FAMILY STRUCTURE, ADOLESCENT STRESS AND COPING

JABULANI DENNIS THWALA

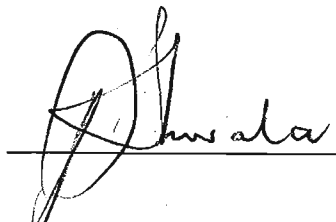# FAMILY STRUCTURE, ADOLESCENT STRESS AND COPING

Jabulani Dennis Thwala

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Declaration

This thesis was undertaken in the Department of Psychology, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg and unless otherwise stated in the text, represents the author's own work.

This thesis has not been submitted to any other university.

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Jabulani   Dennis   Thwala

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ABSTRACT

Due to the rapid onset of Westernization, there is a remarkable change in the life styles and the family structure of the black South African population in favour of smaller and economically manageable families. There is also an increase in political as well as family violence in black communities. Children, adolescents and young adults are subject to these rapid changes. Family structures and life styles are also affected by these changes. The present study seeks to investigate the relationship between family structures and styles of coping with stressful life events. Hypotheses concerning this relationship are that adolescents from nuclear and extended family structures differ in handling stressful life events. Questions relating to family relations, stressful life events and ways of coping were administered to 100 standard 9 and 10 students, of which 80 were females and 20 were males. The level of stress was assessed by Moos' "Family Environment Scale" and coping efforts were assessed by Folkman and Lazarus's "Ways of Coping Checklist". All these instruments were translated into Zulu to avoid second language problems. A statistical analysis of the results was undertaken. The results did not show significant differences between coping styles of adolescent members of the two family structures. There were, however, some overlaps between the nuclear and the extended family structures concerning the way stressful life events were perceived.

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CHAPTER ONE
AIM OF THE STUDY AND INTRODUCTION
1.1 <u>Aim of the study</u>

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether there are significant differences between adolescents from nuclear and extended Black families with regard to coping with stress.

1.2 <u>Introduction</u>
The task of relating family constellation, stress, coping, and adaptation to that of its individual members is complex (Millon, Green & Meagher, 1982). It may be that characteristic features of a family may maintain or exacerbate the unsuccessful adaptation of a given member. One of the essential functions of the family is the socialization of its members from early infancy to adulthood (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990; Nye Berardo, 1973). It is assumed that through the process of socialization family members can be shaped and prepared for stressful life events. However, the present study acknowledges the psychological uniqueness of every human being and the uniqueness of the physical environment in which the family and its individual members find itself (McCubbin & Figley 1983; Michelson, 1991; Schwartz, 1987; Snyder & Ford, 1987).

Studies conducted by Schwartz (1987), Michelson (1991), Vituli & Jones (1991) found that individuals who were exposed to traumatic situations were prone to post traumatic stress disorder and other kinds of psychological disorders. These studies have motivated the present study due to the nature of subjects used in them. For example, Schwartz (1987) used undergraduate (second and third year) Psychology students from the University of Natal, in Pietermaritzburg. The ages of these subjects were from 19

to 38 years of age. On the other hand, Michelson (1991) used Zulu-speaking displacees from two displacee camps in Edendale area, aged between 14 and 81 years. There were 56 youth (age 14-20) and 39 adults (over 20-81). Although the latter study used older subjects as well, there were reasonable overlaps in terms of culture and age of the subjects which were used in the present study. The present study used black high school students between 15 and 25 years of age from the Vulindlela region which is a few kilometres from Edendale. Schwartz (1987) looked at physical and psychological effects of stress in relation to general health and well being, the role of the community, and social support as possible mediator and moderators of stress. His study confirmed that the higher the life stress, the lower the life satisfaction experienced (Rutter, 1981; Neufeld, 1982).

The present study also concentrates on individuals who were exposed to some kind of violence. Geographically, the present study concentrated on the subjects outside the township.

Although this study is influenced by the works of Schwartz (1987) and Michelson (1991), it does not in any way intend to replicate their results because the family structure as a variable was not included in their works. Family environment was also not explored as a contributory factor towards determining how individuals cope with stressful life situations. Previous research looked at how couples cope with stressful life events (Falicov, 1988). In such studies children were not considered as part of the family system which may be functional or dysfunctional as a result of their roles. Few studies have focused on the family as it develops over time. Falicov (1988) states that most of the problems individuals have either begin or end up in the family. As a result, families today are encountering endless challenges and frustrations that both threaten

their current structures and strain their available resources. Literature tends to show that family adjustment to stressors depends in large part on the family system's resources (Falicov, 1988).

To complicate their problems, society pays only lip service to the importance of families and comes to their rescue only when they are under intense "stress" and are unable to cope effectively (Falicov, 1988). Normal families have not been the focus of research in their own right. Little has been done on studying how family types differ, what families have as strengths, the kinds of stresses they encounter, and how they cope with stress. The family structures proposed by sociologists are more ideal and prevalent among the black South Africans found in rural as well as in urban areas. These family structures informed the present study.

The present study treats the parent-child and sibling subsystems as of paramount importance in investigating how the adolescents and young adults cope with stressful life events (Vetere & Gale, 1987). Research has shown that adaptability within the parental subsystem is necessary both because of developmental changes within the offspring and the varying pressures which age-related expectations bring to bear from society as a whole (Vetere & Gale, 1987). Concerns with children's coping have risen over the last 60 years, however, theoretical and empirical literature was based on adult studies (Hoffman, Levy-Shiff, Sohlberg & Zarizk, 1992).

1.3 Family and child development

Dennis (in Haralambos & Holborn, 1990) argues that the family has become the only institution in which the individual can expect esteem and love. It is within the family context that teenagers use their time to gain competence and confidence in future adult roles. During

this time, parents work towards providing good role models for their teenagers.

In the past twenty years black South African youth have been active, domineering and taking over the parental roles in terms decision making and to a certain extent, familial protection, especially in black communities (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990). It is against this background that this dissertation will set out to investigate the relationship between the family structure and coping strategies. It will concentrate on the adolescent as well as the young adults in a family. Parents will not be directly involved. Only the children's perceptions of their parents in the family will be investigated.

A study of adolescents' perceptions of their parents showed that as youth advanced through school they perceived their parents as giving them more freedom and they turned less to parents for advice (Weller & Luchterhand, 1977). A three-year study conducted by Nolle in 1972, (in Weller & Luchterhand, 1977) revealed changes in black adolescents' perceived closeness, openness and respect for each of their parents, as well as perceived susceptibility to moral influence. Although the above mentioned study was not specifically looking at family structures, it does provide an understanding of black youths' coping strategies in the past five years (Cleaver, 1988).

The present study considers the importance of the family as a system responsible for the welfare and growth of its members (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Walsh, 1982; Wilson, 1989). This study considers the family as "the resource of last resort, or the place where, when you have to go there, they have to take you" (Sternberg, 1991, p. 49).

1.4 Types of family structure

Family structure refers to the "family's organizational characteristics, the subsystems it contains, and the rules which govern interactional patterns among family members" (Vetere & Gale, 1987, p. 39). The family is sometimes called the basic social institution and it is a conspicuous feature of social organization. The concept of family has recently presented numerous problems to social scientists. Haralambos and Holborn (1990) maintain that the family structure varies from society to society and the emergence of the nuclear family to other societies is due partly to the prestige of Western ideas and life styles. Schafer (1992) argues that the family has the responsibility of helping its children to learn about stress, so that stress plays a positive role in their lives, and establish good stress control habits (or strategies) for adulthood. Within the family children are generally expected to obey their parents and to respect the members of the larger community depending though on the socialization styles of a family.

Schafer (1992) does not however, make a distinction between the extended and the nuclear family, instead, he considers the environment in which the family finds itself as an influencing factor. The family's functions for society are inseparable from its functions for its individual members. As a system which socializes its individual and guides them in sexual functions, it contributes to society in an indirect way (Haralambos & Holborn 1990). Recent changes in life styles have made it misleading to define family as "a husband and wife and their offspring or offsprings, instead of a man and woman living together" (Kayongo-Male & Onyango, 1984, p. 11). According to Kayongo-Male and Onyango (1984) these complications are caused mostly by lower socio-economic classes where many couples live together and do indeed create a family without legal or traditional sanctions of this union.

This study will concentrate on the black population which
has been recently affected by violence leading to the loss
of a parent or parents and or children and relatives
(Michelson , 1991; Turton, Straker & Moosa 1991; Vituli &
Jones, 1994).

Literature has shown that family structure is best
understood in terms of the number of parents (for example,
single parenthood, divorced parents, death of a parent,
stepparents, children leaving home, etc.), (Hoffman, 1994;
Long, 1986). Hoffman (1994) reported that a parent's
death, in particular, does not tend to damage parent-child
relations, but it does lead to bereavement that may affect
family involvement. Literature has shown that older
adolescents are better able to cope with family disruption
due to their greater maturity and independence (Hoffman,
1994). They tend to look for support systems outside of
the home when communication breaks down due to a loss of a
parent or parents.

The family, in its essential meaning, must be considered as
an example for imitation, constituting a fundamental
category in human life and thought. It is the essence of
ethics and morality; it is implicit in education. The
concept of Good is transmitted through the family and is
derived from the ontological, indigenous needs of man's
nature, which are actualized in family structure (Anshen,
1959). In general, families become stressed as they try to
keep the life styles they value while taking advantage of
the newly created opportunities (Akamatsu, Stephens,
Hobfoll & Crowther, 1992; Antonovsky, 1979; Borgatta &
Borgatta, 1992; Pillay, 1989). The extended family is the
oldest form of family which, for centuries has proved to be
effective to a number of countries. Certain cultural
groups in a number of countries, including South Africa,
have preferred the nuclear family due to economic and
management reasons. Haralambos and Holborn (1990) argue

that these kinds of family structure were born at about the same time. The following section will briefly look at extended and nuclear family structures.

1.4.1 The extended family

The structure of the family and its effective functioning is partly affected by the nature of the community in which the family finds itself (Farrington, 1986; Justice & Calvert, 1985; Walsh, 1982).

Extended family includes all families where other relatives live with a nuclear family. Haralambos and Holborn (1990) argue that a unit larger than the nuclear family is usually known as 'extended family'. The present study accepts this notion for it is common among the black population. It is common to find five families living in the same household (i.e. the father, his sons and their wives and children). This kind of extended family is still found in rural areas where traditions and customs are upheld and respected.

The term 'extended family' can also refer to families that include cousins of anyone in the nuclear family (Kayongo-Male & Onyongo, 1984). Grandparents acted as the most important agents of socialization in traditional African society. They took the responsibility of introducing young people to more sensitive topics such as husband-wife relationships and sexual behaviour as well as the larger societal roles, values and traditions. Literature has shown that extended family appears to withstand the hardships of transition from traditional to modern type of life, provided there are no changes in the structure of the family. Support from many members of the extended family may to a large extent mitigate the effects of stress and lead to more positive outcomes McCubbin, Patterson & Wilson (in McCubbin & Figley, 1983). Therefore, the value of a family as a system is that it cushions and protects while the individual is learning ways of coping (Yogman &

Brazelton, 1986).

Spring (in Haralambos & Holborn, 1990), Pearlin (1978) maintain that nuclear and extended families tend to differ significantly in the manner in which they handle stressful life events.

The extended family, particularly among blacks, has been found to have explicit roles for their members, thus avoiding major forms of stress. Most of the research findings have shown that the extended family accepts stress as a reality; and develops a variety of coping strategies, because coping is seen as a process of achieving a balance in the family system which facilitates organization and unity while promoting individual growth and development (Brazilli, 1981; Horowitz, 1988; Kaplan, Cassel & Gores (in Millon, Green & Meagher, 1982); Murray, 1981; Nakano, 1991; Neufield, 1982; Spencer, 1985). Parsons (in Haralambos & Holborn, 1990) argued that in a society based on achieved status, conflict would tend to arise in a family unit larger than the isolated nuclear family. This is one of the reasons why the extended family is not favoured by certain societies. However, there were, and there are still advantages observed in the extended family found among blacks. For example, in times of death, the children of the deceased were looked after by extended family, often the uncles or aunts (Kanyongo-Male & Onyango, 1984). This system worked very well during the time of subsistence economy when support was derived basically from the land. Life at the time was not as complicated as it is today. Therefore, the kinds of stressful life events at the time were defined and handled differently. For example, young children were still sent to live with relatives for schooling and other reasons. Resources to cope with stressful life events were provided by the extended family (Myers, Taylor, Alvy, Arrington & Richardson, 1992). Every member of the extended family was responsible for a

specific function depending on the age as well as position in the family.

Studies conducted on black families suggested that extended families tend to cope effectively with stressful life events. Numerous cross-cultural studies tend to support this idea (Haralambos & Holborn 1990; Spencer, 1985; Sternberg, 1991). Sternberg (1991) argues that, as the family structure changes from extended to nuclear, roles in the family are redefined. Haralambos and Holborn (1990) agree with Sternberg (1991) that roles in the modern urban family generally tend to be more 'fluid' and open to idiosyncratic definition than those of many non-urban, pre-industrial family systems.

For Freud, a 'personal', 'affectionate' sexual encounter must be private as it is in the nuclear family. He further argued that this privatization of sexuality is connected historically with the rise of possessive love relations which might be characterized by anal regression as much as by mature, 'natural' genital love (Poster, 1978). According to Freud, although the nuclear family has some advantages, the extended family tends to overcome possessiveness which limits the exploration of possible resources that extended family members can provide.

Although the extended family structure had more merits in the pre-industrial era, Kayongo-Male and Onyango (1984) argue that the extended family has in some ways become destructive of the African family. For example, at times of death, some members of the family system may look forward to the family property like land, houses, cars, money and cattle rather than taking into consideration the children of the family.

1.4.2 The nuclear family

The nuclear family as is defined as "the smallest family unit which consists of a husband and wife and their immature offspring" (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990, p. 454).

Data from societies all over the world point overwhelmingly to the central role the nuclear family plays in human experience cross-culturally (Haralambos & Holborn 1990). The nuclear family is largely isolated from kin and the wider community and has a tendency of looking inward upon itself, thus intensifying emotional stress between husband and wife and parents and children. In their isolation, family members expect and demand too much from each other and the result is conflict. The parents fight; the children rebel (Haralambos & Holborn 1990).

Recent theory views adolescent behaviour as nested in an ongoing system of family relationship (Bhushan & Shirali, 1992). Their findings, based on 411 male students, 18 to 24 years of age from intact nuclear middle-class homes revealed significant differences in the family types (Bhushan & Shirali, 1992). Adolescents who experienced more openness with their parents experienced less problems. Although this study concentrated on one type of family, voluminous literature shows that effective communication in the family system leads to effective coping with adverse life events (Bhushan & Shirali, 1992; Rutter, 1981). Similarly, effective communication in the family system suggests a balanced family type. Bhushan and Shirali (1992) contend that a secure sense of identity is an important developmental issue with which youth are faced, for it marks the end of adolescence, and is a condition for further and truly individual maturation.

Little research has been done on rural and semi urban areas. According to Pillay (1989) empirical family research is a relatively young field and is still not

regarded a precise science.

Methodological as well as cultural problems make it difficult for this kind of research to be undertaken. Openness with father, mother, and children involves ethical issues in that questions concerning relationship between parents and children may be perceived as so direct and intrusive. Wood (1987) maintains that objective evidence on family functioning is not possible since theorists and researchers describe an interpretation of information and experiences gained through contact with the family. However, studies of this nature have important implications for counselling and therapy with youth, placing the family at the centre of the psychosocial milieu influencing their development (Bhushan & Shirali, 1992). "The family helps an adolescent to first form and then to consolidate and clarify the self-image during the crisis of confusion brought about by change and transition" (Bhushan & Shirali, 1992, p. 688).

Studies have for years relied on data from parents to understand adolescents (Bhushan & Shirali, 1992). To avoid this problem, the present study will only involve adolescents and young adults from low socioeconomic background between ages 15 and 25.

The literature on the psychology of stress offers substantial evidence that future research should concentrate on the family (McCubbin & Figley, 1983; Selye (in Millon, Green & Meagher, 1982); Yogman & Brazelton, 1986). Poster (1978) stated that knowledge of the family's daily life and its relation to society is the background for the analysis at the psychological level (p.155).

Here, the family is conceptualized as an emotional structure, with relative autonomy, which constitutes hierarchies of age and sex in psychological forms.

1.5 Models of family functioning

Family Systems theory conceptualizes the family as an open system that functions in relation to the wider sociocultural context (Pillay, 1989). In the context of the Black and Indian South African communities, the rules are maintained by the head of the family interactional system. Such rules are believed to be applicable to all systems (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990; Pillay, 1989).

Since the family develops over time, the rules that were valued hundreds of years ago, seem to present pressure to the parents who are reluctant to accept external changes, usually proposed by adolescents. The adolescents may become deviant and dysfunctional as a result (Pillay, 1989; Yogman & Brazelton, 1986).

The following section is a brief description of some of the major models of family functioning.

