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THE IMPACT OF IMMIGRATION ON THE
ANXIETY, SELF-ESTEEM AND ATTITUDES
TOWARDS SCHOOL AND FRIENDS OF SOUTH
AFRICAN IMMIGRANT CHILDREN.

A thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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of Master of Arts

in Psychology
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Lesleyanne Mason
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ERRATA

p. 57 Hypothesis 3

Null There is no significant difference between South African children and New Zealand children in their anxiety levels (State and Trait) and self-esteem levels (Social Acceptance and Global Self Worth).

Alternate There is a significant difference between South African children and New Zealand children in their anxiety levels (State and Trait) and self-esteem levels (Social Acceptance and Global Self Worth).

p. 60 Hypothesis 15

Null There is no significant difference in anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children and number of schools attended.

Alternate There is a significant difference in anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children and number of schools attended.

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ABSTRACT

This study is an attempt to explore any psychological and emotional difficulties South African immigrant children may encounter in New Zealand. Use was made of both qualitative and quantitative data. Anxiety and self-esteem scales were administered together with various semantic differential examining attitudes towards and perceptions of friends and schools. Two questionnaires were designed to explore aspects of the South African children's immigration experience, including reasons for their immigration, how they feel about it, what they like and do not like about South Africa, and what they like and do not like about New Zealand. One of these questionnaires was completed by the South African children's parents and the other by the South African children. The sample consisted of 36 South African children who had volunteered from three North Shore Intermediate schools. The control group consisted of 36 New Zealand children who had volunteered from a North Shore Intermediate school. All of the children completed the anxiety, self-esteem scales and the semantic differentials. Only the South African children and their parents completed the questionnaires. Results indicated no significant difference in State and Trait anxiety and global self worth for South African children and New Zealand children based on gender. A significant difference was found in social acceptance for the New Zealand children based on gender. New Zealand girls have significantly higher self-esteem (social acceptance) than do New Zealand boys. South African immigrant children had significantly higher State anxiety than did New Zealand children. Anxiety and self-esteem was measured in relation to various demographic variables. It was found that South African immigrant children who knew another child at the first school attended in New Zealand had greater self-esteem (global self worth) than children who did not. South African immigrant children who were happy to be living in New Zealand had lower State anxiety and higher self-esteem (global self worth) than children who were not happy to be living in New Zealand. South African immigrant children have significantly more negative attitudes and perceptions of school in New Zealand than school in South Africa. They also have more negative attitudes and perceptions of their friends in New Zealand than New Zealand children have.

1. Introduction

Migration is a world-wide phenomenon currently occurring at unprecedented levels. It involves the geographical relocation of people, some as individuals and others as families (Raymond, 1990). During the period 1989 to 1992, it was reported by the United Nations Population Fund (1993) that the number of people living outside their country of origin had risen from 50 to 100 million. For some people this move is voluntary as is the case for immigrants, while for others, such as refugees, the move may be involuntary. In both cases a large number of children are involved. Regardless of whether the migration is voluntarily or involuntary, some family members may view it as voluntary while others do not. Children and adolescents might be considered to be involuntary migrants as they do not decide to migrate themselves, as their parents usually make this decision for them (Sung, 1985).

The immigration experience is quite different from one individual to the next. While some people regard it as an exciting challenge, others see it as a threat or burden. As Schlossberg (1981, p.2) describes, "to one person, a geographical move may represent a great opportunity; to another, it may mean loss of support and identity." Either way, it is a life event around which individual development may revolve (Danish, Smyer, & Nowak, 1981).

1.1 Definition

The Oxford English Dictionary defines a migrant as one who moves from one place (a country, town, college or house) to another. When considering a migrant moving on a larger scale such as from one country to another, the terms emigrant and immigrant might be used. An emigrant is described as one who *leaves* a country to resettle in another, while an immigrant is one who *arrives* from one country to settle in a foreign country (Oxford English Dictionary). As previously mentioned, the decision to emigrate may be voluntary or involuntary.

This concept of choice regarding immigration is denoted by the use of terms like 'immigrant' and 'refugee' which are distinctly different from each other. Terms such as immigrant and refugee will be used frequently throughout the course of this research, and are used in the context of the following definitions. The act of emigration is generally accepted as being one of choice (Berry, 1988). However, a number of

factors may affect that choice, or the perception of choice available. Berry identifies an immigrant as one who moves voluntarily from his country of origin, to a new country out of choice. This move is usually with the intention of improving lifestyle, job opportunity and education. The immigrant is also in a position to return to the country of origin either permanently or temporarily without fear or consequence (Berry, 1988). Therefore, the key factor influencing the definition of immigration is the degree of *choice* which the individual is in a position to exercise.

The definition of a refugee is similar to that of an immigrant by virtue of the fact that the person leaves the country of origin for a new country and life. However, the element of choice is not as prevalent as that experienced by an immigrant and described by Berry (1988). Although the refugee makes the decision to leave their country of origin, this decision is usually made out of fear of violence which they have been exposed to, or threatened with (Hicks, La Londe, & Pepler, 1993). This decision to leave the country of origin has more negative connotations than positive (Sluzki, 1979), thus creating a different slant on the perceptions of the refugee. The refugee's decision to leave is more likely to be involuntary, as opposed to the immigrant whose decision is more likely to be voluntary.

For the children of many immigrants, the decision to leave the country of origin is not their own, but rather that of their parents (Sung, 1985). As with the research involving boarding school children, many of these children perceived that they had very little control over the decision to go to boarding school; this decision usually having been made by their parents (Fisher, 1990). The same assumption may be made of the children of immigrants, some of whom may perceive the immigration as an involuntary relocation to another country.

1.2 Impact of immigration on mental and physical health

The impact of immigration may have a number of adverse effects on both the mental and physical health of the new immigrant. The immigrant may be subject to depreciation, rejection, and alienation (Cropley & Kovacs, 1975; Wittkower & Fried, 1958) resulting in lowered mental health. Loneliness and loss of self-esteem can frequently bring on depression, anxiety and confusion (Berry & Annis, 1974). The immigrant may also experience psychosomatic complaints such as proneness to

infections, allergic reactions, cardiovascular complaints, irritability, drug and alcohol addiction, depressive reactions like headaches and insomnia (Amaro & Russo, 1987; Comas-Dias, 1988; Furnham & Bochner, 1990), all of which add to the challenge of acculturation (the process of adaptation in a new country).

Adolescents may present with identity conflicts, low self-image and conflicts with their parents (Ashworth, 1975; Copley & Kovacs, 1975; Taft & Cahill, 1978) while children may present with behaviour deviance (Graham & Meadows, 1967) and / or stomach pains and headaches (Gelinek, 1974; Sam, 1994; Schmitz, 1992).

Immigration is an event in an individual's life which requires huge adjustment on a number of different levels. As such, it can be regarded as one of the major transitions an individual may undertake during a lifetime. To fully understand the implications of immigration, transition theory requires detailed consideration.

2. Literature overview

2.1 Transitions

2.1.1 Introduction

Schlossberg (1981) defined a transition as :-

“ A transition can be said to occur if an event or non-event results in a change in assumptions about one self and the world and thus requires a corresponding change in one’s behaviour and relationships”(p. 5).

It has been suggested that transition theory emerged out of crisis theory (Moos & Tsu, 1976). Briefly, crisis theory maintains that people generally function in consistent patterns. An equilibrium in their environment is maintained by solving problems as they occur without delay by means of mechanisms and reactions which have become habitual. Should the usual problem solving mechanisms not work, the individual experiences tension and feelings of discomfort or strain. This results in “anxiety, fear, guilt or shame, a feeling of helplessness, some disorganisation of function, and possibly other symptoms” (Moos & Tsu, 1976, p. 13). Crisis, therefore, is a disturbance of the equilibrium (Moos & Tsu).

A crisis ends in change, with the individual moving through the transitional phase, resulting in a stable new life organisation and a stable new identity (Weiss, 1976). However, this transition may be either for the better or worse; an implication supported by Moos and Tsu (1976) who maintain the following:-

A transition may provide both “an opportunity for psychological growth and a danger of psychological deterioration.” (p.13)

Schlossberg and her colleagues have developed a useful framework for transitions (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984, 1994; Schlossberg & Robinson, 1996; Schlossberg, Waters, & Goodman, 1995). They suggest that transitions consist of four areas. These are (1) the triggers that bring about the change, (2) the person who experiences the change or transition, (3) the consequences of such a transition and (4) the coping strategies and resources made use of by the person. Amongst the triggers suggested may be planned events, such as marriage; unplanned events such as immigrating for children if the decision was made by parents; non-events being those that are hoped for, but do not materialise, and chronic events such as illness or abusive relationships (Schlossberg &

Robinson, 1996). In each case, in coping with or managing these transitions, one is effecting a change in assumptions about oneself and the world, and consequently, one's behaviours and relationships (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984, 1994).

2.1.2 Transition cycles

During the course of a lifetime, the individual can expect to make a variety of changes, referred to as transitions, which will include biological, physiological and life-stage (Lowenthal, Thurner, & Chiriboga, 1975; Schlossberg, 1981, 1984, 1994; Schlossberg & Robinson, 1996; Schlossberg, Waters, & Goodman, 1995). Examples of such transitions may be puberty, marriage, divorce, having children, changing careers, losing a job, retiring, being widowed, and making a geographical move, to mention but a few.

Various theorists (Brammer, 1991; Bridges, 1980; Hopson, 1981; Schlossberg, 1981, 1984, 1994) view transitions and adaptive behaviour as based on, or linked to individual idiosyncrasies, life stages, or chronological age, referring more to the individual although still taking into account related factors, such as the effect a transition might have on a partner. According to Hansen (1997) most of these theories tend to be more directed at the individual making a transition than the transition itself.

Briefly, Brammer (1991) defines transitions as both ordinary and extraordinary. Ordinary transitions might include triggers such as marriage, divorce, illness, and unemployment, and extraordinary transitions might include death, disaster, and accidents. He characterises these transitions as a journey through to something unknown where frequently risks and courage are required, as well as, or in addition to, the ability to cope with fear. Brammer's approach is unique in his concept of levels of response to change. The first and easiest level of change is adaptation (when one adjusts to the change). The next is renewal (when one sets goals), the third, transformation (when one experiences rebirth), and the last and most difficult, transcendence (when one experiences the meaning of the change).

Entry into a new transition, whether it is a new biological state (e.g. puberty), or a new social state (e.g. immigration), involves entering a new psychological situation

where one's previous beliefs and expectations can no longer be relied upon (Ruble, 1994; Schlossberg, 1994).

Ruble (1994) describes a phase model of transitions as occurring when an individual enters a new life phase or subculture and previously held beliefs are challenged by the social demands of the new phase. This model has three distinct phases for transition; construction, consolidation, and integration. The first phase, the construction phase, involves gathering information about the new phase or environment from people who have experienced the same transition or to whom the environment is familiar. This enables the individual to form new beliefs and / or expectations as well as appropriate behaviours. During this period of reconstruction, previously held beliefs, expectations and behaviours are maintained only tentatively, until enough information has been drawn to form new beliefs, expectations and behaviours. Having done this, the individual enters the second phase, known as the consolidation phase. This involves the individual being particularly motivated to support these new conclusions from this newly gathered information and to adhere rigidly to them. The final phase, the integration phase, sees the individual integrated into the new phase or environment, comfortable in the newly formed beliefs, expectations and behaviours, and able to respond appropriately to the social demands of that phase.

2.2 Adaptation to transitions

The models discussed in this section examine the process of transition adaptation from a psychological perspective where acknowledgment of emotions is allowed for on a mental health level.

2.2.1 Process of adaptation

In 1976 Moos & Tsu identified two stages of adaptation to a transition. The first stage was referred to as the acute phase, during which period the emotions of the individual may have been ignored, while practical matters are attended to. The second was referred to as the reorganisation phase, which involved normal functioning gradually returning.

Various theories of loss, transition and adaptation have since expanded on those suggested by Moos & Tsu (1976) and they identify different stages of adjustment. These stages include:-

- initial joy and relief;
- post decisional regret;
- stress or depression with attendant psychological symptoms; and
- acceptance, adjustment & reorganisation.

(Adams, Hayes, & Hopson, 1976; Arrendondo-Dowd, 1981; Hopson, 1981; Schlossberg & Leibowitz, 1980; Wright, 1983).

An example of the various stages experienced might be a new immigrant who may feel joy and relief on arrival in the new country where hope for a better future is anticipated. However, after this initial period has passed, when faced with all the associated stresses of immigration, the immigrant may question the original decision to leave the home country. The associated stress and depression with both the psychological and psychosomatic symptoms follow. Finally, if the immigrant manages to overcome these stresses, reorganisation takes place and the immigrant adjusts to the losses experienced, now being in a position to make a new life.

Not all the literature agrees on how many stages the individual must pass through in making a transition, or even whether all of the stages need to be negotiated. These stages as they stand, however, suggest that the transition was anticipated and hoped for such as the planned events suggested by Schlossberg (1984), examples being immigration, a planned career change or planning to have children. The first two stages might not be experienced by an individual experiencing an unplanned event, such as a new widow, or someone involved in a disabling accident.

Many comprehensive models have been developed. (Hopson, 1981; Hopson & Adams, 1977; Parkes, 1993; Schlossberg, 1981, 1984, 1994; Schlossberg & Robinson, 1996; Schlossberg, Water, & Goodmans, 1995).

One of the more comprehensive models is that suggested by Hopson & Adams (1977) and later updated by Hopson in 1981. This model suggests a general process of predictable stages through which an individual is likely to pass during a transition.

However, as Brammer & Albrego (1981) suggest, the stages do not necessarily follow in the same order for all individuals, and on occasion, a particular stage may be exaggerated, recycled or prolonged.

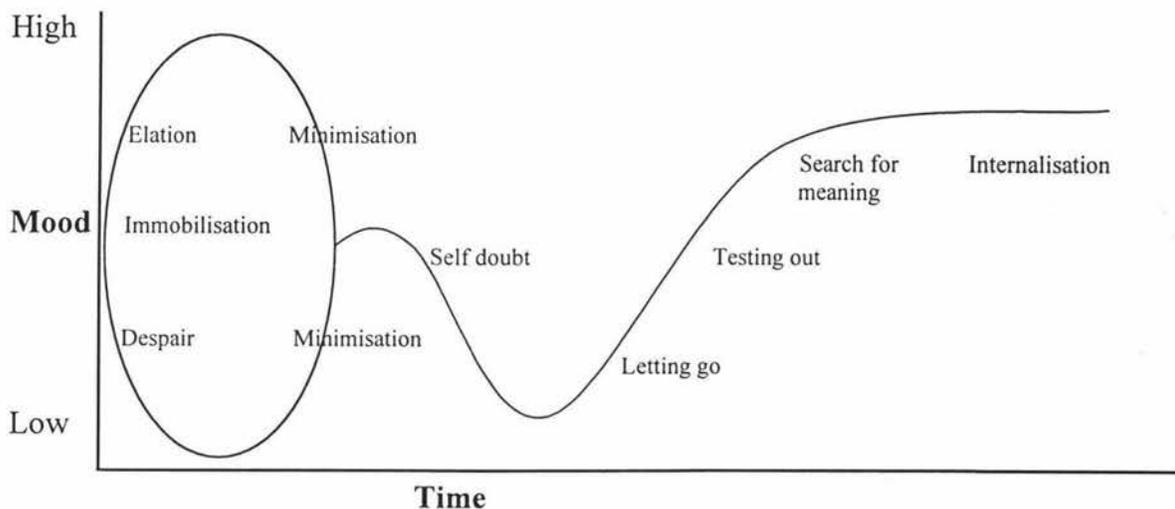


Figure 1. Hopson's Seven Phase Model Of Stages Accompanying Transition (Hopson, 1981, p. 38)

Stage 1. The first stage is characterised by shock and immobilisation for both desired and undesired transitions, with immobilisation lasting longer for transitions that are not desired. The absence of feeling which is typically produced by news of the transition, is commonly known as shock. This is followed by positive feelings ranging from mild pleasure to complete elation. However, these are typically followed by more negative feelings as other aspects of reality become more apparent.

Stage 2 This stage is referred to as the *minimisation* of the good feelings which continues until the individual feels lower than before the news of the transition was received. Denial may also accompany this stage if the transition is viewed as undesirable. The intensity and length of time this stage takes is dependent on the individual.

Stage 3 Self doubt usually follows minimisation and does not disappear until the individual has recognised and dealt with any negative feelings such as loss, anger, jealousy, frustration and disappointment. Depression, anxiety or sadness are common during this stage.

Stage 4 An upward mood swing only occurs with the individual *letting go* of both these negative feelings and any old expectations.

Stage 5 The *testing out* period is characterised by a rapid mood change. Although the overall feelings are more positive, the individual is also very irritable and impatient, while being demanding of friends, relatives and colleagues.

Stage 6 An active commitment on the part of the individual in changing views, values or behaviours is characteristic of this stage. Cognitive reflections on the positive outcomes of the transition occur, whether originally viewed positively or negatively.

Stage 7 Integration occurs with the reframing of assumptions, changing values and behaviours. At this point, new behaviours become part of the variety of responses available to the individual.

Adaptation to transition is a process during which an individual moves from being totally preoccupied with the transition, to integrating the transition into his or her life (Brammer & Albrego, 1981; Hopson & Adams, 1977; Hopson, 1981; Schlossberg, 1981, 1984, 1994; Schlossberg & Robinson, 1996; Schlossberg, Waters, & Goodman, 1995). The individual is described as being totally conscious of being “a new graduate” in the early stages, while in the later stages the person is aware of “having graduated”. For example a new immigrant, recognises, after this adaptation to the transition phase, that although the individual has been an immigrant, this is only one of the many facets of living (Lipman-Blumen, 1976).

Adaptation partially depends on how different or similar the individual perceives the assumptions they held about their previous self and the previous environment, and the new self and the new environment (Hopson, 1981; Hopson & Adams, 1977; Schlossberg, 1981, 1984, 1994). This is particularly applicable in the realm of close interpersonal relationships, before and after the transition. In a study of four groups of elderly people who had made substantial changes to their living arrangements, findings supported the above. It was found that the intensity of stress experienced by an individual depended on how extreme the adaptation the individual was required to

make in association with the environmental change. The degree of stress experienced and consequent adaptive requirements, increase as the difference between the Time 1 life stage and the Time 2 life stage increases (Lieberman, 1975).

2.2.2 Outcomes - mental and physical

It is generally accepted that some form of loss or threat has occurred in both voluntary and involuntary transitions (Brammer & Abrego, 1981; Hopson & Adams, 1977; Parkes, 1993). Extreme events in an individual's life, such as death of a loved one, divorce or unemployment, will result in loss being experienced. However, losses are also experienced in transitions where the change is less extreme such as retirement or a residential move (Brammer & Abrego, 1981). Losses are frequently followed by lowered mental health and psychosomatic ailments such as, headaches, confusion, insomnia (Amaro & Russo, 1987; Comas-Dias, 1988; Furnham & Bochner, 1990), and in the case of children, stomach pains, (Gelinek, 1974; Sam, 1994; Schmitz, 1992).

As previously stated, frequently transitions involve loss, and depending on the transition, such as death of a loved one, or loss of a job, those feelings of loss may be extreme enough to be described as grief. However, grief need not necessarily be the result of loss owing to death. Grief is that emotion experienced when something or someone is missing (Parkes, 1993). It is similar to a transition in that an individual will become aware of it with the realisation that a discrepancy exists between the world that is, and the world that "should be", requiring a reframing of assumptions, changing values and behaviours. The world that "should be" is unique to each individual and thus the grief experienced is unique and particular to each individual (Parkes, 1993).

In brief, a transition involves loss, which can result in the individual experiencing grief. Five stages of loss or bereavement as a transition have been identified by Parkes (1993). The sequence of these stages are similar to the model developed by Hopson (1981) depicting the stages accompanying a transition, but outlined more specifically in terms of grief.

Stage 1 The first is the *assumptive* world. Those assumptions which previously held true, need not necessarily still apply and the need to reassess expectations and assumptions becomes apparent. Those elements of life which could previously be

depended on, may no longer be available, or they may have changed, and so therefore, must the individual's expectations.

Stage 2 Change is frequently accompanied by *pain*. Those familiar persons or places to whom the individual may have turned in a period of crisis, are usually not available. Faced with an unfamiliar challenge or difficulty, those familiar and caring people to whom one would normally turn are no longer available.

Stage 3 For a long time, everything that was previously taken for granted, is no longer available, and careful *reassessment* of normal activities needs consideration. The familiar world becomes unfamiliar and loss of confidence in our internal world results.

Stage 4 To *cope* with the stress or anxiety brought on by loss, the individual exercises a variety of *coping mechanisms*, which either reduce the level of tension, or at least prevent it from rising any further. People therefore, in this transition phase, frequently withdraw from the challenges of the outside world, shutting themselves up at home, and restricting their social contacts to a limited number of trusted close people. They may avoid situations or thought processes which highlight the discrepancies between the inside and outside world; they may fill their lives with distracting activities, or they may deny the full reality of what has happened.

Stage 5 The "loss" brings the individual to the position of *taking stock*, observing those elements that have been lost, but also acknowledging those that have been gained.

Parkes (1993) notes that while minor changes are often embraced, major changes are more usually resisted. The logic here is that although the world we have is not perfect, we would have nothing at all, if we were to abandon it altogether.

However, while refusing to accept change, it does serve the purpose of allowing the individual to rehearse the change mentally should it eventuate. This mental preparation of the new world often ensures that the transition is smoother than it might otherwise have been (Parkes, 1993).

2.2.3 Factors influencing adaptation to transitions

Schlossberg (1984) emphasises that factors such as the individual's perception of the transition, their individual characteristics, and the balance between their assets and liabilities will influence the coping with or managing of transitions.

These factors include amongst others, personality characteristics, gender, age, attitudes, perceptions of locus of control, the self concept, and self-esteem of the individual. Situational factors such as social support and acceptance by the new environment into which the individual has moved, like the acceptance by the host country in the case of an immigrant, will also be influential in adaptation.

Self-esteem

Studies have shown that the individual who is able to maintain self-esteem and a sense of personal worth is far more likely to survive conditions of extreme stress (Dimsdale, 1976). In addition to this, the ability to maintain a consistent and coherent self image, assists in maintaining balanced mental health (Parkes, 1993) or personal equilibrium (Lieberman, 1975). It has also been suggested that loss of identity and the resultant associated stress could possibly inhibit the individual's capacity to cope and the will to cope with the challenge of transitions (Rogler, Cortes, & Malgady, 1991).

Attitudes

Individuals who are more positive in their attitude to new situations have been found to adapt more easily than those who are negative. Optimism or hope has been postulated as being a key factor in adaptation (Dimsdale, 1976; Lieberman, 1975; Lowenthal & Chiriboga, 1975; Rumbaut, 1991; Seligman, 1975, 1991; Spaulding & Ford, 1976;). It is an important resource for maintaining the status quo, or for striving towards goals which have been set. It is important for the individual to be able to believe that the goals set or desired are possible to achieve. Introspection has also been shown to assist in successful adaptation (Lieberman, 1975). This ability frequently results in positive philosophical changes in attitude, value systems and general life philosophies.

Personality

Personality variables have been shown to affect adaptation (Searle & Ward, 1990). Individuals who are obsessive-compulsive, or passive-dependent personality types are less likely to succeed (Spaulding & Ford, 1976). Moderate trust is also a key factor. Studies have shown that individuals who are either too trusting or not trusting enough are not as effective in adaptation as those who have moderate trust (Tyler, 1978). Those who are too trusting are likely to be disappointed, while those who are not trusting enough are likely to find adaptation slow and arduous. Resilience, which is the ability to overcome or adjust to continued stress or negative situations is a personality variable which would greatly assist the individual in adaptation (Werner, 1984; Offord, Boyle, & Racine, 1990).

Similarly in studies of sojourners, while it was reported that extroversion predicted a positive psychological adjustment in Malaysian and Singaporean students in New Zealand (Searle & Ward, 1990), extroversion amongst English speaking expatriates in Singapore was associated with an increase in depression and ill health (Armes & Ward, 1989). These expatriates experienced frustration and rejection in spite of their extroversion, which introduces the aspect that without acceptance by the new environment, transitional adjustment may be negatively affected.

Locus of control

The concept of Locus of Control was first suggested by Rotter (1966). Contemporary theory suggests that an internal locus of control refers to the perception by the individual that positive and negative events are the result of one's own behaviour, and therefore under one's control. An external locus of control refers to the perception by the individual that positive and negative events are the result of external factors over which one has no control such as fate, luck or chance (Ward & Kennedy, 1992). The success of the adaptation is therefore affected by the way in which an individual perceives control over, or the lack of control over a particular transition. Those individuals who perceive that control over the success of the transition is dependent on behaviours located within the self, are more likely to succeed (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Ward & Kennedy; 1992). The individual who possesses an internal locus of control, and therefore exhibits behaviours such as an active coping orientation;

who shows good initiative; who sets realistic goals and then makes the necessary effort to plan and overcome any obstacles; who has the capacity to enjoy success and suffer failure, while being able to build from the experience, is more likely to succeed in adaptation (Tyler, 1978).

Gender

It has been suggested that because western culture discourages men from expressing emotions and acknowledging problems, while women are free to express their emotions, men are more likely to present a picture of good mental health (Schlossberg, 1981). It has been shown that women tend to behave more socially and exhibit a more emotional disposition while men tend to exhibit a more independent unemotional disposition (Carli, 1990). However, research has shown that it is a woman's capacity for intimacy and mutuality which may make for easier adaptation to certain transitions, an example of which is "widowhood" (Schlossberg, 1981). Research has also indicated that men tend to experience stress owing to events in their own lives, while women tend to experience stress owing to events happening in their family member's lives (Beeson & Lowenthal, 1975).

In general, women tend to experience changes on an emotional level, which are freely expressed through intimacy and the sharing of similar experiences. However, as the source of this change is frequently external, women tend to develop a feeling of powerlessness resulting in depression (Schlossberg, 1981). In spite of this, they may adapt better than men to transitions over which they have no control, being used to dealing with situations over which they feel powerless (Schlossberg). This suggestion is also supported by Bateson (1989) who reports that women have to deal with discontinuities all their lives which assists women in managing change better than men. However, men may suffer a greater negative affect when faced with situations over which they have no control, such as forced retirement, as they are unused to this feeling of powerlessness (Schlossberg, 1981).

Age

It is generally agreed amongst researchers that chronological age is not as important as biological age, psychological age (the ability to respond appropriately to social pressures and tasks required of an individual), social age (the participation in

roles assigned by society), and functional age (the ability to function age appropriately, which also depends on social, biological and personality factors) (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984; Spierer, 1977).

Ageing itself might also be considered as a series of events requiring the individual to continually adapt. The biological and physiological changes which occur over a lifetime, such as puberty or menopause, are transitions in themselves (Schlossberg, 1981). Research conducted longitudinally, found that in some transitions chronological age is not as important in a life event or transition, as the life event itself. This research concluded that retirement for a 40, 50 or 60 year old was the same experience for each person, regardless of age, as each person faced the same difficulties and life changes (Lowenthal, Thurnher, & Chiriboga, 1975). For this reason it is suggested that it is more beneficial to consider life-stage, rather than chronological age when studying transitions (Brammer & Albrego, 1981; Lowenthal, Thurnher, & Chiriboga, 1975; Schlossberg, 1981, 1984).

Social support

Support for the individual in transition has been found to facilitate adaptation to the new environment. This social support may be provided by the family unit (Lowenthal et al., 1975), or by a network of friends (Searle & Ward, 1990; Troll, 1975; Ward & Kennedy, 1992). Evidence shows that individuals who embark on transitions with the support of either their family or other social support networks were less likely to seek professional help for their difficulties, than were those who experienced a lack of support (Levine, 1976). Conversely, it has been shown that the lack of support, or non acceptance within the new environment during transition, can have a detrimental effect on the individual (Searle & Ward, 1990).

