the relationship between poverty and child abuse. Poverty as such, does not directly cause abuse, but the factors associated with poverty, such as unemployment, over-crowded conditions, too many children, ill health, inadequate nutrition, low education, and low status occupations, all cause stress, which in its turn can foster abuse. Most research on the subject indicates that abusing parents are confined to the lower socio-economic group, the conclusion being that only poor people abuse their children. It should be borne in mind that the lower socio-economic group constitutes the large majority of the population, and that there is likely to be greater reporting and investigation bias towards this group, while the more well-to-do can seek the services of a private doctor, who for a number of reasons will usually not report the abuse (Gabinet 1983 : 399). Child abuse occurs equally in all socio-economic groups although neglect correlates more with poverty (Giovannoni 1971 & Trojanowicz 1978 : 190).

The poor are at a distinct disadvantage. In a society in which capitalism is the norm, the status is conferred according to economic success, the poor are made to feel that there is something wrong with them for failing to compete successfully. The myth promises that opportunities exist for everyone as long as the individual is prepared to work hard enough for them. The reality is that equal opportunities for competing in the labour market do not exist. To begin with, the poor are generally less educated, and consequently occupy lower-status jobs. During times of recession, they are the first to be retrenched, and face, like everybody else, the escalating cost of living. If they are employed, job satisfaction is invariably minimal, resulting in work alienation (Gil 1975: 353).

Gil (1975 : 354) states that much of the frustration engendered in the work place, is discharged in the home, taking the form of husband-wife conflicts and child abuse. He sees poverty as part of a wider social problem, believing that societies implement social policies which encourage poverty and perpetuate it - more so in non-egalitarian societies where every individual is not given full and equal opportunities to realise his innate potential. He also says that poverty, besides creating extremely stressful conditions, also weakens the parent's self-control, as there are distinct patterns of child-rearing among the poor which condone the use of aggression, and this may spill over into violence.

Gabinet (1983 : 399) states that poor parents are unable to teach their children to function more effectively than they do. It would appear that a life of unending poverty contributes to feelings of inadequacy, frustration and failure, and a vicious cycle from which escape is very difficult, if not impossible.

(b) Unemployment

Unemployment with its concomitants of loss of integrity, self-respect, family stability, status and income, generates great stress which can and often does erupt into violence in the home. Prolonged unemployment has a disorganising effect on family life. According to Bense (1984 : 38) unemployment and recession are related to physical abuse, alcoholism, crime and heart and liver related deaths. Unemployment hits hardest at the poor, as they are faced with fewer job opportunities and alternatives and ever increasing prices. Unemployment is a frequently observed characteristic among abusing families.

(c) Mobility

Many studies have found a connection between mobility and child abuse. A great deal of uncertainty and stress occur when families constantly uproot themselves. Unemployment is frequently related to the high level of mobility among abusing parents. Each time a move is made, the whole family has to readjust. The children

must get used to a new school, in a new area, may be with values different to those they have learned. Mother has the task of mediating the stresses and strains that beset the family, while she also fights her own battles. Father may have taken the job to ensure some form of support for the family, but may resent the nature of the job, and society's expectations that he provide for his family as the bread-winner (Smith 1975: 45).

Mobility is also associated with social isolation. The family find themselves in a new area, perhaps even country, with none of the familiar supports, both formal and informal. The end result, is mounting stress and the possibility that the stress will culminate in violence, unless the family is sufficiently strong and cohesive to withstand upheaval. Stress is seen as one of the major triggering factors in abuse. It is entirely subjective, affecting some individuals more than it does others. Poverty, unemployment and mobility produce stressful conditions which can precipitate abuse (Trojanowicz 1978 : 190).

(d) Teenage and unwanted pregnancy

Teenage pregnancy is seen as being a significant factor in abuse. Gabinet (1983 : 400) states that early sexual activity stems from an inadequate relationship with an immature father. The deprived adolescent girl engages in early sexual activity to fulfil the need for nurturance and a father, but finds instead that it is she who has to nurture her baby. Being deprived of nurturance herself, she is unable to provide it to her child.

An unwanted pregnancy, terminating in the birth of an unwanted child, has also been cited as a cause of abuse. Ill health, separation, financial difficulties, and single mothers are some of the reasons, cited for unwanted pregnancy. Nowadays, there is greater tolerance towards unmarried mothers, and many are keeping their babies. Their reason for doing so, may be to punish the father, force him into marriage or merely to rebel against their own parents (Trojanowicz 1978 : 190). Unhappily, for the child, he is often seen as the physical embodiment of the parents' entrapment in an early

marriage, and becomes the target for their resentment and hostility, although subsequent children of the marriage remain unharmed.

Illegitimate children have also been identified as at risk of abuse by various researchers. An illegitimate child whose mother later marries, runs the same risk, for the same reason as the unwanted child (Kratcoski 1979 : 125).

(e) Alcohol abuse

The correlation between alcohol and drug abuse, and abuse and neglect cannot be overlooked. The use of alcohol is culturally sanctioned, and if taken socially and in moderation, improves sociability. However, the continued use of alcohol necessitates that larger amounts be consumed in order to obtain the original effect, i.e. relief from frustration and tension. The result is that not only the alcohol tolerance threshold, but also the frustration relief threshold will be raised (Rip 1978 : 71). The longer the individual drinks to find relief, the more alcohol will be necessary in order to obtain such relief. The more the person drinks to escape his sorrows, the more depressed, irritable and aggressive he will become. According to Bense (1984 : 38) alcohol ingestion may parallel stress, but also is a cause of stress as it releases adrenalin. He has found a relationship between alcoholism and physical abuse in 83% of all cases. Even where children are not directly abused physically, the disorganisation and disruption caused in the family because of alcohol abuse, creates the climate where undue stress is placed on the children, and an atmosphere of neglect. "They become the innocent victims of their parents' unfulfilled lives."

Young (1964 : 13) found in her study, that one of the prevalent features of abusing families, was the presence of alcoholism. Cohen & Gerber (1982 : 383) state that alcoholism and/or drug abuse creates neglectful/ abusive environments for children.

Rip (1978 : 83) is of the view that because the intake of alcohol lowers inhibitions, it may contribute to violence and aggression. It should be remembered, that alcohol and/or drug addiction does not have the same effect on everyone, as no two

individuals are alike. A lot depends on the personality of the individual and his social circumstances.

(f) The ecological perspective

Numerous models have been designed in an attempt to understand the dynamics involved in child abuse. The ecological model is by far the most comprehensive, and attempts to intergrate into a synthesis biological, psychological, individual and sociological characteristics. The models view abuse as a multi-dimensional problem, and was proposed by Garbarino (1977: 401) who derived it from Bronfenbrenner. This perspective uses a systems approach and examines complex parent-child interactions, intra and extra familial stress factors and the social and cultural systems which affect family functioning. Garbarino (1977) emphasises the role of economic and support systems, and their interaction in family life.

(g) The sociocultural model

The use of aggression and, in some cultures, violence, are qualities that are highly valued. Many researchers are of the belief that abuse is related to cultural or religious views which sanction the use of corporal punishment to instil fear, discipline, conformity, etc. Corporal punishment is widely condoned in society, from the microcosmic familial level up to the macrocosmic societal level. A smack, or lick of the belt is seen as necessary, even compulsory on the part of the parent if he wants to produce a well disciplined child. School teachers and headmasters, often did and still do resort to canings to bring errant children into line, and likewise, the courts impose canings for more trivial misdemeanours (Lally 1984 : 251).

Gil (1975 : 331) states that the main reason for abuse in America, is the cultural attitude which permits the use of physical force in child-rearing. Wolfgang & Ferracuti (1982) refer to sub-cultures of violence, i.e. smaller cultures within the larger culture, in which the use of violence is widely accepted, and even viewed positively.

Kempe & Kempe (1978) state that parents whose cultural values differ significantly from those within which they live, will cling tenaciously to their own cultural values to maintain their authority and identity- even if such values include unacceptable child-care practices. When explaining abuse in developing countries, some researchers use a social disorganisation approach and relate abuse to changes in the traditional way of life.

(h) Culture and conflict

Culture may be defined as a way of life which is traditional to social groups and acquired through social ties with such groups. It is transferrable, can be acquired and shared, and above all, is dynamic. It regulates behaviour by setting certain codes of conduct, values, norms and traditions, which are perpetuated from one generation to the next. When divergent cultures or norms clash, confusion and irrational behaviour may result (Cloete et al. 1980 : 125).

The concept of marginality is important in the discussion of culture conflict. The marginal man falls socially and culturally between two societies and fits completely into neither. He acts as a buffer between the society he has left behind into which he no longer fits and the one to which he aspires, but in which he is a stranger. The abusing parent can be likened to the marginal man. He has grown out of a traumatic childhood plagued by rejection, deprivation and hostility. He longs for a more serene adult life, but is trapped by the ghosts of the past, the inability to shake off unhappy memories and enter into a new life (Cloete et al. 1980 : 126).

The younger Indian in South Africa can also be regarded as marginal to a certain extent. He has accepted and adopted a western way of life, although not completely abandoning his own culture. According to Ramphal (1985 : 111) the "South African Indian is neither a typical Indian by the standards of India nor a typical Westerner by European standards. He is in the midst of change, neither truly one nor truly the other."

(i) Societal abuse

According to Gil (1971) much has been written on the role of the individual, familial, social, economic and cultural precipitators of abuse. Much has been written on the role played by societies in condoning and perpetuating the widespread abuse of children through tacit acceptance of poverty, malnutrition, hunger, infant mortality and preventable diseases. Children, especially poor children, have suffered the devastating effects of social abuse for centuries, such as their exploitation through prostitution, enslavement, child labour in factories, workhouses and chaingangs. Children have been, still are, and will be abused in the home, in the school, in the workplace, institutions, and child "care" facilities. The latter part of the twentieth century has seen an increase in family violence, and a decrease in societally sanctioned abuse, or so it appears. Gil (1971) states that the hysterical public reaction to individual cases of abuse is merely a means of "scapegoating", whereby society divests itself of any blame, and lays it at the door of individual families.

Lally (1984 : 249) discusses the role of economic and technological institutions as the perpetrators of societal abuse. Inflation, recession and unemployment, undermine the individuals ability to care for his family, leaving him with a feeling of worthlessness. Downward economic trends hit the poor the hardest. Social systems delegate most people to inferior positions and expect them to compete successfully for the ever-diminishing rewards of success.

The influence of technology is felt even before the baby lets out his first cry. Medical technology decides where the baby will be born, how and when, and as Lally (1984 : 249) says, they "fit nicely into time-and-efficiency-conscious plan of labour." The advent of technology has made everything impersonal, objectified and given a price. Even children are viewed in terms of the pay-off they can bring us. Those who do not comply suffer the consequences.

Gil (1975 : 350) states that the basic values and philosophies of a society will determine whether all individuals in that society will be able to develop fully and

freely to the best of their potential. He discusses two types of societies, i.e. egalitarian and non-egalitarian. In the former society, every individual is considered equal in respect of social, economic and political rights. Everyone is given an equal chance to compete for desired goals. In the latter society, organized around the principles of competition, there will inevitably be winners and losers and the unfair distribution of rewards. Those who compete successfully, will be able to maximize their potential, while those who do not, will be severely limited in their ability to realize theirs. Such societies will be more likely to use force to maintain the under-lying system of inequality. Gil's views reflect in part the view of Marx, socialist Bonger and radical criminologists Turk & Quinney (Cloete et al. 1980 : 149-155).

They see society as consisting basically of two classes, i.e. those who own and control the means of production and those who work for it. The owners fight to keep what they have, promulgate laws to protect their interests, and frequently invoke the use of force to protect their interests. Gil (1975: 352) says that the use of force rests on cultural definitions favourable to its use and is functional for two reasons. Firstly, by preparing children to fight in a competitive society, and secondly, because it enables parents to relieve their tensions and frustrations and is emotionally fulfilling.

(5) South African studies pertaining to child abuse

The recognition and management of child abuse in South Africa is still a relatively recent phenomenon which needs to go a long way before any solutions are found. The major work in this field has occurred during the last fifteen years, within which time child abuse units have been established, and seminars, workshops and meetings held, consisting of multi-disciplinary team members. The problem in South Africa is compounded by the plural nature of the society, and the fact that more than half of the total population live well below the bread-line in stressful conditions conducive not only to abuse, but numerous other social problems as well (Chetty 1986 : 64).

(a) Child abuse in the Coloured population

A study conducted by Robertson & Hendricks (1977 : 224-233) among the Coloured population in the Western Cape, identified the following factors as being associated with abuse :

- * Illegitimacy was found to be characteristic of battered children.
- * Unacceptable behaviour by the child. It was found, that as most parents work, children are often cared for by unsuitable, but available persons. The result is the *whining, clinging, attention seeking* behaviour of the child which leads to his rejection and/or battering.
- * Ill-health associated with poor living condition, created additional financial and physical strain on the parents.
- * Culture conflict. Robertson and Hendricks (1977) state that the Coloured does not feel a part of the larger society, and hence has no loyalty to it. This may be attributed to his marginal position, which finds expression in alcoholism, drug misuse, promiscuity and violence.

Further conflict arises in relation to marriage. As the middle-class membership is small, members are often forced to marry less sophisticated individuals with different values to theirs, hence conflict may arise. A further aspect mentioned, is the upward striving so noticeable in the Coloured population. Great attention is paid to conformity and outward appearance in order to confer culture and respectability. It can be inferred therefore, that failure to display the cherished value of culture and respectability, may predispose miscreants to abuse (Robertson & Hendricks 1977: 233).

(b) Child abuse in the Black population

Ngcambu (1977 : 265-269) discusses child abuse among Black families. She says that cultural practices among Black people are favourable towards the use of harsh

corporal punishment as a method of discipline. Such punishment may take the form of assault with "whips, broomsticks and axe-handles." Starvation may also be used to punish, as well as instilling of fear, neglect and various kinds of mental torture.

Other factors identified as precipitating abuse are:

- * Illegitimacy - prior to marriage, and while married (during absence of the father). Illegitimacy is frowned upon, and on disclosure of the pregnancy, the couple are obliged to marry. It often transpires that conflicts and differences soon surface during the forced marriage, and the child becomes the target for punishment for being the cause of an unwanted marriage. Likewise, legitimate children of the wife also become targets for abuse by her husband.
- * Brain damage or retardation of either parent.
- * Interference in the mother-child bond by birth of sibling. The young child rebels against the attention given to the infant by the mother, is punished, reacts to the punishment and is more severely punished.
- * Parental personalities characterized by hostility, anxiety, impulsivity and inappropriate responses to people and events.
- * Excessive drinking which results in irresponsibility, imprudent spending, poor living conditions and further deprivation of the family.
- * Lack of both a formal and informal education. Abuse was found to be more prevalent among those parents who had not completed a primary education. Parents were also deprived of the formative influence of their own parents, as they were cared for mainly by aged grandmothers.
- * Unrealistic expectations of parents also contributed to abuse, as well as

harsh, defective parental care during their own childhood.

(c) Child abuse in the White population

Policansky, Barry and Dubb (1977 : 365-378) studied the social and cultural variables relating to the families of abused White children. They defined abuse as physical injuries inflicted by the caretaker.

They found inter alia:

- * The abusing parents were themselves the products of abusing environments.
- * The standard of education of abusing mothers were low; 69,1% had a Std 8 and less education.
- * Abusing parents tended to have a negative self-concept.
- * The abusing mothers (57,3%) were 21 years old, or younger at the time of marriage. They also noted a higher proportion of abusing mothers in their sample.
- * Financial problems existed among 43,6% of the abusing families. They attached less importance to this aspect, however, being of the belief that personality characteristics are more crucial to the commission of child abuse.

From the above studies, it would appear that cultural attitudes and social conditions are more fundamental precipitators of abuse in the Coloured and Black communities, and must be considered in the explanation of abuse as it exists in this country. Poor living conditions, in slum-like areas, with the associated factors of ill-health, unemployment, alcoholism, marital discord to name but a few, are all interrelated

facets which combine to produce the stresses so conducive to abuse. Generally, however, these studies agree with studies conducted in other parts of the world.

(d) Child abuse in the Indian population

The reality of child abuse is being faced by the Indian population, a hitherto passive group, whose children were regarded as their "wealth". According to Haffejee, (1991) specialist paediatrician and senior lecturer attached to the Department of Paediatrics and Child Welfare at the University of Natal, and R.K. Khan Hospital, child abuse is on the increase among the Indians. In his study, he found injuries ranging from sexual abuse, to burning by boiling water, poisoning and assault. It would seem that another myth has been exploded, as it was thought that child abuse occurred only among the White and Coloured populations, and very rarely among Africans and Indians.

In a paper presented by Shah & Naidu (Chetty 1986), then 6th year medical students at a Students' Medical Conference in 1985, it emerged that during the past five years, child abuse had risen at an alarming rate of almost 100% each year. They found that an inadequate society, plagued by escalating poverty, unemployment and crowded living conditions, generated stress and tension, which in turn led to parents abusing their children. A factor which may further play a part in the increase in child abuse among the Indian population, is the emergence of the nuclear family, and the decline of the extended family system together with the support (moral, financial, social and emotional) which it offered (Chetty 1986: 7). Mahmood (1977 : 283) says that in the extended family, there are fewer chances of child abuse than in the nuclear family, as there are always other family members to lend a hand and relieve the parents of the ongoing responsibility of caring for youngsters. Moreover, a watchful eye is kept on parent - child relationships, so that parents are not so free to ill-treat their children.

In the nuclear family, comprising mother, father and children, there is a high level of interaction and dependence, as the family is structurally isolated from other relatives. Any friction between the members, therefore, becomes magnified and disrupts the individual's primary relationships (Ramphal 1985 : 79). Within the extended family

system, every member had his expected role and duty to perform as part of the household. Rights and privileges were clearly defined. The change from an extended system to a nuclear one, has brought about many changes in family function, and a blurring of role expectations. Problems of adjustments are frequently encountered, which can and do spill over into family violence. Winship (1988 : 1) states that child abuse is generally associated with family disruption in the sense that young couples are breaking away from their families and going into isolation. Informal discussions with social workers, and data collected from court records and social workers' reports, have convinced the researcher that child abuse is a very real problem among the Indian population, and one that is steadily growing. It is a matter of urgency that we do not close our eyes in the hope that it will go away, but take effective and concrete steps now to effectively manage and prevent future abuse.

(6) Types of abuse

The abusive acts most commonly committed fall into 4 main categories, each one of which has been carefully considered in order to determine the nature and extent of child abuse. They are:

- * Physical abuse.
- * Sexual abuse.
- * Emotional abuse.
- * Neglect and abandonment.