1.5.1 The Structural Model

This model was developed by Minuchin; Minuchin, Montalvo, Guerney, Rosman & Schumer, (in Pillay, 1989). The model contends that a functional family must be able to adapt to internal or developmental and external or environmental demands for change (Pillay, 1989).

According to this model parents take the responsibility of rearing their children for the benefit of the family as well as the community in which the family finds itself.

This model does not suggest that the family is seen as normal or abnormal. Instead each family has a structure and a preference for certain transactional patterns. Some

families are enmeshed while others are disengaged (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990; Walsh, 1982). And these can and do reach pathological extremes. Pathologies in family styles are observed when the family system fails to endure internal or external demands for change (Pillay, 1989).

This model focuses on family structure as an open sociocultural system in transformation (Pillay, 1989). As the family develops over time, it requires restructuring which assists it in adaptation with psychosocial growth of its members (Minuchin, 1974). Minuchin (1974) argues that spouses are faced with the responsibility of establishing a strong parental subsystem to perform child rearing responsibilities which often cause conflicting ideas as the children reach adolescence. Each family structure prefers its own unique way of child rearing. Each rearing style has its own pathology variants. Therefore, "the strength of the family system lies in its ability to mobilize alternative patterns of functioning when pressured by internal or external demands for change" (Pillay, 1989, p. 79).

1.5.2 The Strategic Model

The term "strategic" was coined by Haley (1963) who saw the need for a theoretical and clinical shift from an individual approach to a systemic one. This model proposes that a focus on communication within the interactional field of the family makes the family system more understandable (Haley, 1973; Pillay, 1989).

Communication theory provided the foundation from which the strategic model developed (Hodgson, in Pillay, 1989).

Pillay (1989) states that families are systems that are constantly subjected to stress and demands for change from both internal and external sources, and require a high degree of adaptability if the family is to cope. According

to this model, families appear to organize themselves on a continuum ranging from those systems with necessary flexibility to change, to those rigid systems, where any pressure requiring reorganization is experienced as a threat. Inflexibility in the family system makes the family stuck in a developmental phase. The greater the pressure the more acute the symptom (Pillay, 1989; Haley, 1976; Walsh, 1982).

The hierarchical lines in the family where parents nurture and discipline children in a confusing way, lead to symptoms which paradoxically, lead to intensification of the problem (Pillay, 1989; Wassenaar, 1987). Pillay (1989) states that dysfunction in a family is likely to occur when a member of one hierarchical level consistently forms coalitions against a peer with a member of another level. A parent-child coalition for example, against the other parent violates the basic rules of organization within the family and results in pathological distress. Family stress is conceived to be highest at the transitional points from one developmental stage to another (Haley, 1973). Therefore, the higher the level of adaptability the healthier the family (Pillay, 1989).

Fisher (in Pillay, 1989) mentioned that every family must first be considered against its cultural background and in the context of its cultural standards before attempting to differentiate healthy and dysfunctional types.

The next chapter will look at 'stress' and its impact on family members.

CHAPTER TWO

2.   STRESS

2.1   Introduction

This chapter aims to address the definitional issues of the concept
"stress", give a brief history of the concept and finally review
the current models and their criticisms.   In this chapter, the
emphasis is on perceived mismatch between environment and self
because this is what most notions of stress have assumed.   It will
also critically examine the current conceptions of stress.
Finally, suggestions for a more critical model of stress will be
outlined with the aim of providing useful guidelines for research
questions and interpretation of research findings.

2.2   Definitional issues of stress

Selye (1976) defines stress simply as "... the rate of wear and
tear within the body" (p. 56).   This definition was clarified as
"...the body's response to a need for adaptation" (Ecker, 1987, p.
22).   The same definition is further extended as "... the state
manifested by a specific syndrome which consists of all the non-
specifically induced changes within a biological system" (p. 76)
Ecker (1987) defined "stress" in medical physiology as "'Alarm' or
'stress' function of the sympathetic nervous system" (p. 17).

These definitions show that once the body is under stress, it tries
to do something in order to overcome the difficulty,   thus
compelling the intrapsychic processes to take place at the same
time.

2.3   The concept of stress

The American physiologist, Walter Cannon (mentioned in Carroll, 1992) was among the first to use the term stress in a non-engineering context (i.e., as psychological stress) and clearly regarded it as a disturbing force which upset the person's equilibrium, disrupting the usual balance. From this perspective stress refers to those events or situations that challenge a person's psychological and/or physiological homeostasis. Stress is frequently presented as a negative psychological state associated with an appraisal of situational threat liable to outstrip one's ability to respond. It is also thought to involve the immediate discomfort of negative emotional responses (e.g., fear, anxiety, frustration or anger) and proximate behavioural sequelae (e.g., withdrawal or aggression) (Hoffman, Levy-Shiff, Sohlberg & Zarizki, 1992).

"The single most remarkable historical fact concerning the term 'stress' is its persistent, widespread usage in biology and medicine in spite of almost chaotic disagreement over its definition" (Rutter, 1981, p. 323). This definition explains stress not as an influence in the world, but as a reaction in the body. The general understanding of stress as originating from outside (e.g., in jobs, family conflicts or in schools) is not a direct part of the physiological perspective which stated that "to understand how stress works, we first need to know how the human body deals with change" (p. 18). Both the human as well as the animal body prepares the body to react to external stressors (e.g., 'flight or fight') which serve as an essential human survival mechanism. Generally, some people complain that they cannot live with their stress, but the fact is that we cannot live without it. Kaplan (1983) follows conventional practice in using the term strain and stressor interchangeably to refer to an objective situation that has the potential to provoke psychological reactions in the individuals who find themselves in such a situation. According to this perspective, the term "stress" refers to the

subjectively experienced reactions to an objective strain (p. 268).
Kaplan (1983) argues for example, that a family with little money
is more likely to be exposed to a strain, whereas a family in which
there are worries about money experiences a stress.

The stress concept was first introduced by Hans Selye to allied
health fields in 1926 (Solomon, 1989). Since then attempts have
been made to reach a consensus in the definition as well as the
measurement of stress. Selye believes that the adaptation process
occurs at the expense of a consumable commodity which he calls
'adaptation energy'. He further explains that as we experience a
great deal of stress, we can run out of this adaptation energy and
then become 'stress exhausted' which makes us highly susceptible
to diseases. Literature cautions us that although we can talk
about 'stress exhaustion' or vulnerability as a general term which
affects every individual on an equal basis, two individuals put
under the same amount of stress may not behave in the same way
(Ecker, 1987; McCubbin & Figley, 1983).

According to Cox (1978) the concept of stress remains elusive as it
lacks precise definition. Michelson (1991) argues that confusion
concerning the concept of stress is caused by its use in broad
range of situations. She further contends that irrespective of the
vast amount of literature and research concerning the concept of
stress, there remains little cohesion in the conceptualisation and
research done in this field. This idea is further supported by
Mason (in Monat & Lazarus, 1977) where he states "stress has been
used variously to refer to stimulus by some workers, response by
some workers, "interaction" by others, and more comprehensive
combinations of the above factors by still other workers. Some
authorities in the field are rather doubtful that this confusion
over terminology is correctable in the near future"(p. 2.).

Although there is no agreement as far as the definition of stress
is concerned, researchers have found that stressful life events

positively contribute towards psychological problems such as suicidal attempts (Dixin, Heppner, & Anderson, 1991). It has also been found that when people who are deficient in problem-solving abilities are exposed to naturally occurring conditions of high negative life stress, they are cognitively unable to develop effective alternative solutions necessary for adaptive coping, which in turn results in hopelessness. This hopelessness is then assumed to put the individual at an increased risk for suicidal behaviour (Dixin, Heppner, & Anderson, 1991). Schotte and Clum (in Dixin et al. 1991) found that poor problem solvers under high negative life stress were significantly more hopeless and significantly higher in suicidal intent than any of the other groups. These studies were further supported by studies conducted on psychiatric patients. Within the coping and problem solving literature, a variable that has received increased attention is the cognitive appraisal of one's ability to solve problems. Rutter (1981) points out that researchers not only have to ask whether the processes involved in 'stress and coping' differ according to the child's stage of development, but more particularly they need to determine whether adverse experiences or happenings in early life alter the course of subsequent development or influence the ways in which an individual responds to much later stress-events. By definition, stresses linked to institutional roles cannot be anything but important, both to the lives of individuals and to the structure and functioning of social systems (Kaplan, 1983). It is around daily and enduring roles that much of our lives are structured through time. This notion cautions researchers that the links between infancy and adulthood are complex, indirect and uncertain.

The family has multiple links with the stress process. It can be a major reservoir of problems and tribulations, an arena in which problems generated elsewhere are transplanted, and it can frequently be the place where the wounds that people incur outside are most likely to be healed (Kaplan, 1983). The family

environment and structure tends to dictate how its members are going to handle stressful conditions (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990). Tyson (1981) argues that an accumulation of life stresses significantly causes a person to change his/her perceived locus of control. Those who have an external locus of control tend to find life events more stressful than do those with an internal locus of control (Mbense, 1993; Tyson, 1981).

Research has shown that genetic factors may influence both the course of development and the mode of response to environmental stimuli (Rutter, 1981).

The next sections will briefly examine the models of stress with an aim of contextualising the concept of stress in a more critical and meaningful way.

2.4 Models of stress

Michelson (1991) discussed three conceptual approaches of stress. These are the Response-Based Model, the Stimulus-Based Model, and the Dynamic-Interactionist Approach which are of great relevance to the present study. These approaches will be briefly discussed with an aim of putting the present study into perspective.

2.4.1 Individual Model

According to this model traumatic events evoke physiological reactions that would, if not discharged or eliminated, produce illness (Michelson, 1991).   Recent research has been reasonably consistent in showing that the precursors of psychiatric disorder or other types of social dysfunction or health problems are largely confined to unpleasant or undesirable events (Avison & Gotlib, 1994; Rutter, 1981).   It was also found that it was only events with a long-term threat (those events with necessary sequelae of some kind) which provoked depressive disorders, e.g., a loss of some kind.   Lazarus and Cohen (in Carroll, 1992) suggested that

there are three broad classes of stressors. For example, cataclysmic events -natural disasters, such as floods which pose an enormous challenge to individuals. It should be emphasized that individuals who feel part of the whole community are not adversely affected by this kind of stress because they feel "everybody is in the same boat". Therefore, social support may serve as a buffer against the effects of life stress (Kaplan, 1983).

The second class of stressors is called personal stressors or negative life events, such as the death of a close relative, divorce, a loss of job, etc. The present study assumes that most people are affected by this kind of stressor. The term "stressor" has been referred to as "life change events, daily hassles, role strains, ongoing difficulties, nonevents and various forms of childhood and adult traumas" (Avison & Gotlib, 1994, p. 77-78; Turton, Straker & Moosa, 1991). This idea is supported by substantial evidence which posits that negative life events are associated with physical illness (Carroll, 1992; Kaplan, 1983; Spring, 1981). The third class of stressors is daily difficult experiences or background stressors which are chronic. The present study is concerned about the daily problems that people experience in institutions such as the home and the school contexts. However, in the 1930's, Adolf Meyer suggested that events do not have to be traumatic before they can produce stress. Meyer (in Thoits, 1982) further argued that normative changes in a person's life might also play a role in the aetiology of disease. This idea is further supported and elaborated by McCubbin (1983) where he argued that changes in the family life cycle do lead to stress, though less than non-normative events like catastrophic events. Kaplan (1983) stated that stress occurs to the extent that there is some actual or perceived mismatch between the person and his environment: environmental demands tax or exceed the adaptive capacities or resources of the person, and/or environmental opportunities constrain the satisfaction of individual needs.

2.4.2 Response-Based Models

Response-Based approaches in the study of stress tend to be concerned with the specification of the particular response or pattern of responses which may be taken as evidence that the person is, or has been, under pressure from a 'disturbing' environment (Cox, 1978). Traumatic events do contribute towards the production of stress (Michelson, 1991). Lazarus and his colleagues maintain that for us to experience an event or situation as stressful, we have to perceive or appraise it as such (Carroll, 1992). Each person is in possession of psychological mechanisms at his or her disposal which may serve to combat stress. The existence of such devices has been recognized for some time, Freud referred to them as defence mechanisms. Recent literature (Carroll, 1992) states that these mechanisms are referred to as "coping strategies" and to an extent they help in explaining why in the face of a potentially stressful situation, some people yield while others do not. Biological explanations suffice to explain some individual differences. For example, there is substantial evidence that individuals vary markedly in the physiological reaction they show to stress (Carroll, 1992; Cox, 1978; Schafer, 1992). Studies have shown that psychological stress contributes to the development of diseases such as ulcers. Identical twin pairs are far more similar in terms of pepsinogen secretion than nonidentical twins. Vulnerability can be in the biological and psychological levels. But events do not necessarily have to be traumatic before they can produce stress. The question remains: "How stressful should an event be, before it can be regarded as stressful?". Different individuals from different family types tend to perceive stressful life events differently. People's perception of an event plays an important role in how they respond to it. McCubbin (1983) and Haralambos and Holborn (1990) suggest that the family as a socializing structure produces different individuals who tend to respond differently to stressful stimuli. Studies have shown that conflict between husband and wife may arise from disagreement about what social norms are, and from deviance from those norms. This

conflict in turn, affects children in the family (Ackerman, 1958).

In Freudian language, an emotionally rejected child may, as an adult, retain strong dependency needs to gain the reassurance that others love him. The family becomes a stage for the playing out of his emotional problems and the gratification or frustration of his deeper personality needs Ackerman (1958). These authors did not however, include families with pathology and the influence of psycho-physiological status of a person as an individual.

Research findings have indicated that different stimuli are responded to differently, and that a particular situation which produces a stress reaction at one time may not do so on another occasion (Michelson, 1991)

Although this is a useful model, it is not without criticisms. The major criticisms levelled at this model, are that by focusing on physiological responses, the importance of psychological factors are ignored. It also places emphasis on the non-specificity of the stress response (Cox, 1978). The next model shows some overlap with this model.

2.4.3   Stimulus- Based Models

The stimulus-based view explains and uses the term stress to describe the stimulus characteristics of the environment. The environment is perceived to have a disturbing, demanding or disruptive effect on à person (Michelson, 1991).

Life changes (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974; 1978; Michelson, 1991) are a means to measure stress inputs by measuring the impact they have on people. The environment is perceived to have a disturbing, demanding or disruptive effect on people as different individuals (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974; 1978). Specific environments such as schools and homes, have not been sufficiently considered. Examining individual psychological reactions within

the family structure may, for example, assist in understanding of the black community's perception of and coping with life events.

The limitation of this model is that when one focuses on one aspect of the stress process (i.e. stimulus) the other possible variables that may intervene or mediate in the process are ignored. It also overlaps with the response-based view of stress (Cox 1978; Michelson, 1991; Solomon, 1989). For this reason, the following approach will be briefly discussed.

2.4.4 The Dynamic-Interactionist Approach

"The interactional approach views stress as the result of the particular nature of the relationship between a person and his or her environment" (Michelson, 1991, p.9). Different individuals tend to perceive the same environment in a different way. This suggests subjective perception of an environment (Gibson, 1987). This approach represents a move away from seeing the relationship between a person and the environment as static, as also explained by the models discussed above.

The limitation of this model is the assumption that society is equivalent to the actions and thoughts of the individuals within it, which fails to examine society within its broader socio-political dimensions (Michelson, 1991).

The present study assumes that the family as the immediate environment has an influence in preparing its individuals to face other environments in either a functional or dysfunctional way.

2.4.5 Towards a Critical Model of Stress

Criticisms of the three models mentioned previously have provided important considerations for the formulation of a more critical model of stress. This section will briefly outline some of the suggestions put forward in developing a critical model of stress. In drawing on the interactionist approach, the important thing to

consider is that stress is not just a function of events but it includes underlying social structures and personality factors (Michelson, 1991).

This thesis does not intend looking at the details of the proposed model. For detailed information based on the Critical Model of Stress, the reader is referred to Turton (1987); Gibson, (1987) and Young, (1980).

Of relevance to this study are the following factors:
(1) exposure to different life events,
(2) interpersonal strengths and weaknesses,
(3) and, the nature of an individual's interpersonal relationships.

The above models hopefully reveal the importance of individuals' perceptions of their environments and their reactions. Therefore, individuals may come from the same family structure but their coping strategies may differ significantly (Schafer, 1992).

The next chapter will look at the concept of "coping" and related issues.

CHAPTER THREE

3. Coping:

3.1 Introduction:

This chapter will briefly look at the historical background of the concept of "coping". This will be followed by definitional issues, models of the support process, and conclude with stress-coping theory, and family grief.

In recent years, the concept of coping has taken on an increasingly central role in theoretical models of stress and adaptation (Curry & Russ, 1985). Coping, like stress has been important in psychology for well over forty years and is currently the focus of an array of psychotherapies and educational programs which have as their goal the development of coping skills or strategies (Monat & Lazarus, 1977). Researchers have become aware of the popularity of the concept "coping". It has recently received widespread lay attention in magazines. Despite the rich history and current popularity of this concept, there is little coherence in theory, research, and understanding. Research findings caution that future research has to consider persons, contexts, or occasions in trying to determine effectiveness of coping.

