Analysing risk and resilience of rural school youth by means of the first sand tray

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Analysing risk and resilience of rural school youth by means of the first sand tray

by

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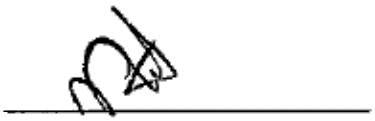
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I declare that the mini-dissertation, entitled: *Analysing risk and resilience of rural school youth by means of the first sand tray* which I hereby submit for the degree Masters in Educational Psychology at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution.



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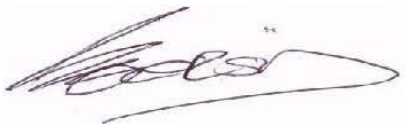

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entitled:

"ANALYSING RISK AND RESILIENCE OF RURAL SCHOOL YOUTH BY MEANS OF THE FIRST SAND TRAY"

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19 August 2015

ABSTRACT

Analysing risk and resilience of rural school youth by means of the first sand tray

Supervisor: **Prof. Carien Lubbe-De Beer**

Co-supervisor: **Prof. Liesel Ebersöhn**

Degree: **Magister Educationis (Educational Psychology)**

The purpose of the study was to explore and describe (Gray, 2009) how an analysis of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth in a rural school may inform knowledge on psychological assessment in South Africa as well as assessment for resilience in high adversity settings. The study forms part of a continuing investigation of the Centre for the Study of Resilience with regards to the nature of school-based Educational Psychology services in remote South Africa. An instrumental case study design was used to identify risk and resilience in the first sand trays of 25 youth at a rural school in Mpumalanga. The youth were between the ages of 13 and 19. Data was gathered in the form of visual data (photographs), client narratives and Academic Service Learning student reflections.

The results indicated that the first sand trays of youth at a rural school in South Africa can be effectively used in assessing resilience. Indicators of both risk and protective resources emerged during data analysis. Within the first sand tray *violence and a need for protection, unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs,* and *gender inequality and conflict* emerged as indicators of risk. S*pirituality, fulfilled needs,* and *a sense of belonging* emerged as protective resources. These findings indicate that within a highly diverse, and, adverse setting, sand trays can be used to assess resilience.

KEY WORDS:

- Risk
- Protective resources
- Resilience
- First sand tray
- Rural youth

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND AND GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I provide a brief overview of the research conducted. At the outset I provide background information to the partnership from which the data of the study was collected and existing information that gave rise to the current study. Thereafter, the purpose of the study and research questions are provided. This is followed by a conceptualisation of the literature and a theoretical framework. An overview of the research methodologies is then followed by chapter outlines of the final research document.

1.2 BACKGROUND

This study is nested within an ongoing Centre for the Study of Resilience investigation on the nature of school-based Educational Psychology services in remote South Africa. The Academic Service Learning (ASL) forms part of the clinical training of the University of Pretoria MEd (Educational Psychology) students. The ASL students engage with Grade 9 clients to provide Educational Psychology services at the school. The sandplay technique is used by ASL students as one technique to assess and therapeutically support Grade 9 clients. The process of the ASL programme and how it is applied to the current study are discussed in Chapter 3.

The legitimacy of psychological assessment has long been debated in the highly diverse South Africa with its cumulative and chronic adversities. The development of assessment measures, as well as assessment practices in South Africa, originally followed guidelines premised by western standards, disregarding the unique, diverse context of South Africa (Ebersöhn, 2012; Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009; Laher, & Cockroft, 2013). Originally, the use of psychometric tests in the South African context resulted in the oppression of marginalised cultures, creating general mistrust in the practice of assessment. Psychological testing is even regarded by most as being of limited value for culturally diverse populations, such as in South Africa (Laher, & Cockroft, 2013).

The questionability of psychological services in South Africa is however not limited to diversity, but also adversity. Adversity signals the need for positive adaptation and an opportunity for resilience to occur (Dearden, 2004). Despite the possibility of resilience in South Africa, South African citizens still face the challenge of understanding this phenomenon due to the limited value of assessment measures in our diverse context. But why is it important to be able to assess resilience, and what would be the requirements to effectively assess in a diverse country?

Research has shown that resilience denotes interaction between humans and ecology, and this means to positively adapt to life's challenges despite the circumstances they face (Masten & Powell, 2003). Most healthy people live in contexts where they have been exposed to a number of adverse circumstances, individually, socially, and culturally (Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010; Ungar, 2008). Resilience can therefore be referred to as the capacity to maintain effective psychological and behavioural adjustment in the face of factors that put individuals at risk for poor adjustment (Reber, Allen, & Reber, 2009). Resilience allows individuals to use the resources they have, to overcome the challenges they face, rather than robbing clients of hope due to their limited access to resources (Herrman, Stewart, Diaz-Granados, Berger, Jackson, & Yuen, 2011).

Resilience is therefore topical to study in a diverse and adverse South African ecology. But, when can resilience assessment be regarded as effective in South African schools?

According to *Statistics South Africa* (2014), South Africa is a nation with a population of approximately 54 million individuals, speaking one or more of South Africa's 11 official languages. With 11 official languages and an uneven distribution of access to higher education, it is likely that many of the psychologists will not be able to speak the home language of their clients (Malasa, 2011). If clients and psychologists or researchers are unable to effectively express themselves in the same language, or the psychologist or researcher is not aware of the cultural influences of the clients; adequate insight into the lives of clients or participants is difficult to obtain (Cronjé, 2009). Different cultural and linguistic backgrounds therefore necessitate non-verbal modalities of analysis to ensure less biased and more rigorous information (McCallum, 2003). Play techniques such as sandplay is one way in which these limitations can be addressed, as the focus with sandplay is not on verbal communication (Brown, 2003).

Sandplay falls within the realm of play therapy as a non-verbal form of gaining information and delivering intervention services (Weinrib, 2004; Zinni, 1997). It involves creating a miniature picture in sand, using representational objects (miniature toys and figures) (Weinrib, 2004; Zinni, 1997). There is no right or wrong way to create a picture; the individual is allowed to express his/her own ideas, situations and feelings (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Sandplay provides an individual with a specific arena of play for the projection of the individual's dynamic processes (McNally, 2001). In a sand tray the individual creates a world that relates to his/her personal and social reality (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Sandplay enables a three-dimensional and tangible expression of the mind's content, communicating unspoken feelings as well as other information pertaining to the individual's life (Weinrib, 2004). It has the benefit of working through unconscious pressures by means of fantasy and can be used with individuals who have trouble communicating (McNally, 2001; Weinrib, 2004). Sandplay has been used not only for intervention purposes, but also for assessment.

Research has found that the non-verbal aspect of the sandplay technique stretches beyond therapeutic intervention to psychological assessment (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Research indicates that sandplay has

been used to assess abuse, development milestones, as well as perspectives of the self and of mental health (Carmichael, 1994; Zinni, 1997; Zerbe, Enns, & Kasai, 2003). Because of the value of sandplay as a non-verbal assessment measure for other psychological aspects, its value as an effective assessment technique for risk and resilience is therefore explored further in this study.

1.3 PURPOSE

The purpose of the study was to explore and describe (Gray, 2009) how an analysis of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth in a rural school may inform knowledge on (1) multicultural psychological assessment in South Africa and (2) assessment for resilience in high adversity settings. A qualitative research approach was used to better understand the specific research topic (Creswell, 2014). Explorative research allows for an in depth investigation of a research question (Gray, 2009). In turn, descriptive research allows the researcher not only to investigate a topic, but also to clearly describe the investigation and its findings, allowing readers to gain insight into the process of research, as well as the topic at hand (Creswell, 2014). Combining explorative and descriptive research thus allows me to not only gain insight into the topic, but also to provide insight into the topic. Explorative research can however lack a clear description of the research process and topic, descriptive research can however lack insight, therefore, the most prevalent limitations of the two approaches are addressed by combining them into one study (Barbour, 2008).

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.4.1 PRIMARY RESEARCH QUESTION

- How can an analysis of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth in a rural school inform knowledge on the assessment of resilience in youth in high adversity settings in South Africa?

1.4.2 SECONDARY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- Which risk factors emerge from analysis of the first sand tray of youth at a rural school?
- Which protective resources emerge from analysis in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school?
- What is the utility of the first sand tray to assess resilience of youth in a South African rural school?

1.5 CONCEPTUALISATION

1.5.1 SANDPLAY/SAND TRAY

In this study, the term *sandplay* will refer to the non-verbal modality of creating scenes in a sand tray to express the inner world of the self. It will be employed as a technique to explore psychosocial resilience in youth at a rural school.

Sandplay therapy is an image-based modality that primarily works in the right hemisphere of the brain (McNally, 2001; Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011). It is originally a technique based on Jung's personality theory. Jung observed that the psyche intrinsically strives for wholeness and is characterised by an ordering principle called the Self (Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011; Weinrib, 2004). When conditions are conducive, the natural tendency to strive towards wholeness of the self becomes active; these conducive conditions are referred to by Kalff as the free and protected space (Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011).

Sandplay allows each client to determine his/her own course in therapy and assessment, as he/she has control over what to express. Boik and Goodwin (2000) explain that sandplay further provides a less threatening way of assessment and therapy to clients that are resistant to therapeutic inquiries where verbal 'interrogation' is the main tenet.

South Africa is a diverse country in terms of language and culture (Info, 2012). This often makes it difficult for therapists and clients to communicate in a verbal fashion. Sandplay therapy provides clients with a way to express themselves and to communicate with a therapist in a non-verbal way. The figurines and symbols used serve as a common language for children, but also for adolescents and adults, who do not always have the capacity to articulate their experiences (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000).

1.5.2 RESILIENCE

Resilience can be referred to as the ability to be flexible in adapting to the demands of stressful situations and to bounce back to successful functioning and development after facing these situations. It is thus a process of risk management and an outcome of positive adaptation (Ebersöhn, 2014; Kruger, & Prinsloo, 2008).

Resilience has initially provoked interest through the observation that some individuals rise to adverse circumstances with skill, while others cannot seem to cope with the challenges of adversity (Cameron, Ungar, & Liebenberg, 2007). This makes the understanding and assessing of resilience important, as this knowledge can contribute to the development of intervention and prevention programmes to support individuals, families and communities to utilise the adversity they face for growth (Vanderbilt-Adriance, & Shaw, 2008).

"Resilience can be understood as a process of adaptation to adversity that is scaffolded by environmental, cultural, social, psychological, and physiological processes" (Cameron et al., 2007, p. 285). The following contextualised definition of resilience is proposed by Michael Ungar (2008, p. 225): "In the context of exposure to significant adversity, whether psychological, environmental, or both, resilience is both the capacity of individuals to navigate their way to health-sustaining resources, including opportunities to experience feelings of wellbeing, and a condition of the individual's family, community and culture to provide these health resources and experiences in culturally meaningful ways." This definition includes a description not only of resilience, but also of the diversity found therein. Resilience cannot be seen as only inherent to an individual; it also includes various other systems in which an individual exists (Cameron et al., 2007). The factors that contribute to resilience, how resilience is experienced and what can be regarded as resilience, are influenced by personal and contextual factors (Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010; Ungar, Brown, Liebenberg, Othman, Kwong, Armstrong, & Gilgun, 2007; Ungar, 2004). As resilience is commonly defined as positive outcomes in the face of risk, the requirements for resilience boils down to risk, resources, and positive outcome (Vanderbilt-Adriance, & Shaw, 2008).

1.5.2.1 Risk factors

Risk is an increased possibility of unwanted or negative outcomes to occur (Masten, & Powell, 2003). Risk factors include parental psychopathology, child maltreatment, socioeconomic disadvantage, community violence and poverty (Vanderbilt-Adriance, & Shaw, 2008). Shaikh and Kauppi (2010) add low birth weight, chronic illness and malnutrition. Common stressors can result in risk, and these stressors can range from major events to common hassles (Zimmer-Gembeck, & Skinner, 2008).

1.5.2.2 Protective resources

Resources which can contribute to the positive outcome and process of resilience have been categorised into three groups. These groups are, compensatory, challenging or protective (Ungar, 2004). Compensatory resources are factors within the individual or his/her environment that neutralises the exposure to the risk; this can include such factors as faith, an internal locus of control, and a positive attitude towards life (Ungar, 2004). Challenge resources are factors that enhance resilience and inoculate an individual to future risk, for example illness (Ungar, 2004). Protective resource factors are those factors that interact with risk factors to reduce the negative impact and outcomes of the risk factor (Ungar, 2004; Zimmerman, Ramirez-Valles, & Maton, 1999). Important characteristics that can lead to a positive outcome is appraisal, for instance, how devastating is the stressor, and, how controllable is it (Zimmer-Gembeck, & Skinner, 2008).

1.5.2.3 Adaptive coping processes

Positive outcomes or adaptive coping in the face of adversity point to a specific event or a prolonged state, and can be generalised or be specific to a certain life domain; it can also merely be the absence of psychopathology, according to authors and research (Vanderbilt-Adriance, & Shaw, 2008). Resilience is therefore regarded as either the end-state of wellbeing (outcome) in the face of adversity, or the mechanisms by which wellbeing is reached (process) (Ferreira, & Ebersöhn, 2012; Ungar, 2004). The term *positive outcome* can, for example, refer to happiness, academic achievement or social competence despite adversity and resource-constrained environments (Vanderbilt-Adriance, & Shaw, 2008).

1.5.2.4 Psychological assessment

Assessment can be explained as a process of acquiring information and understanding that will facilitate insight into a client's development and functional abilities within the family and community (Lubbe, 2004).

Globalisation has brought with it many assessment instruments, some more applicable to the South African context than others. The use of psychological assessment originally stems from its use in the United States and Europe (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009; Laher, & Cockroft, 2013). Traditionally, assessment was used to measure the differences between people, those more different are regarded as having less preferable characteristics (Kaplan, & Saccuzzo, 2009). With multiculturalism gaining more attention and focus during the latter part of the 20th century, changes needed to be made in terms of the Eurocentric, exclusionist assessment practices (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009). Assessments were then adjusted to make interpretations with 'more caution' when using it on non-standardised groups, rather than developing assessments tools relevant to all (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009).

Possible solutions for the lack of appropriate instruments in diverse contexts include the translation and adaptation of existing measures for different groups and languages (Van Widenfelt, Treffers, De Beurs, Siebelink, & Koudijs, 2005). Although this is a positive move away from segregated and biased assessment, it still poses some challenges. A large number of world-wide citizens might be unfamiliar with the process as well as the material of assessment despite adaptation (Carter, Lees, Murira, Gona, Neville, & Newton, 2005).

Movements that greatly contribute to the enhancement of fair assessment practices in recent years are indigenisation of psychology (Pickren, 2009) and alternative assessment. The indigenisation of psychology implies that aspects from mainstream psychology are used and then infused with the culture of the current context to make it seem as if practice was developed indigenously (Adair, 1998). Indigenisation of psychology is thus a culturally appropriate approach, leading to culturally appropriate

practise and assessment, without being layman's psychology (Adair, 1998). Alternative assessment refers to assessment where there is less focus on the formal process of assessing and more focus on the needs of the client (O'Donnell, Reeve, & Smith, 2012).

1.6 PARADIGMATIC PERSPECTIVES

1.6.1 CONSTRUCTIVIST METATHEORETICAL PARADIGM

The metatheoretical paradigm used in conducting this study was that of constructivism. Constructivism assumes that human knowledge is not as much discovered as it is constructed; such construction can then be interpreted and its meaning constructed even further (Hall, Griffiths, & McKenna, 2013). Constructivism is aimed at understanding phenomena and participants, at getting to know their different meanings, and recognising the role of social and historical influences in the construction of meaning (Creswell, 2014). Constructivism allows a researcher to gain insight into the experiences and perceptions of the participants pertaining to the question at hand (Watson, & McMahon, 2012). Constructionists believe that meaning is created through language and interaction, and therefore leads to the existence of multiple realities (Morgan, & Sklar, 2012).

A constructivist metatheory was regarded as a suitable epistemology for analysing risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school as it allowed me, the researcher, to recognise the value of experience and meaning as expressed by participants. This allowed me to take into account the experience of risk and resilience in rural youth, as well as the meaning they attached to their experiences. It provided an opportunity to recognise diversity in its complexity and not to view participants as separate from their context.

1.6.2 QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGICAL PARADIGM

The methodological paradigm in which this study took place was a qualitative paradigm. Morgan and Sklar (2012) state that a qualitative research design is generally concerned with aspects of meaning and interpretation rather than numbers. It is concerned with how people interpret their own experiences, construct their worlds, and make meaning of their own data. Qualitative research allows the researcher to explore the dimensions of the social world, to celebrate differences in context, language, culture, gender, and experience (Mason, 2002). It provides the researcher with the capacity to constitute arguments about how things work in a particular context (Mason, 2002). It describes life worlds from the inside out, and contributes to a better understanding of social realities, meaning patterns and structural features (Flick, Von Kardorff, & Steinke, 2004). Qualitative research is therefore flexible and sensitive to the social context in which it is applied (Mason, 2002; Flick, Von Kardorff, & Steinke, 2004). This allows for qualitative research to be applied in the multicultural background of South Africa, where generalisations and rigid approaches can be disrespectful and even detrimental.

Qualitative research serves this study excellently, as it allowed me to analyse risk and resilience in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. It provided the means to gain an in-depth understanding into this phenomenon rather than to merely quantify the presence of risk and resilience in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school.

1.7 METHODOLOGY

1.7.1 INSTRUMENTAL CASE STUDY RESEARCH DESIGN

An instrumental case study design was selected as a research design for analysing risk and resilience in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. An instrumental case study is the study of a case or cases to gain insight into the particular issue (Grandy, 2010). In an instrumental case study the case(s) itself is not the primary focus; the focus is rather on the phenomenon the researcher wants to gain insight into. The case(s) therefore plays only a supportive role in understanding the phenomenon (Grandy, 2010; Stake, 2000). Case study research permits information to be gathered in a holistic manner by using more than one data gathering method (Creswell, 2014; Morgan, & Sklar, 2012). In the current study data sources included visual data, client narratives, and ASL student reflections.

1.7.1.1 Non-probability sampling of client files

I used a non-probability, purposive sampling approach to sample client files. The client files selected were the product of an existing partnership (Flourishing Learning Youth - FLY), between the Centre for the Study of Resilience, University of Pretoria, and a rural school, providing a non-probability sampling design. I was specifically interested in answering questions pertaining to indicators of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school. Purposive sampling allowed me to select a purposive sample of client files from multicultural youth as Educational Psychology clients in a rural school (Silverman, 2004; Hussey, 2010; Creswell, 2014; Morgan, & Sklar, 2012). Purposive sampling therefore allowed me to select information rich client files from which I could gain a great deal of insight the analysis of indicators of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school (Hussey, 2010; Patton, 2002).

1.7.1.2 Data collection methods

In chapter 3 a comprehensive discussion of data sources for this study is provided, including:

Visual data: The use of photographs is useful in qualitative research as it allows a permanent record of data, but also allows a different means of communication (Reavy, & Johnson, 2008). I used visual data as it does not only provide a permanent record of a visual creation, but it also captures the message embedded in the creation.

Client narratives: Narratives are a language-based approach to collecting data. In this case language was used for the telling of the story by the participants as it related to their sand trays (Wells, 2011). Collecting narrative data means that the participants are allowed to tell a story relating to their experience. In this case the participants were requested to provide a narrative relating to the creation they made in the first sand tray (Marshall, & Rossman, 2006).

ASL student reflections: Reflexivity allows for the recognition of the internal world and emotions of the reflector as evoked by the external world, allowing for the integration of the two worlds, and thus producing more holistic information on the experience at hand (Valkin, 2006).

1.7.1.3 Inductive thematic data analysis

Thematic analysis is the process of identifying, analysing and reporting themes from data sources (Flick, 2014). For the purposes of the current study an inductive thematic data analysis was used. Inductive thematic analysis refers to viewing the data in its totality and consequently refining information arising from the data into more abstract categories until information is grouped into themes and sub-themes (Creswell, 2014). Thematic analysis is a search for emerging themes that are important to the study at hand, in this case risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school (Fereday, & Muir-Cochrane, 2006).

An important aspect of inductive thematic analysis is coding. A coding process as described by Braun and Clarke (2006) and Clarke and Braun (2013) was followed in the study. The process according to these authors consists of six phases, which will be thoroughly discussed and demonstrated in Chapter 3. The phases include: familiarisation with the data, coding, searching for themes, reviewing the themes, naming the themes, and writing up the themes.

Special attention was paid to credibility, dependability, conformability, and transferability of the data, as quality criteria during the entire research process (Morrow, 2005; Shenton, 2004; Maxwell, 2013; Pitney, & Parker, 2009). Regarding the ethical considerations, distinct attention was paid to informed consent, confidentiality, prevention of harm, and the privacy and anonymity of clients (Allan, 2011; King, 2010; Orb, Eisenhauer, & Wynaden, 2000). These aspects are discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

1.8 CHAPTER OUTLINE

1.8.1 CHAPTER 1: Introduction, background and general orientation

Chapter 1 is an introductory chapter that briefly describes how the research was approached and undertaken. It provides a brief overview of the study in terms of an introductory orientation and conceptualisation of key concepts. A brief account is given of the theoretical framework used in the study, followed by an introduction to the paradigmatic perspectives and methodology of the research.

1.8.2 CHAPTER 2: Literature review

Chapter 2 contains a critical review of the literature that relates to the study at hand. It explores the key concepts as it pertains to the study and therefore includes the concepts of sandplay and resilience. Throughout the chapter, a critical stance is taken to the available literature in sandplay and resilience. Furthermore, the theoretical framework that underpins this study is explained and reviewed in Chapter 2; a visual representation of the framework is also provided.

1.8.3 CHAPTER 3: Research design and methodology

Chapter 3 discusses in detail the research design and methodology as these relate to the study. It provides a clear explanation of the rationale of the study, the paradigmatic approaches, research design, data collection, participant sampling, data analysis, quality criteria, and ethical issues pertaining to the research at hand.

1.8.4 CHAPTER 4: Research findings

Chapter 4 represents the findings of the research conducted in terms of the themes of risk and protective resources, including relevant extracts and photographs to substantiate each theme.

1.8.5 CHAPTER 5: Conclusion and recommendations

In the final chapter the results as they address the research questions are discussed. It further includes possible contributions of the research conducted. The chapter then provides a summary of the potential limitations of the study. Chapter 5 concludes with recommendations for future research, practice and training.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter commenced by providing background information and an introduction to the research conducted. It then stated the primary and secondary research questions as it progressed to a conceptualisation of the terms *sandplay* and *resilience*. The paradigmatic approaches used in the study, as well as the methodology used to conduct the research, were then provided in brief. The chapter concluded with an outline of all the chapters.

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CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The study focuses on how sand trays can be used in educational psychology to assess risk and resilience of youth at a rural school. In this chapter the main concepts relating to the study will be critically reviewed. A brief overview is provided on assessment in psychology. This explanation is followed by a critical investigation into the sandplay technique as it provides the context for the sand trays used in the study. The investigation into the sandplay technique includes the roots of sandplay, the logistics of sandplay, how sandplay therapy works, and the role of the sandplay therapist. This is followed by a review of youth in a rural setting through the lens of resilience, thus including the challenges faced and the resources available in the named setting. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the ecological and social cross-cultural theoretical framework.

2.2 ASSESSMENT

Psychological assessment is the collecting of information that allows for analysis, evaluation, or judgement in terms of psychological functioning (Reber, Allen, & Reber, 2009; Shonkoff, & Meisels, 2000). Traditionally, psychological assessment is based on a positivistic approach to the measurement of static psychological traits by means of certain questions, performance or functioning (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009). This technique of psychological assessment is generally referred to as psychometric assessment or standardised assessment (Kline, 2000).

Globalisation has brought with it many psychometric assessment instruments by which to acquire information. The use of psychological assessment originated in the United States and Europe (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009; Laher, & Cockroft, 2013). South Africa has a varied post-colonial context manifesting in a diversity of culture, race, class, language, age and gender. The variation in context between Western countries and South Africa poses a challenge to the reliability and validity of many of the psychometric assessment instruments, as psychologists realised that the questions held different meanings across cultures and languages (Carter et al., 2005; Ridley, & Kleiner, 2003). The challenges of applicability of psychometric assessment measures resulted in a move away from trying to adapt and translate Eurocentric psychometric assessment instruments towards alternative assessment practices in the field of indigenous psychology (Lopez, 2002; Van Widenfelt et al., 2005).

The indigenisation of psychology implies that aspects from mainstream psychology are used, and then infused with the culture of the current context to make it seem as if the practice was developed

indigenously (Adair, 1998; Cohen, & Swerdlik, n.d.). Indigenisation of psychology is thus a culturally appropriate approach, leading to culturally appropriate practice and assessment, without being a layman psychology (Adair, 1998). Alternative assessment measures are assessment measures that differ from the standardised way of measurement and are able to adapt to the needs of the assessed, while aiming to measure the same variables as the standardised measures (Cohen, & Swerdlik, n.d.; O'Donnell et al., 2012). Alternative assessment in the frame of indigenous psychology thus allows for a variety of informal and post-modern assessment techniques to be used in a way that fits the context of a client. However, as South Africa's diversity is not limited to multiculturalism, the field of educational psychology cannot consider its problems solved. Other prominent challenges involve the population size and access to educational psychological services.

One way to address challenges of accessibility and population size is group-based and school-based assessments. School-based assessments are assessments that are conducted in a school setting during the school day (Malti, Liu, & Noam, 2010). These assessments are usually done on referral from educators who have already identified learners experiencing challenges (Schmidt, 2001). Furthermore, school-based assessments are primarily used when assessment is play-based, academically related or career-oriented (Braden, 2013; Schmidt, 2001). This narrow field of school-based assessment resulted in a recent move to holistic assessment of learners with the aim of identifying challenges as well as possible resources (Malti et al., 2010). A way in which school-based assessments can be made more time-efficient and financially plausible is by applying them in groups.

Group-based assessments are assessments conducted with more than one individual at a time by a single examiner (Krech, Crutchfield, & Livson, 1969; Kaplan, & Saccuzzo, 2009). The rationale for using group tests are that they are cost-effective due to the time used for assessments being minimised. Group assessments also tend to be more objective as the assessor does not have the time to subjectively get to know each client, as would be the case in individual assessments (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009; Kaplan, & Saccuzzo, 2009). Group-based assessment thus holds the advantage of increasing the reliability of the assessment by adhering to traditional positivistic views (Reber, Allen, & Reber, 2009).

One educational psychology technique that can possibly be used to address a number of these various challenges in the assessment realm of psychology, is the sandplay technique (Van Dyk, & Wiedis, 2001).

2.3 SANDPLAY

2.3.1 ROOTS OF SANDPLAY

Play has traditionally been used as a therapeutic technique for children and adults who have difficulty communicating. In recent years it has also been identified as an alternative assessment measure within

the field of projective and expressive psychology. As play is a natural part of a child's world, it is a universal phenomenon that allows a therapist to investigate the inner world of a client (Kelly-Vance, & Ryalls, n.d.). It is an assessment measure that can be used to assess the current functioning of individuals, as well as the feelings, emotions, and the challenges they face (Brooke, 2004; Ryan, & Wilson, 2000). One expressive and projective technique in the field of play therapy is the sandplay/sand tray technique.

Sandplay has existed in a traditional form long before the formal therapeutic use we have for it today. Sandplay therapy relates to a historical ritual in which the Navajo religion used sand pictures in healing ceremonies (Weinrib, 2004). After this traditional use and before sandplay was used as a therapy in its own form, various therapists used play and creativity as techniques in working with children. In the administration of play therapy, therapists sometimes made use of sand trays. Some of the early influential therapists that used sand trays as an additive technique were Anna Freud, Erik Erikson and Melanie Klein (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000).

Sandplay psychotherapy, as the formal therapeutic process is known today, is a form of expression of the inner world of the child. This expression allows the child to take his/her internal experience of the world and express it externally in the sand tray (Carmichael, 1994). Ruth Ammann explained the sand tray as being like a 'soul garden'; it is a container for a client in which he/she can display his/her psychic life (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). Sandplay therapy developed into a psychotherapeutic technique originally used to do Jungian analysis with children (Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011). The approach has proven to be useful for adolescents and adults as well (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000; Bradway, & McCoard, 1997; Kalff, 2003).

Margaret Lowenfeld and Dora Kalff have been regarded as the most influential therapists in the development of the technique known today as sandplay (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). The pioneer, Dr Margaret Lowenfeld was one of the first people who described sandplay as a technique that can be used in therapy (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). She was inspired by the *Floor Games* technique as explained by Wells, and incorporated it into her practice. In her play room she had a sandbox as well as a large variety of figurines for clients to use in the therapeutic process (Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011). The children soon started playing with the figurines in the sand and referred to the picture as their '*world*' (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). This led her to create a small sand tray close to the figures in which the children could build their own imaginary worlds (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). She coined this method *The World Technique* (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011).

Dora Kalff lived in Switzerland near Carl and Emma Jung. She was the most influential person in refining the sandplay technique (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Carl Jung's grandchildren visited Kalff on a regular basis; he soon realised that Kalff had a natural talent with children. Therefore, he suggested that Kalff find a way in which she can further her work as a Jungian analyst with children (Turner, &

Unnsteinsdottir, 2011). Kalff pursued Jung's suggestion and ended up spending time with, and learning from, Dr Lowenfeld (Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011). Dora Kalff was intrigued by Lowenfeld's work but soon realised that she was observing the Jungian phenomenon of individuation (Dean, 2001; Turner, 2005). In refining her own technique, Kalff soon realised that she would prefer a technique in which the therapist remains mainly silent while a client creates a scene in the tray. After Kalff took this stance, she and Lowenfeld admitted their differences in their respective approaches and agreed to have two separate schools of practice. Kalff then termed her school 'sandplay' (Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011). Kalff's sandplay is the psychotherapeutic approach used mainly in contemporary times (Turner, 2005). This therapy is based on Jung's belief that the psyche can be activated to move to healing and wholeness (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Kalff therefore saw sandplay as symbolic play which enables communication between the conscious and unconscious mind, leading to healing and psychological health (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). To understand sandplay as introduced by Kalff it becomes necessary to understand the basic concepts of Jung's theory.

According to Jung, the Self is seen as to be both the centre and the circumference of human development; it is the essence of a human being (Edinger, as cited in Weinrib, 2004). The conscious and the unconscious are important structures for Jung. The *conscious* consists of psychological material in grasp of the individual's immediate awareness, while the *unconscious* consists of psychological material that lies outside the immediate awareness. The unconscious contains the Self that moves towards wholeness (Weinrib, 2004; Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Sandplay therapy creates the opportunity for an individual to connect with both parts (conscious and unconscious) within the self. Connecting with both parts of the self allows an individual to recognise their potential. This is what the concept *individuation* refers to, namely the lifelong process of realising one's potential (Weinrib, 2004). The technique of sandplay allows a client to embark on a continuous process of individuation, linking a client's conscious with his/her unconscious, causing healing and growth.

A third influential person in sandplay therapy was Dr Gisela DeDomenico. Her approach to sandplay therapy stemmed from those of Lowenfeld and Kalff, but she regarded the client to be the expert. She found that it was important for the client to be allowed to verbalise his/her own meaning with regard to the creation, as the therapist is only a witness and the client is the one who knows what he/she needs to be able to heal his/her wounds (DeDomenico, 1987; Fraser, n.d.). DeDomenico referred to her method of sandplay as the "Sandtray-Worldplay" method (DeDomenico, 1987).

Furthermore, according to Bradway (2006), there were traditionally three distinct concepts to keep in mind when talking about sandplay therapy. They were the terms *sandplay*, *sand tray* and *sand world*. She described the sand tray to be the vehicle in the administration of sandplay, with a sand world being the product. Later on, however, Bradway moved away from this perspective, explaining that sandplay and sand tray can now be viewed separately, with sandplay being a specific method including several

processes, and sand tray being a technique that involves sand, water, and miniatures. Sandplay is therefore the formal process as described by Dora Kalff, whereas sand tray allows for more flexibility in the application of the process (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000; Bradway, 2006; http://www.sandplaytherapistsofhawaii.com). The inherent therapeutic process and healing remains the same (Bradway, 2006). For the purpose of this study, the terms *sandplay* and *sand tray* will therefore be used interchangeably, with more emphasis on *sand tray* except when referring to the traditional form of sandplay.

The sandplay technique is currently regarded as a valuable alternative assessment technique where standardised ways of measurement cannot reach (Van Dyk, & Wiedis, 2001). The power of sandplay that allows for its use in assessment is that it is not merely spontaneous play that allows a client expression, but occurs within specific boundaries of time and space, promoting both healing and growth (Bradway, & McCoard, 1997). The technique of sandplay remains non-threatening as it uses familiar materials such as sand and toys (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). This play component of sandplay is instinctual and natural; it not only comes from within but also provides a sense of control and security to free expression (Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). The free expression provides an assessor with understanding and insight into the life of the client in his/her specific context, reaching the goal of assessment (Shonkoff, & Meisels, 2000).

2.3.2 THE LOGISTICS OF SANDPLAY THERAPY

In sandplay, clients create a three-dimensional picture in a tray filled with sand by using figurines (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). It is a psychotherapeutic technique that allows clients to create a scene relating to their personal and social reality by using the miniature figures and then transferring the scene they experience into the sand (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Sandplay can take on many forms. Some people touch the sand, shape it or just feel it, while others show the need to use figures (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). This is a therapy without specific 'rules' and its essence is to provide the client with a space where they can listen to their inner selves. Thus, whatever the client chooses to do in this space is up to them.