(a) Physical abuse

Physical abuse may be present in different forms. The commonest and most easily recognised are external injuries which include bruises - some of which may be obvious, while others arouse suspicion because of their site and shape (Winship 1988 : 92). Not

all blue marks, however, are bruises and "Mongolian Spots" (a blue birthmark over the buttocks) are quite normal in a dark complexioned child.

Wheals are found when children have been sjambokked and are obvious. According to Winship (1988) human bites should be measured. They are not all caused by other children. Burns should be treated with suspicion. They are not all caused accidentally. Particularly common are those caused by a hot cigarette end which can be recognised as a deep ulcer. Less obvious are cigarette burns which only come to our attention when they are infected, but a careful examination of one child revealed a healing ulcer under the foot (Winship 1988 : 92-93).

Many children suffer scalds with hot water but no child will dip his hand up to the wrist in hot water. This type of "dunking" burn may be seen on the feet or buttocks where the straight line indicates that it is an inflicted, not an accidental injury. Fractures of the limbs, particularly in the middle of the shaft of a long bone, rarely occur in normal children under the age of three as a result of a fall. When they fall, children sustain fractures near the joints. Midshaft fractures are caused by bending the limb-often over a fulcrum such as a bar in a cot. Again there are inherited abnormalities of bone -osteogenesis imperfecta (brittle bone disease) which must be excluded before accusations of abuse are made. Compression injuries, such as fractures of the ribs, are caused by squeezing, not falling; and those like a ruptured liver or bowel are likely to occur non-accidentally, except when a motor vehicle has been involved (Winship 1988 : 93).

Head injuries in small children should always be treated with suspicion unless the child has been involved in a motor accident. Children do fall on their heads and simple fractures may be acquired accidentally; but multiple fractures affecting more than one of the bones of the skull can only be caused by the head being hit very hard either with a blunt object or against something like a wall. Difficult to detect are brain injuries caused by violent shaking. The brain is loose within the skull and infants are unable to support their heads if shaken. The result is a whiplash injury of the brain causing tearing of the fragile blood vessels on the surface or within the substance of

the brain. These children present with irritability and vomiting but with no signs of external injury. By looking into the retina of the eye with an ophthalmoscope, one can see tell-tale haemorrhages. If these are present then similar haemorrhages are probably present in the brain as well. Sometimes the brain haemorrhage is large and can be seen on a C.T. Scan either on the surface or within the substance of the brain (Winship 1988 : 93).

Goode (1971) pointed out that one reason intimates commit violence against one another is that they are in each other's presence a lot and few others can anger one so much as those who are close. Bishop (1975) pointed out that the number of children being physically abused is increasing to the point where this constitutes the largest single health problem. Kempe *et al.* (1962) made a study of physical abuse and found that it was actually very difficult to assess the extent of this because parents cover up and physicians have great difficulty in believing that parents could have attacked their own children. Kellerman (1979) found that parents who abuse their children know they are likely to be punished and try to conceal their actions. When repetitions of physical abuse occur parents cover up by taking their children to different doctors and hospitals and sometimes use different names. In spite of this, more cases are being reported. In the United States the number rose from 4 000 in 1968 to 40 000 in 1972, not necessarily reflecting an increase in the number of children being physically abused but an increased recognition of the problem (Mc Kay 1983 : 14).

Physical abuse occurs among all socio-economic levels, religious groups, races and nationalities according to Pelton (1978). He points out, however, that abuse does not occur proportionately to the populations of these groups. There is substantial evidence of a strong relationship between poverty, on the one hand, and child abuse and neglect on the other. Every national survey in the United States has shown that there is a preponderance of abusing families at the lowest socio-economic levels.

Giovannoni & Becarra (1979) found that the highest incidence of abuse occurs in families living in the most extreme poverty. The relationship between severe injuries

which are difficult to hide and poverty cannot be denied according to Gil (1971). Gil stresses the fact that poverty per se does not cause child abuse. Young (1964) found that physical abuse takes the form of beating children with ironing cords, wires, sticks, lead pipes, etc. or slamming them into a wall; breaking their bones; or burning them with cigarettes, hot stoves, and scalding water. Kempe (1976) and Renvoize (1975) found another type of abusing parent:- one who dresses well, appears to be interested in the child and yet assaults the child physically. Kempe (1976) and Renvoize (1975) found that physically abused children are very young, more than half being under one year of age. They also found that more first-born children are abused than others. Kempe (1976) points out that another feature of the physically abused child is that he is often repeatedly abused and that many of these children die unless steps are taken to prevent the abuse (Mc Kay 1983 : 15).

Gelles (1978) conducted a survey on the incidence of physical abuse in the United States which gave an indication of the seriousness of this problem. He found that available statistics on child abuse did not report on the numerous violent acts that occur in families. The wide acts, range from hiding to grievous assault, have largely gone unnoticed. He did a survey of literature and found that between 84% and 97% of parents used some form of physical punishment on their children. Krige (1977) assumed that the South African incidence was about the same as for other world urban areas, which he took to mean that at least 250 children per million were non-accidentally injured each year. Smith & Hanson (1974) found the mortality rate was approximately 15%. Approximately 4% had siblings who had died under suspicious circumstances (Mc Kay 1983 : 16).

(b) Sexual abuse

The reported incidence of sexual abuse has risen dramatically in recent years in all parts of the Western world and the pattern is identical in South Africa. In 1984, only 61 children had been sexually abused had been seen at Addington Hospital in a three-and-a-half year period. By 1986, 106 cases of sexual abuse came to the attention of the authorities within one year, and the figures are increasing. Last year sexual

they do not fully comprehend, to which they are unable to give informed consent or that violate the social taboos of family roles. Sexual abuse includes paedophilia, rape and all forms of incest. These children are exploited in that they are robbed of their developmentally determined control over their own bodies and of sexual partners on an equal basis. This is so whether the child has to deal with a single violent act of rape, or incestuous acts which are repeated over many years. Under-reporting is massive since families collude and cover up on matters of incest. Many cases only come to light when the children become adults and have to handle the effects of sexual abuse (Mc Kay 1983 : 24).

Studies have revealed that 75% of sexual abuse is committed by relatives and friends of the children (Halperin 1979 & Jones 1977). Nakashima & Zakus (1977) have found that most cases of incest are father-daughter or stepfather-stepdaughter and that the mother opts out of her wifely role and colludes in the incest by pushing her daughter into the central female role in the home.

Incestuous families often seem to be stable and well functioning on the surface. Some of the characteristics of the incestuous family are an early marriage of long duration, many children, absence of acting-out behaviour by the children, absence of extra-marital affairs, limited contacts with the outside world, a father who rigidly controls his female children. Other families are multi-problem, with incest being just one of the problems. In all these families there is a fear of disintegration and the incest develops to maintain an equilibrium. There are no accurate figures on the incidence of sexual abuse although it is increasingly being identified as a form of child abuse (Mc Kay 1983 : 25).

(c) Emotional abuse

Kempe & Kempe (1978) were among the first to define emotional abuse as a form of child abuse. This is the hardest form of abuse to identify. Giovannoni & Becarra (1979) wrote that a child can be diagnosed as suffering serious emotional damage if he exhibits severe anxiety, depression, withdrawal or untoward aggressive behaviour

toward himself and others and the child's parents are unwilling to provide treatment for this. They recommend that the courts be used to force parents to take the child for treatment. Fontana (1978) also included the child with multiple evidence of emotional deprivation in the broader definition of child abuse (Mc Kay 1983 : 22).

Jones (1977) noted that the symptoms of emotional abuse in the child were:

- * Impaired capacity for enjoyment.
- * Behavioural adjustment symptoms.
- * Low self esteem.
- * Withdrawal.
- * Opposition.
- * Hypervigilance.
- * Compulsivity.
- * Pseudo-adult behaviour.
- * School learning problems.

Halperin (1979 : 23) defines emotional abuse as interference with the healthy personal and social development of a child. Emotional abuse is noteworthy in that its effects are cumulative rather than isolated and they eventually display themselves in the behaviour of the child. Parents who expect their children to do well at school and who ridicule them when they do not - to the point where they feel worthless, are guilty of emotional abuse in that they damage their children's feelings of self-worth and leave them feeling rejected. The common factor in all emotional abuse cases is that parents hinder the growth of their children by speech or action. Halperin (1979) distinguishes between emotional abuse and emotional neglect by pointing out that emotionally abused children may have all the bodily essentials of existence but lack involvement and concern from their parents or caretakers; whereas neglected children do not have the pre-requisites for healthy child development through omission of food, clothing, medicine, etc.

Constant criticism, domination, denial and deprivation of both intellectual and

toward himself and others and the child's parents are unwilling to provide treatment for this. They recommend that the courts be used to force parents to take the child for treatment. Fontana (1978) also included the child with multiple evidence of emotional deprivation in the broader definition of child abuse (Mc Kay 1983 : 22).

Jones (1977) noted that the symptoms of emotional abuse in the child were:

- * Impaired capacity for enjoyment.
- * Behavioural adjustment symptoms.
- * Low self esteem.
- * Withdrawal.
- * Opposition.
- * Hypervigilance.
- * Compulsivity.
- * Pseudo-adult behaviour.
- * School learning problems.

Halperin (1979 : 23) defines emotional abuse as interference with the healthy personal and social development of a child. Emotional abuse is noteworthy in that its effects are cumulative rather than isolated and they eventually display themselves in the behaviour of the child. Parents who expect their children to do well at school and who ridicule them when they do not - to the point where they feel worthless, are guilty of emotional abuse in that they damage their children's feelings of self-worth and leave them feeling rejected. The common factor in all emotional abuse cases is that parents hinder the growth of their children by speech or action. Halperin (1979) distinguishes between emotional abuse and emotional neglect by pointing out that emotionally abused children may have all the bodily essentials of existence but lack involvement and concern from their parents or caretakers; whereas neglected children do not have the pre-requisites for healthy child development through omission of food, clothing, medicine, etc.

Constant criticism, domination, denial and deprivation of both intellectual and

emotional stimulus results in a "bonsai"-like pruning of the child's intellectual roots. Many of these children end up as school dropouts or unemployable adults (Mc Kay 1983 : 24).

(d) Neglect and abandonment

Neglect and abandonment of children are unfortunately extremely common in South Africa. Much of this is due to socio-political problems which beset our land, the breakdown of family life and the precipitation of many young people into parenthood without any preparation. Their children end up in institutions, many of which are understaffed. Hence, while the children are protected, fed and cleaned, they receive little or no stimulus emotionally or intellectually. Such children lack motivation when they reach school age and perform inadequately or drop out to become street children. With no family support and no opportunity to improve their lot, many become involved in petty crime (Winship 1988 : 95).

Neglect is a far more pervasive problem than physical abuse, occurring in twice as many cases (Pelton 1978). When harm to the child is severe enough to have required hospitalisation it is from one and a half to two times more likely to have been due to neglect than physical abuse. In addition, neglect is more likely to be more strongly related to poverty than abuse, according to figures of the American Humane Society (1978). Neglect complaints to Child Welfare agencies are many in number, far outnumbering the abuse complaints according to Cantwell (1980). Unlike physical abuse which can be more easily identified through physical signs, x-rays, etc. neglect is more difficult to document and is more readily accepted. Zalba (1975) defined neglect as the "chronic failure of adults to protect children from obvious physical danger and to provide them with the material necessities of life." Pelton (1978) pointed out that one of the most common forms of neglect leading to death is that parents leave young children alone. Pelton (1978) stressed the link between poverty and neglect and said that concrete services should be offered to the poor in the form of house finding, rat control, baby sitting services, day creches, subsidised food, etc. Reducing the stresses of poverty will have a strong impact on parent's behaviour, thus

obviating the need to remove so many children and drastically reduce child abuse (Mc Kay 1983 : 20).

Young (1964) pointed out that there is a difference between neglect due to ignorance and neglect due to cruelty to children. Neglectful parents welcome social workers' help, whereas abusive parents resist efforts at intervention. Schmitt (1981) wrote that neglect can be due to living in very poor conditions so that children have inadequate clothing, food, and/or shelter. Such children smell, are dirty and are shunned by their peers.

These parents can be helped with a poverty programme whereas abusing parents need more intensive help than merely being given food, clothing and better housing (Mc Kay 1983 : 21).

Poisoning children either through neglect (which involves not locking harmful medicines away) or deliberately giving children harmful drugs is also a form of abuse (Kresel & Lovejoy 1981). Sibert (1981) reviewed a number of factors associated with childhood poisoning and found that a stressful home environment, recent moving, illness, marital discord and death of a family member occurred in 90% of cases of poisoning of children. Parents who abuse drugs, including alcohol, are frequently involved in accidental overdosing of their children because they do not exercise adequate safety precautions (Mc Kay 1983 : 22).

3.3 THE CONCEPT EXPERIENCE

The fact that people experience things is self-evident because experiencing and being conscious are for all practical purposes the same thing (Urbani 1982 : 36). The important point here is that all consciousness, all psychic life can be traced back to two basic forms, namely feelings and thoughts, these concepts in turn being ways of expressing a common basic form, i.e. experience of reality (Urbani 1982 : 9).

In studying the experience of the abused child, we are involved specifically in looking for the state of this child's affective world of experience, his cognitive world of experience and how he gives meaning to this experience. In other words, we are concerned here with the relation between his affective and cognitive experiences or the stability, order and control in his cognitive and affective experiences (Sonnekus 1977 : 60).

Experiencing things is a way of giving meaning to the world around us and this can be effected at three different levels (affective, cognitive, normative). In describing experience in the life-world of the abused child the following is meant: Experiencing things is a way of expressing oneself through which something essential about one's life-world becomes manifest. In other words without experiencing, one's life-world cannot be built up, cannot be comprehended, cannot be contemplated at all. It is through the child's numerous experiences of reality (world of experience) that his own unique life-world comes into being (Pretorius 1972 : 11). A study of the abused child's world of experience implies learning about what he experiences and how he experiences his world and the meaning that he attaches to it.

While it is evident therefore that there is no more significant concept on the basis of which one can give complete expression to man's total involvement in the world than experience, the following statement by Van den Berg (Urbani 1982 : 34) is most applicable as far as an understanding of an abused child's experience is concerned: "Who wants to become acquainted with man, should listen to the language spoken by the things in his existence. Who wants to describe man, should make an analysis of the 'landscape' within which he demonstrates, explains and reveals himself".

Since man is essentially a being related to other beings it stands to reason that one can only understand his experience by studying him in his relationship with himself, others, the things around him and God. It is important to bear in mind that all of man's experiences and therefore also those of the abused child take place within relationships. A distinction should be made between the following:

- * Experience of the abused child that take place within his relationship to himself;
- * experiences within his relationships with others;
- * experiences within his relationships with things; and
- * experiences within his relationship with God.

Experience culminates in orientation or is an act of orientating oneself. The abused child finds himself in an insecure environment in which he has to orientate himself. To orientate himself the abused child will have to determine his own position in relation to that which he is confronted with.

The abused child determines the nature of his relationship with his situation as a Gestalt, but also with the constituent parts of the situation. At home the abused child continuously orientates himself in relation to his parents, to himself, to the social worker, to his peers, to things/ideas and to God. It is therefore important to have a closer look at these relationships of the abused child that are found within his life-world.

3.4. THE LIFE-WORLD OF THE ABUSED CHILD

A meaningful life-world is formed when the child, by attributing meaning, forms relationships with objects, people, ideas, values, himself and God. To attribute meaning to a relationship implies much more than mere understanding. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the child subjectively experiences, and both are components of self-actualisation, which, because of the need for educational assistance, is guided actualisation. The child's relationships are therefore an expression of his life-world (Vrey 1984 & Urbani 1982).

The abused child lives in a world where his parents make demands on him that are not made on other children. Some of these expectations are unattainable, biologically and cognitively, thus, leaving the child feeling worthless. He cannot do what his parents tell him he should be able to do. He is a failure, unacceptable and disappointing to adults. In other instances, he develops the mechanical skills to meet the parent's demands and expectations. He is not aware that he is precocious in any of his abilities. His successes and impressive skills are not a source of feeling good about himself. Instead they are conceived of as being normal abilities and behaviours for abused children like himself (Martin 1976 : 19).

The abused child is in an environment where he is expected to be sensitive to and responsible for much of the happiness of the adults in his world. He certainly is not to make life more difficult for the adults by demanding, asking for or wanting things. The abused child is in a home where there are very few contacts outside his nuclear family. His parents rarely ever have friends come in. Indeed, there is very little laughter in his home. He has very little contact with other children. As the abused child grows older, he is made aware that his parents do not want him to develop relationships and liaisons outside the home - be they with peers or other adults. He has no opportunity to see how adults other than his mother and father behave. His parents fight a lot - he hears and sees verbal and physical hostility between the only adults in his environment. While he does not understand it, he continually gets put into "no win" situations (Gil 1975 : 31).

The abused child, is not expected to have any joy in life. Further, he does not see any modelling of true happiness and joy in his home. The adults around him may be abrupt and angry, sad and depressed, distant and aloof, unfriendly and cold - but they are not happy zestful people. The abused child senses that the world outside his home is the same - a hostile demanding environment through which he must negotiate (Gil 1975 : 32).

The abused child may be ignored - and his basic needs neglected. He may be in a world where the adult people pay no attention to him, so long as he does not make

demands or provide intrusions into their lives. The abused child is not taught internal controls or an emphatic concern about others, but rather doing what others - the adults - want and tell him to do. Violence, cruelty, and causing pain to others are not considered "bad" to him. Indeed, his parents have been violent and cruel and deliberately inflicted physical and psychic pain on him under the aegis of teaching, helping and controlling him. His developing sense of conscience is a distorted and tenuous thing (Faller :1981).

The life style of abused children is an example of the outcome of disharmonious educational dynamics. It represents inadequate personality development, which, although it took place through the child's own initiative, is mainly the result of educational misguiding by the parents and other adults. The child's initiative stems from the need of every human being to be somebody and to become somebody. When the child feels himself unaccepted, rejected and unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority (Kellmer Pringle 1980 : 35). Whether a child will develop a constructive or destructive attitude, in the first place depends on his parents attitude to him (Van Niekerk 1990 : 11).

Abused children are often reared in environments where there is little cognitive stimulation and support, but where a lot is expected of the child. Abusing parents have distorted notions of what they require from their children, often without consideration of the child's actual stage of development. Because of the exceptionally high standards of behaviour expected, most abused children fail and are therefore punished.

The world of the abused child is therefore a very strained and anxious one. He spends most of his energies looking for ways of avoiding parental wrath. Instead of being able to explore and experiment with the environment, the abused child has to constantly monitor his or her actions to ensure that they are in accordance with adult demands. Opportunities for creativity and learning are minimal or non-existent. It is not surprising therefore to find that abused children exhibit learning and behaviour difficulties (Maher 1988).