This study will therefore explore whether family structure will determine the way in which its members learn to cope with stressful life events. Socialization processes determine to a large extent the manner in which family members handle stress. The present study will consider the fact that a central feature of human development involves coping with psychological stress that requires action and adaptation from infancy through to adulthood (Compas, 1987).

Settings such as academic institutions are therefore receiving individuals from different contexts who have learned either adaptive or maladaptive strategies from their social settings which may prove to be ineffective in other settings. Since this study looks at subjects of school going age, school and home related stresses will be addressed.

3.2   The concept of coping:

3.2.1   Definitional issues

This section will briefly look at the origin of the concept "coping". Conceptualization of coping has become a central aspect of contemporary theories of stress (Avison & Gotlib, 1994).

"At the most general level, coping has been considered to include all responses to stressful events or episodes" (Compas, 1987, p. 393). This definition tends to be over inclusive. Although many theorists from a variety of perspectives have argued that the above definition is too broad, there are situations where an individual can use instinctive or reflective reactions to threat (Compas, 1987).

Fleishman (in Avison & Gotlib, 1994) defines coping as cognitive or behavioural responses "that are taken to reduce or eliminate psychological distress or stressful conditions" (p. 217). These definitions look at how an individual reacts to a given situation.

According to Snyder and Ford (1987) coping represents attempts to lessen the physical and psychological pain associated with negative life events. Coping refers to a response or responses whose purpose is to reduce or avoid psychological stress (negative feelings) (p.385). It should, however, be pointed out that such responses may or may not be successful in reducing psychological stress. Snyder and Ford (1987) further argue that coping responses may not be successful in the short run, but may

be successful in the long run.   Since people use different
strategies in different situations, they sometimes employ coping
responses with or without being aware of doing so (Compas, 1987).

This review will also consider those authors who stated that
"responses must be consciously employed in order to qualify as
coping responses" (Snyder & Ford, 1987, p. 385). However, it will
not overlook the importance of socialization which takes the form
of habitual coping responses without cognitive awareness of the
process of coping.   Coping styles   refer to cognitive or
behavioural actions that people use to manage stress and
associated tension-producing situations (Perosa & Perosa, 1993).

Coping may specifically refer to "cognitive and behavioral
efforts made by individuals to master, tolerate, or reduce"
stressful demands, when "a routine or automatic response is not
available" (Curry & Russ, 1985, p. 61).   According to these
authors coping is seen as an active and purposeful process
mediating adaptational outcome.

3.2.2   Coping strategies

Coping efforts, strategies, or responses are the actual things
individuals think or do to deal with a particular problem, or
attempts directly used to alter the threatening conditions
themselves and the attempts to change only his appraisal of them
so that he need not feel threatened (Rutter, 1981).

Positive strategies include altering appraisals of threat,
maintaining a positive perspective, engaging in problem solving,
venting feelings, and seeking support from family members and
friends. Negative efforts include withdrawing from or avoiding
difficulties and acting out. Perosa and Perosa (1993) and Compas
(1987) argue that to date the burgeoning number of empirical
studies on coping have focused on adults.

Minuchin (in Perosa & Perosa, 1993) contends that optimal family structure during late adolescence is typified by clear interpersonal boundaries and a stable marital alliance in which parents maintain hierarchical authority over children and avoid forming cross-generational alliances. Published literature up to 1983 is concentrated on informal support systems such as family, friends, or co-workers, as a form coping (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

3.3 Models of the Support Process

Numerous studies (Cohen & Wills, 1985) have shown that social support is linked to psychological and physical health outcomes. At a general level, it can be posited that a lack of positive social relationship leads to negative psychological states such as anxiety or depression which in turn influence physical health either through a direct effect on physiological processes that influence susceptibility to disease or through behavioural patterns that increase risk for disease and mortality. Integration in a social network may also help one to avoid negative experiences (e.g., economic or legal problems) that otherwise would increase the probability of psychological or physical disorder (Cohen & Wills, 1985). This view of support has been conceptualized from a sociological perspective as "regularized social interaction" or "embeddedness" in social, roles (Cohen & Wills, 1985, p. 312) and from a psychological perspective as social interaction, social integration, relational reward, or status support. In an extreme version, the main effect the model postulates, is that an increase in social support will result in an increase in well-being irrespective of the existing level of support (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Previous studies have indicated the importance of family relationships before one can clearly understand an individual in a group setting like academic institutions (Richter, 1989). Several measures have been used in the field of coping with stressful life events (Perosa & Perosa, 1993).

3.3.1 Coping as Effortful Responses to Stress

Several authors have argued for the importance of distinguishing coping as including effortful or purposeful reactions to stress but excluding reflexive or automatic responses (Compas, 1987).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) pointed out that focusing on effortful responses avoids the pitfall of defining coping so broadly that it includes everything that individuals do in relating to the environment.

This perspective is best reflected by the definition which was first coined by Lazarus and Folkman as follows: "coping is defined as constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and / or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (in Compas, 1987, p. 393). Constant changes are observed in development. Murphy et al. (in Compas, 1987) have placed coping in the middle of a continuum ranging from reflexes that are present from birth to automatized mastery responses that have been learned to the extent that they no longer require conscious control. Developmental literature contends that as the child moves from one stage to another, it changes coping strategies (Rutter, 1981). As the child grows in a family system, through the process of socialization, a child's purposeful responses may become automatic after being repeated many times (Compas, 1987). Rutter (1981) found that family adversities in childhood (such as the death of a sibling or parental divorce) were statistically associated with psychiatric problems in early adult life. Janis (1981) refers specifically to the determinants of psychological stress in communities which have experienced bombing. Of primary importance in predicting the incidence of fear reactions is the number of persons who become directly involved in immediate danger and the number of homes and buildings damaged in the neighbourhood. South Africa has been a fertile ground for political violence in the past ten years which has exposed several age groups to traumatic experiences such as: destruction

of homes, murder of family members and loss of property (Michelson 1991; Turton, Straker & Moosa, 1991).

A second predictive factor is the number of persons who suffered some degree of personal loss, whether or not they had been directly involved in personal danger, the number of families in which one or more fatalities occurred and the number of persons made homeless. A third factor is exposure to the sight of the dead, the dying, and the wounded. It has also been found that early events may lead to bodily changes which in turn influence later functioning, such as behaviour patterns. For example, the death of a parent may lead to abnormal behaviours following a chain of psychological adversities (Rutter, 1981). Rutter emphasizes the importance of the process of mourning at the time and the pattern of family relationships both before and after the loss.

The limitations of the above mentioned findings are that few include data on the family processes surrounding the loss, and very few have examined interactive effects in conjunction with later losses. The present study has therefore, considered the family as the most prominent variable, particularly during the years of violence and loss of parents, friends and loved ones in South Africa. It will also consider adolescence as a period of development during which dramatic life changes and transitions occur (Compas, Slavin, Wagner, & Vannatta, 1986).

"A wide array of developmental theories suggests that the transition to adolescence may represent one growth point in the evolution of coping" (Hoffman et al., 1992, p. 454). Previous research examining the effects of stressful life events during adolescence has lagged far behind similar research with adult populations (Compas, et al., 1986; Rutter, 1981).

Rutter (1981) reported that boys are more vulnerable to stress effects than girls through adolescence. Therefore, more research involving adolescents and coping with stressful life events is

encouraged. The present study covers adolescence to the beginning of young adulthood.

3.3.2 Stress management

Managing stress includes accepting, tolerating, avoiding, or minimizing the stressor as well as the more traditional view of coping as mastery over the environment (Compas, 1987). This suggests that coping is not limited to successful efforts but includes purposeful attempts to manage stress regardless of their effectiveness. From the earliest stages of development coping efforts have been delineated into those intended to act on the stressor (problem-focused coping) and those intended to regulate emotional states associated with or resulting from the stressor (emotional-focused coping) (Compas, 1987). Problem and emotional-focused coping can be carried out through either cognitive or behavioural channels.

In the psychological literature behavioural activities determine the cognitive status of an individual (Compas, 1987; Rutter, 1981). More importantly, coping resources determine how an individual is going to deal with a situation at a given time. Compas (1987) argued that coping resources include those aspects of the self (e.g., problem-solving skills, interpersonal skills, positive self-esteem) and the social environment (e.g., the availability of a supportive social network) that facilitate possible successful adaptation to life stress.

A South African study (Cleaver, 1988) conducted on a black population which experienced their houses being attacked and damaged revealed that to cope with such a traumatic situation, victims developed a 'we' aspect. Helpful others were needed in coping with the struggle to re-structure the life-world. Richter (1989) commented on large households in Soweto as a form of adjustment in crowded classes. More often than not relatives offered shelter and help. The helpful others, usually the extended family, were trusted and formed a supportive network. Numerous studies indicate that people with spouses, friends, and

family members who provide psychological and material resources are in better health than those with fewer supportive social contacts (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Richter, 1989).

The present study does not overlook the importance of individual differences by emphasizing the role played by family types.

However, voluminous literature supports the notion that the family is the only effective socializing agent which determines to a large extent, the kinds of coping strategies used (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990; Patterson & McCubbin, 1987). The present study also considers the time and the context in which the family finds itself. For example, the late 80's and early 90's demanded particular kinds of coping strategies such as keeping away from a threatful situation in order to survive environmental hardships. The sociopolitical situation demanded immediate and behaviourally oriented strategies for survival.

Studies conducted on children and adolescents (Compas, 1987) revealed that adaptive coping cannot be characterized by a description of the individual's skills or resources alone but instead lies in the relation between the child and the environment, especially important early in development. These studies also revealed that the child's coping efforts are constrained by the child's psychological and biological preparedness. Coping-skills treatment procedures assume that ineffective strategies for coping with stressful life events are associated with increased psychopathology Carlson, & Guthrie (in Fromme & Rivet, 1994). More responsive children may need to cope with a greater number of situations than less responsive youngsters (Compas, 1987). Maccoby, (in Compas, 1987) stated that the basic features of cognitive and social development are likely to affect what children experience as stressful and how they cope. These findings have influenced the present study where, as Compas (1987) puts it, "research investigating coping during childhood must account for the environmental context in

which the stressful episode occurs (including both the nature of the stressor and the availability of resources for coping), the individual's developmental level, the personal resources the individual brings to the situation, the prior history of and preferred ways of coping, and the actual coping responses" (Compas, 1987, p. 394).

3.3.3 Resilience or Invulnerability to Stress

Studies have shown that the presence of a supportive family environment provides a child with a support system (Compas, 1987). Supportive family environments include parental warmth, cohesiveness, closeness. Janis (1981) states that "fear reactions tend to diminish during a series of attacks" (p. 48).

However, further research along these lines, with more refined methods, is needed in order to explain why some people are able to undergo harrowing danger experiences without any pronounced effect, whereas others develop neurotic symptoms. Janis (1981) concluded that people develop their own psychological defenses. Although some psychological defenses may prove to be "healthier" in the long run than others, there may nevertheless be a general tendency for all of them to be impaired, to some degree, as a result of any experience which makes the person sharply aware of his personal vulnerability. For example, people who develop an illusion of invulnerability based on total denial of impending danger ("nothing at all unpleasant will happen to me") are more likely to be traumatized than those who develop a more limited sense of invulnerability, keyed to the reality of the threat ("I might be bombed out, but I will survive") (p. 51). Therefore, sometimes a stressful episode brings about a positive change, making the individual more responsive to relevant warnings, causing him to plan realistically for future emergencies, and even helping him to develop greater emotional control in dealing with similar dangers.

Psychoanalytically, perception of damage and injury to others may evoke a feeling of profound relief: "I'm glad it happened to him

and not to me." But this response may be followed by feelings of guilt and fear of punishment for having permitted oneself to indulge in such a narcissistic thought (Janis, 1981). Cognitively and practically oriented coping styles have been found more often to contribute to greater adult resilience in the face of a broad variety of stressful life events, whereas emotionally oriented coping styles have been shown more frequently to heighten vulnerability (Hoffman, Levy-Shiff, Sohlberg & Zarizki, 1992).

3.3.4 Resources

Resources are traits, abilities, or means, both material and human, which can be used to meet demands (Kaplan, 1983; Patterson & McCubbin, 1987).

Personal resources include among other things, knowledge, skills, personality traits, emotional and physical health, and self-esteem. Kaplan (1983) mentions that more education appears to foster a cognitive complexity that facilitates realistic stress perception and problem-solving skills (p. 163). Research has also shown that socio-economic status was positively related to greater ego strength, and being male, currently married, better educated, and having a higher income were associated with higher self-esteem and a greater sense of personal mastery (Kaplan, 1983). Patterson and McCubbin (1987) mentioned that some important family system resources which facilitate the management of stressful demands include cohesion flexibility, organization good parent-adolescent communication, and conflict resolution skills. At the community level, resources such as medical and educational services and social support networks (e.g., relatives, neighbours, peer groups) are important both for directly meeting family members' needs and for buffering the negative effects of stressors and strains. Coping often involves using available resources to meet demands or it may involve developing or acquiring new resources (e.g., doing things together as a family to develop cohesion). Morrison and Zetlin (1992) reported that the developing adolescent often struggles with adopting his or her own identity, and with attempting to act

on this identity with increased autonomy.

They further argued that individuation can be a source of stress and conflict to the family because while adolescents overestimate the number of differences in attitudes between themselves and their parents, parents tend to overestimate the extent of closeness and communication between themselves and their adolescent offspring.

3.3.5 Functions of coping

Generally, the function of coping is to protect the individual or family from negative physical or psychological consequences (Patterson & McCubbin, 1987).

Empirical findings suggest that the manner in which individuals adapt and cope with stressful situations may influence positive growth and development, such as increasing one's repertoire of coping skills (Phelps & Jarvis, 1994).

Therefore, coping efforts function to alter the person-environment situation (problem-focused coping) or regulate emotional states (emotion-focused coping). In the majority of cases a combination of the two is used.

3.3.6 Classification of coping functions

(1) Coping efforts may involve direct action to eliminate or reduce demands and/or to increase resources for managing the demands (problem-focused coping).

(2) Coping may be directed at redefining demands so as to make them more manageable (appraisal -focused coping).

(3) Coping may be directed at managing the tension which is felt as a result of experiencing demands (emotion-focused coping) (Kaplan, 1983; Patterson & McCubbin, 1987).

Although coping is generally understood as a good way to handle problems with the individual reaching out and within for resources to come to terms with difficulties, it can also be a

source of strain which further leads to maladaptive coping responses, such as using illegal drugs.

When coping strategies were examined the striking finding was that there were similarities between suicidal and nonsuicidal adolescents in their report of coping strategy use (Spirito, Overholser, & Stark, 1989). However, problems with parents, school, and or boy /girlfriend appeared as distinct factors for vulnerability to stress. Children who attempted suicide saw their families as less cohesive, high in conflict, and less controlled than did nonsuicidal children Carlson and Guthrie (in Fromme & Rivet. 1994). This is also supported by the South African literature (Hare, 1995; Pillay, 1989; Wood & Wassenaar, 1989).

This raises a question of whether there are differences caused by family structures rather than common problems in the daily environment of a person.

Controllability appears to influence the coping strategies which adults and children select (Gamble, 1994). Gamble (1994) proposed that when the stressors are appraised as controllable, adults tend to employ proportionately more problem solving strategies than emotion-focused ones. Empirical evidence suggests that the emotional states that often result from stress are related to the occurrence of depression (Fromme & Rivet, 1993).

Compas (1987) also reported that problem solving coping was positively correlated with perceived control for school-age children and adolescents. These findings suggest that describing event appraisals across multiple dimensions may be critical for capturing developmental differences when the salient cues of stressor events change as adolescents develop (Gamble, 1994). Everyday stressor events such as conflict arising in mother-child interactions, in peer friendships, and experiences of failure

(academic or athletic) were frequently influencing the adolescents and young adults (Gamble, 1994).

3.4   Stress-coping theory:

This theory is based on help-seeking when the individual is experiencing a problem situation.

The person actively attempts to change problematic environmental conditions (Snyder & Ford, 1987). A model of help-seeking as a coping mechanism posits that the ability of individuals to solve ongoing life problems can potentially be improved through helpful interactions with other persons. Compas (1987) viewed coping strategies as individuals' efforts to minimize distress and to maximize performance.

Since most forms of psychological stress do not constitute a short-term single stimulus but rather a complex set of changing conditions that have a history and future, adaptation or coping needs to be considered as a process extending over time (Rutter, 1981). A strong suggestion here, is that "...the ways people cope with stress (may be) even more important to overall morale, social functioning and health/illness than the frequency and severity of episodes of stress themselves" (p. 336).

Theoretically, when a potential negative outcome is perceived, motivation should be aroused to eliminate it or reduce its effects. Stress and coping theory maintain that perceptions of a stressor usually are assumed to be either static or affected by intrapsychic reappraisal processes, such as intellectualization or denial.