Sandplay therapy generally requires a few basic materials. These materials usually include a sand-filled tray of 50 cm x 70 cm x 7 cm (Richards, Pillay, & Fritz, 2012; Kalff, 2003). The tray is painted blue to give the client the choice of creating a scene with the illusion of water, while also serving the function of providing a sky-like feeling on the side (Weinrib, 2004). The tray can be made of wood, metal, or plastic, as long as it is waterproof (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). It can then either be mounted on a stand, placed on a table, or on the floor; whatever the case, it should be easily accessible to the client (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). The sand in the tray can be provided moist or dry. In some cases the therapist can provide clients with water, leaving the decision to the client (Weinrib, 2004). Before a client starts building in the tray, the sand in a sand tray should be smoothed over lightly; an empty space without any pre-completed areas stimulates the creativity of the individual client (Richards, Pillay, & Fritz, 2012). In

conjunction with the sand tray, the client is provided with readily accessible figures to be used in their creation (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). The figures generally include realistic representations of wild and domestic animals, for instance fish, birds, shells, transportation objects such as planes, trains and cars, bridges, buildings, churches, work implements, trees, flowers and human figures of all ages, nationalities and walks of life (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Weinrib, 2004).

Instructions provided in sandplay are simply to create a picture in the sand that 'speaks' to the client (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). Therapists prefer different ways of giving the instruction, such as 'close your eyes for a moment and imagine a scene you want to create; now open your eyes and start creating the scene', or 'take a miniature toy that speaks to you and put it in the sand, add to it as you wish' (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). The instructions can even be as simple as 'do what you want in the sand' (Bradway, & McCoard, 1997). According to Dale and Lyddon (2000), creating a scene in the sand usually takes 20-40 minutes. After completion of the sand tray, the therapist can ask the client questions about the creation, and record the responses given, but he or she should be sure not to coerce the client into any revelations. The client should rather be supported into creating their own meaning about the creation (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). By taking on a stance of 'not knowing' and displaying a sense of deep curiosity into the creation of the client, while recording the process the client goes through, the therapist contributes to the meaning of the client by allowing the client to engage in a process of reflective questioning and meaning making (Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). After completion of the tray, for the purpose of record-keeping, the therapist can make a sketch of the scene the client created or take a photograph of it (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Mattson, & Veldorale-Brogan, 2010; Turner, 2005). The completed scene should not be disassembled in the clients' presence, as this devalues their creation and experience (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000).

The sandplay process goes through various developmental stages. While conducting the sandplay technique the therapist should be aware of these stages. The stages are not discrete entities but follow a general outline; more than one stage can also be observed in a single tray (Weinrib, 2004). Although various stages have been identified in sandplay, only the first sand tray and its relating phases are of relevance to the current research.

The first sand tray can serve as an assessment tray, as it brings about a wealth of information about the client (Bainum, Schneider, & Stone, 2006). The first picture in the sand is usually a realistic scene due to the wisdom of the unconscious not wanting to overwhelm the individual (Vaz, 2000; Weinrib, 2004). Although the first sand tray may be more conscious, the first tray typically indicates the struggles the client faces in his/her life, but also the resources available for the client's healing (Turner, 2005). The first tray thus relates closely to resilience as it considers both risk factors and protective resources when making meaning of the context of a client. This aspect of resilience is discussed further in section 2.6.

The question now remains: how does a sand tray, miniature figures, and water contribute to insight into the client's context, life and healing?

2.3.3 HOW SANDPLAY THERAPY WORKS

Sandplay therapy is an image-based modality that primarily works in the right side of the brain and is based on Jung's personality theory (Kalff, 2003; Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011; Vaz, 2000). The goal of the sandplay technique is to activate the layer of the psyche that brings about healing (Vaz, 2000). When conditions are conducive, the natural tendency to strive towards wholeness of the self becomes active. These conducive conditions are referred to by Kalff as the *free and protected space*, also known as the *temenos* (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Turner, 2005; Bradway, & McCoard, 1997). It is free and safe because it allows the clients to express themselves freely within the safety of a confined space (Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011). The free and protected space also refers to a place within the self that is not influenced by this morning or yesterday, but which serves as a sanctum against the concrete reality of problems. Reality is not denied but is expressed freely from the inside out without the threat of internalisation and verbalisation (Vaz, 2000).

In the free and protected space the unconscious is activated. This part of the psyche holds internal wisdom which stimulates healing (Friedman, & Mitchell, 2008; Vaz, 2000). Vaz (2000) states that it is the Self that heals and not the sandplay; the sandplay is merely the trigger for the unconscious to express itself in symbols in order to gain recognition of its wisdom. As the inner life is primarily experienced through moods and emotions, these feelings need to be made concrete by means of symbols in a process called *coagulation* (Vaz, 2000). Jung states that our conscious mind allows us to be aware only of aspects of lived experience that are deemed 'appropriate' by the conscious; the unconscious, however, is still aware of the actual lived experience in its totality, whether acceptable or not (Bradway, & McCoard, 1997; Vaz, 2000). In the free and protected space provided by the sandplay technique the unconscious is given the opportunity to be expressed through the use of the sand tray and the selection and placement of miniatures (Friedman, & Mitchell, 2008; Vaz, 2000).

Sandplay serves as a bridge between the inner and the outer world of the client, and encourages communication between the conscious and the unconscious (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Richards, Pillay, & Fritz, 2012; Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). During the process of sandplay therapy, the conscious mind relaxes its control and allows access to the unconscious (Kalff, 2003). It allows for clients to create their own 'fairy tale' based on aspects of reality. It taps into the meaning and construction of their own reality and does not merely provide another interpretation which may or may not be accurate (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Sandplay provides clients with access to their inner being or psyche (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). This is necessary as people often in life create 'masks' or other personas to engage with the external word, which lead to them supressing or denying parts of their real self (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). Sandplay allows clients to express themselves freely without the pressure they experience in their

physical world of relationships to keep up the façade (Vaz, 2000). It also provides a less threatening way of therapy to clients that are resistant to therapeutic inquiries, as verbal 'interrogation' is not the main tenet in sandplay therapy (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). Sandplay is a modality for interpersonal and symbolic meaning making, providing not only a means of communication for the inside world of the client, but also making the inside world visible to the outside world (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000).

Boik and Goodwin (2000) explain that the connection a client has with the sand helps to regress the client to a place that needs healing. Sandplay allows each client to determine their own course in therapy as they have control over what to express; thus only the material clients can deal with will become conscious to them (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). It allows the client to project their world symbolically, creating distance between the individual and the problems they experience (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). In sandplay, both expression and a therapeutic experience are emphasised, allowing the client to project what he/she is ready to experience (Bradway, & McCoard, 1997).

According to the Jungian principle, most of our emotional pain stems from the split between what our conscious mind allows us to see, and our actual, lived experience (Vaz, 2000). Sandplay allows for the unconscious and lived experience to be expressed in a safe and non-threatening way, allowing for integration and healing of the Self (Friedman, & Mitchell, 2008; Vaz, 2000). Through the sandplay process the devalued aspects of the person get brought together in a novel form, making the person more able to confront the realities of life (Vaz, 2000). The contra-psychological position is provided an opportunity to be strengthened through the sandplay process, and provides a bridge between who the person currently is and who the person can become through healing (Friedman, & Mitchell, 2008; Vaz, 2000).

If healing and insight into the client comes from within the client, and sandplay therapy is therapeutic in its essence, what remains then for the facilitating therapist to do?

2.3.4 THE ROLE OF THE SANDPLAY THERAPIST

Sandplay can be administered individually or in groups. Ultimately the role of the therapist stays the same in providing an atmosphere of free expression (Cunningham, & Bradway, 2008). It is important for therapists to create an atmosphere which facilitates internal growth, not only for the client, but also for the therapist him-/herself (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Dunn-Fierstein, 2008; Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011).

The therapist is the most important tool in sandplay; it is the quality of the therapist's presence that transcends the overall quality and success of the process (Turner, 2005). Therapists that facilitate the creative process of sandplay should be cognisant of what happens during the process for the client; therefore the therapist should be close enough to observe the client and the process during creation, but not too close so as to intrude into the process (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Dale and Lyddon (2000)

highlight the importance of the therapist to pay attention to the miniatures used during the process, how they are used, how the sand tray and also water are used. It thus becomes very important for the therapist to position him-/herself in such a way that he/she is able to see what the client creates (Turner, 2005).

During sandplay, the client is the expert as his/her unconscious knows who he/she is and who he/she can become (Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). Gallerani and Dybicz (2011) demonstrate this effectively by referring to the client as the writer and the therapist as the editor. The therapist is thus a companion in the sandplay process and not a controller (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000; Friedman, & Mitchell, 2008). It is important to note that the experience of the client is shared by the therapist, but the therapist does not influence or direct it (Dale, & Lyddon, 2000). Boik and Goodwin (2000) point out that the therapist is the psychological container during a session – holding what happens in the tray, and in the room, and creating a safe space for the client to connect with his/her inner voice. The therapist has to create a safe space not only for the client, but also for the therapist's development (Dunn-Fierstein, 2008). Creating a safe space for oneself as a therapist creates a holding environment for the client in which he/she can express him-/herself (Dunn-Fierstein, 2008). The therapist's role is to be a co-explorer during the process. The client will take the lead in the psychic journey while the therapist stimulates the exploration. The therapist further plays a role in constellating the unconscious by being a witness and a mirror. The therapist validates the client by being present and reflecting back to the client what he/she is observing (Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). The role of the therapist is not necessarily to understand everything the client does, but to engage in a process of understanding with the client (Turner, 2005). The therapist should create a way to be able to join with a client to generate a joined force of psychic energy to hold the symbolic undertaking of the client (Turner, 2005). It is therefore very important for the therapist to possess certain skills. The therapist needs to be able to be empathetic, listen intently and be fully present with each client (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). This also necessitates the therapist to dare to explore his/her own 'soul-garden' and to listen to his/her inner self by doing his/her own sandplay (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000; Turner, 2005).

Although the traditional role of the therapist was to direct clients' healing, a constructivist approach rather than a Jungian approach is more appropriate with the sand tray technique in this study, as it allows for meaning making by the client and the therapist, rather than interpretation from the therapist's side (Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). Taking a constructivist approach to the role of the therapist in the sand tray technique means that the therapist allows the clients to make their own meaning of the scene they have created by telling a story about the scene and infusing their meaning into the story (Russo, Vernam, & Wolbert, 2006). The traditional Jungian approach of the therapist refers to the therapist interpreting the scene the client created by using the symbolism of the figurines used in the tray (Kalff, 2003).

To summarise: in order to understand youth and the psychosocial challenges they face, therapists need to allow youth to communicate their experiences in a safe and meaningful manner. However, the multicultural context of South Africa poses various challenges in open, safe, and meaningful communication between therapists and clients. One way to address communication barriers in understanding youth and the challenges they face better, is thus the non-verbal modality of sandplay. Sandplay can be described as a non-verbal, expressive therapy technique which makes use of playing with small toys in a box filled with sand (Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011). The use of the sand and figurines serves as a common language between the therapist and the client, thus overcoming the issue of language barriers and difficulties in verbal expression (Turner, 2005; Ferreira, Eloff, Kukard, & Kriegler, 2014).

2.4 RURALITY: GLOBALLY AND IN SOUTH AFRICA

Rural communities possess certain characteristics that buffer children from the negative effects of globalisation. These characteristics include having close access to nature, which buffers children from the negative influences of pollution, noise pollution, and overcrowding, while allowing space for privacy, exploration, and access to one's feelings (Wells, & Evans, 2003). Despite the above-mentioned protective resources of rural communities, a vast body of research into the same type of community has identified various challenges. One such challenge is that the word 'rural' can have different meanings across time and space (Morojele, & Muthukrishna, 2012). A general definition for the term *rural population,* does however exist; the term mostly refers to geographical areas of a country which house a population that is not included in the definition of urban areas. It is therefore areas that have little access to resources such as public services, water, electricity and sanitation (Ebersöhn, & Ferreira, 2012). Being in a remote or rural area exposes one to various challenges, including economic deprivation such as poverty, social deprivation regarding opportunities and public services, HIV/AIDS and social challenges such as multiculturalism and xenophobia (Ballantyne, & Mylonas, 2001; Ebersöhn, & Ferreira, 2012; Morojele, & Muthukrishna, 2012). In 2011, the size of the South African rural population was estimated at 19 229 650, constituting 39-40% of the South African population (Trading Economics, n.d.)

Social injustice and unequal distribution of resources lead to various challenges for rural communities (Henderson, 2006). A social challenge due to limited resources and unequal distribution, as faced by those in a rural community, is limited mobility (Kritzinger, 2002). It was found that girls who grew up in rural farming areas tend to either never leave the farm or return to the farm soon after they attempted to leave (Kritzinger, 2002). The reason for the immobility is limited resources and limited contact with other areas, as well as education aimed at sustaining the life and opportunities rural inhabitants have rather than motivating and exposing them to other opportunities (Kritzinger, 2002). Another significant challenge for inhabitants of rural areas is concerned with the children's travelling to school (Morojele, &

Muthukrishna, 2012). For youth in rural areas in South Africa, travelling to school can be treacherous; dangers such as wild animals, fears of *muthi* murders, thieves, dongas, and valleys are frequently faced by youth in a rural context (Morojele, & Muthukrishna, 2012). Due to the challenges faced on the road to school some learners need to create informal housing for their families or only for themselves closer to the school, leading to child-headed households, poor nutrition, and little access to other services such as sanitation and running water (Malan, 2011). Another challenges frequently faced in rural communities are those of HIV/AIDS and barred access to readily available medical services, in turn increasing the risk of transmitting and contracting HIV/AIDS (Henderson, 2006). Some of the challenges caused by HIV/AIDS are orphanhood, lack of parental supervision and support, child-headed households, increased poverty and homelessness (Henderson, 2006).

The identification of adversity in rural settings, but also of resilience of youth in rural settings, necessitates research into resilience to identify risks and protective resources. Understanding the phenomenon of resilience in youth at a rural school can inform professionals in the field of youth development on how to better address the challenges faced by youth (Henderson, 2006).

2.5 EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

The residents of rural communities and the youth that attend schools in these areas deserve access to the very best services as this is their home, just like everybody else has their home and expects access to developmental and supportive services (Sutton, & Pearson, 2002). The educational, social and emotional wellbeing of inhabitants form an undeniable part of sustainable rural learning ecologies (Hlalele, 2013). This means that all services contributing to the social, emotional and educational wellbeing of the inhabitants of rural communities are of utmost importance, although professionals do not always recognise this need due to limited exposure and societal separation in South Africa (Leibowitz, Bozalek, Carolissen, Nicholls, Rohleder, Swartz, & Poul, 2011). One professional body that addresses all these developmental needs is Educational Psychology Services. Educational Psychological Services have the capacity to assess and intervene in all systems according to Bronfenbrenner's framework (Mbunyuza-De Heer Menlah, & Mays, 2010). This means that parents, children and schools can be supported from an Educational Psychological framework.

Despite the great value of Educational Psychology it seems, by the lack of recent publications on the role of Educational Psychologists in rural schools, that this service is wholly underrepresented in and inaccessible to rural contexts (Hughes, 1986; Reschly, & Connolly, 1990). The field of Educational Psychology in South Africa is currently undergoing a process of adaptation and re-design to make the service more holistic, inclusive, contextual, and accessible to all (Maree, Ebersöhn, & Molepo, 2006). One of the most important ways in which South African institutions are attempting to overcome the divide between urban and rural accessibility to Educational Psychology services is through the

Academic Service Learning programmes. ASL programmes attempt to change the attitude of Educational Psychologists towards service delivery in rural contexts (Hudson & Hudson, 2008).

The ASL programmes allow students to work in communities and gain confidence and insight into their own abilities and the contribution they can make to society and social justice – with social justice referring to the equal distribution of resources and shared decision making as process, and outcome, of programmes aimed at equality (Ebersöhn, Bender, & Carvalho-Malekane, 2010; Jones, & Bodtker, 1998; Rosner-Salazar, 2003). This exposure to the diversity of South Africa allows the field of Educational Psychology to adjust its techniques to address the needs of urban as well as rural communities (Ebersöhn et al., 2010; Petersen, Dunbar-Krige, & Fritz, 2008). One way in which these ASL students have already contributed to rural schools and informed knowledge regarding rural schools is in the spheres of career counselling and resilience (Coetzee, Ebersöhn, & Ferreira, 2009; Ebersöhn, & Ferreira, 2012).

2.6 LENS OF RESILIENCE

Traditionally, research was focused on the risk that children or adults possessed to develop psychopathology or other challenging personality and behavioural characteristics (Garmezy, 1996; Masten, & Powell, 2003). According to Masten and Powell (2003), the traditional focus on the risk of pathological or deviant development can be referred to as the 'risk strategy'. The focus on risk had its roots in the epidemiology of positivism, and hence, medicine (Garmezy, 1996). There was, however, a focal shift in the world of research toward the study of competence rather than risk in children who are faced with challenges. Initially the primary focus was on parental mental illness, poverty and stressful life experiences (Masten, & Powell, 2003).

Major interest developed in the field of resilience in the 1970's, when it was discovered that not all children develop psychopathology when faced with similar distressing circumstances (Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010). Research identified that in the face of risk, some children develop diseases or disorders and became vulnerable, whereas others overcame the risk and achieved a state of positive adaptation, also known as resilience (Garmezy, 1996; Masten, & Powell, 2003). The question arose as to how it is possible for some to overcome challenges they face while others succumb to the same challenges (Herrman et al., 2011). The realisation that a focus on children that developed well despite challenges could lead to programmes promoting positive adaptation, and this led to the birth of *resilience studies* (Masten, & Powell, 2003). Although resilience studies developed from the risk strategy, the primary difference is that the risk strategy focuses largely on risk and negative factors, whereas resilience incorporates a positive view. Resilience studies do not ignore the presence of risk but rather follow an additive approach, by exploring possible resources to overcome adversity (Luthar, & Zelazo, 2003). Being resilient does not mean an individual is free of terror or forgets the challenges or trauma he/she had faced, but instead continues to live their lives optimally despite these adversities (Garmezy, 1996).

Therefore, resilience may be defined as the capacity to maintain effective adjustment and development despite challenges faced (Reber, Allen, & Reber, 2009).

Resilience consists of patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant risk or adversity (Herrman et al., 2011; Masten, & Powell, 2003). Resilience has been described as both a trait of positive adaptation and a process (Herrman et al., 2011). Resilience can be referred to as multi-dimensional characteristics and processes of time and context-specific resistance, leading to positive adaptation in the face of adversity (Ebersöhn, 2014; Ebersöhn, & Ferreira, 2012; Herrman et al., 2011). There is no static definition of resilience, although it is generally described as the ability to adapt better than expected in the face of adversity; it changes over time, is developmentally specific, and is influenced by risk and protective factors in the individual and environment; in totality it maintains and enhances overall health (Tusaie, Puskar, & Sereika, 2007). Culture is important when analysing for resilience because different cultures view positive adaptation and resilience in a different light; Western cultures view self-efficacy and independent functioning as an indicator of resilience, but this is not the case in other cultures (Tummala-Narra, 2007).

According to Tusaie et al., (2007), almost every individual has some level of resilience, whereas one third of any population show high levels of resilience. There are multiple sources that can interact to bring about resilience; these usually include biological, psychological, dispositional and social attributes (Herrman et al., 2011). For resilience to be inferred from a person's life, two fundamental judgements need to be present: the first is that the person is doing well, and the second is that there is or has been significant risk or adversity in the person's life which he/she had to overcome (Masten, & Powell, 2003; Theron, 2012). Key requirements for resilience are therefore the presence of risk factors, as well as protective factors that either result in a positive outcome or reduce the intensity of negative outcomes (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005; Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010). Risk factors, protective factors, and the desired positive adaptation – all required for resilience to be present – will be discussed critically in the following sections (Ungar, Ghazinour, & Richter, 2013).

2.6.1 RURAL YOUTH RISK AND ADVERSITY

Risk factors are conditions that research has shown predict higher outcomes of negative or undesirable states (Masten, & Powell, 2003). According to these authors, being at low risk means that one possesses more resources and assets than challenges. Various different kinds of risk and resilience have been studied by investigators of risk and resilience. Some indicators of risk, according to Masten and Powell (2003), are premature birth, poverty, mental illness in parent/s, divorce, war, and maltreatment. It is important to note that vulnerability due to risk exposure does not lie on the opposite continuum of resilience. Vulnerability is the increased likelihood of a negative outcome; resilience is avoiding problems relating to vulnerability – it is not the absence of vulnerable circumstances (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005).

A valuable insight into risk factors that came to light was that risk factors can occur together, and the effect of risk factors can compound into other risks and negative outcomes (Masten, & Powell, 2003). The presence of one risk factor does not exclude others, for example living in poverty does not mean that poverty is the only challenge; on the contrary, poverty usually occurs together with other challenges such as parental absence and limited community resources (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005). The co-occurrence of risk factors has led to the concept of *cumulative risk*. Cumulative risk refers to more than one risk factor that can lead to negative outcomes being present in an individual's life (Garmezy, 1996; Masten, & Powell, 2003). *Cumulative risk* has become a term in current research. The move away from specific stressors as antecedents to challenges or disordered development happened specifically because research supported notions that accumulated adversities are the key to heightened negative behavioural and developmental patterns (Garmezy, 1996). People throughout the world are constantly subjected to multiple stressors, creating cumulative risk, which highlights the importance of the recognition and identification of these risks to develop intervention programmes.

A distinction can be made between non-independent events of adversity and independent events of adversity (Masten, & Powell, 2003). Non-independent events are those events related to the individual's own behaviour, such as a relationship ending, and independent events are events outside of the individual's control, such as the death of a parent. Non-independent events of adversity increase as the age of the individual increases. This is most probably due to the increase in independence and decision making with age. Well-adjusted youth tend to create less adversity for themselves by means of independent events of adversity; therefore, early dependent adversity can lead to an individual creating their own non-dependent adversity later in life (Masten, & Powell, 2003). Dependent and/or independent risk can be biological, psychological and/or sociological. See Figure 2.1 for examples (Garmezy, 1996).

Biological risk	**Psychological risk**	**Sociological risk**
Premature birth	Antisocial behaviour	Low socioeconomic status
Low birth weight	Short attention span	Illiteracy
Physical challenges	Poor attachments	Young parents
Organic brain damage	Hyperactivity	Rural families
Health issues	Grief	Parental schizophrenia
HIV/AIDS		Parental substance abuse
		Parental criminality
		Parental HIV/AIDS
		High crime neighbourhood
		Homelessness
		War
		Maltreatment
		Malnutrition

Figure 2.1: Examples of possible risk factors (based on Garmezy, 1996)

It is important to be aware of the risk factors commonly faced by individuals. Gaining insight into what risk entails provides us with indicators when attempting to identify the presence of risk in unexplored settings. In this case, the first sand tray of youth at a rural school, challenges that specifically relate to South African rural communities and that need to be addressed include poverty, high levels of illiteracy, unemployment, poorly developed infrastructure, grief and caretaking challenges (Ebersöhn, & Ferreira, 2012; Loots, Ebersöhn, Ferreira, & Eloff, 2010).

When faced with risk and adversity it does not mean that there are no protective resources present in the situation. Protective assets, resources and processes will consequently be appraised.

2.6.2 RURAL YOUTH: PROTECTIVE ASSETS, RESOURCES AND PROCESSES

As mentioned above, certain factors are associated with better adaptation in the face of risk and adversity; these factors are known as protective resources and protective processes (Gore, & Eckenrode, 1996; Masten, & Powell, 2003). It is important to be aware of protective resources and processes because the presence of only one protective resource can be a turning point for a child to develop 'on par' despite adversity (Gilligan, 2000).

Resources and processes that contribute to positive adaptation can be described as either assets or resources (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005). Assets can be described as positive factors that reside within the individual, such as self-efficacy, whereas resources can also help overcome risk, but are aspects that reside outside of the individual, including adult mentoring (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005; Bouwer, 2011). There are various models that contribute to the knowledge about protective resources and processes. According to Masten and Powell (2003), one such model is the additive or compensatory model. This model suggests that more resources, such as better parenting and social skills, can oppose the negative effects of risk and adversity; therefore, increasing assets can decrease the impact of risk (Masten, & Powell, 2003). In a compensatory model promotive factors counteract risk factors; there is a direct effect of a promotive factor on the outcome (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005). A second model is the moderating model. Moderating models, also known as protective factor models, refer to resources and assets that moderate or reduce the effects of risk on outcome, for instance parental support that moderates the effect of poverty on violent behaviour (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005; Masten, & Powell, 2003). Protective or moderating models can be protective-reactive or protective-protective (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005). Protective-reactive models refer to protective factors that diminish but do not completely remove the correlation between risk and outcome. In protective-protective models, one protective factor enhances the influence of another protective factor on the outcome (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005). Some moderating resources and processes are risk-activated, while others are ever present in the individual's life (Masten, & Powell, 2003). Masten and Powell (2003) state that risk-activated resources have the effect of an airbag; they come into action as a reaction to a threatening event, for instance emergency and trauma services following a natural disaster. Other moderating

resources are ever present despite risk or imminent threat. These resources include the personality and cognitive resources of an individual (Masten, & Powell, 2003). A third model that leads to a positive outcome in the face of adversity is the challenge model: facing moderate levels of adversity leads to a sense of 'inoculation' against risk, for instance being chronically ill serves as a buffer to negative outcome when one is hospitalised (Fergus, & Zimmerman, 2005).

According to Wells and Evans (2003), living in a preferred environment at a young age can be a moderating effect for adversity and ultimately bring about resilience. A preferred environment in early life is usually related to nature; it is inferred that this is the reason for higher resilience rates in rural youth that live close to nature. Possible mechanisms that result in nearby nature buffering children against risk are social support, attention restoration, and allowing children to focus on something else than daily troubles (Wells, & Evans, 2003; Freeman, & Anderman, 2005). The research conducted by Wells and Evans (2003) opened a new window onto the world of resilience, where rural youth were regarded as facing adverse circumstances purely because of their demographics.

Having a positive school and/or spare time experience can further protect children from negative outcomes due to adversity (Gilligan, 2000). School does not need to wait for a child to address emotional or psychosocial problems, but can be a stepping stone in addressing these problems by providing a space away from everyday problems (Gilligan, 2000; Barley, & Beesley, 2007; Ferreira, Ebersöhn, & Odendaal, 2010). This can be done in simple ways, for instance providing play activities during break or increasing social support, as well as training teachers to be lay counsellors (Gilligan, 2000; Ferreira, Ebersöhn, & Odendaal, 2010). Leisure time activities can assist children in being resilient by providing them with a sense of self-worth and stronger social connections and meaning; such activities could include cultural pursuits, taking care of animals, part-time work, etc.

Within resilience three major categories of protective factors have been identified in the literature. These categories consist of individual attributes, family qualities, and supportive systems outside the family, therefore, both the individual and his/her context are important in resilience. Examples of such resources are listed in Figure 2.2 (Masten, & Powell, 2003; Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010). Individual attributes or personality traits are traits inside the individual that contribute to resilience, and are rooted in the field of hardiness. Personality traits and individual attributes should, however, not be viewed as static and unchangeable; they can develop through the life span of an individual (Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010).

Despite the possibility to distinguishing between categories of protection, there remains a sense of interrelatedness (Gore, & Eckenrode, 1996; Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010). It is possible for protective resources and processes to combine in additive and non-additive ways and to contribute to positive adaptation in the face of adversity (Gore, & Eckenrode, 1996; Herrman et al., 2011). Research found that possessing certain protective factors early in life can contribute to the development of other

protective factors later in life (Gore, & Eckenrode, 1996). The time span can vary, for instance short-term coping in the face of an imminent threat or lifelong coping with a disease (Gore, & Eckenrode, 1996).

Regardless of the adversity, key resources that contribute to positive outcome are parenting quality, intellectual functioning, positive self-regard, and socioeconomic access and resources (Masten, & Powell, 2003).

Individual attributes	**Relationships**	**Community resources and opportunities**
Cognitive abilities: Intellectual resources, executive functioning, attention skills, etc. Self-perceptions of worth and competence Mastery motivation Temperament and personality: sociability, adaptability, etc. Self-regulation skills Positive outlook on life: faith, openness, and hopefulness, etc. Active coping Resourcefulness Problem solving abilities Language	Secure attachment Parenting quality: warmth, structure, expectations Close relationships with competent adults: mentors, teachers, relatives, etc. Extended family Pro-social peers	Effective schooling Access and connection to pro-social organisations: faith, congregations, clubs, etc. Social services and health care Neighbourhood organisations Stable care Good social policies Positive culture and religion

Figure 2.2: Examples of attributes of the individual and context often associated with resilience (Garmezy, 1996; Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010; Masten, & Powell, 2003; Tummala-Narra, 2007)

The power of resilience lies in its 'ordinary magic' (Ungar, 2006). Resilience sprouts from the strengths and resources that exist in our lives and not from extraordinary events or powers (Masten, & Powell, 2003). It is this tenet of resilience studies that makes it a gold mine within the field of psychology.

Resilience studies allow psychologists to empower their clients to harvest what is already present in their lives to overcome present and future challenges, rather than to be crisis managers. By utilising and strengthening protective resources in individuals and their context, positive adaptation can be increased. Accordingly, positive adaptation needs to be understood and explored.

2.6.3 RURAL YOUTH POSITIVE ADAPTATION

Positive adaptation can be referred to as a process of dynamic interaction between individuals and their social ecologies – an interaction that leads to adaptation that is substantially better than what is generally expected in the face of the risk at hand (Luthar, & Zelazo, 2003; Theron, 2012). Positive adaptation can be experienced in the face of continued adversity or following a traumatic event, but positive adaptation without the presence of adversity is not a manifestation of resilience (Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010; Tummala-Narra, 2007).

To determine whether someone is doing well, their competence in their developmental milestones has to be identified. This refers to effective performance in salient developmental tasks of a given age, society, context and historical time (Masten, & Powell, 2003). The definition of competence, or positive adaptation, and what it entails, will for this reason be different for the various developmental levels, but usually include behavioural, emotional, and educational functioning (Herrman et al., 2011; Masten, & Powell, 2003). School-aged children will for instance have to be able to achieve in school (academic competence) as expected in accordance with their ability, make friends (social competence), and follow rules at home and at school (Louw, & Louw, 2007). In adolescence the individual will be expected to have more intimate friendships, start having romantic relationships, achieve advanced academic expectations, and think abstractly while planning for their future (Louw, & Louw, 2007).

The criteria for doing well despite facing adversity vary across authors. Definitions range from the absence of mental or physical disorders to a focus on competence and good adaptation (Masten, & Powell, 2003). When looking for positive adaptation and competence, some indicators to be aware of are educational performance, interpersonal relationships, behaviour, affect regulation and social competence (Herrman et al., 2011). Indicators that predict a need for competence and adaptation programmes include symptoms of anxiety and depression, poor social skills, substance abuse and delinquent behaviour (Herrman et al., 2011).

Positive adaptation can refer to the maintenance and not only the achievement of adaptive functioning in the face of significant adversity (Shaikh, & Kauppi, 2010). When deciding on the best criteria for adaptation or adjustment it is important to keep in mind different cultural contexts as well as time and individual characteristics (Luthar, & Zelazo, 2003; Masten, & Powell, 2003; Theron, 2012; Tummala-Narra, 2007). What is most important is that the outcome is above expectation for the circumstances faced by the specific individual (Luthar, & Zelazo, 2003). What is further important to remember is that positive adaptation and resilience is a person ←→ environment interaction, and a person cannot be blamed for not being resilient (Theron, 2012). Positive adaptation is not a static end-point; it is a continuous process in which new vulnerabilities and strengths emerge in developmental, societal, cultural and performance spheres (Tummala-Narra, 2007).

Understanding what positive adaptation entails, allows professionals in the field of learning and development to recognise the importance of identifying risk and protective resources, to be able to support youth to adapt positively despite the risks they face.

To gain insight and make meaning of resilience as it relate to the individual and his/her contexts call for a wider understanding and explanation of the forces at work in the life of youth. Therefore, a theoretical framework that allows for most aspects of resilience to be explored will be illuminated.

2.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.7.1 ECOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL CROSS-CULTURAL MODEL (GEORGAS, 1988; DASEN, 2003)

Georgas developed a model based on concepts from a number of theories, including Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological theory and Berry's eco-cultural framework (Georgas, 1988; Dasen, 2003), to incorporate cultural differences into psychological practices. The main elements of the model include ecological factors, social phenomena and human interrelationships (Georgas, 1988). These three concepts consist of five subdivisions, which form the basic elements of the model (Figure 2.3).