3.4.1 Relationship with himself

(1) Physical

It would be fitting at this point to take a brief look at the meaning of corporeality in human existence in general (Urbani 1982) :

- * human existence in the world takes place through the body;
- * the body is at the same time man's means of admission to the world (also to other people and things);
- * the body is the mediator between man and the world; and
- * through our bodies we actively establish our own world.

Martin and Beezley (1977 : 6) developed a list of nine characteristics that they had observed in a group of fifty abused children. These characteristics were :

- * Impaired capacity to enjoy life.
- * Psychiatric symptoms, e.g. enuresis, tantrums, hyperactivity, bizarre behaviour.
- * Low self-esteem.
- * School learning problems.
- * Withdrawal.
- * Opposition.
- * Hypervigilance.

- * Compulsivity.
- * Pseudo-mature behaviour.

Galambos & Dixon (1984 : 285) state that abused children (whether abused in childhood or adolescence), already display in adolescence a high level of aggression and anti-social tendencies, relating to their neglect, deprivation and/or abuse. Victims of adolescent abuse display feelings of low self-esteem, high anxiety, lack of empathy, suicidal tendencies, alcohol abuse, school and social adjustment problems as well as anti- social behaviour. Adolescents who see their abuse as resulting from factors beyond their control, i.e. externally controlled, may drink to escape their problems, which in turn leads to socially aversive consequences, more problems and more drinking.

Cohen and Gerber (1982 : 383) in their study of 178 patients in treatment for drug/alcohol abuse, determined that 84% of the sample reported a history of child abuse/neglect. They concluded that early abuse interferes with the development of adequate adult coping mechanisms which are essential in a competitive urban environment. Hence the individual falls easy prey to drug involvement.

While some abuse victims drink or take drugs to escape their problems, others embark on a more tragic option, that is, suicide. Once again, adolescents who perceive their problems as arising from situations outside their control may feel that the only way out of their problems is through suicide (Galambos & Dixon 1984 : 289).

Lally (1984 : 252) says that "society has raised to adulthood too many individuals with high levels of fear, anger and an opinion of fellow humans as enemies." New ideas and systems must be developed to ensure a mentally healthy development. Parents and the powers that be that exercise considerable influence over children, must help them rethink the traditional ideas of "win-lose, separate-whole, us-them and love-hate. If we refuse to think in new ways, and prepare our children to do the same, we truly put at risk the children of all nations."

(2) Psychic life(a) Inadequate exploration

According to Joubert (1978?) exploring implies a study of those aspects of reality which are relatively unknown to the child. He explores those aspects of reality which reflect both known and unknown characteristics. From our discussion of sensing it is clear that as long as a child wonders at aspects of reality and anticipates possible developments or discoveries he will explore. As a child grows older his emancipating becomes socially influenced. Objectives of emancipation become more refined and the will to overcome his helplessness becomes a will to succeed. Exploring becomes more formal and organised and less subjective to wonder and anticipate.

Perquin (1961) has pointed out that the affectively neglected child (the abused child) not only feels insecure (resulting in a reluctance to risk exploring his world), but also proves to be shallow, frigid or obtuse in his affect, or may on the other hand become a demanding and disgruntled person.

Those stances or attitudes which the abused child assumes in exploring his world and which he fails to personally integrate, gives rise to emotional lability; if the undigested experiences increase in number, he is eventually driven into an effective no man's land where he suffers from feelings of anxiety, insecurity, helplessness, uncertainty, dependence, loneliness and inferiority (Pretorius 1972 : 51). Lersch (1970 : 331-357) also mentions feelings of pessimism, dissatisfaction, a lack of self-confidence and inferiority, all of which are clearly evident in the life-world of the abused child. According to Ter Horst (1973 : 79) the child withdraws into his own world which to him has the resemblance of safety, yet which actually intensifies his anxiety. The abused child uses cheap intoxicants to create his illusion of safety but in fact only intensifies his anxiety.

Every meaning which is not emotionally, cognitively and normatively integrated by the child, leads to anxiety. Anxiety again results in an impotence which, according to

Van Niekerk (1990) virtually paralyses the child. Maree (1990) also states that loneliness and insecurity are to be intimately associated with anxiety to be the silent companion of every man's life. The anxious child has difficulty in shouldering the full responsibility for his decisions (Van Niekerk 1990). Anxiety would thus make the abused child feel helpless because he is unable to resist it.

When education takes an unfavourable course, like in the life of an abused child, it always gives rise to anxiety. This in turn acts as an impediment to the child in his development. His feeling of insecurity is often revealed as a reluctance to explore, thus resulting in the inadequate actualising of his psychic life. The wheel then turns full circle, as his anxiety is necessarily increased by the very fact of his inadequate exploration of his world (Van Niekerk 1987 : 22-23). The opportunities for him to actualise his psychic life with reference to specific educational contents also diminish because he prefers to withdraw from that which appears to him to be strange or new.

Owing to inadequate assistance in his search for meaning a negative attitude toward life develops in the child, driving him to be always on the defensive (Lubbers 1971 : 58). According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 4) the abused child is always on the defensive and disregards all forms of authority.

Muller-Eckhard (1966) explains that this defensive attitude may be a flight to the fore (aggression), into oneself (isolation), or into the past (regression). The child cannot take up any new position and only accepts that which is totally familiar to him. He feels that he is a captive, and impotent to change (Van Niekerk 1987 : 127).

A child's reluctance to explore also gives proof of the fact that the volitional education, i.e. education directed at developing the child's will, has been neglected. Unwillingness to actively participate in the task of becoming an adult is rarely evinced by an affectively stable child (Van Niekerk 1987: 128). Sonnekus (1973) states that both reluctance of will and weakly-directed intentionality occur when the child's will is not adequately actualised. This reluctance of will and weakly-directed intentionality is one of the major problems facing the abused child.

According to Pretorius (1972 : 50) experiences on a pathic level of feeling have the implication of pathic unrest. Such a child (the abused child) is usually labile, confused and disorientated concerning the gnostic import of experiences. It inhibits the child's desires and initiative in a number of ways.

Pretorius (1972 : 50-51) mentions the following examples (which have particular reference to the abused child) :

- * the child wishes to become someone in his own right but he is held in check and remains small (immature);
- * he is forced to adopt an expectant attitude despite the fact that as a person he is endowed with the initiative to create relationships;
- * he desires to be accepted, yet feels rejected;
- * would like to feel worthy, and feels inferior instead;
- * he desires stability; seeks understanding, but regards himself as misunderstood;
- * craves support to realise his full potential, but constantly seems to be dispossessed of his potentialities; and
- * wishes to submit to true authority, but experiences a total absence of it.

(b) Inadequate emancipation

According to Vrey (1982) the person who the child is constantly becoming, corresponds with his anticipated image of self (with that which he would like to become). If this image seems dim or unattainable as in the case of the abused child, he will eventually accept that it is in actual fact unreachable - and will consequently believe himself to be hopelessly "inferior". "Emancipating " essentially means that the

child is realising or actualising the potential he is endowed with as a person as it pertains to his various abilities (Van Niekerk 1987: 23). The child who "underestimates" his potential is consequently limited to actualising only this supposedly "inferior" potential. According to Van Niekerk (1987) there is proof of a weakened will in respect of his real potential, especially in an emancipatory sense. This obviously amounts to reluctance (unwillingness) to become properly adult. The absence of an educator/parent in the life-world of the abused child gives rise to a situation where no purposeful support is given with regard to his emancipation. The fostering within him of the will to become what he ought to according to his potential, is also absent.

(c) Inadequate distantiation

According to Van Niekerk (1987) a child in a dysfunctional educational setting usually takes inadequate distance from himself and his situatedness. This fact has particular implications regarding the way in which the child will set about learning. In failing to take sufficient distance from himself, the abused child is therefore less able to adopt the proper attitude for truly involving himself with the things of this world which are outside of himself. This inability to experience matters and ascribe significance to them insufficiently dissociated, controlled and well-ordered gnostic manner by means of his perceptions, thoughts, etc. brings about a further degree of pathic-affective lability. He in effect fails to sufficiently control his emotional life by means of his reason. The insecure child, of which the abused child is a good example, finds it hard to risk proceeding from the mode of sensing to perceiving, and onward to thinking, imagining and memorising, as he is hampered by anxiety and emotional unrest. A labile mode of sensing also frequently causes the child's attention to fluctuate when he tries to attend to something on a gnostic level (Sonnekus 1973 ; Van Niekerk 1978).

(d) Inadequate differentiation

In a dysfunctional educational setting a child is reluctant to fully actualise his potential and accordingly also reveals a reluctance to differentiate (Van Niekerk 1987 : 24). When his cognitive education is neglected, (e.g. by meagre responses to his questions

regarding the surrounding world) he may initially still prove to be willing to differentiate according to his ability. The inadequate disclosure of real facts by the educator does not, however, grant the child a sufficient opportunity to really actualise and practise his intellectual potential, by way of differentiation, as the proper guidance and instruction are simply lacking. Inadequate intellectual education implies that the abused child fails to achieve the necessary opportunity to differentiate the potentialities he has been endowed with as a person and to "exercise" them in attaching real significance to the realities of living, in practical situations. Apart from the thousands of Black children of school going age who have no part of formal education, in certain areas 50% of the pupils are in need of remedial education (Investigation 1981 : 139). It is therefore not surprising that more than half of the pupils who started their school careers in 1977 already left school before the end of standard 4 (Investigation 1981). It is then hardly surprising that the abused child becomes reluctant to differentiate at all.

(e) Inadequate objectivation

When a child is over-protected or rejected, or when too much is consistently expected of him, he feels that he is not at total liberty to "let go" of himself, his fellow-man and material things in order to view himself, his parents, other people and the realities of life objectively. He is consequently unable to discover the factual nature of matters (Van Niekerk 1987 : 24).

If that which should be said, done and known is insufficiently modelled or instructed to the child, he is not receiving adequate and real support toward eventually taking an objective stance. In the classroom or at home the educator must endeavour to always answer the child's questions concerning reality as adequately as possible. If the child's questions are ignored or answered unsatisfactorily, this child who is busy actualising his personal potential, achieves only an uncertain or wavering grasp of the content which he knows he does not fully know. Consequently his awareness of his ignorance and his quest for knowledge are both intensified. In this regard the abused child's affect may then become increasingly labile, especially because he "knows" that he "does

not know". It may also lead to a lack of organisation and insufficient structuring in respect of his quest for knowledge, so that he fails to discover the essentials of life. Ironically, he tries to escape the danger by retreating into an experiential world which is already "unsafe"; and by safeguarding himself by way of passivity, thus further decreasing his gnostic-cognitive mobility. Action and activity (in the sense of wanting to explore, emancipate, etc. of one's own accord) consequently comes to a virtual halt, hence, the abused child's orientation is inadequate.

(f) Inadequate learning

The educative dialogue is always a point where the subjective interpretations of an adult and a child intersect, and where shortcircuits may occur. It is accordingly also clear that no child learns automatically. To be able to learn, a child must actively direct himself to the content emotionally speaking, and also involve himself intellectually. The affective mode of learning is sensing, also qualified as an accompanying or concomitant mode of learning. It is the consistent preparation and introduction to all cognitive modes of learning. It is the initial stage of becoming involved with the content, where the child actually becomes aware of it. When he subsequently opens up to the content in order to assimilate it into his own experiential world by means of his perceptions, thoughts, etc. he is paying attention to the content and learning it (Van Niekerk 1987 : 25).

The child's fund of experience reflects a hierarchy of values and significances, which reflect the way in which things have been meaningfully experienced, e.g. stabile or labile in the affective sense, or cognitively organised or disorganised. Those experiences which he has not meaningfully integrated or digested (usually manifested in terms of anxiety, uncertainty, insecurity and ignorance) constantly force themselves to awareness. In his efforts to learn, he experiences difficulties in breaking through these subjective moments of sensing in order to focus on the material to be learned in an organised way. This is the prerequisite to remaining involved with or paying attention to the contents by way of perceiving, thinking and so forth (Van Niekerk 1987 : 25).

It follows that the possibility always exists for affective lability to occur, resulting in a destabilisation of the sensing mode of learning which initiates all learning and which should accompany the cognitive modes. The child in that instance also feels that he is unable to learn adequately. This in turn leads to an intensification of his feelings of anxiety, insecurity and ignorance. Such a condition can be envisaged as a "wall" which has arisen between the child's learning potential and his effective learning, instead of the "bridge" which normally exists when he feels secure in his lived-experience of love, acceptance, encouragement, warmth, and so forth, which enables him to fully realise his learning potential (Van Niekerk 1987 : 63).

With reference to Scharf et al. (Hickson & Gaydon 1989 : 88) stated that many of the abused children report that they ran away from home to escape school. They described having experienced humiliation, rejection and failure in the school setting which resulted in conflict situations at home. Consequently, the school environment was perceived as hostile, and most of those who left, recall being beaten on numerous occasions. Affective destabilisation thus essentially causes a corrosion of the abused child's readiness to learn in the classroom, resulting in further lability, which in turn again hampers him in his sensing and attending. He will under these circumstances never be able to learn according to his true potential.

3.4.2 Relationship with others

(1) Relations with parents

According to Vrey (1984) the parents have authority and, ideally, provide the secure basis from which the child initiates other relationships. His increasing involvement with the world outside his home entails new perspective; parents are seen as people comparable to other adults.

According to Van Niekerk (1990) family disorganisation is a major contributory factor behind the neglected children syndrome. The absence of compulsory education for Black children means that the basic educational needs of some black children may never be met.

Cemane (1990 : 9-11) identifies the following types of family disorganisation as contributing to the neglected child phenomenon in the RSA :

- * Sham families.
- * Families subjected to stress.
- * Families overtaken by misfortunes.
- * Families in the throes of a family tragedy.

(a) Importance of these relations

Its importance rests on the presence or absence of love as its dominant feature. Mutual love is not an isolated phenomenon but something that eases the relationship. The effect of a stable love base is far reaching. The child who can rely on parental love feels freer to take risks, to explore, find himself, try out his abilities, develop decision-making powers and openly compare alternatives - particularly as regards the choice of a career. He feels free to make the inevitable mistakes without fearing that these will mean total rejection by his parents. Nor does he have the destructive guilt feelings suffered by children who are not really loved by their parents. Clear educational support from parents, in enforcing reasonable standards of behaviour, help the child's emancipation by promoting a positive self-concept (Maree 1990 ; Coopersmith 1967).

As a person in the process of becoming or developing, the child is subject to constant change (Van Niekerk 1987 : 4). He himself has an active part in bringing about this change by actualising his psychic life within an educational setting. The child therefore at any given moment finds himself to be at a specific level of development, which can be qualified as being the pedagogically attained level. The immediate objective is always to have this level coincide with the child's pedagogically attainable level. This means that the child should be supported in such a way that he will give proof within

the context of his daily life of increasing responsibility, identification with norms, freedom, etc. according to his own talents. The abused child is not receiving this support.

The abused child's experiencing of reality from a psychopedagogic perspective, does not allow him to determine what opportunities are available for emancipation. The exploring and emancipation that the abused child experiences always has a negative connotation. This results in the psychic life of the abused child being pedagogically inadequately actualised (Van Niekerk 1987 : 6-8). This directly pertains to the modes of his exploring, emancipating, distancing, objectification and differentiating, which are in the same event inadequately actualised in terms of the pedagogical norm. He is indeed obstructed in his progress towards adulthood.

A child is constantly ascribing his personal meanings to these relationships with his parents and teachers and is emotionally vulnerable in this respect (Van Niekerk 1987: 8). The adult should, therefore, take special care in the course of his educative acts that the child will consciously know that he is able to learn and to achieve, and that his personal worth is genuinely recognised. If this is not accomplished, the educational relationship is dysfunctional and this invariably has a negative influence on the child's progress towards adulthood, i.e. his development.

Sonnekus (1976 : 124-129) also refers to matters such as the physical care of the child (including his diet, health and hygiene); social well-being (also implying that the child should be properly housed, have enough friends, be allowed to take part in recreational activities and have adequate relationships with adults); affective neglect which could occur in various ways, e.g. by too much or too little petting or lack of togetherness; inconsistent educational attitudes of the parents which signify an incoherent and disjointed approach to the child, confusing him and causing feelings of insecurity; marital problems, where tensions exist between the parents; and broken marriages, where the child may feel that he has been rejected or neglected by one or both parents. The neglect of the physical, social and affective aspects of the abused child are therefore all contributing factors to his negative situatedness, i.e. a

dysfunction of the pedagogic situation.

(b) The parents as an aetiological factor regarding the abused child

According to Van Niekerk (1990) there can be little doubt that parents or guardians of neglected children did not really understand their children's physical, emotional and cognitive needs, and therefore also could not interpret their behaviour, or how to discourage and to deal with improper acts.

Traditionally the Black mother relinquishes the care of her child to the grandmother or aunts, or other siblings. In the urban situation this tradition cannot be continued. In most cases the mother has to work, and she often has to leave her children unattended at home (Van Niekerk 1990 : 6). The shift of the mother's workplace away from the house or the fields has had definite implications for child rearing.

When the child feels rejected and unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority. Kellmer Pringle (1980 : 35) phrases it as follows: "Approval and acceptance by others are essential for the development of self-approval and self-acceptance. Whether a child will develop a constructive or destructive attitude, depends in the first place on his parent's attitude to him."

It seems as though the traditional role of the parent in the Black urban area has in many ways become contra-productive, due inter alia, to the fact that the values upheld by the family to the present, are opposed by the children (Van Niekerk, 1987 : 16). Thus these parents cannot fulfil the basic educational needs of their children, and it becomes the task of the formal schooling system to help bring about the change.

(c) Errors in the parent-child relationship

Van Niekerk (1987 : 14-20) ascribes the dysfunction of the pedagogical situation to specific errors in relationship to the child. These factors are summarised under the following headings :

(i) Lack of security

If a child is not offered a guarantee of security by his educators, he is exposed to danger and no longer exists in close connection with the adults with whom he should have been allied by the shared goal of his own adulthood (Lubbers 1971:55).

(ii) Obscured future perspective

If the future is obscured in the child's view, there is little to look forward to or to expect and there are no plans or tasks, however small, waiting to be fulfilled (Ter Horst 1973: 97).

(iii) Affective or emotional neglect

The unfavourable course that education may run, always implies that the educational relationships are likewise being inadequately realised (Van Niekerk 1987 : 15). A child may consequently experience little or no sense in relationships. This results in his being "unwilling" to risk total involvement with any educator. A lack of mutual trust, understanding and sympathetic authoritative guidance always implies that the child must suffer neglect in respect of not only his affective, but also his intellectual and moral development. He will consequently explore the educational contents inadequately, so that the educational encounter is likewise inadequately preformed by his pre-cognitive (intuitive) reconnaissance. Destabilised trust and confidence then indeed lead to half-heartedness by suppressing the urge to explore.