The theory posits that at some point in the stress-coping process, distressed individuals commence a search for comparison information that will enable them to feel better about their own situation; that their choice of comparison targets may be guided by some relatively simple principles that will produce a favourable comparison; and that the outcome of the comparison

process may be determined by some basic variables such as problem comparability, relative status differential, and fate similarity. Psychoanalytic theory maintains that the core value of coping is being accurate about one's self to one's self (self-insight) and about others to one's self (Kaplan, 1983). The perspective on adolescent coping is based on family stress theory wherein adolescent coping is viewed as an active effort to manage individual and family-related demands with capabilities.

Successful coping results in adaptation where the adolescent achieves a "fit" both within the family and within the community (Patterson & McCubbin, 1987). Adolescent coping is not simply a matter of knowing what to do. It involves a "flexible orchestration of cognitive, social, and behavioral skills in dealing with situations that contain elements of ambiguity, unpredictability, and stress" (Patterson & McCubbin, 1987, p. 164).

An adolescent is viewed as one member or system within a large context of nested systems which include individual family members who comprise a family system which is embedded within the community or larger social system. Adolescent stress or distress may emerge when an adolescent's needs (i.e., normative maintenance and developmental tasks plus any unique situational needs) exceed the family's existing or acquired capabilities for meeting those demands, resulting in a poor "fit" or an imbalance (McCubbin & Figley, 1983). Coping can be covert, implying responses that occur within the organism which are not directly observable. Coping can also be overt, referring to coping responses that can be directly observed (Snyder & Ford, 1987). The three types of covert cognitive problem solving coping will be briefly described viz: cognitive planning, cognitive rehearsal, and information seeking.

3.4.1 Cognitive planning

This involves mental formulations for dealing with problems, for example, generating ideas concerning alternative courses of action for an aversive situation and evaluating the consequences of each alternative. Another kind of cognitive planning involves identifying or setting intermediate goals in the course of pursuing long-term goals (Snyder & Ford, 1987). Empirical findings suggest that a person's cognitive appraisal of life events strongly influence his response (Rutter, 1981). This suggests that the same event may be perceived by different individuals as irrelevant, benign and positive, or threatening and harmful. Perceptions of control were speculated as predictors for young adolescents and concerns about other people may be predictive of young adults' responses (Gamble, 1994).

3.4.2 Cognitive Rehearsal

Cognitive rehearsal involves going over in one's mind in some detail what may happen in a forthcoming situation, as a sequence of behaviours or alternative sequences of behaviours for responding to the situation, and the likely reactions to the sequence(s) of behaviours (Snyder & Ford, 1987). Coping strategies in the form of cognitive or behavioural responses may be used to regulate emotions that arise from stressful events (emotion focused coping) or act on the source of distress (problem focused coping) (Fromme & Rivet, 1994). Effective use of emotion focused and problem focused coping strategies is thought to reduce the likelihood of experiencing stress-related problems.

3.4.3 Information Seeking

People may search their memories or think back to a similar situation in the past to draw information as to how to cope covertly or overtly with the present situation, or how to construe a situation if the present one is ambiguous (Snyder & Ford, 1987). Previous research has reported gender differences in coping, suggesting that girls report more frequent use of a broader range of coping patterns than males by involvement in

interpersonal relationships with friends, siblings, parents, and other adults (Patterson & McCubbin, 1987). Sex and age in coping strategies were found to be significant in distressed and nondistressed adolescents (Spirito, Overholser, & Stark (1989). The social context, usually the family, plays the pivotal role as a place to talk about problems and work things out.

Patterson & McCubbin (1987) contended that one of the major developmental tasks for the adolescent is to differentiate from his/her family and develop an adaptational fit in the community. Previous studies have also shown that adolescents and young adults tend to use avoidance in their coping behaviours (Patterson & McCubbin, 1987).

In summary, the first chapter looked at the family structures and related literature while the second chapter concentrated on the concept of stress, its historical background and the models of stress. This chapter extended the discussion of the first two chapters. It discusses how different individuals cope with stressful life events.

The next chapter will briefly look at the research procedure and methodology. It will also investigate the differences between adolescents from extended and nuclear families with regard to coping.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH PROCEDURE AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Operational definitions

For the purpose of this study a few terms will be operationalized so as to put this study into perspective. These concepts are:

4.1.1 Family

The term "family" will be used to denote a relatively small domestic or social group of kin (or people in a kinlike relationship) consisting of at least one adult and one dependent person, the adult (or adults) being charged by society with carrying out the social functions of procreation and socialization of children; sexual regulation; and economic cooperation. This is in keeping with a definition in chapter one.

4.1.2 Nuclear family

The term "nuclear family" will mean any social group that consists of at least one or two adults of the opposite sex living together in the same household, along with one or more of their own or adopted children. As defined in chapter one.

4.1.3 Extended family

The term "extended family" refers to a nuclear family plus additional members like parent or parents of the social group, or their sibling or siblings. As defined in chapter one.

4.2 Formulation of hypotheses

Ha I Students from the extended family show higher coping scores than those from nuclear family.

Ho I There is no statistically significant difference in coping scores between students from extended and nuclear family.

Ha II Students older than twenty (20) years show higher coping scores than younger students regardless of their family types.

Ho II There is no statistically significant difference between age and coping scores in students from extended and nuclear families.

Ha III Female students show higher coping scores than male students from extended or nuclear families.

Ho III Gender does not statistically differentiate coping scores in subjects from extended or nuclear families.

4.3 Subjects and sampling

GROUP 1   : Fifty Black nuclear family students
                    (40 females and 10 males)
GROUP 2   : Fifty Black extended family students
                    (40 females and 10 males)

(a) The age group of the participants was between 15 and 25 with a mean age of 19.33 years.

(b) Target population was Black Standard 9-10 students from Qoqisizwe High School, at Vulindlela district.

4.3.1 Sampling

Qoqisizwe High School situated at Vulindlela between Edendale township and Elandskop was used as a resource for drawing subjects from both the extended and the nuclear families. The school only caters for standard nine and ten students from different

environmental backgrounds. First preference in this school is given to local students as it is the first high school in the area. The author chose this school because it is situated at an area which has been affected by politically related violence in the past 10 years, involving two prominent political organizations.

4.3.2 Subjects

The two sample groups were selected by means of a questionnaire which specified the group type according to the definition of family types provided by Haralambos and Holborn (1990). The Qoqisizwe High school principal assisted with class registers which provided information concerning the places where students come from and organizing them into two groups. Students were asked to volunteer to participate in the study. Female students outnumbered male students. As a result class registers could not be followed. The author had to rely on the number of the volunteers because the whole school student population was invited to participate at their free will.

Two hundred students volunteered to participate in the study. Students who lived in one household with their biological parent or parents with other additional members such as uncles and their families were classified as extended family while those who lived in one household with their parent or parents only, were classified as nuclear family. Those who volunteered to participate in the study assembled in two classes where instructions were given. Students who were classified as coming from an extended family had to occupy the first classroom and those who were from a nuclear family occupied the second classroom. Staff members assisted in keeping order in the two classrooms. When the conditions of the two types of families were explained in each classroom, some students had to move to the appropriate classrooms as the definition of two family types became more understandable to them. For the purposes of space in each classroom, only fifty (50)

students were randomly selected. In the end, 50 students remained in each classroom. There were forty (40) female students and ten (10) male students in each classroom. Only 100 students participated in the study. The author's aim was to have equal number of both male and female students.

4.4 Instruments used in the study

(a) A questionnaire of eleven items was used in the study (Michelson, 1991). This questionnaire focuses on demographic information as well as the experience of stressful life events. (See Appendix 1).

(b) A self constructed questionnaire of twenty-six items was used in the study. The first part of this questionnaire specified family type. Section A was only answered by students from the nuclear family while Section B was only answered by students from the extended family. This questionnaire concentrated on the environmental experiences as well as family composition or organization. (See Appendix 2).

The purpose of this questionnaire was to serve as a backup to some of the Family Environment Scale items which were perceived by the author to be ambiguous and difficult to comprehend by the present study sample. Such items could not be translated without losing cultural meaning.

(b) Tests:

For measurement of stress
(i) Family Environment Scale (Moos and Moos, 1986)
This scale was chosen as a result of its acceptable reliability and validity. It also seemed relevant to explain the composition of families cross-culturally. Although the scale consist of 90 items, only 34 items seemed relevant to the present study and they

were re-worded to suit the sample. All the questionnaires were translated into Zulu. The author was aware of the reliability and validity implications of translation and selection of certain items of the scale. (See Appendix 3).

For measurement of coping
(i) Ways of Coping Checklist Folkman and Lazarus (1980).
WCC has become popular in South African studies (Hare, 1995; Michelson, 1993) and as the black people gradually show preference for western ways of life it seemed an appropriate measure in the present study.

Both instruments are described more fully below.

4.5 Discussion of instruments used in the study

4.5.1 Measures of stress

(i) Family Environment Scale Moos and Moos (1986)
The scale was developed for clinical work dealing with families and it was believed that evaluation of family environment was likely to be useful in other areas (Greene & Plank, 1994). The Moos and Moos (1981) (R) form Family Environment Scale, concentrated on five sub-scales: Cohesion, Expression, Conflict, Organization, and Control. The authors reported lower internal consistencies and a failure of the five-factor model to match the expected model using confirmatory factor analysis (Greene & Plank, 1994). Despite this criticism, the scale has been used successfully in a number of settings. For example, Moos and Moos (1986) commented that black adolescents report more emphasis on moral-religious values and organization and less on independence and recreational orientation. This will be demonstrated by the reliability and validity of the scale in later sections of this study.

This scale consists of 90 statements about families. Thirty four

(34) items were selected from Moos's Family Environment Scale. The items were selected for the present study because of cultural relevance. Some of these items were re-worded to involve only the feelings of the children rather than their parents. (See Appendix 3).

4.5.2 Reliability and validity of the Family Environment Scale

(i) Reliability

(a) Internal Consistencies and Intercorrelations in the original standardization study

Internal consistencies were obtained from a sample of 1067 families. The internal consistencies for each of the ten FES subscales were all in an acceptable range, varying from moderate for Independence 0,61 and Achievement Orientation 0,64, to substantial for Cohesion 0,78, Organization 0,76, Intellectual-Cultural Orientation 0,78 and Moral-Religious Emphasis 0,78 (Moos & Moos, 1986).

Although the above internal consistencies were obtained in the original study, the author was aware of the implications of selecting and translating only 34 items.

(b) Test-Retest Reliability and Profile Stability

Studies in Moos and Moos (1986) have shown that test-retest reliabilities of individuals' scores for the 10 subscales were calculated for 47 family members in 9 families who took Form R twice with an 8-week interval between testings. The test-retest reliabilities were all in an acceptable range, varying from a low of 0,68 for Independence to a high of 0,86 for Cohesion. Test-retest stabilities were also calculated for a 4-month interval on a sample of 35 families and for a 12-month interval on a sample of 241 families and coefficients were relatively high for these time intervals. The mean 4-month profile stability for the 10 subscales

was 0,78. Of the 35 stabilities, 29 were 0,70 or above and 20 were 0,80 or above. The mean 12-month profile stability was 0,71. Of the 85 stabilities, 56 were 0,70 or above and 45 were 0,80 or above. This shows that Form R profiles are therefore quite stable over time intervals of as long as a year, although they reflect changes that occur in the family milieu, (Moos & Moos, 1986).

(ii) Validity

Several studies support the construct validity of the FES subscales (Moos & Moos, 1986). For example, the measure of religious participation is highly related to moral-religious emphasis (average r=0,62 for an alcoholic and community sample); joint family activities are associated with recreational orientation (average r=0,39); and family arguments are linked to conflict (average r=0,49). Families oriented toward intellectual and recreational pursuits tend to have more social network resources. Significant relationships between cohesion, expressiveness, and lack of conflict in a family and the proportion of household tasks performed jointly by the spouses were found.

The author believes that the effects of translation and selection of certain items of scale might account for the limitations of this study. Standardization of the scale to the South African population is of paramount importance. Specific scales for specific age groups are vital for reliable research works.

The scales are briefly defined as follows:

(1)   Relationship Dimensions.
       (a) Cohesion: (5 items)
           Questions: 1,13,20,22,26.

This refers to the degree of commitment, help, and support family members provide for one another.

Example: Family members really help and support one another.

    (b) Expressiveness: (5 items)
       Questions: 2,5,15,21,32.

This refers to the extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly.

Example: We say anything we want to around home.

    (c) Conflict: (2 items)
       Questions: 6,11.

This refers to the amount of openly expressed anger, aggression, and conflict among family members.

Example: Family members rarely become openly angry.

(2)   Personal Growth Dimension.
    (a) Independence: (2 items)
       Questions: 7,27.

This refers to the extent to which family members are assertive, are self-sufficient, and make their own decisions.

Example: In our family, we are strongly encouraged to be independent.

    (b) Achievement orientation: (3 items)
       Questions: 4,8,16.

This refers to the extent to which activities (such as school and work) are cast into an achievement-oriented or competitive framework.

Example: Getting ahead in life is very important in our family.

      (c) <u>Intellectual-Cultural Orientation</u>: (3 items)
        Questions: 3,14,17.

This refers to the degree of interest in political, social, intellectual, and cultural activities.

Example: We are not that interested in cultural activities.

      (d) <u>Active-Recreational Orientation</u>: (3 items)
        Questions: 12,33,34.

This refers to the extent of participation in social and recreational activities.

Example: We rarely go to plays or concerts.

      (e) <u>Moral-Religious Emphasis</u>: (3 items)
        Questions: 10,29,31.

This refers to the degree of emphasis on ethical and religious issues and values.

Example: The Bible is a very important book in our family.

(3)   <u>Systematic Maintenance Dimensions</u>.
    (a) <u>Organization</u>: (3 items)
       Questions: 23,24 25

This refers to the degree of importance of clear organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities.

Example: We come and go as we want to in our family.

(b) <u>Control</u>: (5 items)
    Questions: 9, 18,19,28,30.

This refers to the extent to which set rules and procedures are used to run family life.

Example: Rules are pretty inflexible in our family.

4.5.3   Demographic and Situational Questionnaire

A short schedule was drawn up of questions pertaining to demographic and situational information regarding subjects' experiences during the South African conflict (see Appendix 1). Demographic information concerns the subjects' age, sex, marital status, and educational level. Questions regarding situational factors elicit data pertaining to the exposure to or experience of violence. Standardized instruments (Michelson, 1991; Moos & Moos, 1986) were used as the basis for constructing culture and age relevant questions. Zulu and English professionals were consulted in the formulation of these questions. The translations were verified by a Zulu speaking psychologist.

4.5.4 Self constructed questionnaire

This questionnaire consisted of 26 items which were designed to pick up information which could be overlooked by the two Standardized instruments which are criticised for their western based approach. These questions were divided into two sections (Section A = Nuclear family; Section B = Extended family).

The questions in this questionnaire addressed issues based on family types (for example, extended and nuclear family), geographical position of the family, the size of the family, and feelings experienced at home as well as at school. See Appendix 2 for more information.

4.5.5 Measures of coping

Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC)
- Folkman and Lazarus (1980)

The WCC is a self report measure consisting of a checklist of 68 items concerning a wide range of cognitive and behavioural coping strategies that a person might use to deal with a stressful situation. This measure was constructed by Lazarus and Folkman (1987). The strategies described in the WCC, were derived from the framework used by Lazarus and his colleagues and from suggestions put forward in the coping literature. Items included in this measure are concerning, for example, the area of defensive coping (e.g. suppression, isolation), problem solving, inhibition of action, and direct action.

On the whole, this instrument was constructed with the assumption that coping efforts are responsive to the specific situation in which they occur. This is in keeping with the critical approach, based upon the interactional model but incorporates an understanding of the role that sociopolitical and material factors play in constituting and producing the experience of stress and coping. See Appendix 4 for more information.

The broad categories, as classified by Folkman and Lazarus (1980) are twofold:
(i) problem-focused
(ii) emotion-focused.
Problem-focused coping includes items that refer to cognitive problem-solving efforts and behavioural strategies that change or manage the source of the problem. The emotion focused category consists of items that refer to cognitive and behavioural efforts at regulating or minimizing emotional distress.

The major criticism of the WCC is failing to identify more specific coping strategies used to deal with stressful situations (Eagle, 1987).

Literature has shown that each of the two broad categories contains more specific strategies. For example, the emotion-focused category contains many more specific strategies such as, wishful thinking, fatalism, and withholding. The problem-focused category would encompass specific categories such as, seeking social support, information seeking, and taking direct action in dealing with a problem at hand.