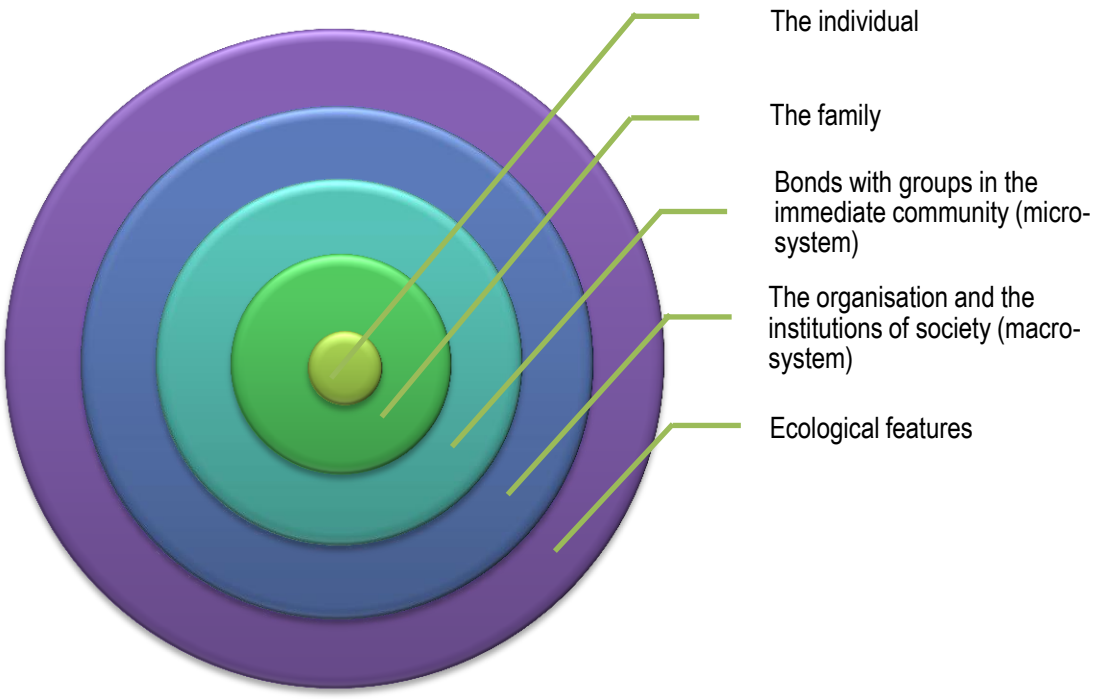

Figure 2.3: An ecological and social cross-cultural model (Adapted from Georgas, 1988, p. 110; Dasen, 2003, p. 137)

Various points of critique have been voiced against this cross-cultural model. One undeniable aspect of critique is that the model was developed and refined between 1988 and 1993 (Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen, 2002; Georgas, 1988). Other critique makes reference to the similarity between Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological model and Georgas' ecological and social cross-cultural model (Berry

et al., 2002; Donald, Lazarus, & Lolwana, 2010). Despite the voiced critique and the undeniable fact that no theory is perfect and is subject to a continuous process of development, the theory seemed to be able to guide the current research study due to its emphasis on, not only the influences of the individual, family and larger social context, but also on the influence of ecology, on developmental outcomes (Georgas, 1988; Berry et al., 2002; Lerner, & Johns, 2012). This is specifically valuable to the current research study as the research was conducted in a rural school setting (see Chapter 3). Another valuable attribute of the ecological and social cross-cultural model is that it recognises that all development and meaning are embedded in cultural context, and that despite the universality of the various domains of development (physical, emotional, moral, psychological, intellectual, identity), each if these domains and the course they take are influenced by culture (Berry, & Ward, 2006; Louw, & Louw, 2007). The subdivisions of important influences of development are described by Georgas (1988) and Dasen (2003) as follows:

1. The individual

The individual is at the centre of the theory. The individual can be defined more specifically in terms of psychological variables such as cognition, personality, emotions, motivation, attitude, values and biological variables (Berry et al., 2002; Georgas, 1988).

2. The family

The family plays a critical role in the socialisation of the child and is therefore separated from the immediate community in its influence on the individual (Georgas, 1988).

3. Bonds with small groups in the immediate community

Bronfenbrenner would refer to this as the microsystem (Donald et al., 2010), as it includes contact between individuals and the systems in which they actively participate (Pettipher, & Swart, 2011), for instance co-workers, neighbours, teachers etc. It is not merely the contact that is important in shaping the individual but also the quality of the interaction. Social support can protect people from psychosocial stress, enhancing the importance of others' influence on the behaviour and life of the individual. Others, and interaction with them, can shape values, beliefs, attitudes, cognitions and behaviours of the individual (Georgas, 1988).

4. Organisations and institutions of the society

This division refers to Berry's socio-political context (Berry et al., 2002) and Bronfenbrenner's macrosystem. Included in the organisation and institutional dimension of society are thus economic patterns, institutions of society (e.g. educational system) and mass communication (Donald et al., 2010; Georgas, 1988).

5. Ecological factors

The ecology of the environment, according to Berry's theory, refers to variables in the physical environment which shape cultural and biological adaptation, acculturation as well as psychological differentiation of the individual. Aspects such as climate, geographical variables and social density, are all aspects that influence the individual (Georgas, 1988).

In the discussed theory each dimension can be portrayed as a circle. Each circle is nested in a larger circle, symbolising the dimension in the smaller circle as nested in the larger dimension (Georgas, 1988; Visser, 2007). The distance of each circle from the centre (the individual) represents the degree of influence on the individual (Georgas, 1988). The outer circles can therefore influence the individual only indirectly (Georgas, 1988).

The notion of feedback is important to ensure that the individual is not viewed as only being influenced by the external world in the cross-cultural framework, but also being able to influence the external world (Berry et al., 2002). The influences between dimensions are bidirectional and interactive (Berry et al., 2002; Georgas, 1988).

The ecological and social cross-cultural model applies to the study as it allows not only for the individual and his/her characteristics as these relate to risk and resilience to be analysed in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school, but also for familial, societal, and contextual characteristics.

2.8 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In the conceptual framework a tentative interplay of the literature is discussed, as I assume it might happen in the data generated and analysed in the current study.

The working assumption of the interplay of theory is that the sandplay technique can be used to analyse risk and resilience. This means that it is likely that risk and resilience indicators will appear in the first sand trays of rural youth. I further expect to see risk and resilience indicators within the individual, his/her family, the community, society and the ecology, in a descending order. This is indicated by the decreasing of the oval sizes in the visual representation of the conceptual framework. Most of the indicators are expected in the individual subdivision, and fewer indicators in the ecology subdivision.

The assumption on which the ecological framework is based is that both challenges and resources have been noted in the first sand trays of clients who engaged in the sandplay technique in European countries (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000). Furthermore, risk and protective factors as processes in resilience do exist as a result of relationships between the individual and his/her environment, allowing the researcher to make a tentative assumption that risk and protective factors would occur in all the spheres in the ecological and social cross-cultural model, although to a decreasing degree (Ebersöhn, & Ferreira, 2012; Ungar et al., 2007; Georgas, 1988). I further expect to see that the different spheres in

the ecological and social cross-cultural models have bidirectional influences, and that causal relationships will not be able to be determined in this research.

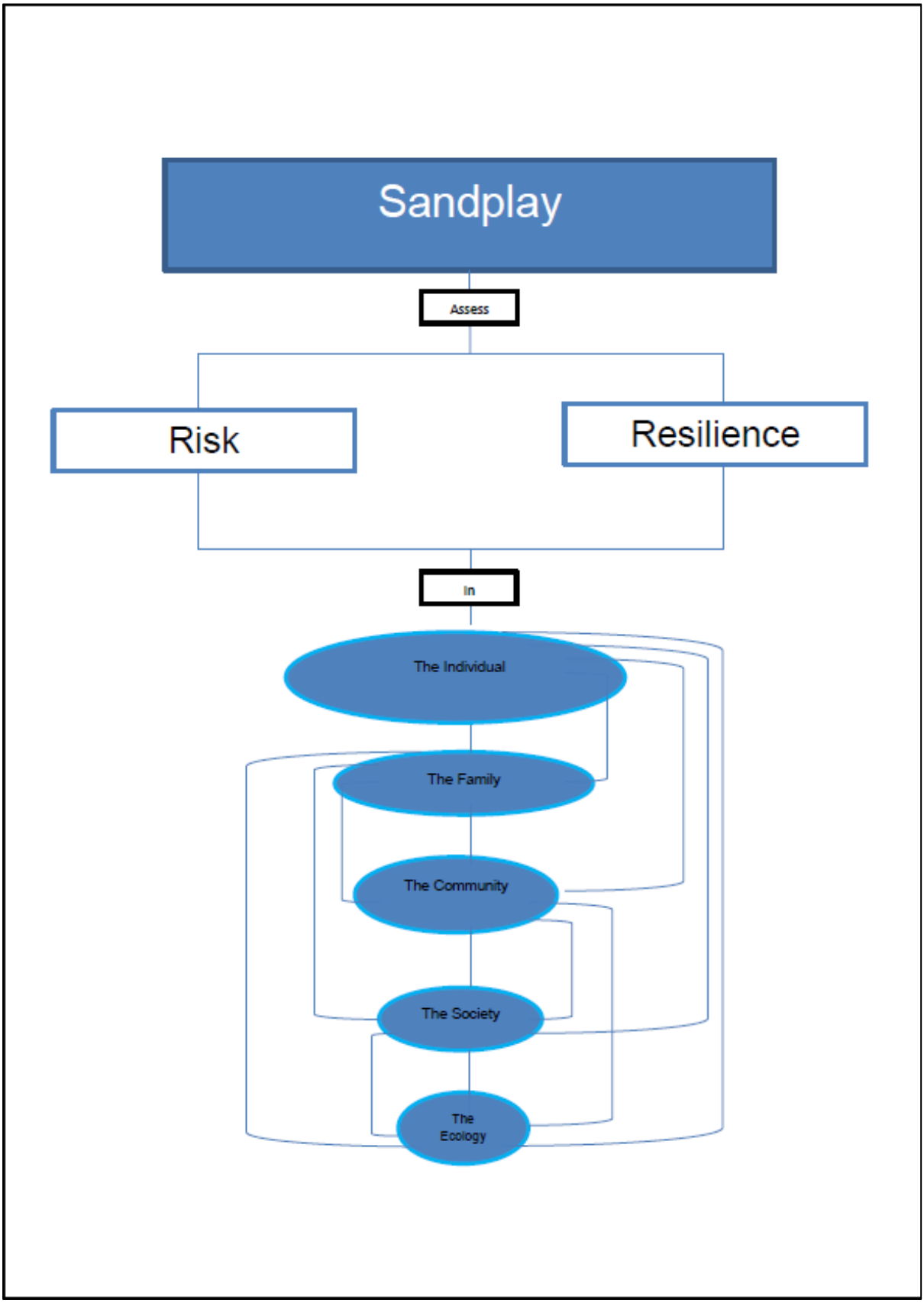

Figure 2.4: Conceptual framework

2.9 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the concepts that related to the study were explored and discussed. The chapter opened with a brief overview of assessment. Following this, the concept of sandplay was illuminated, as well as the phenomenon of resilience and the various prerequisites for the identification of resilience. A critical explanation was provided regarding challenges and resources that might be faced by rural youth. The chapter ends with an exploration of the ecological and social cross-cultural model that serves as the theoretical framework for the study.

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CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter commences with a description of the purpose statement of the research in terms of it being exploratory and descriptive in nature. The metatheoretical paradigm and methodological paradigms are then discussed. Following the paradigms of the research, the research design is explained. A brief description is provided about the setting in which research was conducted. Data collection and sampling of data sources are then discussed, followed by data analysis. Throughout the discussion, strengths and weaknesses of the methodology and how these were addressed, are provided. An exposition of the criteria followed to ensure the quality of the research and ethical conduct during the process conclude this chapter.

3.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to explore and describe how the first sand tray of rural youth can be analysed for risk and resilience. The exploratory nature of the study referred to the exploration of a relatively new topic in research (Gray, 2009). Exploring indicators of risk and resilience as expressed by youth in a high risk and high need setting by using the sandplay technique has not been a focus in previous research. The value that an exploratory approach holds in research is that it provides the researcher with an opportunity to use resources to discover a certain phenomenon, without having to be concerned with proving anything. This also contributes to the quality of the study as the researcher was not influenced by a wish to confirm or disconfirm specific assumptions (Giorgi, & Giorgi, 2008). A challenge posed in exploratory research is that it can become unstructured and create a sense of insignificance in the field of research (Martin, 2008). This was addressed in the current study by clearly delineating all the steps followed during the process.

The descriptive aspect of the study referred to the process (Gray, 2009) of observing indicators of risk and resilience in the first sand trays as expressed by youth at a rural school. The value of the descriptive nature of the study was that it allowed me as a researcher to clearly define how the administration of a first sand tray in a rural school context can be used to assess client-expressed indicators of risk and resilience. Descriptive research does, however, not possess the quality of being able to test or verify a certain phenomenon, nor does it allow a researcher to identify relationships in the observed characteristics (Gravetter, & Forzano, 2009). The disadvantages of descriptive and exploratory studies were minimised in the current research by using aspects from both exploratory and descriptive designs in order to provide holistic information on the research topic at hand. By describing the themes that arose in the analysis of risk and resilience of rural school youth in the first sand tray, I

wished to contribute to the body of knowledge in the fields of sandplay and resilience. I aimed to provide insight into how the first sand tray of rural school youth can be used to analyse the indicators of risk and resilience in order to assist in effective intervention planning.

3.3 PARADIGMATIC PERSPECTIVE

A research paradigm can be referred to as a broad theoretical orientation to which a certain study belongs (Adams, Collair, Oswald, & Perold, 2004). Adams et al (2004) further believe that research paradigms can be summarised by the following three types of fundamental questions. They are: ontological questions, epistemological questions and methodological questions. Ontological questions refer to what the nature of reality is (Merriam, 2009). Epistemological questions include the nature of knowledge, and the relationship between the researchers and the participants (Merriam, 2009). Methodological questions, in turn, refer to how the researcher approaches the obtaining of knowledge (Adams et al., 2004).

The study was approached through the lens of a qualitative methodological paradigm, rooted within the field of a constructivist metatheoretical paradigm. The following sections contain descriptions of the paradigmatic perspectives mentioned above.

3.3.1 METATHEORETICAL PARADIGM

The study aimed to provide a rich description, and an in-depth understanding of the themes that emerged when the sandplay technique was used with youth in a rural school to explore risk and resilience. The favoured methodology in the current study, especially in the data analysis, was constructivism.

Constructivism stresses the active process involved in building knowledge, rather than assuming that knowledge is a fixed set of unchanging propositions which merely needs understanding and memorisation (Corbin, & Holt, 2005). It examines the relationship to reality by dealing with processes of construction when approaching and making meaning of reality (Flick, 2004). Constructivism is thus concerned with how knowledge and meaning arise by means of our interaction with representations of the real world. The client files in the current study were a representation of the meaning and knowledge clients gave to their real world experiences through an educational psychology assessment. Meaning and knowledge were thus seen as the result of a process of construction (Flick, 2004). What we understand as researchers is a reflection of the data as well as the processes of interpretation and meaning making by us as researchers. Constructivism further asserts that we do not uncover knowledge as much as we construct it (Schwandt, 2003). Therefore, knowledge and the construction that knowledge contains, become the means of access to the objects or phenomena with which they are concerned (Flick, 2004). Constructivism leads to a modified concept of knowledge; it is not purely subjective or objective, but contains scientific thinking and facts, mixed with selection and structuring of

both the clients and the ASL students. Constructivism used strategies, theories and facts to avoid completely subjective bias, while recognising the influence of individual experience and context (Glaserfeld, 1992, in Flick, 2004, p. 89; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b). In analysing the sand trays of rural youth for indicators of risk and resilience, I drew on facts presented in previous literature, while infusing the known knowledge with my own thinking to create newly constructed knowledge regarding indicators of risk and resilience in the sand trays of rural youth.

Constructivism neither confirms nor denies the 'world out there', contributing to its value as an epistemology that recognises reality, but as fluid and multi-faceted (Corbin, & Holt, 2005; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b; Struwig, & Stead, 2001; Schwandt, 2003). I, the researcher, recognised throughout the study that the reality about the sand tray could differ for each client, but also for an individual client from one point in time to another.

Constructivism holds that knowledge is constructed through the process of interchange, socially and internally (Flick, 2004). Reality and meaning in the sand trays were not created solely by the individual who created the scene, but also by the interaction between the participants and the Academic Service Learning (ASL) students (Flick, 2004). Constructivism can be associated with descriptive data, in which the descriptive data, such as written or spoken word, carry meaning independent of the producer of the data, or the researcher making use of the data, creating the point of intersection for meaning making (Flick, 2004; Fouché, & Delport, 2005). The interchange and construction took place at various points; it took place by those being studied, and also by the researcher when interpreting data and documenting findings (Flick, 2009). In the current study, meaning was first made by the clients when they created a picture in the sand tray and provided a narrative regarding the scene they created. Hereafter, meaning and knowledge were constructed by the ASL students who reflected on the scene in the sand tray and also in the clients' narratives. Finally, meaning and knowledge were for a third time constructed when I engaged with the data to analyse indicators of risk and resilience. Within constructivism the person who makes meaning of data is just as involved as the person who produced the data, with the producer of data not always present during the process of analysis and meaning making (Flick, 2009). This was also the case in the current research; the clients were not present to be asked to provide their meaning imposition continuously throughout the analysis and interpretation of their first sand trays.

A constructivist metatheoretical paradigm complimented the study as its basic tenets contributed to the essence of the study. Constructivism allowed for various techniques to be used in data gathering and interpretation because of the multitude of realities (Corbin, & Holt, 2005). If multiple and diverse realities were to be uncovered there was a need for multiple sources of data and interpretation. The study used documents which contained the client's narratives, visual data, and ASL students' reflections. As researcher, I approached the task with an acknowledgement of the process of construction of

knowledge both cognitively and socially. I further accepted from the outset that a multitude of realities can exist and that findings are not static facts.

A possible limitation of constructivism lay in the claim of subjective influence of the researcher's frame of reference (Flick, 2009). This limitation was addressed by being reflexive in keeping a reflective journal (see Appendix B for an extract from my journal). A further possible limitation could be the assumed multiplicity of realities. To address this, I used both documents and visual sources of data collection. In addition, multiple investigators were used in the study, including a supervisor, a co-supervisor and a peer to enhance the rigor of the study.

3.3.2 METHODOLOGICAL PARADIGM

In light of the purpose of the study, namely to gain an in-depth understanding of the utility of sandplay to identify risk and resilience as expressed by youth in a rural school, a qualitative methodology was deemed suitable.

Qualitative research allows a researcher to examine the experience of others in detail by making use of specific in-depth research methods (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011). It allows one to understand, and not merely identify, the experience of participants or the phenomenon being studied in great detail (Hennink et al., 2011; Barbour, 2008). It is a resourceful yet intellectual and rigorous craft, designed not only to draw conclusions from data but also to thoroughly understand it (Hesse-Biber, & Leavy, 2011; Barbour, 2008). In the present study an expressive technique, sandplay, was used to gain an in-depth understanding of the value of this technique in relation to risk and resilience. The study pertained to analysing risk and resilience of rural school youth in a first sand tray. It was not only to identify one or the other, but to understand risk and resilience as portrayed in a first sand tray.

Qualitative research allowed the researcher to explore the dimensions of the social world, to celebrate richness, diversity and context and multi-dimensionality rather than to be discommoded by it (Mason, 2002). It provided the researcher with the capacity to constitute arguments about how things were working in a particular context (Mason, 2002; Willis, 2008). Qualitative research describes life worlds from the inside out, contributes to a better understanding of social realities, meaning patterns and structural features (Flick, Von Kardorff, & Steinke, 2004).

Qualitative research recognises the contextual influences of both the participant and the researcher (Hennink et al., 2011). The study was situated at a rural school; therefore, the influence of the context on risk and resilience was something to be cognisant of. The same applied to the influence of the more affluent context of the researcher on the interpretation and meaning making of the data. In addition, recognition of the influence of the differing cultures of the clients and the researcher had to be recognised.

Qualitative methods allow the researcher to investigate the embedded and not only the explicitly or visually observed (Barbour, 2008). The findings of qualitative research is therefore aimed, not to deduce a general trend or an average, but to understand and answer *how* rather than *if* questions (Mason, 2002). In the study the analysis of a first sand tray aimed to, not only view the first sand tray, and to check whether indicators of risk and resilience were present, but also to understand *how* these indicators appeared to be present.

As qualitative research seeks to better understand complex situations that are explanatory and in depth, I accordingly gave a thick and rich description of the phenomena being studied to allow the readers of the study to come to their own conclusions about the relevance of the study (Hennink et al., & Bailey, 2011; Seale, 1999). The study aimed in the first place to contribute to the existing body of knowledge. It broadened knowledge by increasing the understanding of risk and resilience as portrayed by a first sand tray. It further contributed to the knowledge base by creating a link between the value of sandplay, and analysing the risk and resilience of youth in a rural school setting.

A strength of qualitative research is that it observes phenomena, objects or participants in their natural setting and not in a clinical environment (Willis, 2008). This produces information-rich data leading to contributions in the knowledge base. The study was in line with this strength of qualitative research as the research was conducted at the specific rural school which the youth attended. According to Willis (2008), another strength of a qualitative methodological paradigm is that the researcher becomes an instrument in gathering data. I therefore visited the site twice for two days per visit in one year to understand not only the context, but also the process of data gathering by means of sandplay.

According to some authors, qualitative research can become overly subjective and personal (Bamberger, 2000; Stake, 2010). I addressed this issue by taking a reflexive stance and not entering into a dual relationship with clients, as a researcher and also as Educational Psychologist, but only being involved as a researcher (see Table 3.1 for a description of my role). To address the possible challenge of becoming a stretched out research project that has lost its aim (Stake, 2010), sand trays that were analysed for risk and resilience of youth in rural schools were collected from the single Grade 9 group of 2013.

3.4 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The population consists of SiSwati, rural youth within a secondary school setting. The secondary school is located in a remote rural area in Mpumalanga, and is close to the Swaziland border (see photograph 3.1). The closest town is approximately 160 km away (see photographs 3.2 to 3.4 for the school context). The school rarely has electricity and running water. In terms of resources the school faces challenges regarding storage of desks, laboratory equipment, and has a limited range of books in the library. Although the school is equipped with a computer room, the challenges regarding electricity

makes frequent use of the computer room difficult. Learners (including Grade 9 clients) at the school receive a meal during break time. For many learners this can be the most substantial meal they have during the day. Most of the learners walk to school, with transport available for those who live far away. Research conducted in Mpumalanga has shown that low family income, nutritional challenges, and primary services such as transport, sanitation and electricity are common challenges faced by most families (Makiwane, Makoae, Botsis, & Vawda, 2012).

Photograph 3.1
Google Map Image of location of the sampled secondary rural school

Photograph 3.2:
Untarred road to school

Photograph 3.3:
View of school from gate

Photograph 3.4:
View of school from verandah of library

3.4.1 FLOURISHING LEARNING YOUTH (FLY)

Data sources relevant to the study were products of an existing partnership, namely FLY (Flourishing Learning Youth)[1]. This partnership was originally part of a partnership between the Unit for Education Research and AIDS and rural schools in Mpumalanga (see photograph 3.5). The FLY partnership started in 2005. Currently it is funded by the National Research Foundation and its aims are twofold. On the one hand it delivers a pathway towards resilience in rural schools by being a platform for research;

[1] See lieselebersohn.org

on the other it provides an academic service learning (ASL) opportunity for MEd students in Educational Psychology.

Photograph 3.5:
Contextualising the research site

The research leg of the partnership is currently focused on risk and resilience in rural schools, and also on how various role players experience long-term partnerships with universities and organisations. Important topics of focus for the partnership involve indigenous and multicultural pathways to resilience in rural schools, and indigenous and multicultural psychological assessment and therapy tools. The risk and resilience foci of the research include learners, teachers and caregivers. The current study contributes to the research focus of indigenous and multicultural psychology by investigating the first sand tray as an Educational Psychology tool in identifying risk and resilience in youth at a rural school. Other research currently being conducted in the same realm also using the sand tray technique is: *The second sand tray as educational psychology technique with rural school youth.* The researcher responsible for this study, and I, have been acting as field workers in each other's research.

Various publications have already been made from the platform of FLY. Some relate to school violence (Cherrington, 2010), teaching and literacy (Du Plessis, 2013), community engagement and academic service learning (Ebersöhn et al., 2010), as well as resilience, poverty and education (Loots et al., 2010; Ebersöhn, 2012). Some outputs extremely relevant to the South African context in general relate to HIV/AIDS challenges in schools and homes (Loots, Ebersöhn, Ferreira, & Eloff, 2012; Boeving, Finestone, Eloff, Sipsma, Makin, Triplett, & Ebersöhn, 2013). Other outputs relate to those of tools used in Educational Psychology; they include dissertations titled *The utility of a narrative approach to establish therapeutic alliance in a cross-cultural setting* (Malan, 2011), and *Die bruikbaarheid van liggaamsportrette vir kruis-kulturele loopbaanfasilitering*[2] (Van der Walt, 2013). Further titles generated through the FLY partnership include *Sustaining teacher career resilience in a resource-constrained rural*

[2] The utility of body portraits for cross-cultural career facilitation

education setting: A retrospective study (Coetzee, 2014), and *Exploring the relationship between counselling skills and memory work with primary school children* (Mnguni, 2006). Various other research studies that flow from the FLY partnership are currently being conducted. Research currently being undertaken includes studies on resilience, and also on Educational Psychology tools. Authors engaged in current studies include Christelle Huddle, Keziah Coetzer, Corneli Oosthuizen, Eugene Machimana and Marli Edwards.

3.4.2 ACADEMIC SERVICE LEARNING (ASL)

Academic Service Learning is a practical learning experience for students in a community (Bringle, 2002). The aim of ASL is not only to help the students reach certain programme outcomes and to apply theory, but also to support community development (Berger-Kaye, 2004). It is therefore a learning experience where both students and communities could benefit and develop (Bringle, 2002). Academic service learning has been found to be beneficial while the partnership exists, but it also has long-term effects long after the partnership has ceased (Strage, 2004). ASL and how it was applied in the current study will now be discussed.

Since 2006, MEd Educational Psychology students from the University of Pretoria have been visiting the school twice each year as part of an academic service learning programme for a career guidance module. The first visit of the year revolves around educational psychology assessment and the second visit around educational psychology therapeutic intervention (see Table 3.1), to support youth in their emotional, academic, and future career challenges. In 2013, I accompanied the ASL students on both site visits (my role is clarified in Table 3.1). The assessment visit took place on 17 to 19 April 2013 (six hours daily), and the therapy visit on 11 to 13 September 2013 (four hours daily), constituting a total of four days (20 hours) spent at the site.

I met with Liesel Ebersöhn, principal investigator of FLY and supervisor of the academic service learning programme, in the evenings before daily site visits, for a briefing on the research setting and to discuss my research responsibilities. I captured my own meaning-making of these meetings in a researcher diary (Appendix B). During these meetings the roles and objectives of different role players attending the site were discussed and agreed upon, as presented in Table 3.1. My primary research objectives for the assessment visit were (i) to obtain data on how the first sand tray of youth at a rural school can be analysed for indicators of risk and resilience, and (ii) to gain insight into the context of the clients participating in the sandplay activity with ASL students. For the intervention visit, my research objectives revolved around acting as field worker for other researchers conducting their research at the same rural school (see Table 3.1 for clear role delineation).

Photograph 3.6:
Figurines ready for use

Photograph 3.7:
Empty sand trays ready for use

Photograph 3.8:
Example of completed sand tray from client file 1

Photograph 3.8:
Example of completed sand tray from client file 2

Table 3.1: Objectives and roles of FLY team members during 2013 school site visits

Visits	17-19 April 2013	11-13 September 2013
Objectives of ASL students	Educational psychology assessment of Grade 9 clients, with the inclusion of psychometric, as well as postmodern measures such as sandplay (see Appendix L for full assessment battery)	1. Provide feedback to Grade 9 clients assessed during April. Including: a) Recommended subject choices b) Information on possible careers c) Emotional support where necessary 2. Therapeutic intervention including support with: a) Grief and bereavement b) Positive self-concept c) Career aspirations d) Hopefulness
Roles of ASL students in terms of sandplay	• The ASL students provided their group of Grade 9 clients with the instructions on sandplay as well as elicited client narratives pertaining to the clients' sand trays. • The ASL students furthermore reflected on the sand trays and relating narratives as produced by the clients.	• The ASL students provided their group of Grade 9 clients with the instructions on sandplay as well as elicited client narratives pertaining to the clients' sand trays. • The ASL students furthermore reflected on the sand trays and relating narratives as produced by the clients and noted progression between the clients' first (created in April 2013) and second (created in September 2014) sand trays.
FLY field workers 2013	Field workers included: • Keziah Coetzer • Marinei Nel • Marli Edwards • Eugene Machimana The roles of the field workers included: • Sorting and preparing the sand trays and miniature figurines for clients to create a picture in a sand tray (see photographs 3.6 and 3.7)	Field workers included: • Corneli Oosthuizen • Keziah Coetzer • Marinei Nel • Marli Edwards • Eugene Machimana The roles of the field workers included: • Disassembling the sand trays before the next client starts to build their scene in the sand

Visits	17-19 April 2013	11-13 September 2013
	• Disassembling the sand trays before the next client starts to build their scene in the sand • Taking photographs of completed client sand trays (see photographs 3.8 and 3.9 for examples of completed sand trays) • Capturing client narratives by transcribing the client narrative verbatim (see Appendix A)	• Taking photographs of completed client sand trays • Capturing client narratives by transcribing the client narrative verbatim (see Appendix A)
My research objectives	My objectives during the first visit were to: • Document observational data on the first sand trays made by Grade 9 clients (document as client narratives, visual data, and ASL student reflections) • Observe the ASL context in the rural school (documented as visual data, see relevant photograph) • Observe the administration process of sandplay by ASL students (documented as visual data and research diary, see relevant photograph).	My objectives during the second visit were to: • Further observe and gain insight into the ASL context in the rural school (documented in my research diary, see Appendix B) • Assist in data collection for FLY on the second sand tray as a focus on a peer's study (Keziah Coetzer)
Role of the Grade 9 clients	The clients participated in various activities that allowed them to get to know themselves better and to create a future path for them.	The clients participated in various activities that supported them in their personal growth and career development.

3.4.2.1 Administering the first sand tray

Each of the 11 ASL students provided educational psychology services to a group of Grade 9 clients. The clients were allowed to choose the group they wanted to belong to, resulting in mixed-gender groups. The groups ranged in size from six to 14 clients per group. The ASL students were responsible for administering the sandplay technique with their group of clients as part of a comprehensive educational psychology battery (Appendix L). Most of the clients were SiSwati speaking. However, as English is the language of teaching and learning at the school, clients and ASL students communicated in English (Department of Basic Education, 1997). Three of the ASL students were proficient in African languages (SiSwati and Northern Sotho). Consequently these ASL students were able to also use Northern Sotho and SiSwati interchangeably with English during assessment.

Although the clients were divided into groups, during the sandplay activity each client was provided with their own empty sand tray at a central point, the 'sandplay station' (photographs 3.6 and 3.7). Various figurines were then provided in tubs, arranged by category (for example farm animals, trees, etc.), from which the client could choose (see photograph 3.6 for the array of figurines). Each client had a sand tray in which they could complete their creation (photograph 3.2). The ASL student gave the following standard instruction to clients: "Make a picture in the sand with the figurines and objects you choose. The picture does not have to be anything specific." (See Chapter 2 in reference to sandplay administration.) Each of the 11 client groups had approximately 30 minutes to complete their picture in the sand tray. After completion of the sand tray, the ASL student responsible for the specific group took photographs of each client's sand tray (see photographs 3.8 and 3.9), and asked the client to tell a story (narrative) about the picture they created in the sand tray. If the clients found it difficult to produce their narratives, probing questions were allowed. Wherever ASL students found it difficult to tend to all clients, field workers assisted (Boik, & Goodwin, 2000; Turner, & Unnsteinsdottir, 2011). Probing questions included: where the client saw themselves in the tray, whether the feeling the picture evoked was happy or sad, and what specific figurines meant to the client. The ASL student documented the narratives of the clients by making verbatim notes (see Appendix A). In some cases the clients requested to tell their narrative in their mother tongue. In those cases the ASL students audio-recorded the narrative, and translators (ASL students and field workers adept in SiSwati and Northern Sotho) were used to translate the narrative into English. Field workers assisted ASL students with this process of data collection. After the raw information was recorded, the ASL students reflected on their observations of completed sand trays and narratives individually (Appendix C). These reflections were documented in client files (Appendix J). ASL students reflected in the language they felt most comfortable in, resulting in ten ASL students reflecting in English and one in Afrikaans.

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

An instrumental case study design was used with the case defined as 'the first sand trays of Grade 9 clients generated as part of a group-based educational psychology ASL programme at a rural school'.

The primary use of an instrumental case study is to understand a particular phenomenon, rather than the case itself (Mills, Durepos, & Wiebe, 2010). The phenomenon I investigated was risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school. Instrumental case studies allow a researcher to offer a detailed description of a particular site, individual, group, or occupation (Merriam, 1998; Mills et al., 2010). The research was conducted at a particular rural school (site) with a group of Grade 9 clients.

Case studies contribute to knowledge relating to the phenomena being studied, and do not merely provide a description (Yin, 2003). Case study research investigates a contemporary phenomenon in a real-world context, while allowing for multiple sources of data to be used (Platt, 2007; Yin, 2003). It is a multi-faceted investigation of a phenomenon, thus a study conducted in great detail (Platt, 2007).

A strength of a case study design is that the singular criterion for the selection of cases is the opportunity to learn (Fouché, 2005). Cases were therefore selected based on the richness of the data the cases delivered in relation to the research questions (see 3.4.3.1 and Appendix J). Thus, cases were sampled purposefully to include the phenomena of risk and resilience.

According to Yin (2004), case studies allow a researcher to answer *why* and *how* questions, providing the design with a benefit over others that answer only surface questions. The mentioned characteristic can also be seen in this study, as I attempted to answer *how* risk and resilience can be seen in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school.

Limited generalisability of a case study design is one of its weaknesses (Stark, & Torrance, 2005). I addressed this issue by explaining in detail the research conducted, allowing readers to form their own judgement of the naturalistic generalisability of the findings (Stark, & Torrance, 2005). Another possible challenge to the quality of a case study is the question of boundaries (Stark, & Torrance, 2005). I, the researcher, attempted to address the challenge by clearly explaining the boundaries of the research at hand and the related context of the study.

The secondary school research site was sampled by means of convenient sampling as part of the existing partnership, FLY. Convenient sampling refers to sampling that takes place due to the easy availability and accessibility of the site (Maree, & Pietersen, 2007a). The population from which case sampling was done,

was selected by means of a convenient sample, implying that the population elements were selected based on easy and convenient availability (Maree, & Pietersen, 2007b).