When the educational encounter is lukewarm or is based on uncertainty, it cannot come to fruition. When the educator fails to grant the child the opportunity to experience trust and faith, he actually becomes a threat to the child. A child who lacks trust and confidence is labile or even impulsive in his emotional life. Whenever it is impossible for a child to trust and to have faith in his educators, the relationship of understanding is also bound to fail because such educators do not really understand the child or what is happening to him. They especially have little insight into the full

implications of his distress.

(iv) Rejection of the child

According to Van Niekerk (1987) a child can generally do very little to ensure that he will be lovingly accepted from the outset. He might as easily be rejected, despite all the potential that he may have. When an educator does not spontaneously accept, but in fact rejects a child, the latter immediately feels that he is not being accepted and is thought of as unwelcome. He then experiences insecurity and anxiety. This intuitive knowledge eventually drives him to withdraw from the educational relationship, thus inhibiting any true encounter.

(v) The inadequate exercise of authority

Problems furthermore arise in the child's educational situation when authority is constantly wielded in an unsympathetic, inconsistent, loveless or dictatorial manner, but also when no authority is exercised at all (Kotze 1972 : 55).

(2) Relations with peers

According to Vrey (1984) relations with peers become more and more important as the child grows older. His friends are both company and a sounding-board for his voice and opinions. Some of these opinions cannot be aired in front of adults - his views on teachers, parents, discipline, personal problems at school, relations with the opposite sex, etc. Such opinions must be clearly formulated before they can be aired. Various facets of a child's relations with his peers are important for self-actualisation.

(a) Friendship

Close friendship is the most important relationship a child can form with a peer. For the abused child friendship averts the torments of loneliness that can be experienced even in a group. Unless there is an emotional bond of intimacy, mutual concern and

friendliness and a true knowledge of the other person, the child's loneliness is not relieved (Vrey 1984 : 63).

(b) Heterosexual relations

A well established sexual identity is needed before heterosexual relations can be formed. Three overlapping phases in a child's psychosexual development can be distinguished. Sexual identity is the first. Starting with pink or blue baby-clothes, the child learns that he is a boy or she is a girl. The next phase is the acquisition of masculine or feminine skills - typical behaviour that becomes automatic, such as neatness and daintiness in girls, or playing with dolls, while boys enjoy rougher games. The third phase is sexlinked values, knowledge and attitudes, the latter being culturally determined to a considerable degree. Each of these developmental phases remains a distinct component of sexual identity, which acquires a new dimension during becoming. The boy-girl relationship is extremely important to the child's self-actualisation and self-reliance (Vrey 1984 : 65).

(c) Social acceptance

According to Vrey (1984) the poorly-accepted child, like the abused child, is often moody, sad, anxious and insecure. Cause and effect are closely interwoven. According to Vrey (1984) conformity within the peer group is either implicitly or explicitly enforced. In his eagerness to conform, the abused child may take part in activities he himself does not approve, such as smoking or consuming alcohol. He will conform even if it entails a contravention of social or parental norms.

(3) Relations with welfare workers and places of safety

Helen Starke (Swart 1987) explains that as regards residential care of children, the Child Care Act (No. 74 of 1983) is intended to apply to children removed from parental care through the intervention of a social worker and placed in a residential facility chosen by the social worker or designated by the Director-General. By places

of safety we refer to any temporal place suitable for the reception of a child into which the owner, occupier or person in charge thereof is willing to receive a child (The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983). This results in a vicious cycle of abscondments from places of safety. Swart (1987) explains that because of the abused children's past bad experiences with officialdom, i.e. parents, social workers, teachers, police, etc. they tend to be very suspicious persons when confronted with formal questioning and actually display rebellion to involuntary removal to places of safety no matter how good the motive is.

3.4.3 Relationship with things and ideas

In constituting his life-world, the abused child is increasingly concerned with ideas. Like objects, people or the attitudes of people towards himself, he becomes aware of the significance of ideas for him and their implications for his own identity (Vrey 1984: 177). The abused child constitutes an inadequate life-world and this will eventually influence his relations to ideas. The absence of a secure home environment and other essential factors for his becoming, inhibits the proper development of his cognitive powers. The life-world of the abused child will thus be inadequate because it focusses mainly on the essences of survival and the rejection of things and/or ideas that cannot be utilised for survival purposes.

3.4.4 Relationship with moral and religious values

According to Vrey (1984) one of the aims of education is to bring the child to a point where he supports the norms of his society from personal conviction. His culture contains moral, religious, social and other norms deriving from the corresponding values esteemed by the community. The totality of these values is subsumed in the way of life maintained by that community. The child's relations with religious and moral values develop to a point where he will conform to such religious and moral norms of his own free will. In this regard according to Van Niekerk (1990 : 1) the abused child has no real source of emotional security.

(1) Moral development

Vrey (1984) maintains that moral development contains a clear cognitive element. As the child becomes emancipated he becomes increasingly capable of conceptualising and generalising moral norms and understands moral concepts. He thus achieves morality based on principles.

Piaget (Vrey 1984) describes a gradual transition from heteronomous to autonomous moral judgement in the child's becoming. Heteronomous moral judgement is based on norms prescribed by others while autonomous moral judgement refers to a person's own convictions and judgements. The abused child tends to be more subjected to heteronomous moral judgement due to the failure of constituting an adequate life-world. His actions of ascribing significance to matters, of exerting himself, venturing into life, hoping, planning, fulfilling his future, valuing, gaining insight into himself, attaining the freedom to be responsible and of accepting responsibility are all of an insufficient quality.

(2) Religious development

Vrey (1984) sees a personal religion as a means of faith and hope to which a child can cling during the uncertainties and vicissitudes of his development. Two authentic requirements would be authentic knowledge and practical demonstration of religious norms. Pastor de Nysschen (1990), founder of "The Ark" in Durban, stated during an interview that religious norms and values were found to be completely lacking amongst the abused children assisted at The Ark. The absence of this anchor in life, he claims, is one of the major reasons why the abused child gives up on life once they find themselves being abused. The Christian knows that God will never allow a person to be tempted or exploited more than he can stand up to. The Christian knows this from the Bible (1 Cor. 10:13), - from his personal faith and experiences. Without this personal faith, experience and knowledge the abused child has no source of comfort or spiritual security.

3.5 SYNTHESIS

According to Vrey (1984 : 186) and Urbani (1982) a meaningful life-world is formed when the child, by attributing meaning, forms relationships with objects, people, ideas, values, the self and God. To attribute meaning to a relationship implies much more than mere understanding. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the child subjectively experiences, and both are components of self-actualisation - which, because of the need for educational assistance, is guided actualisation. The child's relationships are therefore an expression of his life world (Nel and Urbani 1990).

It is evident from the discussions in this chapter that the abused child cannot constitute a meaningful and adequate life-world. The life style of abused children is an example of the outcome of disharmonious educational dynamics. It represents inadequate personality development, which, although it took place through the child's own initiative, is mainly the result of educational misguiding by the parents and other adults.

The child's initiative stems from the need of every human being to be somebody and to become somebody. When unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority. Kellmer Pringle (1980 : 35) phrases it as follows : "Approval and acceptance by others are essential for the development of self-approval and self-acceptance. Whether a child will develop a constructive or destructive attitude, in the first place depends on the parent's attitude to him." The fact that the abused child finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education, implies that his psychic life is under- actualised. According to Van Niekerk (1987 : 20-30) this under-actualisation of the psychic life of the child will eventually result in :

- * inadequate exploration ;
- * inadequate emancipation ;

- * inadequate distantiation ;
- * inadequate differentiation ;
- * inadequate objectification ; and
- * inadequate learning.

Abused children are fully aware that their parents and other adults have neglected them. Furthermore those adults they meet usually respond with pity, disapproval, embarrassment, or outright hostility and rejection. For these children the desire to run away from their parents represents a desire to take control of their lives themselves (Hickson and Gaydon 1989 : 90-91).

They have become victims of intimidation in their primary educational milieu. When intimidated now, their response is frequently to attack and they show little respect for authority in a misguided attempt to improve their self-image. Because of this inability of the abused child, the relationships formed by the abused child are inadequate for his becoming and adequate emancipation. He finds himself in a situation of helplessness and this helplessness is reflected in his relation to reality which offers opportunities for emancipation but which he is afraid to utilise (Van Niekerk 1987 : 22).

In the next chapter an examination of accountable support for the abused child is undertaken.

CHAPTER 4

ACCOUNTABLE SUPPORT FOR THE ABUSED CHILD

4.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Van Schalkwyk (1988 : 132) every supporting service for a child accomplishes a specific task in the interests of education: ".....supporting services are essentially educationally qualified". Ruperti (1976 : 112) calls supporting services the organised help provided so that the educational process can run smoothly. With specific regard to the pedagogic situation Van Schalkwyk (1988) noted that after the root of the problem and its causes have been determined, guidance must also be given to the parents as they are usually the main cause of the child's problem. A pedagogic supporting service will naturally also include :

- * the removal of the child from his present situation;
- * the placement of the child;
- * after-care and therapy.

According to Van Niekerk (1990) a universal truth is the fact that a child must have an adequate upbringing, that is education. He cannot simply grow up. This immediately accentuates the fact that whatever causal factors or remedial strategies are to be considered, the point of departure can only be that the child is dependent on education. It would be untenable to try to explain the phenomenon of abused children in a simplistic way by referring to certain specific factors in isolation, such as poverty, neglect, alcohol abuse, broken homes, marital discord, unemployment or drug abuse (Van Niekerk 1990 : 5). The effect of each of these factors on the education or upbringing of a child should be interpreted and clearly indicated.

Accountable support for the abused child must therefore be viewed from his dependence on education. The abused child finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education. Accountable support for the abused child implies that the child must be given meaningful help so that the situation of dysfunctional education in which he is caught up can be rectified. This also implies that all presently available legislation that provides for the welfare of the abused child and structures for accountable support for the abused child must be investigated. The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 is a legal instrument sanctioning the services rendered to all children in the Republic of South Africa. According to Mbanjwa (1990:2) community involvement has increased particularly to meeting the needs of the neglected child, and there has been a noticeable discrepancy between what the Act provides and what private initiative is offering towards the alleviation of the plight of the abused child.

4.2 THE CHILD CARE ACT NO. 74 OF 1983 AS AMENDED

This Act focusses on the inadequate parent rather than on the uncontrollable child. No provision is made in the Act to accommodate parents who, because of the circumstances beyond their control (poverty, urbanisation, unrest, illiteracy, etc.) do not earn enough to provide for the needs of their family (Van Niekerk 1990 : 6).

4.2.1 Certain definitions in this Act

Before looking at the abovementioned Act it is necessary to clarify certain definitions from The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended :

- * Social worker : Means any person registered as a social worker under the Social and Associated Workers Act.
- * Authorised Officer : Means any person authorized in writing by a Commissioner of Child Welfare, Social Worker or policeman to perform a service.

- * Children's court : A private hearing where a Commissioner of Child Welfare (who is always a magistrate), a social worker, a child and family concerned attend an inquiry held in camera.
- * Children's Home : Means any residence or home maintained for the reception, protection, care and bringing-up of more than six children apart from their parents but does not include any school of industries or reform school.
- * Place of care : Means any building or premises maintained or used whether for profit or otherwise, for the reception and temporal or partial care of more than six children apart from their parents, but does not include any boarding school, school hostel or any establishment which is maintained or used mainly for the tuition or training of children which is controlled by or which has been registered or approved by the State.
- * Place of Safety : Means any temporal place suitable for the reception of a child into which the owner, occupier or person in charge thereof is willing to receive a child.

4.2.2 Provisions in the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended

The following are the various ways in which the children are dealt with in terms of this Act :

(1) Opening of Children's Court Proceedings

There are four ways in which Children's Court proceedings may be opened, namely :

- * If it appears to any court in the course of any proceedings before that court that any child has no parent or guardian or that it is in the interest and welfare of any child that he be taken to a place of safety, that court may make such an order (Section 11 (1)).
- * If it appears to any Commissioner of Child Welfare on information given under oath by any person that there is reasonable grounds for believing that any child has no parent or guardian, or that it is in the interest of the safety and welfare of any child that he be taken to a place of safety, that Commissioner may issue a warrant authorizing any policeman or social worker or any other person to search for the child and take him to a place of safety (Section 11 (2)).
- * Any policeman, social worker or authorized officer may remove a child to a place of safety without a warrant if such a person has reason to believe that the child is a child referred to in Section 14 (14), (to be explained later) and that the delay in obtaining a warrant will be prejudicial to the safety and welfare of that child (Section 12 (1)).
- * A child can be taken to a children's court by a social worker with a report requesting that children's court proceedings be opened in view of the fact that the child has no parent or guardian or is in the custody of a person unable or unfit in terms of section 14(14) to have the custody of the child.

(2) Holding of inquiries

Holding of inquiries is the second provision laid down in the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 for dealing with children.

At the children's court inquiry, the court must determine whether the parent is fit to have custody of the child in terms of Section 14 (14) referred to earlier. This would determine whether :

- * the child has no parent or guardian ;
- * the child has a parent or guardian who is unable or unfit to have custody of the child in that he either ;
- * is mentally ill to such a degree that he is unable to provide for the physical, mental or social well-being of the child;
- * has assaulted or ill-treated the child or allowed him to be assaulted or ill-treated ;
- * has caused or conduced to the seduction, abduction or prostitution of the child or the commission by the child of immoral acts ;
- * displays habits and behaviour which may seriously injure the physical, mental or social well-being of the child ;
- * fails to maintain the child adequately ;
- * neglects the child or allows him to be neglected ;
- * cannot control the child properly, so as to ensure proper behaviour such as regular school attendance; and
- * has no visible means of support.

As can be noted above, emphasis in Section 14 (14) is more on the parent than on the child. This sometimes creates problems for social workers when dealing with abused

children as the parents often cannot be traced in order to investigate their circumstances (Mbanjwa 1990 : 6). Social workers therefore have to "presume" that the parents are unable or unfit to care for their child.

(3) Orders which can be made at the Inquiry

Upon holding of a Children's Court Inquiry the Child Care Act makes provision for either of the following orders to be made :

- * that the child be returned to his parents under the supervision of the social worker and on a condition that the child or his parent comply with certain requirements ;
- * that the child be placed in the custody of foster parents under supervision of a social worker ;
- * that the child be sent to a children's home designated by the Director-General; and
- * that the child be sent to a school of industries designated by the Director-General (Section 15(1)).

(4) Residential care provided in terms of the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended

(a) Place of Safety

As has been stated under the definitions, this is a place that provides temporal care of the children whilst the social workers are carrying out investigations in terms of the Child Care Act. The Child Care Act permits detention of the child for up to 14 days after which a social worker is expected to report at the Children's Court with her recommendations regarding the future placement of the child (Mbanjwa 1990 :7).

(b) Children's Home

Any residence or home maintained for the reception, protection, care and bringing-up of more than six children apart from their parents but does not include any school of industries or reform school. According to Mbanjwa (1990 : 7) children who for any reasons cannot be returned to their parents or cannot be placed with foster parents are very often sent to a Children's Home which is a more permanent home than the Place of Safety. The Act provides for the keeping of a child at the Children's Home for up to 2 years.

(c) School of Industries

According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 4) school of industries are places that aim at training the youth in the marketable skills of industry. Formal education is also provided though the main emphasis is preparing the youth for eventual entry into the open labour market. Skills training is offered in trades like brick-laying, carpentry, electrical engineering, etc.

4.3 OVERVIEW OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN WELFARE SYSTEM

4.3.1 Legislation

In addition to the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983, which enables welfare to be organized on a race group basis, three Acts of Parliament provide the framework for the Republic's social welfare system (McKendrick 1987 : 24-28):

- * The Social and Associated Workers Act 1978, as amended, which provides for control over the profession of social work and associated professions (such as child care workers, for example).
- * The National Welfare Act 1978, which provides amongst other things for the registration of welfare organizations, the co-ordination and planning

of welfare services at the local level, a South African Welfare Council to advise the Minister on welfare matters, and for regional welfare boards for the various race groups.

- * The Fund-raising Act 1978, as amended, which provides for control of the collection or receipt of voluntary contributions from the public.

Within the context of these three Acts, social welfare organizations are influenced by the provisions of other Acts which regulate the social welfare response to persons who are disadvantaged or at risk. Principal among these Acts are:

- * The Abuse of Dependence Producing Substances and Rehabilitation Centres Act, 1971.
- * The Aged Persons Act, 1967.
- * The Blind Persons Act, 1968.
- * The Child Care Act, 1983.
- * The Criminal Procedure Act, 1977.
- * The Disability Grants Act, 1968.
- * The Mental Health Act, 1973.
- * The Social Pensions Act, 1973.

4.3.2 Structure

Bearing in mind that a number of uniracial welfare structures exist side by side, it is nevertheless possible to demarcate the respective roles of state and community across

all of these parallel structures. According to McKendrick (1987) the state's task is provision of:

- * statutory personal social service programmes;
- * overall planning of social welfare; and
- * social security provision.

The private sector, comprising of community and church-sponsored welfare organizations, has primary responsibility for non-statutory personal social services.

"Personal social services", or "social services", refer to organised activities that are directly concerned with the conservation, protection and improvement of human resources (McKendrick 1987 : 25). They involve direct services to people (individuals, families, small groups and larger community groups) to promote their social well-being, to prevent the occurrence of social problems, and to reduce existing social problems.