The WCC was adapted by Vingerhoets and Flohr, mentioned in (Michelson, 1991) in order to try and assess more specific coping strategies, by developing various coping sub-scales. When the raw scores were obtained on the WCC from a sample of 300, to a principle component analysis with varimax rotation, six factors were isolated with eigenvalues above 2,0. These factors were:
1. Wishful thinking/escape
2. Problem-focused
3. Help seeking
4. Emotional withholding
5. Self-blame and
6. Growth

Vingerhoets and Flohr, in (Michelson, 1991) found that these factors accounted for 44,7% of the variance in their study and that they were easily understood. The use of these scales resulted in a slightly shortened version (60 items) of the WCC. The reliabilities were all in an acceptable range and were respectively 0,83 (wishful thinking/escape); 0,67 (acceptance); 0,64 (problem-focused/help-seeking); 0,59 (withholding); 0,71 (self-blame) and 0,72 (growth).

It was found that one problem with the problem-focused/help-seeking

scale, was that it appeared to subsume two relatively distinct coping styles (Eagle, 1987; Michelson, 1991). The test-retest reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha (a) correlated for the number of items) of the scales used in the Eagle (1987) study were, respectively; 0,784 (wishful thinking/escape); 0,647 (acceptance); 0,392 (problem focused/help-seeking); 0,603 (emotional withholding); 0,590 (self-blame); 0,680 (growth) and 0,698 (help-seeking).

Billings and Moos (1981) and Eagle (1987) made further modifications to the WCC which resulted in a five point Likert scale ranging from (1) Never to (5) Always, thereby indicating the frequency with which a strategy is used.

The version of the WCC used by Eagle (1987) was used in this study. One item was excluded due to translation difficulties. The lack of scientific terminology in Zulu made it difficult to include the last item of the WCC. Only 59 items which were translated from English to Zulu and used in a study conducted by Michelson (1991) were employed in this study. The scales are briefly defined below:

(1)   Wishful thinking-escape (15 items)

This refers to emotion-focused coping strategies, which concern cognitive efforts to escape from emotional discomfort, by techniques such as humour, wishful thinking and denial:

Example: Joking about it.

(2) Acceptance (12 items)

This refers to emotion-focused coping strategies, which concern indicate acceptance of stress after it has emerged. The scale concerns both cognitive and emotional strategies for minimizing the effect of this stress, e.g. compromise, substitutive activity, and

patience. Several items included in this scale are negatively correlated with acceptance and are scored in a reverse direction.

Example: Waiting to see what will happen.

(3) Problem-focused/help-seeking (14 items)
This refers to problem focused efforts which seek to change or act on the source of the problem, and emphasize problem solving and direct action. It includes items which infer seeking advice, finding alternative solutions, and decisive behavioural planning.

Example: Making a plan of action and following.

(4) Emotional withholding (10 items)

This refers to emotion-focused strategies that seek to control anxiety through the inhibition of emotional discomfort. This implies an unwillingness to look for or accept emotional support from others (independence), or to express feelings of vulnerability or dependence. Some items are negatively correlated with emotional withholding and are scored in a negative direction.

Example: Keeping others from knowing how bad things are.

(5) Self-blame (9 items)

This refers to emotion-focused strategies that indicate an inclination to respond to stressful situations, by criticising or blaming oneself, for not being able to cope with these situations. Items included illustrate a wish to be a more assertive and strong person, thus indicating a dissatisfaction with ones present coping abilities.

Example: Feeling bad that you can't avoid the problem.

(6) <u>Growth</u> (7 items)

This refers to emotion-focused strategies that attempt to buffer the impact of a stressful situation by controlling the meaning of the problem , thus serving to recognise the creative and growth potential stressful situations may present.

Example: Being inspired to do something creative.

(7) <u>Help-seeking</u> (4 items)

This refers to a specific problem-focused strategies whereby efforts are directed towards others to obtain information and assistance.

Example: Talking to someone who can do something concrete about the problem.

This study employed the WCC in accordance with Folkman and Lazarus's (1980) situation specific model of coping. In this study, students were asked to respond to their present situation. Since the WCC is not linked to one specific event, students were given a chance to show how they respond or cope at different situations. For example, at school or at home. This is therefore, in keeping with situation. Subjects are asked to respond in terms of how they are coping at present. An advantage of using this measure is that results can be compared with other studies that have found that specific coping behaviour mediate the impact of traumatic experiences (Michelson, 1991).

Possible limitations of this study measure is that there are other coping styles used by the black population that were included in this measure. The instrument was developed for use with western populations. The manual of WCC was not available at the time when this thesis was written. Therefore, limitations of the WCC are

delivered from the works of Hare (1995) and Michelson (1993). The limitations of this instrument will be dealt with in the section on the limitations of this study in the final chapter.

4.6   Procedure

4.6.1   Administration

The researcher gave the subjects verbal instructions regarding the completion of the questionnaires. It was stressed that teachers were not allowed to see the responses of the subjects and that the subjects' participation in the study would be anonymous, as they were not requested to furnish their names. Subjects were asked to answer in a truthful, honest fashion.

The subjects were only asked by the researcher to put (F) or (M) on the front page to facilitate accurate and speedy collection of the questionnaires.

Testing took 50 minutes and the students were not allowed to leave the classroom before the questionnaires were checked. The author was responsible for the checking as well as collecting of the completed questionnaires.

The following chapter will present the results.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

The next section outlines the results obtained in this study.

5.1   Introduction
The sample consisted of 20 male and 80 female standard nine and ten students from Qoqisizwe high school, Vulindlela Circuit.   The ages of these students ranged from 15 to slightly above 25 years.   The school falls under the Department of Education and Culture and it is about 23 kilometres from Edendale Hospital.   This school only caters for standard nine and ten and the first priority is given to the local junior secondary schools to accommodate their students.   The area around the school has been devastated by politically related violence between two major political organizations.

5.2. Demographic and situational Variables

   5.2.1 Demographic Details
The detail obtained from this section is as follows:
A substantial number (See Table I) of students (76%) ranged between 15 and 20 years, between 21 and 24 years were 20% and only 4% were 25 and above.

TABLE I: PERSONAL DETAILS

			n	%
Age Groups:Youth		(15-20)	76	76
:young Adults		(21-24)	20	20
		(25 and above)	4	4
Gender	: Male		20	100
	: Female		80	100
Marital Status	: unmarried		100	100
	: Married		0	0

5.2.2   Situational details

The following is a table reflecting the samples' exposure to a range of violent incidents related to events that occurred at the time of the conflict.

In order to control exposure to violence, the sample was chosen from Vulindlela area which has been affected by politically related violence in the past 10 years. Statistically, both groups were equally exposed to violence.

5.2.2.1   Exposure to traumatic events

TABLE II: EXPOSURE TO TRAUMATIC EVENTS BY FAMILY TYPE (in the past 10 years)

	N	E
Member killed in violence		
* Parent	0	1
* Sibling	1	1
* Other/relative	9	19
* none	40	29
Member witnessed killed in violence		
* Parent	2	4
* Sibling	8	16
* Other/relative	0	1
* none	40	29
Friend killed in violence		
* yes	8	13
* no	42	37
Friend witnessed killed in violence		
* yes	4	3
* no	46	47
Witnessed other person killed		
* yes	49	48
* no	1	2
Witnessed another person hurt		
* yes	21	21
* no	29	29
Family house damaged during violence		
* yes	9	20
* no	41	30
Extent of family house destruction		
* partially	42	30
* completely	6	15

* no response	2	5
Ran away from home		
* yes	24	31
* no	26	19
* Returned	16	22
* Never returned	8	11
Hurt in violence		
* yes	4	4
* no	46	43
* no response	0	3
Extent of injuries sustained in violence		
* light injuries	4	4
* disabled	0	1
* no injuries	46	45
Family member killed by a relative		
* yes	8	12
* no	42	38
When was family member killed by a relative		
* 1979-1989	5	7
* 1990-1995	3	6

Key:

N = nuclear; E = extended

Entire sample = N

N=100

A substantial number of students from both the nuclear and the extended family have witnessed the killing of another person (nuclear=96%; extended=92%). More respondents (84%) from the nuclear family have had an experience of a family house being partially destroyed whereas 60% from the extended family had similar experiences. Both the nuclear and the extended family students have been exposed to a major traumatic life event

where they witnessed a family member killed by a relative in politically related violence. Percentages are 16% for nuclear and 24% for extended. On the whole, results tend to show that a substantial number of students from the extended family have experienced different kinds of politically related trauma. (See Table II above).

5.2.3 Demographic tables

TABLE III: AGE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION BY GENDER AND TYPE

	Mean	Std Dev.	Cases
Entire sample :	19,3300	2,5468	100
Gender 1. men :	19,5500	2,2589	20
2. women :	19,2750	2,6240	80
Nuclear :	19,1800	2,2829	50
:1. men :	19,3000	1,8886	10
:2. women :	19,1500	2,3918	40
Extended :	19.4800	2.8012	50
1. men :	19.8000	2.6583	10
2. women :	19.4000	2.8627	40

TABLE IV: MEANS BY TYPE, AGE, GENDER AND STANDARD.

Entire sample :	19.33	
Type :		
	N	E
Age :	19.18	19.48

Gender :		men	women
		19.55	19.27
Standard :		nine	ten
		17.92	19.80

	Gender :	men	women
Type :	Nuclear:	19.30	19.15
	Extended :	19.80	19.40

Standard :		nine	ten
Type : Nuclear :		18.20	19.60
Extended :		17.50	19.98

Standard :		nine	ten
Gender : men:		19.00	19.61
women:		17.83	19.86

Standard nine :

	Gender	men	women
Type : Nuclear		18.00	18.21
Extended		20.00	17.22

Standard ten :

	Gender	men	women
Type : Nuclear		19.44	19.65
Extended		19.78	20.03

TABLE V: SUMMARY OF THE SAMPLE

		%	Nuclear	Extended
Entire sample:	Std. 9 :	24	13	11
:	Std. 10:	76	36	40
Gender: 1. men : Std. 9 :			1	13
2. women:			1	9
Gender: 1. Men : Std. 10:			9	9
2. Women:			27	31

A substantial number of students were from standard ten class. Both the nuclear and extended family showed a similar trend in this regard.

5.2.4   Statistical data analysis

Each of the hypotheses will be examined in turn and the relevant test data drawn upon to assess their validity.

Hypothesis 1

Ha: Students from the extended family show a higher level of coping than those from the nuclear family.

Ho: There is no statistically significant difference in coping between students from extended and nuclear family.

On the basis of Mann-Whitney U-Test using the SPSS/PC+package, data from the Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC) and Family Environment Scale (FES) For Stress and Coping, fail to show statistical significance.

Data analysis shows that the null hypothesis is not rejected, that is, there is no statistically significant difference between the nuclear family and the extended family members with regard to coping strategies.
(See Table XII).
For "family type" p=0,0799

Hypothesis 2

Ha: Students older than twenty years show a higher level of coping than younger students regardless of their family types.

Ho: There is no statistically significant difference between age and coping in students from extended and nuclear family when they are faced with a stressful life situation.
(See Table XIII).
For Age p=0,668

Hypothesis 3

Ha: Female students show a higher level of coping than male students from both the extended and nuclear family when they are faced with a stressful life situation.

Ho: Gender is not associated with a statistically significant difference in coping styles of students from either extended or nuclear families who have faced a stressful situation. (See Table XV).
For Gender p=0,0028

5.3 FAMILY ENVIRONMENT SCALE TABLES

5.3.1   <u>Cohesion by gender</u>

TABLE VI: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BY COHESION AND GENDER

	Mean	Std Dev.	Cases
<u>Entire sample</u> :	3,2700	1,1964	100
Nuclear:	3,3800	1,1586	50
1. men:	3,4000	0,6992	10
2. women:	3,3750	1,2545	40
Extended:	3,1600	1,2349	50
1. men	2,4000	1,2649	10
2. women	3,3500	1,1668	40
		p=0,120 *NS	

*NS= (not significant)

There was no significant difference between extended and nuclear family with regard to the degree of commitment to family members.

5.3.2 Intellectual-cultural orientation

TABLE VII: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BY INTELLECTUAL-CULTURAL ORIENTATION, TYPE AND GENDER

	Mean	Std Dev.	Cases
Entire sample :	1,3000	0,9266	100
Nuclear:	1,1800	0,8497	50
1. men:	0,6000	0,6992	10
2.women:	1,3250	0,8286	40
Extended:	1,4200	0,9916	50
1. men:	1,3000	0,9487	10
2.women:	1,4500	1,0115	40

p=0,057 *S

*S= (significant)

A significant number of female students reported commitment to things such as political, cultural, intellectual, and cultural activities.

5.3.3 <u>Active-recreational orientation</u>

TABLE VIII: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BY ACTIVE-RECREATIONAL
ORIENTATION, TYPE AND GENDER

<u>Entire sample</u> :	Mean	Std Dev.	Cases
	2,3200	0,6946	100
Nuclear:	2,3600	0,6627	50
1. men:	2,0000	0,6667	10
2. women:	2,4500	0,6385	40
Extended:	2,2800	0,7296	50
1. men:	2,1000	0,7379	10
2. women:	2,3250	0,7299	40
p=0,053 *S			

   *S= (significant)

A significant number of female students were open to
participation in a number of social and recreational
activities.

5.3.4 Systematic maintenance dimensions
(organization)

TABLE IX: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BY SYSTEMATIC MAINTENANCE DIMENSIONS, TYPE AND GENDER

Systematic maintenance dimensions (organization)

Entire sample :	Mean	Std. Dev.	Cases
	1,8600	0,5689	100
Nuclear:	1,9800	0,4281	50
1. men:	2,0000	0,4714	10
2. women:	1,9750	0,4229	40
Extended:	1,7400	0,6642	50
1. men:	1,7000	0,6749	10
2. women:	1,7500	0,6699	40

p=0,039 *S

*S= (significant)

A significant number of students from the nuclear family showed clear organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities.

5.4   WAYS OF COPING CHECKLIST TABLES

5.4.1   <u>Emotional withholding</u>

TABLE X: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BY EMOTIONAL WITHHOLDING, TYPE AND GENDER

	Mean	Std Dev.	Cases
<u>Entire sample</u> :	19,6869	4,7716	99
Nuclear:	19,9200	5,2638	50
1. men:	14,8000	5,0728	10
2. women:	21,2000	4,5246	40
Extended:	19,4490	4,2528	49
1. men:	17,7778	5,0194	9
2. women:	19,8250	4,0376	40
	p=0,000 *S		

*S= (significant)

A significant number of female students would not express their emotions or feelings when under stress. This will perhaps explain the high number of female volunteers who participated in the study.

5.4.2 Growth by gender

TABLE XI: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BY GROWTH, TYPE AND GENDER

		Mean	Std Dev.	Cases
Entire sample:		16,2300	4,4718	100
Nuclear:		17,0200	4,4744	50
	1. men:	16,3000	5,0343	10
	2. women:	17,2000	4,3748	40
Extended :		15,4400	4,3713	50
	1. men:	13,6000	4,6952	10
	2. women:	15,9000	4,2233	40
			p=0,072 *NS	

*NS= (not significant)

Although the results were not statistically significant between extended and nuclear family students, students from the nuclear family showed a trend towards inspiration in actively dealing with stress.

5.4.3 Coping efforts

5.4.3.1 Family type and coping

TABLE XII: MEAN RANK SCORES BY COPING AND TYPE

| | Mean Rank Scores | | | |
	Nuclear	Extended	U	P
Wishful Thinking	47,64	52,31	1109,5	0,4185
Acceptance	47,41	52,54	1098,0	0,3732
Problem Solving/				
H.S*	52,88	47,06	1081,0	0,3126
Emotional-				
Withholding	51,19	48,79	1165,5	0,6763
Self Blame	49,90	51,10	1220,0	0,8357
Growth	55,56	45,44	997,0	0,0799
Help Seeking	54,36	45,55	1007,0	0,1245
		p=0,0799 *NS		

*NS = (not significant)

Results failed to show statistically significant difference between students from nuclear and extended family. However, students from the nuclear family have shown trends towards psychologically mature ways of coping.

5.4.3.2 Age and coping strategies

TABLE XIII: MEAN RANK SCORES BY AGE

| | Chi-Square | | |
| | Mean Rank Score | | |

Coping scales Age	15-20	21-25	25 & Above
Wishful Thinking	50,33	48,19	53,38
Acceptance	53,36	38,26	49,50
Problem Solving/			
H.S*	51,66	47,33	33,38
Emotional Withholding	46,89	56,81	71,75
Self Blame	52,67	44,45	41,50
Growth	51,51	48,14	44,00
Help Seeking	52,57	45,26	27,36
			p=0,668 *NS

*(H.S.=Help Seeking); *NS = (not significant)
 (1= 15-20 years, 2= 21-25 years, 3= 25 and above

Results were not statistically significant but older students
(21 and above) have shown a trend towards using
psychologically mature ways when confronted by stressful life
situations while the younger adolescents tended to accept the
situation or blame themselves for not coping with the
situation.