3.5.1 SAMPLING OF SAND TRAYS

As is apparent from discussions above, data considered in each case were obtained in a group-based format, by ASL students administering the first sand tray. Each ASL student compiled a client file after the assessment visit to the secondary school. The client files contained all the data obtained from each client through the assessment battery (Appendix L), including data relating to the sand trays. The client files contain the raw data obtained through the assessment battery, a client report pertaining to the client's subject choice and career development, a photograph of the completed sand tray, the client's narrative relating to the sand tray, and the ASL student's reflection on the sand tray. These client files are stored at the Educational Psychology Training Facility of the University of Pretoria (see section 3.4.1). The first sand tray from the client files was sampled by means of a non-probability purposive sampling process (Maree, & Pietersen, 2007a). The term *non-probability sampling* refers to the form of sampling that does not make use of randomised techniques to select a sample (Bryman, 2001). Purposive sampling implies that the client files were selected because they had some identifiable characteristic that made them applicable to the study (Daniel, 2012; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b). Purposive sampling was used because it allowed me to select client files in which the phenomena of risk and resilience were most likely to occur within the sand trays (Silverman, 2004). Purposive sampling therefore contains information-rich samples from which the researcher can gain a great deal of insight about the inquiry (Patton, 2002). Table 3.2 shows a breakdown of client information and other available relevant information.

Table 3.2: Breakdown of client information

ASL Student	ASL student home language	ASL student gender	Clients	Gender	Age	Client home language	Complete client file (visual data, client narrative, ASL student reflection, demographic information)
Student A	Afrikaans	Female	1	Female	14	SiSwati	/
			2	Female	17	SiSwati	/
			3	Female	16	SiSwati	/
			4	Female	16	isiZulu	/
			5	Female	16	SiSwati	/
			6	Female	14	SiSwati	/
Student B	Afrikaans	Male	1	Male	14	SiSwati	/
			2	Male	16	SiSwati	/
			3	Male	16	SiSwati	/
			4	Male	15	SiSwati	/
			5	Male	16	SiSwati	/
			6	Male	14	SiSwati	/
			7	Male	15	SiSwati	/
Student C	Afrikaans	Female	1	Male	17	SiSwati	/
			2	Male	15	SiSwati	/
			3	Male	16	SiSwati	/
			4	Male	15	SiSwati	/
			5	Male	16	SiSwati	/
			6	Male	14	SiSwati	/
			7	Male	14	SiSwati	/

ASL Student	ASL student home language	ASL student gender	Clients	Gender	Age	Client home language	Complete client file (visual data, client narrative, ASL student reflection, demographic information)
Student D	Afrikaans	Female	1	Female	13	SiSwati	/
			2	Female	15	SiSwati	/
			3	Female	14	SiSwati	/
			4	Female	15	SiSwati	/
			5	Female	16	SiSwati	/
			6	Female	13	SiSwati	/
Student E	Sepedi	Female	1	Female	18	SiSwati	/
			2	Female	17	SiSwati	/
			3	Female	15	SiSwati	/
			4	Female	15	SiSwati	/
			5	Female	14	SiSwati	/
			6	Female	17	isiZulu	/
			7	Female	15	SiSwati	/
			8	Female	14	isiZulu	/
			9	Female	15	SiSwati	/
			10	Female	14	SiSwati	/
Student F	English	Female	1	Female	15	SiSwati	-
			2	Female	16	SiSwati	-
			3	Female	18	SiSwati	-
			4	Female	13	SiSwati	-
			5	Female	13	SiSwati	-
			6	Female	16	SiSwati	-

ASL Student	ASL student home language	ASL student gender	Clients	Gender	Age	Client home language	Complete client file (visual data, client narrative, ASL student reflection, demographic information)
			7	Female	17	SiSwati	-
			8	Female	16	SiSwati	-
			9	Female	16	SiSwati	-
Student G	Afrikaans	Female	1	Female	14	SiSwati	-
			2	Female	15	SiSwati	-
			3	Female	16	SiSwati	-
			4	Female	16	SiSwati	-
			5	Female	15	SiSwati	-
			6	Female	16	SiSwati	-
			7	Female	18	SiSwati	-
			8	Female	15	SiSwati	-
			9	Female	15	SiSwati	-
			10	Female	18	SiSwati	-
Student H	Sepedi	Female	1	Male	18	SiSwati	/
			2	Male	18	SiSwati	/
			3	Male	18	SiSwati	/
			4	Male	17	SiSwati	/
			5	Male	19	SiSwati	/
			6	Male	18	SiSwati	/
			7	Male	18	SiSwati	/
			8	Male	18	SiSwati	/
			9	Male	16	SiSwati	/

ASL Student	ASL student home language	ASL student gender	Clients	Gender	Age	Client home language	Complete client file (visual data, client narrative, ASL student reflection, demographic information)
			10	Male	17	isiZulu	/
Student I	Sepedi	Female	1	Male	20	isiZulu	-
			2	Male	19	SiSwati	-
			3	Male	16	SiSwati	-
			4	Male	17	SiSwati	-
			5	Male	15	SiSwati	-
			6	Male	18	SiSwati	-
			7	Male	17	SiSwati	-
			8	Male	19	SiSwati	-
			9	Male	17	SiSwati	-
Student J	Sepedi	Female	6	-	-	-	-
Student K	Afrikaans	Male	7	-	-	-	-
Student L	Afrikaans	Male	7	-	-	-	-
12	Afrikaans: 7 English: 1 Sepedi: 4	Female: 9 Male: 3	94	Female: 41 Male: 33	≤15: 31 >15: 43	SiSwati: 69 isiZulu: 5	Complete files: 46

Purposive sampling was used for the study specifically in order to be able to sample client files which were most likely to contain indicators of risk and resilience. The sample size of the client files depended on the richness of the ASL data. The inclusion criteria for selecting client files of first sand trays included how (a) compositionally interesting the trays looked[3], (b) whether the clients provided a complete and descriptive narrative for the tray and, (c) comprehensively written observations by ASL students on what they observed in the trays and the narrative, as well as (d) written ASL reflections on the figurines used (see Appendix J for a comparison between client files that were considered to have complete first sand tray information and those that were regarded as incomplete regarding the first sand tray), (e) and whether demographic information was available. ASL data included 94 client files. From the 94 client files, 25 client files from five of the ASL students were selected for in-depth data analysis. Three of the ASL students were white Afrikaans females, one a white Afrikaans male, and one a black Northern Sotho female, limiting the ASL student sample to primarily white Afrikaans females. This limitation is noted in Chapter 5 of the current dissertation. In Table 3.3 the composition of the sampled client files are delineated.

[3] The term *compositionally interesting* refers to the way in which the space in the sand tray was used. This includes whether the whole tray was used or whether only parts of the tray were used. Trays in which the entire surface, or only the centre of the tray is used can be regarded as compositionally relevant (Grubbs, 2005).

Table 3.3: Composition of sampled client files and ASL student information

Client file	≤15	>15	Male	Female	Visual data (photograph)	Verbatim narrative by ASL	Verbatim narrative by field worker	Audio recording of narrative by ASL	ASL student reflection
1	/			/	/	/			/
2		/		/	/	/			/
3		/		/	/	/			/
4		/		/	/	/			/
5		/		/	/	/			/
6		/		/	/	/			/
7		/	/		/	/			/
8		/	/		/	/			/
9	/		/		/	/			/
10		/	/		/	/			/
11		/	/		/	/			/
12	/		/		/	/			/
13		/	/		/		/		/
14		/	/		/		/		/
15	/		/		/		/		/
16	/		/		/		/		/
17	/			/	/		/		/
18	/			/	/		/		/
19	/			/	/		/		/
20		/		/	/		/		/
21	/			/	/			/	/
22	/			/	/			/	/
23	/			/	/			/	/
24	/			/	/			/	/
25	/			/	/			/	/
Total: 25	**13**	**12**	**10**	**15**	**25**	**12**	**8**	**5**	**25**

A limitation of purposive sampling is that the findings may not be generalised (Mertens, 1998). I addressed this by clearly delineating the sampling criteria to increase transferability. Another challenge of purposive sampling is that sampling can be done incorrectly if insufficient information exists on the current population (Daniel, 2012). Due to the research forming part of an existing partnership, sufficient information on the population existed.

3.5.2 DATA GENERATION

As is apparent in earlier discussion, the data sources (client files) from which sampling took place were generated by the ASL students. The first sand tray data sources in client files consisted of:

- visually documented sand trays (photographs)
- client narratives (documented verbatim by ASL students and field workers, see Appendix A)
- ASL student reflections (documented as written documents, see Appendix C)

The latter (ASL student reflections) are based on the visual data source (photographs of completed sand trays captured by ASL students and field workers) as well as on the client narratives of the sand trays. The ASL student reflections included were guided by reflecting on the use of figurines, the sand tray itself, and how the use of figurines and sand tray space relate to the expressed life world of the client (Appendix D). The strengths and limitations of each data source are discussed below.

3.5.2.1 Client narratives of sand trays

As indicated in Table 3.1, field workers and ASL students collected client narratives from Grade 9 clients. Clients shared their narratives about the completed sand tray verbally, and the narratives were then audio-recorded or noted down verbatim by ASL students and field workers (see Appendix A for examples). The narratives served as a platform for clients to express their meaning regarding the sand tray scene they created. The ASL students used the client narratives for assessment information about client interests, strengths and resources. As researcher, I used the narratives as a data source to describe how clients express risk and protective resources (or resilience) in the first sand trays during multicultural educational psychology assessment at a rural school.

The client narratives are personal documents, in which the characteristics of the clients and their perception of their own life worlds find expression (Elliot, 2005). Through these documents, the ASL students came to know the clients and the clients' perceptions of the sand trays they had created (Elliot, 2005; Strydom, & Delport, 2005). Client narratives were thus used to understand the sand tray and the clients' views of themselves in their own life worlds from their own perspectives. The client narratives brought the ASL

students closer to the real experience of the clients by allowing the creator of the sand tray (the client) to ascribe meaning to the visible scene (Schiff, 2007). In the current study narratives were solicited, providing ASL students with the opportunity to gain insight into the meanings that clients ascribed to their own sand trays, including expressions of risk and resilience (Strydom, & Delport, 2005).

An advantage of narratives is that it allows the researcher to probe into the heart of the phenomenon being studied (Strydom, & Delport, 2005). It thus allowed me to probe into indicators of risk and resilience as expressed in a multicultural educational psychology assessment of youth from a rural school. A possible limitation of narratives in the current research, however, is that of language barriers (Mills et al., 2010). As stated earlier, the majority of the ASL students were from different cultural backgrounds and spoke different languages than the clients at the secondary rural school. This can influence the quality of the narratives as the clients gave a verbal account of the completed sand tray and students then recorded these by means of verbatim note-taking and audio-recordings. A language barrier can lead to a breakdown in communication. To address this challenge, the students worked together with peers fluent in Northern Sotho and SiSwati to assist in translations when required. Pavlenko (2008) states that, despite multilingual contexts, narratives continue to contribute great value to research. Narratives provide researchers with the opportunity to ask clarifying questions and to understand the meaning the clients ascribe to words, despite different languages (Bold, 2012). This was also the case in the current research as the ASL students recorded the narratives verbatim from the clients' verbal account of the completed sand tray. This allowed the ASL students to ask the clients to clarify a specific meaning, and also to see what the clients tended to call different figurines.

Despite the steps that were taken to address the limitations of narratives in research, some other limitations were noted during the specific research study. Due to the multilingual setting in which the research was conducted, the narratives provided by clients were concrete in the sense that clients' narratives remained on a level of merely describing the scene they created in the sand tray. Furthermore, the sandplay assessment activity made use of field workers in conjunction with the ASL students conducting the educational psychology assessment. Although this enabled communication across language differences, some ASL students over-relied on field workers. This over-reliance limits the quality of narratives by the clients because the clients did not have a relationship with the field workers. By not having a relationship with the field workers the space in which the story telling took place no longer felt safe to clients, inhibiting expression of their inner life worlds (Dunn-Fierstein, 2008; Gallerani, & Dybicz, 2011).

3.5.2.2 Observation of the first sand tray process and product: visual documentation

Observations about the context and process of administering the first sand tray were documented by means of photographs taken by both ASL students and field workers (see photographs 3.1 to 3.7). The purpose of the visually documented observations of the first sand tray was to gather information about the process of ASL students and clients conducting sand trays to represent clients' inner life worlds. The observations served the purpose of capturing the process while it was happening, but also allowing for the processes to be reviewed later (Mertens, 2010). The observations provided a first-hand experience of the phenomenon being studied (Merriam, 2002b). Using observations enabled the researcher to take into account the environment and view the participants' sand trays as part of a larger system of ASL services at the rural school (Merriam, 2009). Observations allow insight into dynamics not necessarily discussed when data are generated by means of verbal methods. This means that observational data provided rich insight as it was raw visual data that was not influenced by the social evaluation of what meaning is expected from the clients by the ASL students (Merriam, 2002a; Merriam, 2009). For the purpose of the study, observations were used to gain insight into the physical setting, and the meaning clients attach to the first sand tray, as well as subtle factors such as symbolic connotations to words and figurines (Merriam, 2009).

The visual observations were documented by means of photographs. A photograph is a record of the subject, event, context or phenomenon at a particular moment in time (Harper, 2004). The photographs were taken of the school context to provide insight into the school context in which the rural youth find themselves; the sand tray administration to visually document the processes followed by the ASL students and field workers; and the completed first sand trays in order to have a permanent record to place in the client files (photographs 3.1 to 3.7). By observing the context, the administration of the first sand tray, as well as the completed product of the sand tray, indicators of risk and resilience in the first sand tray can be understood in the context of the rural youth and through the specific processes used to administer the sand trays to clients.

Taking photographs or drawing the completed scene is typical in sandplay administration (Kalff, 2003). Photographs provide not only a representation of factual data but also evoke meaning and reflection (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Visual data in the form of photographs were selected as a data source as it provides support for other data and inferences (Cohen et al., 2011). Photographs provide a way to represent a specific reality; the representation becomes permanent as it is captured as an image (Mitchell, Theron, Stuart, Smith, & Campbell, 2011; Taylor, & Francis, 2013). The visual data supplemented the narrative and reflective data sources as it provided the visual image of the sand trays discussed in the client narratives and the ASL student reflections.

Visual data was included in the research as it provided a visual perspective of data sources and allowed me to use certain parts of the data (Malan, 2011). Taking photographs provided me with the means of sustained analysis as well as evidence for future reference in terms of analysis made regarding a certain photograph (Terre Blanche, & Kelly, 2002).

A strength of observation is that the documentation of observation can be adapted as the observed situation changes (Mertens, 2010). By taking photographs, the changes in the creations could thus be documented as they occurred. Furthermore, visual observations could be supplemented with written observations if necessary. Observations further allowed for the naturalistic observation of conducting the first sand tray with rural school youth (Angrosino, & Rosenberg, 2011). A benefit of using photographs is that it is time-efficient (Cohen et al., 2011). In this study it was applied in that the ASL students could take the photographs and reflect on them at a later stage, and that I did not have to be present at the completion of each sand tray to be able to view the completed tray – saving a large amount of time.

A challenge of observations was that interpretations based on observations can be subjective, and being observed could influence the behaviour of clients (Mertens, 2010). The ASL students and field workers were also vulnerable to influences by the setting and the behaviour of clients (Merriam, 2009). Observations and visual data can complicate the role of the researcher as it is not as clearly delineated as it is for instance when interviewing participants (Fielding, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2011). I addressed these challenges by using observations captured as visual data, but also keeping a research diary to reflect on the process of sand tray administration and the challenges it posed. A challenge of using photographs was that the meaning ascribed to the photograph by the client could possibly differ from that of the ASL students (Taylor, & Francis, 2013). The study at hand did not present the extreme of this limitation as the photograph was of a completed sand tray, and the clients were given opportunity to describe their own experience and meaning of the sand tray in a narrative. An issue to be wary of, relating to photographs, is that of confidentiality and anonymity. In the study this is addressed by taking photographs of the completed sand trays only and not of the client who completed the particular sand tray (Mitchell et al., 2011; Taylor, & Francis, 2013).

3.5.2.3 ASL student reflections on visual data (photographs) and client narratives

In reflection, the personal and professional knowledge of the ASL students are used to construe meaning without the client's knowing (Dallos, & Stedmon, 2009; Davy, 2010). As mentioned earlier, the ASL students documented their reflections in writing included in the client files (see Appendix C for examples of ASL students' reflections). The ASL students' reflections included reflections on their acquired knowledge of sand trays as well as their personal experiences of the sand tray and client narrative (see Figure 3.1). Students used checklists and guidelines provided by their supervisor to reflect on the sand trays (see

Appendix D). The strength of reflective practice is that it allowed the ASL students to be critical, self-critical and ethical – especially important in the realm of psychology (Dallos, & Stedmon, 2009). Reflection allows for various senses and processes to be involved at once to come to a point of understanding (Dallos, & Stedmon, 2009). By reflecting on the completed sand trays and the client narratives the ASL students could use their senses and cognitive processes to make meaning as they have had time to process and were not pressured by context and time as they would have been if they merely interpreted the data on site. By reflecting on their thoughts and the sandplay administration process, the ASL students contributed to the research process as it makes replication and verification of findings possible (Merriam, 2002a). Reflections include: situational reflections, word reflections, body reflections, facial reflections, and reiterative reflections. This implies reflections on the context, the meeting, the body language, the expression and the words of that which is reflected on (Mearns, & Thorne, 2007).

Reflection by ASL student D, from client file 17

- Use sand only at first
- Builds a double border for protection or security, feels insecure and needs to set boundaries or very religious and conservative, strict rules, must be a good girl. The boundaries refer to the boundaries and rules that are already in her life, like through her church and mother. The boundaries might help her to remain a good girl
- Dangerous animals = threatening
- Boundary on inside of tray, boundary around waterhole.
- Vegetable and plant stage
- Spiritual – angel, start
- Unpeopled scene – feeling of alienation, fear or threat.
- One human figure – male – maybe indications of her lost father because the figure looks lost and alone.
- Dried waterhole in the centre of the tray – desert scene
- Signs of danger – she says that this place she built is a dangerous place, two borders, angel, star, also protective figures. Many of the dangerous animals like sharks and snakes are in the hole with the border around as well as high dam walls to keep them in
- Danger is thus contained at this stage but at what cost?
- Maybe danger inside her of not being a good girl anymore if all the anger and the nasty things inside come out. Anger against father, strict church, failing school.

Figure 3.1: Example of ASL student reflection

3.5.3 DATA ANALYSIS

For the purpose of this study, inductive thematic analysis was used to analyse the verbatim client narratives, visual observations (photographs), and the ASL students' reflections (see Appendix K for examples of analysis of all three data types). Thematic analysis is a systemic approach in qualitative research for identifying themes or patterns of meaning (Braun, & Clarke, 2006; Mills et al., 2010). Thematic analysis is a process for encoding information. The code can be a list of recurrent themes or even a model of themes (Boyatzis, 1998). A theme is a pattern discovered in the information that organises or describes the phenomenon at least, or interprets it at most (Boyatzis, 1998). When themes are inductively noted they arise out of the raw data (Boyatzis, 1998; Nieuwenhuis, 2007a).

Inductive thematic analysis has the advantage of not limiting the researcher to a specific design of qualitative research, allowing the researcher to contribute to the body of knowledge in whatever way the data analysis delivers and builds on new knowledge (Braun, & Clarke, 2006; Willig, 2013). Another strength of inductive thematic analysis that made it useful to the current study is that, although the analysis is guided by the data, literature can be used to inform the analysis even when a strict theoretical coding frame is not followed (Willig, 2013).

The assumed high level of interpretation can be a challenge for inductive thematic analysis (Willig, 2013). I addressed this by consulting literature on the topic of risk and resilience beforehand to gain a thorough understanding of the phenomenon in order to avoid uninformed, interpretative analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A peer was also involved in the coding by serving as a co-coder to contribute to the validity of the codes.

3.5.3.1 Preparation of data sources

The client files, generated during ASL sessions, were provided to me as data sources. My fellow researchers and I captured the client files electronically. Data sources included observational data (photographs), client narratives, as well as the ASL students' reflections. Each client file was then saved as a separate MS-Word document.

3.5.3.2 Inductive analysis

To categorise information inductively is to develop categories as they arise from material (Mayring, 2004). With inductive analysis one moves from the particular to the general; thereby, observations in data are transformed into patterns (De Vos, & Delport, 2005). Thus, a sample is reviewed to find patterns to inform about a specific topic being studied (De Vos, & Delport, 2005). Inductive analysis allows for the researcher

to investigate multiple realities and to gain an in-depth understanding of the subject being studied, and allows for variation and creativity rather than limiting findings to what is already known about a certain topic or phenomenon (Braun, & Clarke, 2006; Maree, & Van Der Westhuizen, 2007).

Inductive analysis allowed me to gain an in-depth understanding of risk and resilience as indicated in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school, rather than binding me to what is already known about risk and resilience, but also not ignoring it. Inductive analysis techniques approach data without a preconceived theoretical coding frame, as the analysis is firmly grounded in the data (Braun, & Clarke, 2006; Willig, 2013). With inductive analysis it becomes possible to add a new thought to the research that was not necessarily contained in the premise (De Vos, & Delport, 2005). In inductive analysis a theme does not necessarily have to be in every data set; it is merely something that carries sufficient importance in the data overall as it pertains to the research (Braun, & Clarke, 2006). This was also the preferred definition of a theme in the current study.

An example of inductive analysis from the current research was that various participants referred to animals, people, or valuable possessions that needed protection: “it is more safe (sic) there, guard to look after animals” (15), “the cars need to be protected” (20). The reference to the need for protection created a theme relevant to the research as the threat the participants experienced was an indicator of risk.

3.5.3.3 Coding and creating themes

The broad process followed to code and generate themes are explained and demonstrated in Braun and Clarke (2006). According to these authors, there are six phases in conducting a thematic analysis:

> *Phase 1*: *Familiarising oneself with the data* – involves transcribing the data where necessary as well as reading and re-reading the data and noting down initial ideas.

I progressed through this phase by actively reading (Braun, & Clarke, 2006) through the narratives of all 94 clients and the corresponding reflections of the postgraduate Educational Psychology students, while referring back to the photographs of the completed sand tray concerned. The process was done once before sampling and conducting the analysis. I then read through the sampled client files twice more to gain an understanding of the data in its entire breadth and depth, and to create initial ideas on risk and resilience as presented in the completed sand tray before formally conducting the analysis. The initial ideas that arose were recorded by making brief notes on the data whenever a salient aspect was observed. I read through the data sources two more times to get more thoroughly acquainted with the content and then used a red

pen to mark possible indicators of risk and a green pen for possible indicators of resilience (protective resources, see Appendix E).

Phase 2: Generating initial codes – coding interesting data in a systemic manner across the data set, and collating the data relevant to each code.

A code presents a characteristic of the data that appears interesting to the analyst with regard to the research topic (Braun, & Clarke, 2006; Nieuwenhuis, 2007a). It is the most basic segment of the raw data that holds significant meaning (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a). I conducted this phase by reading through the data to find units that represent meaning in relation to risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school. A coding list was then created where a code was given a specific number that represented the code. If another unit of data then showed the same meaning as a specific code, the relevant number was ascribed to the unit. Data sets were systemically worked through, and by paying detailed attention to each data unit, codes were ascribed to meaningful segments. When repeated patterns and meaningful units reoccurred a note was made in order to support the generation of themes. After coding, the researcher collated the different codes with one another in terms of similarity and difference (see Appendix F).

Phase 3: Searching for themes – collating codes into potential themes, thus gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.

Searching for themes took place by while reading though the codes and identifying larger patterns to which the codes could belong. I did this by analysing the codes for their meaning and that which they represented (Braun, & Clarke, 2006). The meanings of the codes were then combined into sub-themes for overarching themes (Braun, & Clarke, 2006). It was therefore the relationship between codes that supported the identification of themes. The themes were then identified as primary themes and sub-themes, with primary themes housing codes of substantial meaning relating to risk and resilience in the first sand tray of rural youth, and sub-themes housing codes supporting the primary themes. Themes were identified by combining the meanings of codes, for instance, words such as *death, threat,* and *protection* were combined into the theme of violence and a need for protection (see Appendix G).

Phase 4: Reviewing the themes – generating a thematic map of analysis, checking whether themes work in relation to coded extracts as well as the whole data set.

Phase 4 was executed to refine the sub-themes identified in phase 3. This process resulted in some sub-themes collapsing into another amalgamating sub-theme, while other sub-themes were discarded because

of a lack of evidence and support. For instance, sub-themes of a safe home environment and fulfilled basic needs were collapsed into one sub-theme of fulfilled needs, as a safe home environment can be regarded as a basic need. It also appeared that some sub-themes needed to be broken down even further (Braun, & Clarke, 2006). The main aim of this phase was to create homogeneity within a sub-theme and heterogeneity between sub-themes (Braun, & Clarke, 2006). When there seemed to be a discrepancy within a sub-theme, between the codes, it was reviewed to determine whether the coded description of the theme needed revision, or the theme itself. This process led to some data extracts being moved to other sub-themes and some sub-themes themselves being revised. For instance, the sub-theme of violence and a need for protection was initially only termed "a need for protection". After I had completed phase 4, I re-read the data set to determine whether the sub-themes 'made sense' in relation to the data and whether some codes had been missed (Braun, & Clarke, 2006; see Appendix G).

Phase 5: Defining and naming themes – proceeding with on-going analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.

Phase 5 involved identifying the essence of each theme and sub-theme, and then what that theme represents holistically (Braun, & Clarke, 2006). To do this, I created an accompanying sheet for each theme and sub-theme in which I paraphrased examples but also identified what was of interest in each. The aim of this phase was to create a deep understanding about the scope and content of each theme. Inclusion criteria and names for sub-themes were generated during this phase (see Appendix G).

Phase 6: Produce the report – this is also a final opportunity for analysis, selecting vivid extracts and examples relating back to the research questions.

After the completion of the list of workable themes and sub-themes, the final write-up and interpretation of data commenced. Producing the report involves presenting one's data in a way so that it clarifies the topic which the research set out to investigate. Ultimately, the present dissertation is the report of the research undertaken.

3.5.4 QUALITY CRITERIA

I paid special attention to the following concepts which fall within the realms of qualitative research to ensure quality and validity of the research:

3.5.4.1 Credibility

According to Merriam (2009), credibility refers to the way in which the findings relate to the given data, and to reality as presented in the specific data set rather than reality in general, as it is ever-changing. Credibility means ensuring that there is a match between the views of the participants and the researcher's reconstruction and representation of their views (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché, & Delport, 2011). To ensure validity from a qualitative point of view, I visited the research site more than once to gain insight into the context (see section 3.4.1.1). As explained in section 3.4.3, using various data sources contributed to the credibility as the meanings of the participants, students, and myself, were all incorporated, and not just my own meaning of the sand trays.

3.5.4.2 Dependability/consistency

Merriam (2009) refers to consistency as the answer to the question as to how consistent the result of a study is to the data collected; therefore, the results obtained 'make sense' in relation to the data (Merriam, 2009). Dependability means ensuring that the research process is logical and well-documented (De Vos et al., 2011). One way to improve dependability is by means of triangulation, which implies using multiple methods of data collection (Merriam, 2009). In the current study, participant narratives, ASL student reflections and observations documented as visual data sources were used.

3.5.4.3 Confirmability

Confirmability means ensuring as far as possible that the findings of the study can be confirmed by another investigator; the findings therefore primarily flow from the data and not from the researcher (De Vos et al., 2011). One of the methods used in the research process to address confirmability is reflections. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), reflexivity can be described as the rigorous self-scrutiny by the analysts throughout the research process. My research diary includes several questions, insights and reflections I had during the research process (see Appendix B). It represents a running record of the way I was thinking, to be able to substantiate findings and understand the subjectivity or meaning making processes I followed (Merriam, 2002a). Keeping a research diary allowed me to increase the quality of my work based on reflexivity and analysing what worked best during the process of research. It also allowed me to record my thoughts to be able to review my thinking and elaborate on ideas that I otherwise might have forgotten (Merriam, 2009).

I used a research diary to jot down notes and reminders for myself while doing the data analysis. In addition, I wrote down decisions I made as well as the rationale for those decisions in case I would later need to defend my thinking. My research diary is a personal document that contains not only my thoughts

and feelings related to the research process, but also to the supervision process. This directed my thinking and provided me with the opportunity to integrate various viewpoints into my research (Gray, 2009). See Appendix B for an extract from my researcher's diary.

3.5.4.4 Transferability

This refers to the way in which the research and findings can be transferred to another context with similar conditions (Merriam, 2009). To be able to transfer to similar conditions, rich descriptions of conditions and processes of the current research are needed (Merriam, 2009). According to De Vos et al. (2011), transferability refers to whether the findings of the research can be transferred from a specific situation/case to another. Demonstrating transferability is however more in the hands of the transferring investigator than the original investigator (De Vos et al., 2011; Merriam, 2009). I increased transferability by providing a rich contextual explanation of the school setting, the ASL activities, and the sand trays sampled. A characteristic of a qualitative research design, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), is the thick, rich, descriptive data obtained through multiple research techniques, encompassing field notes, reflections and visual data. This method of cross-validation used in the study may allow the findings of this study to be used in another setting.

3.5.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In the present study the norms and principles of research regarding ethics were adhered to. The current research study attained ethical clearance within the FLY partnership[4]. Specific attention was paid to informed consent, prevention of harm, and anonymity and confidentiality.

3.5.5.1 Informed consent

The client narratives, ASL student reflections and visual observation data sources were obtained during a process which involved informed consent (see Appendix I). Not only was informed consent obtained from the ASL clients, but also from the Mpumalanga Department of Education, and the school principal. The research formed part of a larger project for which permission was obtained beforehand. Informed consent implies that participants were given information about the procedures in which they would be involved beforehand and were further informed that they could refuse to participate or could withdraw at any stage (Strydom, 2005; King, 2010). The clients who participated in the ASL activities (including the first sand tray) were given information on the processes followed, and the reasons for the ASL activities. None of the clients were coerced into participating or sharing a narrative relating to the completed sand tray. All the

[4] EP 07/02/04 FLY 13-002

clients participating in the ASL activities were both willing and able to provide consent for participation (Strydom, 2005).

3.5.5.2 Prevention of harm

The participants in the research were not harmed during participation in data collection (Strydom, 2005). No physical or emotional harm was induced as far as could be predicted and prevented, as the postgraduate students in Educational Psychology adhered to the ethical obligations as candidate psychologists. Within the realms of psychology there is always the possibility that assessment and intervention techniques may elicit emotional responses (Strydom, 2005). In the study this possibility and the harm it can cause were addressed by the fact that the postgraduate Educational Psychology students interacted with the clients on a continuous basis and were available for debriefing and intervention with clients as needed.

Not only was the avoidance of harm prominent throughout the research, but empowerment through research (McMillan, & Schumacher, 2010) was also addressed, in that sandplay is a psychotherapeutic technique, inherently therapeutic to those who participate in its administration.

3.5.5.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

I was sensitive to confidentiality and anonymity (King, 2010; McMillan, & Schumacher, 2010; Strydom, 2005). Personally identifiable information was anonymised as early as possible, and the information was and will not be used in ways irrelevant to the research questions (King, 2010). For the purpose of this study, confidentiality referred to the continuation of privacy, in that information of participants that was regarded as sensitive was not shared in reporting and was treated with respect throughout the process. Anonymity, referring to information represented in a private manner (Strydom, 2005), was upheld by the photographs being of the participants' sand trays alone and did not include any names or faces. The sand trays were numbered and therefore no identifying information appeared on the trays.

By adhering to anonymity and confidentiality after the research was conducted and a visual data source was viewed, neither I nor other individuals can identify the participant. The narratives and reflections are confidential in that only my team of supervisors and academic peers and I have access to identifying information (Strydom, 2005; King, 2010).

3.6 CONCLUSION

The chapter dealt with the metatheoretical and methodological stances from which I approached the research. It provided a description of the research design pertaining to the setting of the research, the processes involved, data collection and data analysis.

Finally, quality criteria and ethical norms were discussed. Throughout the chapter strengths and weaknesses of the methods, designs and decisions were provided as well as challenges that could be faced. The manner in which I addressed these challenges was also provided.

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CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH FINDINGS

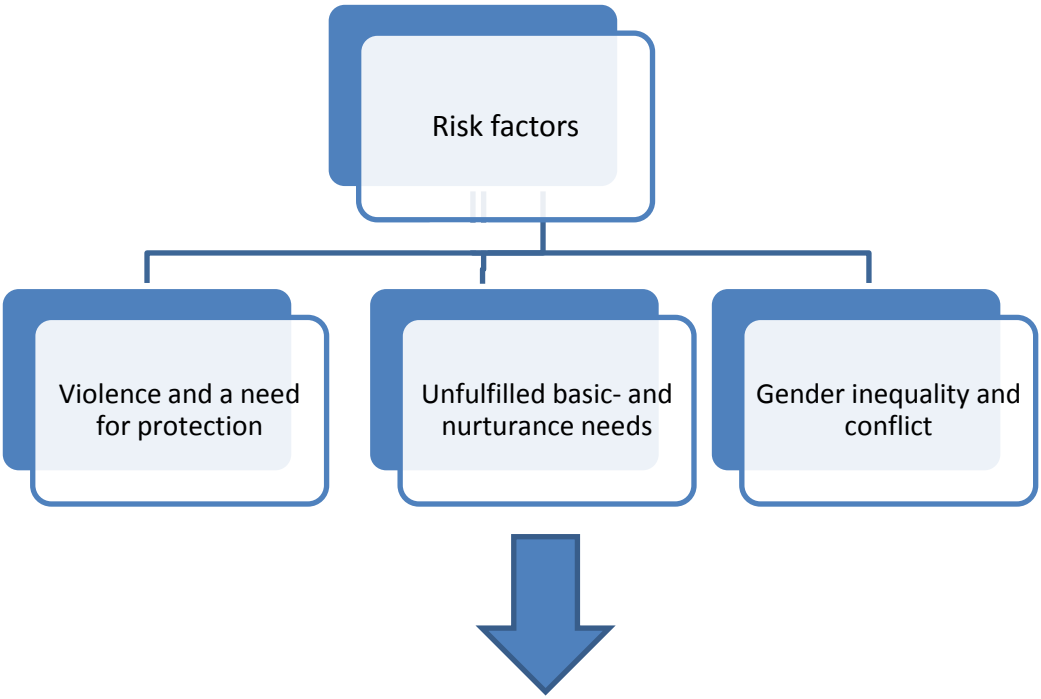
4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, I explained the process that was followed to analyse risk and resilience in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. I motivated my methodological decisions as it relates to the rationale of the research at hand. Also, the context and background of both the partnership in which the research took place and the clients from which client files were sampled, were discussed.