Other factors for consideration when determining transitional adjustment have been suggested by Schlossberg (1981, 1984) and Schlossberg & Robinson (1996). These include the *positive or negative effect* which might be experienced by parents whose child leaves home; the *internal or external sources* where internal sources are voluntary as in a change of job, and external are sources out of one's control like being fired; the *timing* of the event and whether or not it is the norm as might be the case with a women having her first baby closer to forty (not the norm) than between twenty and

thirty; the *gradual or sudden onset* where gradual onset allows for preparation of the event as with a terminal illness, or sudden where no preparation has been made which would be the case with a sudden death; and transitions of *permanent, temporary, or uncertain duration*. Transitions of uncertain duration may include diagnosis of an illness which has not yet been determined as being terminal.

2.3 Immigration

2.3.1 Immigration a major transition

Immigration is one of the major transitions an individual may undertake during the course of a lifetime, and which many researchers believe to be stressful (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987; Padilla, Cervantes, Maldonado, & Garcia, 1988). While it is viewed by some theorists as an opportunity for personal growth and exploration (Adler, 1977), the stress of migration has been linked to a variety of psychological problems including depression, schizophrenia and anxiety related problems (Amaro & Russo, 1987; Comas-Dias, 1988).

2.3.2 Stages of migration

To understand more of the emotions behind immigration, a closer examination of the various stages of the migratory process is required. Sluzki (1979, p. 379) describes immigrants as people who “look forward with hope or backward with fear.” They are from an emotional standpoint, being either “pulled” forward to the new country and future (positive motivations and connotations), or “pushed” from their country of origin and previous way of life (negative connotations) as is frequently the case with refugees.

Four stages of migration have been identified by Sluzki (1979). Each stage will be briefly summarised and viewed in the context of Hopson’s 1981 model of stages accompanying transition. These stages of migration described by Sluzki differ from the model described by Berry (1984) which deals more specifically with acculturation and will be discussed in detail under acculturation.

Stage 1 Preparatory stage

This begins with the family or individual making a concrete commitment to migrate. It is also the period during which the first “up and down” curve may appear, as described in Hopson’s (1981) first stage of transition . This may be displayed as a

short period of euphoria, and a short period of overload, dismay, and poor performance; none of which reaches undue proportions. However, it is a period when new family rules concerning family member's roles and functions within the family, in terms of the pending migration are re-negotiated.

Stage 2 The act of migration

For some, this may take a few hours, while for others, it may take months or years depending on their circumstance, as is frequently the case with refugees from war-torn situations. On arrival, this act may be viewed by some families as final and unchangeable, while others may view it as temporary regardless of the fact that a return is unlikely. Some families decide before leaving that the country of destination is final while others include trial periods to decide among many countries. Finally, as Sluzki (1979) points out, some families choose to migrate, while some families are forced to do so, as is the case with immigrants as opposed to refugees.

Stage 3 Period of overcompensation

Migratory stress need not necessarily become apparent in the weeks or months immediately after migration. Frequently this period is noted as being a period of heightened task-orientated efficiency during which the family is focused on the basic need for survival and adaptation to an alien environment. This is usually to the detriment of recognising some emotional needs. This is the second stage of Hopson's (1981) model, where the denial aspect of the minimisation stage is referred to as the post-immobilisation stage if the transition is undesired.

Migrants are frequently unaware of the stressful nature of this experience and of the cumulative nature of its impact. Conflicts and symptoms relating to the migration tend to remain dormant and unnoticed, while previous family rules and styles appear to become exaggerated. However, after this apparent calm and overcompensation, approximately 6 months after it started, the migrant enters a period of major crisis during which time long term responses to the migration take place. The immigrant now enters the third stage of Hopson's model.

Stage 4 Period of decompensation or crisis

The crisis period referred to in the last paragraph is characterised by conflict, symptoms and difficulties. It has been noted that the majority of migratory families who consult family therapists, can be placed at some point of this decompensation period. During this period the main task of the family is to redefine its existence, simultaneously maintaining its identity while remaining compatible with its new environment. This task, however, is an extremely difficult balancing act and frequently difficult to achieve. The self-doubt described by Hopson (1981) may evoke responses such as anxiety, anger or sadness and even depression.

The crisis frequently emerges through the children who show a tendency to adapt to using the new culture and new language (both verbal and non-verbal) far more rapidly than their parents do. This leads to clashes within the family over values and styles which the children show a willingness to adopt, and which the parents find difficult to accept. Family rules need to be redefined, occasionally abandoned altogether, or a new set of rules adopted. Some issues are never resolved satisfactorily, but this tends to be the case where the two cultures are vastly different.

Sluzki (1979) described the roles adopted by different members of the family, the function they play within the family and the possible outcomes of these behaviours. In the initial stages of the migration, the family often develops a split between the instrumental and affective roles. The male or father figure generally or frequently deal with the present and future oriented activities like employment and housing, which involves a connection with the new environment. The female or mother figure generally tends to be more focused on the present and past oriented activities involving maintaining a connection with the old life such as letter writing, phone-calls and mourning what has been left behind. This split in roles is adaptive in the first few months, but it has the potential to become unproductive if maintained for a long period of time. The outward orientated member develops autonomous adaptive traits, and establishes a new network in which to function, while the inward orientated member becomes increasingly isolated. As the outward member experiences the new norms and customs of the new environment, making new friends and acquaintances, and so becoming more autonomous, so they begin to view the inward oriented member as

ignorant of the norms and customs of the new country, thus causing them to become more isolated and dependent. This process has the potential to escalate into a major crisis within the relationship.

However, some families manage to mourn what has been left behind and integrate it successfully into a blend of old and new rules, customs and habits which now constitute a new reality. This mourning period corresponds with the 'letting go' referred to by Hopson (1981) as does the integrational period with Hopson's 'testing out'. Finally, the new reality achieved is the same as the last stage in Hopson's model - internalisation. For these families, the positive side of the experience far outweighs the negative stresses and they emerge (about 3 years after the migration) with new collective strengths.

Sluzki's (1979) model describes the process of migration and the various roles adopted by family members. However it does not include the process of acculturation and decisions which the immigrant must consider having immigrated. As previously mentioned these will be more fully discussed under the process of acculturation.

2.3.3 Immigration across cultures

On arrival in a new country the task faced by the immigrant family is to adapt to the host country (Pawliuk, Grizenko, Chan-Yip, Gantous, Matthew, & Nguyen, 1996). The migration from the familiar environments of their home countries, with all of its available social networks, familiar customs and institutions, to a foreign country which is so unfamiliar by comparison, requires the immigrant to adjust and adapt quite significantly (Taft, 1979).

However, this adjustment and adaptation can only occur through acculturation (Kopala, Esquivel, & Baptiste, 1994). Acculturation is also recognised as an individual phenomenon referring to changes in overt behaviours and covert traits in an individual (Berry, 1990). The process of acculturation requires the individual to negotiate many phases while maintaining and improving life conditions, as well as simultaneously being careful not to jeopardise the new position in the new environment (Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987). It has been suggested that acculturation occurs over an extended period of time through first hand contact with the host country (Berry, Kim, Power,

Young, & Bujaki, 1989), with some researchers suggesting that the process takes approximately 3 to 4 years (Mirsky & Kaushinsky, 1989).

Research has indicated that immigrant families do not simply cast off old values to adopt new ones, but rather “selectively shift, modify, retain, or alter their values and practices to adapt” to their new country (Patel, Power & Bhavnargri, 1996). This has been supported by researchers namely Garza & Gallegos, (1985), Hareven, (1982), and Rueschenberg & Buriel (1989, cited in Patel, Power & Bhavnargri, 1996, p. 303). To accomplish the acquisition of a new culture while maintaining one’s own culture successfully requires flexibility to be able to function effectively within each culture (Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974; Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1980). Adaptation is therefore, a creative formulation of solutions to facilitate the integration of two competing cultures (Patel, Power, & Bhavnargri, 1996).

Many new immigrants and refugees overcompensate in their identification with the old country by holding on to anything that reminds them of the old country or their former way of life (Vasquez, 1979). They will also try to associate with people who share a similar language and culture, which then validates their existence, identity and uncertain destiny. Even though overidentification is normal for most newcomers, some may overidentify with the old country, while others will overidentify with the new country. These have been described as the “paranoid “ position where the receiving culture is rejected and denied and the “schizophrenic” position where the old culture is rejected and denied (Vasquez, 1979).

2.3.4 The process of acculturation

Adaptation is the term used to describe the process of dealing with acculturation and the resultant outcome of acculturation (Berry, 1990). The term acculturation is used when referring to the immigration transition and refers to the process of adjustment the immigrant must make on arrival in a new country.

The process of acculturation can be viewed unidimensionally and bidimensionally (Pawliuk et al., 1996). The unidimensional position sees acculturation as identification with either the culture of origin or the host culture resulting in varying degrees of mental health status. The bidimensional position allows individuals to choose elements

from both cultures such that one culture does not require a decreasing identification with the other.

Berry (1984) proposed a framework to portray the various choices the immigrant is faced with in his acculturation. It is based on the assumption that the individual, in a culturally plural society must confront two important issues. The first issue relates to the individual's need to maintain and develop his own ethnicity in society, more specifically, deciding whether one's own cultural identities and customs are of value and therefore worth retaining. The second issue involves the inter-relationship between the immigrant's own culture and that of the host country, the deciding factor being whether a relationship with the host country is of value and should be sought out.

Berry's (1984) model follows depicting the two issues the immigrant is faced with and the outcomes of the decisions made.

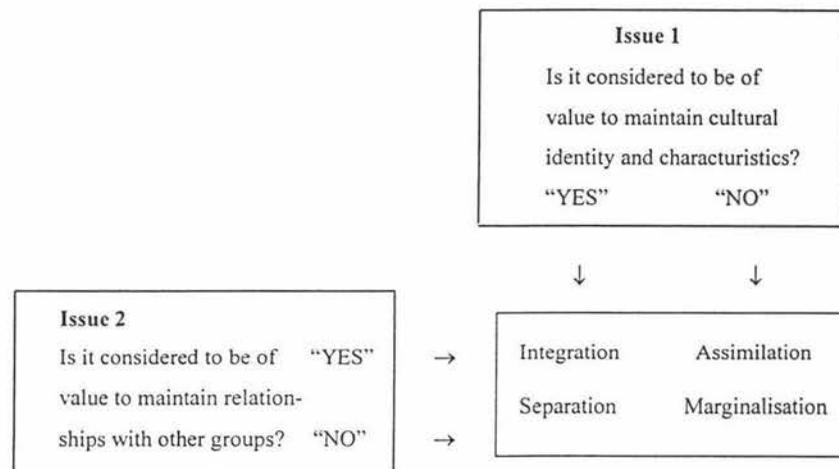


Figure 2. Four Varieties Of Acculturation Based Upon Orientation Of Two Base Issues (Berry, 1984, p. 92)

There are four possible outcomes or options, each of which are quite different, and will determine what type of acculturation the individual will embrace. By simply answering "yes" or "no" to both issue one and issue two, the outcome will point to one of the four varieties or options of acculturation available to the individual.

Assimilation is briefly defined by Berry (1984) as relinquishing one's cultural identity and moving into larger society, and adopting the host country's cultural identity.

Integration implies some maintenance of the cultural integrity or ethnicity of the original culture as well as adopting some of the cultural integrity of the host country.

Separation or segregation occurs when no real relations occur with the host country, while ethnic identity and traditions are maintained.

Marginalisation is the final option available to the immigrant. Berry & Annis (1974) characterised this as the individual rejecting the host country society at large, but simultaneously experiencing feelings of alienation, loss of identity and what has been described as acculturative stress.

2.3.5 Outcomes of the acculturation process

Two types of cross-cultural adjustment have been identified (Searle & Ward, 1990). The first, psychological adjustment, refers to the psychological well-being or satisfaction of the individual. Psychological adjustment is interwoven with stress and coping processes. The second, socio-cultural adjustment, refers to the social skills of the individual, or the ability to “fit in” to the host culture, and this is dependant on culture learning. It has further been suggested that depression and social difficulty could be used to design and build predictive models with depression being related to personality, life changes, and social support variables, while social difficulty is influenced by expectations and perceived cultural distance (Searle & Ward, 1990).

Stress and the resulting mental health issues both appear during acculturation (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987) and further studies have revealed that serious problems can emerge as a result of acculturation (Berry & Kim, 1988). The concept of acculturative stress is described as stress behaviours such as lowered mental health status (specifically, confusion, anxiety and depression), feelings of marginality and alienation, heightened psychosomatic symptom levels, and identity confusion (Berry & Annis, 1974).

It has been found that depressive symptoms are characteristic of immigrants in general (Portes & Rumbaut, 1990) and these were particularly characteristic of women immigrants (Espin, 1987; Torres-Matrullo, 1976). Similar studies reported that loneliness, experienced by American women in Singapore (Stone-Feinstein & Ward,

1990), and foreign students in New Zealand (Ward & Searle, 1991) was a strong indication of mood disturbance, while in examining the psychological effects of leaving home, it was found that females tended to be more homesick than males (Fisher, 1990).

A study of Mexican women who had migrated to the USA found the greatest source of stress was loneliness (Melville, 1981). This was as a result of separation from their extended families, their familiar neighbours and from their culturally familiar environments. The researchers suggested that the psychological mood of these women was depressed and was influencing the parent-child relationship, which would indirectly influence the adaptation and adjustment of the child to the new environment.

2.3.6 Factors affecting acculturation

Social support for the individual is suggested as helping to reduce the effects of stress. Researchers found that Korean immigrants with close Korean friends, and / or the support of a Korean social network, experienced less stress than those without such support (Berry et al., 1987).

Research has also shown that effective social networks can be provided by both the country of origin, and the host country. Fellow nationals provided the most significant source of emotional support (Sykes & Eden, 1987), while interaction with the host nationals was more effective in reducing stress experienced by sojourners (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). However, it would appear to be largely accepted that both interaction with host nationals and interaction with nationals from the country of origin, provide support and good sources of stress reduction (Adelman, 1988; Berry et al., 1987; Fontaine, 1986; Kealey, 1989; Ward & Kennedy, 1992; Westwood & Barker, 1990).

Murphy (1965) suggested that the more tolerant the host country, the better accepted are the various ethnic attitudes. This was supported by studies conducted by Berry, Kalin, & Taylor, (1977) in Canada. Evidence has also suggested that being the subject, of prejudice or discrimination either subtle or blatant, could greatly impact on the stressors experienced by the immigrant (McAdoo, 1983; Peters & Massey, 1983). These negative images held by the host country may be on an individual scale or part

of the mainstream culture, in which case it is difficult for the immigrant to escape it. These negative images may be presented in various forms such as TV, school textbooks, ethnic jokes, or personal experiences when various groups meet each other (McAdoo, 1983).

Evidence has shown that locus of control plays a major role in adaptation (Carlson & Nilson, 1995; Schlossberg, 1981; Ward & Kennedy, 1992; Ward & Kennedy, 1993a). An internal locus of control (LOC) refers to an individual's belief that positive and negative events occurring, are a result of one's own behaviour, over which one has control. An external locus of control refers to the individual's interpretation of positive and negative events as being the result of factors such as fate, luck or chance, all of which are out of his control (Ward & Kennedy, 1992). It is suggested that an individual will adapt to changes more easily where one feels the source of change is internal rather than external (Seidenberg, 1973). Schlossberg (1981) sums it up as "perceived control over one's own life" (p. 9).

Expectations and attitudes have been found to affect cross cultural adjustment. Individuals with unfavourable opinions of the host nationals were more likely to experience depression (Armes & Ward, 1989; Klineberg & Hull, 1979). In support of this finding, it has been suggested that modest expectations regarding the host country, on the part of the individual, would also facilitate adjustment (Weissman & Furnham, 1987). However, Eccles (1983) assumed that it was not reality that determines the immigrant's expectations, values and behaviour, but rather the interpretation of that reality by the immigrant.

General cultural knowledge, length of stay, and amount of contact with host nationals, all affect socio-cultural adaptation (Ward & Kennedy, 1992; Ward & Searle, 1991). It has been suggested that while one learns skills required in the new cultural environment the similarities / dissimilarities between the old and new cultures become evident to the individual. Those who perceive a greater "cultural distance" between the two cultures are likely to experience more social difficulty during the transition phase than those who do not (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992).

Success in cross cultural adjustment is not entirely dependent on the immigrant. Perceptions held by the host culture of, and responses to, immigrants or sojourners are likely to affect the cross-cultural process (Abbott, 1990; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Moghaddam, Ditto, & Taylor, 1990; Pruitt, 1978; Ward & Kennedy, 1993b). In conclusion then, the findings show that the host country needs to find the newcomer and associated culture acceptable, to facilitate adaptation. Preconceived ideas about a culture held by either the host country or the newcomer may often stand in the way of successful adaptation.

Various literature has suggested that those who were voluntarily involved in the acculturation process, like immigrants, fared much better in general than those whose choice was involuntary, like refugees, because their initial attitudes to the acculturation process were more positive (Berry & Kim, 1988). Refugees are described as being “pushed” out of their country of origin by “expulsive forces” - their migration, therefore being involuntary. Immigrants, however are “pulled” by attractive forces such as better job opportunities, standards of living and education - their migration being more voluntary (Kunz, 1973).

Whether the decision to leave the country of origin is voluntary or involuntary, some loss is expected to be experienced. For this reason Volkan (1982) emphasises the importance of mourning in facilitating the acceptance of culture change, and further maintains that the denial of such grief may lead to a fixation at the initial stages of immigration transition resulting in an inability to accept the host culture.

Berry & Kim (1988) attempted to identify the cultural and psychological factors which an immigrant is exposed to and which influence mental health as a result of acculturation. They found that mental health problems frequently do arise during acculturation. Although these problems are not inevitable, when they do arise, they appear to depend on factors relating to group and individual characteristics (as previously discussed) which are present during acculturation. As a result, the individual finds that life and mental health are either enhanced or virtually destroyed. The outcome for any individual is dependent on or affected by variables which govern the relationship between acculturation and stress.

This concept was illustrated by Berry's (1990) model which shows the relationship between the acculturation experience, stressors and acculturative stress, as modified by other factors. The immigrant in Berry's model experiences either a little or a great deal of acculturation dependent on their particular situation. The individual participates in and experiences the changes required during acculturation to varying degrees and therefore experiences acculturation to varying degrees. The changes which the immigrant experiences are viewed by some as stressors, while other immigrants view them as opportunities. These are experienced as many or few dependent on how the immigrant views them, resulting in high or low acculturative stress.

Berry points out that the relationship between these three concepts is probabilistic only, although likely to occur. He also points out that these relationships are all dependent on the moderating factors illustrated in the box below. His model postulates that the five moderating factors are likely to influence the degree and direction of the relationship between the top three concepts.

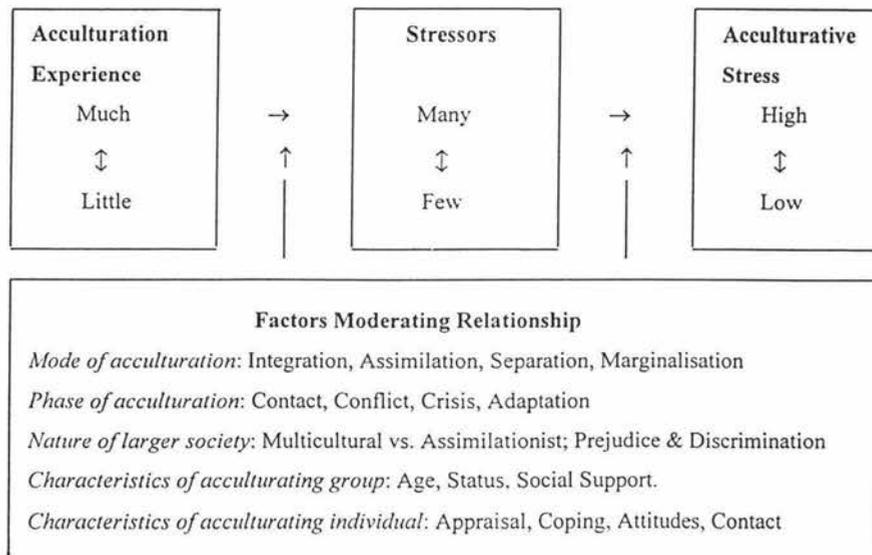


Figure 3. Model Of Acculturative Experience, Stressors And Acculturative Stress With Modifying Factors (Berry, 1990, p. 97)

2.4 Children and adolescence

2.4.1 Introduction

This research focuses on the impact of immigration specifically on South African children in New Zealand. The children studied were 11 and 12 year olds who had entered or were about to enter the transition phase of adolescence. In order to establish those areas of importance regarding adolescence and immigration, it is necessary to understand the basics of the transitional stage which an adolescent passes through without the impact of immigration to complicate this phase.

2.4.2 Adolescence as a transitional phase

Adolescence is that period of life between childhood and adulthood which is characterised by many important changes (Alfieri, Ruble, & Higgins, 1996). Adolescence is typically a period of life where rapid biological and interpersonal changes take place (Brooks-Gunn & Peterson, 1983; Hamburg, 1974). It is a period which if not successfully negotiated could result in long-term negative developmental outcomes.

2.4.2.1 Adolescence and the acquisition of gender knowledge

Amongst those changes are many of the social-conventional beliefs concerning gender. On entering adolescence there is an increased importance placed on gender, and pressure on individuals to be attractive as sexual relationships begin (Eccles, 1987; Hill & Lynch, 1983) and these are the main reasons for the expected increases in rigid distinctions between sexes. It is suggested that these changes are likely to be much more evident in adolescents who attend Junior High (Intermediate School and Form 3), than for those still at elementary school, even if they are the same age (Alfieri et al., 1996). This is because the adolescent in Junior High is more likely to be exposed to older children who have begun dating, than those in elementary school who have not.

As children acquire gender knowledge, a conflict arises between the appeal of different play activities, and the gender appropriateness of these activities, a conflict between satisfying the child's needs and satisfying the demands of others (Higgins, Loeb, & Ruble, 1995). This is obviously a conflict that requires adjustment which usually results in the gender appropriate activity being chosen in spite of its being less

attractive (Frey & Ruble, 1992; Stangor & Ruble, 1989). It is at this stage, that the new social life of children also involves increasing conflict between themselves and their parents, whose ideas on behaviour differ from those of their friends. The importance of friends for self-evaluation and emotional well-being can often compete with the importance of parents who previously were more important in these domains (Higgins et al., 1995).

Research has indicated that the characteristics of this life phase are different for boys and girls (Higgins et al., 1995). More specifically it showed that boys entering high school could be uniquely vulnerable during this life phase in terms of conflict and stress. Until entering this life phase the child's goals frequently mirrored their parents' goals for themselves. However, it was found that on entering this life phase boys were more eager to move their own goals (mirrored parents' goals) and aspirations in the direction of their friends' goals and aspirations, than were girls. The conflict, therefore, that such a move would create, could cause stress which girls are less likely to experience. It was suggested that girls are more likely to find an area of compromise between their own goals (mirrored parents' goals) and their friends' goals, thus reducing the conflict they experience and therefore the stress.

This transitional phase sees an increase in the importance of interpersonal goals like being "popular" or "sexually attractive", which involve competition and social comparison (Ruble, 1994). Attaining these new goals is not possible for everyone the way it was in the previous phase where the goals to be attained were to be "nice" or "to have fun". This life transition, therefore introduces new interpersonal goals which increase the potential for the individual to suffer from stress as a result of self-discrepancies (Higgins, 1991).

2.4.2.2 Adolescence and the parent-child relationship

Adolescence can be considered a critical period in the development of the parent-child relationship. Youniss & Smoller (1985) describe this period as one when family relationships and family members' roles undergo a period of re-negotiation. This sees the adolescent attaining more independence, while the relationship between the generations becomes more reciprocal, as the adolescent moves closer towards adulthood.

Recently it has been suggested that the development of the adolescent is centred around three basic issues (Bloch, 1995):

- the internal strivings of the adolescent to complete development
- the need by adolescents for parents to support this development
- and consequently the wish to retain a positive relationship with their parents

Bloch (1995) maintains that the adolescent is only able to attain a successful level of adult psychological independence when the efforts and strivings of the adolescent are supported by the parent. When the adolescent perceives that what is required to please the parent runs contrary to their own strivings, then the developmental process becomes problematic. He further suggests that adolescents will sacrifice their own strivings in favour of pleasing their parents in spite of the notion that adolescents are typically rebellious and self-centred. However, in explanation of this controversial suggestion, Bloch maintains that behaviour which is frequently accepted as being rebellious and against parental wishes, is often a reflection of the effort on the part of the adolescent to comply with what has been accurately or inaccurately perceived to be their parents' wishes. An example of this might be the adolescent who deliberately fails an activity at which he/she usually excels, in the belief that the desired activity is not fully supported by the parent, who gives the impression that success is not likely and that failure will be kindly understood (Bloch, 1995).

Ego development during adolescence has been found to correlate with parents expressing their acceptance of their adolescents and their goals (Hauser, Powers, & Noam, 1991). This research supports Bloch's (1995) issue of parental support or sponsorship. With the tendency for conflict to arise between the issues of maintaining a positive relationship with parents (pleasing their parents) and striving to complete their development, a clear message of support from the parents helps to reduce any misunderstandings adolescents may have about their parents wishes (Bloch). In summary, for successful advancement to adulthood, avoidance of conflict and thus stress is necessary for the adolescent, and this can be achieved by clearly understood messages being given by the parents, as well as clear support by the parents for their adolescent's goals or strivings. In addition to, and in support of this, it has been found that adolescents who are resilient to stress, receive more support from their parents, and frequently have contacts with other adults or peers outside of the family (Hauser & Bowlds, 1990).

2.4.2.3 Adolescents and self-esteem

Harter (1990) maintains that the self-system, also referred to as self-esteem and self-worth, is vital in determining the long term developmental outcomes of an adolescent. These outcomes consist of the affective, cognitive or motivational and behavioural domains. Self-esteem, has been the key for Harter in understanding the emotional construct of the self. Her studies have shown that the level of self-esteem an adolescent possesses correlates directly with their perception of how their parents and other important people in their lives regard them. In contrast, low self-esteem correlates with a perception of lack of support from parents and others of importance.

During adolescence the importance of peers and friends increases and they become sources of self-regulation and self-evaluation, frequently competing with parents as significant others (Hartup, 1983; Larson, 1983; Youniss, 1980). In addition to this, parents are perceived as being authority figures, while peers are regarded as partners with common goals (Hunter, 1984; Youniss & Smoller, 1985).

Eccles & Midgley (1989) found that the effects of a school transition during early adolescence on self-esteem are quite mixed. As a result, it has been suggested that the size of the transition school and its location i.e. urban/suburban, may be critical in explaining these mixed effects (Simmons & Blyth, 1987; Simmons, Carlton-Ford, & Blyth, 1987).

As early as 1947 Weber found that the transition to middle or junior high (the equivalent of intermediate and Form 3) typically required adaptation to a large impersonal and bureaucratic educational environment. The child was required to adjust to disciplinary styles, rules and regulations, the number of teachers and other school staff with whom they would have limited contact.

Simultaneously they are confronted with a new set of school peers and interpersonal "tests". Such disruptions in daily social regularities (Seidman, 1988, 1991) require children to restructure their social roles (Pearlin, 1983). Bearing this in mind, Eccles & Midgley (1989) and Simmons & Blyth (1987) concluded from research done that school transitions during this period of early adolescence frequently precipitate an increasing disengagement from school. During the course of various

research in school transitions, a connection has been found between gender, mental maturity and children's behavioural styles. Block (1983), Dweck (1986), and Ladd & Price (1986) all found that girls are more likely to potentially develop lower perceptions of, or underestimate their competency, while boys are more likely to be at risk for behavioural problems in the classroom.

2.4.2.4 Adolescence and friendship

As previously mentioned, during the course of adolescence, the importance of peer and friend relations increases with the source of self regulation and self-evaluation moving from being entirely the domain of parents to being shared with peers and friends (Hartup, 1983; Hunter, 1984; Larson, 1983; Youniss, 1980; Youniss & Smoller, 1985). The role, therefore, of friendship and peer relations in adolescent development becomes significant especially in terms of the effect on self-esteem (Ladd & Kochenderfer, 1996). The literature from which references have been made in this section examines children younger than those who participated in the current research. However, it is speculated that the same principles would apply to older children.

