THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN ADDRESSING SCHOOL VIOLENCE: A CASE STUDY OF TWO SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

by

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to understand the role of leadership in addressing school violence in the context of two South African high schools. School violence is a stumbling block to proper functioning of South African schools. Leadership is regarded as essential for the success or failure of schools.

This study was a multiple case of two schools which was couched within the interpretivist paradigm. This paradigm was suitable because it allowed me to study and understand multiple interpretations which the participants attached to the dynamics of violence and their understanding of how leadership tackled school violence. The study adopted qualitative methods of data generation which included document analysis, observation and interviews. For the interviews, a purposive sampling of the participants was adopted. Informed by distributed leadership theory which is based on the assumption that there are multiple leaders in a school, I selected as participants, the principals, the deputy principals, the Heads of Department, teachers and learners.

The study was informed by a three pronged framework involving distributed leadership theory, social learning theory and ecosystemic theory. Distributed leadership theory was used to explain the findings on how leadership practices influence school violence. The dynamics of violence were explained through the lens of social and systemic theories.

The findings suggest that school violence is a complex, multi-dimensional and dynamic phenomenon. The insights into the dynamics of violence revealed that teachers and
learners in the two schools experienced different forms of violence ranging from serious incidents such as physical violence to mild forms like verbal violence. The dynamics also included causes of violence which it was found emanated from different sources. Such sources included, inter alia, learners’ peers, parents and socio-economic factors. 

With regard to variation and gravity of violence between the two participant schools, it was found that some forms of violence were high in one school while they were low in another school. The last aspect of the dynamics of violence which emerged from this study was relationships within and between forms of violence. The findings showed, for instance, that there was relationship between learner-on-teacher and teacher-on-learner violence because some learners reacted violently to teachers in response to teachers’ violent acts against such learners.

This study found that the manner in which the dynamics of violence were addressed in the two schools generally illustrated a dearth of leadership. As a result, teachers were not succeeding in their efforts of tackling violence. Some initiatives taken to address violence tended to be targeted at managing violence. However, some management approaches, such as administering corporal punishment, were also violence and, therefore, had the potential to promote violence instead of reducing it. The study also shows that there were few teachers who exercised leadership and as such some learners did change their violent behaviour. However, the efforts of such teachers were isolated and not co-ordinated hence, the impact of their leadership was limited. I, therefore, argue that leadership is crucial for the reduction of school violence. Violence cannot be reduced if teachers and learners do not exercise leadership.
DECLARATION

I, Sekitla Daniel Makhasane, declare that:

a) The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated is my original work.

b) This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

c) This thesis does not contain other persons’ data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC African National Congress
CJCP Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention
DoE Department of Education
HoD Head of Department
HIV Human Immunodeficiency Virus
KZN KwaZulu-Natal
OAU Organisation of African Unity
RCL Representative Council of Learners
SASA South African Schools Act
SGB School Governing Body
SMT School Management Team
UN United Nations
USA United States of America
WHO World Health Organisation
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Dedication

I dedicate this study to my late daughter, Tlholohelo Makhasane, whose life ended even before she was born through a fatal road accident. Although we never formally met, her death coupled with her mother’s injuries due to that accident devastated me. I almost abandoned this study. May her soul rest in peace.
CHAPTER 1: SETTING THE SCENE

1.1 Introduction and background to the study

In this introductory chapter, I commence with the discussion of background to the study. I then highlight statement of the problem and research questions. From there, I present the significance of the study. I end the chapter by providing an outline of the remaining chapters.

Violence in South African schools should not be regarded as a new phenomenon. Schools in South Africa have long been considered as battlefields where violence is rife (Morrell, Bhana, & Hamall, 2012). The high level of school violence in South Africa is a result of the country’s history and current problems. The apartheid regime organised society along racial, ethnic and class lines. Violence which prevails in South African schools today owes its origins from this historical arrangement (Vally, Dolombisa, & Porteus, 2002). Gevers and Flisher (2012, p. 176) note that:

Historical legacies of violence alone do not account for the very high levels of youth violence in South African Schools. Other systemic issues, including poverty and social inequality, also contribute to youth violence, as youths react to the continued experiences of disempowerment and attempt to secure some personal power in whatever arena and in whichever way that they are able. In addition to the struggle for scarce resources in many communities, levels of family violence or family involvement in crime and leisure boredom contribute to school violence as the school, home and community are mutually influential.

For Harber (2004) deliberate humiliation and physical punishment of learners by teachers in some South African schools contribute to school violence. Morrell (2001) contends that historically corporal punishment was used by South African teachers to discipline learners. This form of punishment is still used in some school although it is legally prohibited.
Although the South African Department of Education and South African schools have devised measures to address school violence, there is empirical evidence that school violence is escalating (Nontsa & Shumba, 2013). The increasing level of school violence in South Africa requires urgent attention. This is particularly important because a large number of young people spend most of the time in schools. It is essential to note that schools serve as crucial socialising agents and as such attention on school violence is likely to have both immediate and long-term effects as schools prepare young people for the future (Gevers & Flisher, 2012). Teachers, as leaders, play an important role in the learners’ socialisation process. In terms of Norms and Standards for Educators (2000) as stipulated in Education Policy Act (No. 27) of 1996, teachers in South Africa should be competent to perform seven roles. A relevant role to this study is stated in the Policy as “A teacher should be a leader, manager and administrator.” In chapter two I explore the concepts leadership and management. The policy further elaborates this role as follows:

The educator [teacher] will make decisions appropriate to the level, manage learning in the classroom, carry out classroom administrative duties efficiently and participate in school decision making structures. These competences will be performed in ways which are democratic, which support learners and colleagues, and which demonstrate responsiveness to changing circumstances and needs (Department of Education, 2000c, p. 6).

The policy requires teachers to carry out leadership and management roles in a democratic manner which is in line with democratic principles as stipulated in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and other relevant laws. There are three assumptions underpinning the term ‘role’ (Kobasa, 2007). First, the way in which an individual thinks about his/her duties and how such an individual has been taught to do the task is called conception role. Second, role expectation refers to what other members of the organisation think are the responsibilities of an individual and the manner in which he/she should execute those responsibilities (Kobasa, 2007). “A role in an organisation is an expected set of activities or behaviours stemming from a position held” (Bratton, Grint, & Nelson, 2005, p. 7). Lastly, role behaviour is the actual way of
doing the job by an individual (Johnson, 2006; Kobasa, 2007). Roles can either be carried out by an individual or groups.

Norms and Standards for Educators (2000) as stipulated in Education Policy Act (No. 27) of 1996, provides a broad interpretation of the word teacher or educator:

The term educator/teacher in this policy statement applies to all those persons who teach or educate other persons or who provide professional educational services at any public school, further education and training institution or departmental office. The term includes educators in the classroom, heads of departments, deputy-principals, principals, education development officers, district and regional managers and systems managers (Department of Education, 2000c, p. 2).

Since this study was confined to the school level, the term ‘teacher’ was only used to refer to teachers in the classroom, Heads of Department (HoD), deputy-principals and principals. For the purposes of clarity in the data presentation and discussion chapters (Chapter 5, 6 & 7) I used the word ‘teachers’ to denote classroom or level one teachers. Here, other teachers are referred to according to the positions they occupied in the schools which included HoD, deputy-principals and principals. However, in chapter 8, the generic term ‘teachers’ is used as interpreted in this policy.

The international conventions against violence in societies

Violence which is rife in schools undermines international initiatives such as United Nations Millennium Declaration (Plan-international, 2010). This declaration was adopted by 189 nations in 2000 (United Nations, 2007). Eight New Millennium Developmental goals were formulated based on the said declaration. However, violence against learners has a negative impact on the countries’ efforts towards realising some of these goals. For example, violence perpetrated against girls cause some of them to drop out of schools and as such Goal Two which seeks gender equality is undermined (Plan-international, 2010). In an attempt to address violence international treaties and conventions have been signed. In terms of Article 20 of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights and article 17 of African Charter on Human and People’s Rights
education is every one’s right (Organisation of African Unity, 1981; United Nations, 1948). This right is further affirmed by Article 20 of the United Nations’ Convention on the Rights of a Child (United Nations, 1989) and Article 11 of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (Organisation of African Unity, 1990) which declare education as a child’s right. In order to ensure that member states uphold this right, Article 19 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and Article 16 of African Charter on the Rights of a Child, stipulate that member states should ensure protection of children from, inter alia, violence by putting in place administrative, legislative, educational and social measures (Organisation of African Unity, 1990; United Nations, 1989). Since South Africa ratified the said conventions, it is under obligation to pass laws that protect her citizens from all forms of violence. It should also create awareness and develop education programmes which promote non-violent behaviour (Save the Children Sweden, 2005).