In this chapter, I discuss the data analysis results obtained from the different data sources used in the study. The data sources included observational data (photographs), client narratives and ASL student reflections. The results obtained with regard to analysing risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school are now discussed.

4.2 DATA RESULTS

In this section I describe the results following analysis of the qualitative data sources. The results are described by means of themes and sub-themes related to risk and resilience as analysed in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school. In figure 4.1 these findings are portrayed visually.



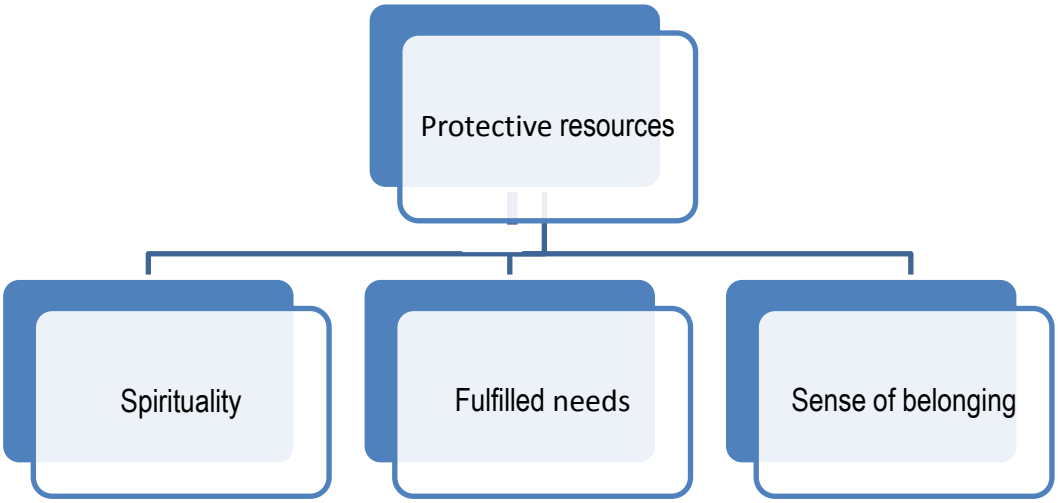


Figure 4.1: Visual representation of themes and sub-themes

4.2.1 RISK

As mentioned in Chapter 2, risk factors are those factors that challenge individuals or communities and serve as barriers to resilience (Ebersöhn, 2014; Masten, & Powell, 2003). The term *risk*, as identified in the first sand trays during inductive analysis, refers to pertinent challenges that clients experience in their lives and that could possibly have negative outcomes in the clients' lives. Various risk factor sub-themes emerged from analysis of the data sources. These sub-themes included violence and a need for protection, unfulfilled basic and nurturance needs, and gender inequality and conflict. I checked whether the sub-themes were present in the visual data, as well as in the client narratives and the ASL student reflections. I also looked at the distribution of gender and age of the clients. The results of the analysis regarding risk will now be discussed in more depth.

4.2.1.1 Risk factor sub-theme 1.1: Violence and a need for protection

Violence can be referred to as behaviour that threatens or intends to hurt other people (Pearson Education, 2004). Violence and a need for protection in the first sand trays refer to reference made in client files to violence, external threat and a need to be protected against these. In Table 4.1 the evidence is provided for identifying violence and a need for protection as a sub-theme of risk.

Table 4.1: Risk factor sub-theme 1.1: Violence and a need for protection

Violence and a need for protection					
Client file	**Age**	**Gender**	**Visual data**	**Narrative**	**Reflection**
1	≤15	F	/	/	/
2	>15	F	/	/	
3	>15	F	/	/	
4	>15	F	/	/	/
5	>15	F	/	/	/
6	>15	F		/	/
7	>15	M	/	/	/
8	>15	M	/	/	/
9	≤15	M	/	/	/
10	>15	M	/	/	/
11	>15	M	/	/	/
12	≤15	M	/	/	/
13	>15	M	/	/	/
14	>15	M	/		
15	≤15	M	/	/	
16	≤15	M	/	/	
17	≤15	F	/	/	/
18	≤15	F	/	/	/
19	≤15	F	/		/
20	>15	F	/	/	/
21	≤15	F	/	/	
22	≤15	F	/	/	
23	≤15	F		/	
24	≤15	F		/	
25	≤15	F	/	/	/
25	**≤15 →13 >15→12**	**M→10F→15**	**22**	**23**	**16**

From the table we can see that violence and a need for protection were identified in the client files of all 25 of the ASL clients. Ten males expressed the experience of violence and a need for protection, whereas 15 females expressed the same indicator of risk. Violence and a need for protection were identified in 13 ASL clients younger than or at the age of 15; nine of them were female and four male. The other 12 ASL clients were older than the age of 15 and included six females and six males. In 22 sand trays (visual data), violence and a need for protection were identified. Twelve of the photographs belonged to females (seven younger than or at the age of 15, and five older than 15), and the remaining ten males (four younger than or

at the age of 15, and six older than 15). In the client narratives, 23 ASL clients showed indicators of violence and a need for protection. Fourteen were female (nine younger than or at the age of 15 and five older than 15), and the remaining nine were male (four younger than or at the age of 15 and five older than 15). Indicators of the current risk factor were identified in 16 ASL student reflections. Nine of the ASL student reflections were found in female client files (five younger than or at the age of 15, and four older than 15), and the remaining seven were in male client files (five younger than or at the age of 15, and two older than 15). Therefore, all the males in the sample as well as all the females expressed the presence of violence and a need for protection, highlighting the importance of this risk factor in the lives of rural youth. The presence of violence and a need for protection seemed important to all ages involved in the research sample. All the data sources (visual data, client narratives, and ASL student reflections) contained clear indicators (although not always simultaneously) of violence and a need for protection, it being most prevalent in the client narratives. In the visual data, 80% of the females indicated violence and a need for protection, whereas 100% of the male sample indicated the same risk factor. The client narratives contained indicators of violence and a need for protection in 93% of the female sample and 90% of the male sample. The ASL student reflections reflected violence and a need for protection for 60% of the female sample and 70% of the male sample. Males were therefore more prone to experiencing violence and a need for protection than females.

As is evident in Table 4.1, violence and a need for protection were clearly evident in all three data sources, although not necessarily appearing in all three sources simultaneously, for instance client 14 presented violence only in the visual data source. This indicates that the clients as well as the ASL students perceived a need for protection in the context of participating rural youth.

Inclusion criteria for violence and a need of protection in the visual data were the use of soldiers, warfare weapons and vehicles (machine guns, tankers, military helicopters), building boundaries and fences for protection (from wooden blocks, plastic military fences, pebbles, and the sand), as well as animals described as violent and evoking fear in ASL clients. These animals included snakes and lions as reported by clients (see photographs 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4).

Photograph 4.1:
Client 13's sand tray, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

Photograph 4.2:
Client 14's sand tray, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

Photograph 4.3:
Client 1's sand tray, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

Photograph 4.4:
Client 3's sand tray, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

In narratives the inclusion criteria for violence were words and phrases referring to violence and a need to be protected. These words and phrases included: *scared, fighting, dangerous, soldiers, criminal, protect, check if there is something wrong, trapped by a snake, bite, dangerous, hide, to be kept safe, police(man), bomb, arrest, because I would feel safe, mense seer maak*[5]*, beskerm mense*[6]*, mure hou diere van die huis af*[7]*, thieves, guard(ing), hunt, kill, fight, shot, beskermer*[8]*, scared* (see extracts 4.1, 4.2, 4.3).

Extract 4.1: Client 13's narrative and ASL student reflection, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

Client 13's narrative

This is my house, me, brother's car**.** When I grow up I want to catch thieves (Me = green soldiers)**.** The tractor fixes the roads**.** When I see the animals I get them (points to left)**.** The hunters come to look for the animals so I stay with them (the animals)**.** The ducks are close to home and the horses, but the butterflies fly in the sky**.** Green soldiers catch the thieves, because the thieves steal the rhinos**.** They also sell the racing cars.

Extract 4.2: Client 1's narrative, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

I made this because I love it when people are with their family at the sea. I am the snake, because I like the snake, but I am also scared of the snake. My mom is also here, she is under the umbrella enjoying her day. My brother and my uncle are also here, they are busy guiding people. When people start fighting the two brothers and uncle want to say that the fighting should stop. The yellow truck is used to go home. This is here to celebrate, the star. Here we can also stand in the shade. The heart means love. The starfish is in the sea.

Extract 4.3: Client 3's narrative, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

Here I have built a zoo and these people have come to see all the different animals. These soldiers are making sure that nobody enters without their permission. This is the car for the managers of the zoo. This is where the managers enjoy their lunch, under the umbrellas. Here is where the snakes and the water animals stay. The people at the bottom to the left are a family that came to the zoo to see the different animals. I am part of the family. I am the blue one. My aunt and my sister are with me. The pathway is going to the beautiful mountains. And the pathway to the left is going to many places. To parks, to schools. I chose the army pieces as they transport the soldiers. The flower is meant to decorate.

Words and phrases in the student reflections that were included in analysis as violence and a need for protection were: *conflict, dangers, protect(ed), protection, need safe keeping, need for protection, symbols of protection, mense seer maak*[9]*, daar is gevare en bedreigings*[10]*, security, fear* or *threat*. Umbrellas can also be argued as representing protective factors, although it could not be established whether it was a physical need for protection (see extracts 4.4 and 4.5).

[5] Hurt people
[6] Protect people
[7] Walls keep the animals from the house
[8] Protector
[9] Hurt the people
[10] There are dangers and threats

Extract 4.4: ASL student reflection on client 1's sand tray, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

Conflict might be a big part of her framework. There are, however, people in her family who try to keep the peace. Her home might be her escape, but her home probably means with her mother and father. She does, however, have a positive relationship with her grandmother with whom she lives.

Extract 4.6: ASL student reflections on client 13's sand tray, with indicators of violence and a need for protection

Light lines in the sand. Makes me feel focused (forehead). Butterflies. Need and want to protect. Good use of space – resource. Observer? Home = safety? – hopes and wants. Obstructions between army and family – willingness to let other in? Not from my experience though … Problem = deep need to protect family. Solution = becoming a "soldier" – being able to provide.

The exclusion criteria for violence and a need for protection related to trays, narratives and MEd student reflections that did not include any of the above-mentioned criteria.

4.2.1.2 Risk factor sub-theme 1.2: Unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs

'Needs' can be referred to as those things we need to survive and develop (Koltko-Rivera, 2006; Van Rensburg, Human, & Moleki, 2013). Therefore, in the first sand tray the term *unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs* refer to the absence of some aspects needed for human survival and development. In sand trays needs can be expressed by visually placing indicators of needs in the sand tray such as food, bird's nests and kitchens (Flöttmann, 2013). Table 4.2 below provides evidence for the thematic data relevant to the sub-theme of unmet needs.

Table 4.2: Risk factor sub-theme 1.2: Unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs

Unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs					
Client file	**Age**	**Gender**	**Visual data**	**Narrative**	**Reflection**
1	≤15	F	/		
2	>15	F		/	
5	>15	F		/	/
7	>15	M	/	/	/
8	>15	M	/	/	
11	>15	M	/	/	
12	≤15	M	/	/	/
15	≤15	M			/
16	≤15	M		/	
17	≤15	F	/	/	/
18	≤15	F	/		/
20	>15	F			/

Unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs					
Client file	**Age**	**Gender**	**Visual data**	**Narrative**	**Reflection**
21	≤15	F		/	
22	≤15	F	/	/	/
23	≤15	F	/	/	
24	≤15	F	/		/
25	≤15	F	/		/
17	**≤15→11 >15→6**	**M→6 F→11**	**11**	**11**	**10**

The expression of possible unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs were identified in 17 of the client files. Eleven ASL clients were under or at the age of 15, and six were older than 15. Six males expressed unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs, whereas 11 females expressed such needs. In 11 of the photographs of completed sand trays, certain unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs were identified. Seven of the photographs were from female client files (all seven were under or at the age of 15) and four from male client files (one younger than 15, and three older than 15). Indicators of unmet needs were identified in 11 client narratives. Six of these client narratives belonged to females (four younger than or at the age of 15, and two older than 15), and five to males (two younger than or at the age of 15, and three older than 15). Ten ASL student reflections contained references to clients' unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs. Seven reflections were on female client files (five younger than or at the age of 15, and two older than 15), and three on male client files (two younger than or at the age of 15, and one older than 15). 68% of the sample showed indicators of unmet basic needs. In the whole sample, more clients younger than or at the age of 15 expressed indicators of unmet basic needs, as opposed to clients older than 15. 73% of all the females in the sample expressed indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs, whereas only 60% of the males did. Indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs were equally expressed in the visual data and the client narratives, but less in the ASL student reflections. Females tended to express unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs more in the visual data, while males did so in the client narratives. The ASL students were more aware of unfulfilled needs in the client files of females than of males. Unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs were identified by analysis primarily in the narratives of ASL clients.

Inclusion criteria for unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs in the visual data were elephants[11] (Fowler Museum at UCLA, n.d.), bird's nests (Flöttmann, 2013), stoves, pans, refrigerators, isolated homes,

[11] According to the *Symbol Dictionary of Sandplay Images* as compiled by Kay Bradway (2006), elephants symbolise wisdom and care (linking closely to nurturance as a need).

skeletons, as well as scenes that depict the traditional role of a mother, such as the presence of a kitchen or someone cooking[12] (photographs 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7).

Photograph 4.5:
Client 7's sand tray, with indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs

Photograph 4.6:
Client 12's sand tray, with indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance

[12] The identification of unmet basic needs thus rests upon the interrelationship between the visual data, client narratives, and MEd student reflections as viewing the inclusion criteria in isolation, can lead to misinterpretation of fulfilled basic needs as unmet basic needs.

Photograph 4.7:
Client 22's sand tray, with indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs

In the narrative inclusion criteria for unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs comprised words and phrases such as: *forgot to build its home, elephant, mense het kos nodig (people need food), eating, krap in die asblikke vir kos*[13]*, hulle gaan die mense se kos eet*[14]*, in my kombuis moet daar kos wees*[15]*, you need a stove to cook food, care for the animals, when he dies, lost* (see extracts 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9).

Extract 4.7: Client 7's narrative, with indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs

I like cars a lot. I want to be a businessman so that I can also buy myself some nice cars. I want a nice house with my own motorbike. This man is looking after the animals. They have to get food every day. The most important room in the house is the kitchen. People need food and have to eat everyday. The woman works in the kitchen. The stove cooks the food and the fridge helps that the food doesn't go bad.

Extract 4.8: Client 12's narrative, with indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs

This is my house. This wall keeps the animals away. I like cats a lot. I would like to have a nice house. The soldiers are looking after the people. This is an elephant. I have seen an elephant in the zoo. I would like to go to the Pretoria Zoo. I would also like to go to the sea one day. The sea's water is deep. You shouldn't go in there alone. There live a lot of big fish. You need a stove to cook food. The people want to eat. You are only allowed to swim between these boards.

[13] Digging in the dustbins for food
[14] They are going to eat the people's food
[15] There has to be food in my kitchen

Extract 4.9: Client 22's narrative, with indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs

This is my home. Here it's the kitchen when you go like this. There is the big road there; trucks, train and cars drive on. Here there is a bomb, then here are bodyguards and policemen and the policemen are under the umbrella because the sun is too hot. The snake comes up because it is summer. Here is the police station where people who need help come like people who are lost, who have lost their belongings and people who have been raped. Here is a place where you go to get water.

Inclusion criteria for unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs in the ASL student reflections included words and phrases such as: *toegespits op die konkrete en alledaagse behoeftes*[16]*, onmiddellike primêre behoeftes*[17]*, soeke na geborgenheid*[18]*, longing for parents, misses parents, alone, needs nurturance, lost, absence, missing her mom, missing father, lost father, burial site and abandonment* (see extracts 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11).

Extract 4.9: ASL student reflection on Client 22's sand tray, with indicators of unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs

Her **house/home** is far from everything else. There is nothing close to the house. Movement is indicated in the form of cars and **railway track**. Feels like there is an absence of something that needs to be filled; this is indicated by the empty and **open containers.** There is a **stove,** may indicate a need nurturance or mother figure in her life. There is mostly dry land and bottom left there is wet sand, may be an indication of some solidness, but limited solidness.

Extract 4.10: ASL student reflection on client 12's sand tray, with indicators of unmet needs

The story is focused on the concrete, everyday needs. Things that are worthy need to be protected. Especially the things that have to do with dreams and ideals in the future. His dreams and everyday priorities are placed directly across from each other. His dreams might feel far away because of his context. Immediate primary needs are of utmost importance.

4.2.1.3 Risk factor sub-theme 1.3: Gender inequality and conflict

Gender inequality refers to the unequal power distribution between males and females and can relate to financial, psychological and physical inequality or violence (Jewkes, Levin, & Penn-Kekana, 2003). Gender inequality and conflict as identified during analysis refers to different genders regarding their gender roles and expectations to be unequal, leading to both external and internal conflict (Fashina, & Matthew, 2010; Louw, & Louw, 2007). In Table 4.3, evidence for thematic data relating to this category is provided.

[16] Focused on the concrete, everyday needs
[17] Immediate primary needs
[18] Searching for belonging

Table 4.3: Risk factor sub-theme 1.3: Gender inequality and conflict

Gender inequality and conflict					
Client file	**Age**	**Gender**	**Visual data**	**Narrative**	**Reflection**
2	>15	F	/		
3	>15	F	/		
7	>15	M		/	/
9	≤15	M	/	/	
10	>15	M	/		/
11	>15	M			/
12	≤15	M		/	
13	>15	M		/	
14	>15	M	/		/
16	≤15	M	/		/
17	≤15	F	/		/
18	≤15	F	/		/
19	≤15	F	/		/
20	>15	F	/		/
21	≤15	F	/	/	
22	≤15	F		/	
23	≤15	F		/	/
17	**≤15→9 >15→8**	**M→8 F→9**	**11**	**7**	**10**

Seventeen out of 25 client files contained references to possible gender conflict and inequality. Eight of the files belonged to males and nine to females. Nine of the 17 clients that expressed indicators of this sub-theme were younger than or at the age of 15, whereas eight were older than 15. In the visual data, 11 photographs of completed sand trays contained possible indicators of gender conflict and gender inequality. Seven of the photographs were from female client files (four were younger than or at the age of 15, and three were older than 15) and four from male client files (two younger than or at the age of 15, and two older than 15). Seven client narratives contained indicators of this sub-theme. Three of these client narratives belonged to female clients (all three younger than or at the age of 15) and four to males (two younger than or at the age of 15, and two older than 15). Ten ASL student reflections made reference to gender conflict and inequality in client files. Five of the references were made regarding female clients (four younger than or at the age of 15, and one older than 15), and five regarding male clients (one younger than or at the age of 15, and four older than 15). 68% of the sample showed indicators of the sub-theme at hand. Regarding

the gender representation in the sample size, 80% of males expressed indicators of gender conflict and inequality, whereas 60% of females expressed such risk. Whether clients were younger than or older than 15 did not seem to have a major influence on their expression of gender conflict and inequality. Indicators of this sub-theme were identified more in the visual data and the ASL student reflections than in the client narratives. Males and females expressed indicators of gender conflict and inequality equally in visual data. Males seemed to show indicators more in their client narratives (40% of male sample) than females (20% of female sample). According to the ASL student reflections, with regard to the representation of the genders in the sample, males (50% of the male sample) showed more indicators of gender inequality and confusion than females (33% of female sample).

Gender conflict and inequality was identified in the visual data as unidentified or conflicting centres (the creation in the middle of the sand tray) in the tray, creations mirrored genitalia, and depictions of possible conflict between males and females (see photographs 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10; Friedman, & Mitchell, 2008).

Photograph 4.8:
Client 9's sand tray, with indicators of gender inequality and conflict

Photograph 4.9:
Client 16's sand tray, with indicators of gender inequality and conflict

Photograph 4.10:
Client 20's sand tray, with indicators of gender inequality and conflict

It was established by means of client 20's disclosure, that sexual molestation did take place. This disclosure therefore confirmed the visual data where gender conflict was identified.

The inclusion criteria for gender inequality and conflict in client narratives were: *raped, die vrou werk in die kombuis*[19]*, mens moet nie alleen daarin gaan nie*[20]*, close to home, check before doing something, feels insecure in new places* (see extract 4.11).

Extract 4.11: Client 9's narrative, with indicators of gender inequality and conflict

"Village of people that live in the village. The sea and fish in the sea that play in the sea. Mountain with lizard, spider, and butterflies. Soldiers protect people in the village against criminal that raped someone. Will catch and arrest. Racing car for criminal."

Inclusion criteria for gender inequality and conflict in the ASL student reflections were phrases and words such as: *lyk onseker*[21]*, weak sense of self, voel net veilig in eie omgewing, onseker oor eie identiteit*[22]*, clash in the centre, feels insecure, battle between male and female energy, moving between male and female identity, lack of curiosity, identity crisis, not knowing which direction to take* (see extracts 4.12 and 4.13).

Extract 4.12 ASL student reflection on client 16's sand tray, with indicators of gender inequality and conflict

What is going to happen next??? (forehead). Mostly in centre – tension of self's opposites; shyness? Blocking of movement towards centre, clear "clash". Battle. Animals vs. humans. Little contact with sand. Fighting mixed with wanting to make peace – inner conflict? Problem = some form of inner conflict. Solution = looks like house is place of peace? Home as resource?

Extract 4.13 ASL student reflection on client 20's sand tray, with indicators of gender inequality and conflict

She finds herself in the garage where the penis is. The bulldozer is representative of the male presence of strength, destruction, bulldozing your way to a woman. Bulldozer powerful symbol to represent male presence. Maybe she sees the bulldozer not as the male's vehicle but her vehicle that she can use to bulldoze down the bridge – destroy the bridge and then the male cannot get to her. Bridge between male and female. Can also be a moving between male and female gender identity as if she is struggling within herself to decide is she is a man or a women e.g. engineer. Showing defiance and coming in opposition to the female gender and role.

4.2.2 PROTECTIVE RESOURCES

As stated before, resilience is the ability to develop normally in the face of risk, or to bounce back from adversity by using protective resources (Gilligan, 2000). Protective resources are resources that provide an individual with resistance against risk (Cameron et al., 2007). Protective resources in the sand trays are

[19] The woman works in the kitchen
[20] One must not go in there alone
[21] Looks uncertain
[22] Uncertain of own identity

resources that clients possess, internally and/or externally, that provide them with a buffer against the negative outcomes of the challenges they face.

Various sub-themes related to protective resources emerged from the analysis of data sources. The protective resources sub-themes include spirituality, fulfilled needs, and a sense of belonging. The results with regard to these sub-themes will now be discussed in more detail by referring to the identification of the sub-themes in the various data sources and how they were observed.

4.2.2.1 Protective resource sub-theme 2.1: Spirituality

Spirituality refers to the belief that a higher power exists beyond the physical and material world Spirituality does not equate to religion. Spirituality however denotes that a higher power is mostly in control of the material and physical world (WHOQOL SRPB Group, 2006; Mazama, 2002; Sangwon, & Esquivel, 2011). In Table 4.3 evidence of the thematic data that indicates the relevant sub-theme is provided.

Table 4.4 Protective resource sub-theme 2.1: Spirituality

Spirituality					
Client file	**Age**	**Gender**	**Visual data**	**Narrative**	**Reflection**
1	≤15	F	/	/	
7	>15	M	/		
8	>15	M	/		
10	>15	M	/		
11	>15	M	/		
12	≤15	M	/		
15	≤15	M	/		
16	≤15	M	/		
17	≤15	F	/		/
18	≤15	F	/		/
19	≤15	F	/		/
20	>15	F	/		/
22	≤15	F	/		
24	≤15	F	/		
14	**≤15→9** **>15→5**	**M→7** **F→7**	**14**	**1**	**4**

Fourteen client files included indicators of spirituality as a protective resource. Nine of the 14 client files belonged to clients younger than or at the age of 15, and five belonged to clients older than 15. Half (seven) of the client files were those of females and the other half (seven) were those of males. Fourteen photographs (visual data) included indicators of spirituality. Seven of the photographs were of the first sand tray of females (six younger than or at the age of 15, one older than 15), and seven were of the first sand trays of males (three younger than or at the age of 15, and four older than 15). One client narrative contained an indicator of spirituality. This client narrative was from a female client younger than 15. Four ASL student reflections included references to indicators of spirituality in clients. The client files from which these reflections were obtained were all the client files of females. Three of the females were younger than or at the age of 15, and one was older than 15. 56% of the sampled client files showed indicators of spirituality as a protective resource. 69% of clients younger than or at the age of 15, and 42% of clients older than 15 showed indicators of spirituality. Clients younger than or at the age of 15 were therefore more prone to express indicators of spirituality as a protective resource than clients older than 15. 47% of the female sample showed indicators of spirituality, and 70% of the male client sample showed such indicators. The same ratio applied to the visual data sources. Therefore, the males seemed more prone to express their spirituality as a protective resource in general and specifically in the visual data, than the females. 7% of the female sample expressed spirituality in client narratives, and no males. The ASL students perceived 27% of the female sample to indicate the presence of spirituality as a protective resource. The ASL students thus perceived the females to experience spirituality as a protective resource more than the males, although the males expressed spirituality visually more than the females.

Spirituality refers to being interested in and believing in a power bigger than oneself (Pearson Education, 2004). Inclusion criteria for spirituality in the visual data were stars and angels (see photographs 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13).

Photograph 4.11:
Client 1's sand tray, with indicators of spirituality

Photograph 4.12:
Client 17's sand tray, with indicators of spirituality

Photograph 4.13:
Client 18's sand tray, with indicators of spirituality

Inclusion criteria for spirituality in the client narratives included words and phrases referring to spiritual practises and elements such as stars, starfish and burials (see extract 4.14).

Extract 4.14: Client 1's narrative, with indicators of spirituality

I made this because I love it when people are with their family at the sea. I am the snake, because I like the snake, but I am also scared of the snake. My mom is also here, she is under the umbrella enjoying her day. My brother and my uncle are also here, they are busy guiding people. When people start fighting the two brothers and uncle want to say that the fighting should stop. The yellow truck is used to go home. This is here to celebrate, the star. Here we can also stand in the shade. The heart means love. The starfish is in the sea.

The inclusion criteria for spirituality in ASL student reflections involved describing ASL clients as spiritual, religious and engaging in spiritual practices such as funerals and burials (see extracts 4.15 and 4.16).

Extract 4.15: ASL reflection on client 18's sand tray, with indicators of spirituality

Uses sand only at first. Builds a double border for protection or security, feels insecure and needs to set boundaries – boundary on inside of tray. Protective symbols like angels. Angels, star = religion/spiritual. My impression of the scene is that it is spiritual. Setting: spiritual and People/Animal. Three human figures all on borders almost looking like falling out of the tray and one lying down. Very full tray. Circles almost like spirals – everything leading to this centre square. All the figures (people and animals) are there to honour the holy ground. Square of pebbles – looks like a type of ritual happening in the middle – food basket, stones and pebbled path … burial ground with tombstones. Stones = tombstones. The grave site is at the centre of the self and who she is.

Extract 4.16: ASL reflection on client 17's sand tray, with indicators of spirituality

Dangerous animals = threatening. Boundary on inside of tray, boundary around waterhole. Vegetable and plant stage. Spiritual – angel, star. Unpeopled scene – feeling of alienation, fear or threat. One human figure – male – maybe indications of her lost father because the figure looks lost and alone. Dried waterhole in the centre of the tray – desert scene. Signs of danger – she says that this place she built is a dangerous place, two borders, angel, star also protective figures. Many of the dangerous animals like sharks and snakes are in the hole with the border around as well as high dam walls to keep them in. Danger is thus contained at this stage but at what cost. Maybe danger inside her of not being a good girl anymore if all the anger and the nasty things inside comes out. Anger against father, strict church, failing school.

4.2.2.2 Protective resources sub-theme 2.2: Fulfilled needs

As mentioned above (section 4.2.1.2), the term *basic needs* refers to the resources that are of importance for the survival and development of the individual (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). Fulfilled needs were indicated as the presence of resources necessary and important for survival and development. In Table 4.5 evidence for thematic data as it relates to this sub-theme is provided.

Table 4.5: Protective resource sub-theme 2.2: Fulfilled needs

Fulfilled needs					
Client file	**Age**	**Gender**	**Visual data**	**Narrative**	**Reflection**
1	≤15	F	/	/	/
2	>15	F		/	/
3	>15	F	/	/	/
5	>15	F		/	
6	>15	F	/	/	
7	>15	M	/	/	/
8	>15	M	/	/	/
9	≤15	M	/	/	/
10	>15	M	/	/	/
11	>15	M	/	/	
12	≤15	M	/	/	/
13	>15	M	/	/	/
14	>15	M	/	/	/
15	≤15	M	/	/	/
16	≤15	M	/	/	/
17	≤15	F	/		
19	≤15	F	/		/
21	≤15	F	/	/	
22	≤15	F	/	/	/
23	≤15	F	/	/	/
24	≤15	F		/	
25	≤15	F	/	/	
22	**≤15→12 >15→10**	**M→10 F→12**	**19**	**20**	**15**

Fulfilled needs as a protective resource were identified in 22 client files. Twelve of the clients were younger than or at the age of 15, whereas ten were older than 15. Ten of the client files belonged to males and 12 to females. Nineteen of the client files contained visual data (photographs) that showed indicators of fulfilled needs. Nine of the photographs were of female clients' sand trays (seven younger than or at the age of 15, and nine older than 15), and ten of males (three at or younger than the age of 15, seven older than 15). Twenty client narratives contained indicators of fulfilled needs. Ten of these client narratives belonged to females (six younger than or at the age of 15, and four older than 15), and ten to males (three at or younger

than the age of 15, and seven older than 15). Fifteen ASL student reflections made reference to the current protective factor. Six of these reflections related to female clients (four younger than or at the age of 15, and two older than 15) and nine to male clients (four younger than or at the age of 15, and five older than 15). 88% of the client sample showed indicators of fulfilled basic needs. 92% of the sample younger than or at the age of 15, and 83% of clients older than 15 showed indicators of fulfilled basic needs; clients younger than or at the age of 15 thus perceived more of their needs to be met than clients older than 15. All the males in the sample showed indicators of fulfilled basic needs, whereas only 80% of the females expressed indicators of the same protective resource. There were indicators of fulfilled basic needs in 100% of the male clients' visual data, whereas only 60% of the visual data relating to female clients contained the same indicators. Client narratives indicated that 100% of the sampled male client files contained indicators of fulfilled basic needs, while only 67% of the female client files contained indicators of fulfilled basic needs. The ASL student reflections substantiate the theme of more males (90%) experiencing their basic needs to be fulfilled than females (40%) in the data sources used in this study.

Inclusion criteria for the identification of fulfilled needs in the visual data were flowers, butterflies, and party scenes (as indicated by clients in client narratives), plants, trees, cars, trucks, helicopters, railways, trains, planes, motorbikes, skateboards, busses, and cutlery as this indicates growth and movement[23] towards self-actualisation (Eysenck, 2004). See photographs 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16.

Photograph 4.14:
Client 5's sand tray, with indicators of fulfilled needs

[23] According to the *Symbol Dictionary of Sandplay Images*, as compiled by Kay Bradway (2006)

Photograph 4.15:
Client 12's sand tray, with indicators of fulfilled needs

Photograph 4.16:
Client 23's sand tray, with indicators of fulfilled needs

Inclusion criteria for fulfilled needs in client narratives were phrases and words referring to having a safe place to live, having access to food, movement including *trucks, trains, railways, cars, helicopters, motorbikes, planes, happiness, joy, fulfilment, laughter, celebrations, beauty, parties, friendliness, enjoyment,*

playfulness, relaxation, aesthetic features of nature such as flowers and *butterflies* (fulfilled needs find expression in positive affect and life satisfaction; (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). See extracts 4.17 and 4.18.

Inclusion criteria for fulfilled needs in the student reflections were words or phrases referring to happiness, freedom, growth, movement or motion, development, met basic needs, food, and a safe home environment. As mentioned earlier, the identification of fulfilled basic needs was made based on the message conveyed by client file and the interrelationship between the visual data, client narratives, and ASL student reflections, to avoid confusion between the sub-theme, 'unmet needs' and the sub-theme 'fulfilled needs'.

Extract 4.17: Client 5's narrative and ASL student reflection, with indicators of fulfilled needs

I built a zoo. And the animals that I used were an elephant and a giraffe. Lots of animals, I do not know all their names. The persons I put there were trapped by a snake. The snake bit them. Here are people sitting down and eating like in a park. People travelled in cars to the zoo. There is an aeroplane, and a soldier. The aeroplane is used to fly to see what animals are dangerous so that they can protect the people. I am one of the people who have parked their cars. My family is also there.