There are 3 types of relationships a child might engage in: friendship; acquaintanceship, and peer relations (Ladd & Kochenderfer, 1996).

Friendship implies the presence of a reciprocated emotional or affiliated bond between two children (Price & Ladd, 1986). It has been suggested that friends mutually nominate each other as "best friends"; frequently interacting or seeking each other's company (Hinde, Titmus, Easton, & Tanplin, 1985); display positive behaviours during interaction (Howes, 1983, 1988); and mutually adjust their behaviour to "fit" their partners, or, to achieve a more sophisticated form of interaction (Howes, 1983, 1988; Ross & Lollis, 1989).

Acquaintanceship, on the other hand, describes the relationship between two peers, but with whom there is no close interpersonal tie. The relationship is one with weak interpersonal ties (Ladd & Kochenderfer, 1996). These researchers suggest that peer group acceptance differs from both friendship and acquaintanceship, because it refers to the quality of the child's peer relations within a group, as opposed to the relationship with another individual peer.

It has been found that the interactions of popular and rejected children within a group differed in that rejected children's interactions tended to be more negative, while popular children's interactions tended to be more positive (Ladd, 1983). Furthermore, popular children tended to direct their interactions towards popular children, while rejected children interacted with rejected children (Ladd, 1983).

It has also been found that once a child has been rejected, they change the nature of their play, and interaction with their peers (Ladd, Price, & Hart 1990). It was found that popular children became more selective over time, and focused their attention on a relatively small number of consistent play partners, while rejected children appeared to maintain extensive play contacts frequently "bouncing" from one playmate to another. They observed that once a child was disliked, they became increasingly avoided by their peers and were forced to seek out playmates from a broad range of peers.

Ladd & Kochenderfer (1996) also suggest that once a child enters a classroom, they become part of the "liking hierarchy" whether they choose to participate or not. At the top of the hierarchy are the popular children, with the less popular in the middle and finally rejected children at the bottom.

They assumed during the course of their research, that the relationships children form with their classmates function either as supports or stressors, depending on how children cope with school, and they assist in fostering feelings of security, worthiness, a sense of belonging and competence (Ladd & Kochenderfer, 1996).

Friendship, therefore, is of extreme importance to the emotional well-being of a child. Bearing this in mind, it was shown that certain friendship features, like security and closeness, are predictive of affective outcomes such as loneliness (Bukowski & Hoza, 1990). They found that friends whose relationships were initially characterised by these features, were less likely to report feelings of loneliness at a later stage.

In the same vein, it has been proposed that children who know each other, even slightly, provide "security havens" for each other in stressful situations such as strange or new environments (Ipsa, 1981). Other evidence has shown that children who had been paired with a familiar peer, displayed less distress than those who has been paired

with an unfamiliar peer (Schwarz, 1972). In addition to this, it was found that even an unfamiliar peer was more comforting in an unfamiliar situation than no peer at all.

Evidence has shown that low peer acceptance, inhibits a child's social learning and forces them to occupy potentially abusive positions within the group such as being the victim of ridicule (Ladd, 1988). It also reduces their sense of belonging, and increases their sense of alienation, discomfort and incompetence in school. In accordance with this, Kupersmidt, Coie, & Dodge, (1990), and Parker & Asher (1987) concluded from analysed literature on early social risk, that low peer status in childhood is an important antecedent of adjustment problems in adolescence and adulthood.

Finally, in concluding this section on friendship and in considering adolescence in terms of immigration, it is interesting to note that research amongst 10-12 year olds indicated that the greatest concerns these children had about moving involved the making of new friends or leaving old friends (80%), concerns about schoolwork (35%), and worries about teachers and other problems (less than 25%)(Rakieten, 1961; Schaller, 1974). Complementing this finding, it has also been shown that establishing satisfactory relationships after relocation is frequently difficult for older children (Barrett & Noble, 1973). In this study 30% of the mothers of children and adolescents (11-18 years old) reported that their child had experienced difficulty in making new friends compared to only 10% of mothers with children of 6-10 years old.

2.5 Children and immigration

2.5.1 Introduction

A geographical move for a child, may constitute an unexpected and involuntary event or transition. Research has found that the immigration transition can result in poor mental health for the child. Examples of this may include increased anxiety levels (Gaertner-Harnach, 1981; Horowitz & Frenkel, 1976; Takac, 1976) and lowered self-esteem (Esquivel & Keitel, 1990; Yao, 1985). Psychosomatic disorders, such as stomach pains and headaches (Gelinek, 1974; Sam, 1994; Schmitz, 1992), and behavioural disorders (Graham & Meadows, 1967), such as anti-social behaviour amongst girls, and an increase in aggression amongst boys are also indicative of stress experienced by an immigrant child in transition.

A number of factors may affect the ease or difficulty with which a child experiences adaptation to the host society. Immigrant children may be exposed to risk factors such as financial difficulties, as well as possess protective factors such as good social ability. (Garmezy, 1985; Rutter, 1987). Both risk and protective factors will influence the ability of the child to adjust. Language is another factor to be considered. If the language spoken in the host country is the same as that spoken by the immigrant child, it is seldom considered as a factor influencing adaptation. However, research has shown that immigrant children not yet familiar with the new culture, are self-conscious about their speech (Thomas, 1992) and may appear to be shy or inhibited (Sewel-Coker, Hamilton-Collins, & Fein, 1985). Friendship is extremely important for the well-being of a child (Bukowski & Hoza, 1990). Failure to form good relationships has the potential to inhibit social learning, the consequence of which may result in adjustment problems in adolescence and adulthood (Kupersmidt, Coie, & Dodge, 1990; Parker & Asher, 1987).

In summary then, a number of researchers have found that a child exposed to stressful life events runs the risk of school maladjustment (Cowen, Lotyczewski, & Weissberg, 1984; Garmezy, Masten, & Tellegen, 1984; Sandler & Ramsay, 1980). Immigration to a new country would constitute such a stressful life event. In addition to this, evidence shows that the relationships which children form with classmates will affect their adjustment to the new setting (Ladd & Kochenderfer, 1996).

2.5.2 The immigrant child and acculturation

Adolescents simultaneously experience the transitions of puberty, emerging gender knowledge and gender appropriateness, as well as the changing dynamics of the parent-child relationship. (See adolescent development.) The stresses associated with the emerging pre-adult / adult are likely to be compounded by the immigration transition and thus quite different from those experienced by an adult. Freire (1993) noted that adolescence and young adulthood in particular were very stressful periods of life. It tended to be filled with confusion, anxiety, tension, frustration, alienation and depression especially among the first generation of immigrant youngsters.

Laosa (1990) in his work on immigrant Hispanic children worked on the hypothesis that individuals may perceive the same event quite differently from each other and such differing perceptions will more than likely result in differing ways of coping or adapting. He also worked on the premise that the basis of the immigrant child's own culture will also pre-dispose that child to a particular pattern of coping, adjustment and adaptation in the host society. In addition to this the reasons for immigration have been found to influence the rate of acculturation (Wong-Rieger & Quintana, 1987). Children of parents who immigrated for economic or cultural reasons, found acculturation easier than immigrants who left for reasons of political upheaval, where there was a resistance to breaking contact with the old country,

It has been suggested that for adults, relating two cultures, the immigrant culture and host country's culture, may be less difficult because they have well developed egos and ethnic identities (Rick & Forward, 1992). These researchers argue that this is not necessarily the case for adolescents who are possibly more exposed to the cultural norms of the host country than their parents. While undergoing socialisation within the host country (as opposed to their parents who have completed their socialisation in the country of origin and are comfortable in their ethnic identity within the host country) the adolescent may adopt the norms and values of the host culture readily. Consequently, when the children perceive their parents' rejection of the host countries norms and values, they may feel compelled to choose between the two cultures (Wittkower & Fried, 1958).

Research has also indicated that the actual migration and relocation are less important, in terms of the resultant adaptation for children, than the way in which those experiences have been mediated by their parents (Aronowitz, 1992; Pederson & Sullivan, 1964). It has been suggested that the child's perception of their parent's attitude towards change may be one of the ways in which this mediation occurs. It has been argued that immigrant parents may have concerns regarding their children's continued cultural identity, and so possibly resort to controlling methods in dealing with their children (Rosenthal & Feldman, 1992; Rosenthal, Bell, Demetriou, & Efklides, 1989; Rosenthal, Demetriou, & Efklides, 1989). Exactly what these controlling methods are, and how parents mediate the acculturation processes of their children is unclear (Rosenthal et al., 1989). However, it is believed by these

researchers that these methods of control (which may be subtle), are successful depending on how the child perceives them.

Recent research in Norway has found that immigrant children perceiving their parents as having a positive attitude towards living like a Norwegian, tended towards an integration or assimilation mode of acculturation (Sam, 1995). Those who perceived their parents' attitude negatively, favoured a separation mode of acculturation. This research has shown how effectively the parental attitude can affect the process of acculturation.

2.5.3 Outcomes of acculturation in children

There are two schools of thought concerning stress and immigrant children's psychological adjustment, viz. the intra psychic view and the psychosocial view (cultural adaptation). The first school of thought sees the immigrant child's emotional disorder which may emerge, as a result of separation arising from the migration experience and the consequent loss of social support, familiar environment and so on (Burke, 1980; Graham & Meadows, 1967). However, the cultural adaptation school sees the identity crisis, and the inter - generation conflicts which may arise, as a result of conflict arising between two socialising agents, i.e. society and parents (Cropley & Kovacs, 1975; Wittkower & Fried, 1958).

In non-immigrant children's lives, these two socialising agents complement each other. However, this research described immigrant parents as frequently belittling the values of the receiving society, while simultaneously the receiving society may reject the values of the immigrant parents. As a result, immigrant children find themselves in the difficult position of having to choose between the values and identities of the two cultures possibly resulting in psychological maladjustment. This maladjustment may also be owing to the stress the child experiences arising from the conflict between parent and child over the child's apparent abandonment of the immigrant culture in favour of the host country's culture as suggested by the studies conducted by Rosenthal et al. (1989) and Rosenthal, Bell et al. (1989). The second school of thought, the psychosocial tradition, has been suggested as successfully explaining the situation for both first and second generation immigrants. The first school does not successfully

explain why second generation immigrants experience emotional disturbance, as they have not experienced the loss of anything (Sam, 1994).

It is possible for identity confusion to be experienced by the immigrant child as a result of their socialisation in the host country while attempting to maintain some identity with the culture from the country of origin. This was shown to be the case by Barudy (1987) and Breyer (1987) who both noted that refugee youth experienced an "identity crisis". These children are continually told by the host country that they are too similar to the country of origin to be like the host national. But when these children returned to their country of origin, they found that they were too similar to the host country to be considered a country of origin national. They therefore, felt that they did not belong anywhere (Barudy, 1987; Breyer, 1987).

Aronowitz (1984) noted that if young immigrant children were showing signs of poor mental health, they more frequently presented with behavioural disorders in young children, or with identity conflicts in adolescents, and less frequently with acute psychiatric disorders. Immigrant children typically presented with subacute symptoms of anxiety (Gaertner - Harnach, 1981; Horowitz & Fenkel, 1976; Takac, 1976) and depression (Ashworth, 1975; Gaertner-Harnach, 1981; Rodriguez, 1968; Takac, 1976). Gelinek (1974) identified symptoms such as aggression and depression as well as psychosomatic disorders. These may include stomach pains and headaches as very common examples of emotional disturbance amongst immigrant children (Sam 1994; Schmitz, 1992).

The most commonly reported disorder was behavioural deviance, with researchers in England reporting that immigrant girls in particular showed substantially more antisocial behaviour than their non-immigrant counterparts (Graham & Meadows, 1967). However, it was later noted that these behavioural disorders were manifested almost entirely at school (Rutter, Yule, Berger, Yule, Morton, & Bagley, 1974). The immigrant subjects were found to display no more deviant behaviour at home than did their non-immigrant counterparts.

Studies of diverse immigrant populations in West Germany (Gaertner-Harnach, 1981), Sweden (Takac, 1976), Switzerland (Rodriguez, 1968), Israel (Horowitz &

Frenkal, 1976), Canada (Ashworth, 1975) the USA (Derbyshire, 1969), Chile (Vasquez, 1979) and Australia (Taft, 1979) all corroborate this report of deviant behaviour amongst immigrant children, although none repeated Rutter et al.'s (1974) research examining the deviant behaviour at school and at home.

Wittkower and Fried (1958) suggest the following by way of explaining some of the deviant behaviour expressed by immigrant children.

“Individuals in transition from one culture to another increase the probability of behavioural disorders, because the traditional bonds of practices and values that hold families and communities together are disrupted. If minority children hold onto their heritage, they are likely to experience..... depreciation and alienation from the dominant society. If on the other hand, they abandon their old cultural values.... they run the risk of alienation and rejection from their own subculture without being assured of membership in the new culture” (p. 245).

The second major area of disorder found amongst adolescents is in self-concept, identity conflicts and conflicts with parents. It has been pointed out that none of the above are exclusive to immigrants (Aronowitz, 1984), but the following literature does indicate that the immigration experience and culture change may increase the burden of these crises which normally occur in developing adolescents (as discussed previously in normal adolescent behavioural development).

In research on Asian immigrants and their children, it was found that the accultural style adopted by the family did not affect the psychological functioning of the children except where measures of social competence and self-esteem are concerned (Pawliuk et al., 1996). It was further reported that children who had assimilated significantly more than integrated, were said to have more behavioural problems according to their parents. In addition, it was noted that in spite of the fact that their sample was normal, a high percentage of them scored in the clinical range on most measures. The suggestion has been made that these psychological difficulties may reflect the lack of acceptance these children had of their ethnicity (Phinney, 1990; Szapocznik, Kurtines, & Fernandez, 1980), or lack of acceptance by the host culture (Williams & Berry, 1991).

It was concluded that immigrant children are faced with an impossible situation (Williams & Berry, 1991). If they reject their own culture and assimilate into the new culture, low self-esteem may follow, and yet the host culture may also never accept them because of their ethnicity. Recognition needs to be given to the fact that acculturation is a process of adaptation for both the newcomer and the host country (Williams & Berry, 1991).

The impact of social change required of the immigrant child is most likely to be experienced in the school environment (Kopala, Esquivel, & Baptiste, 1994). It was also found that the acculturation process was compromised by discrimination or prejudice when the immigrant child's culture was perceived negatively, or was devalued by the host country. In addition, stress is experienced by the immigrant child when there is a difference in cultural values between the immigrant child and those advocated by the host country, especially regarding behavioural style in the school setting (Esquivel & Keitel, 1990). For example, while in some cultures, co-operation and interdependence are encouraged, in other cultures competitiveness is encouraged for success at school, resulting in undue stress.

It has been reported that children isolated from the mainstream community or who are less familiar with it, were more likely to be at risk than those more familiar with the community (Pepler & Lessa, 1993). Extra-curricular activities taken up by immigrant or refugee children have been shown to relate positively to adjustment. (Rae-Grant, Thomas, Offord, & Boyle, 1986).

By adopting an integrational style of acculturation, Native Canadians experienced lower levels of stress, compared to those who had adopted a separational style (Berry et al., 1987). Integration can be viewed as a bilateral variant of acculturation, while separation is a unilateral variant. This has been supported by the study of Hispanic American Adolescents, which found that those students who had adopted a highly bicultural form of acculturation such as integration were rated far better adjusted by their teachers (Szapocznik, Kurtines, & Fernandez, 1980). In other research, it has been reported that those children whose parents had adopted an integrational mode of acculturation, functioned more within the "normal" parameters, while those whose

parents had adopted a separational or marginalisational mode, tended to display more problematic functioning (Berry et al., 1987; Koplow & Messinger, 1990; Minde & Minde, 1976).

Regardless of the acculturation style adopted by the immigrant child, some behaviours or emotions are not well accepted by host nationals. Evidence shows that homesickness (mourning) is not socially acceptable (Fisher, 1990). This research indicated that homesickness is not regarded in the same socially accepted light as is bereavement arising from death. Consequently, homesickness and its grief like responses are associated with shame. Fisher (1990) maintains that homesickness biases judges against an individual if they are said to have suffered from it. This she found to be true where intelligence and the ability to mix with others were concerned, implying that people who take up residence elsewhere are often ashamed of the adverse experiences associated with it. The bias expressed by Fisher is supported by evidence suggesting that children who have relocated tended to be more withdrawn and were not as well accepted by their peers (Aronowitz, 1984). They were also rated by their teachers as being more emotionally maladjusted (Kantor, 1965) but this was more likely to be associated with the withdrawal and non-acceptance by their peers, than by the effect of moving.

Refugee children have an additional factor to contend with. Most refugee children have been exposed to or threatened with trauma. It has also been found that the degree to which refugee children have been exposed to trauma and violence has a significant effect on the symptoms and problems that they exhibit (Rousseau, Corin, & Renaud, 1989). Children who had been exposed to death, mutilation and personal abduction, displayed significantly higher post traumatic stress disorder symptoms, than refugee children who had been protected from such violent forms (Espino, 1991). Those caring for the refugee child are frequently unaware of the problems these children experience, and many also underidentify them (Freire, 1989; Harding & Looney, 1977; Minde & Minde, 1976; Sack, Angell, Kinzie, & Rath, 1986). Exacerbating these problems is the report that there is a reluctance on the part of these families to seek help when it was needed (Williams & Westermeyer, 1983).

2.5.4 Factors affecting acculturation

Risk and protective factors have been identified which influence the ability of the child to adjust (Garmezy, 1985; Rutter, 1987). Risk factors are elements likely to contribute to the development of emotional disturbance. These risk factors may include financial difficulties, subsidised housing or families receiving social assistance. Children exposed to risk factors displayed more maladjustment than those not exposed. While a single risk factor may not precipitate maladjustment, exposure to several risk factors increases that child's vulnerability to developing maladjustment (Rutter, 1983).

Protective factors indicating social competence however, reduce the rate of maladjustment in spite of risk factors by modifying the impact of negative situation. In the Ontario Health Clinic, it was found that children exhibiting good social ability and good peer relationships, were less likely to develop adjustment problems than were those children less socially competent, living in families exposed to the same risk factors (Offord, Boyle, & Racine, 1990). Protective factors have further been associated with resilience, based on observations of children who appear to be resilient under adverse conditions.

Researchers initially expected refugee and immigrant children to display more mental health disorders than host country children, as a result of their exposure to migratory stress (Hicks, LaLonde, & Pepler, 1993). However, the data has shown that while immigrant and refugee children are exposed to risk factors associated with migration, some children cope remarkably well under adverse conditions, while others succumb easily in the face of adversity. (Cochrane, 1979; Cummins, 1984; Ekstrand, 1981; Kallarackal & Herbert, 1976; Rumbaut, 1991; Touliatos & Lindholm, 1980; Tsoi, Yu, & Lieh-Mak, 1986). Those children who cope well in the face of adversity are referred to as "stress resistant" or "resilient" children. However, the more risk factors such as stressful events or poor environments children are exposed to, the greater the chances of developing a psychiatric disorder (Rutter, 1985).

Three broad categories of variables have been identified, which act as protective factors and assist the child in coping (Garmezy, 1987). These are the personality of the child, the presence of a supportive environment, and an external support system which offers encouragement while reinforcing the efforts of the child to cope. The more

protective factors the child possessed such as higher IQ, higher socio-economic status, and cohesion in a stable family, the greater the chance to succeed compared to children who did not have these protective factors (Garmezy, 1987) For the immigrant child who is faced with the multitude of factors related to acculturation, like parent- child conflict, learning and understanding the host culture, behaving appropriately within that new environment and so on, possession of these protective factors is clearly an advantage.

Language is another factor influencing acculturation. In her research on English speaking Caribbean immigrant children Thomas (1992) noted that children who are self-conscious about their speech and who are not yet familiar with the new culture, may appear to be inhibited. She maintained, that although English speaking, these children needed time to pick up American speech patterns and grammar. This she suggested occurred in three stages:-

- the child speaks as little as possible, and listens a lot,
- the child begins to imitate American speech,
- the child gains confidence and screens his/her speech so well that when speaking to American peers, their English is perfect American.

Similar research has corroborated this finding especially where children are self conscious about their lack of cultural knowledge and language associated with the host country, thus appearing to be shy and withdrawn (Igoa, 1995; Sewer-Coker, Hamilton-Collins, & Fein, 1985).

These children also become the targets of peers who tease them about their different accents or poor school records. This in turn, presents a source of stress fostering low self-esteem, poor self confidence, anxiety, and feelings of isolation and loneliness (Esquivel & Keitel, 1990; Igoa, 1995; Yao, 1985). These emotional conditions can seriously impair the adjustment process.

Yao (1985) further suggests that in addition to being teased about their accents and language, they may also be teased about their dress, foods they bring to school and other cultural differences. Peer pressure that an immigrant child is subject to is greater than the peer pressure children of the host country experience. To fit in with their

peers, immigrant children are required to adjust in many areas at the expense of their own cultural heritage (Yao).

Finally, the availability of supportive relationships during transition is generally accepted as influencing the child's adaptation (Vernberg & Field, 1990). During any transition, families are likely to provide a major source of support (Furman & Buhrmester, 1985; Lowenthal & Chiriboga, 1975). However, during a transition which involves the loss of extrafamilial social networks as would be the case with immigration, it is expected that the dependence on immediate family members by the child will increase (Vernberg & Field, 1990).

2.6 The South African Aspect

New Zealand offers residency to those immigrant applicants who successfully score the required number of points allocated according to, or based on education, work experience, age, the offer of employment, and / or the amount of money the immigrant will be bringing into the country. Points are allocated on work experience directly related to education, with work experience and age counter-balancing each other. The younger the applicant, the greater the number of points allocated. However, work experience will not be as extensive for the younger applicant, and fewer points are available to the younger applicant for this category, compared to the older applicant. The number of points required fluctuates according to how many applications are made at any one time i.e. the greater the number of applicants in one month, the higher the number of points required to gain successful immigrant status in New Zealand. This method of assessment generally assures New Zealand of a reasonably well educated immigrant who should be able to contribute something beneficial to the country in the long term (Department of Labour, 1986).

Figures supplied by Statistics New Zealand (personal correspondence) indicate that the number of immigrants from South Africa has risen in recent years. These statistics include both long term and permanent residents intending to stay for a period of 12 months and longer. Over the last ten years, from March 1987 to March 1997, a total of 12 041 (approx. 100 per month) South African immigrants had taken up residence in New Zealand. From January 1996 to December 1996, 2 337 South African immigrants arrived (195 per month), while from January 1997 to September

1997, a slight increase was noted with 2 374 new arrivals (264 per month). The majority of these immigrants have entered New Zealand on the points system, and are generally well educated, and are younger families.

Very little research has been conducted on the reasons for South African emigration. According to Polonsky, Scott, and Suchard (1988), one of the most popularly given reasons for leaving South Africa is a fear for physical safety. Where previously, prior to the post apartheid elections, terrorism was frequently the cause for fear (Polonsky et al., 1988), since the post apartheid elections, it is speculated by the researcher that general lawlessness accompanied by extreme violence in many cases, has been the cause for fear. "The Economist" (Dec. 1997) indicated that one of the biggest threats to South Africa's stability in the future is its violent crime. "The Economist" quotes from a Johannesburg newspaper reporting recently on the previous day's crime for that city: "two women raped at gun-point in a hair salon; a bank robbed by five armed men; an elderly woman robbed at gun-point in her home; an unidentified dead body found in the street; security guards robbed at gunpoint; one policeman shot dead; a man found murdered in his home; a couple robbed at gunpoint in their home; a man robbed at gun-point; one dead body found; another dead body found in a park." The murder rate for South Africa is one of the highest in the world being seven times higher than that of the United States, and averaging 65 murders a day in the first few months of 1997. In addition, 40% of the murders committed in the first six months of 1997 remain unsolved (The Economist, Dec., 1997).

However, Polonsky et al. (1988) also found that economic factors and factors relating to their children's future also contributed to the motivations behind immigration.

Although South Africa is now a fully democratic country, it is still settling into a new phase of post apartheid development. As with most dramatic changes, it will be a number of years before the political and economic fluctuations and uncertainty abate.

Polonsky et al. (1988) claim that the South African immigrant is generally trained and educated. The South African immigrant, therefore, is one who decides to immigrate after having been trained and having embarked on a professional career,

where they have been reasonably successful for a number of years. Their reasons for immigration, therefore, do not generally include the need for further training, but rather job security in the face of affirmative action being one amongst many other reasons.

Many familial and cultural traditions are similar between New Zealand and South Africa, as many New Zealanders and South Africans have descended from people of European origin. Similar sports such as rugby, soccer, hockey and netball are enjoyed by both. However, in spite of these similarities, the researcher assumes that there are many more subtle differences that the immigrant becomes aware of during his acculturation in New Zealand. It is the acceptance and integration of these differences that will account for the difficulties or ease with which an immigrant settles.

Many South African immigrants have personally experienced similar traumas to those experienced by refugees while all South African immigrants have been exposed to trauma via the media or through contact with those who have personally experienced trauma. They have all lived with the threat of potential trauma for years, although some may have been less aware of this than others. As a result many have felt the need to leave South Africa for personal safety reasons amongst others, and a return to South Africa would result in the resumption of the same potential threat of violence and trauma. The possibility of the immigrant / refugee perception being held by the South African immigrant is a factor which could affect the acculturation process.

2.6.1 South African immigrant children

South African immigrant children will be dealing with the stress associated with immigration moderated by their individual circumstances. However, as a result of the exposure of many South African immigrant families to violence or potential violence, some South African children may simultaneously be dealing with the stress associated with this violence.

Although it is not speculated that there is a great cultural distance between South Africa and New Zealand, it is speculated that at least some distance, even marginal, will exist, which the South African immigrant will encounter and have to adapt to. In addition the South African immigrant child is likely to be faced with a number of other factors which could influence acculturation. Many of these children might be viewed

as involuntary immigrants making an involuntary transition, the decision to relocate being that of their parents. A large number of South African children have been exposed to an unusual amount of violence. These children might therefore, be considered to be refugees in terms of their being involuntary immigrants who have been exposed to violent trauma and feel the need to leave their country of origin to avoid such violence. However, as these children arrive in New Zealand on an immigrant basis with their families and most of their belongings, they are not viewed as refugees or as children with a “refugee mentality”.

As the children in this research are adolescents they obviously need to negotiate the normal adolescent transitions which every adolescent encounters. However the stress arising out of these transitions is further exacerbated by the fact that they are immigrant/refugees and need to cope with the parent/child conflicts which arise out of acculturation in addition to the normal adolescent parent/child conflicts. Their parents are frequently experiencing difficulties of their own and might not initially be in a position to offer the emotional support required by immigrant children. Amongst these difficulties might be a drop in financial status which indirectly inhibits the acculturation process of the child.

In conclusion, although South African children speak or understand English, enjoy similar sporting interests and may recognise similarities between New Zealanders and South Africans, their situation is different from that of the typical immigrant child in view of the fact that they are involuntary immigrants, the circumstances under which they have migrated are frequently similar to those experienced by refugees, and they are simultaneously required to make the normal transitions which any adolescent is required to make.

3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

A multimethod approach, using both qualitative and quantitative methods was used in conducting this research. The multimethod approach allows data to be collected in a variety of different ways, and from a variety of different sources (Riley, 1990). Jick (1979) maintains that the multimethod approach is highly effective in data gathering as it “rests on the premise that the weakness in each single method will be compensated by the counter-balancing strengths of another” (p.604). Burr & Klein (1994) in their research on family stress, found that use of the qualitative method exposed more subtleties and complexities than the quantitative method alone was able to do. They found that while the quantitative method provides data for statistical analysis, this method might not provide the expanse and depth of information that the qualitative method provides. Similarly, the qualitative method does not always provide data for statistical analysis to the same depth as the quantitative method does. Through analysis, the researcher is able to converge qualitative data and quantitative data to a single point of reference, which is known as, “triangulation” (Brewer & Hunter, 1989).

Multimethod research therefore refers to the collection of data, while triangulation refers to the application of that data (Brewer & Hunter, 1989). Triangulation allows a greater depth of understanding in the field of study, by using the qualitative data to enhance the quantitative results (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This is also described by Jick (1979), as using the qualitative data as “the glue that cements the interpretation of multimethod results” (p.609).