**The South African legal framework against violence**

Consistent with international conventions, South Africa has adopted laws which are intended to address issues of violence among other things. Accordingly, Section 12 (1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (hereafter referred to as the Constitution) stipulates that no one must be tortured, treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way (Republic of South Africa, 1996a); furthermore, Section 28 (1) (d) of the Constitution states that children have a right to be protected from abuse, neglect and maltreatment. In line with the provisions of the Constitution, Section 8 (a) of the South African Schools Act (SASA) (1996) empowers School Governing Bodies (SGBs) to adopt a learners’ code of conduct after consultation with teachers, learners and parents (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). In terms of the provisions of SASA a code of conduct is intended to establish a disciplined and purposeful school environment (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). This conduct should also contain rules pertaining to school safety and security. In addition, it should stipulate procedures in dealing with various forms of violence such as bullying, sexual harassment and possession of dangerous weapons (Prinsloo, 2006). While the SGB is responsible for formulating school safety and security policy, teachers and principals should ensure that learners are safe during school hours. Schools should have safety and security committees (Xaba, 2006). SASA prohibits the use of corporal punishment in schools
(Republic of South Africa, 1996b). Those with a stake in South African schools are aware of the abolishment of corporal punishment. To this effect teachers and principals tend to deny that corporal punishment is still a common practice in schools. However, learners do not hide that teachers continue to use corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure (Payet & Franchi, 2008).

Another important policy regarding school violence is Education Laws Amendment Act of 2000. According to Prinsloo (2006), the Employment of Educators Act no. 71 of 1998 was amended in Education laws amendment Act 2000 in order to address sexual violence perpetrated by teachers against female learners. In terms of Section 17 of the Education Laws Amendment Act 2000 a teacher can be dismissed if he or she is found guilty of sexually abusing a learner or another employee. In addition, a teacher can also be dismissed if he/she has a sexual relationship with a learner (Republic of South Africa, 2000).

Furthermore, SASA was amended by the insertion of Section 8A in the Education Laws Amendment Act 2007. This Section is intended to provide guidance regarding drug testing and random search and seizure at schools (Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011). It also prohibits any person from bringing to school any dangerous objects and illegal drugs unless the principal has granted permission to such a person. The section further stipulates the procedures that should be followed when searching learners and testing them. It empowers the principal or his/her delegate to carry out a search and seizure on learners (Republic of South Africa, 2007).

Despite the legal framework discussed above, violence continues to be reported in South African schools (Harber, 2004; Hunt, 2007; Liang, Flisher, & Lombard, 2007; Mpina, 2011). How the leadership in schools addresses school violence has not been researched adequately.

1.2 Statement of the problem

A comprehensive literature review by Harber (2004) drawn from different countries such as Britain, Australia, North Korea, Japan, Ghana, Malawi, Kenya, South Africa
and others notes that South Africa is one of the most violent countries in the world outside a war zone. It is not surprising that violence constitutes one of the major problems in South African schools (Bester & Du plessis, 2010; Human Rights Watch, 2001). A study conducted by Burton (2008) on behalf of the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP) reveals that 160 learners per 1000 have been victims of violence in South African schools as compared to 57 learners per 1000 in the United States of America (USA) schools which is a country that also has high rate of violence. Violence is a global concern that affects schools negatively (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008). Teachers, principals and learners have been victims of murder in South African schools (Van der Westhuizen & Maree, 2009). Various forms of violence occur in South Africa schools. These include, but not limited to verbal abuse, bullying and intimidation, physical violence and fighting, racially motivated violence, gang violence, theft and vandalism (South African Human Rights Commission, 2006).

The success of a school depends on good leadership (Coles & Southworth, 2003). Townsend (2011) contends that there is a general belief that school leadership is essential for learners’ high academic achievement. Leadership is second to classroom practice in relation to their importance on student outcomes and school impact (Bush, Bell, & Middlewood, 2010). Blair (2002) includes strong leadership among characteristics of effective schools. Leadership influences school organisation and students’ learning (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). High academic achievement may not be realised in the context of violence. It, therefore, implies that one of the immediate challenges that school leadership has to deal with is school violence. Leadership is viewed as having a potential to resolve multiple problems that schools encounter (Riley & MacBeath, 2003). Such multiple problems include school violence. While literature shows that effective leadership is crucial in school effectiveness (Blair, 2002; Bush et al., 2010; Coles & Southworth, 2003; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003), it is not known how exactly leadership influences school violence. It is against this background that this study sought to investigate the role of leadership in addressing school violence.

1.3 Research questions

Three questions guided this research journey. These questions are:

1. What are the dynamics of school violence in each of the selected schools?
2. How can the nature of leadership in each of the selected school be described and explained?

3. What can be said to be the role of leadership in addressing school violence?

1.4 Significance of the study

The study intends to contribute knowledge pertaining to the dynamics of school violence. The said knowledge may be useful to schools because violence is a complex phenomenon which is crippling the effective functioning of schools. In order for principals, teachers and learners to tackle violence effectively, they should be aware of its dynamics. This study also has a potential to contribute knowledge on how leadership practices influence school violence. Since leadership in schools should be exercised by various leaders such as principals, teachers and learners (Spillane, Diamond, Sherer, & Coldren, 2005), this study may provide them with information that will make them aware that their leadership practices influence school violence. This understanding may enable schools to devise better means of tackling school violence.

As indicated above there appears to be limited literature on how leadership influences school violence. A related study that partly discussed leadership in relation to school violence was conducted in Israel (Astor, Benbenishty, & Estrada, 2009). This study sought to explore the impact of cultural practices on school violence. The findings show that the principals play a major role in providing leadership that may reduce violence. A possible limitation of this study is that it focused only on principals’ leadership practices in tackling school violence. In today’s schools leadership should ideally be spread across multiple leaders (Townsend, 2011). The present study is, therefore, likely to contribute to the existing body of knowledge by taking into consideration how leadership practices at various school levels may influence school violence. Such leaders include those with designated positions like principals, deputy principals and heads of departments as well as those without positions like teachers and some learners.
1.6 Road map

This study consists of 8 chapters. Chapter 1 serves as an introductory part of the study which provides a setting for the research journey. It highlights the background to the study, statement of the problem and the significance of the study. Key research questions which guided the research journey are identified in this chapter. The chapter also provides a road map to the study.

Chapter 2 reviews literature concerning school violence and leadership. Important key concepts in this study are explained. These include leadership, management, the leadership-management interface, dynamics, violence and school violence. Some theories of leadership are discussed with the understanding that they provide the basis for explaining the nature of leadership relevant in tackling violence in the two schools. They are behavioural, situational and transformational leadership theories. Three forms of the dynamics of violence are considered. These are learner-on-teacher, teacher-on-learner and learner on learner violence.

Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical framework. This is made up of three theories, namely; ecosystemic theory, social learning theory and distributed leadership. Chapter 4 discusses the research design and methodology and it locates the study within the interpretivist paradigm. The chapter then discusses: research design, access to the research sites, sampling, data collection instruments, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical issues.