ASL student reflection on client 5's sand tray

She also used a lot of animals. In her world she might be experiencing that there are people protecting her. It might refer to her missing her mom and wishing that her mom could fly over and protect her.

Extract 4.18: Client 23's narrative, with indicators of fulfilled needs

Here is by the beach, there are people who are camping. Here snakes came up and the police came. These people are scared of the snakes so they decided to leave the beach. After the police left the people went back to the beach then the police arrested these three people and they took them in the aeroplane. The police stayed at the beach guarding the place. Then more people came and also camped and it was nice and they were playing. A car arrived and the people in this car took everything on the beach and the beach was left empty. Then the police came back again and these guys were the ones who sent these guys to come and arrest them. ***What is happening here with the umbrellas?*** The people are camping under the shade. ***What are these pebbles for?*** The children were playing with the pebbles and they left them there. ***What is happening here with the butterfly?*** The children were playing with it.

Extract 4.19: ASL student reflection on client 23's sand tray, with indicators of fulfilled needs

There is a hole in the centre of the tray – could be an indication of centre of personality. There are **pink umbrellas**, which could symbolise femininity. Perhaps this could mean that as part of her personality she is a feminine lady. The tray is not cluttered; it looks empty but does not feel empty for me. The green umbrella gives life; this green could also be an indication of growth and nurturance. The two cars that are facing opposite of one another could indicate the potential for different directions, and maybe this could be a crossroads for her, not knowing which direction to take.

4.2.2.3 Protective resource sub-theme 2.3: Sense of belonging

A sense of belonging refers to where the client experiences the feeling that they belong to a family, peer group, or community, and experiences a sense of responsibility toward others, and others towards them -

this can also be referred to as social connectedness (Carr, 2006). In Table 4.6 evidence of thematic data as it relates to a sense of belonging is provided.

Table 4.6: Protective resource sub-theme 2.2: Sense of belonging

Sense of belonging					
Client file	**Age**	**Gender**	**Visual data**	**Narrative**	**Reflection**
1	≤15	F		/	/
3	>15	F	/	/	
4	>15	F	/	/	
5	>15	F	/	/	
7	>15	M	/	/	/
8	>15	M		/	/
10	>15	M		/	
12	≤15	M	/		/
13	>15	M		/	/
15	≤15	M	/	/	
21	≤15	F		/	
22	≤15	F		/	
23	≤15	F		/	
25	≤15	F	/	/	
14	**≤15→7 >15→7**	**M→6 F→8**	**7**	**13**	**5**

Fourteen client files included data that contained indicators of a sense of belonging. Seven of these client files belonged to clients younger than or at the age of 15, and seven belonged to clients older than 15. Six males were included and eight females. Seven visual data documents in client files included indicators of the possible presence of a sense of belonging. Four of these client files belonged to females and three to males. Three files belonged to clients younger than or at the age of 15, and four of the clients were older than 15. Thirteen client narratives indicated a sense of belonging. Eight of these narratives belonged to female clients (five younger than or at the age of 15, and three older than 15), and five to male clients (one younger than or at the age of 15, and four older than 15). Five ASL student reflections included references made to the presence of a sense of belonging. One ASL student reflection pertained to a female client (younger than or at the age of 15), and four to male clients (two younger than or at the age of 15, and two older than 15). 56% of the sample showed indicators of a sense of belonging. Regarding the age groups included in the sample, 54% of the clients younger than or at the age of 15, and 58% of the clients older

than 15 showed a sense of belonging. 60% of the males and 53% of the females showed indicators of a sense of belonging. 53% of the females indicated a sense of belonging in their client narratives, while 50% of the males expressed indicators of the same protective resource in their client narratives. 7% of the ASL student reflections related to the presence of a sense of belonging in female client files, and 40% in male client files. The ASL students saw the male clients as experiencing a higher sense of belonging than the female clients.

Inclusion criteria for a sense of belonging in the visual data were where different animals, or animals and people, interacted with each other in a comfortable non-threatening way, and where they provided support to each other (Stangline, 2011). See photographs 4.17, 4.18 and 4.19.

Photograph 4.17:
Client 3's sand tray, with indicators of a sense of belonging

Photograph 4.18:
Client 7's sand tray, with indicators of a sense of belonging

Photograph 4.19:
Client 25's sand tray, with indicators of a sense of belonging

Inclusion criteria for a sense of belonging in the narratives included references made to taking on a selfless role as protector or provider for others, as well as recognising conflicts and inequalities and taking an active stance against these, pro-social peer relationships, positive family relationships, and close ties to the community (see extracts 4.20, 4.21 and 4.22).

Extract 4.20: Client 3's narrative, with indicators of a sense of belonging

Here I have built a zoo and these people have come to see all the different animals. These soldiers are making sure that nobody enters without their permission. This is the car for the managers of the zoo. This is where the managers enjoy their lunch, under the umbrellas. Here is where the snakes and the water animals stay. The people at the bottom to the left are a family that came to the zoo to see the different animals. I am part of the family. I am the blue one. My aunt and my sister are with me. The pathway is going to the beautiful mountains. And the pathway to the left is going to many places. To parks, to schools. I chose the army pieces as they transport the soldiers. The flower is meant to decorate

Extract 4.21: Client 21's narrative, with indicators of a sense of belonging

I would be with my friend. Because wherever I go, I go with her. We spend most of our time together. I love that she loves to laugh and to make me laugh; she does not get upset easily.

Extract 4.22: Client 25's narrative, with indicators of a sense of belonging

In your life, where do you feel there are people watching over you and protecting you? My parents***. What do your parents do that make you feel protected?*** I would say they give me food, buy me clothes and everything. ***Who else would you include in this picture of yours?*** Friends and family would be included in this picture. I would be here with my friend. . I love her because she understands me. She often falls sick, then I take care of her at school.

Inclusion criteria for a sense of belonging in student reflections included words and phrases referring to a need to protect others and behave in a selfless manner, a sense of belonging in their families, collective consciousness, being with friends, at school, or in the community. An example of such a reference from a client narrative is, "I would be with my friend … she makes me feel safe" (see extracts 4.23, 4.24 and 4.25).

Extract 4.23: ASL student reflection on client 7's sand tray, with indicators of a sense of belonging

There is a feeling of belonging in his/her world. He likes pretty things.

Extract 4.24. ASL student reflection on client 1's sand tray, with indicators of a sense of belonging

Conflict might be a big part of her framework. There are, however, people in her family who try to keep the peace. Her home might be her escape, but her home probably means with her mother and father. She does, however, have a positive relationship with her grandmother with whom she lives.

Extract 4.25: ASL student reflection on client 25's sand tray, with indicators of a sense of belonging

Back right: Awareness of the future (Back right). This may be an indication of being in touch with the ego corner. Indicative of collective consciousness, personal father relationship, school

In the above three extracts, we see how ASL students notice the significance of important relationships in clients' lives, indicating that they feel they belong in their context as they strongly relate with it and indicate positive relationships as identified by ASL students.

4.3 RESULTS

4.3.1 EXISTING KNOWLEDGE ABOUT RISK AND RESILIENCE IN THE LIVES OF RURAL YOUTH

4.3.1.1 Indicators of risk

The first sub-theme identified as a risk factor in the lives of rural youth is that of **violence and a need for protection**. The rates of violent crimes in South Africa are very high, with 47 murders, 172 sexual offences, 47 attempted murders, 502 assaults with intent of serious harm, and 327 aggravated robberies *per day* for the financial year of 2013/2014 (www.africackeck.org). According to Crime-Stats-SA, an average of 102 violent crimes were reported per day in the Ekulindeni district of Mpumalanga during 2014. With 15% of the school population having reported to be victims of violence at the school, and because violence threatens the wellbeing of youth, the youth naturally desire protection from it (South African Council of Educators, 2011). From the above-mentioned statistics, the sampled population face multiple forms of violence, including structural and community violence.

Kaldine (2007) argues that the presence of structural and community violence places youth at risk of physical, emotional, and psychological harm, necessitating an understanding into these forms of violence. Community violence is the direct and vicarious exposure to interpersonal violence, and this includes all forms of assault and homicide (Mkhize, Gopal, & Collings, 2012). In fact, Affonso, Shibuya and Frueh (2007) point out that community violence is not limited to the social environment removed from the inner circles of the child, but also includes violence in homes, schools and the community. Although this type of violence can be seen in the larger global population, it is specifically worrying in communities with a multi-ethnic population, such as rural communities, and poses a risk for the healthy development of youth (Affonso et al., 2007; Mkhize et al., 2012). Mkhize et al. (2012) posit that because of this higher prevalence of violence in rural settings, youth in these settings face unique and confounding challenges to their psychological wellbeing. The reasons for the heightened exposure to violence in rural settings, and its accompanying negative effects on development and psychological wellbeing, include poverty, inequality, substance abuse, resource scarcity, and social disempowerment (Mkhize et al., 2012). Due to these confounding negative effects of violence on the holistic development of youth it was regarded as a risk factor in the current research.

Lamb and Snodgrass (2013) argue that violence in rural settings is not limited to community violence, but also includes structural violence. Structural violence refers to social arrangements that place people at a disadvantage or in harm's way. This type of violence is termed structural violence as it is imbedded in the political and economical organisation of the society (Farmer, Nizeye, Stulac, & Keshavjee, 2006). Therefore, Lamb and Snodgrass (2013) argue that the ever-present structural violence in rural communities can be ascribed to social inequality and poverty. The presence of inequality leads to limited police services in rural areas despite high levels of crime and violence, possibly necessitating the need for protection as indicated by the youth in the current study (Steinberg, 2005). Artz and De Oliveira (1997) express their concern as the status quo in policing fails to meet the basic standards of service delivery in rural areas. Service delivery is the slowest to reach rural areas and little is done to reform poorly resourced stations in rural communities. After the 1994 elections, the South African Police Service aimed to address inequality in policing and reduce the crime rates in South Africa; they were, however, too slow to the reach rural areas (Mbuyisa, 2013). Commandos and the military therefore stepped in in rural communities to support the police wherever they could. However, the commandos were phased out from 2003, leaving a gap in policing in rural areas despite plans of the SAPS to infiltrate these areas, and many rural areas still have no access to police stations (Steinberg, 2005; Mbuyisa, 2013).

Women are particularly vulnerable to domestic violence and sexual violence, highlighting the female sample's indicators of a presence of violence in their lives and a need for protection (Banda, 2008;

Egharevba, Chiazor, & Suleiman, 2013; John-Langba, John-Langba, & Rogers, 2013). The males indicated violence and a need for protection to be just as important for them as for females. Research does suggest that the reasons for male and female concerns about violence may differ. Females are more vulnerable to sexual and domestic violence, whereas males are more prone and vulnerable to interpersonal violence because of views on masculinity, gender roles and the hormone testosterone, which increases volatile and aggressive behaviour (Akinsola, 2010, Lazarus, Tonsing, Ratele, & Van Niekerk, 2011; Ratele, 2009). Ngobale, Ogunbanjo and Omole (2013) further argue that males are more prone to substance and alcohol abuse, leading to an increase in violent interactions.

Due to the rural context in which the client files sampled for the study were compiled, violence and a need for protection are not limited to interpersonal situations only, but treacherous natural circumstances play an equally important role. As can be seen in the data results, wild animals such as wild dogs, lions, and snakes are present in the daily lives of rural youth. Lamarque, Anderson, Fergusson, Lagrange, Osei-Owusu and Bakker (2009) describe various negative consequences that animal attacks can have. These consequences include infection with diseases such as rabies, and ultimately even death (Lamarque et al., 2009). For this reason, wildlife such as lions, wild dogs, and snakes pose a great threat in rural South Africa (Engelbrecht, 2012; Lamarque et al., 2009). Reported deaths due to snake bites are around 125 000 per year worldwide, with Africa being one of the countries with the highest rates (Engelbrecht, 2012). Snake bites often result in death but can also have other negative consequences such as the loss of limbs. Being attacked by animals, if one survives, can have severe psychological effects on the victim, and also on witnesses of the attack (Engelbrecht, 2012).

It almost comes as no surprise that violence and a need for protection were identified as a category of risk due to the negative effects of violence, committed by either humans or animals. It is important to note that risk factors identified in the current research can be interrelated and cause cumulative risk (Ungar, 2011).

A second sub-theme that emerged during inductive data analysis was **unfulfilled needs** of children and youth. International studies have highlighted the links between poor living conditions such as poverty, and depression and suicide (Holtman, Shelmerdine, London, & Flisher, 2011). These are conditions often faced in rural communities, and can therefore be argued also to play a role in the context of the sample of the current study (Holtman et al., 2011; Kaldine, 2007).

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the basic needs we first need to fulfil before we can continue developing and ultimately reach a happy and fulfilled life, are physiological needs (Eysenck, 2004; Koltko-Rivera, 2006). These basic needs include food, water, shelter, and sleep (Eysenck, 2004; Koltko-Rivera, 2006). If these physiological needs are not fulfilled it can be assumed, according to Maslow, that one will not

focus completely on one's other growth points, such as self-actualisation and happiness (Eysenck, 2004). When the basic needs of children are not met, such as in cases of under- and mal-nourishment, youth are at risk of developing learning and behavioural challenges (Mendoza-Salonga, 2007). Having inadequate shelter, food and water creates negative learning environments, placing children at further risk for developmental and learning problems as their needs are focused on survival (Gadagbui, 2003).

As a result of the context of rural areas, many of the households lack parental presence and nurturance (Van Rensburg et al., 2013). Youth who lack the experience of nurturance are at risk for numerous internalised and externalised problems such as depression, substance abuse, aggression, and prostitution (Van Rensburg et al., 2013). For this reason, nurturance is regarded as an important basic need in the lives of children and youth.

Nurturance provides children with the basic needs for healthy development, including someone to form an attachment with, and someone to support one's development of self-worth and a sense of belonging (Louw, & Louw, 2007). A lack of nurturance can have a negative influence during youth and may lead to an inability to form healthy attachments with others in later life (Louw, & Louw, 2007). In rural communities many parents are migrant workers who work in cities, towns, or even countries far away from their children (Ganga, & Chinyoka, 2013). Van Rensburg et al. (2013) argue that due to migrant working, and death of parents, many children are left to fend for themselves in child-headed households. Children who are in child-headed households have basic physical, social, emotional, psychological, and protection needs (Van Rensburg et al., 2013). The results of the current study indicate that 68% of the sample's client files indicate unmet basic needs, which could partly be explained by high levels of child-headed households in rural communities (Van Rensburg et al., 2013). The basic psycho-social needs of children without parental nurturance include a need for protection, support, care, and skills transfer (Van Rensburg et al., 2013). Nurturance also plays an important role in the neuro-development of children (Farah, Betancourt, Shera, Savage, Giannetta, Brodsky, Hurt, 2008; Rao, Betancourt, Giannetta, Brodsky, Korczykowski, Avants, Farah, 2010). Long-term memory, language development and executive functions have been found to be influenced by social economic status (SES) and parental nurturance, with lower levels of nurturance resulting in poorer brain development, specifically relating to memory (Farah et al., 2008). It was further found that low levels of parental nurturance result in a larger hippocampal volume, increasing the experience of stress, anxiety, and other functions related to the hippocampus (Rao et al., 2010).

Loss and abandonment is a further cause of children not experiencing their needs fulfilled. Challenges caused by loss and abandonment include low self-esteem, poor academic achievement, aggression and depression (Smit, 2007; Ganga, & Chinyoka, 2013). Various factors contribute to the experience of death, loss, and abandonment in the lives of youth in a rural school. One such factor is the aftermath of violence

and poverty (Maseko, 1998). Another is when parents work away from home in cities and towns and are thus unable to provide for the children (Ganga, & Chinyoka, 2013). Although this is not child abandonment per se, it may be experienced as such by children and adolescents. Smit (2007) asserts that, despite protective resources, youth who experience a lack in basic needs fulfilment, loss, abandonment, neglect and death in the family face various challenges that put them at risk.

Smit (2007) further emphasises that one of the most important contributors to the experience of loss in South Africa is the HIV/AIDS pandemic. The highest mortality rate is in the age group 30-50, leaving many children without parents (Germann, 2003). Despite many children being left orphaned, they also face challenges of gaining access to basic needs, and are exposed to death and loss of friends, as more than half of new HIV infections occur in the age group of 15-24, making it a prevalent topic in the age group of the sampled client files (Germann, 2003). Loss is also experienced in youth after the death of parents as the family is dispersed to various relatives, splitting siblings between caregivers to be able to provide for their physiological needs (Van Rensburg et al., 2013). The negative effects and confounding factors of unfulfilled needs make it a worrisome risk factor in the lives of rural youth, as can be seen in the data results of the current study.

A third and final sub-theme identified during inductive data analysis of the first sand trays of youth at a rural school was **gender inequality and conflict** (Louw, & Louw, 2007; Moyo, Francis, & Ndlovu, 2012). There are various reasons for gender inequality and gender conflict in rural South African settings. In rural settings and in many African cultures, gender-based violence is normalised, and taking a stand against gender-based violence results in social reprisal (Tshifhumulo, & Mudhovozi, 2013). Thus the conflict between survival and community norms results in internal, and sometimes external, gender conflict (Tshifhumulo, & Mudhovozi, 2013).

The gender inequalities still present in rural South Africa are beginning to be challenged by youth due to globalisation and exposure to different kinds of cultures and identities. Arnett (2002) argues that a measure of conflict in the youth's perceptions of gender identity exists in most teenagers, but especially in multicultural contexts where there is a desire to adhere to local identities, such as gender-based roles, but to also move toward global identities, such as the emancipation of women. Because adolescents have the ability to pursue these different types of cultural messages, and have the cognitive ability to decide what they want to incorporate into their own beliefs of life and themselves, conflicting messages and information from parents, society, and the global media result in identity confusion and possibly gender conflict (Arnett, 2002; Louw, & Louw, 2007).

During adolescence, identity confusion based on gender norms and expectations is expected and normal. This is a possible explanation for the current research study not showing any age difference in the perception of gender inequality and conflict, as all the ASL clients were in the adolescent phase of development (Louw, & Louw, 2007; Snowman, & McCown, 2013). Females tend to resolve internal turmoil based on gender inequality and conflict earlier than males; this can, however, be due to stricter control over females in African cultures and not due to females completing the development process themselves (Louw, & Louw, 2007; Ogwo, 2013a).

A further complication in the development of independent gender identity in the rural South African contexts is that of patriarchal power distribution (Moyo et al., 2012). Women are expected to comply with traditional female roles such as working the lands, caring for children and taking on domestic responsibilities; men in turn have more powerful jobs and are entitled to more leisure time than women (Sokoya, Oluwalana, & Irekhore, 2006). Thus, women interested in economic advancement and participation different from those of accepted norms, may experience conflict in the home and community (Sokoya, Oluwalana, & Irekhore, 2006).

Experiencing gender inequality and conflict could lead to feelings of insecurity, especially in the submissive gender, in the case of rural South African females. This can possibly explain why more females than males indicated gender inequality and conflict in their sand trays and associated narratives. Pharoah and Weiss (2005) state that human security can be referred to as the protection of not only the physical wellbeing of the individual, but also the protection against disruption of patterns in one's daily life. Insecurity therefore refers not only to perceived threats in terms of material resources and physical harm, but refers just as much to threats to human integrity (Sampson, 2008). Aspects common in the African context such as hunger, poverty, political turmoil and gender inequalities fuel human insecurity, and can therefore be a reason for the insecurity experienced by the ASL clients (Sampson, 2008). Identity and gender security is clearly threatened in the context of rural youth because of their reality of poverty, gender stereotypes, HIV/AIDS and social injustice (Pharoah, & Weiss, 2005).

To summarise, it is important to note that during adolescence, which was also the age of the ASL clients, youth are in the process of identity development. They are therefore not as fixed in certain beliefs as adults, but also not as fluid as younger children (Arnett, 2002; Puskar, Ren, Bernardo, Haley, & Stark, 2008). It is expected of youth that are at the age of the ASL clients to experience some turmoil related to gender identity as its formation is a primary task during adolescence (Hoffman, & Janse van Rensburg, 2010; Louw, & Louw, 2007). It is, however, regarded as a risk factor due to the insecurities and accompanying pain it causes adolescents, driving them to identify this in their sand trays.

4.3.1.2 Indicators of protective resources

Various indicators of protective resources were identified during the data analysis. Many of these protective resources are found in the literature and relate to the current study in various ways.

The first sub-theme of resilience/protective resources identified was that of **spirituality**. In the current study, spirituality was identified in the sand trays, client narratives and ASL student reflections. Spirituality is described by Hoffman and Janse van Rensburg (2010), and also by Sangwon and Esquivel (2011), as a protective resource. It has been found to play a significant role in the overall wellbeing, academic performance, service, altruism and resilience of those who value it.

Spirituality is a multi-faceted construct, but generally refers to the attitudes, beliefs, self-transcendence and emotional phenomena related to the search for the sacred side of life; it is a belief in a higher being or beings (Bhana, & Bachoo, 2011; Hoffman, & Janse van Rensburg, 2010). It is having a positive outlook in life and making sense out of experiences on a deeper level. Spirituality does not equate to religion; it is viewed as a search for meaning and transcendence rather than an order of practice, and can be regarded as part of the collective subconscious of human beings rather than an individual trait (Sangwon, & Esquivel, 2011).

Spirituality has been shown to, not only increase resilience in individuals, but also in families (Bhana, & Bachoo, 2011; Greeff, & Loubser, 2008). A strong sense of spirituality buffers youth against dangerous sexual activity, crime, depression, and substance abuse (Hoffman, & Janse van Rensburg, 2010). Spiritual youth show more competence in life skills and the challenges of life than their non-spiritual counterparts (Hoffman, & Janse van Rensburg, 2010; Sangwon, & Esquivel, 2011). Experienced through an African lens, spirituality provides a sense of community, support and belonging that can help individuals cope in challenging circumstances (Hoffman, & Janse van Rensburg, 2010; Sangwon, & Esquivel, 2011; Mazama, 2002). African spirituality also allows individuals to value their place in the spiritual world, rendering individuals with a sense of belonging and self-worth (Mazama, 2002). Adolescents usually begin challenging parental spirituality as their peers begin to inform them about alternative views (Snowman, & McCown, 2013). This can be a possible reason for more ASL clients younger than or at the age of 15 showing indicators of spirituality, as older clients start questioning their parents' spiritual beliefs.

The second protective resource identified during inductive data analysis was **fulfilled needs**. Fulfilled basic needs increase the basic health and overall happiness of human beings (De Campos, 2012), making it a protective resource for youth at a rural school. Health in turn refers to the overall wellbeing of an individual

(De Campos, 2012). This includes physical, mental, emotional, and psychological health (De Campos, 2012) – all of which are basic needs of children.

As was noted in section 4.3.2.1, unfulfilled basic human needs lead to challenges in development, academically, socially and personally. The fulfilment of basic needs thus lowers the prevalence and risk of these challenges and allows an individual to develop continuously, until self-actualisation is reached. It is for this reason that the fulfilment of needs can be viewed as a protective resource in the face of adversity. Having fulfilled needs allows the individual to grow as a person, take action in their own lives and bring about positive change. Children in general have fewer resources than adults with which they can address their needs (Hall, & Wright, 2010). This can be a reason for the sample youth younger than or at the age of 15 to show more indicators of unfulfilled basic needs than those older than 15. It is also possible that in child-headed households the adolescents perceive basic needs to be fulfilled, as they are the providers in the family, resulting in satisfying their own basic needs, as opposed to children who expect parents to provide in their basic needs (Horsten, 2004; Mogotlane, Chauke, Van Rensburg, Human, & Kganakga, 2010).

Another aspect indicating the presence of fulfilled needs is the expression of positive affect (Carle, & Chassin, 2004; Koltko-Rivera, 2006; Smith, Tooley, Christopher, & Kay, 2010). Positive affect is an indicator of happiness, and according to Maslow, one can only strive toward happiness and experience happiness when one's most basic needs have been fulfilled (Koltko-Rivera, 2006; Snowman, & McCown, 2013). Positive affect was found to be related to more positive health outcomes, both physically and mentally (Smith, Tooley, Christopher, & Kay, 2010; Cohen, & Pressman, 2006). Positive emotions play a key role in general life satisfaction and wellbeing, despite the presence of danger and uncertainty (Veronese, Castiglioni, Barola, & Said, 2012). Being able to experience positive affect and the contribution it makes to life satisfaction and wellbeing, can be increased by an individual being aware of their ability to experience positive affect and being happy (Veronese et al., 2012). This was illustrated in client file 21; this client described herself as liking to laugh, therefore she chooses to spend time with a friend that makes this possible. This further indicates the need of previous levels of needs that have to be fulfilled to reach a level of self-actualisation. The third level of needs (belonging, love, and friendship) was first fulfilled before self-actualisation and happiness (the fifth level of needs) could be met. Due to the critical influence basic needs have on life quality and satisfaction, the fulfilment of basic needs was regarded as a protective resource.

The third resilience sub-theme pertains to a **sense of belonging**, including social support and support from parents (Shepherd, Reynolds, & Moran, 2010). Social support is a multi-dimensional concept that includes mutual support between individuals and within groups (informative, emotional, and concrete), as well as the sources of support (family, friends, animals, etc.). Social support works primarily in two ways to improve

resilience (Dumont, & Provost, 1999). Firstly, it provides a generally positive context from which individuals can approach challenges, and secondly, it was found that social support buffers or protects individuals from the negative effects of adversity (Dumont, & Provost, 1999).

Children who have been proved to be resilient showed a consistent presence of protective resources relating to social support, including parents, peers, teachers, and other role models, as well as community members (Nettles, Mucherah, & Jones, 2000; Noor, & Alwi, 2013; Pinkerton, & Dolan, 2007). Social support provides us with sustenance to cope and flourish during the transition from teenager into adulthood (Pinkerton, & Dolan, 2007). Support from parents and friends can be in the form of concrete support, entailing the provision of materialistic needs such as food, clothes, transport and finances (Snowman, & McCown, 2013). Emotional support refers to mental support such as encouragement, empathy and comfort. Advice support, and esteem support includes motivation, positive words towards someone else, and providing them with verbal advice when they find themselves in a difficult situation (Pinkerton, & Dolan, 2007). Communities, both informally (in terms of relationships, support and protection) as well as formally (in terms of community organisations), contribute to a person's resilience and act as protective resources against the adversity youth face (Ungar, 2011). In the current study, a sense of belonging was found to be important for both males and females, and for children younger than, at, and older than the age of 15. This is also the case in previous research studies, as no human being can exist on their own (Donald et al., 2010).

4.3.2 CONTRADICTIONS BETWEEN THE CURRENT RESEARCH FINDINGS AND EXISTING LITERATURE

Gender differences are assumed to occur in all aspects of human life (Bryant, 2007). In the data results of the study at hand, gender played an important role in the analysis of risk and resilience in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. Although gender differences have been researched extensively, not all existing knowledge relates to the results of the current research. However, the anomalies between existing knowledge and the current research pertain mainly to gender.

Typically, research has found that females generally relate more to spirituality and experience more spiritual wellbeing than males (Burnell, Beukes, & Esterhuyse, 2009; Patel, Ramgoon, & Paruk, 2009). Not only were females found to relate more to spirituality in their community, but to also have committed and engaged with spiritual practices and beliefs on a personal level rather than just in a culturally transferred manner (Bryant, 2007).

In this study, males and females expressed an equal presence of spirituality. A possible reason for this is that traditionally spirituality and religion are more male-centred; it is a process of becoming an adult.

However, a shift has recently taken place to spirituality being a process of relationship building, indicating why females are currently perceived to be more spiritual than males (Bryant, 2007). Due to the specific contextual setting of the research, the traditional view of spirituality and the male dominance thereof, together with a global drive to gender equality, may have driven the result of males and females attaching the same value to spirituality. Although in current research more females than males are spiritual, the specific contextual setting of the research at hand, where gender equality is slower to materialise, the shift in spirituality is only taking place now, explaining the equality in spirituality of males and females (Bryant, 2007; Burnell et al., 2009; Moyo et al., 2012; Naidoo, & Karels, 2012).

Gender-related variances in existing research and the current research occurred with regard to the experience of fulfilled basic needs. Studies have found that females tend to be less inclined to experience positive affect and life satisfaction than males; this was, however, not the case in the current research study (Smith, Tooley, Christopher, & Kay, 2010; Veronese et al., 2012). A possible reason for females experiencing more happiness and positive affect than the males in current research can be explained by the cultural setting of rural youth. In rural contexts, where females do not experience as much future-oriented pressure for education and family provision as males, it is likely that females will experience more positive affect due to the less stressful lives they live as caregivers rather than providers and caregivers, as is the case in the literature produced by Westernised societies (Naidoo, & May, 2010; Moyo et al., 2012; Ogwo, 2013b).

4.3.3 SILENCES FOUND IN THE CURRENT RESEARCH FINDINGS WHEN COMPARED TO EXISTING LITERATURE

In the data of the current research no distinctions could be found in the indicators of violence and a need for protection to identify the differences in violence experienced by males and females (Banda, 2008; Ngobale et al., 2013; Ratele, 2009). Existing knowledge indicated that females experience more sexual violence and domestic violence, whereas males experience more interpersonal violence with strangers (Banda, 2008; Lazarus et al., 2011; Ratele, 2009). Another aspect not expressed or identified is that being male can be a protective resource in the face of violence and a need for protection (Lazarus et al., 2011). Although the male clients indicated that they would one day like to protect others, males as requiring protection was not mentioned.

Furthermore, the current research study did not distinguish clearly between the specific needs clients experience (Horsten, 2004; Mogotlane et al., 2010; Van Rensburg et al., 2013). According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, there are five levels of needs (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). In this study, unfulfilled needs as well as fulfilled needs were identified. However, the specific category in which the needs of the clients would fall, was not clearly distinguished.

In a study conducted by Ogwo (2013a), it was found that younger adolescents have a better relationship with and experience a stronger sense of belonging with their parents than older adolescents. Older adolescents in turn find more social support from their peers (Snowman, & McCown, 2013). In the current study a sense of belonging was identified in client files younger than or at the age of 15, as well as in client files of adolescents older than 15, but no distinction was found in the type of social support of youth, i.e. parental or peer group related.

4.3.4 NEW INSIGHTS

Agreements, anomalies and silences between existing literature and the current study have been discussed. This leads to the next undeniable valuable aspect of the study. New insights into risk and resilience at the hand of a first sand tray at a rural secondary school will now be discussed.

To date, research has failed to pay specific attention to the relation between basic needs and resilience. Basic needs as either a risk factor or protective resource have been overlooked in resilience studies (Mampane, & Bouwer, 2006; Bhana, & Bachoo, 2011; Cameron et al., 2007; Dearden, 2004). The need of social support, parental nurturance, and access to services has been researched and included in resilience studies; however, there seems to be a gap in the influence of basic needs such as nutrition and safe housing on the phenomenon of resilience (Mampane, & Bouwer, 2006; Theron, & Theron, 2010). In the current research study, there seems to be a clear indication that the fulfilment or lack of fulfilment in basic needs influence resilience in rural school youth. However, the directionality and reason for this influence remain unclear.

Another insight from the current research study is that more males than females experienced their basic needs to be met. Little research has been done on the influence of gender differences on the perception of fulfilled basic needs, with the assumption that females are more need-oriented than males (Louw, & Louw, 2007; Lauer, 2013; Ayenibiowo, Akinbode, Ayodeji, & Adewuyi, 2012; Fashina, & Matthew, 2010).

To date, no studies pertaining to the identification of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school have been undertaken. The current research study found that the sand tray technique as used in the manner explained in this study can be used to analyse possible indicators of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school. This contributes to the existing knowledge of the first sand tray containing indicators of resources and challenges in the lives of clients. Combining the tenets of resilience research and sand tray therapy, brought about a novel way of analysing risk and resilience in rural settings, where diverse cultures and languages could complicate communication between educational psychologists and their clients (Bhana, & Bachoo, 2011; Cameron et al, 2007; Carle, & Chassin, 2004; Dearden, 2004;

Dumont, & Provost, 1999; Ferreira, & Ebersöhn, 2012; Garmezy, 1996; Gilligan, 2000; Mampane, & Bouwer, 2006; Masten, & Powell, 2003; Nettles et al., 2000; Pinkerton, & Dolan, 2007; Sangwon, & Esquivel, 2011; Smith, Tooley, Christopher, & Kay, 2010; Theron, & Theron, 2010; Ungar, 2004; Ungar, 2006; Ungar, 2011; Zolkoski, & Bullock, 2012).

4.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter I discussed the various themes and sub-themes as they were identified during the analysis of risk and resilience in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. The data results are followed by a discussion of the results relating to the existing literature. This discussion includes results that are reinforced by existing literature, results in the current study that contradict existing literature, existing findings in literature sources relating to risk and resilience that are not supported in the current study, and finally new insights into the indicators of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of rural school youth.

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CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I provide a brief overview of the previous chapters. After the overview I discuss the findings of the data obtained through the research study as it relates to the secondary questions posed in Chapter 1. Following the answered secondary questions, the limitations inherent in the study will be discussed. The contributions the research made to the world of knowledge will subsequently be explained. The chapter concludes with recommendations to future researchers.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE PREVIOUS CHAPTERS

As this study was informed by theories relating to *sandplay therapy, resilience,* and *assessment*, I conducted a critical review of the literature pertaining to these concepts, in **Chapter 2.** A literature review was conducted to position the study theoretically. I first provided a brief overview of play and assessment. In this section, play and assessment were framed as play being an informative, alternative way to address the challenges posed by the previously dominant psychometric forms of assessment. The goal of alternative assessment to provide ways in which the needs of clients can be addressed was then briefly discussed. The reason for play-based assessment being effective, and the information it can provide were highlighted.