3.2 Sample

The sample consisted of 36 South African and 36 New Zealand children, 11 and 12 year old children from Intermediate schools on the North Shore in Auckland. The average age of the South African subjects was 11 years, 9 months. The average age of the New Zealand subjects was 11 years, 4 months.

3.2.1 Experimental group

The experimental group consisted of children from South Africa who had not been in New Zealand for more than 4 years. This time frame had been decided on to allow for an examination of psychological changes over time, or length of stay in New Zealand. However, cognisance had been made of the fact that memory of events in the initial stages of immigration would be compromised if required to remember more than four years prior to the date of research. Of the children who participated, 16 were boys and 20 were girls.

3.2.2 Control group

The control group consisted of New Zealand children who had been born or raised in New Zealand and were of New Zealand decent. As there are a large number of immigrants in New Zealand of many different nationalities, it was necessary to safeguard against any variables that might influence the focus on a New Zealand background. The emphasis, therefore, on New Zealand decent was made to exclude any child who themselves were immigrants and had taken up New Zealand citizenship, but whose own culture may have influenced the New Zealand aspect to be examined. Seven boys and 29 girls participated in the control group.

3.3 Procedures

3.3.1 Human Ethics Committee

The principals of four intermediate schools on the North Shore, Auckland, were approached. The researcher explained to the principals the objectives of the research and outlined what assistance was required, and the procedures to be carried out with the children. Having gained the principals' approval, application was made to the Human Ethics Committee of Massey University.

With final approval from the Human Ethics Committee, the participating schools were again approached, and appointments made to visit the schools (see Appendix A). At each school the principal had made available the South African children to be addressed by the researcher. At no point were the names of any potential participants given to the researcher. In addressing the children the researcher introduced herself and gave a brief personal history. She explained the reasons for conducting such research, what would be required of the children regarding procedures used and what

was hoped to be gained from such research. Emphasis was placed on the fact that the participants would remain anonymous at all times. The information gathered would also remain completely confidential, viewed only by the researcher and her supervisor, and it would then be destroyed with the production of the final draft of the thesis. Any questions were invited and with the knowledge that all the children appeared to be satisfied with the information given, they were invited to take home an Information Sheet to be read by their families. Enclosed with the Information Sheet were separate consent forms for both the parents and children to sign (see Appendix B). These were to be returned to the participating schools where the researcher collected them. The South African participants also had a short questionnaire to be completed by their parents. This questionnaire contained questions that were deemed either difficult for the children to answer, or required accuracy which the children may not be in a position to give. These completed questionnaires were returned with the consent forms to the schools.

The participating children were required to provide a telephone number to allow contact to be made by the researcher to set up an appointment convenient to the participant. These appointments were conducted in the afternoons after school or over the weekends, at the home of the participant. Each participant completed the procedures in a place comfortable to themselves, without interference from any external factors and with the researcher in attendance. They were invited to ask any questions and to feel free to ask for clarification regarding any requirements from the procedures. In general the amount of time required from the South African participants was approximately 45 minutes.

The New Zealand children were approached in exactly the same way at an Intermediate School on the North Shore with the same explanations and procedures used, and were required to give 15 - 20 minutes of their time. The difference in time requirements was owing to the questionnaire which the South African children had to complete in addition to the other procedures.

3.4 Measures

3.4.1 Quantitative measures

3.4.1.1 Anxiety

The State - Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children (STAIC) (Spielberger, Edwards, Lushene, Montouri, & Platzek, 1973) was used to measure the anxiety levels of the children (see Appendix C). This measure was originally developed as a research tool for measuring anxiety in elementary school children (children in the nine to twelve year age bracket). It consists of two distinct self-report scales, measuring state anxiety and trait anxiety. The importance of this test is that it differentiates between state anxiety (S-Anxiety), which is a transitory emotional state and will pass, and individual differences in anxiety proneness (T-Anxiety), which might be considered to be a relatively stable personality trait.

The STAIC A - State scale consists of twenty statements asking how the children feel “at a particular moment in time.” The STAIC B-Trait scales also consist of twenty statements which are responded to by indicating how they “generally” or “usually” feel.

The STAIC A - State scale requires the participants to respond to a statement which begins with “I feel” followed by 20 different key adjective terms. The child is required to indicate on a three point scale how they feel at that particular moment. Half of the key terms are indicative of anxiety (e.g. nervous, worried), while the other half reflect the absence of anxiety (e.g. calm, pleasant). This measure is scored by assigning the value of 1 or 3, with a high score indicating the presence of anxiety and low score the absence of anxiety. A value of 2 is assigned where the child has responded to the adjective only.

The STAIC A-Trait scale requires the participant to respond to each item by indicating how frequently the behaviour described occurs. For example, for Item 1 (“I worry about making mistakes”), indicates how they generally behave by circling *hardly ever*, *sometimes*, or *often*. These items are scored by assigning 1, 2, and 3, respectively for *hardly ever*, *sometimes*, and *often*.

For both scales the scores can range from a minimum of 20 to a maximum of 60. Spielberger et al. (1973) reports the Cronbach alpha of the STAIC A-State scale, as computed for the Leon County sample of children to be .82 for boys and .87 for girls. For the A-Trait scale, the Cronbach alpha were .78 for boys and .81 for girls. The STAIC - A Trait scale correlates .75 with the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale and .63 with the General Anxiety Scale for Children, hence demonstrating concurrent validity (Spielberger et al., 1973).

3.4.1.2 Self - esteem

The Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) compiled by Susan Harter (1985) was used to assess the self-esteem levels of the children (see Appendix D). This instrument consists of six separate subscales, five of which tap into specific domains, and the final subscale evaluating the Global Self Worth of the individual. The subscale for Global Self Worth does not examine any particular domain, focusing instead on general self concept and is tapped directly unlike other measures (for example, Coopersmith's self-esteem measure). These other measures use the sum or average of the scores obtained from items exploring a wide variety of self descriptions similar to those in the first five scales, thus indirectly obtaining a value for general self concept. However, the specific domains explored in the SPPC include the following:-

- scholastic competence
- social acceptance
- athletic competence
- physical appearance
- behavioural conduct.

The final subscale is for global self worth.

Because of the time constraints with regard to continued co-operation from the children, and because of the focus of the research, only two of the subscales were used. These were the Social Acceptance scale and the Global Self Worth scale.

The Social Acceptance scale taps the degree to which a child is *accepted by peers* or feels *popular*. The items measure the degree to which the child has friends, feels popular, or feels liked by children. It does not measure competence or social skills that the child may or may not possess.

The Global Self Worth scale taps the extent to which children like themselves as a person, are happy with the way they are leading their lives, and are generally happy with themselves. This scale gives a global judgement of one's worth as a person, rather than measuring any specific competency or adequacy. This measure of Global Self Worth differs from other procedures which have previously attempted to define a general self concept, as being the sum or average of a child's response to a wide range of items tapping diverse self-descriptions. This scale attempts to encourage children to think about their global perception of their worth as a person. It should also be noted that this scale does not measure general competence.

Each of the subscales consists of six items. Within each subscale, three items are worded in such a way as to indicate high competency or adequacy in the first part of the statement, while the other three are worded to indicate low competency or adequacy in the first part of the statement. These statements are alternated with each other, as well as being alternated with the other subscale used.

The children are required to decide which kind of 'kid' is most like themselves first. Having made that decision, they are then asked to indicate whether this is "Sort of True for himself" (or herself) or "Really True for himself" (or herself). Each item is scored on a basis of 1 to 4 where 1 indicates low perceived competence, and 4 indicates high perceived competence. The reliability for these subscales is based on Cronbach's alpha for Harter's four sample groups. Samples A and B produced an alpha of .80 for social acceptance, and Samples C and D an alpha of .75 for the same. For Global Self Worth, Samples A and B had alphas of .84 and .80 respectively, while Samples C and D had alphas of .78.

3.4.1.3 Semantic differential

By 1936, Kelly had developed and was already using a form of attitude measurement, which was later developed into the semantic differential by Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum (1957). This method of data collection allows the researcher to explore the meaning that a subject or group of subjects places on one or more concepts. Mosier (1941) cited in Osgood, Suci, & Tannebuam (1957), concluded in his research

on scaling methods and the study of meaning, that the meaning of words exists on two levels :

- a) one constant and representative of the usual meaning of the word, and
- b) one variable, representative of individual interpretation of usage.

“Meaning is commonly assumed to be a subjective term that would not lend itself to quantitative, objective analysis” (Emmerson & Neely, 1988. p. 266). However, use of the semantic differential allows quantitative measurement of the meaning of concepts such as “self, school, love, mother, or therapy” (Emmerson & Neely, 1988. p. 266).

The semantic differential consists of a list of bipolar adjectives or pairs of words, which are usually rated by the subject on a seven point Likert-type scale in relation to a specific concept. Each bipolar pair of adjectives constitutes a scale and these lists of scales examine the meaning of a single concept. Osgood et al. (1957) determined that most scales fell into three major factors. The largest of these factors is the Evaluative factor, which includes scales such as good-bad, optimistic-pessimistic, clean-dirty, and wise-foolish. The second largest factor, called Potency factor, consists of scales such as large-small, heavy-light, constrained-free, and serious-humorous. The last and smallest major factor is known as the Activity factor which includes scales such as active-passive, complex-simple, and excitable-calm.

Osgood and others (1957) have suggested that attitude can be measured by means of evaluation and that the semantic differential can be used as an attitude scale using bipolar scales measuring the evaluative factor. Kerlinger (1964) recommends the use of 9 scales: 3 Evaluative, 3 Potency, and 3 Activity, in the design of a semantic differential. However, it was later suggested that to design an attitude scale, a suitable description of the concept or attitude needs to be decided upon and suitable bipolar adjectives chosen (Moser & Kalton, 1979). These suitable adjectives need to consistently load highly onto evaluation rather than the other two factors previously mentioned, but is unrestricted in the number of adjectives (scales) used from each factor (Moser & Kalton, 1979). Random arrangement and directionality of the bipolar adjectives is an important consideration in the design of the instrument (Emmerson & Neely, 1988). It has been suggested that an attitude scale designed in such a way

allows the respondent's total score to be representative of a particular attitude (Moser & Kalton, 1979).

For the purposes of this research, the concepts examined were how children perceive school and how they perceive their friends. The South African children considered relationships in South Africa prior to immigration and relationships in New Zealand after immigration. The New Zealand children considered relationships in New Zealand only. The South African children, therefore had 4 lists of scales to consider, while the New Zealanders had 2 (see Appendix E). Each list consisted of the same 9 bipolar adjectives to be rated on a 7 point Likert scale.

3.4.2 Qualitative Measures

3.4.2.1 Questionnaires

Surveys or questionnaires provide an excellent means of measuring attitudes and orientations held by the population at large (Babbie, 1989).

3.4.2.2 Parents' questionnaire

The parents of the South African children were required to participate in this phase of the research. The questionnaire (see Appendix F) was introduced when it became apparent that some of the information required might be difficult for children to record where trauma was concerned and might be difficult where accuracy was required. It was relatively short and was completed by either the adult male or female in the family. Demographic information was sought regarding length of stay in New Zealand, employment of the parents, standard of living and quality of life perceptions, and a question on whether they considered themselves to fall into the category of either immigrant, refugee or both. For all of these questions the respondent was required to place a cross in the appropriate box. There were also some open - ended questions which explored trauma experienced (if any) by the families, feelings or attitudes regarding leaving South Africa and a final option to add anything considered to be of relevance to the respondent. As all of these responses were treated as confidential, it was hoped that this portion of the questionnaire might provide the respondent with the opportunity to freely express him/herself, while providing the researcher with valuable insight into the attitudes and thoughts of the immigrant parents.

3.4.2.3 Children's questionnaire

This questionnaire (see Appendix G) consisted of 16 questions, almost half of which simply required a cross in a box. Some children found completing the questionnaire to be extremely time consuming, while others managed to finish relatively quickly. The first 7 questions again provided demographic information regarding age, sex, language spoken, number of schools attended in New Zealand, whether any other children were known to these children on their first day of school, and whether New Zealand friends had been made since arriving in New Zealand. All of these questions required a cross in the appropriate box.

Questions 8 to 13 were open-ended and asked questions requiring the child to make comparisons between South African and New Zealand children and comparisons between anything of relevance to the children in South Africa and New Zealand. These questions were structured simply in an attempt to facilitate ease in answering them. Use was made of Oppenheim's (1992) suggestion to provide prompts at the beginning of these responses, requiring the child to merely complete the sentence.

Question 14 to 15 were open ended exploring the child's perception of trauma experienced in South Africa, reasons for leaving South Africa and whether or not they were happy with the move. The final question invited the children to expand on their responses by describing their feelings about their move. Again these questions gave the child the opportunity to freely express him/herself, while providing the researcher with valuable insight into some of the inner-most thoughts of the children regarding immigration.

3.5 Research objectives and hypotheses

3.5.1 Objectives

The research objectives to be explored in this research are as follows:-

1. To determine whether there is a difference in anxiety and self-esteem between South African boys and girls.
2. To determine whether there is a difference in anxiety and self-esteem between New Zealand boys and girls.
3. To determine whether there is a difference in anxiety and self-esteem between South African children and New Zealand children.
4. To determine whether there is a difference among South African children in relation to demographic variables.
5. To determine whether there is any difference between the way the South African children perceive friends and schools in South Africa and New Zealand.
6. To determine whether there is any difference between the way South African children perceive friends and school in New Zealand.

3.5.2 Hypotheses

The above objectives are to be more specifically examined by means of the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1

Null There is no significant difference between South African boys and girls in their anxiety levels (State and Trait) and self-esteem levels (Social Acceptance and Global Self Worth).

Alternate There is a significant difference between South African boys and girls in their anxiety levels (State and Trait) and self-esteem levels (Social Acceptance and Global Self Worth).

Hypothesis 2

Null There is no significant difference between New Zealand boys and girls in their anxiety levels (State and Trait) and self-esteem levels (Social Acceptance and Global Self Worth).

Alternate There is a significant difference between New Zealand boys and girls in their anxiety levels (State and Trait) and self-esteem levels (Social Acceptance and Global Self Worth).

Hypothesis 3

Null There is no significant difference between South African children and New Zealand children in their anxiety levels (State and Trait) and self-esteem levels (Social Acceptance and Global Self Worth).

Alternate There is a significant difference between South African children and New Zealand children in their anxiety levels (State and Trait) and self-esteem levels (Social Acceptance and Global Self Worth).

Hypothesis 4

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose parents reported experiencing trauma and those who have not.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose parents reported experiencing trauma and those who have not.

Hypothesis 5

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children who reported experiencing trauma and those who have not.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children who reported experiencing trauma and those who have not.

Hypothesis 6

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose fathers had secured employment on arrival and those who still had to seek employment.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose fathers had secured employment on arrival and those who still had to seek employment.

Hypothesis 7

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose fathers are now employed and those who are still to obtain employment.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose fathers are now employed and those who are still to obtain employment.

Hypothesis 8

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose mothers are currently employed and those who are not.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose mothers are currently employed and those who are not.

Hypothesis 9

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose families feel that their standard of living is the same or worse than it was in South Africa and those who feel it is better.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose families feel that their standard of living is the same or worse than it was in South Africa and those who feel it is better.

Hypothesis 10

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose families feel that their quality of life is the same or worse than it was in South Africa and those who feel it is better.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children whose families feel that their quality of life is the same or worse than it was in South Africa and those who feel it is better.

Hypothesis 11

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children who knew other children at their first school in New Zealand, and those who did not.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children who knew other children at their first school in New Zealand, and those who did not.

Hypothesis 12

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children who are happy to be living in New Zealand and those who are not.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children who are happy to be living in New Zealand and those who are not.

Hypothesis 13

Null There is no significant difference in anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children between those whose parents perceive themselves to be refugees or immigrants or immigrant/refugees.

Alternate There is a significant difference in anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children between those whose parents perceive themselves to be refugees or immigrants or immigrant/refugees.

Hypothesis 14

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children and language spoken at home.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children and language spoken at home.

Hypothesis 15

Null There is no significant difference in anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children and number of schools attended.

Alternate There is ~~no~~^a significant difference in anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children and number of schools attended.

Hypothesis 16

Null There is no significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children and length of time lived in New Zealand.

Alternate There is a significant difference in the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of South African children and length of time lived in New Zealand.

Hypothesis 17

Null There are no significant correlations between anxiety and self-esteem of South African children.

Alternate There are significant correlations between anxiety and self-esteem of South African children.

Hypothesis 18

Null There are no significant correlations between anxiety and self-esteem of New Zealand children.

Alternate There are significant correlations between anxiety and self-esteem of New Zealand children.

Hypothesis 19

Null There are no significant differences between the attitudes (semantic differential totals) held by South African children towards schools and friends in South Africa and towards schools and friends in New Zealand .

Alternate There are significant differences between the attitudes (semantic differential totals) held by South African children towards schools and friends in South Africa and towards schools and friends in New Zealand .

Hypothesis 20

Null There are no significant differences between the attitudes (semantic differential totals) held by South African children towards schools and friends in New Zealand and those held by New Zealand children towards schools and friends in New Zealand .

Alternate There are significant differences between the attitudes (semantic differential totals) held by South African children towards schools and friends in New Zealand and those held by New Zealand children towards schools and friends in New Zealand .

Hypothesis 21

Null There are no significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held by South African children for schools in South Africa and for schools in New Zealand.

Alternate There are significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held by South African children for schools in South Africa and for schools in New Zealand.

Hypothesis 22

Null There are no significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held by South African children for friends in South Africa and for friends in New Zealand.

Alternate There are significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held by South African children for friends in South Africa and for friends in New Zealand.

Hypothesis 23

Null There are no significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held by South African children and New Zealand children for schools in New Zealand.

Alternate There are significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held by South African children and New Zealand children for schools in New Zealand.

Hypothesis 24

Null There are no significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held by South African children and New Zealand children for friends in New Zealand.

Alternate There are significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held by South African children and New Zealand children for friends in New Zealand.

Hypothesis 25

Null There are no significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held of friends in New Zealand for South African children who are happy in New Zealand and those who are not.

Alternate There are significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held of friends in New Zealand for South African children who are happy in New Zealand and those who are not.

Hypothesis 26

Null There are no significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held of schools in New Zealand for South African children who are happy in New Zealand and those who are not.

Alternate There are significant differences between the perceptions (semantic differential variables) held of schools in New Zealand for South African children who are happy in New Zealand and those who are not.

Hypothesis 27

Null There are no significant correlations between the attitudes held by South African children for friends in South Africa and friends in New Zealand.

Alternate There are significant correlations between the attitudes held by South African children for friends in South Africa and friends in New Zealand.

Hypothesis 28

Null There are no significant correlations between the attitudes held by South African children for schools in South Africa and schools in New Zealand.

Alternate There are significant correlations between the attitudes held by South African children for schools in South Africa and schools in New Zealand.

Hypothesis 29

Null There are no significant correlations between the attitudes held by South African children for schools in New Zealand and friends in New Zealand.

Alternate There are significant correlations between the attitudes held by South African children for schools in New Zealand and friends in New Zealand.

3.6 Data analysis

3.6.1 Quantitative data

Excel and SPSS/PC were the statistical software used for analysis. Frequencies were recorded for all of the demographic data. Standard deviations and means were calculated and recorded. The *t*-test, Anova and Tukey HSD were used for the means analysis, and Levene's Test for Equality of Variance. The Pearson Product Moment was used for the correlational analyses and factor analysis, specifically Principal Components analyses were conducted, and where appropriate, varimax rotation was used to determine the factor structure of the semantic differentials.

3.6.2 Qualitative Data

To enable the researcher to identify ideas or themes predominant throughout the qualitative section, use of content analysis was made. Content analysis allows common themes and tendencies to be identified and arranged into categories which are further refined into more specific themes and subcategories (Dey, 1993; May, 1997). The open-ended items in the questionnaires provided a great deal of information in an unstructured, unformatted mass. The information was coded and counted independently by the researcher and a psychology graduate. This allowed basic themes and ideas to be identified, so providing a means of dealing with a huge amount of information in a more comprehensive, quantifiable manner. The Chi-square test was performed for each question to assess the similarity of the emerging themes identified by the researcher and the graduate research assistant.

4 Results

There are six objectives to this research. The following briefly reiterates these objectives:-

1. To determine whether there is a difference in anxiety and self-esteem between South African boys and girls.
2. To determine whether there is a difference in anxiety and self-esteem between New Zealand boys and girls.
3. To determine whether there is a difference in anxiety and self-esteem between South African children and New Zealand children.
4. To determine whether there is a difference in anxiety and self-esteem among South African children in relation to demographic variables.
5. To determine whether there is any difference between the way the South African children perceive friends and schools in South Africa and New Zealand.
6. To determine whether there is any difference between the way South African children perceive friends and school in New Zealand.

The results are to be presented in two sections. The first section will cover the quantitative data starting with demographic information, and followed by the various results pertaining to the research objectives. The second section will cover the qualitative results taken from the questionnaires completed by the South African children and their parents.

4.1 Data analysis

Prior to statistical analysis the data was checked for accuracy and missing values. The techniques used are briefly discussed in the following subsections. The analytical techniques used are then presented.

4.1.1 Missing values

Missing values were minimal and were found in the STAIC scale and the semantic differential only. These missing values did not amount to more than one per scale for three subjects. Scoring instructions for the STAIC scale suggest that the missing values be estimated by calculating the mean of the items the subject has responded to and adding this to the total score (Spielberger et al., 1973).

Approximately three values in total were omitted from the semantic differential, and these were estimated using the same method suggested by Spielberger et al. (1973).

4.1.2 Cleaning the data

To ensure the data had been accurately recorded, two simple but important procedures were conducted. As the scores were subject to a possible maximum or minimum, a check was made to ensure none of them exceeded this maximum or minimum. Having completed this, a double check was made of the score sheet for every fifth subject to ensure accuracy (Mangione, 1995).

4.1.3 Analytical techniques

The SPSS-PC was used to conduct the statistical analysis. The means and standard deviations were calculated for the variables within the sample and experimental groups. The appropriate *t* tests, and Tukey's HSD were used for the means analysis. The Levene's test was used for Equality of Variance. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used for the correlational analyses. To determine the underlying factor structure of the semantic differential, Factor Analysis was conducted, with a varimax rotation. To provide consistency of analysis, parametric statistics were used for all analyses despite differing measuring scales. This position is consistent with that suggested by Howell (1997) who argues that,

“the underlying measurement scale is not crucial in our choice of statistical techniques” (p. 8).

Use of content analysis was made in analysing the qualitative data. The open ended items in the questionnaires provided a great deal of information in an unstructured, unformatted mass. Content analysis allows common themes and tendencies to be identified and arranged into categories which are further refined into more specific themes and subcategories (Dey, 1993; May, 1997). The main themes which have emerged have been quantified and tabulated allowing for clear interpretation.

4.2 Quantitative results

4.2.1 Biographical data

Only South African parents and children completed this section. At the time the research was conducted the average length of stay in New Zealand for the South African family was 17 months. The least amount of time spent in New Zealand by any of the subject families was 1 month and the longest was almost 4 years (44 months).

The biographical data is presented in two tables. Table 1 provides family information obtained from the parents of the South African children and pertaining to the family situation at the time of immigration. Table 2 provides information obtained from the South African immigrant child and relates to their experiences at New Zealand schools as well as some of their initial interactions with New Zealand children.

Biographical data provided by parents

Employment details from Table 1 indicate that 83% of the fathers are currently employed in New Zealand compared to 56% of the mothers. On arrival, 42% of the fathers had already secured employment whereas none of the mothers had employment at that stage. At the time of the research being conducted 17% of the fathers and 44% of the mothers were unemployed. Of the South African children's parents, 53% perceived that their standard of living was worse in New Zealand, 28% perceived it to be the same, and 19% felt it was better in New Zealand. In contrast, 86% of the South African children's parents reported their quality of life had improved in New Zealand compared to 6% who felt it was the same and 8% who felt it was worse than in South Africa.

Parents were asked to indicate (according to definitions given) whether they perceived themselves to be immigrants, refugees or a combination of the two. Half of the parents perceived themselves to be immigrants from South Africa, while 11% perceived themselves to be refugees from South Africa. Thirty nine percent perceived themselves as falling into both the categories. However, if the refugee and immigrant/refugee categories are combined, 50% of the children's parents indicate some perception of being a refugee.

Fifty six percent of the children's parents reported that they had experienced trauma personally or knew someone close to them who had experienced trauma.

Table 1
Summary of biographical information of the South African immigrant children obtained from parents. (*N* = 36).

Variable	frequency	%
Fathers now employed in New Zealand	30	83
Fathers now unemployed in New Zealand	6	17
Fathers employed on arrival	15	42
Fathers unemployed on arrival	21	58
Mothers now employed in New Zealand	20	56
Mothers now unemployed in New Zealand	16	44
Mothers employed on arrival	0	0
Mothers unemployed on arrival	36	100
Standard of living worse in New Zealand	19	53
Standard of living the same in New Zealand	10	28
Standard of living improved in New Zealand	7	19
Quality of life improved in New Zealand	31	86
Quality of life the same in New Zealand	2	6
Quality if life worse in New Zealand	3	8
Perceived as an immigrant	18	50
Perceived as refugee	4	11
Perceived as combined immigrant/refugee	14	39
Experienced a traumatic event either personally or knows someone close to family who has	20	56
No experience of traumatic event	16	44

Biographical data provided by children.

Table 2 shows that the majority (86%) of South African children who participated spoke English at home, while 6% spoke Afrikaans and 3% spoke both English and Afrikaans at home. In addition, 3% of the participants spoke neither of these languages at home, but spoke an East European language. However, all of the children indicated that they understood English.

On arriving at their first school in New Zealand, the majority (78%) of the South African children did not know anyone at all, while 22% of the children knew at least one other child at that school. Of those South African children who knew children at their first school, 63% are still friends with these children. However, 97% of the South African children have now made New Zealand friends.

Thirty nine percent of the children indicated that they had experienced a traumatic event in South Africa, while 61% reported never having experienced a traumatic event. These statistics indicated by the children are not reflective of the responses given by their parents, and reflect the children's perception of experiencing a traumatic event. Eighty percent of South African immigrant children indicated that they were happy to be living in New Zealand, as opposed to the 19% who reported that they are not.

Table 2
Summary of biographical information obtained from South African Immigrant children. (N = 36) *

Variables	frequency	%
English spoken at home	32	89
Afrikaans spoken at home	2	6
Afrikaans and English spoken at home	1	3
Other language spoken at home	1	3
Understood English	36	100
Did not know children at first school	28	78
Knew children at first New Zealand school	8	22
Still friends with these children (n=8)	5	63
No longer friends with these children (n=8)	3	38
Made New Zealand friends	35	97
Not made New Zealand friends	1	3
Traumatic event experienced by a child	14	39
No experience of traumatic event	22	61
Child happy to be living in New Zealand	29	81
Child not happy to be living in New Zealand	7	19

* Due to rounding up, percentage totals do not total 100%.

4.2.2 Anxiety and self-esteem: Descriptive statistics and means analyses.

Analyses of anxiety and self-esteem levels of South African children and New Zealand children in terms of gender and nationality were conducted.

South African boys and girls.

Table 3 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African girls and boys. No significant difference was found between South African boys and girls in any of these measures. However, girls scored higher on both anxiety scales indicating higher levels of anxiety being experienced in this sample. Girls also scored higher for social acceptance indicating higher levels of self-esteem for this scale in this sample, while boys scored higher for global self worth indicating higher self-esteem levels for this scale in this sample.

Table 3

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of South African girls and boys.

	SA Boys (<i>n</i> = 16)		SA Girls (<i>n</i> = 20)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	29.44	5.88	31.90	7.01	1.12
STAIC trait	34.56	7.71	37.35	8.83	1.01
Social acceptance	14.25	4.20	16.80	4.32	1.79
Global self worth	18.25	3.86	17.40	4.48	-.60

New Zealand boys and girls

Table 4 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (state and trait anxiety) and for the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for New Zealand boys and girls. A significant difference was found between girls and boys for social acceptance scores ($t(34) = 2.06, p < .05$). Girls scored higher than boys, indicating higher levels of self-esteem for social acceptance.