TABLE XIV: MEAN RANK SCORES   BY AGE

Kruskal-Wallis 1-way ANOVA

Coping scales	Age	Mean Rank Scores 15-20	21-25	25 & Above
Moral-Religious				
Emphasis		47,63	55,88	76,00
Organization		49,30	53,88	55,25
Control		52,07	44,29	53,75
Wishful Thinking		50,33	48,19	53,38
Acceptance		53,36	38,26	49,50
Problem Solving/				
H.S*		51,66	47,33	33,38
Emotional Withholding		46,89	56,81	71,75
Self Blame		52,67	44,45	41,50
Growth		51,51	48,14	44,00
Help Seeking		52,57	45,26	27,38

$p=0,1125$ *NS

*(H.S. Help Seeking); *NS = (not significant)

(1= 15-20 years, 2= 21-25 years, 3= 25 and above)

Although the results were not statistically significant, there
were trends which suggested that religion tends to play a
role, particularly, older group of students, in dealing with
uncontrollable stressful conditions. This finding is supported
by literature which states that people who lack control of a
stressful situation tend to rely on external locus of control
(Mbense, 1993; Tyson, 1981). Moos and Moos (1986) reported
that black adolescents report more emphasis on moral-religious
values than other cultural groups. Older students, 21 and
above also showed emotional inhibition.

5.4.3.3 Gender and coping efforts

TABLE XV: MEAN RANK SCORES BY GENDER

(Mann-Whitney U Test)

Coping scales	Mean Rank Scores		U	P
	Male	Female		
Wishful Thinking	52,28	40,39	577,5	0,1046
Acceptance	49,79	50,87	743,5	0,8832
Problem Solving/				
H.S*	48,96	54,37	677,0	0,4599
Emotional				
Withholding	54,20	32,32	424,0	0,0028
Self Blame	52,09	44,15	673,0	0,2724
Growth	52,44	42,75	645,0	0,1799
Help Seeking	48,51	56,26	641,0	0,2871
			p=0,0028 *S	

*S = (significant)

A significant number of male students showed a higher degree
of self-reliance when confronted by a stressful situation
while a large number of female students showed openness to
help seeking. (See Table XV above).

5.4.3.4 Witnessed killing and coping strategies

TABLE XVI: MEAN RANK SCORES BY WITNESSING KILLING
(Mann-Whitney U Test

| Coping scales | Mean Rank Scores | | | |
	1	2	U	P
Wishful Thinking	10,00	15,73	39,0	0,1297
Acceptance	15,75	14,16	58,5	0,6738
Problem Solving/H.S.*	10,67	16,13	43,0	0,1606
Emotional Withholding	17,67	15,61	55,0	0,4490
Self Blame	10,00	16,30	39,0	0,1051
Growth	10,33	16,22	41,0	0,1293
Help Seeking	10,42	16,20	41,5	0,1354

p=0,4490 *NS

(1= witnessed killing; 2= Not witnessed killing)
*(H.S.= Help Seeking); *NS = (not significant)

The expression of emotional feelings have been denied by a
large number of students who have witnessed killing. This may
suggest a general lack of psychologically healthy ways of
coping which has been indicated by literature as common in
certain black cultures and other low socioeconomic classes
with low level of education. Perhaps this is in keeping with
the fact that they are getting used to the situation (Richter,
1989). However, the results were not statistically
significant. (See Table XVI above).

5.4.3.5 Hurt and coping strategies

TABLE XVII: MEAN RANK SCORES BY HURT

(Mann-Whitney U Test)

Coping scales	Mean Rank Scores			
	1	2	u	P
Wishful Thinking	48,63	51,01	1139,5	0,6837
Acceptance	48,61	51,03	1138,5	0,6782
Problem Solving/H.S.*	50,93	49,39	1151,0	0,7868
Emotional Withholding	46,38	52,56	1040,5	0,2902
Self Blame	50,56	50,46	1215,5	0,9860
Growth	49,90	50,93	1193,0	0,8608
Help Seeking	50,89	49,37	1152,5	0,7941

p=0,7868 *NS

(1= hurt; 2= not hurt)
*(H.S. = Help Seeking); *NS = (not significant)

A large though non significant number of students who were hurt in violence have shown a tendency of trying to do something or seek help. (See Table XVII above).

5.4.3.6 Witnessing of family member killed and coping strategies

TABLE XVIII: MEAN RANK SCORES BY WITNESSING FAMILY MEMBER KILLED

(Mann-Whitney U Test)

| | Mean Rank Score | | | |
Coping scale	1	2	U	P
Wishful Thinking	56,65	47,11	835,5	0,1284
Acceptance	52,12	49,08	971,5	0,6281
Problem Solving/H.S.*	51,47	49,33	1008,5	0,7309
Emotional Withholding	57,37	46,64	825,5	0,0839
Self Blame	48,97	51,19	1022,0	0,7225
Growth	49,03	51,16	1024,0	0,7335
Help Seeking	46,84	51,44	956,0	0,4566

P=0,0839 *NS

(H.S.= Help Seeking); NS= (not significant)
(1= Family member killed; 2= No family killed

Results failed to show a statistically significant difference between students who have witnessed a family member killed from those who did not. However, there were trends suggesting that students who have witnessed their family members killed relied on themselves for emotional comfort. It appears they have inhibited emotional discomfort and tend to day-dream or imagine a better time. (See Table XVIII above).

5.4.3.7 Witnessing friend killed and coping strategies

TABLE XIX: MEAN RANK SORES BY WITNESSING FRIEND KILLED
(Mann-Whitney U Test)

	Mean Rank Scores			
Coping scales	1	2	U	P
Wishful Thinking	56,81	47,51	655,0	0,1834
Acceptance	48,69	49,72	791,5	0,8828
Problem Solving/H.S.*	52.69	48,63	741,5	0,5611
Emotional Withholding	56,36	47,63	664,5	0,2113
Self Blame	59,50	47,44	619,5	0,0868
Growth	58,07	47,83	649,5	0,1452
Help Seeking	47,62	50,01	769,0	0,7306

p=0,0868 *NS

*H.S= Help Seeking); *NS= (not significant)
(1= Friend killed; 2= Friend not killed)

Results were not statistically significant but more students tended to blame or criticise themselves for the death of a close friend. (See Table XIX above).

The next section will discuss the results per hypothesis, further significant results and conclude by discussing non-significant results which showed trends towards statistical significance.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This study set out to investigate the relationship between the family structure and coping styles of black standard nine and ten students. The mean age sampled was 19 with a range from 15 to 25 years. (See Table IV). The sample consisted of 20 male and 80 female students from Qoqisizwe High School at Vulindlela area, about 30 kilometres from Pietermaritzburg. The initial aim of the author was to obtain equal number of male and female students. However, due to the shortage of volunteers among male students, females outnumbered males. Students from nuclear and extended families had been exposed to equal levels of violence.

6.2 Discussion of results per hypothesis

6.2.1 Hypothesis 1
A significant number of students from the nuclear family showed a higher degree of clear organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities ($p=.039$). There were no statistically significant differences between students from nuclear and extended family with regard to coping. (See Table XII $p=0,0799$)

6.2.2 Hypothesis 2
There were no statistically significant age differences with regard to coping in students from nuclear and extended family. (See Table XIII $p=0,668$)

6.2.3 Hypothesis 3
There were statistically significant differences between male

and female students from nuclear and extended family. Results have shown that male students from either the nuclear or extended families would not show emotional responses when exposed to traumatic life events. (See Table XV p=0,0028). These results tended to agree with the literature (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990; McCubbin & Figley,1983). This concurs with findings of Schafer (1992) who emphasized the importance of the situation in which the family finds itself rather than family types. South African literature has shown that differences in culture do contribute to the ways people deal with stress (Pillay, 1989; Richter, 1989; Turton, Straker & Moosa, 1991; Wood & Wassenaar, 1989).

A statistically significant number of female students from both the extended and the nuclear family showed openness to participation in social and recreational activities (p=0,053). This suggests that female students adopt more psychologically mature ways of coping.

6.3 Further significant results

Female students would not express their emotions when under stressful situations. This has given a contradictory picture where female students had taken male roles according to the cultural view point. For example, in Zulu culture and in many black African cultures, females are expected to express emotions more than males. This is often demonstrated by crying aloud in public settings. (See Table X p=0,000 & Table XV P=0,0028). This may explain the degree and period of exposure to traumatic situations. For example, South African studies have shown that overcrowding does not affect coping with academic tasks (Richter, 1989).

Female students showed higher commitment to social settings such as political, cultural, intellectual and cultural

activities (See Table p=0,057). According to the author, this may suggest openness to suggestions and advice from family members as well as members outside family contexts. Results have also shown that female students were generally open to participate in social as well as recreational activities. (See Table VIII p=0.053). Students from the nuclear family had shown a clear sense of organising themselves in planning activities and responsibilities. (See Table IX p=0.039) South African literature has also revealed that " ...South Africa, like the rest of the world, is moving steadily and inexorably towards a Western nuclear family" (Russell, 1994, p. 64). This cultural convergence is demonstrated by the highly educated and financially well-to-do section of the black population who qualify for housing subsidies. Senekal (1983), concluded that extended family can, through collectivity passively inhibit the process of modernization which leads to cultural convergence.

6.4 Non-significant results

In general this study produced mixed results. A large number of students who witnessed killing and those who were actually hurt did not show emotional responses to this trauma. Interesting, though not significant, a substantial number of students tended to blame or criticise themselves for the death of a friend. A friend appeared more important than a family member. This gives a picture that all students in this sample tended to use strategies which are psychologically immature. These results suggest that students tend to suffer from guilt which in turn might lead to both physiological and psychological problems (Michelson, 1991; Schwartz, 1987). Also, a substantial number of students from the nuclear family showed mature ways of coping i.e., they actively make a plan and do something about a problem. Although this result was not significant, it was approaching statistical significance

(p=0,072).

There were no gender or family type differences in the degree of commitment to the family. Although students from the extended family reported a higher level of exposure to traumatic situations such as observing a family member being killed by a relative, this was not statistically significant. That is, all students were involved in some form of trauma. There were also no significant age or gender differences in both the extended and nuclear family students. A substantial number of standard ten students (See Table V) participated in the study (76%). However, the level of education (See Table IV & Table V) did not show statistical difference between the extended and the nuclear family. Older students (21 and above) tended to rely more on themselves when faced with difficult situations, though not statistically significantly. Also, this section of students tended to rely somewhat more on religion as a means to deal with their problems. This is in keeping with literature (Mbense, 1993; Tyson, 1981) who emphasized the factor of external locus of control. Literature has also shown that people at this age tend to look for possible alternatives like going outside of the family context (Hoffman, 1994; Weller & Luchterhand, 1977). This may also explain the commitment young people make to political organizations rather than to their families. Perhaps the high exposure to traumatic experiences due to the political and economic situation may lead to changes in the way students respond to such situations.

In summary, although there were no significant differences between the extended and nuclear family in terms of coping, female students appeared to use more mature ways of coping than male students. The variable of culture seemed to contribute to gender differences in the way students responded. For example, in black South African community,

especially in rural and semi-rural areas, males are generally expected to be "strong" and show no emotional response to traumatic life events. The author feels that as the South African cultural groups tend to join a "common culture" which is predominantly western in nature, such coping strategies will have major psychological implications.

6.5 Limitations of the study

6.5.1 Instruments

The instruments used in the study were not designed for the South African population, particularly blacks. Therefore, these instruments might have not have measured accurately what was purported to be measured. Translation of some of the items in the Ways of Coping had more than one meaning to the respondents. For example, one term in Zulu may have two different meanings. Rewording of some of the items in the Family Environment Scale to suit black students could also affect the results of this study.

The Family Environment Scale has the following major limitations:

(a) Cohesion Scale: Appears to have two questions of the four that are problematic. The questions "We often seem to be killing time at home" and "We put a lot of energy into what we do at home" might have little to do with the notion of cohesion (Greene & Plank, 1994). This ambiguity has also been shown by the present study. Putting a lot of energy into what they do at home may not mean they do it together. Instead each family may have its own activities. Cultural patterns should be taken into account more carefully (Pillay, 1989).

(b) Expressiveness Scale: Has a problematic question, "It's hard to blow off steam at home without upsetting somebody". The notion of blowing off steam may mean different things to different respondents. For example, some families

may be very expressive but not ever be angry and blow off steam given their cultural background.

(c) Conflict Scale: Appears to assume mostly physical manifestations of conflict such as fighting, throwing things, or losing one's temper.

(d) Independence Scale: It may be appropriate to ask, how does the concept of independence differ from that of cohesion because independence seems to be loaded towards achievement.

(e) Intellectual Cultural Orientation: "Learning about new and different things is very important in our family". This appeared as a completely different question and orientation from the other three questions.

The Ways of Coping Checklist presented the following limitations:

The translation of the FES and selection of 34 items which seemed relevant to the study has implications of reduced reliability and validity.

6.5.2 Methodological problems

The above results may be influenced by methodological problems. For example, some of the students could not differentiate between nuclear and extended family. Therefore, before they started responding to the questionnaires, they moved from one classroom to another.

Only the author explained the instructions to both groups in two different classrooms.

The selection of the students for this study could also affect the results of this study. The initial aim was to have equal number of males and females. However, female students were

more willing to participate in the study than male students. As a result, the study consisted of 80% female students and only 20% of male students. The author feels that the selection of the sample was not adequately controlled. The political situation and exposure to violence could also affect the attitudes of students towards the researcher. Culturally, it could be difficult for the students to respond openly about parents' behaviour. Acculturation which is in process in the black population is likely to affect the attitudes of students towards their "traditional" parents.

6.5.3   Conclusion

Although the findings of this study did not show statistical significance with regard to the proposed hypotheses, the content data and analysis has yielded some understanding of the instruments used and the direction of future research. The findings of this study suggest that family type did not play a significant role in coping with stress. However, it is interesting to observe family types over time. More black South Africans, particularly, younger generations tend to prefer the nuclear family as opposed to the extended family (Mahabeer, 1987; Russell, 1994). This change is expected to go along with ways of coping with stress. Perhaps, this suggests a need for psychological intervention to these students in the near future. This has been shown by a statistically significant number of students who used psychologically immature ways.

The general conclusion drawn from this study is that black students show inhibited emotional responses under stressful situation. Religion has been found to be a comforting factor to a substantial number of students.

6.6 Recommendations for future research

6.6.1 Methodology

Cultural understanding of the research subjects is of paramount importance before an empirical work is undertaken (Pillay, 1989; Pillay; Wassenaar, 1989; Spielberger, Sarason & Strelau, 1989).

Culturally sensitive instruments should be developed and used to investigate coping strategies for different cultural groups. Specific scales for specific age groups are vital for reliable research works. Standardization of the WCC and FES to the South African population seems to be suggested. A follow up study in this area may uncover other factors that were overlooked in this study, such as religious affiliation.

APPENDIX 1

Demographic and situational factors
Michelson (1991)
Zulu translation

Ngicela uphendule yonke imibuzo.
1. Iminyaka yakho: ....
2. Ufunda liphi ibanga esikoleni? ....
3. Ushadile? ....
4. Ubulili: ....
5. Ukhona omunye wabomndeni wakho owasweleka odlameni?
    yebo / cha
    Uma kunjalo, ubani? ....(alidingekile igama
    lakhe kodwa unganikeza ukuhlobana kwakho naye, isibonelo:
    umfowethu.
    Wakubona loko kwenzeka? ....
    yebo / cha
6. Ukhona umngani wakho omkhulu owasweleka odlameni?
    Yebo / cha
    Wakubona loko kwenzeka? ....
7. Wake wambona omunye umuntu:
    (i) ebulawa?
    yebo /cha
    (ii) elinyazwa?
    yebo / cha
8. Yake yalinyazwa indlu yakini?
    yebo / cha
    Uma kunjalo, yalinyazwa kanjani noma ngani?
    ....
    ....
9. Kwake kwadingeka ukuthi nize nibaleke ekhaya ngenxa
    yodlame?
    yebo / cha

Uma kunjalo, nabuyela ekhaya? ....

10. Wake walimala odlameni?

yebo / cha

Uma kunjalo walimala kuphi nomzimba, kangakanani? ......

....

....

11. Ukhona owomndeni wakho owabulawa isihlobo noma omunye womndeni wakho?

yebo / cha

Uma kunjalo, kungamuphi unyaka? ....

APPENDIX 2

ISIQEPHU A

Kuzophendula kuphela labo abahlala nomzali noma abazali ekhaya. Umzali noma abazali angasebenza / bangasebenza ekudeni abuye / babuye ngempelasonto noma ukuphela kwenyanga.

1. Nihlala / nakhe kuphi? ....

2. Iyiphi indawo enakhe kuyo? Kekelezela impendulo yakho, noma ubhale igama lendawo uma ukhethe u (d).

    (a) emakhaya – ezindaweni zabantu.

    (b) elokishini (township).

    (c) eMgungundlovu, eThekwini.

    (d) nezinye izindawo ....

3. Uzalelwe kuleyondawo enihlala kuyo manje? ....

    (a) yebo

    (b) cha

4. Uma kungenjalo benakhephi ngaphambili? ....

    ....

5. Seninesikhathi esingakanani nikulendawo enakhe / enihlala kuyo? ....

6. Nibangaki eningabantwana ekhaya?......................

7. Nikeza uhla labo bonke ohlala nabo ekhaya. isibonelo: umalumeumzala njil. ....

    ....