The term "social security" is used to imply programmes of protection, usually involving financial assistance, provided to people by the state in order to protect them against the contingencies of life, (e.g. blindness, disability, old age, etc.) (McKendrick 1987 : 25)

In South Africa proper state-sponsored personal social services are delivered through the regional and local offices of four state departments (the Departments of Health Services and Welfare of the Houses of Assembly, Delegates and Representatives, respectively, and the Department of Education and Development Aid); while in the self- governing and independent South African national states, they are delivered through independent departments of health and welfare (McKendrick 1987). The personal social services given by state departments are concerned with the social welfare aspects of Acts of Parliament. Community and church sponsored personal social services are delivered by 1 600 local welfare organizations, registered as such

in terms of the National Welfare Act, 1978. Almost without exception, local welfare organizations are affiliated to one of 18 nationally - or provincially-organised bodies (for example, the S.A. National Council for the Blind, or the Jewish Family and Community Council of the Transvaal). These national and provincial bodies co-ordinate and develop local services within their functional fields. While overall control of social welfare planning is retained by the various state departments, four structures exist to facilitate co-operation between the state and the private sector on matters directly or indirectly related to welfare (McKendrick 1987 : 26):

- * Nationally and provincially-organised bodies liaise with the state on matters concerning the field(s) in which they function, while on matters of common interest they combine together into an ad hoc committee for dealings with the state.
- * The National Welfare Act, 1978, provides for 24 regional welfare boards, representing states and community interests, which have statutory power to regulate, co-ordinate, promote and plan welfare activities within their regions. These boards are uniracial. At the national level, the multi-racial South African Welfare Council advises the government on social welfare needs and issues.
- * For the purposes of co-ordinating social, physical, economic and constitutional development, the Department of Constitutional Development and Planning has created multi-racial Regional Development Advisory Committees in each of the eight development regions of South Africa. Each regional committee is represented on the National Development Advisory Committee, which advises the Cabinet on overall development needs and strategies.
- * A national Population Development Programme, initiated in 1984, has the aim of stimulating community development at the local level in order to accelerate improvement in the quality of life of all

communities. Local community development committees are represented on sub-regional Development Associations, which in turn are represented on the regional development advisory committees described earlier. Within each region, state and community activities to promote the Population Development Programme are co-ordinated through an inter-departmental committee on which the private sector is represented (McKendrick & Dudas 1987).

In addition to the four structures described above, other structures exist which may have influence on the co-ordination and/or development of welfare facilities. One of these is the network of state-established Joint Management Committees which covers the whole country. The functioning of these committees is not open to direct public scrutiny. The committees are reported to be primarily concerned with security, and to this end co-ordinate the activities of all state departments, including security forces, at the local levels (McKendrick 1987: 29).

4.4 WELFARE SERVICES PERTAINING TO THE ABUSED CHILD

According to Blignaut (1990 : 3) no legislation directly pertaining to the neglected child or support for the neglected child is at present available. This would imply that legally no direct provision has been made to effect accountable support for the neglected child. At present only a few social workers and welfare organizations reach out to these children. The Child Care Act No.74 of 1983, as amended, is intended to apply to children removed from parental care through the intervention of a social worker and placed in a residential facility chosen by the social worker or designated by the Director-General (Starke : 1988).

4.4.1 State welfare services

(1) The social worker and his role in connection with child abuse

Kellerman (1979) wrote that it is possible to help parents to stop neglecting and abusing their children particularly in cases where the social isolation of the parents has

contributed to the abuse or where the parents are young and/or immature, were themselves battered as children and know little of parental love. The treatment of abusing parents is a long process and social workers should aim at enabling the whole family to function in better, more constructive ways.

Alexander (1972 :22) wrote that beginning to establish a therapeutic relationship with these families is often the most difficult phase. Social workers have to deal with their own feelings about abusing parents and must deal with their judgementality first. Alexander (1972) warned social workers not to fall into the trap of trying to find out who abused the child. The abuse must be viewed as a symptom rather than the core of the problem and the fact that a child has been abused indicates that the whole family needs help.

Pickett and Maton (1978 : 10) pointed out that the abusing parent rarely asks for help for him or herself. They take children to hospitals, clinics, doctors, and social workers and pretend that the problem lies with the child. They rarely admit to having abused the child. The social worker has to realise what the situation is and engage the family in treatment. The social worker must be aware that the crisis which gave rise to the abuse is four-fold and consists of:

- * the tension that causes the parents to lose control and abuse the child
- the incident of abuse ;
- * the after-effects of the abuse;
- * the fear of repetition, of being found out and the sense of guilt; and
- * the social consequences of abuse.

Pickett and Maton (1978 : 18) gave a detailed account of how the social worker should engage the parents in treatment :

- * He encourages the parents to become highly dependent on him by supplying understanding, empathy, assistance, support, and confidentiality which leads to trust ; and
- * he establishes a degree of control over a family situation where there are serious fundamental problems.

These parents need someone to reach out to them. The child abuse is explained by the social worker as being accepted as non-accidental injury. Parents are confronted and encouraged to ventilate. These parents often refuse help, use denial and are aggressive.

Pickett and Maton (1978 : 16) emphasized the importance of reaching out to the whole family in order to make a reliable diagnosis and to evaluate the therapeutic potential. The most important point is to determine whether or not home conditions are safe for the child. If the child is removed he may not be returned to parents who have not been treated, or if there is any doubt about his safety in the family. Pickett emphasized in a lecture to the Non-Accidental Injury Committee in December 1980 that if there is any danger to the child and no hope of rehabilitating the parents they must be told that the removal is permanent (McKay 1983).

According to McKay (1983) the following criteria are important when a social worker (and hopefully a team) has to decide whether or not to remove a child, either temporarily or permanently :

- * The nature and severity of the injuries. Gross injuries, severe malnutrition, neglect and rejection indicate that removal is necessary and perhaps permanent. A history of repeated injuries, even if minor, are an ominous indication of the severity of abuse and poor prognosis.
- * The nature and extent of the psychopathology present in the family must be determined. The degree of denial, accompanied by hostility, a

marriage under stress, are all indications that it is necessary to remove the child.

- * The psychiatric diagnosis is essential. A history of abnormally aggressive behaviour, a chronic pattern of anti-social behaviour and a failure to learn from past experience are all indications that the child is at considerable risk and permanent removal can be considered.
- * The way in which the parents perceive this particular child is important. If the parent is negative about the child, even after treatment, he is at risk. Good parenting of siblings does not safeguard this particular child.
- * The presence of chronic tension arising from illness, and multiple social problems which cannot be solved indicate that the child must be removed.

Attention is given to the entire family in matters such as housing, poor health, or debt. The social worker has to parent the parents who have not had this in their own childhood. He must remember that the parents will test him continually by failing to keep appointments, and upsetting treatment plans. At first the parents can be dependent on the social worker for this serves a vital function in their growth as parents. As treatment progresses the parents must be encouraged to become independent. If the children have been removed (and writers like Fontana (1978) have recommended removal in every case prior to treatment), the return must be carefully worked out.

If the child is removed permanently then his placement must ensure that he can reach his optimum development. If it is not possible to place him properly then he should be returned to his family after intensive casework.

Pickett and Maton (1978 : 17) found that they were able to combine the therapeutic and protective roles and in no cases was a child returned to the same set of

circumstances from which he was removed. Before returning the child to his home child-parent contact is gradually increased and carefully monitored over a period of time, each step being taken after discussion at case conference level. Pickett and Maton (1978) considered it important for the social worker to retain power through the court so that the child can be legally removed if this process fails.

Wells (1981 : 113-117) pointed out that intervention for some families cannot just be talking about problem-solving. More concrete services such as finding better accommodation or jobs must be part of the treatment process. Protective intervention often involves the use of authority, and work with the family in the form of family therapy needs to be combined with the sanctions of the court in order to protect the child.

Otto and Smith (1980 : 116-122) in their model for intervention combined removal with therapy, cognitive restructuring, teaching better parenting, behaviour modification- the purpose of the removal being to stop the further physical and psychological hurt to the child. Meanwhile the parents are taught parenting through changing parental behaviours and cognitive structures. The writers also stress the necessity for social workers to be *non-judgemental* because the abusing parent already feels so negative about himself. Negative judgement will serve to reinforce existing behaviour and positive judgement will frighten the abusing parent. In addition to being non-judgemental the social worker must possess expertise in several specific areas :

- * Child developmental stages and associated behaviours.
- * Normal behaviour of children.
- * How children's responses are linked to parent's behaviour.
- * How abuse patterns are maintained.

The social worker must also introduce group therapy and family therapy to reinforce all the newly learned behaviour. The parents can then join self-help groups in order to maintain their improvement. Social workers must not forget that stress is acute at the point of abuse and that crisis intervention must be offered. This, if rendered rapidly and effectively can enable children to be kept in their homes at times (Ostbloom & Crase 1980). Crisis services in order to relieve stress effectively must offer :

- * a twenty-four hour on-call child protection service ;
- * telephone counselling ;
- * emergency day care ;
- * caretaker services so that the parents can obtain temporary relief; and
- * long-term care if children have to be removed.

Highly-trained social workers should be in charge of seeing these services function effectively.

Cameron (1973 : 692-697) reiterated that child welfare services must be available twenty four hours a day, 365 days a year so that child abuse cases can be reported for immediate action, either by the public aware of the abuse, or by potential abusers asking for instant relief. These services carry the responsibility of invoking the authority of the court to secure adequate protection, care and treatment of children whose parents neglect or abuse them. The decision to request court action should always be based on the belief that this is in the best interests of the child and his family. Cameron (1973) pointed out that social workers in child protection services cannot take responsibility for abused children single-handedly. The community, the doctors, the hospital, all have an integrated role to play in the protection and treatment of abused children.

Cooper (1977 : 157-160) wrote and, on a visit to Durban in 1982, said that social workers must get rid of the belief that separating a child from his family is harmful and only to be used as a last resort. If the long-term needs of the child are carefully assessed, removal and permanent placement, or removal and intensive family therapy prior to return of the child, can be regarded as positive.

Child abuse occurs because the parent is unable to solve his problems. Behaviour modification techniques followed by intensive family therapy enabled the parents to cope (Polakow & Peabody 1975). Family therapy allows the parents to learn how to parent, particularly if co-therapists are used to model this behaviour (Paulson & Chaleff 1972). Social workers have a vital role in parenting the parent, meeting their dependency needs until they can be better parents. They must educate the parents in the knowledge of normal child development and enable them to modify their own behaviour. Putting them in touch with self-help groups will help them overcome their isolation. Working through the removal of the child is essential. And the social worker should have the back up of a unit or team so that she does not work in isolation (Holmes *et al.* 1975).

The resocialization of abusive families is a goal which can be viewed in short-term perspectives, by means such as crisis intervention, telephone hot-lines, crisis nurseries, day care centres, temporary removal of the child by the courts. Or in long-term perspectives which aim at restructuring the parents' attitudes, values and behaviours so that the family is completely resocialised and able to cope in society. The social worker needs short-term and long-term plans in order to be effective (Parke 1980 : 295).

(2) The role of the hospital in the treatment of child abuse

The hospitals are often the point of first contact with child abuse as parents take children to the hospital for treatment. The hospital can initiate protective services by detaining the child and calling the agency social workers in to start management of the case. The hospital staff-psychiatrists, psychologists, paediatricians, social workers -

particularly if they have a special unit, can initiate the emotional and physical healing. If there is to be legal action the hospital will be required to hand over properly documented records to the court. The agency to which the child is referred, or which refers the child, takes over the rehabilitation of the family unless there is a special unit to which the family can be referred. No child should ever be returned to untreated parents (Joynes 1973).

(3) The role of the doctor in the treatment of child abuse

Parents often take their abused child to the doctor who has great difficulty in believing that parents could possibly deliberately hurt their own child. Kempe (1976) and Joynes (1973) wrote that the average doctor does not have the training and facilities to conduct the time-consuming psychosocial investigations into abuse and neglect cases and then to carry out protective measures for the child and arrange therapy for the family. He must, however, be able to recognise abuse for what it is.

Strauss (1974) raised an issue when he pointed out that South African doctors are ethically not allowed to report cases of child abuse. As he points out this precludes giving optimum care to the abused child.

A general practitioner in Johannesburg said in 1976 that, with his lack of training and adequate facilities, he found the problem of child abuse so enormous that he tried to stop thinking about it lest he become overwhelmed by it (Cusins 1976). When he stopped thinking about it, he stopped doing anything about it.

(4) The role of the psychiatrist in the treatment of child abuse

Brandon (1977 : 46-55) sees the role of the psychiatrist as being chiefly to make a diagnosis on parents ability to rehabilitate. The psychiatrist must review the child's development, nature of the parent-child relationship and look for psychopathic disorder which would preclude the parents' ability to respond to treatment. In the last

case the goal must be permanent removal of the child with a view to a long-term placement in foster care or, better, in adoption.

The psychiatrist has an important role on the team in giving support and making recommendations as to future management of cases. The psychiatrist can help supervise the social worker who should never work exclusively in doing intensive casework with abusing families. The psychiatrist can spell out the long-term effects of a hostile environment on an abused child who will develop similar patterns of interaction with his children. The psychiatrist must help the team decide whether or not there is hope of return of the child. He must help decide whether removal is to be permanent, in which case adoption should be considered as it has a far higher chance of success than foster care or institutionalization according to Richards (1977). Foster care often precipitates the child into a series of removals more damaging to the child than the actual abuse. Jones (1977) recommends a quick decision on the fate of abused children and feels the psychiatrist has a vital role to play in making a diagnosis so that the future of these abused children may be determined.

(5) The role of the health visitor in the treatment of child abuse

Hallett and Stevenson (1980) describe health visits as :

- * being the prevention of mental, physical and emotional ill-health;
- * the early detection of ill-health and the surveillance of high-risk groups;
- * the identification of need and the mobilisation of appropriate resources;
- * health teaching and the provision of care through support;
- * advice and guidance.

The health visitors' work is distinguished from social work in its long-term preventive aims with the general population, as well as by their expertise in relation to medical problems and child development.

A health visitor in Johannesburg said that she and her colleagues were trained to note the following predisposing factors and follow up intensively (Velida 1976 : 52) :

- * young and insecure parents;
- * unmarried mothers;
- * unwanted, unplanned baby;
- * aggressive father/mother;
- * inadequate or mentally subnormal mother/father;
- * parents who have themselves been abused as children; and
- * unemployment, poverty, alcohol, drugs.

In Britain and to a certain extent in South Africa health visitors have a mixed health visitor/social worker role. This is because many social problems, including child abuse are diagnosed by them, and the follow-up of high risk children is often carried out by them.

(6) The role of the clinical psychologist in the treatment of child abuse

It is well documented that abuse produces psychological symptoms such as frozen watchfulness, excessive reactions to sudden and intense stimuli and a craving for physical contact - all signs which are looked for by the psychologist who sees his role as assessment mainly, followed by treatment and research, according to a clinical

psychologist O'Driscoll (1976) in Johannesburg. Play therapy can help the child if combined with family therapy. The psychologist can try to answer questions, such as :

- * What are the long term effects of child abuse ?
- * What kind of frustration leads to abuse ?
- * How is the potential abuser to be identified by using projective and diagnostic tools such as MMPI ?

(7) The role of the police in child abuse

One of the sharpest differences in professional opinions may be seen in respect of the police role in cases of child abuse because child abuse is not a crime according to the ideology of the onlooker (Carter 1977). The police are frequently called in to investigate cases of child abuse. The offender may be charged with the statutory offence of contravening Section 18(1) of the Children's Act of 1960 which provides that : " any person having the custody of a child who ill-treats, neglects, or abandons that child or allows it to be ill-treated shall be guilty of an offence if, as a result of the ill-treatment, etc. the child is likely to suffer unnecessarily, or any part or function of its mind or body is likely to be injured or detrimentally affected, even though no such suffering, injury or detriment has in fact been caused or even though the likelihood of such suffering, etc. has been arrested by the action of another person."

If the child dies the offender may be charged with murder or culpable homicide. The police have to investigate and decide whether the abuser should be prosecuted. There is always a debate whether or not they should investigate every case or only those where charges have been laid. Only the police have the facilities, the training, the skills and the experience to conduct enquiries to arrive at the truth of what happened. And only they should do this, as it is neither the job of the social worker nor the doctor to do so (Martin 1981).

The police need to be quickly informed by social workers and doctors that a child has been abused so that they can start their investigations without delay. The involvement of the police does not mean that there is not a need for a full social and physical assessment of the child, parents and the family functioning in order to decide what to do.

While some professionals view police investigation as destructive, others feel it is therapeutic as it faces the parents with the reality and gravity of child abuse and acts as a powerful deterrent to future abuse (Hallett & Stevenson 1980). Police are advised to abide by recommendations made at committee level rather than to act alone.

(8) The role of teachers in child abuse

Schools play a vital role in the lives of all children. After the family, the school is the next most important institution in the lives of children, and shares with parents the tasks of socialization, education and acculturation of the children in their care.

Teachers in daily contact with children, are in the best position to detect abuse, not *only obvious physical abuse, but also the other more subtle forms of abuse which may manifest themselves in withdrawal, aggression, uncontrollability, truancy, and low academic achievement.*

Teachers have the opportunity to intensively interact with children for several hours each school day over a long period of time. As a result, they are particularly likely to be confidants to children and to be able to observe changes in behaviour that may indicate abuse or neglect. Therefore, teachers can have a major role in the prevention, identification and referral of cases of child abuse and neglect. However, for teachers to carry out their responsibilities in protecting children, there are two requirements :

- * an institutional structure which has guidelines and procedures for dealing with abuse and neglect; and

- * sufficient knowledge of both the institutional structure and the complexities and dynamics of maltreatment.

Knowledge of indicators and correlates of abuse, and laws that promote reporting of abuse are a necessary prerequisite for teachers to protect children from maltreatment. Teachers who are more knowledgeable about indicators of sexual abuse, who realize that sexual abuse must be reported and who know that children usually do not lie about abuse, may be in a position to prevent another incident of abuse or a second child in the family from suffering abuse (Sibert 1981 : 83-89).

According to Volpe (1981 : 103) a range of factors make the potential role of teachers in child abuse cases vitally important :

- * Children suffering abuse of one form or another are likely to exhibit some unusual behaviour. Teachers are trained in the normal development of children and are ideally placed, given this training and their prolonged contact with the child, to recognise abnormal or changed behaviour. Thus teachers may be the first to identify signs which may indicate that a child is suffering abuse.
- * An abused child may look for someone with whom they can share their secret. Whether or not the abuse is actually perpetrated in the home, evidence seems to suggest that they will seek a neutral, trusted figure when they decide to talk about their problems. Teachers are often the very people that abused children turn to for help.
- * Schools form a natural focus for professional groups dealing with children. As the focus for this inter-professional network, schools - and thus their teachers - have an important role to play.
- * Child abuse is not constrained by social class, economic circumstances or geographical setting. Child abuse is likely to occur in all communities

and is not confined to deprived, inner-city areas. Awareness of the problems of child abuse should be the legitimate concern of all teachers.

(9) The role of the courts in child abuse

Strauss (1974) was of the opinion that medicine and law are frequent bedfellows but nowhere does this relationship create more havoc than when it comes to the abused child which precipitates an interaction between doctor, lawyer, social worker and the law enforcement arm of the government. The goal is the common one of the physical and emotional well-being of the abused child and for the maintenance of that state. Yet several different professional disciplines collide headlong in their attempts to provide for the common goal.

Strauss (1974) warned that the imposition of penal sanction may merely substitute one trauma by another. Arresting the offending parents, bringing them to trial may just perpetuate the disruption in the family. He said that by involving criminal process we may encourage the social craving for revenge without doing anything constructive. Strauss (1974) said social workers and doctors should remain in charge of the case as long as possible and only resort to court when it becomes obvious that their resources will fail and the protection of the court is needed.