Table 4

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of New Zealand girls and boys. ♦

	NZ Boys (<i>n</i> = 7)		NZ Girls (<i>n</i> = 29)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	29.00	2.94	27.34	5.16	-.81
STAIC trait	29.71	3.73	34.76	6.85	1.87
Social Acceptance	14.43	5.97	18.45	4.29	2.06*
Global Self Worth	20.00	2.83	17.93	3.34	-1.67

* $p < .05$

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

South African children and New Zealand children.

Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (state and trait anxiety) and for the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children and New Zealand children. The South African children scored higher on the STAIC -State anxiety scales than New Zealand children ($t(70) = 2.31, p < .05$) suggesting that South African children experience more state anxiety than New Zealand children in this sample. Although there were no other significant differences, the South African children scored higher on both anxiety tests than did the New Zealand children, exhibiting higher levels of anxiety generally in this sample. They also scored lower on both the self-esteem tests than New Zealand children, exhibiting lower levels of self-esteem in this sample.

Table 5

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of South African children and New Zealand children. ♦

	SA Children (N=36)		NZ children (N=36)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC - State	30.81	6.56	27.67	4.81	2.31*
STAIC - Trait	36.11	8.35	33.78	6.63	1.31
Social Acceptance	15.67	4.40	17.67	4.84	-1.83
Global self worth	17.78	4.18	18.33	3.31	-.63

* $p < .05$

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

4.2.3 Analyses of anxiety and self-esteem of South African children in terms of demographic variables.

Various means analyses were computed to determine whether there was a significant difference in the anxiety and self-esteem levels of the South African children in terms of various demographic variables.

Parents' exposure to a traumatic event.

Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (state and trait anxiety) and for the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children whose parents experienced a traumatic event, or knew someone who had experienced a traumatic event and South African children whose parents had no traumatic experience. There were no significant differences in anxiety and self-esteem between these children whose parents had indicated experiencing a traumatic event and those who had not.

Table 6

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of children whose parents reported the experience of a traumatic event and those who reported no such experience.

	Traumatic event (<i>n</i> = 20)		No traumatic event (<i>n</i> = 16)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	30.30	5.32	31.43	7.98	-.51
STAIC trait	36.40	6.50	35.75	10.43	.23
Social Acceptance	15.35	4.12	16.06	4.84	-.48
Global Self Worth	18.40	3.35	17.00	5.03	1.00

South African children's experience of a traumatic event.

Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children who had indicated experiencing a traumatic event and those who had never experienced such an event in South Africa. This table is different from the previous table as Table 6 reflects the anxiety and self-esteem measures of children whose parents experienced or did not experience trauma, whereas Table 7 reflects the anxiety and self-esteem measures of children who experienced trauma and those who did not. No significant differences were found between the anxiety levels and self-esteem levels of children who had reported experiencing a traumatic event with those who had not. However, those children who had experienced a traumatic event scored higher on both anxiety scales, indicating higher levels of anxiety and lower on both self-esteem scales, indicating lower self-esteem in this sample.

Table 7

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of children who have experienced trauma and those who have not.

	Child experienced trauma (<i>n</i> = 14)		Child experienced no trauma (<i>n</i> = 22)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	31.71	6.39	30.23	6.74	.67
STAIC trait	36.71	8.35	35.73	8.63	.34
Social Acceptance	15.36	4.05	15.86	4.69	-.34
Global Self Worth	17.36	3.78	18.05	4.47	-.50

Fathers employment status on arrival.

Table 8 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children whose fathers had secured employment to be taken up on arrival, and those children whose fathers still had to seek employment on arrival. No significant differences were found in the anxiety and self-esteem levels of those children whose fathers had employment on arrival and those who did not.

Table 8

Means and standard deviations for the anxiety and self-esteem of children whose fathers had employment on arrival and those who did not.

	Fathers employed on arrival (<i>n</i> = 15)		Fathers not employed on arrival (<i>n</i> = 21)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	30.73	7.50	30.86	5.99	-.06
STAIC trait	36.13	9.25	36.10	7.89	.01
Social Acceptance	15.53	4.29	15.76	4.58	-.15
Global Self Worth	18.00	5.29	17.62	3.29	.27

Fathers current employment status.

Table 9 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children whose fathers are currently employed and those whose fathers still had to secure employment. No significant differences were found between the anxiety and self-esteem for children whose fathers had already obtained employment and those who had not. However, both of the anxiety scores for those children whose fathers still needed to secure employment were higher than those whose fathers already had employment, indicating higher levels of anxiety being experienced.

Table 9

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of children whose fathers now have employment and those who do not.

	Fathers presently working (<i>n</i> = 30)		Fathers not presently working (<i>n</i> = 6)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	29.97	6.09	35.00	7.80	-1.49
STAIC trait	35.17	8.33	40.83	7.31	-1.69
Social Acceptance	15.73	4.70	15.33	2.73	.20
Global Self Worth	17.90	4.55	17.17	1.17	.39

Mothers' current employment status.

Table 10 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children whose mothers are currently working and those who are not working. There was no significant difference between any of the anxiety or self-esteem scores for this group of variables. However, those children whose mothers work scored higher on both of the anxiety measures indicating that they were experiencing higher levels of anxiety than those children whose mothers were not working.

Table 10

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of children whose mothers are now employed and those who are not.

	Mothers presently employed (<i>n</i> = 20)		Mothers not presently employed (<i>n</i> = 16)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	31.75	7.33	29.63	5.45	.97
STAIC trait	37.30	8.68	34.63	7.95	.96
Social Acceptance	15.75	4.22	15.56	4.76	.13
Global Self Worth	17.70	3.63	17.88	4.90	-.12

Standard of living.

Table 11 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children whose families feel that their standard of living is the same or worse than in South Africa and those who feel it is better than in South Africa. No significant differences were found between these anxiety and self-esteem scores for children whose families indicated the same or worse standard of living than in South Africa, and those who feel it is better.

Table 11

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of children whose families feel their standard of living is the same or worse than it was in South Africa, and those who feel it is better.

	Better Standard of living (<i>n</i> = 7)		Same / worse standard of living (<i>n</i> = 29)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	30.86	5.01	30.79	6.96	.02
STAIC trait	38.43	5.13	35.55	8.94	.81
Social Acceptance	15.43	4.04	15.72	4.55	-.16
Global Self Worth	18.29	3.25	17.65	4.41	.43

Quality of life.

Table 12 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children whose families feel that their quality of life is better than in South Africa and those who feel it is the same or worse. No significant differences were found for these anxiety and self-esteem scores for the differences in perception of quality of life.

Table 12

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of children whose families feel their quality of life is the same or worse than it was in South Africa, and those who feel it is better.

	Better quality of life (<i>n</i> = 31)		Same /worse quality of life (<i>n</i> = 5)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	30.61	6.34	32.00	8.51	-.43
STAIC trait	36.06	8.15	36.40	10.60	-.07
Social Acceptance	16.03	4.36	13.40	4.39	1.24
Global Self Worth	17.90	3.94	17.00	5.96	.44

Children known at the first New Zealand school.

Table 13 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children who knew someone at the first New Zealand school they went to and those who did not know anyone. South African children who knew children at the first school they went to in New Zealand had higher Global Self Worth, ($t(34) = 2.20, p < .05$), than children who did not know anyone, indicating higher self-esteem. Although there were no other differences that were significant for this sample, the anxiety for those children who knew other children at their first school was lower than children who did not know other children for both anxiety scales indicating lower levels of anxiety being experienced in this sample.

Table 13

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of South African children who knew other children at the first school attended in New Zealand and those who did not know anyone. ♦

	Knew children (<i>n</i> = 8)		Did not know children (<i>n</i> = 28)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	27.63	3.46	31.71	6.99	-1.59
STAIC trait	31.38	7.95	37.46	8.09	-1.90
Social Acceptance	16.25	4.65	15.50	4.40	.41
Global Self Worth	20.50	2.27	17.00	4.30	2.20*

**p* < .05

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

Perception of happiness

Table 14 shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety measures (State and Trait anxiety) and the self-esteem measures (social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children who are happy to be living in New Zealand and those who are not. South African children who reported that they were happy to live in New Zealand had lower state anxiety, ($t(34) = -2.50, p < .05$), indicating lower state anxiety levels. They also had higher Global Self Worth ($t(34) = 2.94, p < .01$) and higher Social Acceptance ($t(34) = 2.07, p < .05$) indicating higher self-esteem levels.

Table 14

Means and standard deviations for anxiety and self-esteem of children who are happy to be living in New Zealand and those who are not. ♦

	Happy in NZ (<i>n</i> = 29)		Not Happy in NZ (<i>n</i> = 7)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
STAIC state	29.55	5.62	36.00	8.02	-2.50*
STAIC trait	35.34	8.20	39.28	8.83	-1.07
Social Acceptance	16.38	3.97	12.71	5.19	2.07*
Global Self Worth	18.69	3.37	14.00	5.29	2.94**

p* < .05 *p* < .01

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

Perceived immigration status, language spoken, number of schools attended in New Zealand and length of stay in New Zealand.

Tukey's HSD were performed for the following demographic variables, namely: the parents' perception of their immigration status (immigrant, refugee/immigrant & refugee); the language spoken at home (English, Afrikaans and other); the number of schools attended in New Zealand (1-least to 4-most) and the length of time these children had lived in New Zealand against the anxiety scales and self-esteem scales. No significant differences were found for any of these demographic variables.

4.2.4 Anxiety and self-esteem: Correlational analyses

This sections describes the results from the correlation analyses conducted on the anxiety and self-esteem measures used.

Anxiety and self- esteem for South Africans

Table 15 shows the correlation matrix of the anxiety measures (the STAIC state and STAIC trait) and the self-esteem measures (the social acceptance and global self worth) for South African children. There is a significant relationship between all the variables. A significant positive relationship exists between state anxiety and trait anxiety ($r=.73, p<.001$) and social acceptance and global self worth ($r=.53, p<.001$). While there are significant negative relationships between state anxiety and global self worth ($r=-.71, p<.001$), trait anxiety and global self worth ($r= -.72, p<.001$), state anxiety and social acceptance ($r=-.43, p<.01$) and trait anxiety and social acceptance ($r=-.55, p<.001$). The less state anxiety or trait anxiety experienced by these children the higher their global self worth and social acceptance.

Table 15

Correlations for Anxiety and Self-esteem measures for South African children.(N = 36)

	1	2	3	4
1.Global Self Worth	—	—	—	—
2.Social Acceptance	.53***	—	—	—
3.State Anxiety	-.71***	-.43**	—	—
4.Trait Anxiety	-.72***	-.55***	.73***	—

** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$ **Anxiety and self-esteem for New Zealanders.**

Table 16 examines the correlational matrix for anxiety measures (the STAIC state and STAIC trait) and the self-esteem measures (the social acceptance and global self worth) for New Zealand children. There is a significant negative relationship between trait anxiety and global self worth ($r = -.47, p < .01$). The less trait anxiety experienced by these children, the higher the reported self-esteem. A positive relationship was found for trait anxiety and state anxiety ($r = .35, p < .05$), and for social acceptance and global self worth ($r = .35, p < .05$).

Table 16

Correlations for anxiety and self-esteem measures for New Zealand children. (N =36)

	1	2	3	4
1. Global Self Worth	—	—	—	—
2. Social Acceptance	.35*	—	—	—
3. State Anxiety	-.12	-.25	—	—
4. Trait Anxiety	-.47**	-.31	.35*	—

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

4.2.5 Semantic differentials

This section examines the attitudes the South African and New Zealand children held toward their friends and schools. The semantic differentials were used to measure these attitudes. The South African children were asked to consider South African friends, New Zealand friends, South African schools and New Zealand schools. The South African children therefore, completed four scales. The New Zealand children were asked to consider New Zealand friends and New Zealand schools and completed two scales. The reliability of these semantic differentials was calculated. The Cronbach alphas for all six scales ranged from .85 to .96.

Semantic differential factor analysis

The semantic differentials explore the attitudes and perceptions South African children have to South African schools, South African friends, New Zealand schools and New Zealand friends; and the attitudes or perceptions New Zealand children have to New Zealand schools and New Zealand friends. Each semantic differential was factor analysed to ascertain the underlying factor screen. For each of the semantic differentials analysed the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was satisfied (with levels ranging from .71 to .92). This suggested that factor analysis was appropriate. The results were assessed in line with the Kaiser (1970) criterion for retaining factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.

Three of the semantic differentials clearly indicated a one factor solution. They were for 'friends in South Africa' (South African children), 'friends in New Zealand' (South African children) and 'schools in New Zealand' (South African children). While 'friends in New Zealand' (New Zealand children) indicated a 2 factor solution, and schools in New Zealand (New Zealand children) and schools in South Africa (South African children) indicated 3 factor solutions. However, an analysis of the scree tests (Catell, 1958) for these semantic differentials support a one factor solution. (See Appendix H) In addition when subjected to the criteria suggested by Numally (1978) and Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, (1994) that, for all factors, at least one factor loading must exceed .50; the difference between the two highest loadings across factors must be greater than .20 and a factor must be represented by at least three items, a one factor solution seems to be a more appropriate factor solution for these 3 semantic differentials. For all the 1 - factor analyses the scale items all had similar loadings on the factor. This suggests that the factor scores can be well approximated by the total

score of item scales. This measure can obviously be compared across New Zealand and South African groups. For these reasons the total scores are analysed below.

4.2.6 Semantic differential totals: Descriptive statistics and means analyses.

The standard deviations, means and *t* tests were calculated for all the semantic differentials using the total scores for all of these scales.

Comparison between friends and schools in South Africa and New Zealand

Table 17 shows the means and standard deviations for the semantic differential totals for South African schools and South African friends, and New Zealand schools and New Zealand friends as experienced by South African children. A significant difference was found between scores for New Zealand schools which were higher than those for South African schools ($t(36) = -2.38$, $p < .05$), indicating a more negative attitude towards school in New Zealand than in South Africa. Although not significant, scores for New Zealand friends were also higher than those for South African friends indicating a tendency towards a more negative attitude towards New Zealand friends.

Table 17

Means and standard deviations for the semantic differential totals depicting South African friends and South African schools, and New Zealand friends and New Zealand schools as experienced by South African children. ♦

	SA experience (N = 36)		NZ experience (N = 36)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Friends totals	16.50	8.56	21.97	13.78	-2.01
Schools totals	20.14	8.71	27.64	14.76	-2.38*

* $p < .05$

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

Comparison of attitudes towards schools and friends in New Zealand by South African and New Zealand children.

Table 18 shows the means and standard deviations for the semantic differential totals for New Zealand schools (South African children) and New Zealand friends (South African children), and New Zealand schools (New Zealand children) and New Zealand friends (New Zealand children). The South African children reported scores significantly higher ($t(70) = 2.43, p < .05$) for friends New Zealand than New Zealand children, indicating a more negative attitude towards friendships in New Zealand than those held by New Zealanders.

Table 18

Means and standard deviations for the totals of the semantic differentials for New Zealand schools (South African children) and New Zealand friends (South African children) and New Zealand schools (New Zealand children) and New Zealand friends (New Zealand children). ♦

	SA children (N = 36)		NZ children (N = 36)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Friends in NZ	21.97	13.78	15.86	6.13	2.43*
Schools in NZ	27.64	14.76	23.69	7.62	1.42

* $p < .05$

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

4.2.7 Semantic differential variables: Descriptive statistics and means analyses.

This section examines the differences between the variables of the semantic differentials for South African children at school and with their friends in South Africa and New Zealand and for New Zealand children at school and with their friends in New Zealand.

South African children comparing South African schools with New Zealand schools.

Table 19 shows the means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables for South African schools and New Zealand schools as experienced by South African children. The South African children were more tense ($t(36) = -2.16, p < .05$), felt more ignored ($t(36) = -2.55, p < .05$), more sad ($t(36) = -2.48, p < .05$), more awful ($t(36) = -3.25, p < .01$), as well as more rejected ($t(36) = -2.57, p < .05$) in New Zealand schools than they did in South African schools. The totals of the scores (overall attitude) for New Zealand schools as experienced by South African children were significantly higher ($t(36) = -2.38, p < .05$) compared to the South African schools experienced in South Africa indicating a more negative attitude towards New Zealand schools.

Table 19

Means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables depicting South African schools and New Zealand schools as experienced by South African children. ♦

	SA experience (N = 36)		NZ experience (N = 36)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
relaxed - tense	2.50	1.77	3.67	2.37	-2.16*
welcomed - ignored	1.92	1.34	2.89	1.95	-2.55*
happy - sad	1.81	.98	2.78	2.02	-2.48*
in control - not in control	2.44	1.78	3.25	1.90	-1.72
nice - awful	1.56	.70	2.53	1.65	-3.25**
excited - scared	2.67	1.62	3.22	1.87	-1.30
accepted - rejected	1.86	1.15	2.81	2.01	-2.57*
important - unimportant	2.78	1.53	3.44	1.86	-1.66
interesting - boring	2.61	1.50	3.06	1.77	-1.09
Total scores	20.14	8.71	27.64	14.76	-2.38*

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

South African children comparing South African friends with New Zealand friends.

Table 20 shows the means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables for South African friends and New Zealand friends as experienced by South African children. South African children indicated feeling more awful than nice ($t(36) = -3.01, p < .01$), when considering New Zealand friends than when considering South African friends. The South African children also indicated feeling more scared and less excited with their New Zealand friends ($t(36) = -2.45, p < .05$) than with their South African friends as well as less important ($t(36) = -2.64, p < .05$). For all the friends variables the scores reflecting New Zealand friends were consistently higher than those for South African friends, indicating a more negative attitude to New Zealand friends.

Table 20

Means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables depicting South African friends and New Zealand friends as experienced by South African children. ♦

	SA experience (N = 36)		NZ experience (N = 36)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
relaxed - tense	1.89	1.28	2.44	1.98	-1.32
welcomed - ignored	1.83	1.48	2.25	1.83	-1.17
happy - sad	1.50	1.08	2.11	1.72	-1.91
in control - not in control	2.39	1.46	2.81	1.79	-1.07
nice - awful	1.31	.62	2.19	1.74	-3.01**
excited - scared	1.72	.97	2.44	1.63	-2.45*
accepted - rejected	1.58	1.20	2.19	1.62	-1.86
important - unimportant	1.97	1.34	2.94	1.88	-2.64*
interesting - boring	2.31	1.31	2.58	1.57	-.82
Total scores	16.50	8.56	21.97	13.78	-2.01

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

Comparison of New Zealand schools by South African children and New Zealand children.

Table 21 shows the means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables for New Zealand schools (South African children) and New Zealand Schools (New Zealand children). Although there were no significant differences between the perceptions held by children from New Zealand and children from South Africa for school, one variable, "tense - relaxed", did indicate that South African children were more tense in the school environment than New Zealand children with a result that was almost significant at $p=.07$.

Table 21

Means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables of New Zealand schools (South African children) and New Zealand schools (New Zealand children).

	SA children (N = 36)		NZ children (N = 36)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
relaxed - tense	3.67	2.37	2.81	1.55	1.83
welcomed - ignored	2.89	1.95	2.42	1.56	1.13
happy - sad	2.78	2.02	2.17	1.16	1.58
in control - not in control	3.25	1.90	2.61	1.48	1.59
nice - awful	2.53	1.65	2.64	1.50	-.30
excited - scared	3.22	1.86	2.94	1.07	.77
accepted - rejected	2.81	2.01	2.25	1.38	1.37
important - unimportant	3.44	1.86	3.31	1.53	.35
interesting - boring	3.06	1.77	2.56	1.16	1.42

Comparison of New Zealand friends by South African children and New Zealand children.

Table 22 shows the means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables for New Zealand friends (South African children) and New Zealand friends (New Zealand children). South African children were more tense with their friends in New Zealand ($t(70) = 3.30, p<.01$), felt more ignored, ($t(70) = 2.4, p<.05$), more sad, ($t(70) = 2.10, p<.05$), and more awful, ($t(70) = 2.33, p<.05$), than New Zealand children felt. The variables 'in control- not in control' and 'important-unimportant' also gave

results which were very close to being significant with each having a $p=.06$ value. These variables indicated that South African children felt less in control and less important with their friends than New Zealand children did.

Table 22

Means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables of New Zealand friends (South African children) and New Zealand friends (New Zealand children). ♦

	SA children (N = 36)		NZ children (N = 36)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
relaxed - tense	2.44	1.98	1.31	.62	3.30**
welcomed - ignored	2.25	1.83	1.44	.84	2.40*
happy - sad	2.11	1.72	1.44	.81	2.10*
in control - not in control	2.81	1.79	2.11	1.19	1.94
nice - awful	2.19	1.73	1.47	.65	2.33*
excited - scared	2.44	1.63	1.97	1.05	1.46
accepted - rejected	2.19	1.62	1.64	1.17	1.67
important - unimportant	2.94	1.88	2.22	1.20	1.94
interesting - boring	2.58	1.57	2.25	1.27	.99

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

Comparing South African children who are happy to be living in New Zealand and those who are not, and their New Zealand friends .

Table 23 shows the means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables for New Zealand friends (South African children) for South African children who are happy to be living in New Zealand and those who are not. Children who are happy in New Zealand feel more in control with their friends ($t(34) = -2.64, p<.05$). They also feel happier with their friends, ($t(34) = -2.41, p<.05$), and more relaxed ($t(34) = -2.48, p<.05$) than those children who are not happy to be living in New Zealand. In addition to these results, although not significant, children who were happy to be living in New Zealand felt more welcomed by their friends ($p=.06$) than children who were not happy.

Table 23

Means and standard deviations for the semantic differential variables of South African children who were happy to be living in New Zealand and those who were not, and their New Zealand friends. ♦

	Happy children (<i>n</i> = 29)		Not happy children (<i>n</i> = 7)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
relaxed - tense	2.07	1.71	4.00	2.38	-2.48*
welcomed - ignored	1.97	1.55	3.43	2.51	-1.98
happy - sad	1.79	1.32	3.43	2.57	-2.41*
in control - not in control	2.45	1.42	4.29	2.43	-2.64*
nice - awful	1.97	1.64	3.14	1.95	-1.48
excited - scared	2.17	1.47	3.57	1.90	-1.82
accepted - rejected	2.00	1.44	3.00	2.16	-1.49
important - unimportant	2.66	1.74	4.14	2.12	-1.73
interesting - boring	2.34	1.37	3.57	2.07	-1.92

* $p < .05$

♦ The significance level of *t* tests for univariate analyses are shown under *t*.

4.2.8 Analysis of semantic differentials in terms of demographic variables.

The semantic differentials were analysed in relation to the following demographic variables, namely, the employment status of the father on arrival, the current employment status of the father, the current employment status of the mother, perceived standard of living, parents' perception of exposure to traumatic events, and the children's perception of exposure to a traumatic event. No significant differences were found for any of the demographic variables.

4.2.9 Semantic differentials: Correlational analyses

Correlational analyses were conducted to determine whether any significant correlations existed between South African children's reported attitudes towards South African friends and New Zealand friends, South African schools and New Zealand schools, and between South African children's reported attitudes to New Zealand schools and New Zealand friends.

Comparing South African children's friends in South Africa and friends in New Zealand.

Table 24 shows the correlational matrix for South African children's perceptions of their South African friends and their New Zealand friends. Although there were no significant correlations for Table 24, it is interesting to note the large number of negative correlations (51%).

Comparing South African children's schools in South Africa and schools in New Zealand.

Table 25 shows the correlational matrix for South African children's perceptions of schools in South Africa and schools in New Zealand. Ninety percent of the correlations in this matrix were negative and only three were significant. A significant negative correlation was found between 'in control- not in control' in South Africa and 'happy - sad' in New Zealand ($r=-.38, p<.05$) which indicates that the more South African children felt in control in South African schools the sadder they feel in New Zealand schools. A significant negative correlation was also found for 'Total score' in South Africa and 'happy - sad' in New Zealand ($r=-.36, p<.05$) indicating that South African children are sadder at New Zealand schools in relation to their general attitude to South African schools. The final significant negative correlation was for 'relaxed-tense' in South Africa and 'excited-scared' in New Zealand ($r=-.36, p<.05$) indicating that the more relaxed South African children felt in South African schools the more scared they feel in New Zealand schools.

Comparing South African children's schools and friends in New Zealand.

Table 26 shows the correlational matrix between South African children's perceptions of schools in New Zealand and South African children's perceptions of friends in New Zealand. Table 26 produced positive significant correlations for all of the variables except one. This exception was for 'relaxed - tense' for Friends in New Zealand and 'excited - scared' for Schools in New Zealand. All of the other correlations were highly significant indicating a relationship between South African children's perceptions of New Zealand schools and their perceptions of their New Zealand friends.

Table 24Correlation between semantic differential variables for South African children's friends in New Zealand and friends in South Africa. ($N = 36$)

		South African - Friends in New Zealand									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
South African											
Friends in South Africa	M	2.44	2.25	2.11	2.81	2.19	2.44	2.19	2.94	2.58	21.97
1. Relaxed-tense	1.89	-.16	-.06	-.15	-.13	-.12	-.19	-.15	-.12	-.09	-.15
2. Welcomed-ignored	1.83	.01	.18	.13	.06	.21	.04	.06	.26	.04	.13
3. Happy-sad	1.50	-.04	.08	.12	-.04	-.04	.03	-.09	.01	.11	.02
4. In control-not in control	2.39	-.22	-.09	-.18	-.03	-.12	-.10	-.23	-.17	-.10	-.16
5. Nice-awful	1.31	.12	.21	.05	.05	.13	.00	.05	-.03	-.10	.06
6. Excited-scared	1.78	-.02	.10	.00	.00	-.03	.15	-.09	.04	.13	.03
7. Accepted-rejected	1.58	-.04	.05	.08	.00	.05	.24	.04	-.01	.18	.07
8. Important-unimportant	1.97	-.12	-.01	-.10	-.03	.15	-.02	-.04	.09	-.20	-.03
9. Interesting-boring	2.31	-.14	.02	-.04	.03	-.13	.00	-.06	-.04	.02	-.05
10. Total	16.50	-.11	.05	-.02	-.01	.01	.01	-.08	.01	-.01	-.02

Table 25Correlation between semantic differential variables for South African children's schools in South Africa and schools in New Zealand. ($N = 36$)

		South Africans - Schools in South Africa									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
South Africans - Schools in New Zealand	M	2.50	1.92	1.81	2.44	1.56	2.67	1.86	2.78	2.61	20.14
1. Relaxed-tense	3.67	-.21	-.03	-.25	-.15	-.06	-.31	.00	-.26	-.16	-.24
2. Welcomed-ignored	2.89	-.24	.07	-.16	-.31	-.10	-.28	.06	-.08	-.14	-.21
3. Happy-sad	2.78	-.28	-.12	-.12	-.38*	-.15	-.32	-.17	-.28	-.27	-.36*
4. In control-not in control	3.25	-.15	-.06	-.17	-.17	-.19	-.20	-.09	-.12	-.22	-.22
5. Nice-awful	2.53	-.06	.06	-.04	-.24	-.01	-.19	.02	-.01	.00	-.09
6. Excited-scared	3.22	-.36*	-.09	-.19	-.12	-.30	-.08	.04	-.21	.10	-.19
7. Accepted-rejected	2.81	-.29	.03	-.15	-.23	-.19	-.13	.11	-.08	-.04	-.16
8. Important-unimportant	3.44	-.24	-.07	-.30	-.30	-.17	-.30	-.02	-.00	-.19	-.26
9. Interesting-boring	3.06	-.15	-.14	-.06	-.17	-.14	-.04	-.04	-.09	-.12	-.15
10. Total	27.64	-.26	-.05	-.19	-.27	-.17	-.25	-.01	-.16	-.14	-.25

* $p < .05$.