I then explored the theory behind sandplay therapy. The discussion of sandplay included the roots of sandplay as they went through various developmental phases, from the Navajo religion using it in ceremonies, through playing games on the floor in which a world is created, until it was refined by Margaret Lowenfeld and Dora Kalff. The difference between the sandplay and sand tray techniques were then discussed, and I said that I would use the terms interchangeably throughout the discussion of the research conducted. The process through which one administers the sandplay technique was then explored and described. Following the process of administration, the way in which sandplay therapy works in the psyche of the individuals who experience it was provided. It was concluded that sandplay is a non-verbal modality that provides healing and growth by allowing the unconscious to communicate with the conscious in a free and protected space. The role the therapist takes on during the process of sandplay therapy was then explained as it was perceived in a review of the literature. The therapist is not the expert during the process, but merely an observer that creates a safe holding space in which a client can freely express his/her inner life.

Following the review done on sandplay, I briefly investigated the common challenges youth in rural contexts face. Poverty, HIV/AIDS, limited access to services and resources, as well as social justice were identified in the literature as challenges regularly faced by youth in rural settings.

Resilience was explored in the literature and is discussed in Chapter 2 as an outcome as well as a process by which individuals overcome the adversities they face, by means of resources internal and external to themselves. In order for resilience to be present there need to be severe risk, protective resources, as well as adaptive/positive outcomes. I reported on information from the literature indicating that a risk is something that holds the possibility for poor developmental and behavioural outcomes. Risk factors can be inside the individual, such as illness, or outside the individual in the family, for instance low income, or in the community. Protective resources in turn were described as the resources individuals have at their disposal to utilise in the face of risk to buffer against, and minimise the negative effects of risk. Protective resources can also be personal or contextual. Adaptive or positive outcomes refer to positive developmental outcomes that are as expected or above expectations for the context in which the individual finds him-/herself.

In **Chapter 3** I described how I planned and went about conducting the research study. I explained how I anchored the study in a constructivist metatheoretical paradigm, using a qualitative methodological paradigm. I then continued with an explanation of the research design used in the study. I used an instrumental case study design to conduct the research. I provided a brief description of the setting in which the research was conducted. The research took place at a rural secondary school in the Mpumalanga province. MEd Educational Psychology students who formed part of an academic service learning programme conducted the sandplay process with Grade 9 learners. Client files were purposively selected. The data from these client files included visual data (photographs), client narratives and MEd student reflections on the first sand tray of the ASL clients. The role of the students and the process followed in gathering the data were also described in Chapter 3. I then gave an account of how I analysed the data by means of inductive thematic analysis. The chapter included a description of the quality criteria used to strengthen the applicability of the study. Finally, Chapter 3 was concluded with the ethical considerations maintained throughout the research process.

Chapter 4 included the findings and discussions of the research study. The chapter reported on the findings as they arose from the three data sources, and on how the themes and sub-themes are described in literature relating to youth in a rural setting. The first part of the chapter conveys risk as it was analysed in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. Risk was thus the first theme. The sub-themes that were identified, contributing to the analysis of risk, were: *violence and a need for protection, unmet basic- and nurturance needs,* and *gender inequality and conflict.* Each of these categories and their accompanying indicators were discussed individually. The second theme identified was *protective resources*. Various sub-

themes were identified to contribute to the identification of protective factors in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. The sub-themes under the umbrella theme of resilience included: *spirituality, fulfilled needs,* and a *sense of belonging.* As with the sub-themes relating to risk, the sub-themes relating to protective resources were then discussed on the grounds of how they were identified during the process of inductive analysis. The researcher will now use the findings of the research study, as provided in Chapter 4, to answer the secondary research questions stated in Chapter 1.

5.3 ANSWERING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

5.3.1 WHICH RISK FACTORS EMERGED FROM ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST SAND TRAY OF YOUTH AT A RURAL SCHOOL?

A new insight is the finding that youth-clients in a rural school can depict risk in sand trays. As has been found in other studies with at-risk youth, youth in the study also indicated the following as risk factors; *violence and a need for protection, unfulfilled basic- and nurturance needs,* as well as *gender inequality and conflict*.

5.3.1.1 The risk of violence and a need for protection

These risk factors are similar to those indicated by youth in other studies. Violence and a need for protection to both natural and interpersonal threats were identified. Violence and a need for protection were identified as a public health issue within the organisations and institutions of rural districts (Berry et al., 2002; Kaldine, 2007).

Higher levels of violence in rural districts, as opposed to other districts, expose youth to higher levels of both structural and community violence, placing youth at risk for various types of emotional and physical harm (Kaldine, 2007; Statistics South Africa, 2013). Social inequality and poverty are two of the major reasons for both structural and commuity violence leading to challenges in healthy development of youth in rural areas. One reason for this is that the presence of inequality leads to limited police services despite higher levels of violence, calling on a need for protection, as was indicated by the youth in the current study (Steinberg, 2005). It was also found that both men and women experience violence in rural settings, albeit in different forms. Furthermore, violence and a need for protection in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school was not limited to interpersonal behaviour, but also included a need for protection against elements of nature such as dangerous animals (Lamarque et al., 2009).

Rural youth in this study found violence to be a risk factor. Therefore, intervention regarding the expressed need for protection against violence becomes a relevant topic and evidence-based research for relevant school-based intervention plans are consequently necessary.

5.3.1.2 The risk of unmet basic- and nurturance needs

I also found that participating youth identified the risk of unmet basic- and nurturance needs. Unmet basic- and nurturance needs fall within the individual system due to the individual being the one who has to fulfil their needs in order to develop optimally (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). With basic- and nurturing needs not fulfilled youth are more vulnerable to various emotional, social and physical challenges (Holtman et al., 2011).

According to Maslow's theory, there is a hierarchy of needs that need to be fulfilled before an individual can reach self-actualisation. In the current study, as well as in previous studies, it was found that loss of parents and friends due to illness, death, employment circumstances, and abandonment plays an important role in youth expressing their needs to be unfulfilled (Ganga, & Chinyoka, 2013). Rural youth thus identified that their basic- and nurturance needs are not fulfilled, placing them at risk for poor developmental outcomes and negative affect; in turn, necessitating identification and intervention to address unmet basic- and nurturance needs.

5.3.1.3 The risk of gender inequality and conflict

Gender inequality and conflict also emerged in the first sand trays of youth in a rural school, and echoed findings on risk in other studies. Gender inequality and conflict is regarded as a social risk factor due to its roots being in the society's rules, roles and practices (Laher, & Cockroft, 2013).

The youth clients that participated in the study expressed both internal and external struggles with regards to gender inequality and conflict, especially sexual abuse. In a rural South African context males are still regarded as more powerful and superior to women in many aspects, normalising gender-based violence (Tshifhumulo, & Mudhovozi, 2013).

Internal conflict is experienced mostly due to individuals questioning the male-dominance in their society (Arnett, 2002). Male clients started questioning the acceptance of female rape while females question their child-rearing role as opposed to employment. A multicultural setting can further promote internal conflict as youth are exposed to different views regarding gender roles, this conflict is further intensified by multimedia and globalisation. Youth are no longer exposed to different views in their context, but also views from a national and international perspective (Arnett, 2002). Gender inequality and conflict can lead to a general

state of insecurity in one's context; in turn, the insecurity can lead to a sense of fear and alienation, possibly resulting in emotional and developmental challenges (Sampson, 2008).

More females than males indicated gender inequality and conflict. A possible reason is that rural communities still face patriarchal power distribution. As females are more oppressed by this, they tend to question the status quo more often than males who possess the power (Moyo et al., 2012). Due to the complexity of gender inequality and conflict, as well as the negative outcomes, it can result in identification and consequently support is necessitated.

It is however important to note that the ASL clients were in the phase of identity development, probably indicating that confusion with gender identity could be expected in the sand trays.

5.3.2 WHICH PROTECTIVE RESOURCES EMERGE FROM ANALYSIS IN THE FIRST SAND TRAY OF YOUTH AT A RURAL SCHOOL?

A new insight is the finding that sand trays can be used in Educational Psychology with rural youth-clients to assess protective resources. Like other studies, youth in this study also indicated the following as protective resources; *spirituality, fulfilled needs*, as well as *a sense of belonging*.

5.3.2.1 Spirituality as a protective resource

Spirituality emerged as a protective resource as previous studies have shown that being spiritual and believing in a higher power result in individuals having better well-being, academic performance, altruism and resilience than individuals who are not spiritual. Spirituality is an emotional phenomenon related to a belief in a sacred higher being (Bhana, & Bachoo, 2011; Hoffman, & Janse van Rensburg, 2010).

Although previous research has indicated that females are generally more spiritual than males, findings of the current study indicated that both male and female youth experience spirituality to be present in their lives and acts as a protective resource against the negative influence of risk. The move from a male-centred power dominance toward gender equality in rural contexts are slower than in urban areas, providing a possible reason for males and females expressing an equal presence of spirituality as opposed to more Western studies where females tended to be more spiritual than their male counterparts (Burnell et al., 2009; Moyo et al., 2012).

Spirituality was further found to decrease dangerous sexual activity, criminal behaviour and emotional challenges. It further increases life-skills, self-worth, and positive relationships (Sangwon, & Esquivel,

2011). These buffering tenets of spirituality underpins the value of being able to identify, and capatalise on spirituality as a protective resource in both male and female youth in a rural South African school.

5.3.2.2 Fulfilled needs as a protective resource

Fulfilled needs were regarded as a protective resource as fulfilled needs can ultimately lead to individuals living self-actualised and happy lives. As needs of youth are expected to be fulfilled by the adults in their lives and not by themselves, this sub-theme falls in the social and cross-cultural domain of 'social influences' (Louw, & Louw, 2007; Georgas, 1988).

As opposed to unfulfilled needs, fulfilled needs can results in improved social, emotional, physical, and academic developmental outcomes. Positive affect was a primary indicator of fulfilled needs as happiness, according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, can only be experienced after basic needs have been met (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). Due to the positive outcomes of having fulfilled needs, being able to identify fulfilled needs of youth in a rural school by means of the first sand tray holds great value to improving resilience.

Previous research findings indicated that males experience more happiness and fulfilled needs than females, these findings were not mirrored in the current study where females indicated more feelings of happiness and fulfilled needs. This can possibly be explained by females in rural areas experiencing less pressure due to their sole role of caregivers, as opposed to females in Western studies who have to fulfil multiple roles, including work, and home responsibilities (Smith, Tooley, Christopher, & Kay, 2010). A silence found between previous studies and findings of the current research pertains to a limitation in identifying the specific needs of youth-clients that were met. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, there are five levels of needs (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). The specific level in which the needs of the clients that identified their needs to be fulfilled fell, was not clearly distinguished.

5.3.2.3 Sense of belonging as a protective resource

A sense of belonging emerged as a protective resource as having a sense of belonging can contribute to having a purpose in life and forming positive, and supportive, social bonds. A sense of belonging sprouts from an interaction with others, placing it in the 'social indicators' domain of the social and cross-cultural model of Georgas (Carr, 2006; Georgas, 1988). Social support improves resilience and protects against risk by providing a safe base from which to live one's life and to gain support from other individuals when challenges are experienced.

Resilient youth have consistently indicated a presence of social support, including both peer, and family members (Pinkerton, & Dolan, 2007). Social support can include both material and emotional support,

providing multiple buffers against adversity (Snowman, & McCown, 2013). Social support can expand further than family and peers to include communities. Communities can contribute to resilience by means of regular community bonds or formal organisations (Ungar, 2011).

5.3.3 WHAT IS THE UTILITY OF THE FIRST SAND TRAY TO ASSESS RESILIENCE OF YOUTH AT A SOUTH AFRICAN RURAL SCHOOL?

It was found that a first sand tray can be used to assist in the psychological assessment of resilience in youth at a rural school. By means of analysing the first sand tray, various risk and protective resources emerged. These two aspects are critical in the assessment of resilience (Cameron et al., 2007). The first sand tray of youth in a rural school thus allows for health professionals to assess indicators of resilience both internal and external to an individual (Berry & Ward, 2006).

5.3.4 HOW CAN AN ANALYSIS OF RISK AND RESILIENCE IN THE FIRST SAND TRAY OF YOUTH IN A RURAL SCHOOL INFORM KNOWLEDGE ON THE ASSESSMENT OF RESILIENCE IN YOUTH IN HIGH ADVERSITY SETTINGS IN SOUTH AFRICA?

The research contributed to knowledge on assessment of resilience in youth who find themselves in high diversity and adversity setting in South Africa. It contributed by showing the utility of a sand tray as a non-verbal means of assessment that can surpass prevalent language barriers in a diverse South Africa. The study found that the sand tray technique provides a window into the indicators of resilience of rural youth in a diverse school setting.

Combining the tenants of resilience research and sand tray therapy brought about a novel way to assess resilience in rural schools. It further contributes to assessment in settings where high adversity and diversity could complicate communication between clients and therapists, also contributing to assessment validity (Bhana, & Bachoo, 2011; Cameron et al., 2007; Dearden, 2004; Dumont, & Provost, 1999; Garmezy, 1996; Mampane, & Bouwer, 2006; Masten, & Powell, 2003; Nettles et al., 2000; Sangwon, & Esquivel, 2011; Smith, Tooley, Christopher, & Kay, 2010; Ungar, 2004; Ungar, 2011; Zolkoski, & Bullock, 2012).

I found that youth-clients expressed indicators of resilience in the sand trays. Sand trays were thus able to capture both the risk factors and protective resources youth-clients experienced in their everyday lives. By having the ability to assess indicators of resilience, knowledge is expanded in both the research and psychological practice spheres. Being able to assess resilience provides practitioners with the opportunity to plan intervention programmes to support youth-clients to overcome the challenges they face by using the resources they possess (Patton, 2002). It also allows researchers to gain further understanding into

resilience with the aim of promoting resilience in youth who find themselves in high adversity settings in South Africa.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher identified a number of limitations during the research process. I recognised the limitations multilingualism could have had on the quality of the data (Mackey, & Grass, 2015). The ASL students mostly spoke different languages to that of the client files from which they collected data. English was mostly used to communicate, while being a second language for most of the students, and a third or fourth language for the client. This could potentially have influenced the narratives elicited by the students for the client files. However, the ASL students did have someone they could ask to translate words or phrases for them that they recorded verbatim, but this had to happen after the visits to the school as the other ASL students could not neglect their own groups to support peers with translation. Another limitation noticed, pertaining to language, was that some students were able to communicate to the clients in their mother tongue, while others could not. This could possibly have resulted in different types of information obtained in the narratives by those communicating in a second language with clients and those communicating in a home language with clients.

During the administration of the sandplay process, there were fieldworkers present to assist the ASL students in gathering the narratives from their group of students (De Vos et al., 2011). According to Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2011), having fieldworkers might pose a limitation to research as each fieldworker brings its own background to the data collection. The information obtained by fieldworkers might not have the same depth as those obtained by the ASL students as the fieldworkers did not have the same relationships with clients as the ASL students did. Furthermore, the information obtained by the fieldworker and the student for a single group might differ. The clients were however provided with the option to have the student that facilitated their group collect their narratives rather than the fieldworkers. The fieldworkers were also provided with training on how to elicit a narrative and create a safe environment for the clients in which they could share their narrative. Due to this limitation the ASL students who visited the school in following years facilitated all the sand trays themselves.

Data collection took place at a school. The school setting poses various challenges to data collection and interpretation due to constant changes in school culture, time-tables, and resources (Murphy, 2015; Ebersöhn, 2015). These aspects also influenced the current study as the groups were at the sandplay station at different times, sometimes when the rest of the school had break, or during free periods or when changing classes. During such times, learners from the rest of the school walked by the sand tray station or sometimes even wanted to start a conversation or observe the learners that were busy creating a scene in

the sand tray. This disrupted the process of sandplay and also the willingness of the learners to participate in creating scenes in the sand and share their narratives. The ASL students, fieldworkers and other personnel attempted to address this limitation by appealing to learners who were not creating a scene to stay away from the station. It was also decided not to do sandplay while it was the school's break time.

The sandplay was conducted in groups. Collecting data from groups robs the investigator from the opportunity to gain an in-depth understanding of each client's meaning making processes (David, & Sutton, 2004). The sand trays were in close proximity to each other, providing clients with the opportunity to engage in conversation while creating their scenes; it also left the clients vulnerable for comments and critique on their creations, as well as other clients listening to their private narratives. This placed a limitation on the research as the fear of comments and the distraction by other clients could have influenced the process of expression while the scenes were created. The clients were however continuously reminded and motivated to focus on their own sand trays and not look at, or comment on, the scenes created by other clients.

Differences in diversity between the researchers and clients were a further challenge (David, & Sutton, 2004). The client files were from a resource-constrained African community, while the researcher was from a middle-class Afrikaans-speaking community. This posed the challenge of the researcher attributing her own meanings to the creations of the clients (Barbour, 2008). Although from a constructivist perspective this is inevitable, the researcher monitored the influence of different backgrounds between her and the client continuously, and kept a reflexive journal (Willig, 2013). Furthermore, using narratives in respect of the sand trays provided client files with their own meaning.

The quality of data sources, especially ASL student reflections proved to be a challenge. Different ASL students provided reflections from different viewpoints, with different depths, and in different languages, influencing the quality of data sources (Bold, 2012). As all text is infused with the meaning construction of the producer of the text, there is no uniformity between the ways in which the ASL students reflected upon the completed sand tray and the narratives of their clients (Breakwell, 2012). Different students would inevitably have different focal points and opinions related to the sand trays. This limitation was partly addressed by using not only the reflections of students, but also the narratives and visual data to allow for the client files to provide their own meaning to the creation, in turn providing the researcher with a holistic image of the first sand tray of youth at a rural school.

The absence of field notes was identified as a further limitation. Field notes contain a vivid description of observations in the natural context of where and when the data is collected; an absence of field-notes leads to a gap in understanding the data collected (Patton, 2002). Due to the number of clients in each group, the field workers, as well as the ASL students, spent so much of their time taking photographs and capturing

narratives that they failed to make detailed field notes. This was addressed in the following years by not administering the sand trays in groups, but only individually.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.5.1 RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO FUTURE RESEARCH

- The sample pertaining to the study was not sufficient to draw any general conclusions regarding gender differences in risk and resilience in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. In future it might be beneficial to investigate the gender differences related to risk and resilience.
- Different figurines are preferred by the different genders when constructing their sand trays. Understanding the different figurines used by each gender to indicate risk and resilience may be constructive to the field of resilience studies when using the first sand tray of youth at a rural school.
- Although the context in which the research took place was multicultural, the sample of the study and the information available about the client files were not sufficient to draw conclusions based on cultural differences in the indicators of risk and resilience in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school. It might therefore be advantageous to investigate the way in which culture influences risk and resilience as portrayed in the first sand trays.
- A further aspect contemplated by the researcher, and mentioned in Chapter 4, is the way in which the protective resources in the first sand tray can be used to address the challenges portrayed in the first sand tray. The data obtained from this study is not sufficient to address this question. However, gaining insight into this aspect may be valuable to resilience-oriented intervention programmes in future.
- The sand tray technique as opposed to traditional Jungian sandplay was used to collect data (see Chapter 2). Understanding how risk and resilience present itself when assessed through different techniques using sand, water and miniature figurines as mediums for expression, may inform resilience studies further.

5.5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO PRACTICE

- Although the visual capturing of the first sand tray provided rich information to research, the narrative was an informative adjunct to the visual data. It is therefore recommended that psychologists and researchers who wish to use the sand tray technique when gathering data,

consider using narratives explaining the creation in conjunction with the visual data representing the creation.

- A practitioner using sandplay should be aware of the possible influences that contextual variables might have on the creation in the sand, as well as the relevant narrative. Sandplay has the possible advantage of generating data that is culturally and linguistically unbiased. Cultural differences may, however, have a direct impact on the creation of the picture in the sand, leading to wrongful interpretation if the practitioner is not cognisant of all possible influences.
- Competent sandplay practitioners are of utmost importance. It is recommended that those researchers and psychologists who wish to use sandplay be well trained in the administration of the sandplay technique, including instructions on how to make observations, as well as possible questions to be asked when eliciting a narrative pertaining to the creation in the sand.
- Practitioners practicing in a multilingual and multicultural context, should consider using the sand tray technique to overcome language barriers.

5.5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO TRAINING

- All significant role players in the lives of youth should be trained to enhance resilience. Training should include enabling teachers, parents, psychologists and community workers to recognise the presence of risk, as well as protective resources, and how to activate and use these resources to overcome risk.
- Psychologists and researchers should be trained in the sandplay technique, as it is a non-verbal modality that allows for communication despite language barriers, in both research and clinical practice. The non-verbal modality and working through the medium of play rather than addressing emotions directly is also a valuable tenet of the sandplay technique; it thus allows for easy rapport building and trust (see Chapter 2).

5.6 CONCLUSION

In this study the researcher analysed risk and resilience in the first sand trays of youth at a rural school. From the findings of this study it can be concluded that both themes, namely of risk and resilience (protective resources), can be identified in the first sand tray of youth at a rural school. Several indicators of risk were identified in the first trays, but so were protective resources, indicating the relevance of resilience studies and practice to be of value in this setting.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Examples of client narratives transcribed verbatim

Appendix B
Extract from researcher diary

Appendix C
Examples of ASL student reflections

Appendix D
Checklist utilised in ASL student reflections (Grubbs, 2005)

Appendix E
Phase 1: Familiarising oneself with the data – involves transcribing the data where necessary as well as reading and re-reading the data and noting down initial ideas

Appendix F
Phase 2: Generating initial codes – coding interesting data in a systemic manner across the data set, and collate the data relevant to each code

Appendix G
Phase 3: Searching for themes – collate codes into potential themes, thus gather all data relevant to each potential theme

Appendix H
Phase 5: Defining and naming themes – proceed with on-going analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, generate clear definitions and names for each theme

Appendix I
Consent forms for ASL students and clients

Appendix J
Client files regarded as complete versus client files regarded as incomplete

Appendix K
Analysed client file 13 ASL student C

Appendix L
Assessment battery for Ngilandi 2013

Appendix A

Examples of client narratives transcribed verbatim

Client file 1: Narrative

I made this because I love it when people are with their family at the sea. I am the snake, because I like the snake, but I am also scared of the snake. My mom is also here, she is under the umbrella enjoying her day. My brother and my uncle is also here, they are busy guiding people. When people start fighting the two brothers and uncle wants to say that the fighting should stop. The yellow truck is used to go home. This is here to celebrate, the star. Here we can also stand in the shade. The heart means love. The starfish is in the sea.

Client file 6: Narrative

Here are different animals, snakes, animals in water fishes, dinosaurs. Here is a giraffe, a butterfly that likes flowers. This is the Kruger National Park. I like it. I am the butterfly because it is friendly, does not disturb other animals. I used the pebbles as it looks like green grass and is food to the animals. The trees are there as a forest for the animals to be able to hide in there. Like lions. Tall trees are used for the giraffe to be able to hide. There animals can be kept safe from the lion.

Client file 13: Narrative

This is my house, me, brother's car. When I grow up I want to catch thieves (Me= green soldiers). The tracker fixes the roads. When I see the animals I get them (points to left). The hunters come to look for the animals so I stay with them (the animals). The ducks are close to home and the horses but the butterflies fly in the sky. Green soldiers catch the thieves, because the thieves steel the rhinos. They also sell the racing cars.

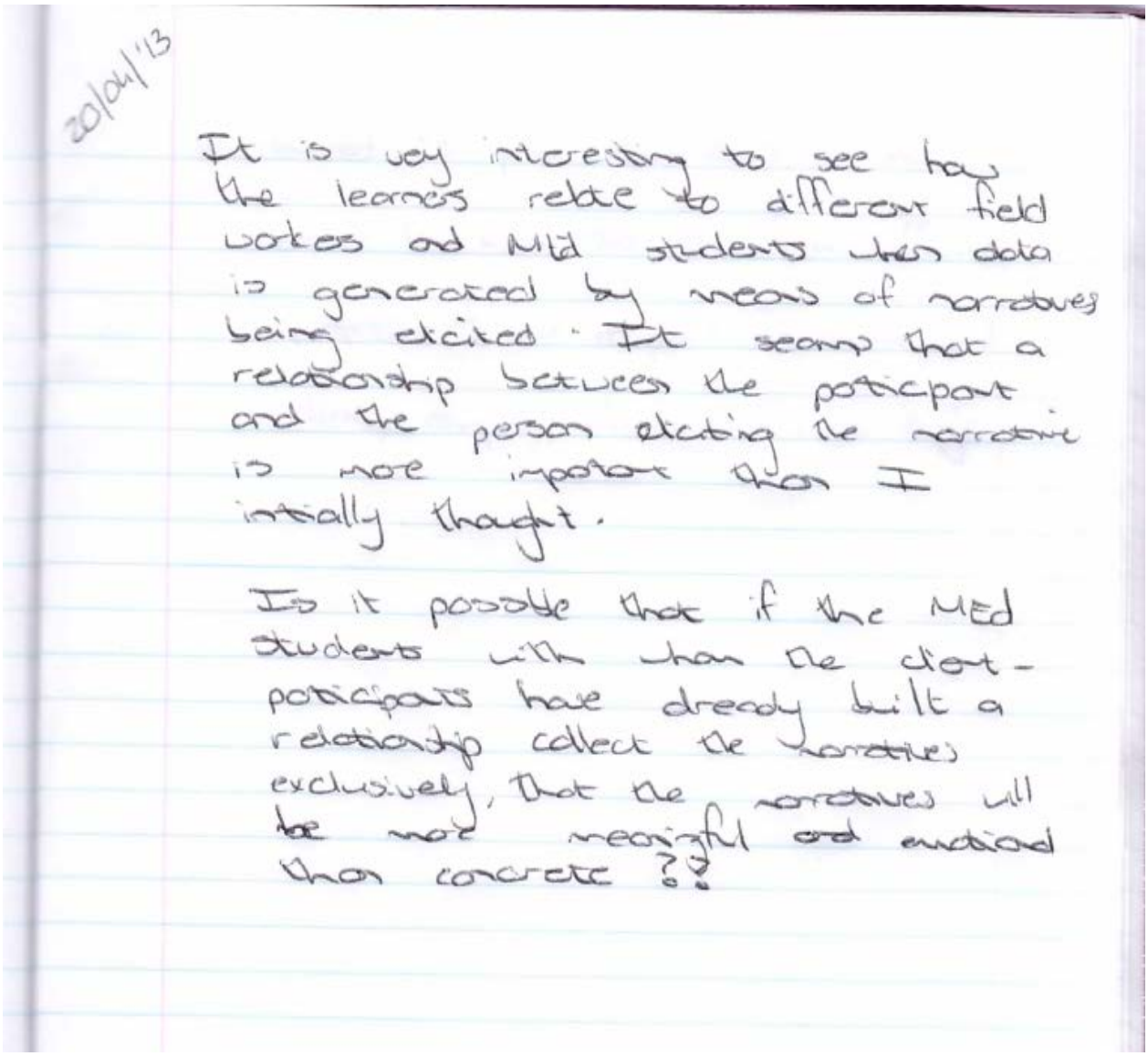
Client file 17: Narrative

A Zoo, a swimming pool, a mountain, in mountain elephant and giraffe. Place where they refresh people. There are animals in this place. Animals that live in water like fish and snake. There are dangerous animals in this place.
Where are you in the picture? Next to giraffe

Appendix B

Extract from researcher diary

How did it feel to build? Love, comfortable.



20/04/'13

It is very interesting to see how the learners relate to different field workers and MEd students when data is generated by means of narratives being elicited. It seems that a relationship between the participant and the person eliciting the narrative is more important than I initially thought.

Is it possible that if the MEd students with whom the client-participants have already built a relationship collect the narratives exclusively, that the narratives will be more meaningful and evoked than concrete ??

Appendix C

Examples of ASL student reflections

Client file 1: ASL student A reflection

Conflict might be a big part of her framework. There is however people on her family who tries to keep the peace. Her home might be her escape, but her home probably means with her mother and father. She does however have a positive relationship with her grandmother with whom she lives.

Client file 6: ASL student A reflection

She sees herself as a friendly person. Still, she tends to feel isolated sometimes. She experiences the world as a place full of dangers and that the people around her needs safe keeping. Her experience of her own world seems spacious and not to cluttered, but still very busy.

Client file 13: ASL student C reflection

- Light lines in the sand
- Makes me feel focused (forehead)
- Butterflies
- Need and want to protect
- Good use of space - resource
- Observer?
- Home = safety? – hopes and wants
- Obstructions between army and family – willingness to let other in? Not from my experience though…
- Problem = deep need to protect family
- Solution = becoming a "soldier" – being able to provide

Client file 17: ASL student D reflection

- Use sand only at first
- Builds a double border for protection or security, feels insecure and needs to set boundaries or very religious and conservative, strict rules must be a good girl. The boundaries refers to the boundaries and rules that is already in her life like through her church and mother. The boundaries might help her to remain a good girl
- Dangerous animals = threatening
- Boundary on inside of tray, boundary around waterhole.
- Vegetable and plant stage
- Spiritual – angel, start
- Unpeopled scene – feeling of alienation, fear or threat.
- One human figure – male – maybe indications of her lost father because the figure looks lost and alone.
- Dried waterhole in the center of the tray – desert scene
- Signs of danger – she says that this place she built is a dangerous place, two borders, angel, star also protective figures. Many of the dangerous animals like sharks and snakes are in the hole with the border around as well as high dam walls to keep them in
- Danger is thus contained at this stage but at what cost/
- Maybe danger inside her of not being a good girl anymore if all the anger and the nasty things inside comes out. Anger against father, strict church, failing school.