Kelly (1973) stated that the courts are bound by strict procedures and must present their cases properly. A children's court is not able to remove a child on mere hearsay evidence. All evidence must be properly presented or the courts cannot exercise their function of protection. Kelly (1973) also cautions that the exercise of powers by the court is not sufficient. The child must have follow-up treatment. The final decision whether or not to remove the child is the magistrate's or the judge's. This decision can only be made properly if he has full details in front of him. Otherwise his hands are tied and he may have to find a child not in need of care, albeit that the child desperately needs protection.

(10) The role of the child abuse committee

Three levels of co-ordination among welfare agencies as applied to child abuse were identified. The first is "ad hoc co-ordination" which describes the variety of contacts by letter, telephone, or face-to-face discussions between practitioners about particular cases. The second level "systematic case co-ordination" is seen in case conferences. The third "programme co-ordination" is seen in policy-making about child abuse and neglect (Hallet & Stevenson 1980).

The main functions of the committee are devising and advising on procedures for dealing with cases, reviewing the work of case conferences and providing education and training programmes for staff dealing with cases. This sort of committee is characterized by wide membership of all groups.

Delnero et al. (1972) mentions that the task of the committee includes:

- * the collection of historical data ;
- * the interpretation of physical findings and laboratory reports ;
- * the building up of meaningful communications with welfare organizations ;
- * arriving at an understanding of personal feelings in connection with parents who abuse small children ;
- * providing legal services during court hearings ; and
- * maintaining a long-term follow-up programme.

(11) Place of Safety

In Natal there are 3 places of safety viz. Bayhead in Durban, Umlazi Place of Safety and Pata Place of Safety in Pietermaritzburg (Mbanjwa 1990 : 11). Each place of safety aims at providing maximum physical, emotional, educational care of the children. The places of safety are manned by various trained care-workers who act as parents to the children. The professional staff comprises of the social worker, nursing sisters, sometimes a full-time or visiting psychologist (Mbanjwa 1990 ; Van Niekerk 1990). Admission of the child to the place of safety is through an order granted at the Children's Court and release or further movement of the child from the place of safety is also controlled in terms of the Child Care Act through the Children's Court.

According to Mbanjwa (1990) it happens sometimes for specific reasons that children stay at the place of safety for more than 14 days. This has necessitated provision of education for the children. Pata Place of Safety has a fully-fledged school run by the Department of Education and Training, to cater for the educational needs of the children.

(12) Children's Home

The Child Care Act provides for the keeping of a child at the Children's Home for up to two years while social workers are expected to render reconstruction services to the child's home trying to deal with whatever pathology that might have contributed to the child's plight (Mbanjwa 1990 : 7).

Being a more permanent residence, the Children's Home strives to provide intensive treatment for children. Assistance includes assessing their emotional and behavioural problems thereby devising an appropriate rehabilitation programme. Very often Children's Home will use available schools in the neighbourhood so as not to isolate the children from the larger community. In Natal alone, there are eight Children's Homes.

4.4.2 Volunteer welfare services

(1) Private welfare agencies

(a) The Johannesburg child welfare society

It is the private welfare agency which deals with the large majority of cases - probably about 80% of cases dealt with by private welfare organisations. A study of its files revealed that during 1982, the Society dealt with 66 cases of physical or sexual abuse of children. Of these, 47 were White, 16 were Coloured and 3 were Black children. There were slightly more males (36) than females (30) (De Vos 1991).

(b) The National Council for child and family welfare

According to De Vos (1991), although the National Council does not deal with the practical management of abused children, it has played a leading role in the matter of combatting and preventing child abuse in South Africa. It has done this by way of research, - e.g. literature studies, surveys among its affiliated child welfare societies; issuing information pamphlets; organising the first major symposium on child battering; drawing up guidelines on the management of child abuse; campaigning for law reform in respect of the management of child abuse, - e.g. with regard to making child abuse a notifiable condition (which has now been built into the new Child Care Act of 1983), etc.

(c) The "Christelike Maatskaplike Raad" (CMR)

According to De Vos (1991) the CMR is the family welfare organisation of the Dutch Reformed Church. During 1982 it dealt with five abuse cases, involving ten children, of whom four were male and six female. Most of the injuries consisted of bruises, welts and abrasions, resulting from assaults. The abusers were the mother, father, mother's boyfriend and step mother. As to the outcome of cases, five of the ten children were found to be in need of care and placed in a children's home operated by the CMR.

The cases of children placed in children's homes are reviewed by the home's multi-disciplinary evaluation committee every six months. In the meantime the parents receive counselling by the social worker and pastoral psychologist of the agency.

4.5 DE LANGE REPORT

An investigation regarding education for the pedagogically neglected child is contained in the De Lange Report (1981 : 3) which investigated education for children with special educational needs. The De Lange Report (1981) made certain recommendations regarding a support structure for the pedagogically neglected child.

According to the De Lange Report (1981) ways and means should be sought to place Children's Homes, Children's Act Schools and Places of Safety under the same control, preferably under that of a department that is best equipped to see to the needs of these children. Other recommendations include the following :

- * Children with no behaviour deviations who reside in children's homes should not be placed in Children's Act schools.
- * Attention should be given to the size, construction and geographic placement of Children's Act schools and children's homes, but more specifically to smaller hostels and contact with other schools and society in general.
- * Provision of services on the basis of a multi-disciplinary team should enjoy top priority.
- * An in-depth evaluation should be made of how the total situation of the juvenile is dealt with, with special reference to the quality of the present re-educative programme.

- * Long-term follow-up studies of pupils who have been discharged from Children's Act schools should be undertaken with a view to possible future adjustments of the present educational situation.
- * Attention should be paid to the critical shortage of child psychiatrists and their training.
- * A co-operative Educational Service Centre (CESC) which incorporates a section for Evaluation and Guidance (SEG) should be established in every defined educational region (or service area).

(1) The functioning of the section for Evaluation and Guidance (SEG)

(a) Nature of the SEG

According to the De Lange Report (1981) the task of the SEG includes comprehensive diagnosis, designing remedial educational programmes and guidance. The SEG does not provide continuous remedial and other assistance, therapy, special education, etc. This is provided within the various educational institutions where guidance, re-diagnosis, follow-up treatment and in-service training can be done by the staff of the SEG.

Comprehensive evaluation includes an evaluation, diagnosis, guidance and designing programmes by a team comprising educationists, social workers, psychologists, medical doctors and paramedics. The SEG therefore provides preventive as well as diagnostic and guidance services in that evaluation, diagnosis and guidance are provided for children (from birth onwards) as well as parents (a genetic advisory service is also included).

To create greater clarity and rationalisation in respect of these team members, the Work Committee : Education for Children with Special Educational Needs as a result of its findings held in-depth discussions on the personnel who should be involved in

the school clinics and co-operative evaluation and guidance centres and laid down guidelines for the functions and training of the following team members:

- * educational psychologist.
- * educationist (orthodidactics).
- * school social worker.

An educational psychologist is someone who has been registered in terms of Act. No. 56 of 1974. Ideally, he has five consecutive years of training in psychology, has served an internship of 18 months at an approved institution and is capable of using diagnostic tests and making corrections in terms of diagnoses that have already been made.

The educationist (orthodidactics) has qualifications as laid down by an appropriate professional council. His functions include the interpretation of scholastic data of a diagnostic nature (or psychological reports), the development of didactical programmes, didactical evaluation, consultation with the teacher and remedial teacher in particular and the implementation of educational and remedial programmes.

The School social worker is registered according to Act No. 110 of 1978 and is responsible for family guidance, the socialization of the child and for dealing with problems that may arise in the child's transition from mainstream to special education or vice versa.

The above is merely a brief and preliminary exposition of some of the main functions of the functionaries mentioned. In the light of this the following categories of professional personnel are proposed for a fully developed SEG (Urbani 1981) on a full time basis :

- * The head as team leader/co-ordinator.
- * Doctor.

- * Educationist (orthodidactics).
- * School guidance teacher/Counselling psychologist.
- * Educational psychologist.
- * School social worker.
- * Nurse.

Medical specialists, paramedics and legal advisors will also be included on a part time and consultative basis. It is important that professional personnel in particular who are involved in the SEG on a full time basis should also play a part in the in-service training of staff at the SEG as well as related personnel.

In the light of the above the following recommendations were made (Urbani 1981) :

RECOMMENDATION 16 : The training of educationists (orthodidactics), who are responsible for designing remedial programmes for children with learning problems with a view to the remedial or class teachers at schools implementing those is an urgent matter.

RECOMMENDATION 18 : Within the context of the SEG the task of the school social worker should include family guidance, socialization of the child and dealing with problems that may arise in the transition from mainstream education to special education or vice versa.

(2) Registration with a statutory teacher's council

It is imperative that the existing professional personnel involved in the tasks of evaluation and diagnosis of and providing assistance and guidance for impaired and handicapped children and who have undergone predominantly educational training,

should be subject to the discipline and registration requirements of a professional council.

(3) The relation between the SEG and School Clinics

School clinics which are under the same control as the schools in a specific region serve as an intermediate body between the SEG and schools. Personnel attached to school clinics consist of the same categories of team members working at the SEG. Comprehensive evaluation, diagnosis and guidance as well as assistance, therapy, remedial treatment, compensatory education and parental guidance can be provided at school clinics. School clinics form an integral part of an education authority's provision of education in a particular area or region. The staff at school clinics and teaching staff at schools work together as a team. Personnel of the SEG can also assist with the in-service training of personnel at school clinics.

An infrastructure for the education of and the rendering of assistance to children with special educational needs should be built up simultaneously within schools and school clinics.

Initially the staff at the school clinics will have to serve more schools and provide in-service training for teachers. It is only in cases where the personnel at school clinics cannot deal with specific problem situations satisfactorily that the assistance of the SEG will be sought.

4.6 SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

School social work can render a crucial contribution as a support system for abused children where there is compulsory education. According to Le Roux (1987 :211) the behaviour of the child that is deprived of the secure environment of the school will manifest itself in aggressiveness, anti- social behaviour and the development of phobia regarding the school and education. If a school social worker could assist the teacher in identifying, diagnosing the problem, working with the problem and even refer the

problem for specialised attention, preventive action could be taken timeously within the school context. Social work training is geared towards assisting the client, (e.g. child displaying deviant behaviour) to achieve his maximum potential within any given circumstance.

Due to the fact that formal education structures concentrate their efforts mainly on teaching or the transfer of knowledge, very little time and opportunities remain for the teacher to give special attention to pupils in need of care (Investigation 1981 : 58). In the same manner principals of schools are usually buried under administrative responsibilities and have neither the time nor opportunity for supplying guidance to families where problems exist.

According to Van Wyk (1989 : 88) the "Subject Advisor: Guidance" is not professionally qualified to handle welfare related problems in schools or compile reports regarding them. This task could be fulfilled by a school social worker within the school. As highlighted by the De Lange Report on the Provision of Education in the RSA (1981), the school social worker is registered according to Act No. 110 of 1978 and will be for family guidance, the socialization of the child and for dealing with problems that may arise in the child's transition from mainstream to special education or vice versa. The school social worker will have statutory support as well as the training to perform these functions within the school environment. At present no teacher, guidance teacher or principal has any statutory power, the required training or experience to perform these functions adequately.

4.7 SYNTHESIS

Accountable support for the abused child must be viewed from his dependence on education. Every supporting service for a child accomplishes a specific task in the interests of education (Van Schalkwyk 1988 : 132). Ruperti (1976 : 112) calls supporting services the organised help provided so that the educational process can run smoothly.

The abused child finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education. Accountable support for the abused child implies that the child must be given meaningful help so that the situation of dysfunctional education in which he is caught up can be rectified.

The question of accountable support structures available to the abused child at present can be summarised as follows :

- * The Children's Act No. 74 of 1983 focusses on the inadequate parent rather than on the uncontrollable child. No provision is made in the Act to accommodate parents who, because of the circumstances beyond their control, do not earn enough to provide for the needs of their family.
- * Educational support structures in the form of school welfare services could prove to be very supportive. School social workers would fulfil the important task of liaising with the pupils, parents, teachers and welfare services.
- * Teachers have an important role to play in child abuse cases. They have a role to play in the detection and reporting of abuse; in working with a multi-agency teamwork environment; in contributing to the ongoing support and monitoring of the abused child; in preparing children to cope with potentially abusing environments.
- * Social support is extremely important for abused children. Significant others can help abused children maintain feelings of hopefulness, and also provide practical support. Such support may be received from professionals, friends, family and religious persons.

Regarding the accountable support for the abused child it can thus be concluded that a number of welfare organizations, (e.g. The "Christelike Maatskaplike Raad", Durban Child and Family Welfare Society, South African Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect, etc.) are involved in attempts to render some kind of support. The

fact remains that the abused child is a "child" that should be assisted by parents and the school in his process of becoming.

This study will now present its recommendations in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

5.1.1 Statement of the problem

This study investigated problems surrounding abused children as viewed from a psychopedagogical perspective. In essence the study examines the following problems:

- * the abused child is hampered in the unfolding of his potentials; and
- * the abused child is a child in educational distress with special educational needs.

5.1.2 A psychopedagogical perspective

Although both the adult and the child are to be held responsible for the success of the child's education, the adult is the one who should mainly be called to account for any dysfunction in the dynamics of the upbringing. When the adult, who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are met, the child is usually affectively, cognitively and normatively neglected. It is not suggested that this neglect is always intentional. It may for instance happen that the adult's appeal to the child is not sufficiently clear and unambiguous, and is consequently misunderstood. This example does, however, imply that the pedagogic relationship of understanding is not being adequately constituted. If any of the pedagogic relationships of trust, understanding and authority are absent from the pedagogic situation, it will result in a dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation. The abused child thus finds himself in this situation of dysfunctional education. Without sufficient participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the abused child

is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focusses on the child's adulthood. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately. The pedagogically inadequate actualisation of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result.

A distressful educational situation gives rise to experiences fraught with unfavourable meanings for the child, e.g. with feelings of extreme and uncalled for anxiety, loneliness, insecurity, helplessness and uncertainty. The child's level of development does not in this situation coincide with his attainable level. Guidance towards the actualisation of his psychic life within the educational situation is then inadequate. A dysfunction in the dynamics of upbringing is therefore clearly brought about by both the child's inadequately actualising his psychic life, and the educator's inadequately supporting him. The child is consequently impeded in his progress towards adulthood. Dysfunctional education therefore per se implies that the child will suffer an impediment with regard to his development.

Seen pedagogically, the abused child under-actualises his psychic life. This directly pertains to the modes of his exploring, emancipating, distantiating, objectivating and differentiating, which are in the same event inadequately actualised in terms of the pedagogical norm. He is indeed in this way obstructed in his progress towards adulthood. The adult's "neglect of duty" especially lies in his failure to carry out the educative task as he ought to, and consequently allowing the fundamental pedagogical structures to be inadequately realised.

The absence of specific ethical or moral factors in the educational setting could also hamper the child's education. The lack of educational dialogue between an adult and the abused child is one of the major factors that short-circuit the dynamics of the educational situation.

From a psychopedagogical perspective the abused child finds himself in an educational relationship which is dysfunctional. Dysfunctional education implies that the abused

child's psychic life is under-actualised. This under-actualisation of the psychic life of the child will eventually result in :

- * inadequate exploration;
- * inadequate emancipation;
- * inadequate distantiation;
- * inadequate differentiation;
- * inadequate objectification; and
- * inadequate learning.

5.1.3 Relevant research regarding the life-world of the abused child

A meaningful life-world is formed when the child, by attributing meaning, forms relationships with objects, people, ideas, values, himself and God. To attribute meaning to a relationship implies much more than mere understanding. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the child subjectively experiences, and both are components of self-actualisation, which, because of the need for educational assistance, is guided actualisation. The child's relationships are therefore an expression of his life-world.

The abused child lives in a world where his parents make demands and expectations on him that are not made on other children. Some of these expectations are impossible, biologically and cognitively, to meet, leaving the child worthless. He cannot do what his parents tell him he should be able to do. He is a failure, unacceptable and disappointing to the adults. In other instances, he develops the mechanical skills to meet the parent's demands and expectations. His successes and impressive skills are

not a source of feeling good about himself, for they are what he feels are normal abilities and behaviours for abused children like himself.

The abused child is in an environment where he is expected to be sensitive to and responsible for much of the happiness of the adults in his world. He certainly is not to make life more difficult for the adults by demanding, asking for or wanting things. The abused child is in a home where there are very few contacts outside his nuclear family. His parents rarely ever have friends come in. Indeed, there is very little laughter in his home. He has very little contact with other children. As the abused child grows older, he is made aware that his parents do not want him to develop relationships and liaisons outside the home - be they with peers or other adults. He has no opportunity to see how adults other than his mother and father behave. His parents fight a lot - he hears and sees verbal and physical hostility between the only adults in his environment. While he does not understand it, he continually gets put into "no win" situations.

The abused child, is not expected to have any joy in life. Further, he does not see any modelling of true happiness and joy in his home. The adults around him may be abrupt and angry, sad and depressed, distant and aloof, unfriendly and cold - but they are not happy zestful people. The abused child senses that the world outside his home is the same - a hostile demanding environment through which he must negotiate.

The abused child may be ignored - and his basic needs neglected. He may be in a world where the adults pay no attention to him, so long as he does not make demands or provide intrusions into their lives. The abused child is not taught internal controls or an empathetic concern about others, but rather doing what others - the adults - want and tell him to do. Violence, cruelty, and causing pain to others are not considered bad to him. Indeed, his parents have been violent and cruel and deliberately inflicted physical and psychic pain on him under the aegis of teaching, helping and controlling him. His developing sense of conscience is a distorted and tenuous thing.

The life style of abused children is an example of the outcome of disharmonious educational dynamics. It represents inadequate personality development, which, although it took place through the child's own initiative, is mainly the result of educational misguiding by the parents and other adults. The child's initiative stems from the need of every human being to be somebody and to become somebody. When the child feels himself unaccepted, rejected and unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority. Whether a child will develop a constructive or destructive attitude, in the first place depends on his parent's attitude to him.

Abused children are often reared in environments where there is little cognitive stimulation and support, but where a lot is expected of the child. Abusing parents have distorted notions of what they require from their children, often without consideration of the child's actual stage of development. Because of the exceptionally high standards of behaviour expected, most abused children fail and are therefore punished. The world of the abused child is therefore a very strained and anxious one. He spends most of his energies looking for ways of avoiding parental wrath. Instead of being able to explore and experiment with the environment, the abused child has to constantly monitor his actions to ensure that they are in accordance with adult demands. Opportunities for creativity and learning are minimal or non-existent. It is not surprising therefore to find that abused children exhibit learning, and behaviour difficulties.