Table 26Correlation between semantic differential variables for South African children's schools in New Zealand and friends in New Zealand. ($N = 36$)

		South African - school in New Zealand									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
South African - friends in New Zealand	M	3.67	2.89	2.78	3.25	2.53	3.22	2.81	3.44	3.06	27.64
1. Relaxed-tense	2.44	.48**	.58***	.55***	.58***	.57***	.32	.50**	.57***	.45**	.60***
2. Welcomed-ignored	2.25	.46**	.74***	.68***	.66***	.67***	.44**	.69***	.60***	.63***	.73***
3. Happy-sad	2.11	.58***	.75***	.81***	.70***	.75***	.55***	.75***	.65***	.67***	.81***
4. In control-not in control	2.81	.52***	.80***	.67***	.80***	.61***	.55***	.70***	.69***	.64***	.78***
5. Nice-awful	2.19	.61***	.78***	.66***	.63***	.79***	.50**	.71***	.75***	.49**	.77***
6. Excited-scared	2.44	.57***	.65***	.62***	.52***	.50**	.73***	.69***	.55***	.67***	.72***
7. Accepted-rejected	2.19	.61***	.74***	.72***	.61***	.70***	.57***	.82***	.70***	.70***	.81***
8. Important-unimportant	2.90	.52***	.71***	.64***	.67***	.66***	.50**	.62***	.77***	.56***	.74***
9. Interesting-boring	2.58	.41*	.60***	.67***	.67***	.57***	.70***	.73***	.55***	.84***	.74***
10 Total	21.97	.60***	.81***	.76***	.74***	.74***	.61***	.78***	.74***	.71***	.85***

** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

4.3 Qualitative results

This section consists of two parts. The first part covers the responses given by the South African parents, while the second part covers the responses given by the South African children. The questions asked of the respondents were opened-ended allowing each individual to write as much as they chose to. Some of the questions, such as the final question for the parents, invited the parents to add anything they felt they would like to. Some participants took the opportunity to add information that they felt to be relevant to the research, others added non-relevant information (such as expressing the need for such research), while some wrote nothing at all. For questions like these, although each response is an important expression for each participant, not all of them were recorded if not relevant to the research.

Each question has been content analysed for emerging themes. The researcher and a psychology graduate independently identified the emergent themes. The Chi-Square test was performed for each question to assess the similarity of the emerging themes identified by the researcher and the graduate research assistant. The Chi Square tests performed, produced highly significant results for each question. (See Appendix I). These themes have been recorded in the form of frequency tables, with the most frequently mentioned theme recorded first, and the least frequently mentioned theme recorded last. To illustrate some of the responses, direct quotations are given after the table, allowing for a greater depth of understanding.

4.3.1 Parents' Questionnaire

This section covers the information provided by the South African children's parents.

Experience of traumatic events. (n=20)

Of the 36 respondents 20 (56%) had experienced a traumatic event of some sort. A description and frequency of these events have been recorded in Table 27. These events may have been experienced personally or by others close to the respondent. For this reason some respondents have reported more than one event and on some occasions several. Because of the nature of the various events reported, the traumatic events were divided into violent and non-violent experiences. The most frequently mentioned violent event was car hijacking, with 12 incidents being reported (60%), followed by 7

murders (35%) and 7 assaults (35%). The previously mentioned “murders” did not include shootings unless they were fatal, which left 5 (25%) shootings, and 4 (20%) armed robberies. Violent burglaries were burglaries conducted when the occupants of the house were at home, and were threatened by the intruders. Two (10%) of these were reported, as well as 2 (10%) robberies, where the individual was held up while being robbed. There were 2 (10%) incidences of abduction or kidnapping, and 1 (5%) incidence of being threatened at knifepoint.

By comparison the non-violent events were less numerous with the most frequently reported being 8 burglaries (20%) or attempted burglaries when the occupants were not at home, 3 petty thieving or robbery (washing off the clothes line), and 2 (10%) car theft. Two (10%) indicated that they felt threatened by the constant news coverage and the “Truth and Reconciliation Commission” and one parent (5%) reported a flasher.

In total there were 42 violent incidences reported and 16 non-violent incidents.

Table 27
Traumatic events experienced by parents (n = 20)

	Violent		Non-violent	
	frequency	%	frequency	%
Car hijackings	12	60	-	-
Murder	7	35	-	-
Assault	7	35	-	-
Shootings	5	25	-	-
Armed robbery	4	20	-	-
Burglaries	2	10	8	40
Abduction/kidnapping	2	10	-	-
Robbery	2	10	3	15
Threatened	1	5	2	10
Flasher	-	-	1	5
Car theft	-	-	1	5

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to report more than one incident results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

As previously mentioned, some respondents had experienced more than one traumatic event. To illustrate the range and violence of these events, the following are quotes from four respondents.

Quotes from Question 7:-

“ Friends burgled 3 times in 18 months.
 Mother of friend shot by would be car-jackers/burglars.
 Brothers best friend shot and killed by would be car-jackers in front of his family.
 Brother-in-law’s cousin beaten, blinded and left for dead.
 Cousin shot and wounded by SAP when filming for TV news coverage.
 82 Year old acquaintance burgled and grateful she was not raped!!!”

“ I was hi-jacked. 3 of my children were in the car with me. Although we managed to get out, I was severely beat up.”

“Our home was burgled by armed intruders while my wife was in the house.
 A friend, a taxi driver, was called to pick up a fare. When he arrived he was shot dead and his car stolen.”

“Family member held at gunpoint.
 ‘Car-jack’ outside work premises.
 Children’s friends father kidnapped.
 Friends father killed in his home.
 Daughter in car when intruder entered to steal possessions.”

Emotions attached to leaving South Africa. (N=36)

This question also allowed respondents to respond as many or as few times as they wished with their responses being recorded in Table 28. Most of the responses tended towards what had been left behind and the feelings associated with this loss. Some of the responses were long and detailed while others consisted of a single word. Fifty three percent were sad to leave family (53%) and friends (50%) with all respondents except one mentioning both in the same sentence. Twenty eight percent were angry, sad and frustrated at having to leave South Africa, but 36% were also positive about the opportunities offered by New Zealand. Thirty one percent also indicated a sense of relief, of having no regrets and feeling quite positive about the move.

Six respondents mentioned sacrificing financial security (17%) in coming to New Zealand and 7 mentioned personal security (19%) in New Zealand or the lack of it in South Africa. Five respondents mentioned leaving their “roots”, and of being “nobody”(14%) and 5 felt that they had been misinformed about New Zealand (14%), and were disillusioned, apprehensive, and found New Zealand hostile and racist. Three respondents missed the familiar places, the climate and the nature in South Africa, while

2 were simply homesick and missed South Africa. The good New Zealand school system was mentioned by one respondent.

The table has been set out with the negative responses appearing first followed by the positive responses and illustrates that more negative responses or emotions were attached to leaving South Africa than positive responses and emotions.

Table 28

Emotions attached to leaving South Africa. (N = 36)

	frequency	%
Negative responses		
Sad at leaving family and friends	18	50
Angry, sad, frustrated at leaving SA	19	53
Financial security sacrificed	10	28
Leaving "roots", being nobody	6	17
Misinformation about NZ, disillusioned, apprehensive - found NZ racist and hostile	5	14
Miss familiar places, climate, nature	5	14
Homesick, miss SA	3	8
	<u>2</u>	6
Total	68	
Positive responses		
Positive about NZ opportunities	13	36
No regrets, relieved, positive about leaving SA	11	31
Personal security in NZ not SA	7	19
Good NZ school system	<u>1</u>	3
Total	32	

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Quotes from Question 8:-

"Mixed emotions: Anger at feeling pressured to do so [leave South Africa], in order to give our children a better chance at living as we did as children; Sadness and frustration at not being able to do anything about the troubles the country has, to make it better for our children, also that our children arrive here with no roots and will have to come to terms with that sooner or later."

"Both "A" and myself feel it is still too early to give an honest answer. We are extremely disillusioned with certain aspects of schooling, and feel at times there is more racialism in New Zealand than we were ever used to in RSA."

"No regrets apart from few good friends and family."

"Absolute relief to get away from the crime and violence. Peace of mind regarding improved safety of our 2 kids. Sorry, and sad to leave family behind, less so at leaving friends behind. Anxious about starting over again financially. Angry at the government and blacks in general that the situation in the country has worsened to the extent where we felt we had to leave. Angry and disappointed about Rand - NZ\$ exchange rate and lower value of houses meaning that we have

very little NZ money to show for all our years of hard work in RSA. We feel cheated of our opportunities in RSA. Sad that such a lovely, beautiful country, with so many good things about it, and so many good people in it (of all colours) is deteriorating so badly. Hopeless about its future.”

“Sad, disappointed, sense of adventure, peace.”

“Relieved”

“Very, very sad for me. Optimistic about the opportunities for my children. My mother was 9th generation South African and I feel my roots are there. However, I have lived all over the world and can adapt well.”

“Our roots are very deep and it was a very big adjustment and traumatic to leave behind family and friends. Also unknown destinations are very stressful at first and the hardest thing is to become “somebody” again. My children felt it was a great adventure, but have settled down very well.”

Additional information offered by respondents. (n=25)

Only 25 respondents took the opportunity to add anything they felt to be relevant and these have been recorded in Table 29. Frequently responses to this question were similar to the responses given for the previous question. Five people (20%) mentioned the material sacrifices which had been made. A similar number (20%) mentioned the reasons for leaving South Africa and the safety aspect, and 20% mentioned the future and finances in New Zealand. It was felt by 4 respondents that New Zealand children are undisciplined and that there is a lack of parental responsibility for them. Emotions, including grief from afar (family dying in South Africa) depression, the strain on relationships and the excitement and happiness associated with the move were expressed by 4 people (16%). The difficulty of immigration for children who spoke a different language, who had a different education or who were older was mentioned 3 times (12%). New Zealanders were thought to be unfriendly by two participants (8%), and the quality of life in New Zealand was mentioned by another two (8%). A lack of religion was noted by one respondent, as were the good schools, the sadness of leaving South Africa, and the fact that a second immigration is much easier than the first.

Table 29

Additional information offered by respondents. (n = 25)

	frequency	%
Material sacrifices	5	20
Reasons for leaving South Africa, safety etc.	5	20
Emotions: depression, grief from afar, excited & happy, strain on relationships	4	16
New Zealand children undisciplined, lack of parental responsibility	4	16
Immigration different for children who are older, speak a different language or different education	3	12
New Zealand people unfriendly	2	8
Lack of religion	1	4
Sad about SA situation	<u>1</u>	4
Total	25	
Factors relating to the future and finances	5	20
Quality of life in New Zealand better	2	8
Second immigration easier	1	4
Good New Zealand schools	<u>1</u>	4
Total	9	

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Quotes from Question 9:-

“ The fear for safety and uncertainty about the future of our family was greater than the combined attractions that SA provided.”

“ We came when the children were: 9 and 4 - young enough to adapt well. Older immigrant children have a lot more trouble settling down here.”

“My husband left a thriving business of 8 years to start a new life for him and his family.”

“NZ people are not as friendly as we are led to believe, and we always feel unwelcome. I prefer my kids to mix with foreign kids as the NZ kids are a disgrace.”

“We hope that the people of South Africa can sort out the problems and live in peace together.”

“No matter how hard our life here in NZ might get, we as a family unit will never go back to SA.. There is no future for the white children over there.”

“-Immigration is traumatic to SA children
 -language barrier
 -methods of education in NZ
 -level of discipline SA children Vs NZ children
 -lack of focus on religion in NZ.”

4.3.2 Children's Questionnaire

The second part of this section focuses on the South African children's questionnaire responses. The children were encouraged to respond to each question as fully as possible. However, such difficulty was expressed with some questions, that little was written and occasionally, nothing at all. Question 1- 7 involved demographic information which has been tabulated and can be found in Table 2 of the Quantitative section. This section therefore starts with Question 8.

Perceived similarities between South African and New Zealand children. (n=34)

The similarities observed by these children have been recorded in Table 30. The most frequently mentioned similarity (44%) between South African children and New Zealand children related to behaviour. This was followed closely by 13 children (38%) reporting similarities in personality, appearance, clothing, knowledge, being outgoing, and activity. There were 10 (29%) observations of similar sporting interests and that the English language was spoken by both groups. Twenty one percent mentioned a friendly disposition for both and that they both have similar interests (scored separately from sporting interests). Only 4 children (11%) felt that the attitude to school was the same while 3 children (9%) noted that English was spoken with an accent by both parties.

Table 30

Similarities between South African children and New Zealand children. (n =34)

	frequency	%
Same behaviour	15	44
Similarities in personality, appearance, clothes knowledge, outgoing and active	13	38
English speaking	10	29
Sporting interests	10	29
Friendly disposition	7	21
Similar interests	7	21
Attitude to school work	4	12
Speak English with an accent	3	9

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one observation results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Children's quotes from question 8:-

"They both like doing similar things
They both play similar sports.
They both are reasonably friendly."

"They both speak the same language
They both like sport
They play and don't just sit around."

"They both participate in quite a lot of sports.
They both know how to speak English."

"They speak the same language.
They both can be friends.
They both have a heritage."

**Perceived differences between South African children and New Zealand children.
(n=35)**

Table 33 records the differences noted by South African children. The use of bad language and swearing by New Zealand children was noted by 31% of the children as being the biggest difference. This was closely followed by the observation by 26% of the children that New Zealand children lacked discipline and had different accents or ways of speaking English. It was also felt that New Zealand children had a different attitude to school (23%) and had a more relaxed attitude in general (23%). The way friends and peers interact was noted by 7 children (20%) as being different and 6 (17%) children felt that the lifestyle of New Zealanders was different. New Zealand children were seen to be more independent and confident (11%) and having a different style of dressing (11%). Three South African children felt that New Zealand children enjoyed different sports (9%) and two observed that there were children of different ethnic groups at school (6%). A number of single observations were made referring to differences, some examples of which are sense of humour, differences in school work, interests, beliefs, accents, writing, and thoughts on foreign countries (29%).

Table 31
Differences between South African children and New Zealand children. (n =35)

	frequency	%
Use of bad language and swearing by NZ	11	31
NZ lack discipline	9	26
Different accents or way of speaking	9	26
Different attitudes to school, the school system and school subjects	8	23
Relaxed New Zealand attitude	8	23
Differences in interaction with friends & peers	7	20
Different lifestyle	6	17
NZ more independent and confident	4	11
Different styles of dressing	4	11
Like different sports	3	9
Different races at school	2	6
General	10	29

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one observation results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Children's quotes from Question 9:-

"They are different because our school systems are very different.
They are different because at my old school the children worried about the new children.
They try to help settle in."

"They are different because South African kids are more aware of dangers.
S. A. kids have had more frightening experiences.
N.Z. kids go to other peoples houses more often."

" longer hair
different words
more relaxed"

"They are different in the attitude in the class
They are different in the language they use in school times
They are different in the respect for teachers."

"They are different the way they play
They are different the way they work
They are different the way they write."

"They are different in colour (some).
They are different with the way they are disciplined
They are different with accents"

"They are different because kiwi's have attitudes (not good)
They are different because they misbehave more (not good)
They are different because they have an accent (okay)."

"They are different because they have different 'colours' S.A.
They are different because they are funny S. A.
They are different because they have a nice life in N.Z."

Positive perceptions of South Africa. (N=36)

Table 32 records the responses of the children regarding their positive perceptions of South Africa. Half of the respondents (50%) liked their South African friends, while a third (33%) liked the weather there. Thirty one percent liked South African houses as well as South African schools and teachers (33%). Ten children (28%) liked the wildlife in South Africa, as well as the countryside and vegetation. Twenty two percent liked South African people while 19% enjoyed the familiarity of South African sportsmanship and social behaviours. Five children (14%) liked their pets in South Africa and 3 children (8%) liked their family in South Africa. A number of single references (39%) were made to unrelated items, some examples of which are shopping malls, things to do, rugby, the food, the flag, and the ‘Waterfront’ in Cape Town.

Table 32

What South African children do like about South Africa. (N = 36)

	frequency	%
South African friends	18	50
South African weather	12	33
South African houses	11	31
South African schools and teachers	11	31
South African countryside and vegetation	10	28
South African wildlife	10	28
South African people	8	22
South African sportsmanship, social behaviour	7	19
South African pets	5	14
Family in South Africa	3	8
General:	14	39

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Children’s quotes from Question 10.

“I like the wildlife.
I like the people living there.
I like the way people are well mannered.”

“I like the mountains.
I like the bush.
I like the animals.”

“I like the heat.
I like my old friends.
I like the teachers.”

“I like my friends and relatives.
I like the weather and school.
I liked where I lived.”

‘I like the schools
I like the different foods we had but don’t have here.
I like the houses.’”

“I like them because they are better friends than kiwi’s.
I like the weather.
I like how they play sport.”

“I like the schooling.
I like having lots of friends than here.
I like all the big houses and swimming pools.”

Negative perceptions of South Africa. (N=36)

Table 33 shows that there were 39 (108%) references to violence which included killings, crime, theft and hijackings. A quarter (25%) of the children did not like the schooling referring specifically to the education level, uniforms, teachers, the amount of homework, and the different ethnic groups in the classes. Seven children (19%) mentioned the lack of freedom in South Africa and being scared and there were a similar number of references to litter (19%). Dislike for the president and the South African government was mentioned 6 times (17%) and two children mentioned their dislike for racist fighting (6%). A number of unrelated dislikes were also mentioned, examples of which are different children, beggars, the depreciating value of money, discrimination, TV, the wind, people staring, the hate, the big cities, day-care, the arrogance, and bullying (42%).

Table 33

What South African children do not like about South Africa. (N=36)

	frequency	%
Violence - killing, crime, theft, hijackings	39	108
Schools - different race in class, education level, uniforms, teachers, amount of homework	9	25
Litter	7	19
Lack of freedom, being scared	7	19
The president, the government	6	17
Racist fighting	2	6
General	15	42

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Children's quotes from Question 11:

"I don't like the violence
I don't like the begging people.
I don't like the leaders of the country."

"I don't like the dirt.
I don't like the killing.
I don't like been scared in SA e.g. Someone is waiting for you around the corner."

"I don't like all the people killing each other.
I don't like hijacking.
I don't like burglaries."

"I don't like the violence.
I don't like the school.
I don't like the litter."

"I don't like the violence.
I don't like the starving people.
I don't like the heat."

"I don't like the violence.
I don't like the education.
I don't like big fences with barbed wire."

Positive perceptions of New Zealand. (N=36)

Table 35 records 58% of the South African children mentioning that they liked the personal freedom offered by New Zealand which allowed them to go out after dark, where everything was so calm, it was safer, and where there were non-violent attitudes. Fifty three percent also liked the New Zealand people while 31% of the children like the New Zealand schooling and how easy it is. A quarter (25%) of the children like the sports, food, and shops found in New Zealand while 19% indicated that they liked the New Zealand environment and 17% liked the beaches and sea. . Four references were made about New Zealand houses (11%) and all of the greenery (11%). Three children like New Zealand TV (8%) and 2 like the lack of litter in New Zealand (6%). Seventeen unrelated responses were mentioned, some examples of which are the flowers, clothing, the fact that there was lots to do, the easy lifestyle, the South African people in New Zealand, the weather, snow, the space, magazines, cars, the safety rules, and the fact that you can do what you like (47%).

Table 34

What South African children like about New Zealand. (N = 36)

	frequency	%
Personal freedom, lack of violence etc.	21	58
New Zealand people	19	53
Schools and how easy they are	11	31
Food, sports, shops	9	25
The environment	7	19
The beaches or sea	6	17
The greenery	4	11
New Zealand houses	4	11
New Zealand TV	3	8
Lack of litter	2	6
General	17	47

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Children's quotes from Question 12:

"I like that there's no violence.
I like that there's no dirt.
I like that I'm not scared."

"I like how they try to conserve all of the beautiful nature.
I like the strict safety rules they make.
I like having to be able to walk down the street without worrying of being harmed."

"I like the people.
I like the schools.
I like the space."

"I like the security.
I like the easy lifestyle."

"I like the fact that I could go wherever I wanted.
I like the snow!!
I like the (school's) work is more fluent and easy."

"You can go out after dark."

"I like that it is a horsey (horsy)country.
I like that there isn't violence."
I like that you live close to the sea."

"I like about New Zealand is that children are nice.
I like about New Zealand is that you are safe.
I like about New Zealand is that you can do what every you want."

"I like no litter.
I like the schools.
I like the hardly any violence."

Negative perceptions of New Zealand. (n=34)

Children indicated that the biggest source of ‘dislike’ was for New Zealand weather with forty four percent mentioning the weather in some form (Table 35). Thirty five percent of the children do not like the New Zealand people or children and 24% do not like the behaviour, the teasing, the bad language, and the rudeness in New Zealand. The same percentage do not like the schools or homework. Five children (15%) mentioned that they do not like the housing in New Zealand and 2 (6%) do not like the countryside. Sportsmanship in New Zealand is mentioned by 2 (6%) as being disliked with a number of single items (47%) some examples of which are the government, taking off your shoes, the tiny waves, the distance from South Africa, the smog and pollution, the drugs, accents, fellow pupils, sheep, Asians, and chips (crisps) also being mentioned.

Table 35

What South African children dislike about New Zealand. (n = 34)

	frequency	%
The weather	15	44
The people and children	12	35
School and the homework	8	24
The behaviour, teasing, the bad language and rudeness	8	24
The housing	5	15
Sportsmanship	2	6
The countryside	2	6
General	16	47

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Children’s quotes from Question 13.

“I don’t like not being near my SA friends.
I don’t like being teased.
I don’t like not being able to call SA because its to (too) expensive.”

“I don’t like the kids at school.
I don’t like the hard school and projects.
I don’t like being with other people from my school.”

“I don’t like when people are ugly to us.
I don’t like when people say “go Back to your own contry (country).”

I don't like to see all the agiens (Asians) Because it reminds me about the Black people.”

“I don't like the school so much as in South Africa.
I don't like the children that uses (use) bad language.”

“I don't like the people (They are not friendly)
I don't like the houses (because they are made of wood).”

“I don't like the way that they are so rude (most of them).
I don't like the weather.”

Traumatic experiences of South African children. (n=15)

Of the 36 respondents, only 16 reported that something frightening had happened to them in South Africa. However, when asked to clarify, only 15 responded and these have been recorded in Table 36. Most noticeably evident was that every response related to violence or crime of some sort. In total 18 incidences (120%) of violence and crime were reported. The most frequently mentioned crime was that of burglary (33%), followed by 3 incidences of hijackings (20%). Two children witnessed a murder during a hijacking, and a restaurant shooting (13%). Single incidences of bank robberies, being held up, attempted abduction, being attacked at a bus-stop, car robbery, fear of being burgled or shot, and being followed were mentioned by 7 children (7%).

Table 36

Frightening things that happened to South African children. (n = 15)

	frequency	%
Crime and violence	18	120
Burglaries	5	33
Hijackings	3	20
Witness to murder/hijack, restaurant shooting	2	20
Bank robbery	1	7
Being followed	1	7
Held up	1	7
Fear of being burgled/shot	1	7
Attempted abduction	1	7
Attacked at bus-stop	1	7
Car robbery	1	7

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Children's quotes from Question 14:

"Once my family and I were awake at night and we almost got burgled and I thought it would happen again."

"One of my friends father was murdered. My other friends mother had a person in her boot with an AK47."

"My mom got held up tith (with) a gun and mony (money) got taken off her. When a call came trew how (through to)the house, and when I herd (heard) my mom was involved then I did not now (know) what hapend (happened) so since that time I was frightend (frightened)."

"We were walk to the boys house and when we got in the house the car got stolen (the(y) had guns). When we went to a place to eat so people with guns started to sho(o)t."

"Someone broke into our house and my mum came home and locked herself in and then found a knife on the bed and so she called my dad."

"When mum and I were in the car at the bank, we saw a money transferal (transferral) van get robbed, people get shot and beaten and bashed."

"When we were going out for supper we got highjacked (hijacked)."

"the black people kill you and come in your house and shoots you."

Perceptions of why South Africans moved to New Zealand. (N=36)

Table 37 records that the most frequently given reason for the move (75%) was to escape the violence or crime, and to get away from the lack of safety and danger. Twenty eight percent indicated that they were coming to a better future, and better education (25%). Safety was a factor mentioned by 5 children (14%) while three children (8%) said they were leaving the poor South African economy and coming to better job opportunities (8%). Two children came to get away from the begging (6%) and a few single factors were given such as parents wanting to, coming to see an aunt, things not being so good in South Africa, and being close to a school (11%).

Table 37
Why South Africans moved to New Zealand. (N = 36)

	frequency	%
To escape violence and crime, lack of safety, and danger	27	78
Better future	10	28
Better education	9	25
Safety	5	14
Poor SA economy	3	8
Job opportunities	3	8
Begging	2	6
General	4	11

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Children's quotes from Question 15:

"We moved because of the violence and to have a more "open lifestyle."

"We moved because the schooling in South Africa was not so good and it was still good in N.Z."

"We moved because my mom and dad wanted a bet(t)er feather (future) fro me and my BrotHer (brother)."

"We moved because it was going to be better for our education and less violent than in South Africa."

"Because of the unpleasant violence."

"We moved because of the crime and how unsafe it is there."

Perceptions of South African children's' happiness in New Zealand. (N=36)

Twenty nine children (81%) are happy to now be living in New Zealand, and the remaining 7 (19%) are unhappy about the move. Their reasons for being unhappy or happy are recorded in Table 38, some of which were positive, some negative, and the remainder a mixture of the two. Those responses which were positive were frequently followed by 'but', and a negative response. Consequently their responses have been divided into 'happy' and 'unhappy' to correspond with the positive and negative element. However, these figures do not correspond with the number of 'happy to be in NZ' and 'not happy to be in NZ'.

The most frequently given reason for being happy about the move, was that New Zealand was safer and less violent than South Africa with forty four percent of the children making reference to this. This was closely followed by a quarter of the children (25%) mentioning the personal freedom to be enjoyed in New Zealand. Five children (14%) are happy about the friends they have made in New Zealand, and a similar number (14%) feel they have settled in New Zealand, pursuing their personal interests. Schooling in New Zealand including the lack of crowding, and the school uniforms was seen as a bonus by 4 children (11%) as was the fact that this is a new experience to be enjoyed. A few children (8%) simply 'like' New Zealand, while others see it as offering more opportunities (8%), as well as allowing the family to be together (6%). A few unrelated reasons such as New Zealand having more greenery and animals (6%), and the lack of litter (3%) were also recorded as being positive responses.

The most frequently given negative response (often following the "happy , but") was missing South African friends (17%) or simply missing South Africa (8%) and family in South African (6%). Two children (6%) expressed difficulty in making friends here, while single references were made to the bad weather in New Zealand (3%), the rude New Zealand children (3%) and missing South African teachers (3%).

Table 38

What makes South African children happy or unhappy about living in New Zealand (N=36)

	frequency	%
Positive answers:		
Safer in NZ/ less violent	16	44
Personal freedom	9	25
Settled & involved, pursuing personal interests	5	14
Friends in NZ	5	14
Schools, less crowding, uniforms	4	11
New experience	4	11
Like NZ	3	8
More opportunity	3	8
Family together	2	6
More animals and greenery	2	6
Less litter	<u>1</u>	3
Total	54	
Negative:		
Miss SA friends	6	17
Miss South Africa	3	8
Lonely and difficult to make friends	2	6
Miss SA family	2	6
Miss SA teachers	1	3
Rude NZ children	1	3
Bad weather	<u>1</u>	3
Total	16	

Note: The opportunity for each respondent to record more than one response results in the percentages totalling more than 100%.

Quotes from Question 16:

Yes "Write (Right) now I feel quite alone. I suppose that it was the best decision."

Yes "Because we get the experiens (experience) and the opurtunity (opportunity) that some people in South Africa could never get. And because we as children can see what and how does New Zealand work."

Yes "Because Im not so afraid of being shot."

Yes and No " Y. I have quiet (quite) a few friends. N. The boys and girls are very rude to teachers and others."

No "the weather is too cold and I have trouble trying to make good friends."

No "because I miss South Africa and friends and family."

Yes "Me and my family are still together and nothing bad has happened."

Yes "Because it is less violent and most of the classes at school arn't (aren't) as crowded."

5. Discussion

Research has been conducted to explore the mental health aspects of immigrant children and refugee children. Studies have also examined adolescents and the transitions they encounter on the way to adulthood, as well as the importance of friendships to sustain positive mental health into adulthood. However, little research has explored the interaction of adolescent transition, friendship and the immigrant/refugee child. This research endeavoured to accomplish some measure of understanding in this regard.