    ....

    ....

8. Uma uqhathanisa umndeni wakini nomakhelwane, ungathi yibaphi abaningi?

    (a) abakini

    (b) abakwamakhelwane

9. Uyathokoza ngokuthi nibe yilelinani eniyilona ekhaya? Kekelezele impendulo yakho.

    1. kakhulu 2. ngiyathokoza nje 3. anginaso isiqiniseko

    4. angithokozi kahle 5. angithokozi neze.

10. Uma uphatheke kabi enhliziyweni uyaye uxhumane nobani ekhaya?
....

11. Basaphila abazali bakho?

12. Uma besaphila, kuyenzeka yini ukuthi baxabane baze babambane ngezandla kuze kudingeke ukuthi balanyulwe? ....

13. Ukhona owabomndeni oyaye abalamule?

   (a) yebo

   (b) cha

   Uma ekhona oyaye abalamule, ngubani? ....

14. Nixabana kangakanani ekhaya? Kekelezela impendulo yakho kulezi ezilandelayo.

   1.Sivamile 2. Kuyenzeka 3. Kwesinye isikhathi 4. Akuvamisile
   5. Akwenzeki.

15. Uyathanda ukuxazululelwa ngabomndeni inkinga yakho yezothando? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

   1. Kakhulu 2. Ngiyathanda 3.Angiqinisekile 4.Angithandi
   5. Angithandi neze.

16. Uyathanda ukuba abomndeni wakho bakusize ekuxazululeni inkinga ephathelene nomsebenzi wakho wesikole, njengama-homeworks? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

   1. kakhulu 2. ngiyaluthanda 3. angiqinisekile 4. angiluthandi
   5. Angiluthandi neze.

17. Uma uqhathanisa umuzi wakini nowakwamakhelwane ngezinga lokuxabana; ungathi omakhelwane baxabana kakhulu noma kancane kunabomndeni wakho? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

   (a) kakhulu

   (b) kancane

18. Ngokujwayelekile, uyaye uzizwe unjani uma usekhaya? Kekelezela impendulo yakho

   1. ngijabula kakhulu 2. ngiyajabula nje 3. anginaso isiqiniseko 4.angithandisisi kahle 5. angithandi neze.

19. Ungathi yini ikakhulukazi eyaye yephule umoya wakho?
....

20. Uke uzizwe uphelelwa yithemba? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

1. kakhulu 2. kuyenzeka nje 3. kwesinye isikhathi
4. akuvamisile 5. akuvamisile neze.

21. Ubani oyaye akududuze? Khetha izimpendulo ezivumelana nawe.

    (a) yimina uqobo lwami

    (b) umzali wami

    (c) ingane yakithi

    (d) isihlobo sami

    (e) akekho

22. Uke ufise ukungaphili (ukuzibulala) ngenxa yokuphatheka
    kabi? ....

23. Uma impendulo kungu (yebo), kuvamise kangakanani? Kekelezela
    impendulo yakho.

    1.kahkulu 2. kuvamisile 3 kuyenzeka nje 4. akuvamisile
    5. akuvamisile neze.

    ....

24. Uyaye uyigweme kanjani imicabango yokufisa
    ukungaphili noma yokuzibulala?

    ....
    ....

25. Kukuphi lapho oyaye uzizwe ukhululeke khona kakhulu
    ngokomphefumulo? Kekelezela izimpendulo zakho.

    (a) ekhaya?

    yebo / cha

    (b) esikoleni?

    yebo / cha

26. Kukuphi lapho ojwayele ukuzizwa ukhululelekile ngokomzimba/
    ngokwenyama?

    Kekelezela izimpendulo zakho.

    (a) ekhaya?

    yebo / cha

    (b) esikoleni?

    yebo / cha.

NGIYABONGA UKUPHENDULA KWAKHO LEMIBUZO NGOKUZIMISELA
NANGOKWETHEMBEKA.

APPENDIX 2 (CONT.)

ISIQEPHU B

Kuzophendula kuphela labo abahlala nabazali babo, noma noyedwa wabazali, ngenxa yokushona koyedwa noma ukuhlukanisa kwabo. Ngaphezu kwaloko ahlale nabanye balaba abalandelayo : ugogo, umkhulu, umalume, umzala, umfowabo nomkakhe, udadewabo nomkhwenyane wakhe - nabantwana babo ekhaya elilodwa.

1. Nihlala / nakhe kuphi? ....
2. Iyiphi indawo enakhe kuyo? Kekelezela impendulo yakho,
    noma ubhale igama lendawo uma ukhethe u (d).
    (a) emakhaya ezindaweni zabantu.
    (b) elokishini (township).
    (c) eMgungundlovu, eThekwini.
    (d) nezinye izindawo ....
3. Uzalelwe kuleyondawo enihlala kuyo manje?
    (a) yebo
    (b) cha
4. Uma kungenjalo benakhephi ngaphambili? ....
    ....
5. Seninesikhathi esingakanani nikulendawo
    enakhe / enihlala kuyo? ....
6. Nibangaki eningabantwana ekhaya? ....
7. Nikeza uhla labo bonke ohlala nabo ekhaya. isibonelo:
    umalume, umzala, njil. ....
    ....
8. Uma uqhathanisa umndeni wakini nomakhelwane, ungathi yibaphi
    abaningi?
    (a) abakini
    (b) abakwamakhelwane
9. Uyathokoza ngokuthi nibe yilelinani eniyilona ekhaya?
    Kekelezela impendulo yakho.
    1. kakhulu 2. ngiyathokoza nje 3. anginaso isiqiniseko
    4. angithokozi kahle 5. angithokozi neze.

10. Uma uphatheke kabi enhliziyweni uyaye uxhumane nobani ekhaya?

....

11. Basaphila abazali bakho? ....

12. uma besaphila, kuyenzeka yini ukuthi baxabane baze babambane ngezandla kuze kudingeke ukuthi balanyulwe? ....

13. Ukhona owabomndeni oyaye abalamule?

    (a) yebo

    (b) cha

    Uma ekhona oyaye abalamule, ngubani? ....

14. Nixabana kangakanani ekhaya? Kekelezela impendulo yakho kulezi ezilandelayo?

    1. Sivamile 2. Kuyenzeka 3. Kwesinye isikhathi 4 Akuvamisile
    5. Akwenzeki.

15. Uyathanda ukuxazululelwa ngabomndeni inkinga yakho yezothando? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

    1. kakhulu 2. ngiyathanda 3. angiqinisekile 4. angithandi
    5. angithandi neze.

16. Uyathanda ukuba abomndeni wakho bakusize ekuxazululeni inkinga ephathelene nomsebenzi wakho wesikole, njengama-homeworks? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

    1. kakhulu 2. ngiyaluthanda 3. angiqinisekile 4.angiluthandi
    5. angiluthandi neze.

17. Uma uqhathanisa umuzi wakini nowakwamakhelwane ngezinga lokuxabana; ungathi omakhelwane baxabana kakhulu noma kancane kunabomndeni wakho? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

    (a) kakhulu

    (b) kancane.

18. Ngokujwayelekile, uyaye uzizwe unjani uma usekhaya? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

    ngijabula kakhulu 2. ngiyajabula nje 3. anginaso isiqiniseko 4. angithadnisisi kahle.angithandi neze.

19. Ungathi yini ikakhulukazi eyaye yephule umoya wakho?

....

20. Uke uzizwe uphelelwa yithemba? Kekelezela impendulo yakho.

1. kakhulu 2. kuyenzeka nje 3. kwesinye isikhathi
4. akuvamisile 5. akuvamisile neze.

21. Ubani oyaye akududuze? Khetha izimpendulo ezivumelana nawe.
    (a) Yimina uqobo lwami
    (b) umzali wami
    (c) ingane yakithi
    (d) isihlobo sami
    (e) akekho

22. Uke ufise ukungaphili (ukuzibulala) ngenxa yokuphatheka kabi?
    ....

23. Uma impendulo kungu (yebo), kuvamise kangakanani?
    Kekelezela impendulo yakho.
    1. kakhulu 2. kuvamisile 3. kuyenzeka nje 4. akuvamisile
    5.akuvamisile neze.

24. Uyaye uyigweme kanjani imicabango yokufisa ukungaphili noma
    yokuzibulala?
    ....
    ....

25. Kukuphi lapho oyaye uzizwe ukhululeke khona kahulu
    ngokomphefumulo? Kekelezela izimpendulo zakho.
    (a) ekhaya?
    yebo / cha
    (b) esikoleni?
    yebo / cha

26. Kukuphi lapho ojwayele ukuzizwa ukhululekile ngokomzimba/
    ngokwenyama?
    Kekelezela izimpendulo zakho.
    (a) ekhaya?
    yebo / cha
    (b) esikoleni?
    yebo / cha

NGIYABONGA UKUPHENDULA KWAKHO LEMIBUZO NGOKUZIMISELA
        NANGOKWETHEMBEKA

APPENDIX 3

<u>Family Environment Scale</u> Moos (1986).

Zulu translation

Ngicela uphendule yonke imibuzo elandelayo. Lezi   yizitatimende eziphathelene nesimo sasemakhaya. Uzokhetha loko ocabanga ukuthi kuwuchaza kangcono umndeni wakho. Ekugcineni kombuzo uzokekelezela impendulo yakho oyikhethayo.

1. Abomndeni bayasizana futhi basingathane impela. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

2. Abomndeni bavamise ukugcina ngaphakathi imizwa yabo. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

3. Sivamisile ukukhuluma ngezombangazwa
    nangezomphakathi. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

4. Ukufunda ngezinto ezintsha nezahlukile kuyinto
    esemqoka ekhaya. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

5. Sisho yonke into esithanda ukuyisho ekhaya. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

6. Abomndeni abavamisile ukukhombisa ukuthukuthela
    kwabo. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

7. Ekhaya siyagqugquzelwa ukuba sizimele. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

8. Inqubekela phambile emndenini iyinto esemqoka. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

9. Imbalwa imithetho elandelwayo ekhaya. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

10. Sivamisile ukukhuluma ngenkolo nencazelo ka-Khisimusi,
    i- Phasika kanye namanye amaholide. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

11. Siyaxabana kakhulu ekhaya. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

12. Asivamisile ukuya emidlalweni, noma emakhonsathini. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

13. Kunomoya wobumbano ekhaya. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

14. Asizithandi kangako izinto eziphathelene namasiko. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

15. Abomndeni bavamisile ukugxekana. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

16. Emndenini siyakholelwa ukuthi okwenzayo ukwenzisise
    uphumelele kahle. <u>yebo</u> <u>cha</u>

17. Asivamisile ukukhuluma ngezinto ezidinga umqondo

ojulile. yebo cha

18. Abomndeni banesibopho esiqinile ekuhlukaniseni

nasekumeleni okulungile kokungalungile. yebo cha

19. Kunesibopho esinqala sokulandela imithetho ekhaya. yebo cha

20 Abomndeni bayazimela cishe kuyo yonke inkinga

evelayo. yebo cha

21. Emndenini sinelungelo elilinganayo lokubeka imibono. yebo cha

22. Akukho ukubambisana njengomndeni ekhaya. yebo cha

23. Yilowo nalowo ekhaya unomsebenzi ocacile awenzayo

ekhaya. yebo cha

24. Emndenini siyacophelela ukuthi indlu noma amakamelo

kuhlala kuhlanzekile. yebo cha

25. Sizihambela sizibuyele ngokuthanda ekhaya. yebo cha

26. Ekhaya kunesikhathi nesineke sawowonke umndeni. yebo cha

27. Kunzima ukuba nguwena ekhaya ngaphandle kokuzwisa

omunye ubuhlungu. yebo cha

28. "Umsebenzi ngaphambi kokudlala" kungumthetho ekhaya. yebo cha

29. IBhayibheli liyincwadi esemqoka ekhaya. yebo cha

30. Imithetho akuyona into egudlulwa kalula ekhaya. yebo cha

31. Iningi labomndeni likholelwa ukuthi uma wona

uyojeziswa. yebo cha

32. Asigqugquzelwa neze ekhaya ukuba sizikhulumele. yebo cha

33. Into esizithokozisa ngayo ikakhulukazi ekhaya ukubuka

umabonakude (T.V.) noma silalele umsakazo (radio). yebo cha

34. Cishe njalo kusihlwa nangezimpelasonto sihlala

sisekhaya. yebo cha

APPENDIX 4

<u>Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC)</u>
Folkman and Lazarus(1980)
       Zulu translation

Lamakhasi alandelayo anezitatimende eziqondene nendlela ethile abantu abangaphatha ngayo izinkinga zabo noma ubunzima. Uyacelwa ukuba ukhombe kulamaphoyinti ukuthi wejwayele kangakanani ukusebenzisa lezizindlela ezilandelayo zokubhekana nezinkinga onazo njegamanje.

0 - angikaze
1 - angivamisile
2 - ngivamisile
3 - ngijwayele
4 - njalo

1. Ngilindele ukubona ukuthi kuzokwenzekani.   0 1 2 3 4
2. Izinto ngizithatha ngayinye ngesikhathi.   0 1 2 3 4
3. Uyazabalaza ushaye phansi ngonyawo ulwele
    lokho okufunayo.   0 1 2 3 4
4. Ukukhuluma nomunye umuntu ongakwazi
    ukwenza okuthile okubonakalayo ngenkinga.   0 1 2 3 4
5. Uzilahle wena ngecala.   0 1 2 3 4
6. Uzizwe ukhulile ngengqondo.   0 1 2 3 4
7. Ukuzikhuza noma ukuzifundisa wena.   0 1 2 3 4
8. Ukugwema ukuba nabantu.   0 1 2 3 4
9. Ukucela omhloniphayo ukuba akunike
    iseluleko bese usilandela.   0 1 2 3 4
10. Ukubalekela isimo esithile ngokuhlala
    ikhefu noma ngo-kuphumula.   0 1 2 3 4
11. Ukuthola umuntu okwazi ukuguqula umqondo
    Wakhe.   0 1 2 3 4
12. Ukuzitshela izinto onokwazi ukuthi uzizwe
    ngcono.   0 1 2 3 4
13. Unesifiso sokuthi ngabe kungcono ukube

wawungumuntu onamandla, ulangazelele
amathuba amahle kuphela empilweni,
ubenamandla okuphoqa izimo.   0 1 2 3 4

14. Ukubeka umqondo wakho ezintweni ezinhle
    ezingavela esimweni sonke.   0 1 2 3 4

15. Ugcine izinga lakho lokuziqhenya
    lisezingeni lalo, uzizwe umkhulu.   0 1 2 3 4

16. Ukuthatha noma yisiphi isimo kalula-nje,
    uvimbe ukuzindla ujule ngaso.   0 1 2 3 4

17. Ukwemukela ukuqonda kwabanye-abantu futhi
    ube nozwela nomunye.

18. Ukuqhamuka namasu amaningana ehlukahlukene
    okuxazulula inkinga.   0 1 2 3 4

19. Ukuthola kabusha okubalulekile empilweni.   0 1 2 3 4

20. Uzizwe ungaphathekile kahle ngenxa
    yokwehluleka ukugwema inkinga.   0 1 2 3 4

21. Unesifiso sokuthi kungabe kungcono ukuba
    uyakwazi ukuguqula isimo ozizwa ukusona
    ngaleso sikhathi.   0 1 2 3 4

22. Ukuxoxisana nomunye umuntu ukuze uthole
    okuningi mayelana nesimo.   0 1 2 3 4

23. Ubenethemba lokuthi kuzokwenzeka into
    eyisimangaliso-nje.   0 1 2 3 4

24. Ubenesifiso sokuthi kwakungaba kuhle ukube
    wawungaba namandla okugugula osekwenzekile.0 1 2 3 4

25. Uzizwe ucabanga ngezinto ezinhle
    eziyisimanga noma okungeze kube yiqiniso
    ukuthi zenzeke kodwa ezingakwazi ukuthi
    zikwenze ngcono.   0 1 2 3 4

26. Uzikhandle noma uzikhathaze kangangokuba
    uze ulahlekelwe ngokuthize ukuze ulungise
    isimo.   0 1 2 3 4

27. Uguqule okuthize ukuze izinto zihambe
    kahle.   0 1 2 3 4

28. Uzwe-nje ukuthi mhlawumbe isikhathi

singawenza umehluko, ngakho-ke ofanele
ukukwenza kuphela ukulinda.   0 1 2 3 4

29. Uzizwe kwesinye isikhathi ukuthi
    ukuhlangabezana nesimo esithize esikwenze
    waba ngcono kunesikhathi lapho wawusaqala
    ukuhlangabezana nalesimo.   0 1 2 3 4