5.1.4 Accountable support for the abused child

Accountable support for the abused child must be viewed from his dependence on education. Every supporting service for a child accomplishes a specific task in the interest of education (Van Schalkwyk 1988 : 132). Ruperti (1976 : 112) calls supporting services the organised help provided so that the "educational process" can run smoothly.

Accountable support for the abused child implies that the child must be given meaningful help so that the situation of dysfunctional education in which he is caught

up can be rectified. The question of accountable support structures available to the abused child at present can be summarised as follows :

- * The Children's Act No. 74 of 1983 focusses on the inadequate parent rather than on the uncontrollable child. No provision is made in the Act to accommodate parents who, because of the circumstances beyond their control, do not earn enough to provide for the needs of their family.
- * Educational support structures in the form of school welfare services could prove to be very supportive. School social workers could fulfil the important task of liaising with the pupils, parents, teachers and welfare services.
- * Teachers have an important role to play in child abuse cases. They have a role to play in the detection and reporting of abuse; in working with a multi-agency teamwork environment; in contributing to the ongoing support and monitoring of the abused child; in preparing children to cope with potentially abusing environments.
- * Social support is extremely important for abused children. Significant others can help abused children maintain feelings of hopefulness, and also provide practical support. Such support may be received from professionals, friends, family and religious persons.

Regarding the accountable support for the abused child it can thus be concluded that a number of welfare organisations (e.g. The "Christelike Maatskaplike Raad"; Pinetown Highway Child and Family Welfare Society; South African Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect; Child and Family Treatment Unit; Durban Child and Family Welfare Society, etc.) are involved in attempts to render some kind of support. The fact remains that the abused child is a "child" that should be assisted by parents and the school in his process of becoming.

5.1.5 Aim of this study

The aim of this study was :

- * To describe the life-world of the abused child from a psychopedagogical perspective at the hand of available relevant research literature .
- * To determine in the light of the findings obtained from the literature study, certain guidelines according to which accountable support can be instituted in order to meet the needs of the abused child.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.2.1 Appointment of school social workers

(1) Rationale

Schools are in a vital position to detect children who are abused, yet despite their concern they are unable, due to insufficient time, inexperience, lack of training and lack of standardized procedures for reporting and referral, to properly identify or manage cases of child abuse. It is for this reason, that the appointment of school social workers is recommended to overcome these shortcomings. The training of the social worker, and the experience gained in the sphere of child and family welfare, will better equip them for the task of identification and management of child abuse among school children. Cases of abuse which are detected, can then receive the necessary services, often lengthy, which the situation demands, and which the teacher is often unable to provide. School social workers would fulfil the important task of liaising with the pupils, parents, teachers and welfare services.

It was recommended by Le Roux (1987 : 402-407) that a four year degree course B.A. (Ed) (SSW) be instituted to train school social workers. This degree must include four years of social work training as well as courses in Pedagogics, Psychology, Sociology and School Guidance and Counselling. This degree will allow entrance to both a M.A.

degree in Social Work or B.Ed. degree. The aim is to enable a suitably qualified school social worker at a school to be promoted to a senior position within the structure of a school and/or education department.

No teacher or principal at a present regular educational institution is suitably qualified or has statutory power to institute such actions. There is a dire need for such a person within the school environment.

The social worker could play a vital role with regard to curbing child abuse. In the first place the school social worker will be suitably qualified to identify and work with the abused child and his parents. Secondly the school social worker will also have the statutory power to effect the canalising of the abused child to a clinic or special school. At the same time the school social worker will have the required knowledge and statutory backing to assist, and work with, the SAP, welfare organisations and voluntary support organisations. Thirdly, the school social worker will be an absolute necessity whenever an abused child is returned from a special school or institution back to mainstream education.

(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are :

- * that school social workers should be trained and made available to all schools, i.e. the school social worker should form part of the staff structure of every school;
- * the training of the school social workers should qualify them as teachers as well as social workers within the school environment, i.e. registration with both the Teachers Council as well as the Council for Social Work;
- * the following four-year degree course B.A. (Ed) (SSW) for the training of school social workers at universities within the RSA is recommended:

-B.A.(Ed) (SSW)

First Year

Social Work 1

Pedagogics 1

Psychology 1

Sociology 1

Second Year

Social Work 11

School Social Work 1

Pedagogics 11

Psychology 11

Third Year

Social Work 111

Pedagogics 111

School Social Work 11

Fourth Year

Social Work IV

School Social Work 111

Method Of School Guidance and Counselling

- * the school social worker should be able to be promoted within the educational structure of an education department to any position for which he may qualify.

5.2.2 Training of teachers

(1) Rationale

The school staff have a major responsibility with regard to the identification, referral and prevention of child abuse and neglect. All professionals associated with education require a knowledge of abuse and neglect, as well as a clear set of guidelines and procedures for the effective management thereof.

Teachers have an important role to play in child abuse cases. They have a role to play in the detection and reporting of abuse; in working within a multi-agency teamwork environment; in contributing to the ongoing support and monitoring of the abused child; in preparing children to cope with potentially abusing environments.

(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are :

- * that there should be a staff training programme with regard to the identification, intervention and counselling of cases of abuse, what support services are available, training with regard to the rehabilitation of the abuser, abused and the whole family;
- * that compulsory courses should be introduced in schools and tertiary institutions, for professionals, parents and students alike, and should offer courses on sex education, child-rearing, parenting and preparation for adulthood;
- * that special advisers specifically trained in the field of child abuse should be available to advise and guide all professionals experiencing problems relating to child abuse;

- * that there should be three levels of training for teachers:
 - all principals and members of his management team should undergo awareness training in child abuse and should be thoroughly briefed in local authority procedures. This should include sessions on establishing efficient school strategies for dealing with child abuse cases and on setting up review procedures so that schools can maintain the effectiveness of those strategies;
 - all teachers should undergo awareness training in child abuse issues;
 - specialist teachers, at least two from each school, should receive such training as is needed to allow them effectively to act as the link between the school and other professional groups. Much of this training should be done in an inter-professional environment. This training should be validated and certificated and no teacher should be given this specialist role until they have undergone the appropriate training.
- * that schools should be required to keep accurate records of all incidents of child abuse reported through the school. These should be factual reports stating the circumstances leading to the report and should be updated to include a record of actions subsequently taken;
- * that schools should be required to make enquiries, where children are transferred to their school, of the social services department and schools' psychological service in the area from which the family has moved;
- * that education welfare officers should work closely with schools to establish the background of students moving into their area;

- * that schools should be required, where an abused child moves from their care, to make every effort to pass on records to the receiving school and the receiving social services department;
- * that the local authority should ensure that the standing instructions to principals have been effectively carried out;
- * that case conferences involving children of school age should always include a teacher from each school attended by a child in the family;
- * that teachers should be acknowledged as an important element in the supportive network and should be kept thoroughly informed of the progress of the action plan;
- * that specialist units offering support and therapy for abused children and their families should keep the child's school informed as to the nature and progress of the therapy.

5.2.3 Educational programmes

(1) Rationale

The researcher is of the opinion that educational programmes directed at school children, parents, parents-to-be and professionals, are essential to the effective management of child abuse. This point of view is shared by teachers, legal professionals, doctors and social workers.

The implementation of educational programmes is a long-term preventive strategy which is aimed at the primary prevention of child abuse, that is, before it occurs and at every segment of the community. The poorer section of the community in particular must be reached, as it is generally known that they have larger families, which inevitably strain their financial as well as coping resources.

Premature children, unwanted children, illegitimate children, are frequently at risk of abuse. Following on this, it seems logical to assume, that if the families in which an unwanted pregnancy results can be identified, steps can be taken long before the child is born, to ensure that it is guaranteed the right to live, and grow and develop normally and healthily into a valued and responsible citizen. Doctors and nurses are in an ideal position to observe how parents react before and after the birth.

The need exists for the institution of various educational programmes which prepare parents not only for the birth of the child, but also provide education on coping skills with regard to children, on interaction, as well as on the resources available to help parents and their children. Although such programmes should be made available to all parents, special attention should be paid to first time parents, teenage parents, single parents and those parents judged to be likely to abuse their children.

It is generally acknowledged that schools play a vital part in the lives of all children. After the family, the school is the next most important institution in the lives of children, and shares with parents the tasks of socialization, education and acculturation of the children in their care.

Teachers in daily contact with children, are in the best position to detect abuse, not only obvious physical abuse, but also the other more subtle forms of abuse which may manifest themselves in withdrawal, aggression, uncontrollability, truancy and low academic achievement.

The function of the school is to impart knowledge. Ideally it should impart not only academic knowledge, but also a knowledge of life in general to enable children to grow mentally and physically and achieve their full potential in any chosen sphere. On leaving the sheltered domain of the school, children should ideally have an all-round education to enable them to cope more competently with the sociological and psychological implications of an increasingly "hi-tech" society. Unfortunately such goals are not always met, and the tendency seems to be to concentrate on the cognitive aspects of development, at the expense of the other, equally important aspects.

Indian children in general, lead more sheltered lives. Discussions on sex, contraception, boyfriends, girlfriends, family violence, etc. are rare. It is hoped that children will learn by example rather than through discourse. It is for this reason that they be exposed to broader issues, moral, social and political, as well as be given instruction on interpersonal behaviours, coping skills, communication skills, etc. to enable them to manage successfully on leaving the sheltered domain of school and family.

(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are :

- * that the psycho-social screening of would-be parents, should be a part of the service provided by private doctors, who if they have reason to suspect that abuse might occur, should liaise with the welfare authorities, or community health nurses;
- * that there should be a pre and post-natal education for parents. Such programmes should be implemented in ante-natal classes, or can be made available in leaflet form to be handed to every mother ante-natally and post-natally, at hospitals, surgeries and baby clinics;
- * that psycho-education, that is, the teaching of social science information, be included as part of the school curriculum;
- * that a human relations programme be implemented in schools. This programme covers aspects relating to interpersonal relations, communication, family life, values and moral education;
- * that teachers be encouraged to attend workshops on child abuse;
- * that a programme to meet the varied needs of children should be part of every school curriculum, and can go a long way towards breaking the

cycle of abuse. The programme should run from kindergarten, in fact throughout the school period. It entails teaching children to talk, listen and express themselves. It teaches tolerance, responsibility, respecting the views of others, awareness of inter-relationships, decision making, career options, etc.;

- * that children should be encouraged to express themselves freely, and to discuss their fears, uncertainties and needs.

5.2.4 Further research

(1) Rationale

In order for the management of child abuse to be truly effective, prevention must be undertaken on all levels, that is, on the individual level, familial level, social and cultural levels with a wide range of preventive programmes which are aimed at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of prevention.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendation is :

- * that ongoing research be conducted in the area of child abuse. Such research should operate within a multi-disciplinary paradigm to facilitate a holistic approach to prevention and intervention. One of the problems facing research is that of funding. Another problem is that of authority to implement programmes of action, based on the research. A solution to both these problems is to have all research on child abuse fall under the jurisdiction of the Minister of the Department of National Health and Population Development. Consequently, the said Minister would be able to embark on a holistic approach to issues of child abuse.

5.3 FINAL REMARK

It is hoped that this study will be of value particularly to the various Educational, Health and Welfare Departments with regard to meeting the needs of abused children and their parents. It is also hoped that the study will contribute towards brightening the perspective future of abused children.

LIST OF SOURCES

ALEXANDER, H. 1972. Helping the battered child and his family. Philadelphia : Lippincott.

AMERICAN HUMANE ASSOCIATION. 1978. Child abuse. New York : AMX Press.

BECARRA, R.M. 1979. Defining child abuse. London : Macmillan.

BENSEL, R.W. 1984. Assessing the dynamics of child neglect and abuse. Juvenile and Family Court Journal, 4(2) : 36.

BIBLE.1975. The new English. Oxford : University Press.

BISHOP, J. 1975. Physical abuse of children as a public health problem. Public Health Review, 4(1) : 183-200.

BLIGNAUT, C.J. 1990. A South African Police perspective on streetchildren. Conference on an educational perspective on streetchildren at the University of Zululand (Umlazi Campus) on 1990-09-07.

BRANDON, S. 1977. The psychiatric report in cases of non-accidental injury. The Challenge of Child Abuse, 6(1) : 46-55.

BUITENDIJK, F.J.J. 1966. Algemene theorie der menselijke houding en beweging. Utrecht : Aula.

CAFFO, E. et al. 1982. Prevention of child abuse and neglect. Child Abuse and Neglect, 6(4) : 457.

CALAM, R. & FRANCH, C. 1987. Child abuse and its consequences. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

- CALL, J.D. 1984. Sources of hostility within the parent. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(2): 186.
- CAMERON, J. 1973. Role of the child protective organisation. Paediatrics, 51(4) : 692-697.
- CARVER, V. 1980. Child abuse : a study text. London : The Open University Press.
- CANTWELL, H. 1980 Child neglect. Chicago : University of Chicago Press.
- CARTER, R. 1977. The challenge of child abuse. London : Academic Press.
- CEMANE, K.B. 1990. The Street-child phenomenon. Social Work Practice, 1 :2-5.
- CEMANE, K.B. 1984. The problem of the pedagogic relationship between the educator and the educand in Black urban areas. KwaDlangezwa : Unizulu. (M.Ed. dissertation)
- CHETTY, V.R. 1986. An investigation into the nature and extent of child abuse among the Indian population of the Durban municipal area. Durban : UDW. (M.Ed. dissertation)
- CLIFTON, J. 1982. Violence in the family. Scotland : HMS.
- CLOETE, M.G.T et al. 1980. Criminology III : Guide 2. Pretoria: Unisa.
- COHEN, F.S. & GERBER, J. 1982. A study of the relationship between child abuse and drug addiction in 178 patients. Child Abuse and Neglect, 6(4) : 1-10.
- COOK, J.V. 1980. Commission and omission. Vancouver : Butterworth.

COOK, J.V. & BOWLES, R.T. 1980. Child abuse : commission and omission. Vancouver : Butterworth.

COOPER, C. 1977. Preparing the paediatricians evidence in care proceedings. Child Abuse-Prediction, Prevention and Follow-up, 7(2) : 157-160.

COOPERSMITH, S. 1967. The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco : Freeman Publishers.

COURT, J. & OKELL, C. 1982. Violence in the family. Edinburgh : HMS.

CRITTENDEN, P.M. 1984. Sibling interaction : evidence of generational effect in maltreating infants. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(4) : 433.

CUSINS, P. 1976. The problems of the general practitioner. Paper delivered at the symposium on the battered child at the Transvaal Memorial Hospital on 1976-06-14.

DE LANGE, J.P. 1981. Provision of education in the RSA : Report of the main committee of the HSRC investigation into education. Pretoria : HSRC.

DELNERO, H. et al. 1972. Helping the battered child and his family. Philadelphia : Lippincott.

DE NUYSSCHEN, D.J. 1990. Interview with Reverend de Nuysschen of "The Ark" in Durban on 7 September 1990 regarding support structures made available for the streetchild by "The Ark" as well as church involvement in general.

DEPARTMENT OF CONSTITUTIONAL Development and Planning. 1985. Report on an investigation into the present welfare policy in the Republic of South Africa. Pretoria : Government Printer.

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH Services and Welfare : Administration House

of Assembly. 1986. Annual Report. Pretoria : Government Printer.

DE VOS, A.S. 1991. Visiting lecturer address on an educational perspective on child abuse at the University of Zululand (Umlazi Campus) on 1991-09-25.

DREYER, H.J. 1980. Adolescence in a changing society. Pretoria: Academica.

DU PLOOY, J.L., GRIESSEL, G.A.J. & OBERHOLZER, M.O. 1982. Fundamental pedagogics for advanced students. Pretoria : HAUM.

DU PLOOY, J.L. & KILIAN, C.J.G. 1981. Introduction to fundamental pedagogics. Pretoria : HAUM.

EVANS, A.L. 1984. Psychopathology of the physically abusing parent. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(4) : 411.

FALLER, K.C. 1981. Social work with abused and neglected children. New York : Free Press.

FONTANA, V.J. 1968. Somewhere a child is crying. New York : Macmillan.

FONTANA, V.J. 1978. The diagnosis of the maltreatment syndrome in children. Paediatrics, 51(4) : 780-782.

FRAIBERG, G. 1984. Child abuse and neglect, 8(2) : 204-215.

FRANKLIN, A.W. 1977. The challenge of child abuse. London : Academic Press.

FURLONG, V.J. 1985. The deviant pupil : sociological perspectives. Philadelphia : Open University Press.

GABINET, L. 1983. Child abuse treatment failures reveal need for redefinition of the problems. Child Abuse and Neglect, 7(4) : 399.

GALAMBOS, N.L. & DIXON, R.A. 1984. Adolescent abuse and the development of personal sense of control. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(3) : 285-291.

GALDSTON, R. 1965. Observations on children who have been physically abused and their parents. American Journal of Psychiatry, 122(1) : 440-443.

GARBARINO, J. 1977. The human ecology of child maltreatment. A conceptual model for research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 39(1) : 721-737.

GELLES, R. 1975. Violence at home. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 45(3) : 329.

GELLES, R. 1976. Demythologizing child abuse. Family Co-ordinator, 25 (1) : 135-141.

GELLES, R. 1978. Violence and the family. Chichester : Wiley.

GIL, D.G. 1968. The battered child. Chicago : University of Chicago Press.

GIL, D.G. 1971. Violence against children. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33(4): 637.

GIL, D.G. 1973. Incidence of child abuse. Chicago : University of Chicago Press.

GIL, D.G. 1975. Unravelling child abuse. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 45(3): 347.

GIL, D.G. 1979. Child abuse and violence. New York : AMX Press.

GIOVANNONI, J.M. 1971. Parental mistreatment : perpetrators and victims. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 19(7) : 649.

GIOVANNONI, J.M. & BECARRA, R.M. 1979. Defining child abuse. London : Macmillan.

GOLDSTEIN, J., FREUD, A. & SOLNIT, A. 1973. Beyond the best interests of the child. New York : Macmillan.

GOLDSTEIN, J. et al. 1983. Shared parenting : child abuse and neglect. Social Work, 7(4) : 405.

GOODE, W. 1971. Contemporary social problems. New York : Macmillan.

GOODE, W. 1982. Violence in the family. Edinburgh : HMS.

GUNTER, C.F.G. 1974. Aspects of educational theory. Stellenbosch : University Publishers.

GREEN, A.H., GAINES, R.W. & SANDGRUND, A. 1974. Child abuse : pathological syndrome of family interaction. American Journal of Psychiatry, 131(15) : 882.

HAFFEJEE, I.E. 1991. Sexual abuse of Indian children in South Africa. Child Abuse and Neglect, 15(1) : 147-151.