Anxiety and self-esteem

The anxiety and self-esteem measures produced some interesting results. There was no significant difference in terms of gender regarding State and Trait anxiety for both the South African children and the New Zealand children. There were no significant differences in terms of gender for South African children for self-esteem (social acceptance and global self worth). However, a significant difference based on gender for New Zealand children emerged for self-esteem in terms of social acceptance. New Zealand girls reported higher social acceptance than did New Zealand boys. This however, may be a reflection of the fact that very few boys participated in the control sample and the results are therefore possibly unrepresentative. Nevertheless, this does indicate that differences in anxiety and self-esteem are not gender based except for the social acceptance between New Zealand girls and boys.

Differences between the children based on nationality showed that South African children experience levels of State anxiety significantly higher than those experienced by New Zealand children. As no significant difference was found between South African children and New Zealand children in Trait anxiety we can assume that South African children and New Zealand children exhibit no significant individual differences in their predisposition to experience anxiety States. However, State anxiety measures transitory anxiety or anxiety experienced at a particular moment in time, and we can therefore assume that the State anxiety experienced by South African children is indicative of being currently or very recently exposed to a stressful situation such as immigration.

Given that many South African families have been exposed to violence the high levels of State anxiety could possibly have been attributed to the experience of trauma that many South African children have been exposed to, as reported in the demographic information and which would also support research conducted by Gaertner-Harnach (1981), Horowitz & Fenkel (1976) and Takac (1976). However, further analyses in terms of South African children's exposure to trauma indicated that exposure to trauma had not influenced State anxiety significantly, though it is interesting to note that, South African children who indicated exposure to trauma, although not significant, did have higher State and Trait anxiety and lower self-esteem (social acceptance and global self worth) than children who had not reported exposure to trauma. This finding partially confirms those of Rousseau, Corin, & Renaud (1989) who found that exposure to trauma results in an increase in anxiety and lowered mental health.

The employment status of the South African children's parents did not produce any significant results either in terms of anxiety or self-esteem. However, again although not significant, those children whose fathers were currently unemployed at the time of the research being conducted did display higher State and Trait anxiety than did the children whose fathers had already secured employment. This result partially supports Melville (1981) who suggests that parents who are experiencing anxiety or depression themselves, as is possibly the case for South African parents still seeking employment, could influence the adaptation and adjustment of their children negatively as their own emotions are reflected in their children. However, as this research focussed on South African children and their immigration experience, the mental health status of their parents was not examined or explored. Therefore no claims can be made regarding the effect of the mental health status of South African parents and the impact it might have on the State anxiety of South African immigrant children.

South African children who knew children at the first school they went to in New Zealand reported greater self-esteem (global self worth) than did South African children who knew nobody. Ladd & Kochenderfer (1996) found similar evidence suggesting friendship fosters feelings of security, worthiness, and competence.

It was also found that South African children who are unhappy about living in New Zealand experience higher State anxiety and lower self-esteem (social acceptance and global self worth) than did South African children who are happy to be living in New Zealand. Further investigation needs to be conducted as to whether these children have experienced difficulty in forming relationships with their peers (Ladd, Price, & Hart, 1990) and are therefore unhappy about living in New Zealand, or whether they are unhappy about being in New Zealand and therefore negative in their approach to forming peer or friend relationships. Furthermore, is their higher State anxiety level owing to the difficulty they have experienced in making friends and being accepted or as a result of other factors that have not been explored?

Significant negative correlations were found between anxiety (State and Trait) and self-esteem (social acceptance and global self worth) for the South African children. This indicates that South African children who report high anxiety are likely to report low self-esteem and vice versa. This is consistent with the findings of Harter (1990) who reported that adolescent self-esteem correlates directly with how their parents and other important people, such as friends regard them, and Higgins et al. (1991) who reported that conflict which arises as a result of disharmony in such relationships gives rise to stress and thus anxiety. Similarly, significant positive correlations were found between State anxiety and Trait anxiety, as well as between social acceptance and global self worth. By comparison there were far fewer and less significant correlations to be found for New Zealand children on these measures than for South African children. New Zealand children also indicated a positive correlation between social acceptance and global self worth and between State anxiety and Trait anxiety. A negative relationship was found between Trait anxiety and global self worth.

School and friends

South African children's attitudes towards South African schools are more positive than their attitude towards New Zealand schools. South African children felt significantly more negative in their overall attitude towards school in New Zealand. This was particularly evident in their feeling more tense, more ignored, more sad, more awful, and more rejected in school in New Zealand.

There is also a significant difference between South African children's attitudes and New Zealand children's attitudes towards their friends in New Zealand. South African children reported perceptions of feeling more awful, more scared and less important when with their friends in New Zealand than they felt with their friends in South Africa. They also reported perceptions of feeling more tense, more ignored, more sad, and more awful when with their friends in New Zealand than New Zealand children reported.

In addition, South African children who reported feeling unhappy about living in New Zealand reported perceptions of feeling more tense, more sad and less in control when with their friends in New Zealand than did the South African children who reported feeling happy. This result is interesting in light of the anxiety and self-esteem results of these same children possibly indicating that friends are a potential source of anxiety for some South African children as well as having an impact on their self-esteem. This information on attitudes towards friends and the associated perceptions is supported by the qualitative data obtained from the South African children. Half of the children reported missing their South African friends; a response that was mentioned most frequently. When asked to report what South African children did not like about New Zealand thirty five percent of the responses referred to New Zealand people or children; the second most frequently mentioned response after disliking the weather. When asked to respond as to the reasons why they were happy or unhappy about living in New Zealand, South African children reported missing South African friends most frequently amongst their negative responses regardless of whether they are happy or unhappy about living in New Zealand. Comments from the children indicate that friendship was easier in South Africa and the behaviour of New Zealand children is less familiar or comfortable. This finding indirectly supports that of Aronowitz (1984) and Kantor (1965) who both suggest that children who relocate tend to be more withdrawn and not as well accepted by their peers. Furthermore, these results also support research conducted by Offord, Boyle, & Racine (1990) who found that children who exhibit good social ability and good peer relationships were less likely to develop adjustment problems.

No significant correlations were found between South African children's attitudes towards friends in South Africa and friends in New Zealand. Of interest however, is the fact that 51% percent of the correlations were negative indicating that the more positively friends were perceived in South Africa the less positively they are perceived in New Zealand. This observation is supported by the fact that 20% of the South African children reported, unprompted, that differences exist between South African children and New Zealand children in the way they interact with their friends and peers. Thirty one percent commented on the bad language used by New Zealanders and 26% on their lack of discipline. However, if these two percentages are combined as undesirable behaviours as perceived by South African children, we note that 57% feel that New Zealand children's behaviour is viewed negatively. Furthermore, 19% prefer the sportsmanship and social behaviour of South African children.

Three significant correlations were found between South African children's attitudes towards South African schools and New Zealand schools. The more South African children perceive feeling in control at school in South Africa, the more sad they perceive feeling at school in New Zealand. In addition the more South African children perceived feeling relaxed at school in South Africa, the more scared they feel at school in New Zealand. Finally, the more positive the South African attitude to school in South Africa, the sadder they feel at school in New Zealand. Ninety percent of the correlations were negative, indicating that the more positively schools are perceived in South Africa the less positively they are perceived in New Zealand. The framework within which schools in South Africa and New Zealand work for South African children is even more different than the framework for friends in South Africa and New Zealand. The qualitative data indicated that 26% of the South African children feel that New Zealand children have a different attitude to school, the school system and school subjects.

In contrast the correlation between South African children's attitude towards schools in New Zealand and friends in New Zealand is highly significant. The only correlation, which was not significant, was for feeling excited-scared at school and relaxed-tense with friends indicating that there is no relationship between feeling excited at school and feeling relaxed with friends. All of the other correlations were not only positive, but also highly significant indicating that there is a positive relationship

between the attitudes held by South African children for both schools and friends in New Zealand. That is, the happier they are at school in New Zealand the happier they are with their friends in New Zealand.

These findings are not surprising if one considers that the impact of social change required of the immigrant child is likely to be felt in the school environment (Kopala, Esquivel, & Baptiste, 1994). It is the school environment where differences in cultural values are experienced especially regarding behaviour (Esquivel & Keital, 1990) and thus where the child is required to restructure their social roles (Pearlin, 1983). It is also the environment in which friends are made. However, those children who have made friends in New Zealand are possibly less exposed to the stress and anxiety produced in that relationship than they are with their peers in the general school environment. While at school, many if not most of the people that they associate with are not friends, but peers and acquaintances which increases the chance of being exposed to stressful and anxious experiences. This would explain why the significant difference between the attitudes of South African children towards schools in South African and schools in New Zealand exists. Their exposure to anxiety and stressful situations in general is increased in the school setting, compared to the situations encountered with their friends.

Qualitative data

The questionnaire for the parents was designed to explore some of the factors, which the child's family is experiencing or may have experienced which could impact on the children and their acculturation in New Zealand. Most noticeable was the fact that 56% of South African families have been exposed to violent crime. While the parents were not asked directly if this was the reason why they left South Africa, it appears that most families had experienced violent crime. This is not surprising as South Africa is now one of the most violent countries in the world (The Economist, 1997). In addition many families reported having had to sacrifice financial security, and some families reported feeling angry, sad and frustrated at having to leave South Africa. This indicates that many South Africans could easily be categorised as refugees who felt they were forced out of South Africa as involuntary immigrants. Although half of the families indicated feeling either completely or partially like refugees, this number is possibly not a true reflection of how many feel this way. If one considers that a refugee

is pushed from the country of origin, while the immigrant is pulled from the country of origin (Sluzki, 1979) in relation to the factors previously mentioned, one could assume that many more South African families may fit into the category of refugee than immigrant than were actually indicated.

While this differentiation may seem insignificant on the surface, it assumes some importance with regard to how the families view the host country which in turn affects their acculturation (Berry & Kim, 1988). Those who feel like refugees are more likely to experience difficulty compared to those who feel like immigrants because their initial attitude to acculturation is less positive. Furthermore, those who feel like refugees are more likely to experience a negative influence on mental health than those who feel like immigrants (Berry & Kim, 1988). The possibility exists that some South African immigrants experience more depression and anxiety than other immigrants, which could indirectly impact on the acculturation of the South African immigrant child as suggested by Melville (1984). The possibility of the existence of this factor and its impact was not explored in the current research, but would be invaluable in future research.

Friendships and school experiences in New Zealand do appear to be affecting South African immigrant children. Typically, South African immigrant children indicate missing many of those familiar places, objects and people including family and friends. These children and their families are experiencing varying degrees of grief which is frequently not acknowledged by their New Zealand peers and friends. In spite of the fact that many of the elements left in South Africa are missed, they all recognise that violence in South Africa is extreme compared to New Zealand. Fifty eight percent of these children mentioned most frequently that personal freedom and lack of violence was most appealing about New Zealand while there were 39 references made to disliking violence in South Africa (also the most frequently mentioned response).

In addition the frequent references to New Zealand children, their behaviour, attitude and use of language, indicates that social interaction with peers and friends, whether it is viewed positively or negatively, constitutes a pivotal role in the South African immigrant child's life. The research conducted by Higgins et al. (1995) would support the suggestion of the importance of friends in the life of the adolescent. Where

previously their parents would have been a source of self-evaluation and emotional well being, their friends now become more important than their parents in providing this resource. However as many of the behaviours of New Zealand children are viewed negatively by South African children, this interaction would appear to be a source of stress and anxiety for South African children rather than the positive resource suggested by Higgins et al. (1995). Furthermore, their reference to schools while frequent was also interesting. Thirty one percent of South African children like South African schools, while 25% do not like South African schools. However, the reasons for liking or disliking school are the same. The children through their comments indicated that they felt school in New Zealand was easy. Those children who dislike school in New Zealand are possibly unchallenged as they indicated that they feel it is too easy, while those who like school possibly felt school in South Africa was too difficult and strict or regimented.

Seventy eight percent of the children indicated leaving South Africa because it was too violent. Other references were made to a better future and better education. These children also indicated being happy to live in New Zealand, although when asked to give reasons as to why, many of the responses indicated that they were possibly more happy to leave the violence and other negative aspects of South Africa, than they were to live in New Zealand. In spite of this, it was noted with interest that the South African children are much more positive about being in New Zealand than their parents are. This observation is apparent when examining Tables 28 and 29 which reflect South African parents' responses, the majority of which are negative, and Table 38 which reflects South African children's responses, the majority of which are positive.

6. Conclusions

South African immigrant children do experience some difficulties in acculturation in New Zealand. In terms of Trait anxiety, social acceptance and global self worth, no difference was found between South African children and New Zealand children. However, there was a difference between South African children and New Zealand children in terms of State anxiety as a result of the impact of immigration. This increase in State anxiety experienced is owing to three factors associated with immigration namely the forming of new friendships, the new school environment and the possible effect of their parents adjustment impacting on their children.

There are no gender based differences between South African children and New Zealand children in terms of anxiety, self-esteem and global self worth. However, there is a difference between New Zealand girls and boys in social acceptance, but it is suspected that this is a result of the sample being unrepresentative.

South African children and New Zealand children have different attitudes towards their friends in New Zealand. South African children feel more tense, more ignored, sadder and more awful in their perception of friends than do New Zealand children. South African children also have different attitudes towards South African schools and New Zealand schools; their perceptions indicating that they feel more tense, more ignored, sadder, more awful, more rejected as well as more negative in general in New Zealand schools than they did in South African schools. In measuring anxiety and self-esteem against various demographic variables it was found that South African immigrant children who knew another child at the first school attended in New Zealand had greater self-esteem (global self worth) than children who did not. In addition South African immigrant children who were happy to be living in New Zealand had lower State anxiety and higher self-esteem (global self worth) than children who were not happy to be living in New Zealand. It was also noted that the increased anxiety levels reported by South African children may be a reflection of the adjustment their parents are making. Although this was not tested, it was indicated that children whose fathers still had to obtain employment, reported higher levels of anxiety than those whose fathers had already secured employment, thus reflecting some of the stresses their parents are possibly experiencing.

Although immigration is one of the biggest challenges a child might undertake during a lifetime, the availability of friendship quite obviously eases the way. This supports the research of Ladd & Kochenderfer (1996) which suggests that friendship encourages feelings of security, worthiness and competence as well as fostering a sense of belonging.

As schools are the most likely environment for children to make friends and associate with peers, it might be of some benefit to provide a “buddy” system for immigrant children on arrival. This suggestion is based on the fact that children who are paired with a familiar and even an unfamiliar peer display less stress in an unfamiliar situation than with no peer at all (Schwarz, 1972). Hence the amount of stress the immigrant child is exposed to would be reduced which in turn reduces the anxiety experienced. In addition it would also give the host child or children an opportunity to discover more about the immigrant and their country of origin and so foster better understanding. A support network within the school for immigrant children would allow children experiencing difficulties to share some of their experiences in a supportive and familiar cultural environment. In the same vein, it may be of benefit to the schools to receive information regarding the situation the immigrant child has left in their country of origin, and example of which might be the type and amount of violence South African children have been exposed to.

Although these children cognitively understand why they are in New Zealand, they still experience feelings of loss and grief for all that has been left behind. These losses include amongst others, family members and friends as well as family pets. Research has shown conclusively that pets have a positive influence on people, helping to reduce loneliness as well as contributing to an overall sense of well being (Cusak, 1988; Muschel, 1984). In view of the fact that so many children have left family, friends and pets in South Africa, and frequently have not yet made friends who are in a position to offer the support needed as an immigrant, the acquisition of a pet would be of huge benefit in reducing loneliness and stress. Muschel (1984) found that pets lessened people’s fears, their despair and loneliness as well as their isolation which in turn improves their capability to adapt to even the most difficult of situations.

Recommendations for future research

Owing to the restrictions involved with access to the population and the privacy act, the sample group in this research was small. Ideally a larger more national sample would yield more representative results. However, having established the importance of friends and friendship to the immigrant adolescent, future research might concentrate or focus more on the impact of friendship on anxiety and self-esteem, thus paving the way for better preventative measures. Furthermore, conducting research which covered a wider range of age groups, different nationalities, as well as comparing urban and rural situations would provide a greater depth of understanding for immigrant children in general. One of the more problematic issues which arises in conducting research where one compares the 'before' and 'after' is the possibility for the past or 'before' period of life to be viewed more favourably than it was in reality. There is no plausible way of overcoming this problem in the current research, but an awareness of the possibility of obtaining biased information is important. However, in spite of the fact that bias may have been a factor in this research, evidence does reflect that friends and schools in New Zealand are a source of anxiety for South African immigrant children. In addition although open-ended questions are more desirable in terms of obtaining unprompted and spontaneous responses, it might also be of benefit to ask more specific or direct questions after the open-ended questions to ensure appropriate responses are made to particular research questions. This research also lacked depth with regards to the influence the parents of these children had on the children's mental health. Research into the parents mental health and their marital status and its impact on their children would be invaluable. In spite of their experiences in South Africa, these parents may not experience the types of mental health difficulties usually associated with refugee/immigrants. If the attitudes and emotions of the parents are reflected in their children, it would be of interest and benefit to know what these are and how they affect their children.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A



MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

A L B A N Y

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

The Principal
Intermediate School
North Shore
10 June 1997

Dear Principal,

Masters Thesis- The Impact of Immigration on South African Children.

With reference to our conversation in early April, I am pleased to report that I have finally got approval from the Human Ethics Committee and will be able to go ahead with the collection of my data.

I hope that you are still able to assist me in this regard, and have taken the opportunity of enclosing the Information Sheet and Consent forms, together with copies of the tests and questionnaires I intend to use. I have conducted a small pilot study to determine any problems on phraseology or language used, but should you have any suggestions to make, I would be glad to hear them.

I shall contact you next week to arrange a suitable time to meet with you and arrange the interviews. Hoping this meets with your approval.

Yours sincerely

Les Mason
Tel (09) 4185574

Appendix B



MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

A L B A N Y

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

THE EFFECT OF IMMIGRATION ON SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN

INFORMATION SHEET FOR SOUTH AFRICANS

RESEARCHER

My name is Lesleyanne Mason and I am currently researching a Masters thesis in Psychology at Massey University in Albany. The topic of my research is to examine the effect of immigration on South African children in New Zealand. My contact number is (09) 418 5574. My supervisor, Dr. Hillary Bennett, of the Psych Department, Massey, may be contacted at (09) 443 9700.

BACKGROUND

Adolescence is a particularly difficult time for most children often filled with anxiety, confusion, frustration and occasionally alienation. If a child immigrates during this phase of his life, can we assume that this period becomes even more difficult for the child. While it is generally accepted that children from a very different culture will experience many difficulties during their adjustment to their new life in New Zealand, little is known of the difficulties (if any) that children of a similar culture may experience.

With the large number of South African immigrants settling in New Zealand, it would be of great benefit to both New Zealanders and South Africans to understand the difficulties, if any, that South African children may experience. With a greater understanding of the effect immigration has, the ways and means of dealing with any problems that may exist, will radically improve. It is with this in mind that you and your are invited to take part in my research.

WHAT YOU WILL BE ASKED TO DO

The subjects for my research will all be 11 and 12 year olds. The actual time required will probably be 30 - 45 minutes, possibly in the school environment, or at a time and place convenient to yourself.

There are 3 sections to be completed by each child. In addition to these sections, the children will also be asked to complete a very short questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers, and the children have the right not to answer any question they do not wish to. If there are any queries children may have during the assessments, I shall be there to answer them. The children also have the right to withdraw from the research at any time should he or she so wish.

The first two sections assess the self-esteem, and the anxiety levels, if any, of each child, and the third section will assess friendships or relationships with peers. The questionnaire which the South African children will complete, will cover information about some of their experiences in South Africa, and New Zealand.

As some questions regarding family information may difficult for children to answer, I have attached a very short questionnaire for the family to complete, and return with their consent forms.

CONFIDENTIALITY

You can be assured of the utmost confidentiality at all times. No names will appear on any section of the data sheet. Each section will be identified by a code which will allow me to mark off respondents against a participation list. No one other than myself and my supervisor will have access to this list. All of the information gathered will be stored under lock and key until the finalisation of the research, and then it will be destroyed

Attached, are two consent forms. The first is for the parent to sign giving permission for their child to participate, and the second is for the child to sign, agreeing to participate. The child's consent form is to be placed in the small envelope provided. The parent's consent form and the small envelope are to be placed in the larger envelope, and returned to the researcher.

QUERIES

If you have any questions about this research, please do not hesitate to contact either myself or my supervisor at the numbers above.

Should your child experience any difficulty with any part of the research please do not hesitate to contact myself or my supervisor.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

If you would like to receive a summary of the results of my research, please fill in your name and address below.

Name

Address

Thank you very much for the time and help you have given in making this study possible.

Les Mason
Researcher



MASSEY
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A L B A N Y

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

THE EFFECT OF IMMIGRATION ON SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN

CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand that I, and my child, have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree to provide, and to allow my child to provide, information to the researcher on the understanding that our names will not be used without my permission. *(The information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research project).*

I agree to participate, and to allow my child to participate, in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

SIGNED: PARENT

NAME

CONTACT NUMBER

DATE



MASSEY
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A L B A N Y

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

THE EFFECT OF IMMIGRATION ON SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN INFORMATION SHEET FOR SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN

My name is Lesleyanne Mason and I am doing research on the effect moving to New Zealand might have on South African Children. As you know there are many South African children here, and this sort of information is important to understand some of the difficulties children might experience.

To do the research I need children from South Africa, who have not lived in New Zealand for more than four years, and it is for this reason that you are invited to take part in this study. You will be asked to complete two exercises and two questionnaires. There are no right or wrong answers, as these exercises only measure what you think and feel about certain things. If you are unsure of anything, I will be there to answer any of your questions. If you need to, you are allowed to stop doing the exercise altogether. Everything will only take about 30 - 45 minutes. All of your answers will be completely private, and no-one will be able to see them except for me. Your name will not appear on any of the forms, and you can be sure of total confidentiality.

If you are able to help me with my research, please sign the "Consent Form" below. When you have signed it, place it in the envelope provided and send it back to me. The address is on the envelope.

CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask more questions at any time.

I understand that I have the right to stop taking part in the study at any time and to not answer any questions I do not wish to.

I agree to provide the information asked for by the researcher, and understand that she will not use my name without my permission. (*The information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research project*).

I agree to take part in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

SIGNED:

NAME:

DATE:

TEL NO:



MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

A L B A N Y

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

THE EFFECT OF IMMIGRATION ON SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN INFORMATION SHEET FOR NEW ZEALANDERS

RESEARCHER

My name is Leslyanne Mason and I am currently researching a Masters thesis in Psychology at Massey University in Albany. The topic of my research is to examine the effect of immigration on South African children in New Zealand. My contact number is (09) 418 5574. My supervisor, Dr. Hillary Bennett, of the Psych Department, Massey, may be contacted at (09) 443 9700.

BACKGROUND

Adolescence is a particularly difficult time for most children often filled with anxiety, confusion, frustration and occasionally alienation. If a child immigrates during this phase of his life, can we assume that this period becomes even more difficult for the child. While it is generally accepted that children from a very different culture will experience many difficulties during their adjustment to their new life in New Zealand, little is known of the difficulties (if any) that children of a similar culture may experience.

With the large number of South African immigrants settling in New Zealand, it would be of great benefit to both New Zealanders and South Africans to understand the difficulties, if any, that South African children may experience. With a greater understanding of the effect immigration has, the ways and means of dealing with any problems that may exist, will radically improve.

In order to conduct research that will offer valid results, I need a group of New Zealand children against which to compare my results. It is with this in mind that your child is invited to take part in my research.

WHAT YOUR CHILD WILL BE ASKED TO DO

The subjects for my research will all be 11 and 12 year olds. The actual time required will probably be 30 - 45 minutes, possibly in the school environment, or at a time and place convenient to yourself.

There are 3 sections to be completed by each child. There are no right or wrong answers, and the children have the right not to answer any question they do not wish to. If there are any queries children may have during the assessments, I shall be there to answer them.

The children also have the right to withdraw from the research at any time should he or she so wish.

The first two sections assess the self-esteem, and the anxiety levels, if any, of each child, and the third section assess friendships or relationships with peers.

CONFIDENTIALITY

You can be assured of the utmost confidentiality at all times. No names will appear on any section of the data sheet. Each section will be identified by a code which will allow me to mark off respondents against a participation list. No one other than myself and my supervisor will have access to this list. All of the information gathered will be stored under lock and key until the finalisation of the research, and then it will be destroyed

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SUMMARY OF RESULTS

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Name

Address

Thank you very much for the time and help you have given in making this study possible.

Les Mason
Researcher



MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

A L B A N Y

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

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I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand that my child has the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree to allow my child to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my child's name will not be used without my permission. (*The information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research project*).

I agree to allow my child to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

SIGNED: PARENT

NAME

CONTACT NUMBER

DATE



MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

A L B A N Y

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

THE EFFECT OF IMMIGRATION ON SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN INFORMATION SHEET FOR NEW ZEALAND CHILDREN

My name is Leslyanne Mason and I am doing research on the effect moving to New Zealand might have on South African Children. As you know there are many South African children here and this sort of information is important if we want to get to know and understand each other properly.

To do the research, I need to be able to compare New Zealand children and South African children, and it is for this reason that you are invited to take part in this study. You will be asked to complete two exercises, and a very short sort of questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers, as these exercises only measure what you think and feel about certain things. If you are unsure of anything, I will be there to answer your questions. If you need to, you are allowed to stop doing the exercises altogether. Everything will only take about 30 minutes at the most. All of your answers will be completely private and no-one will be able to see them except for me. Your name will not appear on any of the forms, and you can be sure of total confidentiality.

If you are able to help me with my research, please sign the "Consent Form" below. When you have signed it, place it in the envelope provided and send it back to me. The address is on the envelope.

CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask more questions at any time.

I understand that I have the right to stop taking part in the study at any time and to not answer any questions I do not wish to.

I agree to provide the information asked for by the researcher, and understand that she will not use my name without my permission. *(The information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research project).*

I agree to take part in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

SIGNED:

NAME:

DATE:

TEL NO:

HOW-I-FEEL QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by C.D. Spielberger, C.D. Edwards, J. Montouri, and R. Lushene

STAIC Form C-1

Name: _____ Age: _____ Date: _____

DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which boys and girls use to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement carefully and decide how you feel *right now*. Then put an X in the box in front of the word or phrase which best describes how you feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Don't spend too much time on any one statement. Remember, find the word or phrase which best describes how you feel right now, *at this very moment*.