30. Uzizwe wemukele imizwa yakho eqinile kodwa
    ungavumeli ukuba ithikameze kakhulu ezinye
    izinto.   0 1 2 3 4

31. Uma kwenzekile okungekuhle uzame
    ukukulungisa ukuze kubuyele esimweni
    esifanayo nesejwayelekile.   0 1 2 3 4

32. Uphatheke kabi ukuthi awukwazanga ukugwema
    inkinga.   0 1 2 3 4

33. Ukuzenza wena uzizwe ngcono ngokudla,
    ukuphuza, ukubhema noma ukusebenzisa noma
    iyiphi inhlobo yomuthi.   0 1 2 3 4

34. Ubone ukuthi nguwe ozidalela inkinga.   0 1 2 3 4

35. Uma kwenzeka ukuthi ungaphatheki kahle
    wazise abanye ngaloko.   0 1 2 3 4

36. Uzithole wenza into entsha obungeke uyenze
    ukuba awuhlangananga nesimo obhekene naso.   0 1 2 3 4

37. Uzithole uphokophelele ezintweni ezingcono
    kuphela empilweni.   0 1 2 3 4

38. Ugxile kulokho osuke usuzokwenza.   0 1 2 3 4

39. Ukungazisi abanye indlela isimo esibi
    ngayo.   0 1 2 3 4

40. Ukuninga uzindle ngenkinga njalo, uzama
    ukuyiqonda noma ukuyazi.   0 1 2 3 4

41. Uzizwe unenkolelo entsha noma uzizwe
    uthole iqiniso elisha empilweni yakho.   0 1 2 3 4

42. Uthatha ushansi omkhulu noma wenze into
    eyingcuphe enkulu.

43. Uzibone uhhema-nje ngezintoezingasoze
    zenzeka okukanye ubuke ngamehlo engqondo

isikhathi esihle empilweni yakho.　　　　0 1 2 3 4

44. Uzizwe kuthi sangana ngolaka kubantu noma
    ezintweni ezidala inkinga.　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

45. Wenza umsebenzi mumbe okukanye wenze
    okuthize ukuze wenze umqondo wakho
    ukhohlwe yizinkinga.　　　　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

46. Uzithole wemukela into engaphansana-nje
    kokade uyidinga.　　　　　　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

47. Uzizwe unomudla wokwenza okuthile
    okwakhayo.　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

48. Ukhulume nomunye umuntu ngendlela ozizwa
    uyiyona.　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

49. Ulala isikhathi eside kunesejwayelekile.　0 1 2 3 4

50. Wazi okufanele kwenziwe, wenze imizamo
    yakho ngokuphindwe kabili, uzama kanzima
    ukuze izinto zihambe kahle.　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

51. Uma kunenkinga uyikhiphele kwabanye
    abantu.　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

52. Uthole usizo olunzulu wenze njengoba
    ochwepheshe bencoma.　　　　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

53. Usebenzise ulwazi lwakho lwalokho
    ohlangabezene nakho esikhathini esedlule,
    ekwenzeni izinto manje.　　　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

54. Uzibone wenza icebo lezinto ofanele
    ukuzenza bese uyalilandela.　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

55. Uzithole wenqaba ukuthi kukhona
    okwenzekile ugcine imizwa yakho kuwena.　0 1 2 3 4

56. Uzithole wenza ihlaya ngokwenzekile.　　0 1 2 3 4

57. Uzithole ucabanga ngezinto eziyisimanga
    noma unezifiso ezithize ozifisela ukuthi
    izinto ziguquke zibe yizona.　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

58. Uzame ukukhohlwa yinkinga.　　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

59. Ukugcina imizwa yakho kuwena.　　　　　　0 1 2 3 4

APPENDIX 1

Demographic and situational factors
      Michelson (1991)
      English version

Please answer all these questions.

1. Your age: ......
2. In what standard are you now?: .....
3. Marital status:............
4. Sex: ....
5. Has any member of your family member been killed through
   violence during the course of your lifetime?
   yes / no
   If yes, who? ....
   Did you witness this?
   yes / no
   If yes, in which year did this occur? ....
6. Has any close friend been killed through violence?
   yes / no
   If yes, in which year did this occur? ....
   Did you witness this? ....
7. Have you witnessed anybody else being
   (i) Killed   yes / no
   If yes, in which year did you witnes that? ....
   (ii) Assaulted   yes / no
   If yes, in which year? ....
8. Has your family house been destroyed?
   yes / no
   If yes, in which year? ....
   If yes, how was it destroyed? ....
9. Did you have to run away from home because of violence?
   yes / no
   If yes, in which year? ....

If yes, did you go back home? ....

10. Have you been injured as a result of violence?
    yes / no
    If yes, in which year did that occur? ....
    If yes what were your injuries?

    ....
    ....

11. Has your family member been killed by a relative or by
    another family member?
    yes / no
    If yes, in which year? ....

APPENDIX 2

SECTION A

This section will only be answered by those who stay with parent/s in the same household, even if the parent/s work far from home and come back at the weekend or on month-ends.
Circle the answers that are true for you.

1. Where do you live / stay? ....
2. What kind of place is that? Circle your option below and write down the name of the place if you have circled (d).

    (a)   rural area
    (b)   township
    (c)   City of Pietermaritzburg, Durban
    (d)   Other ....
3. Were you born at that place? ....
    (a) yes
    (b) no
4. Where have you been staying / living until now?
    ....
    ....
5. How long have you been staying / living at the present place? ....
6. How many children are living / staying at your home including yourself? ....
7. Give a list of all the family members? e.g. uncle, cousin etc.
    ....
    ....
8. If you compare your family with your nearest neighbour in terms of family members, which family would you say has more members? Circle your option below.
(a) your family
(b) your neighbour
9. Are you happy about the number of your family members?

Circle your option below.

1. very happy 2. somewhat happy 3. indifferent 4. somewhat unhappy 5. very unhappy.

10. Whom do you contact at home if you feel upset?

....

11. Are your parents still living?...........................

12. If your parents are still alive, do they physically quarrel to such an extent that they need someone to separate them?.........

13. Does any family members separate them?

    (a) yes

    (b) no

    Who separates them?...........................

14. How often are there quarrels in your family? Circle your option below.

    1. very often 2. often 3. sometimes 4. seldom 5. very seldom

15. Do you like your family members to help you solve your love-related problems? Circle your option below.

    1. like very much 2.like 3. indifferent 4. dislike
    5. dislike very much

16. Do you like your family members to help you solve your school work assignments? Circle your option below.

    1. like very much 2. like 3. indifferent 4. dislike
    5. dislike very much.

17. If you compare your family with most of your neighbours in terms of number of quarrels, would you say they quarrel more or less than your neighbours?

    Circle your option below.

    (a) more

    (b) less

18. In general, how do you feel at home?

    1.very happy 2. somewhat happy 3. indifferent 4. somewhat unhappy 5. very unhappy

19. What is a major cause of unhappiness for you?

    ....

20. How often do you feel hopeless?

    1. very often 2. often 3. sometimes 4. seldom

    5. very seldom.

21. Who usually comforts you in that regard? ....

    You can choose as many options as you like.

    (a) yourself

    (b) your parent

    (c) your brother / sister

    (d) your relative

    (e) no one

22. Do you ever feel like committing suicide? ....

23. If so, how often? Circle your option below.

    1. very often 2. often 3. sometimes 4. seldom 5. very seldom

24. How do you escape from such ideas?

    ....

    ....

25. Where do you usually feel free emotionally?

    (a) at home?

    yes / no

    (b) at school?

    yes / no

26. Where do you usually feel free physically?

    (a) at home?

    yes / no

    (b) at school?

    yes / no

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR

PARTICIPATION IN

ANSWERING THESE

QUESTIONS

APPENDIX 2 (CONT.)

SECTION B

This section will only be answered by those who stay with parent/s and other members in the same household. The other members can be blood relatives such as brothers and their wives, sisters and their husbands, uncles and aunts, etc.

1. Where do you live/stay? ....

2. What kind of place is that? Circle your option below and write down the name of the place if you have circled (d).

   (a) rural area

   (b) township

   (c) City of Pietermaritzburg, Durban

   (d) other

3. Were you born at that place?

   (a) yes

   (b) no

4. Where have you been staying/living until now?

   ....

   ....

5. How long have you been staying/living at the present place?

   ....

6. How many children are living/staying at your home including yourself? ....

7. Give a list of all the family members. e.g. uncle, cousin etc. ....

   ....

   ....

8. If you compare your family with your nearest neighbour in terms of family members, which family would you say has more members? Circle your option below.

   (a) your family

   (b) your neighbour

9. Are you happy about the number of your family members?

Circle your option below.

1. very much 2. somewhat happy 3.indifferent 4. somewhat unhappy 5. very unhappy.

10. Who do you contact at home if you feel upset?

....

11. Are your parents still living?

12. If your parents are still alive, do they physically quarrel to such an extent that they need someone to separate them?

13. Does any family member separate them?

   (a) yes

   (b) no

   Who separates them? ....

14. How often are there quarrels in your family?
    Circle your option below.

    1. very often 2. often 3. sometimes 4. seldom 5. very seldom

15. Do you like your family members to help you solve your love-related problems? Circle your option below.

    1. like very much 2. like 3.indifferent 4. dislike
    5. dislike very much.

16. Do you like your family members to help you solve your school work assignments? Circle your option below.

    1. like very much 2. like 3. indifferent 4. dislike
    5.dislike very much

17. If you compare your family with most of your neighbours in terms of number of, quarrels, would you say they quarrel more or less than your neighbours? Circle your option below.

    (a) more

    (b) less

18. In general, how do you feel at home?
    Circle your option below.

    1. very happy 2. somewhat happy 3. indifferent 4. somewhat unhappy 5. very unhappy

19. What is a major cause of unhappiness for you?

....

20. How often do you feel hopeless? Circle your option below.

    1. very often 2. often 3. sometimes 4. seldom 5. very seldom

21. Who usually comforts you in that regard?

    You can choose as many options as you like.

    (a) yourself

    (b) your parent

    (c) your brother/sister

    (d) your relative

    (e) no one

22. Do you ever feel like committing suicide? ....

23. If so, how often? Circle your option below.

    1. very often 2. often 3. sometimes 4. seldom 5. very seldom

24. How do you escape from such ideas? ....

    ....

25. Where do you usually feel free emotionally?

    (a) at home?

    yes/no

    (b) at school?

    yes/no

26. Where do you usually feel free physically?

    (a) at home?

    yes/no

    (b) at school?

    yes/no

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR
YOUR PARTICIPATION IN
ANSWERING THESE
QUESTIONS

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT SCALE

Moos (1986)

English version

INSTRUCTIONS:

Answer all the questions that follow. These are statements about your families. You must decide which of these statements are true of your family and which are false. At the end of each question put T (for true) and F (for false).

1. Family members really help and support one another. ....
2. Family members often keep their feelings to themselves. ....
3. We often talk about political and social problems. ....
4. Learning about new and different things is very important in our family. ....
5. We say anything we want to around home. ....
6. Family members rarely become openly angry. ....
7. In our family, we are strongly encouraged to be independent. ....
8. Getting ahead in life is very important in our family. ....
9. There are very few rules to follow in our family. ....
10. We often talk about the religious meaning of Christmas, Passover, or other holidays. ....
11. We fight a lot in our family. ....
12. We rarely go to plays or concerts. ....
13. There is a feeling of togetherness in our family. ....
14. We are not that interested in cultural activities. ....
15. Family members often criticise each other / one anther. ....
16. We feel it is important to be the best at whatever you do. ....
17. We rarely have intellectual discussions. ....
18. Family members have strict ideas about what is right and wrong. ....
19. There is a strong emphasis on following rules in our

family. ....

20. Family members almost always rely on themselves when a problem comes up. ....

21. Everyone has an equal say in family decisions. ....

22. There is very little group spirit in our family. ....

23. Each person's duties are clearly defined in our family. ....

24. Family members make sure their rooms are neat. ....

25. We come and go as we want to in our family. ....

26. There is plenty of time and attention for everyone in our family. ....

27. It is hard to be by yourself without hurting someone's feelings in our household. ....

28. "Work before play" is a rule in our family. ....

29. The Bible is a very important book in our family. ....

30. Rules are pretty inflexible in our family. ....

31. Most members of my family believe that if you sin you will be punished. ....

32. We are not really encouraged to speak up for ourselves in our family. ....

33. Our main form of entertainment is watching T.V. or listening to the radio. ....

34. We spend most weekends and evenings at home. ....

APPENDIX 4

Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC)
Folkman and Lazarus (1980)
English version

The following pages consist of a number of statements concerning how people deal with problems or difficulties. Please indicate on the five point scale how often you use these approaches to deal with the problems you are presently experiencing.

0 Never

1 Very Seldom

2 Often

3 Usually

4 Always

1.	Waiting to see what will happen.	0 1 2 3 4
2.	Just taking things one step at a time.	0 1 2 3 4
3.	Standing your ground and fighting for what you want.	0 1 2 3 4
4.	Talking to someone who can do something concrete about the problem.	0 1 2 3 4
5.	Blaming yourself.	0 1 2 3 4
6.	Feeling you or grow as a person in a good way.	0 1 2 3 4
7.	Criticising or lecturing yourself.	0 1 2 3 4
8.	Avoiding being with people in general.	0 1 2 3 4
9.	Asking someone you respect for advice and following it.	0 1 2 3 4
10.	Getting away from it for a while, trying to rest or take a vacation.	0 1 2 3 4
11.	Getting the person responsible to change his or her mind.	0 1 2 3 4

12. Telling yourself things that make you feel
    better.   0 1 2 3 4

13. Wishing you were a stronger person, more
    optimistic and forceful.   0 1 2 3 4

14. Concentrating on something good that can
    come out of the whole thing.   0 1 2 3 4

15. Maintaining your pride and keeping a stiff
    upper lip.   0 1 2 3 4

16. Making light of the situation, refusing to
    get too serious about it.   0 1 2 3 4

17. accepting understanding and sympathy from
    someone.   0 1 2 3 4

18. Coming up with a couple of solutions to the
    problem.   0 1 2 3 4

19. Rediscovering what is important in life.   0 1 2 3 4

20. Feeling bad that you cannot avoid the
    problem.   0 1 2 3 4

21. Wishing that you could change the way that
    you feel.   0 1 2 3 4

22. Talking to someone to find out more about
    the situation.   0 1 2 3 4

23. Hoping a miracle will happen.   0 1 2 3 4

24. Wishing that you could change what has
    happened.   0 1 2 3 4

25. Thinking about fantastic or unreal things
    that make you feel better.   0 1 2 3 4

26. Bargaining or compromising to get something
    positive from the situation.   0 1 2 3 4

27. Changing something so things will turn out
    alright.   0 1 2 3 4

28. Feeling that time will make a difference,
    the only thing to do is wait.   0 1 2 3 4

29. Feeling that you came out of the experience
    better than when you went in.   0 1 2 3 4

30. Accepting your strong feelings but trying not to let them to interfere with other things too much.　　0 1 2 3 4

31. Trying to make up for some of the bad things that have happened.　　0 1 2 3 4

32. Feeling bad that you cannot avoid the problem.　　0 1 2 3 4

33. Trying to make yourself feel better by eating, drinking, smoking or taking medication etc.　　0 1 2 3 4

34. Realizing that you bring the problem on yourself.　　0 1 2 3 4

35. Letting your feelings out somehow.　　0 1 2 3 4

36. Doing something totally new that you never would have if this had not happened.　　0 1 2 3 4

37. Looking for the silver lining, looking at the bright side of things.　　0 1 2 3 4

38. Just concentrating on what you have to do next - the next step.　　0 1 2 3 4

39. Keeping others from knowing how bad things are.　　0 1 2 3 4

40. Going over the problem again and again in your mind to try and understand it.　　0 1 2 3 4

41. Feeling you find faith or important truth in life.　　0 1 2 3 4

42. Taking a big chance or doing something really risky.　　0 1 2 3 4

43. Daydreaming or imagining a better time.　　0 1 2 3 4

44. Getting angry at the people or things that caused the problem.　　0 1 2 3 4

45. Turning to work or substitute activity to take your mind off things.　　0 1 2 3 4

46. Accepting the next best thing to things that you wanted.　　0 1 2 3 4

47. Being inspired to do something creative.　　0 1 2 3 4

48. Talking to someone about how you are feeling. 0 1 2 3 4
49. Sleeping more than usual.   0 1 2 3 4
50. Knowing what has to be done; doubling your
    efforts and trying harder to make things
    work.   0 1 2 3 4
51. Taking it out on other people.   0 1 2 3 4
52. Getting professional help and doing what
    they recommend.   0 1 2 3 4
53. Drawing on your past experiences.   0 1 2 3 4
54. Making a plan of action and following it.   0 1 2 3 4
55. Refusing to believe what had happened.
    Keeping your feelings to yourself.   0 1 2 3 4
56. Joking about it.   0 1 2 3 4
57. Having fantasies or wishes about how things
    might turn out.   0 1 2 3 4
58. Trying to forget the whole thing.   0 1 2 3 4
59. Keeping your feelings to yourself.   0 1 2 3 4

Due to difficulties with translation, the following question was
excluded from the Zulu version.

60. Not letting it get to you, refusing to think too much about
    it.   0 1 2 3 4

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