Chapter 5 presents and discusses findings pertaining to learner-on-teacher violence. The discussion unfolds through the two-pronged lens of the ecosystemic and social learning theories. Like in the other data chapters, the issue of the role of leadership is discussed at appropriate stages of the discussion. Chapter 6 describes and explains findings regarding teacher-to-learner violence. The forms of violence identified and discussed in this chapter include: corporal punishment, assault, verbal violence and racially motivated violence. Chapter 7 focuses on the findings relating to learner-to-learner violence. It explores the following themes: fights, bullying, verbal violence and sexual harassment. Leadership was also discussed as it unfolded in relation to learner-
to-learner violence. Chapter 8 is a reflection on the research journey. The chapter also draws lessons from chapter 5, 6 and 7 to articulate the thesis.
CHAPTER 2: UNDERSTANDING LEADERSHIP AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE

2.1 Introduction

According to Hofsee (2006), researchers review literature in order to locate their work within the context of the work of others. This chapter reviews both international and South African literature pertaining to leadership and school violence. It is organised into four sections. The first section discusses the main concepts in this study, namely: leadership, management, leadership-management interface, violence and school violence as well as dynamics. The discussion of these concepts is intended to provide understanding which will serve as a foundation for further discussions in the last three sections. The second section examines selected theories of leadership which are considered to be relevant to the current study. The following section explores the dynamics of school violence. The last section focuses on the interaction between leadership and school violence.

2.2 Conceptual framework

Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004, p. 26) argue that a conceptual framework: “… is an alignment of key concepts of the study.” It is essential to explain how the key concepts were interpreted and used in the study (Maree & Van der Westhuizen, 2010). As a result, this section focuses on discussing the main concepts in this study.

2.2.1. The concept ‘leadership’

There is no consensus among researchers regarding the definition of the concept of leadership. Several researchers define leadership in various ways (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2008). It is, therefore, imperative to explain leadership in the context of this study. I explain leadership by drawing from the definitions provided by various scholars. Leadership is an intentional process of influence aimed at achieving organisational goals (Bush et al., 2010). For Hersay, Blanchard and Natemeyer (1979) leadership is a process in which individual or group ‘s activities are influenced in order to accomplish goals. Bush and Glover (2003, p. 8) define leadership as:
… a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on their personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision.

Bhatti Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi and Shaikh (2012, p. 192) also state:

Leadership is a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organisation goals, a process whereby one person exerts social influence over other members of the group, a process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group of individuals in an effort towards goal achievement in given situations, and a relational concept involving both the influencing agent and the person being influenced.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2008) identify four commonalities pertaining to the definition of leadership. First, leadership as a process takes place between leaders and followers. Second, leadership is concerned with social influence. Third, leadership happens at various organisational levels such as the individual and group levels. Lastly, leadership is aimed at achieving goals. On the basis of these commonalities, Kreitner and Kinicki (2008, p. 463) conclude that leadership is a “process whereby an individual influences others to achieve a common goal.” Other researchers view leadership as a process where various individuals exercise leadership. Werner (2011, p. 353) for instance indicates:

Leadership is generally defined as the social process of influencing people to work voluntarily, enthusiastically and persistently towards a purposeful group or organisational goal. Leadership is not restricted to the acts of a formal position or formal authority; anyone can exert influence over others.

Since leadership is the ability to influence followers, all teachers should have leadership ambition in relation to their learners (Deventer & Kruger, 2008). In a sense, leadership as a process of influence may be exercised by any one regardless of their position (Bush
et al., 2010). It is about pursuing group aims by different members of the group and it is not restricted to the acts of formally appointed leaders (Horner, 2003). Van der Mescht and Tyala (2008) contend that in South Africa, the idea that leadership and management are the sole responsibility of principals is being replaced by an understanding that various stakeholders should be involved in the leadership and management of schools. This is evident in the establishment of decentralised structures such as Representative Councils of Learners (RCLs) and School Management Teams (SMT) (Van der Mescht & Tyala, 2008). However, Harris (2008, p. 5) warns:

Distributing leadership within and across school and school systems requires a shift in power and resources. It demands alternative school structures that support alternative forms of leadership. Inevitably, this will generate some criticism, resistance and even derision from those with a vested interest in keeping things just the way they are.

Indeed, leaders may sometimes influence followers in directions which are not beneficial. Instead of leadership encouraging people to work towards accomplishment of change, leadership may influence followers to resist change (Spillane & Diamond, 2007). In this regard, Hallett (2007) describes the situation where a veteran teacher became a leader who organised anti-change movement against changes that were introduced by a new principal.

Northouse (2010) discusses two forms of leadership, namely; assigned and emergent leadership. Assigned leadership is a form of leadership which is rooted in the position occupied in a given organisation while emergent leadership is a form of leadership which may emerge when members of the organisation recognise one or more of the members as the most influential regardless of their position in the organisation.

The common functions that recur in many definitions of leadership are provision of direction and the process of influence (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). “The process viewpoint is a phenomenon that resides in the context of interactions between leaders and followers and makes leadership available to everyone” (Northouse, 2010, p. 5). The influence in a leadership process is intentional (Bush & Glover, 2003). Ivancevich et al., (2008, p. 319) define influence as “a transaction in which person B is induced by person
A to behave in a certain way.” According to Farling, Stone and Winston (1999) influence is essential for a number of reasons which include persuasion for change, decision making and accomplishing of goals. Influence has an impact on behaviours and thoughts of individuals as well as on shaping the roles of leaders and followers.

Research has yielded “nine generic influence tactics: rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, consultation, ingratiation, personal appeals, exchange, coalition tactics, pressure and legitimating tactics” (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2008, p. 434). Rational persuasion is concerned with the use of reason, facts and logic in an effort to convince people while inspirational appeals focus on appealing to people’s values, emotions and ideals as a way of building enthusiasm. Consultation is an influence tactic where other people are invited to take part in decision making, planning and changes. An attempt to get people in a good mood, being friendly, using praise or being helpful before requesting something from people is referred to as ingratiation. Reference may be made to loyalty and friendship when requesting something as a way of using personal appeal tactics. Exchange tactics are based on trading favours or implied promises. Leaders who adopt coalition tactics rely on other people’s support to persuade. Using threats, intimidation or demanding compliance is pressure tactics. Legitimating tactics means that leaders use their authority, policies or rules of the organisation as the basis for making a request (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2008).

Organisational goals in this study refer to school goals. In fact, the school was taken as both a formal and informal organisation. According to Van der Westhuizen (2002, p. 45) a school as an organisation is characterised, inter alia, by “clearly defined policies and goals, hierarchical structure of authority, task entrusted to people whose posts are clearly described, suitable rules and regulations for carrying out activities.” South African schools have a hierarchical structure of authority which is epitomised by the existence of SMT and RCL. These structures are expected to perform leadership tasks within a framework of stipulated rules and regulations. Within schools as organisations, there are various informal organisations or informal groups. Van der Westhuizen (2002) states that informal groups exist in the schools for various reasons which include, but not limited to, the need for safety, belonging, friendship, information and status. These groups may be found among members of staff and learners.
In this study, leadership was regarded as a process of influencing or persuading followers to be committed in their work so that organisational goals and vision may be realised. As highlighted above, this process may be carried out by different individuals in the school. Such individuals may be learners or teachers regardless of their position in the school. The fundamental issue is how leadership influenced the dynamics of school violence. In particular, the interest in this study was to find out how this process of influence was enacted to reduce or perpetuate school violence.

2.2.2 The concept ‘management’

“The word manage came into English usage directly from Italian maneggiare, meaning ‘to handle and train horses’” (Bratton et al., 2005, p. 7). The word was further elaborated in the 16th century to include direction and taking charge. According to Christie (2010a) management involves processes and structures through which organisational goals and aims are met. Koontz and Weihrich (1988, p. 4) define management as “…the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, accomplish efficiently selected aims.” For Barker (1997, p. 349) “Management can be conceptualised as a skill or set of behaviours: the ability to allocate and control resources to achieve specific, planned objectives.” Van der Westhuizen (1999) states that the major managerial tasks are planning, organising, leading, guiding and controlling. In the context of this study, the implementation of vision and innovations regarding school violence depended on good planning, organising, leading, guiding and controlling.