HALLETT, C. & STEVENSON, O. 1980. Child abuse : aspects of inter-professional co-operation. London : Academic Press.

HALPERIN, M. 1979. Helping maltreated children. St. Louis : Mosley.

HELPER, R.E. 1973. The etiology of child abuse. Symposium on Child Abuse at New York University on 1973-07-16.

HELPER, R.E. 1980. Child abuse. Chicago : University of Chicago Press.

HELPER, R.E. & KEMPE, C.H. 1968. The battered child. Chicago : University of Chicago Press.

HELPER, R.E. & KEMPE, C.H. 1976. Child abuse and neglect : the family and the community. Cambridge : Cambridge Press.

HELLER, A. 1979. A theory of feelings. Assen : Van Gorcum.

HERMAN, M & THEART, C. 1988. Kindersmishandeling. The Social Work Practitioner, 1(2) : 2-7.

HICKSON, J. & GAYDON, V. 1989. Counselling in South Africa: the challenge of apartheid. "Twilight Children": the Street Children of Johannesburg. Journal of Multi-cultural Counselling and Development, (17)2 : 85-94.

HOLMES, S.A. et al. 1975. Working with the parent in child abuse cases. Social Casework, 56(1) : 3-12.

HOWZE, D.C. & KOTCH, J.B. 1984. Disentangling life events, stress and social support. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(4) : 404.

IKEDA, Y. 1982. A short introduction to child abuse in Japan. Child Abuse and Neglect, 6(4) : 487.

INVESTIGATION into education. 1981. Report for the work committee : Education for children with special educational needs. Pretoria : HSRC.

IVERSON, J.T. & SEGAL, M. 1990. Child abuse and neglect. New York : Garland Publishers.

JOBLING, M. 1978. Child abuse : a study text. London : The Open University Press.

JONES, C.O. 1977. The challenge of child abuse. London : Academic Press.

JONES. C.O. 1982. Violence in the family. Edinburgh : HMS.

JOUBERT, C.J. 1978? B.Ed. notes. Pretoria : Universiteit van Pretoria.

JOYNES, E. 1973. Child abuse : the role of the physician and the hospital. Paediatrics Journal, 51(4) : 163-170.

JUSTICE, B. & JUSTICE, R. 1976. The abusing family. New York : Human Sciences Press.

KADUSHIN, A. & MARTIN, J.A. 1981. Child abuse : an interactional event. New York : University Press.

KAUFMAN, I. 1978. Juvenile delinquency. New Jersey : Prentice Hall.

KELLERMAN, F. 1979. Child battering. Pretoria : Government Printer.

KELLMER PRINGLE, M. 1980. The needs of children. London : Hutchinson.

KELLY, F. 1973. Role of the courts. Paediatrics, 51(4) : 796.

KEMPE, C.H. et al. 1962. Child abuse : commission and omission. Toronto : Butterworth.

KEMPE, C.H. & HELFER, R. 1972. Helping the battered child and his family. Philadelphia : Lippincott.

KEMPE, R.S. & KEMPE C.H. 1978. Child abuse : the developing child. Cambridge: Harvard Press.

KEMPE, C.H. & HELFER, R.C. 1980. The battered child. Chicago : University of Chicago Press.

KEMPE, C.H. 1976. Studies in child abuse. Social Service Quarterly, 50(1) : 175.

KEMPE, R.S., CUTLER, C. & DEAN, J. 1980. The battered child. Chicago : University of Chicago Press.

KEMPE, R.S. & KEMPE, C.H. 1982. Prevention of child abuse and neglect through early diagnosis of serious disturbances in the mother child relationship. Child Abuse and Neglect, 6(4) : 383- 384.

KIDD, A.J. & RIVOIRE, J.L. 1966. Perceptual development in children. London: University of London.

KILIAN, C.J.G. & VILJOEN, T.A. 1974. Fundamental pedagogics and fundamental structures. Durban : Butterworths.

KOTZE, J.M.A. 1972. Die ortopedagogiese taak van die gewone skool. Pedagogiek Joernaal, 6(1) : 14-18.

KRATCOSKI, P.C. 1979. Juvenile delinquency. New Jersey : Prentice Hall.

KRESEL, J. & LOVEJOY, F. 1981. Child abuse and neglect. Toronto : Wiley.

KRIGE, C. 1977. Statistics on child abuse published by the Social Welfare and Pensions. Pretoria : Government Printer.

LALLY, R.J. 1984. Three views of child neglect. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(2) : 248.

LANDMAN, W.A. & ROOS, S.G. 1973. Fundamentele pedagogiek en die opvoedingswerklikheid. Durban: Butterworths.

LANDMAN, W.A. et al. 1982. Fundamental pedagogics. Johannesburg : Juta.

LANGEVELD, M.J. 1944. Beknopte theoretische pedagogiek. Groningen : Wolters-Noordhoff.

LE ROUX, J. 1987. n Sosiopedagogiese perspektief op skoolmaatskaplike werk as n integrale onderwysondersteunde hulpstelsel binne die blanke onderwysbestel van die RSA. Port Elizabeth : UPE. (D.Ed. - proefskrif)

LERSCH, P. 1970. Algemene psychologie. Utrecht-Antwerpen : Het Spectrum N V.

LOENING, W.E.K. 1988. The medical perspective of child abuse. A South African Journal, 2(1) : 21-25.

LUBBERS, R. 1971. Voortgang en nieuw begin in die opvoeding. Gent : Van Gorcum.

LUKIANOWICZ, N. 1971. Battered children. Journal of Clinical Psychiatry, 4(1) : 257-280.

LUPTON, G. 1977. Child abuse : prediction, prevention and follow-up. Edinburgh : Livingstone.

LUTHULI, P.C. 1982. The philosophical foundations of black education of South Africa. Pretoria: Butterworth.

LYSTAD, M.H. 1975. Violence at home. A review of the literature. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 45(3) : 328- 345.

MAHER, P. 1988. Child abuse. London : Basil Blackwell.

MAHMOOD, T. 1977. Family violence. Vancouver : Butterworth.

MAIN, M. & GOLDWYN, R. 1984. Predicting rejection of her infant from mothers representation of her own experience. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(2) : 204-215.

MAREE, P.J. 1990. Streetchildren : the present situation in the RSA and possible reasons for this phenomenon. Conference on an educational perspective on streetchildren at the University of Zululand (Umlazi Campus) on 1990-09-07.

MARTIN, H. 1976. The abused child. Massachusetts : Ballinger.

MARTIN, H. 1981. Child abuse and neglect. Vancouver : Wiley.

MARTIN, H. & BEEZLEY, P. 1977. Personality of the abused child. Massachusetts: Ballinger.

MARTIN, H. & KEMPE, C.H. 1976. The battered child. Chicago : University Press.

MBANJWA, M. 1990. Certain available services for streetchildren. Conference on an educational perspective on streetchildren at the University of Zululand on 1990-09-07.

McKAY, P.M. 1983. An evaluation of the effectiveness of the non-accidental injury committee at Addington Hospital. Durban : UDW. (M.Ed. dissertation)

McKENDRICK, B.W. 1987. Introduction to social work in South Africa. Pinetown : Owen Burgess.

McKENDRICK, B.W. & DUDAS, E. 1987. Social welfare in Africa. London : Croom Helm.

MERRILL, E.J. 1983. Typology for parents of abused children. Child Abuse and Neglect, 7(4) : 444.

- MULFORD, R.M. & COHEN. M.I. 1978. Juvenile delinquency : concepts and controls. New Jersey : Prentice Hall.
- MULLER-ECKHARD, H. 1966. Kinderen vragen begrip. Utrecht- Antwerpen : Prisma-Boeken.
- NAKASHIMA, I. & ZAKUS, G. 1977. Incest : review and clinical experience. Vancouver : Butterworth.
- NEL, A. 1988. Psychopedagogics. KwaDlangezwa : Department of Educational Psychology (Unizulu).
- NEL, A. 1977. Responsibility: An educational perspective (Part 1). Pretoria: H.S.R.C.
- NEL, A. & URBANI, G. 1990. An introduction to pychopedagogics. Durban : Rapid Results.
- NEL, B.F. 1974. Fundamental orientation in psychological pedagogics. Stellenbosch: University Publishers.
- NEL, B.F., SONNEKUS, M.C.H., GARBERS, J.G. 1965. Grondslae van die psigologie: 'n Inleidende analise van die verhouding tussen mens en wereld. Stellenbosch : Universiteitsuitgewers.
- NGCAMBU, C.N. 1977. Aspects of child abuse applicable to Black families. Child Abuse Journal, 7(1) : 265-269.
- OATES, R.K. 1984. Neglected Fathers : limitations in diagnostic and treatment resources for violent men. Child abuse and neglect, 8(4) : 390.
- O'DRISCOLL, M. 1976. Child abuse. Paper delivered at the Symposium on the battered child at the Transvaal Memorial Hospital on 1976-06-28.

OSTBLOOM, N. & CRASE, S. 1980. A model for conceptualising child abuse causation and intervention. Social Casework, 61(3) : 164 - 172.

OTTO, M. & SMITH, D. 1980. Child abuse. Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 6(4) : 116-122.

PARKE, R. 1980. Socialisation into child abuse. Vancouver : Butterworth.

PAULSON, M. & CHALEFF, A. 1972. Parent surrogate roles. Child Development, 43(2) : 27-36.

PAWL, J.H. 1984. Strategies of intervention. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(2) : 264.

PELTON, L. 1980. Child abuse and neglect : the myth of classlessness. Toronto : Butterworth.

PELTON, L. 1978. Child Abuse. Toronto : Butterworth.

PERQUIN, N. 1961. Het pedagogische gesprek. Hilversum : Brand.

PERQUIN, N. 1965. Pedagogiek. Roermond : J.J. Romen en Zonen.

PIAGET, J. & INHELDER, B. 1966. Mental imagery in the child. London: Routledge.

PIAGET, J. & INHELDER, B. 1969. The psychology of the child. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

PICKETT, J. & MATON, A. 1978. Protective casework and child abuse. Social Work Today, 9(28) : 10-18.

POLAKOW, R. & PEABODY, D. 1975. Behavioural treatment of child abuse. Offender Therapy Journal, 19(1) : 100-103.

POLICANSKY, S. 1977. Social and cultural variables relating to families of known abused white children. Child Abuse Journal, 7(2) : 365-378.

POLICANSKY, S., BARRY, M. & DUBB, B. 1977. Child abuse in the white community. Child Abuse Journal, 7(3) : 377.

POLLOCK, C. & STEELE, B. 1982. Characteristics of abusive parents. Child Abuse and Neglect, 6(3) : 286.

PRETORIUS, J.W.M. 1979. Opvoeding, samelewing, jeug : n sosiopedagogiese leerboek. Pretoria : Van Schaik.

PRETORIUS, J.W.M. 1972. Kinderlike belewing. Johannesburg : Perskor.

PRINGLE, M. 1980. The needs of children. London : Academic Press.

PRODGERS, A. 1984. Psychopathology of the physical abusing parent. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(4) : 411.

RAMPHAL, R. 1985. Marital conflict among Hindus in the Durban metropolitan area. Durban : UDW. (Ph.D. thesis)

RENVOIZE, J. 1975. Children in danger : causes and prevention of baby battering. Canada : Butterworth.

RICHARDS, M. 1977. The challenge of child abuse. London : Academic Press.

RIP, C.M. 1978. Contemporary Social Pathology. Pretoria : Academica.

ROBERTSON, B. & HENDRICKS, J. 1977. Child abuse in the Coloured population of the Western Cape. Child Abuse Journal, 7(4) : 224-233.

ROKEACH, M. 1973. The nature of human values. New York : The Free Press.

ROSSOUW, H.W. 1990. Wetenskapsbeoefening as kultuuraktiwiteit. Tydskrif vir Geesteswetenskappe, 30(1) : 54-65.

ROTH, F. 1975. Treatment of child abuse. Child Welfare Journal, 54(1) : 268-273.

RUPERTI, R.M. 1976. The education system in Southern Africa. Pretoria : Van Schaik.

SCHARF, W., POWELL, M. & THOMAS, E. 1986. Growing up in a divided society. Johannesburg : Raven Press.

SCHMIDT, W.H.O. 1973. Child development. New York : Harper & Row.

SCHMITT, B. 1981. Child abuse and neglect. Toronto : Wiley.

SIBERT, J. 1981. Child abuse. Toronto : Wiley.

SMITH, S.M. 1975. The battered child syndrome. London : Butterworth.

SMITH, S.M. & HANSON, R. 1974. Child abuse : commission and omission. Vancouver : Butterworth.

SONNEKUS, M.C.H. & FERREIRA, G.V. 1979. Die psigiese lewe van die kind-in-opvoeding : 'n handleiding in die psigopedagogiek. Stellenbosch: Universiteitsuitgewers.

SONNEKUS, M.C.H. 1985. Learning : a psychopedagogic perspective. Stellenbosch: University Publishers.

SONNEKUS, M.C.H. 1973. Psigopedagogiek : 'n Inleidende oriëntering. Stellenbosch: Universiteitsuitgewers.

SONNEKUS, M.C.H. 1974. The learning child. Johannesburg : McGraw-Hill.

SONNEKUS, M.C.H. 1976. Ouer en kind. Johannesburg : Perskor.

SONNEKUS, M.C.H. 1977 The teacher, the lesson and the child. Stellenbosch: University Publishers.

SPINETTA, J.J. & RIGLER, D. 1972. The child-abusing parent. Psychological Bulletin, 77(4) : 296-304.

STARKE, H. 1988. Residential care for the streetchild. The Child Care Worker, 6(9) : 7-9.

STEELE, B. & POLLOCK, C. 1968. The battered child. Chicago : University of Chicago Press.

STEELE, B. & POLLOCK, C. 1984. Physical abusing parent. Child Abuse and Neglect, 8(4) : 410.

STOKER, H.G. 1967. Oorsprong en rigting: deel 1. Kaapstad: Tafelberguitgewers.

STRAUS, E. 1963. The primary world of senses. New York: The Free Press of Glenco.

STRAUSS, S.A. 1974. Doctor, patient and the law. Talk given at the Golden Jubilee Conference at the Johannesburg Child Welfare Society on 1974-07-12.

STRAUSS, S.A. 1984. The role of the law in the control and prevention of child abuse. Child Abuse - A Serious Problem. Talk given at the South African National Conference on 1984-09-14.

SWART, J. 1987. Streetwise. Africa Insight, 17(4) : 5-8.

TER HORST, W. 1980. Algemene orthopedagogiek. Kampen : Uitgeversmij H Kok.

TER HORST, W. 1973. Proeve van een orthopedagogisch teorie - concept. Kampen: Uitgeversmij H Kok.

TERMINOLOGY COMMITTEE for Social Work. 1984. Bilingual defining social work dictionary. Pretoria : Government Printer.

THATCHER, V.S. 1971. The new Webster encyclopaedia dictionary of the English language. Chicago : Consolidated Book Publishers.

THE ABUSE of Dependence-producing Substances and Rehabilitation Act No. 41 of 1971. Pretoria : Government Printer.

THE CHILD Care Act No. 74 of 1983. Pretoria : Government Printer

THE CHILDREN'S Status Act No. 82 of 1987. Pretoria : Government Printer.

TROJANOWICZ, R.C. 1978. Juvenile delinquency, concepts and controls. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

URBANI, G. 1981. Posoms krywings, opleiding en voorsiening van professionele personeel betrokke by die onderwys en hulpverlening aan kinders met spesiale onderwysbehoeftes. Onderzoek na die onderwys. Werkkomitee : Onderwys vir kinders met spesiale onderwysbehoeftes. Pretoria : R.G.N.

URBANI, G. 1982. The problems surrounding children with genetic impairments. Pretoria : H.S.R.C.

URBANI, G. 1990. Die leefwêreld van die nuwe onderwyser. Nou-blad, 21(1) : 13-15.

VAN DER STOEP, F. & LOUW, W.J. 1984. Didactics. Pretoria : Academia.

VAN DER STOEP, F. 1972a. Didakiese grondvorme. Pretoria : Academia.

VAN NIEKERK, P.A. 1990. An educational perspective on streetchildren. Conference on an educational perspective on streetchildren at the University of Zululand (Umlazi Campus) on 1990-09-07.

VAN NIEKERK, P.A. 1987. The teacher and the child in educational distress. Stellenbosch : University Publishers.

VAN NIEKERK, P.A. 1978. Ortopedagogiese diagnostiek. Stellenbosch : Universiteittuitgewers.

VAN RENSBURG, C.J.J. & LANDMAN, W.A. 1984. Notes on fundamental pedagogic concepts - an introductory orientation. Pretoria : N.G. Kerkboekhandel.

VAN SCHALKWYK, O.J. 1988. The education system - theory and practice. Alkantrand : Alkanto Publishers.

VAN WYK, J.H. & VAN DER WALT, J.L. 1979. Strominge in die opvoedingsteorie. Durban : Butterworths.

VAN WYK, M. 1989. Die beroepsveld van die maatskaplike werker. Potchefstroom: P.U. vir CHO. (M.Ed. verhandeling)

VELIDA, P. 1976. The role of the health visitor. Symposium on the battered child at Transvaal Memorial Hospital on 1976-06-14.

VESTERDAL, J. 1977. Family Violence. Toronto : Butterworth.

- VOLPE, R. 1981. The development and evaluation of a training programme for school based professionals dealing with child abuse. Child Abuse and Neglect, 5(1) : 103.
- VREY, J.D. 1984. The self-actualising educand. Pretoria : Unisa.
- VYGOTSKY, L.S. 1962. Thought and language. New York: John Wiley.
- WALTERS, D.R. 1975. Physical and sexual abuse of children. Bloomington : Indiana University Press.
- WELLS, S. 1981. A model of therapy with abusive and neglectful families. Social Work, 26(2) : 113-117.
- WINSHIP, W.S. 1988. The medical perspective of child abuse. A South African Journal, 2(1) : 25-30.
- WOLFGANG, M.E. & FERRACUTI, F. 1982. A review of select literature of spousal violence. Victimology : An International Journal, 2(3) : 592.
- YOUNG, L. 1964. Wednesdays children : a study of neglect and abuse. London : McGraw-Hill.
- YOUNG, L. 1964. Familial patterns of parents who abuse their children. Smith College Studies in Social Work, 35(1) : 13
- YONGE, G.D. et al. 1987. The adult - child relationship and learning : a psychopedagogical perspective. Pedagogic Journal, 8(1) : 143-160.
- ZALBA, S. 1975. Violence at home. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 45(3) : 328.
- ZALBA, S. 1983. Typology for parents of abused children. Child Abuse and Neglect, 7(4) : 444.