- | | | | |
|-----------------|--|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very calm | <input type="checkbox"/> calm | <input type="checkbox"/> not calm |
| 2. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very upset | <input type="checkbox"/> upset | <input type="checkbox"/> not upset |
| 3. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very pleasant | <input type="checkbox"/> pleasant | <input type="checkbox"/> not pleasant |
| 4. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very nervous | <input type="checkbox"/> nervous | <input type="checkbox"/> not nervous |
| 5. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very jittery | <input type="checkbox"/> jittery | <input type="checkbox"/> not jittery |
| 6. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very rested | <input type="checkbox"/> rested | <input type="checkbox"/> not rested |
| 7. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very scared | <input type="checkbox"/> scared | <input type="checkbox"/> not scared |
| 8. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very relaxed | <input type="checkbox"/> relaxed | <input type="checkbox"/> not relaxed |
| 9. I feel | <input type="checkbox"/> very worried | <input type="checkbox"/> worried | <input type="checkbox"/> not worried |
| 10. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very satisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> satisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> not satisfied |
| 11. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very frightened | <input type="checkbox"/> frightened | <input type="checkbox"/> not frightened |
| 12. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very happy | <input type="checkbox"/> happy | <input type="checkbox"/> not happy |
| 13. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very sure | <input type="checkbox"/> sure | <input type="checkbox"/> not sure |
| 14. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very good | <input type="checkbox"/> good | <input type="checkbox"/> not good |
| 15. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very troubled | <input type="checkbox"/> troubled | <input type="checkbox"/> not troubled |
| 16. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very bothered | <input type="checkbox"/> bothered | <input type="checkbox"/> not bothered |
| 17. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very nice | <input type="checkbox"/> nice | <input type="checkbox"/> not nice |
| 18. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very terrified | <input type="checkbox"/> terrified | <input type="checkbox"/> not terrified |
| 19. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very mixed-up | <input type="checkbox"/> mixed-up | <input type="checkbox"/> not mixed-up |
| 20. I feel..... | <input type="checkbox"/> very cheerful | <input type="checkbox"/> cheerful | <input type="checkbox"/> not cheerful |

HOW-I-FEEL QUESTIONNAIRE

STAIC Form C-2

Name: _____ Age: _____ Date: _____

DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which boys and girls use to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement carefully and decide if it is *hardly-ever*, or *sometimes*, or *often* true for you. Then for each statement, put an X in the box in front of the word that seems to describe you best. There are no right or wrong answers. Don't spend too much time on any one statement. Remember, choose the word which seems to describe how you usually feel.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|-------------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-------|
| 1. I worry about making mistakes..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 2. I feel like crying | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 3. I feel unhappy..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 4. I have trouble making up my mind | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 5. It is difficult for me to face my problems | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 6. I worry too much..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 7. I get upset at home | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 8. I am shy..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 9. I feel troubled | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 10. Unimportant thoughts run through my mind
and bother me | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 11. I worry about school | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 12. I have trouble deciding what to do..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 13. I notice my heart beats fast | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 14. I am secretly afraid | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 15. I worry about my parents | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 16. My hands get sweaty..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 17. I worry about things that may happen | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 18. It is hard for me to fall asleep at night..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 19. I get a funny feeling in my stomach..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |
| 20. I worry about what others think of me..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | hardly-ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | often |

Appendix D

WHAT I AM LIKE

CODE: _____ AGE _____ BIRTHDAY _____.

BOY GIRL (tick) SOUTH AFRICAN GROUP
NEW ZEALAND GROUP

SAMPLE SENTENCE

- | | Really True for me | Sort of True for me | | | Sort of True for me | Really True for me | |
|----|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|-----|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| a) | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids would rather play outdoors in their spare time | BUT | Other kids would rather watch TV | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids find it <i>hard</i> to make friends | BUT | Other kids find it pretty <i>easy</i> to make friends | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids are often <i>unhappy</i> with themselves | BUT | Other kids are pretty <i>pleased</i> with themselves | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids have <i>alot</i> of friends | BUT | Other kids <i>don't</i> have very many friends | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids <i>don't</i> like the way they are leading their life | BUT | Other kids <i>do</i> like the way they are leading their life | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids would like to have alot more friends | BUT | Other kids have as many friends as they want | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

6. Some kids are *happy* with themselves as a person BUT Other kids are often *not* happy with themselves
7. Some kids are always doing things with *alot* of kids BUT Other kids usually do things by themselves
8. Some kids *like* the kind of *person* they are BUT Other kids often wish they were someone else
9. Some kids wish that more people their age liked them BUT Other kids feel that most people their age *do* like them
10. Some kids are very *happy* being the way they are BUT Other kids wish they were *different*
11. Some kids are *popular* with others their age BUT Other kids are *not* very popular
12. Some kids *are* not very happy with the way they do alot of things BUT Other kids think the way they do things is *fine*

Appendix E

SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN

We experience different feelings and attitudes when we are in different situations. For this exercise, you must consider the situation suggested, and then decide which word applies most to you. Then you fill in the box with a cross to indicate how strongly you feel that word applies to you. Don't take a long time to decide, as usually your first response is the most accurate.

E.G. During the holidays, I am.....

	extremely	quite	slightly	neutral	slightly	quite	extremely	
bored	<input type="checkbox"/>	not bored						
happy	<input type="checkbox"/>	sad						

When I was at school in South Africa, I was.....

tense	□□□□□□□□	relaxed
welcomed	□□□□□□□□	ignored
happy	□□□□□□□□	sad
in control	□□□□□□□□	not in control
awful	□□□□□□□□	nice
excited	□□□□□□□□	scared
accepted	□□□□□□□□	rejected
unimportant	□□□□□□□□	important
interesting	□□□□□□□□	boring

When I was with my friends in South Africa, I was.....

tense	□□□□□□□□	relaxed
welcomed	□□□□□□□□	ignored
happy	□□□□□□□□	sad
in control	□□□□□□□□	not in control
awful	□□□□□□□□	nice
excited	□□□□□□□□	scared
accepted	□□□□□□□□	rejected
unimportant	□□□□□□□□	important
interesting	□□□□□□□□	boring

When I am at school in New Zealand, I am,.....

tense	□□□□□□□□	relaxed
welcomed	□□□□□□□□	ignored
happy	□□□□□□□□	sad
in control	□□□□□□□□	not in control
awful	□□□□□□□□	nice
excited	□□□□□□□□	scared
accepted	□□□□□□□□	rejected
unimportant	□□□□□□□□	important
interesting	□□□□□□□□	boring

When I am with my friends in New Zealand, I am,.....

tense	□□□□□□□□	relaxed
welcomed	□□□□□□□□	ignored
happy	□□□□□□□□	sad
in control	□□□□□□□□	not in control
awful	□□□□□□□□	nice
excited	□□□□□□□□	scared
accepted	□□□□□□□□	rejected
unimportant	□□□□□□□□	important
interesting	□□□□□□□□	boring

NEW ZEALAND CHILDREN

We experience different feelings and attitudes when we are in different situations. For this exercise, you must consider the situation suggested, and then decide which word applies most to you. Then you fill in the box with a cross to indicate how strongly you feel that word applies to you. Don't take a long time to decide, as usually your first response is the most accurate.

E.G. During the holidays, I am....

	extremely	quite	slightly	neutral	slightly	quite	extremely	
bored	<input type="checkbox"/>	not bored						
happy	<input type="checkbox"/>	sad						

When I am at school, I am,.....

tense	<input type="checkbox"/>	relaxed
welcomed	<input type="checkbox"/>	ignored
happy	<input type="checkbox"/>	sad
in control	<input type="checkbox"/>	not in control
awful	<input type="checkbox"/>	nice
excited	<input type="checkbox"/>	scared
accepted	<input type="checkbox"/>	rejected
unimportant	<input type="checkbox"/>	important
interesting	<input type="checkbox"/>	boring

When I am with my friends, I am,.....

tense	<input type="checkbox"/>	relaxed
welcomed	<input type="checkbox"/>	ignored
happy	<input type="checkbox"/>	sad
in control	<input type="checkbox"/>	not in control
awful	<input type="checkbox"/>	nice
excited	<input type="checkbox"/>	scared
accepted	<input type="checkbox"/>	rejected
unimportant	<input type="checkbox"/>	important
interesting	<input type="checkbox"/>	boring

7. Have you or your family, or any person close to the family, ever experienced any traumatic event in South Africa.

Yes

No

If "yes", please describe briefly.

8. How do you and your family feel about leaving South Africa.

9. If you would like to add anything, please feel free to do so here.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT!!!

8. In what way do you think South African Children and New Zealand children are the same?

They both

They both

They both

9. In what way do you think South African children and New Zealand children are different?

They are different

They are different

They are different

10. Write as many things as you can, that you like about South Africa.

I like

I like

I like

11. Write as many things as you can, that you don't like about South Africa.

I don't like

I don't like

I don't like

12. Write as many things as you can, that you like about New Zealand.

I like

I like

I like

13. Write as many things as you can, that you don't like about New Zealand

I don't like

I don't like

I don't like

14.. Did anything very frightening ever happen to you in South Africa?

Yes

No

If your answer is yes, describe what happened to make you frightened.

15. Why do you think you and your family moved to New Zealand?

We moved because.....

16. Are you happy that you now live in New Zealand?

Yes

No

Why?

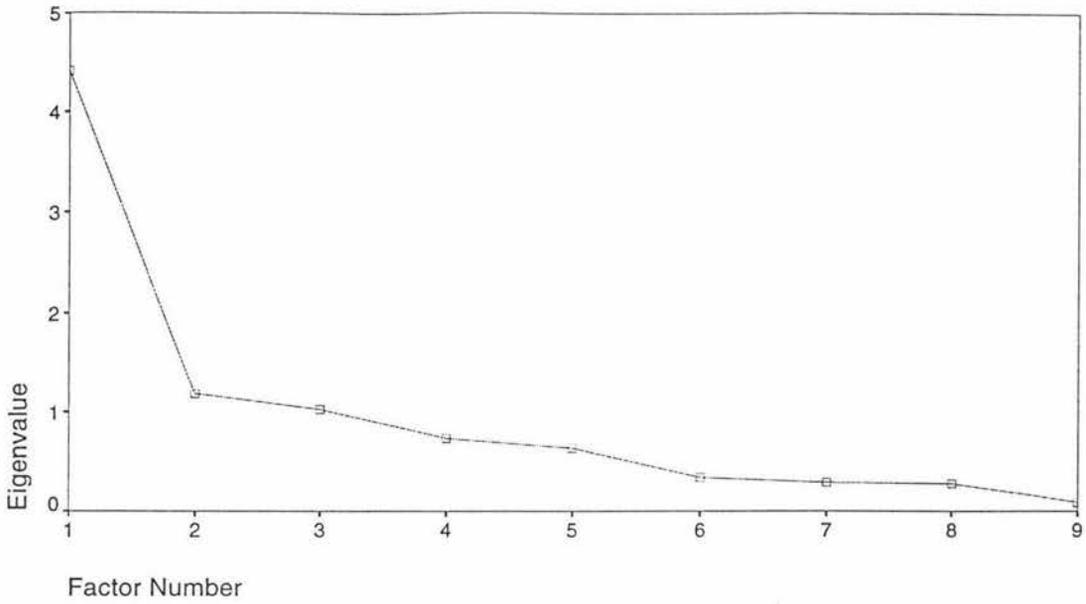
THANK YOU FOR ALL YOUR TIME!!!

Appendix H

SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN - SCHOOL IN SOUTH AFRICA

Eigenvalues - 4.40899
1.18510
1.02901

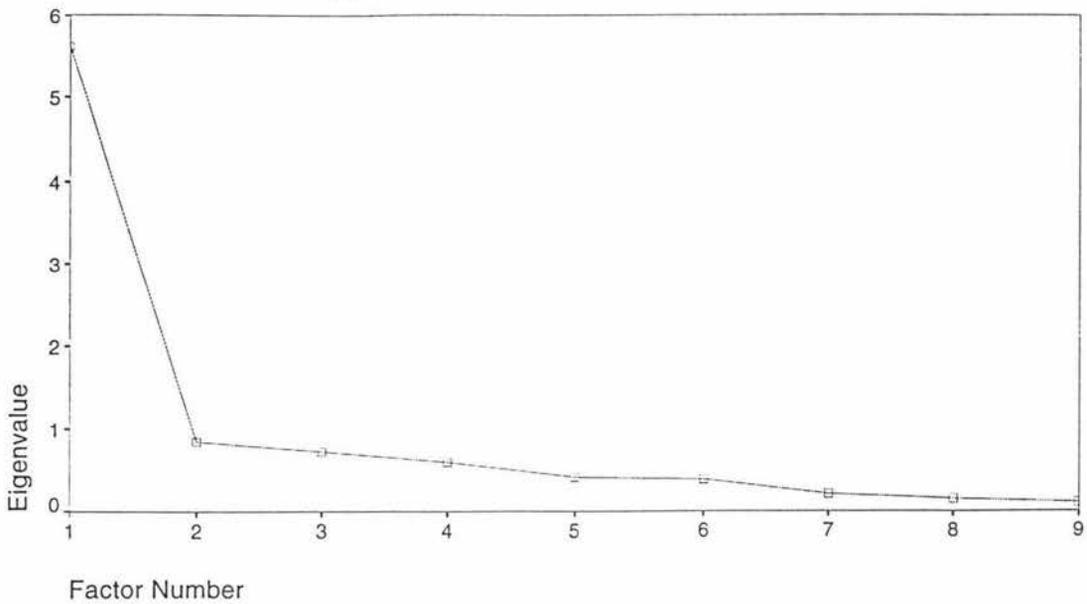
Factor Scree Plot



SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN - FRIENDS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Eigenvalue - 5.61472

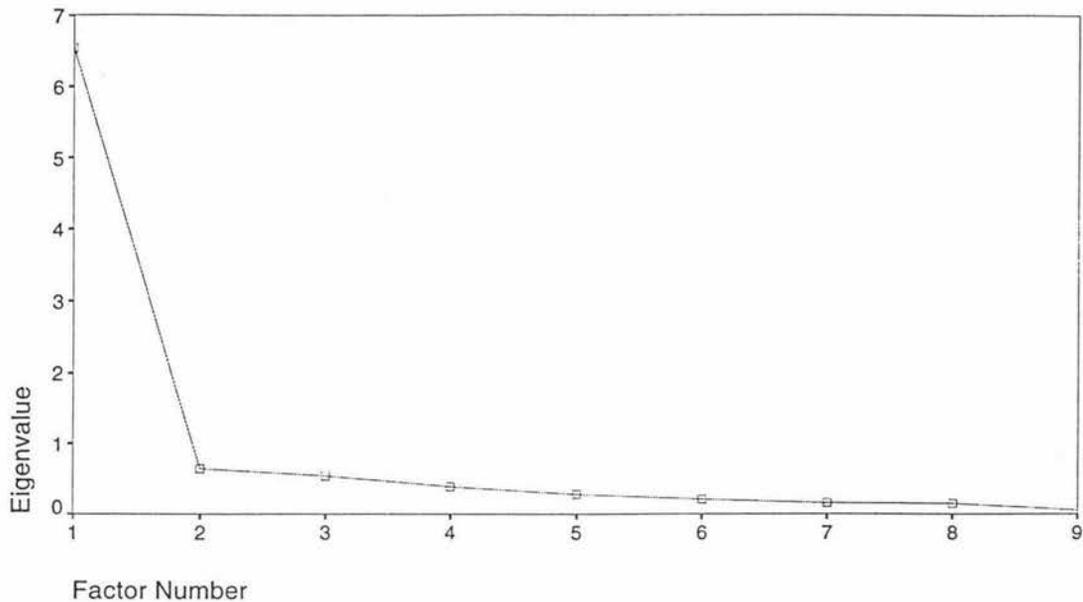
Factor Scree Plot



SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN - SCHOOL IN NEW ZEALAND

Eigenvalue - 6.53912

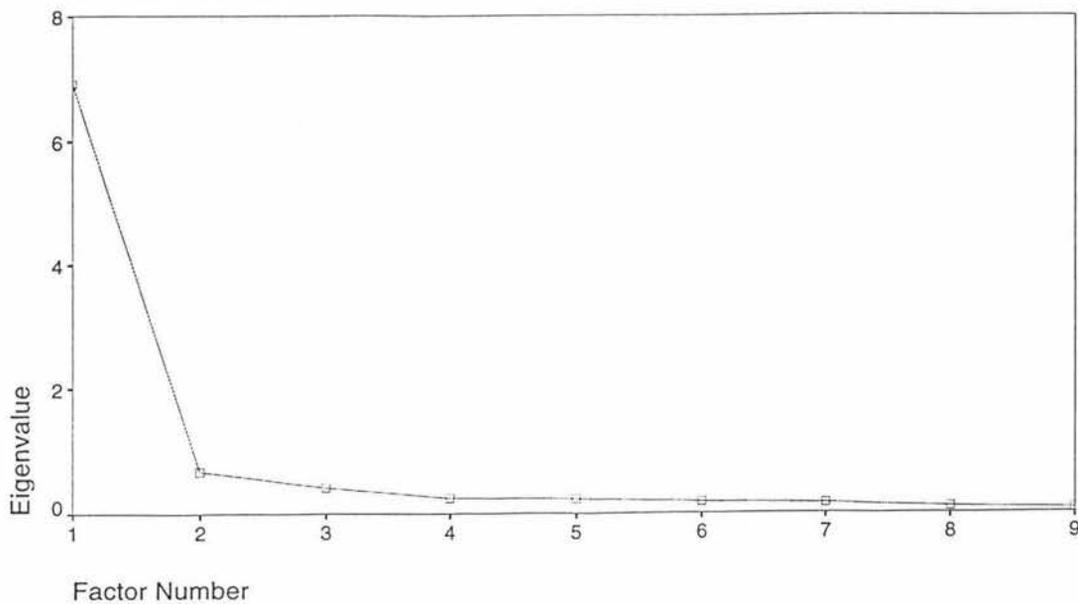
Factor Scree Plot



SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN - FRIENDS IN NEW ZEALAND

Eigenvalue - 6.91129

Factor Scree Plot



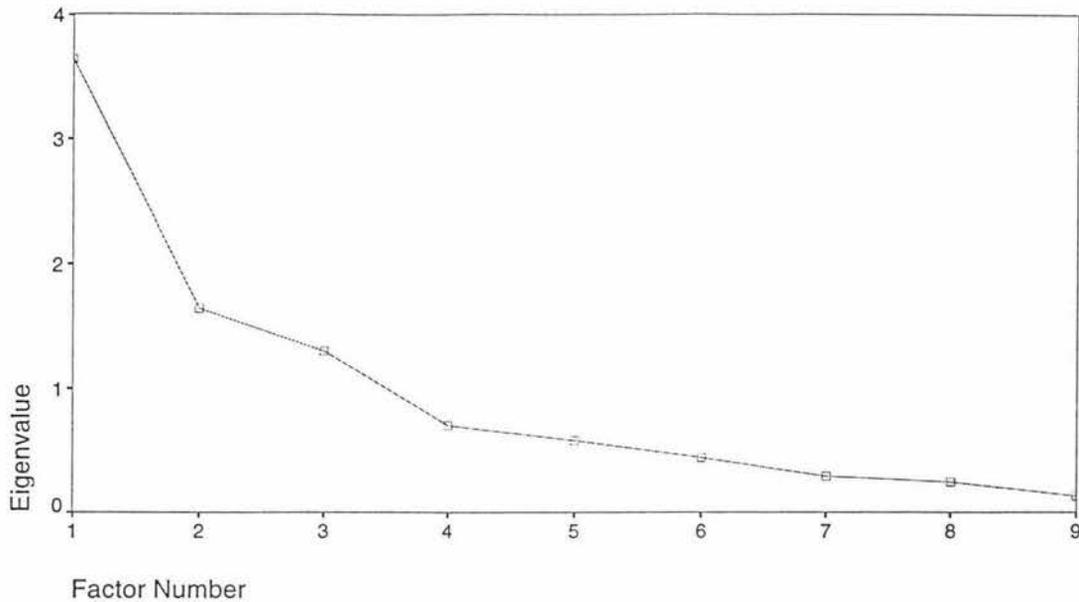
NEW ZEALAND CHILDREN - SCHOOL IN NEW ZEALAND

Eigenvalues - 3.63793

1.64796

1.30431

Factor Scree Plot

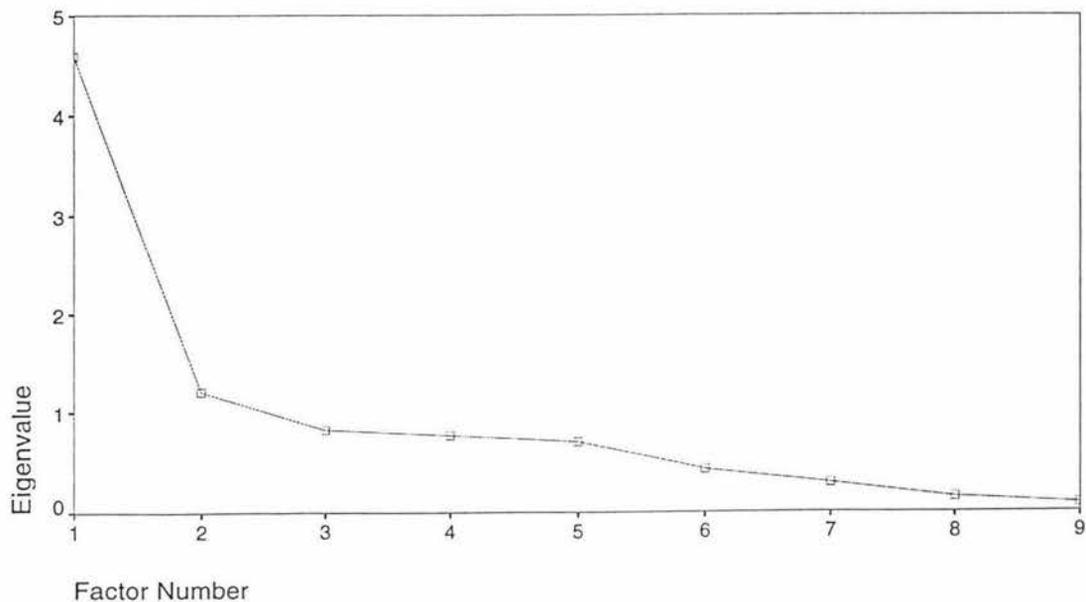


NEW ZEALAND CHILDREN - FRIENDS IN NEW ZEALAND

Eigenvalues - 4.58106

1.20661

Factor Scree Plot



Appendix I

CONTENT ANALYSIS RELIABILITY CHECK - CHI-SQUARE TEST

	QUEST 7	LES	CARO		LES	CARO	
Chi-sq				0.11			2.42
df				9			5
Critical				16.92			11.07
Decision				Same			Same
	HIJACK	12	12	0.00			
	MURDER	7	7	0.00			
	ASSAULT	7	7	0.00			
	SHOOTING	5	4	0.11			
	ARMED ROB	4	4	0.00			
	BURGLAR	2	2	0.00	8	10	0.22
	ABDUC/KID	2	2	0.00			
	ROBBERY	2	2	0.00	3	2	0.20
	THREATEN	1	1	0.00	2		2.00
	FLASHER				1	1	0.00
	CAR THEFT				1	1	0.00

	QUES 8	LES	CARO		QUEST 9	LES	CARO	
Chi-sq				6.63				1.32
df				11				12
Critical				19.68				21.03
Decision				Same				Same
	FAMILY FRIENDS	37	38	0.01	FUTURE FINANCE	5	7	0.33
	NZ OPPORTUNITIE	13	18	0.81	SACRIFICES	5	6	0.09
	NO REGRETS RELI	11	8	0.47	LEAVING SA	5	4	0.11
	ANGRY SAD FRUST	10	10	0.00	EMOTIONS	4	5	0.11
	PERSONAL SECUR	7	2	2.78	NZ CHILDREN	4	3	0.14
	FINANCIAL SECUR	6	7	0.08	IMMIGRATION CHI	3	2	0.20
	ROOTS 'NOBODY'	5	4	0.11	NZ UNFRIENDLY	2	2	0.00
	DISILLUSIONED	5	3	0.50	QUAL LIFE BETTER	2	1	0.33
	MISS PLACES	3	2	0.20	LACK RELIGION	1	1	0.00
	HOMESICK	2	4	0.67	SECON IMM	1	1	0.00
	GOOD NZ SCHOOL	1	0	1.00	SA SITUATION	1	1	0.00
					GOOD NZ SCHOOL	1	1	0.00

CONTENT ANALYSIS RELIABILITY CHECK - CHI-SQUARE TEST

	KIDS QUEST 8	LES	CARO		QUEST 9	LES	CARO	
Chi-sq			0.73				8.54	
df			8				12	
Critical			15.51				21.03	
Decision			Same				Same	
	SAME BEHAVIOR	15	15	0.00	BAD LANG	11	13	0.17
	PERSONALITY ETC	13	9	0.73	NZ DISCIPLINE	9	9	0.00
	ENGLISH	10	10	0.00	ACCENTS	9	8	0.06
	SPORTING	10	10	0.00	ATTITUDES SCHOOL	8	5	0.69
	FRIENDLY	7	7	0.00	NZ RELAXED ATTITUDE	8	8	0.00
	SIMILAR INTERESTS	7	7	0.00	INTERACTION FRIENDS	7		7.00
	ATTITUDE TO SCHC	4	4	0.00	DIFF LIFESTYLE	6	4	0.40
	ENGLISH ACCENT	3	3	0.00	NZ INDEPENDENT	4	4	0.00
					STYLES DRESSING	4	4	0.00
					DIFFERENT SPORTS	3	3	0.00
					RACES SCHOOL	2	2	0.00
					HUMOUR	10	8	0.22

	QUEST 10	LES	CARO		QUEST 11	LES	CARO	
Chi-sq			5.99				0.47	
df			11				7	
Critical			19.68				14.07	
Decision			Same				Same	
	FRIENDS	18	17	0.03	VIOLENCE	39	41	0.05
	WEATHER	12	12	0.00	SCHOOLS	9	8	0.06
	HOUSES	11	11	0.00	LITTER	7	7	0.00
	TEACHERS	11	12	0.04	FREEDOM	7	5	0.33
	COUNTRYSIDE	10	8	0.22	PRESIDENT	6	6	0.00
	WILDLIFE	10	10	0.00	RACIST FIGHTING	2	2	0.00
	PEOPLE	8	8	0.00	GENERAL	15	16	0.03
	SPORTSMANSHIP	7	7	0.00				
	PETS	5	5	0.00				
	FAMILY	3	4	0.14				
	GENERAL	14	4	5.56				

CONTENT ANALYSIS RELIABILITY CHECK - CHI-SQUARE TEST

	QUEST 12	LES	CARO		QUEST 13	LES	CARO	
Chi-sq				1.52				3.53
df				11				8
Critical				19.68				15.51
Decision				Same				Same
	FREEDOM	21	25	0.35	WEATHER	15	14	0.03
	PEOPLE	19	17	0.11	PEOPLE CHILDREN	12	8	0.80
	SCHOOLS	11	11	0.00	SCHOOL	8	5	0.69
	FOOD ETC	9	10	0.05	BEHAVIOR	8	14	1.64
	ENVIRONMENT	7	8	0.07	HOUSING	5	5	0.00
	BEACHES	6	7	0.08	SPORTSMANSHIP	2	2	0.00
	GREENERY	4	4	0.00	COUNTRYSIDE	2	1	0.33
	HOUSES	4	4	0.00	GENERAL	16	17	0.03
	TV	3	3	0.00				
	LITTER	2	2	0.00				
	GENERAL	17	12	0.86				

	QUEST 14	LES	CARO		QUEST 15	LES	CARO	
Chi-sq				1.00				1.68
df				11				8
Critical				19.68				15.51
Decision				Same				Same
	CRIME VIOLENCE	17	20	0.24	VIOLENCE	27	28	0.02
	BURGLARIES	5	6	0.09	BETTER FUTURE	10	11	0.05
	HIJACKINGS	3	3	0.00	BETTER EDUCATION	9	9	0.00
	MURDER	2	2	0.00	SAFETY	5	2	1.29
	BANK ROB	1	1	0.00	POOR SA ECONOMY	3	3	0.00
	FOLLOWED	1	1	0.00	JOB OPPORTUNITY	3	3	0.00
	HELD UP	1	1	0.00	BEGGING	2	1	0.33
	FEAR BURGLER	1	2	0.33	GENERAL	4	4	0.00
	ABDUCT	1	1	0.00				
	BUS STOP ATTACK	1	1	0.00				
	CAR ROBBERY	1	2	0.33				

CONTENT ANALYSIS RELIABILITY CHECK - CHI-SQUARE TEST

	QUEST 16	LES	CARO	Chi-sq
Chi-sq				5.41
df				18
Critical				28.87
Decision				Same
	SAFER	16	15	0.03
	PERSONAL FREED	9	4	1.92
	SETTLED	5	3	0.50
	FRIENDS	5	5	0.00
	SCHOOLS	4	3	0.14
	NEW EXPERIENCE	4	3	0.14
	LIKE NZ	3	7	1.60
	MORE OPPORTUNI	3	2	0.20
	FAMILY TOGETHEF	2	3	0.20
	MORE ANIMALS	2	1	0.33
	LESS LITTER	1	1	0.00
	MISS FRIENDS	6	6	0.00
	MISS SOUTH AFRIC	3	3	0.00
	LONELY	2	2	0.00
	MISS FAMILY	2	1	0.33
	MISS TEACHERS	1	1	0.00
	RUDE CHILDREN	1	1	0.00
	BAD WEATHER	1	1	0.00