Effective planning is the cornerstone of the success of a school. Planning involves reflection on the manner in which resources, policies, strategies, expertise, skills, rules, procedures and activities in a school will be utilised to realise aims and objectives. In planning, educational leaders should keep in mind the four Cs of the planning model, namely; cooperative, continuous, comprehensive and concrete. Planning processes should preferably be undertaken by various stakeholders (Polka, 2007). Planning is concerned with making decisions regarding future actions chosen from different alternatives. It serves as a guide for tasks to be performed by people in pursuit of organisational goals (Koontz & Weihrich, 1988).
Organising as a managerial function consists of creation of organisational structure, delegating and coordinating while “guiding may be regarded as the management task which gives direction to common activity of people to ensure that they execute the tasks to achieve the set goals” (Van der Westhuizen, 1999, p. 181). Controlling means checking, assessing, and regulating tasks (Van der Westhuizen, 1999). Koontz and Weihrich (1988, p. 17) view controlling as:

… the measuring and correcting of activities of subordinates, to ensure that events conform to plans. It measures performance against goals and plans, shows where negative deviations exist, and, by putting in motion actions to correct deviations, helps ensure accomplishment of plans.

The educational manager ensures proper planning, organising and guiding through controlling. If schools are not managed properly, their central aim of teaching and learning may not be realised (Christie, 2010b). It may be argued that if school violence is not effectively managed, teaching and learning are likely to be affected negatively. Learners who are troubled by violence may not concentrate in their studies. Similarly, teachers may not effectively perform their teaching tasks in the midst of school violence.

### 2.2.3 The leadership-management interface

This section examines the leadership-management interface. Leadership and management roles overlap (Morrison, 1998). In this era of complexity and change, it is essential to consider both leadership and management in an effort to maintain and develop schools (Davidoff & Lazurus, 2002). The successful operation of a school depends on effective leadership and management (Bush, 2003). In writing about leadership and school violence, issues of education management also featured in the discussion. It was, therefore, imperative to explain the relationship between these two concepts. Leadership is concerned with setting the vision and values of a group or an organisation while management focuses on day to day implementation of the vision (Coleman & Glover, 2010). Bush et al., (2010, p. 5) indicate:
While a clear vision may be essential to establish the nature and direction of change, it is equally important to ensure that innovations are implemented efficiently and that schools’ residual functions are carried out effectively while certain elements are undergoing change.

Davidoff and Lazarus (2002, pp. 156-157) explain the relationship between leadership and management as follows:

Leadership is associated with movement, direction, and purpose. However, if there is too much movement, too much activity, and too much challenge, it is very likely that there will be a loss of direction, and insufficient stability in the school. This is exactly where management becomes important. Management is essentially about holding the school, establishing certainty, confidence and security for the organisation, allowing rest and reflection. Management is about making sure that the school as a whole is functioning effectively and achieving its vision. It is pointless being excited and enthusiastic about infinite possibilities, but not achieving them simply because they are unmanageable or there is too much chaos. Management is the function which ensures that things are operating smoothly, that structures are in place to support forward movement, that processes are contained, and that the school is operating efficiently. An important management function is that of holding the organisation: providing the framework to fulfil its purpose.

Management is concerned about the effective and efficient maintenance the way in which the organisation operates while leadership focuses on influencing people to achieve desirable goals (Spillane & Diamond, 2007). I concur with Morrisson (1998) that leadership should focus on creating direction, strategy, transformation of an organisation and vision while management is about ensuring that the vision is effectively implemented, organisation is run and operated efficiently and effectively in order to realise its strategies and purposes.
2.2.4 The concepts of violence and school violence

Greene (2008) defines violence as deliberate behaviour in terms of which one person attempts to harm or actually harm another person. Henry (2000, p. 19) views violence as “…the use of power to harm another whatever form it takes.” In this regard, harm does not only refer to physical aspect but it also includes other dimensions such as economic or material, psychological or emotional, moral or ethical and social or identity (Henry, 2000). According to the World Health Organisation (WHO) (2002, p. 5) violence is:

The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation.

The common word in the three definitions is ‘harm’ though WHO’s definition is more detailed. The definitions provided by WHO and Henry’s view violence as an intentional or deliberate act. Aisenberg, Gavin, Mehrotra and Brownman (2011) contend that the inclusion of various aspects of forms of violence in the definition are imperative in that violent acts are interpreted in different ways across cultures. This means that what constitute violence in one culture may not necessarily be understood as violence in another culture. However, WHO’s definition appears not to capture the complex nature of violence and less overt types such as violence perpetrated against women and girls (Burton, 2008).

School violence is antisocial behaviour which occurs on the school compound (Baker, 1998). “School violence refers to a wide range of violent behaviours among the students and between students and their teachers” (Khoury-Kassabri, Astor, & Benbenishty, 2009, p. 161). Zulu, Urbani, Van der Merwe and Van der Walt (2004) define school violence as a man-made violence which is illegitimate and deliberate. In this study, the words violence and school violence are used interchangeably. Violence or school violence, in this study, means deliberate and or intentional behaviour of learner-on-teacher, teacher-on-learner and learner-on-learner which result in psychological, physical and emotional harm.
2.2.5 The concept dynamics

The dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics provides various definitions of the word dynamic. Among these definitions this dictionary explains dynamic as a variation of tone pitch range such as falling or rising (Crystal, 2003). Taken from this perspective school violence may be regarded as dynamic in that the degree of its occurrence varies. This degree may rise or fall. The occurrence may vary from day to day within one school. The variation may also be apparent between two different schools. Dynamics is also defined as “the pattern of change or growth of any object or phenomenon” (Gove, 1993, p. 711). Dynamic patterns may be categorised into three main patterns: periodic, random and chaotic dynamics (Katerndahl, Burge, Ferrer, Becho, & Wood, 2012). Periodic patterns are characterised by “…cyclic variations with predictable path and pattern.” Random dynamics are not predictable in terms of patterns and path. Chaotic dynamics illustrate an unpredictable path while the patterns are predictable (Katerndahl et al., 2012, p. 141).

For the purpose of this study, dynamics means the variation of a phenomenon (school violence) which may be predictable or unpredictable. In relation to school violence, this variation was viewed from various dimensions: degree of occurrence, forms and causes of school violence as well as the violence perpetrator and victim interplay. Benbensity and Astor (2008) view school violence as consisting of the following forms: physical, verbal, sexual, indirect, social, property related and weapon related violence. The causes of school violence have also attracted researchers’ attention. In South African schools, causes of violence include, inter alia, authoritarian forms of socialisation (Harber, 2004), retaliation against provocation, gambling, xenophobic threats, sexism (Bester & Du plessis, 2010), racism, societal factors (De Wet, 2009), gangsterism, educational factors (Bester & Du plessis, 2010; De Wet, 2009), alcohol and drugs abuse (Bester & Du plessis, 2010; Burton, 2008; De Wet, 2009). Harber (2004) contends that violence may be perpetrated by learner on learner, learner on teacher or teacher on learner. However, in most cases, it is the learners who are the victims of violence (Harber, 2004), although teachers may also perpetrate acts of violence against one another.
2.3 Selected theories of leadership

This section discusses some theories of leadership. Scholars have identified a number of competing leadership theories and models (Bush, 2007). No single theory is applicable in all contexts (Bush, 2003). Various scholars explore leadership theories (Bush, 2003; Bush & Glover, 2003; English, 2006; Hoy & Miskel, 2005; Ivancevich et al., 2008; Leithwood & Duke, 1998; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; McGuire, 2011).

McGuire (2011), for example, discusses leadership theories into four broad categories, namely; trait, behavioural, situational and transformational. The last three categories informed the review of literature in this section. Trait theories were not discussed since they were considered as irrelevant for this study.

2.3.1 Behavioural leadership

These theories are concerned with leaders’ actions and assume that leadership behaviour can be learned. In this way leadership is a process which can be observed. Three dimensions of behavioural theories include, autocratic versus democratic versus laissez-faire, relation-oriented versus task-orientation and transactional versus transformational (McGuire, 2011).