Appendix D

Checklist utilised in ASL student reflections (Grubbs, 2005)

SANDPLAY CATEGORICAL CHECKLIST (SCC)

CREATOR:_____DATE:_____TRAY #:_____of_____

DIRECT OBSERVATION AND OBJECTIVE ANALYSIS

1. **STORY (briefly worded)**

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. **FIGURES (and meanings if verbalized)**

Animals:

_____
_____
_____

People:

_____
_____
_____

Structures (buildings, barriers, connectors, etc.):

_____
_____

Objects (furniture, jewelry, weapons, food, etc.):

_____
_____
_____

Vehicles:

_____
_____

Natural Elements and Vegetation:

_____
_____

Other:

_____
_____

3. SETTING

__disorganized __animal/vegetative __war __Asian
__primitive __people/animal __community/city/village __symbolic/mythical
__bizarre (explain) __home/family __party/celebration __spiritual/Self tray
___wound tray

Oriented as: ___Content ___Theme

4. CREATION PROCESS/DRAMATIC PLAY

___scene made intact with few changes ___dramatic play as scene is made (describe)
___major changes as scene is made (describe) ___ scene made first - then change of any kind or resolution
___scene made - then destroyed (describe how)

5. USE OF HUMAN AND ANIMAL FIGURES

___used appropriately ___no human or animal figures used ___people killing people
___used realistically ___animals in place of people ___penned or crowded into a tight mass
___used symbolically ___broken and/or dismembered body parts ___buried or hidden from others
___implied but not used ___animals devouring animals/people ___placed in dangerous/precarious places
___ intentionally knocked down and left

Observer (if used): _____

6. USE OF SAND

____Damp ____Dry
___figures placed on top, sand untouched ___intentionally thrown and splashed
___sand firmly packed down ___used destructively by pouring and/or burying
___some movement of sand with finger tips ___heavily wetted down
___diligently molded and shaped ___half to whole of tray flooded
___sand used to bury_____

7. USE OF TRAY

___very empty ___sparse ___well used ___full ___very full ___overflowing ___2 trays together
Areas of focus_____
Empty areas_____
Figures placed in center_____

8. CREATOR'S RESPONSE TO SCENE

___indifferent or no response ___apologetic ___relieved ___deeply moved
___pushes it away ___emotional (sad, angry, excited) ___energized
___satisfied (somewhat / very)

SUBJECTIVE IMPRESSIONS AND IMPLIED MEANINGS

9. MAIN PSYCHOLOGICAL EXPRESSIONS:

___destruction/violence ___alienation/loneliness ___organizing/structuring ___worship
___aggression ___self-protection ___construction/building ___uniting of opposites
___opposing forces ___self-nurturance ___happiness/celebration ___integration
___competition/challenge ___working/playing

Other: _____

Portrayed as: Reality _ _ _ _ _ Fantasy

10. COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT AND SCENE PROGRESS

Cognition: ___age appropriate
___regressive to approx. age___
___advanced for age

Scene progress: ___continuous
___regressive (explain)
___progressive (explain)
___resolution of conflict
(restructuring of previous scene # ___)

_____

_____

11. COORDINATION OF WHOLE AND PARTS OF THE SCENE

___chaotic or no coordination of figures or scene
___partial attempts to coordinate
___some coordination in small groupings
___appears equally coordinated and chaotic
___mostly coordinated with minimum chaos
___scene coordinated as a whole
___empty
___overemphasis of rows
___chaotic destruction of scene during process
___destruction of scene following completion

12. STRUCTURING OF RELATIONSHIPS (human and animal)

___no relationships represented
___a distinct separation of figure/s
___opposing groups and/or individuals
___individual/s relating to self or environment
___one or more communities/groupings
___dyadic relationships
___family unit/s

Interactions portrayed between them:
___destructive/sadistic ___self-protective/assertive ___cooperative/constructive

13. BOUNDARIES

___entire scene runs together
___some groupings with no clear boundaries
___boundary formation through:
___groupings ___use of space ___natural/man-made dividers ___containment ___dramatic play

___very fenced and/or rigid world
___figures and objects sink into the sand
___figures sit on or spill over sides of the tray
boundaries invaded

14. MOVEMENT/OBSTACLES

___static scene with no sense of movement
___chaotic and undirected movement
___movement blocked (describe)
___parts of scene blocked, other parts not (describe)
___some blockage, but movement can progress or go around (describe)
___destructive movement
___movement with appropriate obstacles
___free-flow of movement with no obstacles
___movement inward toward the center

15. RELATIONSHIP OF PARTS AND OPPOSITES

Parts/opposites represented:_____

___opposites kept separate
___negative interaction of opposites
___positive interaction of opposites
___attempt to unify opposites through: ___roads, rivers, etc. ___bridges ___figure placement
___dramatic play (describe) _____
___no attempt to unify opposites
___opposites unified
___opposites integrated
___no opposites represented

16. THERAPIST'S IMPRESSION OF THE SCENE

___confusing/conflicting (exp.)
___disruptive (explain)
___disconnected
___self-destructive
___no feeling or connection
___lacking color, depressive
___angry/fearful/sad/painful
___colorful, happy
___positive and moving
___peaceful, calm
___spiritual

17. SIGNIFICANT SYMBOLIC REPRESENTATIONS AND THEMATIC PLAY

18. SIGNIFICANT REPETITIVE THEME AND FIGURES USED

19. QUESTIONS RAISED

LG

Tray 2

Story

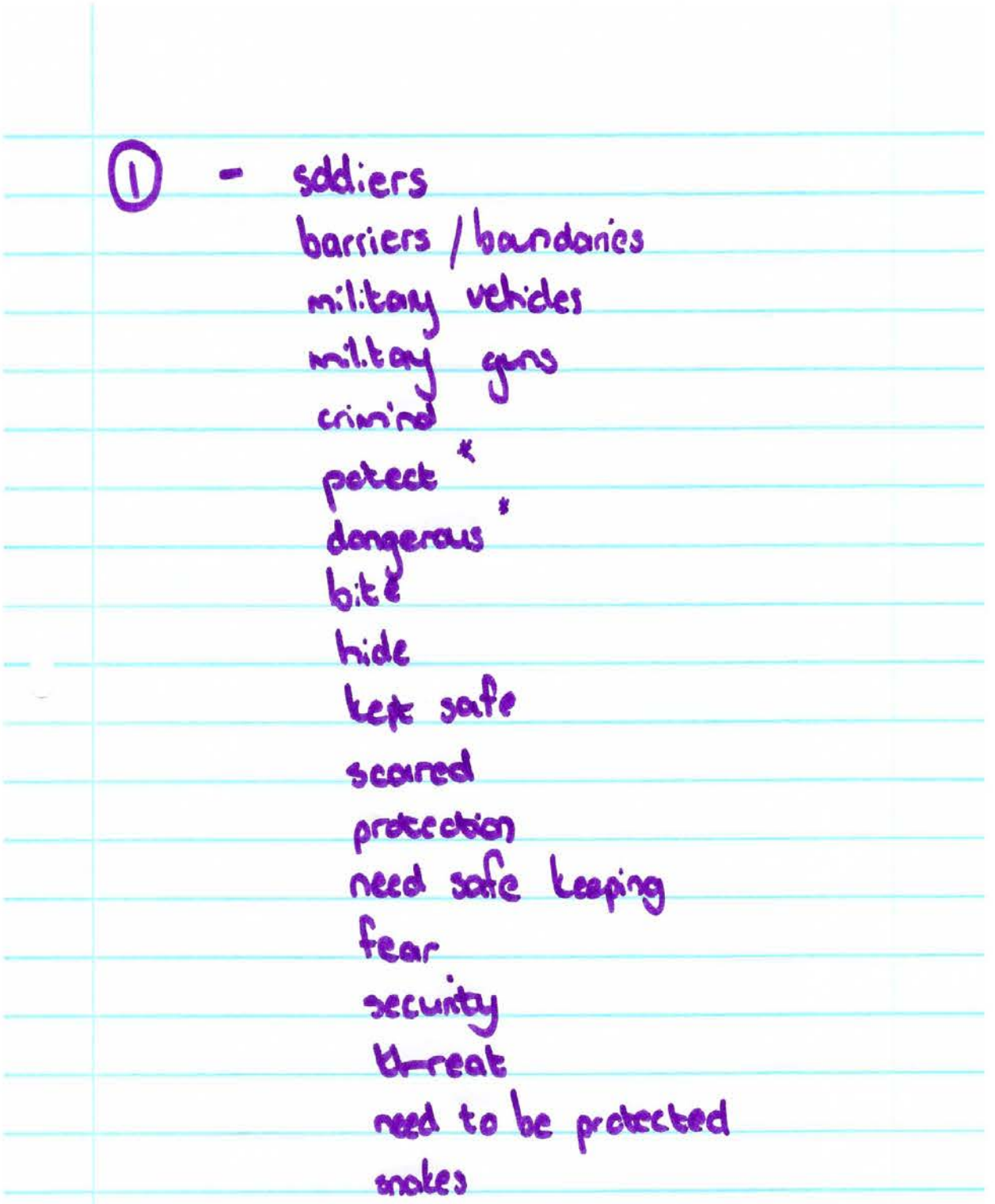
I made this because I love it when people are with their family at the sea. I am the snake, because I like the snake, but I am also scared of the snake. MY mom is also here, she is under the umbrella enjoying her day. MY brother and my uncle is also here, they are busy guiding people. When people start fighting the two brothers and uncle wants to say that the fighting should stop. The yellow truck is used to go home. This is here to celebrate, the star. Here we can also stand in the shade. The heart means love. The starfish is in the sea.

Reflection

Conflict might be a big part of her framework. There is however people on her family who tries to keep the peace. Her home might be her escape, but her home probably means with her mother and father. She does however have a positive relationship with her grandmother with whom she lives.

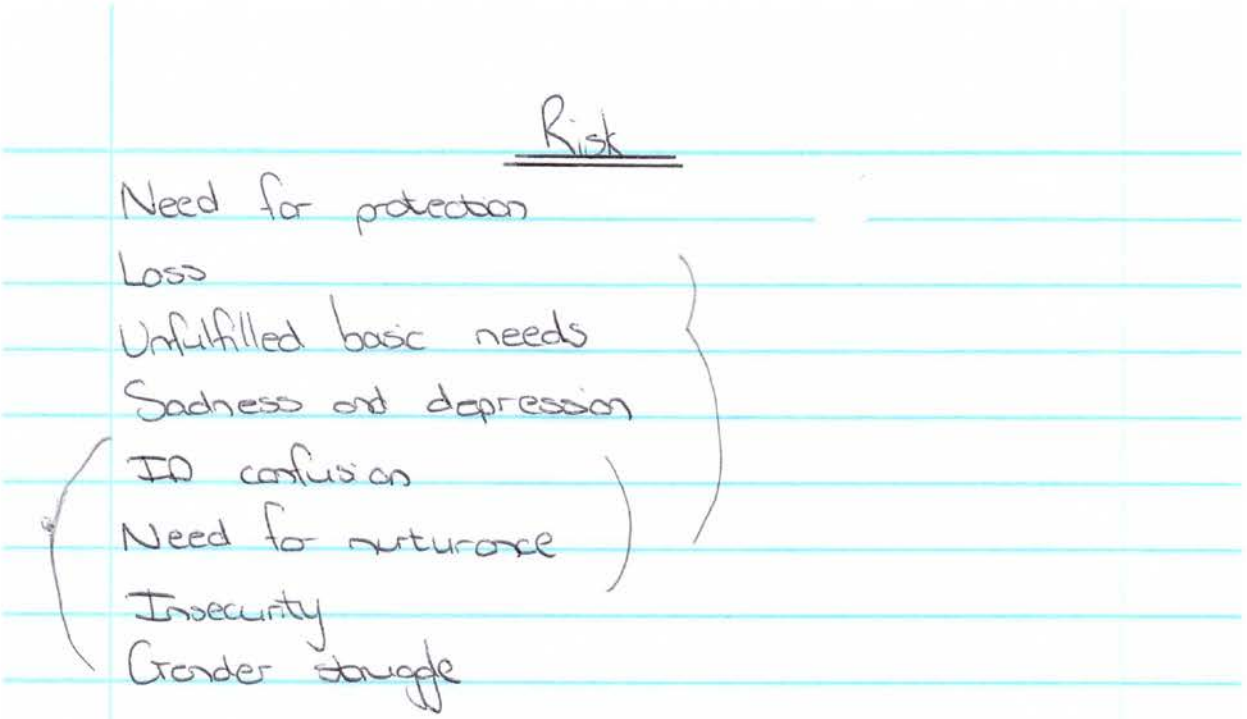
Appendix F

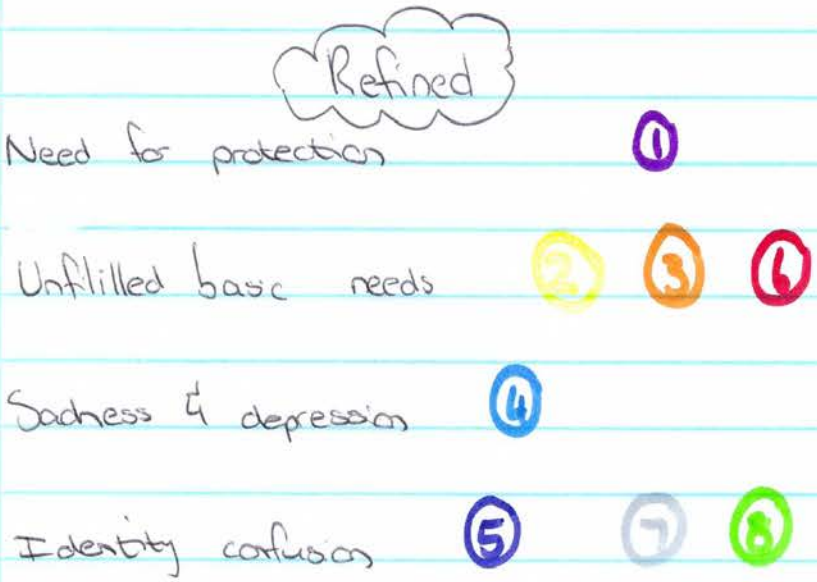
Phase 2: Generating initial codes – coding interesting data in a systemic manner across the data set, and collate the data relevant to each code



Appendix G

Phase 3: Searching for themes – collate codes into potential themes, thus gather all data relevant to each potential theme





Appendix H

Phase 5: Defining and naming themes – proceed with on-going analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, generate clear definitions and names for each theme

Possible indicators of risk			
Possible theme	Explanation	Code	Examples of words/phrases/figurines relating to the code
Violence and a need for protection	Where a threat is perceived to the safety of the participant and they display a need to be protected from external threats	1 (purple)	"danger" "need to be protected" "fight" "shot/shoot" "guard" Guns in tray (visual data)
Unfulfilled needs	Where the idea of death and loss seems to play a large role in the life of participants Where the basic needs as identified in Maslow's hierarchy of needs are not met Where the participants displays immense sadness and low energy levels When participants display a need to be nurtured by important others in their life	2 (yellow) 3 (orange) 4 (light blue) 6 (red)	"grave site" "killed" "lost" "food" "kitchen" "cook" "empty tray" "empty world" "alone" Home in the top right corner (visual data) Emphasis on elephants (narratives and visual data)
Gender inequality and conflict	Conveys a sense that participants are not curious about the world out there and is unsure about how to approach it When participants display imminent conflict between the different genders, clear gender stereotyping and sexual abuse	7 (grey) 8 (green)	"she feels insecure" "needs boundaries" "die vrou werk in die kombuis" "raped" "battle between male and female"

Appendix I

Consent forms for ASL students and clients

PERMISSION FOR USE OF RESEARCH DATA

I hereby grant permission for the data generated by myself in the FLY / Ngilandi School Procticum to be used for the purposes of research. I understand that I can withdraw this permission at any time, should I wish to do so. I also understand that all data will be used anonymously, in order to protect my own identity, as well as the identities of the learners/families in my group. Your research contribution will be acknowledged in publications, and where relevant your authorship will be included.

PRINT NAME: _____

SIGNATURE: _____

DATE: _____

Learner's Assent for participating in a Research Study
A research project of the University of Pretoria

Project Title: Flourishing Learning Youth

To be read to children under the age of 18 years

Why am I here?

Sometimes when we want to find out something, we ask people to join something called a project. In this project we will want to ask you about yourself and we will ask you to participate in activities focused on your own development and learning. Before we ask you to be part of this study we want to tell you about it first.

This study will give us a chance to see how we, together with your school and teachers, can help you address career and learning challenges that you may have here at school. We also want to help you gain some skills in your learning here at school so that you can be better equipped to support yourself during your education and after leaving school. We are asking you to be in this study because your parents/guardians have agreed that you can be part of our study.

What will happen to me?

If you want to be part of our study you will spend some time with us answering some questions and participating in some activities. This will be done at 2 different times when we come to your school this year – once some time soon then again for a second visit later on in the year. The questions and activities will be about you and your career development and learning. There are no right or wrong answers, only what you feel is best. You will also be asked to join some other children in a group, just like at school, except this time it would be playing games and talking.

If you agree, we would like to take photographs and audiovisual footage of you during some of the project activities. People will be able to see your face and hear your voice is we decide to show the images during discussions, as well as reports we write about the project. However, we will not tell anyone your name.

Will the project hurt?

No, the project will not hurt. The questions and activities can take a long time but you can take a break if you are feeling tired or if you don't want to answer all the questions at one time. If you don't want to answer a question, or participate in an activity, you don't need to. All of your answers will be kept private. No one, not even someone in your family or your teachers will be told your answers.

Will the study help me?

We hope this study will help you feel good about yourself and learn more about yourself and what you can do in school and one day when you want a job or career, but we don't know if this will happen.

What if I have any questions?

You can ask any questions you have about the study. If you have questions later that you don't think of now you can phone Prof Liesel Ebersöhn at 012 420 2337 or you can ask us next time we come to visit you here at your school.

Do my parents/guardians know about this project?

This study was explained to your parents/guardians and they said you could be part of the study if you want to. You can talk this over with them before you decide if you want to be in the study or not.

Do I have to be in the project?

You do not have to be in this project. No one will be upset if you don't want to do this. If you don't want to be in the project, you just have to tell us. You can say yes no and if you change your mind later you don't have to be part of the project anymore. It's up to you.

(a) Writing your name on this page means that you agree to be in the project and that you know what will happen to you in this study. If you decide to quit the project all you have to do is tell the person in charge.

_____ _____
Signature of Client Date

_____ _____
Signature of Studen Date

(b) Writing your name here means that you agree that we can take photographs and audiovisual footage of you during the project and share these images during discussions, as well as reports we write about the project. We will not share your name with the people who see the images. If you decide that we should rather not take photographs or audiovisual footage of you in the project, all you have to do is tell the person in charge.

_____ _____
Signature of Client Date

_____ _____
Signature of Student Date

If you have any further questions about this study, you can phone the investigator, Prof Liesel Ebersöhn at 012 420 2337. If you have a question about your rights as a participant you can contact the University of Pretoria faculty of Education Ethics Committee at 012 420 3751.

Appendix J

Client files regarded as complete versus client files regarded as incomplete

Incomplete client file: ASL student X client file 26

Story

Not recorded

Reflection

Figures: not able to see very clearly…

- Animals- elephants, snakes, turtle, giraffe, spider, buck, horse, leopard, lizard, cat, butterfly, ducks
- People- women
- Structures- none
- Objects- marbles, umbrellas, angels, sun
- Vehicles- taxi and cement truck
- Natural elements- trees, pinecones
- Setting: people/ animals; community; celebration
- Use of human and animal figures: people in tight mass. Wild animals mixed in with sea creatures and domestic animals.
- Use of sand: dry, figures placed on top with little finger impressions
- Use of tray: full. No defined central feature and focus is drawn to the human setting on the side of the tray.
- The cats and use of marbles as decorations could represent her obsession with her appearance and cats symbolise beauty.

Complete client file: ASL student E client file 21

Story:
There is a princess here. She came to the zoo to watch the animals. Ya…so. The soldiers are guarding the place. The princess likes to come here and watch the animals.

Here where there are snakes, what is going on?
It is at the zoo, and here it is by the ocean. Then this person came here to watch the animals.

Where would you put yourself in this tray?
Here

Why?
Because here are solders that are on duty and are watching over the place.

In your life where do you feel there are people watching over you and protecting you?
My parents

What do you parents do that make you feel protected?
I would say they give me food, buy me clothes and everything.

How do you feel about this world that you have created?
Good.

What is going on here with the princess and the tree?
The princess is looking at the animals.

What is the umbrella's for?
To protect the princess from the sun.

Who else would you include in this picture of yours?
Friends and family would be included in this picture. I would be here with my friend. I love her because she understands me. She often falls sick then I take care of her at school.

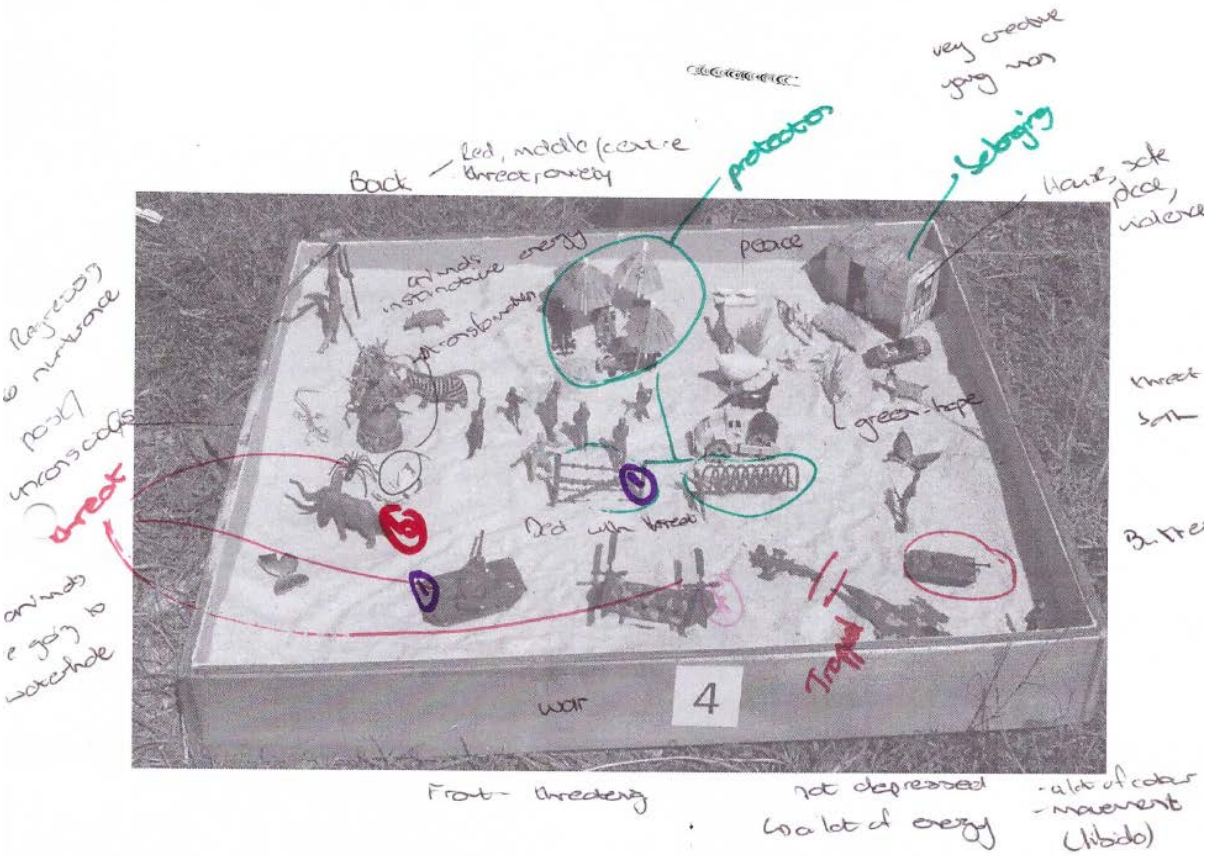
Reflection:

- Back right:
  - Awareness of the future (Back right).
  - This may be an indication of being in touch with the ego corner.
  - Indicative of collective consciousness, personal father relationship, school and career. Relates to the future
- Wet sand:
  - Could be that she wants firm and solid substance.
- Solders:
  - Need for protection
- Blue surface:
  - Bottom of tray is blue, the blue symbolizes:
    - Water, Life, tranquillity and peace.
    - The blue surface could also be an indication of access to a deeper nourishing side from within.

Themes:

- Nurturance: Elephant, nourishment.
- Green vegetation: Trees indicative of inner attitude dominated by archetype of the great mother. This can also be connected with the elephant figuring.
- Protection: Soldiers (danger), umbrella
- Zoo: Can mean a positive differentiation on the level of the intrinsic or depending on the context, a rigid, controlling attitude with regards to them.

Analysed client file 13 ASL student C



Story

This is my house, me, brother's car

When I grow up I want to catch thieves (Me= green soldiers)

The tracker fixes the roads

When I see the animals I get them (points to left)

The hunters come to look for the animals so I stay with them (the animals)

The ducks are close to home and the horses but the butterflies fly in the sky

Green soldiers catches the thieves, because the thieves steel the rhinos

They also sell the racing cars

Reflection

- Light lines in the sand
- Makes me feel focused (forehead)
- Butterflies
- Need and want to protect
- Good use of space - resource
- Observer?
- Home = safety? – hopes and wants
- Obstructions between army and family – willingness to let other in? Not from my experience though…
- Problem = deep need to protect family
- Solution = becoming a "soldier" – being able to provide

Appendix L

Assessment battery for Ngilandi 2013

Day 1

- Name game
- Morabaraba
- Make a symbol from anti-waste to symbolise who you are?
- SAVI
- Adolescent Düss

Sandplay will be conducted whenever the group is called to the sandplay station

Day 2

- Masekitlana- typical day
- Future narrative- life line, chapter or mould
- Beaded bangle

Name Game

Rationale:

We decided on this game as it would be a nice way to get to know our group members' names. We feel that being able to call someone on their name make them feel we truly are connected to each other and would therefore like to establish a certain connectedness right from the start.

Instructions:

First person says their name and then an animal, that also start with the same letter. For example;

- Lida-Lion
- Lungile-Leopard
- Nomsa-Nyala
- Kenneth-Crocodile

Then the second person says the name and animal combination of the first person and after that their own. The third person will say the name and animal combination of the first person, the name and animal combination of the second person and then their own. And so on and so on… The last person will then be the Masters-student, needing to do all the names of the group, enabling them to truly establish rapport. It will be easier for the children as they probably know each other by name already. Spot checks can also be done to make it interesting. After the game, the student will then write a name tag for each group member.

Morabaraba

Rationale:

It is a traditional board game between two opponents (or teams). It is not characterized by speaking loudly but quietness or some thinking, thus, making observation for body language important. Morabaraba is a mentally challenging game and it stimulates strategic thinking. It taps into the players` level of perseverance, attitude towards victory or defeat and the presence (or absence) of internal locus of control. This game further taps into the players` response to external influences and problem solving strategies or adaptation of such strategies thereof.

In the case of Ngilandi project, Morabaraba will be used as an icebreaker, therefore the objectives are as follows:

- Getting to know each other (us and the learners)

- Establishing rapport with the learners
- "Socializing"
- Having fun with the learners
- Establishing or promoting a bond between learners

Morabaraba is an indigenous game, thus, quite cost-effective. Materials needed are as follows:

- A board (box) with 11 stops (shorter version)
- Eight cows , four per opponent (sticks and stones, bottle caps, tokens) different in color or shape

Instructions:

Each player starts with four cows. Starting with the clear board, first one player then the other, places one cow at the time with the aim of creating three vertically, diagonally or horizontally. Cows are placed on an unoccupied stop. When the cows are in a row, the player can "shoot" (remove) one of the opponent`s cows. When all the eight cows are placed on the board, they may be moved from one stop to another unoccupied stop to form a set of three or block the opponent from forming their set. The game is over if the opponent has lost but two cows.

Basically, the instruction would be "let us play this game".

Make a symbol from anti-waste to symbolise who you are?

Aim:

The aim of this activity is to identify who the clients are.

It will focus on identifying the clients'

- strengths and weaknesses
- likes and dislikes
- way of approaching various situations
- what is important to the client

Rationale:

- It is a fun-filled activity.
- It takes the clients' experiences into account
- It presents the therapist with the opportunity to have a one on one discussion to each client.
- It is a cost effective activity

Materials needed:

- Salt dough / play dough R100
- Rocks
- Twigs
- Anything found in environment

Instructions:

I want you to make your own symbol. It must be a new symbol, and not one that already exists (is real). If you want you can use parts of different symbols. For example using your heritage symbol, combined with a proudly South African one like the country's flag. You may use anything you can find, or use the things I will give to you. Be creative and have fun.

I will ask each of you a few questions about your symbols afterwards.

Core Questions:

1. What is the name of your symbol?
2. Why did you make this symbol?
3. What does your symbol stand for?
4. What does your symbol not say?
5. How does your symbol explain who you are and where you come from?

Adolescent Düss

Aim and Rationale

The assessment measure focuses on identifying coping strategies used by adolescents between the ages of twelve and nineteen. The coping strategies will in addition be linked to the stressors responsible for its development. Research from cross-cultural studies on adolescent coping displayed three universally distinct coping strategies namely: Active coping, withdrawal and internal coping. Internal coping emphasises internal processes used to deal with stressful situations and include analysis and reflection (Frydenberg, 1997). Active coping includes direct methods used to deal with stressful situations and includes seeking of social support, participating in leisure activities and hobbies, and taking responsibility in solving problems associated with the stressor (Frydenberg, 1997). Withdrawal consists of activities related to retreating from the stressful situations namely distancing, escaping, and avoiding (Frydenberg, 1997).

The goal of this assessment tool is to enable the identification of the various coping strategies, help create awareness of the different situations coping is needed and how the adolescent applies these strategies to various situations they find themselves faced with on a daily basis. It also attempts to provide the adolescent with scenarios that could potentially create intense stress in the future, thus potentially leading to increases in planning for unexpected events.

Three main categories of stressors were identified that were particularly evident during adolescent development. The first category focuses on stressors due to the presence of transition. During adolescence a number of transitions can be experienced namely physiological development (puberty), loss (bereavement), school transition (from primary school-high school-university/ work), and identity. The category we identified is relationships. Stressors can be attributed to relationships with peers, family members, romantic relationships, teachers and/or adults outside of the family context. The third category identified considers work related stressors, which can be classified as school work and achievement.

Due to the intensive nature of the items within this instrument, we strongly advise that rapport should be well established before the instrument is administered. In addition the practitioner should provide a thorough explanation of the nature of the instrument and ensuring that a thorough comprehension of the instrument is obtained.

There are 3 stressors that we will be looking at, namely:

- Family related stressors are more prevalent during early adolescence (Bird, & Harris, 1990)
- Network and peer-group related stressors seem to occur particularly during mid-adolescent (Smetana, Campione-Barr, & Daddis (2004) It should be noted that stressors may vary according to adolescent ages and genders (Williams, & McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 1999)
- Achievement and school-related stressors are commonly reported during late adolescence (17-19 year old).

Below are the 9 coping mechanisms the learners may engage in

Confrontation: An active coping strategy whereby the adolescent approaches the stressful situation head on without necessarily thinking it through.

Distancing: A coping strategy focusing on the individual withdrawing by trying to separate the stressor from his/her life.

Self-Controlling: An internal coping strategy. It is used when an adolescent tries to control the emotions and feelings experienced and expressed.

Social Support: An active coping strategy. It is focused on sharing and interacting about the stressor with others.

Responsibility: An internal coping strategy. The individual takes responsibility for the stressor. Feels that the stressor is felt due to something he or she did.

Escape-Avoidance: A coping strategy where the individual tries to get away or avoid the situation as best as possible.

Problem-Solving: Tries to actively cope with the stressor by identifying ways of eliminating the situation/stressor.

Reappraisal: An internal coping strategy. The individual re-analyses the stressor from different perspectives. It can include seeing the stressor in a positive light.

Leisure and Hobbies: An active coping strategy. It can be productive (relaxation and exercise) or counterproductive/harmful (substance or drug abuse) in nature.

Considerations:

Competency: It is advised that the administrator of the instrument is trained and knowledgeable regarding therapeutic skills. The counsellor or psychologist must also be aware of the dynamics of stress and coping and be able to accurately determine the reasons for using the coping strategies and how it will affect future development.

Alternatives: Stressors that do not fall under the main categories should also be considered in order to obtain a better understanding of the client. A focus on these alternative stressors however fall outside the aim of this instrument and should be considered for future adaptation.

Literacy and comprehension: Clients completing the instrument need to be proficient in understanding, reading and writing English. In the event that clients lack these literacy skills the assessor should read, write and explain the scenarios to the client.

Materials:

Response booklet

Ball Point Pen

Instructions:

Pre-administrative instructions:

"This work sheet will provide us with valuable information that we can use for future sessions. Please complete the questions as well as you can and try to be as honest as possible. Some of the questions are more difficult than others and you may wonder why it is asked. The reasons for the questions will be given during the discussions after you have finished. Please try even if it makes you are not quite sure. If you are unsure about what is expected you may asked for an explanation. There is no wrong or right here, but only honest and dishonest answers. Remember to be honest"

The items are provided to the adolescent and the verbal instructions followed. Observation of body language during assessment is important to obtain further information. Mark additional comments on observations where noted at the bottom of the scoring grid.

Post administration:

After administration the adolescent is asked the following questions in order to start the reflection process:

- How did that assessment make you feel?
- What was very difficult to answer?
- What was not so difficult?
- Could you think of ways to act in every situation?
- Were there some questions that you thought could really happen?
- Were there questions that are not realistic at all (have no chance of happening)?
- How do you feel now after completing the questions?
- Do you think this process can tell us something about how you address problem situations?

- How can this help?

After the questions the adolescent is assured that the information provided will stay confidential and will not be provided to anyone without his/her explicit written consent and that it will be kept safe.

The Scoring Grid is provided below

Assessment items

Scenario 1:

My caretaker found out that I lied about my report card. So I

Scenario 2:

It's a normal school day. During first break I find out that my best friend has been saying bad things behind my back. So I

Scenario 3:

I am faced with my biggest fear. My fear is _____

So I

Scenario 4:

My friends pressure me to use drugs at a party.

I

Scenario 5:

When I get home from school, I found out someone close to me has passed on….

So I

Scenario 6:

I have feelings for this boy/ girl, but they are in a relationship with my best friend…

So I

Scenario 7:

I get my test back and see that I failed. So I

Scenario 8:

My teacher always picks on me in class even if I did nothing wrong, So I

Scenario 9:

I didn't do my homework, and have to hand it in after break, so I

Scenario 10:

I find a subject very difficult. The subject is _____. I find it difficult because_____ which makes me feel like

Masekitlana - typical day

Rationale

We choose this specific game because it's an indigenous therapeutic tool that has been shown to be effective especially for children who have experienced trauma in their lives. Research supports the notion that many black children do not have toys, largely because of low socio-economic status. It became important for us to explore indigenous forms of play that the children may be familiar with so as to be applicable to them, ones that they can relate to. They improvise by playing with freely available materials for instance, sticks and stones, mud clay, sand, soil, and so on. They play games that do not require commercialised material. Masekitlana is one of these games.

The advantages of masekitlana?

- It teaches children to be emotionally supportive while they are still young
- Teaches distressed children that they are not alone. It makes them realise that they are not the only ones with problems.
- Masekitlana helps children to develop empathy, listening and communication skills.
- It lays the foundation for critical thinking and basic problem-solving skills.
- Masekitlana equips children with life skills, serving as a platform from which children can vent their problems and concerns freely without the restrictions to which adults are subject.
- Provides a platform to reveal their secrets and express their emotions.
- It accommodates all children, even the shyest or most withdrawn ones.

Materials:

You will need two average size stones

Instructions:

- You hit the stones against each other as you are relating your story. It can be a story about anything. This game is usually played by young children during school (at break time) and after school as they share about the events in their day with their friends.
- Each person has a turn to talk.

Future narrative- life line, chapter or mould

Description

With this assessment exercise we will attempt to find out what the children's future aspirations and dreams are. This can include anything from dreams about their future career to family.

Instruction

1. Today we want you to draw some pictures. Each one of you can take 3 to 5 blank pages which you can use to draw on.
2. I want you to think about your personal future. I want you to imagine that there are absolutely no barriers which will hold you back in reaching your dream. For example, lack of resources etc.
3. Imagine a few successful happenings which you would like to come true for you one day. This might be getting a degree, driving a nice car etc.
4. You might use these crayons to create the picture of successful happenings in your future.
5. After you have finished drawing your future picture you might write, in a few sentences, this success story on the back of the page.

Materials

- Oil pastels
- Paper

Costs of materials

- Oil pastels (2 per group)
- Paper (3 packs of paper)

Beaded Bangles

Materials

- Coloured beads in separate containers (red, orange, yellow, green, blue, purple, black, white
- Beading elastic
- Idea chart

Purpose

To consolidate on the past two days and leave the children with something concrete to remember everything they have learnt, high points, low points and inspirations.

Activity

Children are requested to make a beaded bracelet which acts as a memory bracelet. The colours chosen by each child have to symbolise a certain activity, realisation, growth moment, strength or weakness. The amount of beads per colour can symbolise an emphasis or a pattern can be made.

The following instruction can be given:

> "Let's look back and think about the past two days"
>
> "I have many coloured beads here and elastic to make a bracelet"
>
> "I want you to make a memory bracelet to remind you of what you have learnt"
>
> "Choose a different colour to represent everything that is important to you"
>
> "If you use lots of the same colour it means something was very important to you, or you can make a pattern"
>
> "Look at the idea chart to help you think of what was important to you"

Idea chart

- Your favourite activity
- Your strength
- Your weakness
- Your passion/talent/dream
- Something new you learnt
- What you want to be one day
- What helps inspire you
- Who is important to you
- What motivates you