2.3.1.1 Democratic versus autocratic versus laissez-faire

According to West-Burnham (2009) the origin of these leadership styles can be traced from studies which were conducted at the University of Iowa around the 1930s. “Autocratic style is very directive and results-focused and typified by one-way communication, centralized power and an expectation of obedience and loyalty on behalf of employees.” (McGuire, 2011, p. 162) while laissez-faire leadership style is basically leadership absence or avoidance where leaders ignore responsibilities, avoid taking action, delay to make decisions and fail to provide feedback (Hoy & Miskel, 2005). The followers are free to choose what they want to do with little influence from the leaders (McGuire, 2011). Such leaders expect followers to take decisions (Riaz & Anis-Ul-Haque, 2012). They avoid providing guidance and direction. Their assumption is that goals and tasks will be accomplished by followers who are intrinsically
motivated (Jones & Rudd, 2007). Leaders who adopt an autocratic style do not consult anybody about organisational matters, they take decisions on their own and inform or instruct members of staff on what to do (Bogler, 2001).

On the contrary, leadership as a democratic process should be viewed as a collective capacity as opposed to personal status (West-Burnham, 2009). A democratic leader invites other employees to participate in deliberations leading to decision making. The employees are likely to be satisfied about their job when they are involved in decision making. They may feel that they are in control of what is happening in their organisation (Bhatti et al., 2012). Democracy in schools requires a deliberate effort to occur. Teachers should provide an enabling environment for democratic opportunities and arrangements. These opportunities and arrangements are double folded. First, democratic structures and processes should be created. Second, learners should be given a chance of a democratic experience through creation of a democratic curriculum (Beane & Apple, 2007). Democratic structures and processes in a school are characterised by the existence of councils, committees and other decision making groups whose membership includes teachers and learners. The teachers and learners are involved in collaborative decision making both at school and classroom levels. They participate in issues such as policy making (Beane & Apple, 2007). In this study, the interest was to understand how democratic structures and process were put in place by the selected schools in an effort to deal with school violence. For Davies (1999) democracy in education involves, inter alia, the basic values, rights, structures within schools and training. According to her, there is a need to consider the nature of values linked to democracy and education as well as the manner in which they are communicated. Another issue to take into account is whether stakeholders such as parents, learners and support staff participate in decisions which contain values. Such decisions include mission statements, development plans and policy formulation. With regard to rights, a number of questions can be raised as to whose rights take precedence between teachers and learners or whether teachers and learners are afforded equal rights (Davies, 1999).

Leach and Humphreys (2007) describe a democratic process from Uganda where learners were granted an opportunity to question the HIV/AIDS curriculum. Learners had found lessons regarding this curriculum very boring. They raised concerns that
HIV/AIDS messages could never be effective when the school is silent about sexual harassment and aggressive behaviour of boys against girls. The teachers allowed learners to suggest topics which could be discussed in the AIDS lessons. Girls in particular suggested topics pertaining to gender inequalities in and outside the school. The curriculum was modified to include such issues as domination of classroom space by boys and sexual harassment. This democratic process led to the development of new classroom rules and a positive learning environment (Leach & Humphreys, 2007).

SASA mandates all secondary schools to have RCLs which are democratically elected. The council should also be represented in the SGB in the case of secondary schools. While schools can establish democratic structures, they struggle to create a democratic culture and peaceful behaviour due to school violence (Harber, 2006). “Despite an enabling democratic policy framework, the leadership of many South African schools remains firmly entrenched within the formal, hierarchical management structure. The potential for teacher leadership is, therefore, relatively untapped and, where it is enacted, it is often restricted” (Grant & Singh, 2009, p. 289). Some teachers in South African schools are not willing to take part in leadership, they still want the principal to provide leadership (Coleman, 2003). In addition, Xaba (2006) found that schools do not apply any effort to solicit the collaboration of stakeholders such as the community in ensuring school safety. In schools where safety policies and safety committees existed, such policies are not implemented and the committees are not functional. The schools considered safety to be the responsibility of the Department of Education.

Notwithstanding challenges facing South African schools in establishing a democratic culture, there are those which demonstrate progress even though some challenges remain (Harber, 2006). To illustrate, Harber describes a case study of a former white girls’ school which changed into a multicultural school in early 1990s. According to Harber, in the late 1990s the principal of this school took a lead in democratising the school through the establishment of democratic decision making structures, involvement of staff, learners and parents. These stakeholders attended training workshops pertaining to values, skills and roles necessary to implement the new system. Drafting of school rules and a new code of conduct involved all members of the school community. As a result of this democratic process school violence decreased (Harber, 2006).
These three leadership styles illustrate different ways in which leadership may address school violence. Leadership that adopts a laissez-faire style may avoid or delay either to take action or responsibility about issues pertaining to school violence. Learners, for instance, may report violent acts, but leadership may not take action. Autocratic leadership is likely to take all decisions concerning school violence matters without consulting other stakeholders while democratic leadership may be illustrated by involvement of stakeholders in decision making and existence of democratic structures and processes aimed at addressing school violence.

2.3.1.2 Relation-oriented versus task-oriented

The University of Michigan carried out a study which concluded that leaders may be classified as being employee-orientated or production-orientated. Leaders who are employee-orientated show more interest in identifying and fulfilling employees’ welfare needs while production-orientated leaders seem to be more concerned about the technicality of work and expect high performance from employees (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012; McGuire, 2011). In the case of a school, the technical aspect is teaching and learning which is the main duty of teachers (Tarter & Hoy, 1988). Leaders who are more concerned about tasks plan and organise operations, clarify roles and monitor functions in the organisations. Their actions focus on the effective use of resources for the accomplishment of tasks. On the contrary, relations-orientated leaders pay more attention to functions such as managing conflict, consulting, developing, recognizing and supporting staff (Hoy & Miskel, 2005).

2.3.2 Situational leadership

Situational leadership advocates a flexible leadership approach and leaders’ understanding of a situation when addressing a given problem. There are three theories that are categorised within situational leadership, namely; contingency, path-goal and situational leadership (McGuire, 2011). According to Bolden Gosling, Murturano and Dennison (2003, p. 8) “contingency-situational theories were developed to indicate that
the style to be used is contingent upon such factors as the situation, the people, the task, the organisation, and other environmental variables.”

2.3.2.1 Contingency leadership style

The contingency leadership style originated from Fiedler’s work in which he suggests that leaders should adapt their behaviours taking into consideration relation-orientation and task-orientation dimensions (McGuire, 2011). However, it seems that leaders have their own preferred styles which may either be relationship-orientated or task orientated (Werner, 2011). This style is based on the understanding that there are diverse school contexts and as such it is imperative to adapt a leadership style which is appropriate to a given situation instead of using ‘one size fits all stance’ (Bush, 2008). The contingency leadership model is characterised by three dimensions of situational control: leader-member relations, task structure and position power (Werner, 2011). In relation to this study, leaders who adopt contingency leadership style are likely to use different approaches depending on the context when addressing school violence.

South Africa has a diverse educational system in which there are well resourced schools alongside under resourced schools. The former have basic facilities while the latter do not have these facilities. Such facilities include electricity and sanitation. As a result, a single approach to leadership is not appropriate to all schools. School leaders should be equipped with diverse leadership approaches (Bush, 2007). As indicated above, school violence is dynamic; the type of violence which is high in one school may be low in another school. In addition, the leadership approach which is effective in one school may not necessarily be effective in another school. Also one leadership approach used in one school is unlikely to be effective in all situations.

2.3.2.2 Situational leadership style

The situational leadership style was developed by Paul and Kenneth Blanchard who believed that leaders have to adjust their behaviour to the readiness of the followers to perform the required task (McGuire, 2011). This style is based on the assumption that no leadership style or behaviour can be appropriate in all situations. In this way, leaders
should be flexible and be in the position to adapt to different situations (Gordon & Alston, 2009). Deventer and Kruger (2005, p. 146) maintain that:

Clearly, every situation requires a unique course of action from the educational leader. Each situation will, therefore, have to be carefully analysed and adapted to the education leader’s own abilities and personality, the forces at work within the staff and/or parents, and the forces within the environment or situation.

It is, therefore, apparent that situational leadership styles requires effective leaders to modify their behaviour in order to address a particular situation (Gates, Blanchard, & Hersey, 1976). “Leader task behaviour is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in specifying subordinate duties and responsibilities, while relationship behaviour is defined as the extent to which the leader acts in a facilitative and supportive manner” (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997, p. 68). Task behaviour is illustrated by leaders who engage in one way communication. A two way communication is adopted by leaders who are concerned about relationships (Bolden et al., 2003). Hersey and Blanchard suggest four leadership styles which are related to the level of employees’ maturity, namely; telling, selling, participating and delegating (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997; McGuire, 2011). With regard to telling type of leadership the followers receive instructions from the leader who is more concerned about the task than building relationships. The style which places high value on task and relationship is selling leadership style where leaders regularly communicate with followers, provide feedback, coach and recognise followers (McGuire, 2011). A participating style focuses on low task and high relationship behaviour. The leader is a facilitator who involves followers in decision making. Both task and relationship behaviour is low in delegation leadership style. The leaders grant the followers an opportunity to make decisions pertaining to when, how and where to do the tasks. Followers are considered to have attained psychological maturity and as such leaders do not have to support them (Hersey et al., 1979).

The application of situational leadership in tackling school violence implies that leaders should understand a given situation before they take action. In providing leadership, leaders should utilise different styles depending on the maturity of the followers. These followers may either be teachers or learners.
2.3.2.3 Path-goal theory

The Path-goal theory was pioneered by Robert House in the 1970s (McGuire, 2011). This theory describes the ways in which leaders make a clear and easy path to be followed by their subordinates in an effort to achieve goals (Gordon & Alston, 2009). House (1996, p. 325) explains:

Path-goal theory is a dyadic theory of supervision. It concerns relationships between formally appointed supervisors and subordinates in their day-to-day functioning. It is concerned with how formally appointed supervisors affect the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates. It is a dyadic theory of supervision in that it does not address the effect of leaders on groups or work units, but rather the effects of superiors on subordinates.

In the relationships between leaders and subordinates, the fundamental duty of the leader is to remove barriers and obstacles which hinder employees from performing effectively (McGuire, 2011). In removing barriers, leaders may assist the subordinates to move more barriers or the path may be scoured (Gordon & Alston, 2009).

Influenced by task and relationship issues, House identifies four leadership style types, namely; directive, supportive, participative and achievement leader behaviour (McGuire, 2011). Leaders may have to assist inexperienced followers to tackle a complex task by providing them with information necessary to understand the task and guiding them along the way. This is called directing (Gordon & Alston, 2009). The leaders also clarify how the performance would be rewarded which may be through advancement, pay and job security (House, 1996). The second style which is supportive leadership behaviour is illustrated by the leaders in creating a psychologically and friendly environment conducive to the work of the followers. The focus of the leaders is to provide necessary support for satisfaction of followers’ preferences and needs (House, 1996). This satisfaction can be achieved by ensuring that the work is interesting. Supportive leadership behaviour is more appropriate when workers perform boring, stressful or hazardous work (Gordon & Alston, 2009).
In the context of a school, the formal leaders are principals, their deputies and heads of departments. These leaders are expected to supervise teachers and learners on issues pertaining to school violence. The path goal theory dictates that such supervision should be based on directive, supportive, participative and achievement leader styles.

### 2.3.3 Transformational leadership

According to Kuhnert and Lewis (1987), transformational leadership was introduced by Burns (1978) and extended by Bass (1985). It became popular in the 1980s in reaction to changes that were predominantly top-down driven at the time (Hallinger, 2003). "Transformational leadership refers to the ability of the leader to inspire followers to transcend their own interests and work towards the benefit of all" (McGuire, 2011, p. 167). Leaders who use transformational leadership strive to transform and change individuals to be motivated and increase their performance to high level. The followers are motivated and transformed in such a way that they set aside their own self-interest and work towards achievement of organisational goals and vision (English, 2006).

Bass and Avolio (1993) suggest that transformational leadership consists of components such as individualised support, inspirational motivation, idealised influence and intellectual stimulation. These behavioural components imply that transformational leadership is premised on the understanding that people's needs are essential as opposed to coordinating or controlling them in order to realise organisational goals. As a result, transformational leadership is a bottom-up process of influence (Hallinger, 2003). Idealised influence is illustrated by leaders who lead by example in an effort to inspire and influence followers (McGuire, 2011). This influence creates a sense of respect and support in followers and makes them to be committed to fundamental and radical changes (Hoy & Miskel, 2005). According to Werner (2011, p. 365) "The influence of the transformational leader makes followers believe that change offers them opportunity to grow and develop to heights previously only dreamed of.". Inspirational motivation is concerned with the leader's competence to communicate a vision clearly in an attractive and inclusive manner. This vision should be attainable. Transformational leaders articulate a vision in such a way that followers get excited and motivated to work towards achievement of the vision. They use praise, imagery, metaphors, empathy and positive reinforcement to generate enthusiasm and excitement among followers.
Transformational leaders stimulate followers to be innovative and creative by questioning old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Transformational leaders challenge followers to think creatively, design new procedures and programs, and solve difficult problems, foster unlearning and eliminate the fixation on old ways of doing things, and refrain from criticizing individual members for mistakes.

Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) contend that the transformational leadership approach is concerned with setting direction, developing people and redesigning the organisation. Setting direction means that leadership assists members of staff to understand organisational goals, purpose and vision. People are likely to be motivated by challenging and achievable goals. In addition, transformational leadership is premised on the understanding that developing of people is essential. This calls for leaders to provide an appropriate model, individualised support and intellectual stimulation to members of staff. Redesigning of the organisation requires adjusting school structures to enhance culture building and ensuring participative decision making through creation of collaborative processes (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

Leithwood and Poplin (1992) draw from three empirical studies to describe the practice of transformational leadership in schools. From these studies, it was found that effective school leaders pursue three main goals. First, they strive to help staff members in developing and maintaining a collaborative and professional culture. Second, they promote staff development. Lastly, they help members of staff to solve problems together. According to Leithwood and Poplin (1992), in collaborative cultures teachers are involved in school activities such as goal setting. They discuss issues and plan together. School leaders share their leadership responsibilities with other members of staff through delegation. School values, beliefs and cultural norms are communicated by leaders to staff in their daily contacts.
The teachers’ involvement in the formulation of a school mission may help them to internalise professional growth goals. This internalisation of goals is likely to serve as a motivation for teacher development. School leadership should ensure that professional growth goals are clear, challenging and achievable (Leithwood & Poplin, 1992). Transformational leadership allows school leadership to stimulate staff members in engaging in collaborative problem solving beyond the classroom situation (Leithwood & Poplin, 1992). Transformational leaders take the initiative regarding change and assist organisations and followers to cope with change (Horner, 2003).

The practice of transformational leadership is captured in a study that was conducted in Israel by Astor, Benbenishty and Estrada (2009). Although a high level of violence in communities has been regarded as influencing violence in schools, this study provides evidence that there are schools which experience a low level of violence though they are located in communities with a high level of violence (Astor et al., 2009). In addition, the study shows that there are schools with high levels of violence which are located in communities with a low level of violence. The findings of this study indicate that school principals’ leadership plays a central role in setting the tone for dealing with violence. The schools with a low level of violence appeared to be led by visionary principals. “The principals were able to inspire, convince, and organise the school staff to follow an approach that clearly linked the schools’ academic mission with a school safety mission” (Astor et al., 2009, p. 453). It, therefore, appears that in these schools there was a strong leadership by the principals. In addition, the principals established a positive school climate which was conducive to good relationships between teachers and learners. On the contrary, the principals of schools with a high level of violence seemed to have an unclear mission related to school safety. There existed poor working relationships between principals, teachers and learners. Although schools with a high level of violence had cultural symbols that displayed nonviolence messages, teachers and learners who were interviewed revealed that such symbols were mainly intended to impress outsiders (Astor et al., 2009).

Bass (1990) identifies characteristics of both transformational and transactional leadership. According to him, transactional leadership is characterised by contingent reward, management by exception (active), management by exception (passive) and laissez-faire. Contingent reward implies that the follower receives rewards when they
have done what leaders expected (Ivancevich et al., 2008). Transactional leadership is concerned with the use of rewards to followers for achieving goals and punishment if they fail to attain goals while transformational leadership focuses on creation and communication of the vision by the leaders in an effort to convince followers to identify with the said vision (Werner, 2011). Transformational leaders appear to have good working relationships with their followers. However, transformational leadership should not be regarded as a replacement for transactional leadership, but rather as a complement. Effective leaders rely on both transformational and transactional leadership approaches (Bass, 1999).

The summary of leadership theories discussed in this study is captured by (McGuire, 2011) as in Table 2.1. The main issues contained in this summary will serve as a guide for data collection pertaining to leadership practices and processes which influence school violence.
Table 2.1: **Key features of leadership theories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavioural theories of leadership</th>
<th>Situational theories of leadership</th>
<th>Transformational theories of leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Underpinning philosophy</strong></td>
<td>The actions and behaviours of leadership will determine their overall effectiveness. Certain leadership actions are likely to lead to more effective outcomes</td>
<td>The leadership style to be adopted is determined by the level of situational control, the relationship with followers and level of positional power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key characteristics</strong></td>
<td>Within the Ohio Studies: consideration and structure</td>
<td>Under contingency theory, there are two (From Fiedler): A leader’s task or relationship motivational orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within the Blake and Mouton studies: concern for people and concern for production</td>
<td>A leader’s situational control (examined in relation to leader-member relations; task structure and positional control)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key contributors</strong></td>
<td>Fleishman et al. (1955); Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958); Blake and Mouton (1964); Blake and McCanse (1991)</td>
<td>Fiedler (1967); House (1971); Hersay and Blanchard (1988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relationship With followers</strong></td>
<td>Advocates that the best leaders are concerned with both people and tasks. Encourages greater standards-based employee participation</td>
<td>The state of the relationship with followers will determine the appropriate leadership action to be taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Developmental rationale</strong></td>
<td>Through training and learning, leaders will be able to determine the appropriate leadership actions to be taken</td>
<td>Leaders are trained to assess the environmental context and adopt appropriate actions which fits with the specific context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Developmental Interventions</strong></td>
<td>Self-analysis inventories followed typically by communications and team-building activities Competency-based development activities (may include empowering, coaching and motivational approaches)</td>
<td>Self-analysis inventories to determine degree of task or relationship orientation Environmental analysis inventories to establish degree of situational control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Criticisms of theory</strong></td>
<td>Behavioural theories seek universal understanding of leadership without taking into account context</td>
<td>Requires leaders to have a malleable style and to adopt their leadership approach according to the particular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
specific factors
Assumes that the leader will demonstrate the same set of behaviours across all subordinates

situation
Lack of empirical support for contingency approaches

interests and pursue outcomes contrary to their best interests.

2.4 THE DYNAMICS OF VIOLENCE

This section reviews literature pertaining to the dynamics of school violence. However, it is not practical to explore all the dynamics in this study and as such it is necessary to identify the parameters within which violence is explored. Accordingly, it is confined to violence as it pertains to learner on teacher, teacher on learner and learner on learner.

2.4.1 Learner on teacher violence

There have been few studies which have focused on understanding school violence as experienced by teachers (Ewen, 2007; Özdemir, 2012). In this regard, a survey of secondary school teachers in Germany reveals that teachers may be victims of various forms of violence perpetrated against them by learners (Ewen, 2007) with these forms of violence including strong verbal attacks, threats, damage to objects and assault by learners (Ewen, 2007). Özmdemir (2012) ‘s study of elementary and secondary schools’ teachers in Turkey, found that secondary schools teachers experience more violence than their counterparts in elementary schools. A study conducted by West (2007) in Australia showed that the violence experienced by teachers has far-reaching consequences including, inter alia, a desire to leave the teaching profession, anger, loss of confidence, fear and concern at not being supported by colleagues. However, the teachers seemed to be reluctant to report such incidents of violence (West, 2007). A survey that involved 487 teachers in 24 secondary schools in Belgium reveals negative consequences of school violence perpetrated by learners against their teachers (Galand, Lecocq, & Philippot, 2007). Due to school violence and lack of supportive structures, teachers wished to quit the teaching profession. However, teachers who have the
support of their colleagues and the principals coped with school violence (Galand, Lecocq & Phillippot, 2007).

In South Africa, teachers also experience violence perpetrated against them by learners. Singh (2006) divides the learner-on-teacher forms of violence into two categories: insidious and physical violence. Insidious forms of violence include incidents such as arguing and back chatting, arrogant refusal to follow instructions, undermining authority, intimidation of sexual orientation, obscene language, personal insults, racist remarks, rude or obscene gestures and chronic activities tolerable on their own but in total intended to intimidate. She considers physical forms of violence as consisting of actual, attempted, verbal and written threats of violence. Insidious forms of violence appear to be taken for granted by both the media and the members of school community. The media pays little attention to these forms of violence while teachers often ignore them. However, failing to take action against violent incidents considered minor may be one of the causes of physical violence. It is apparent that learners disrespect teachers. The root causes of increasing disrespectful behaviour of learners are as follows: ineffective measures to caution deviant learners, prohibition of corporal punishment, establishment of RCLs, emphasis of learners’ rights by the media, poor parental involvement in disciplining learners and a shortage of school counsellors. Singh (2006) further found that violence against teachers is more prevalent in disadvantaged schools than in advantaged ones. The effects of violence found in this study include, inter alia, increased absenteeism of teachers, poor classroom management as well as increased stress, frustration and depression.

In a qualitative study conducted from three primary and four secondary schools, De Wet (2010) found that learner-on-teacher violence is rife. This study involved principals, HoDs and teachers who have experienced learner-on-teacher violence. The findings of this study indicate that teachers are exposed to various forms of violence perpetrated against them by their own learners. This violence occurs at different areas within the school compounds. In the classrooms, some learners disrupt lessons by talking to each other and ignoring the teacher. They mock and humiliate the teachers. They throw objects at the teacher while the teacher is writing on the chalkboard. The findings further show that the principals who participated in the study were at one point held captive and threatened by learners while they were in their offices. Learners also attack
the property of their teachers. They scratch teachers’ cars and slash the tyres. The negative effects of violence against the teachers make some of them ignore learners who misbehave. Other teachers leave schools that seem to experience more violence. Older teachers also report that they wish to take early retirement (De Wet, 2010).

The main issues which emerged from literature in this subsection are presented in the Table 2.2 below. These issues will be used to inform data collection process as indicators for the dynamics of learner-on-teachers violence. The items in the Table are not arranged in any order.

**Table 2.2 Summary of learner-on-teacher violence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of violence</th>
<th>Causes of violence</th>
<th>Possible consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Ineffective disciplinary measures</td>
<td>Desire to leave the teaching profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threats of violence</td>
<td>Prohibition of corporal punishment</td>
<td>Anger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damage to property</td>
<td>Poor parental participation in the discipline of learners</td>
<td>Loss of self-confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>Overemphasis of learners’ rights</td>
<td>Increased absenteeism of teachers from work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrogant refusal to follow instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor classroom management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undermining authority</td>
<td></td>
<td>frustration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racists remarks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical violence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written threats of violence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.4.2 Teacher on learner violence

One of the common forms of violence perpetrated by teachers against learners is corporal punishment. This type of punishment was tolerated and accepted historically (Hayman & Perone, 1998). As was indicated in Chapter 1, corporal punishment is abolished in South African schools. Straus and Yodanis (1996, p. 826) define corporal punishment as “the use of physical force with the intention of causing pain but not injury for purposes of correction or control.” In Botswana and Ghana, Dunne and Leach (2007) found that corporal punishment is used in most schools more often on boys than girls. In Botswana, the corporal punishment is sometimes extremely violent with boys being subjected to punishment which involves their heads being hit against the wall and beaten with broomsticks and electric cords (Dunne & Leach, 2007).

Although corporal punishment is illegal in South African schools, it remains a contested issue. From one perspective, some scholars link corporal punishment to school violence. In a study that investigated causes of youth violence in South Africa, Burton (2008) contends that schools that utilise corporal punishment often socialise learners into violent behaviour. Soneson (2005) agrees with this viewpoint and argues that administering corporal punishment to children is tantamount to teaching children that violence is a way of solving conflicts. It also implies that children learn that violent behaviour on the part of a powerful person at the expense of a weaker person is acceptable. Sharing the same sentiments is the Department of Education (DoE) which acknowledges that learners who are subjected to corporal punishment at home and in the school are likely to adopt violent means to solve problems (Department of Education, 2000b). Learners are socialised to view violence as an effective tool for social control used by the teachers (Burnett, 1998). In addition, corporal punishment undermines the culture of respect and patience between teachers and learners. It has negative effects on learners such as learners having negative attitudes towards education, lack of confidence and low-self-esteem. Learners may have feelings of revenge. It leads to truancy and high rate of drop outs (Department of Education, 2000a). In response to the use of corporal punishment, learners may become angry, hostile and aggressive against teachers, peers and school property (Hayman & Perone, 1998).
From another perspective, some teachers appear to be discontented with the banning of corporal punishment in schools as they are of the opinion that the ban has disempowered them and enabled learners to indulge in unruly behaviour (Hunt, 2007). For example, teachers claim that learners are verbally and nonverbally abusive, out of control and noisy and that they question authority and commit acts of vandalism (Hunt, 2007). Corporal punishment appears to be a preferred method of punishment to some teachers for a number of reasons. It is simple and quick to administer corporal punishment while the alternative approaches demand skills, patience and time which, unfortunately, teachers may not have. There is a belief that some learners can only be disciplined through the use of corporal punishment. Corporal punishment is also associated with religious and cultural beliefs. Some teachers are of the opinion that corporal punishment did not harm them when they were learners and as such it is unreasonable to argue that it has a potential of doing harm to the current learners (Department of Education, 2000a).

It is also worth mentioning that corporal punishment may also have negative consequences on those who administer it. Timeslive, for instance, reports the consequences of corporal punishment to the perpetrator as follows:

Graphic cell phone video footage shows how the principal of Diversity High School south of Johannesburg, Hosea Maboya, angrily struck the pupil four times with the hosepipe in his office on Thursday. Yesterday, the Gauteng Department of Education, which said it was "horrified" by the shocking images, said the principal had been suspended with immediate effect (Govender & Laganparsad, 2011, p. 2).

Apart from the suspension teachers who use corporal punishment may be subjected to a fine by the DoE. They may also face criminal charges. To this effect Sowetan reports that “The Gauteng Department of Education has suspended Meadowlands Secondary School principal and Sadtu leader Moss Senye for two months and slapped him with a R50,000 fine for assaulting a pupil last year”. Criminal charges have also been laid against this principal (Monama, 2012, p. 1).
Former white and middle class schools in South Africa appear to have stopped the use of corporal punishment. However, it is still used in Township schools due to the legacy of authoritarian practices and the fact that parents use it at home and expect the schools to use it (Morrell, 2001). A survey of 13 schools located in rural and township areas of KwaZulu-Natal, reveals mixed results pertaining to the use of corporal punishment (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010). The results suggest that corporal punishment still persists in some schools while in other schools it is no longer used.

Moreover, learners experience sexual violence perpetrated against them by their teachers. In this regard, a study by Human Rights Watch (2001) a decade ago uncovered that school girls are subjected to various forms of sexual violence perpetrated against them by boys, male teachers and other male employees in the schools. The teachers, in particular, use their power to abuse school girls sexually. They either use punitive measures such as threats of corporal punishment or promise rewards which include higher marks or money in order to render the girls submissive to their sexual demands. Poor parents often encourage dating relationships between their daughters and teachers (Human Rights Watch, 2001; Prinsloo, 2006). However, it is clear that such relationships occur within the context of unequal power relations and may, thus, be regarded as sexual abuse. The findings further indicate that girls experience sexual abuse perpetrated by boys in a number of places which include toilets, hostel rooms, empty classroom and any other places which have been named as no go areas (Human Rights Watch, 2001). Sexual violence against girls has far reaching consequences. Due to sexual violence girls may drop out, fall pregnant and/or be infected with HIV/AIDS (Mpina, 2011).

Furthermore, some male learners experience sexual violence perpetrated against them by their teachers. Anderson and Ho-Foster (2008) uncovered that sexual violence against boys in South African schools occurs throughout the country. Their study was a survey which involved 1191 schools randomly selected from all the provinces of South Africa. Male respondents were 11 to 19 years of age. The findings from this survey indicate:

Male school children in South Africa suffer high rates of sexual abuse, many of the assaults perpetrated in school. By the age of 18 years, two in every five school
boys reported being forced to have sex, mostly by female perpetrators (Andersson & Ho-Foster, 2008, p. 3).

Learner gays and lesbians are sometimes subjected to various forms of violence directed against them by teachers in South African Schools (Human Rights Watch, 2011). ‘Butch’ lesbians are verbally harassed by teachers who constantly insist that they should dress and behave like other girls. Teachers use words such as tomboy (behaving like a boy) against lesbians. This study reports that one lesbian in a school located in Eastern Cape was subjected to physical violence from teachers and later suspended from school for behaving against the norm (Human Rights Watch, 2011). Verbal varieties such as name calling, ridicule, sarcasm and denigrating statements may lead to learners becoming angry and feeling alienated. Learners who are subjected to psychological maltreatment are also likely to engage in problematic behaviour such as being aggressive (Hyman & Perone, 1998). To worsen the situation school leaders such as teachers and principals did not provide support to gay and lesbian learners instead the latter also humiliate the former (Human Rights Watch, 2011). This lack of support is expressed by one participant quoted by Msibi (2012, p. 524):

I was at school and Mrs Nhleko called me to the staffroom. She started shouting at me and was telling me to stop acting like a boy. She said I need to stop this lesbian thing because I will start making other learners like me…

In a study on the experiences of gays and lesbians in South African secondary schools, Butler, Alpsalan, Strumper and Astbury (2008) found that two gays committed suicides in one school because the principal threatened to expel homosexuals from this school. Butler et al (2008) argue that negative attitudes against homosexuals emanate from Christian beliefs which consider the practice of homosexuality a sinful act. It appears that teachers and principals lack knowledge pertaining to homosexual issues and as such they fail to protect homosexual learners against violence perpetrated by other members of the school. Due to a lack of knowledge and misinformation about queer learners, teachers assume that these learners are just undergoing a certain stage and if they can be discouraged, they will start behaving like other learners (Msibi, 2012). In this way, schools did not only demonstrate an inability to create and maintain a safe environment for these learners, but they also perpetuated homophobic violence (Butler et al., 2008).
The discussion of sexuality issues is a ‘no go’ area among black working South Africans and as such it is not easy for teachers to discuss these issues even if the curriculum provides the opportunity do to so (Msibi, 2012).

Despite the fact that the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa prohibits sexual discrimination, there is still a gap between policy and practice (Butler et al., 2008; Msibi, 2012). As a result of homophobia, queer learners suffer from feelings of rejection and isolation. This suffering has negative implication on their academic performance. They either underachieve or fail. Some of them drop out of the school (Stephens, 2011). However, Msibi (2012) points out that queer learners were not powerless, hopeless and passive at all situation. They do resist and show resilience by expressing pride in themselves and accepting who they are.

Another worrying form of violence which learners experience from their teachers is racism. Vally and Dalama (1999) contend that racism in South Africa may be better understood within the context of South African history. During the apartheid era education was structured in such a way that class, race, ethnic and gender categories were emphasised and reinforced for the benefit of the racial capitalist economy. The apartheid education system reproduced and reinforced the stereotyped categories of White, Coloured, Indian and African. According to Henkel, Dovidio and Gaertner (2006) racism is a multifaceted and complex phenomenon. De Wet (2001) draws from literature to discuss three types of racism, namely; individual, cultural and institutional. It involves discrimination, stereotypes and prejudice by an individual (Henkel, Dovidio & Gaertner, 2006). According to Berman and Paradies (2010, p. 217) “Racism can be expressed through stereotypes (racist beliefs), prejudice (racist emotions/ affect) or discrimination (racial behaviours and practices).” The legacy of apartheid is still prevalent in schools where discrimination and separation prevail (Vally & Dalamba, 1999). The teachers fail to create a school environment free from prejudice and discrimination. As a result, they tend to deny the existence of racism. The findings of a study conducted by Vally and Dalamba (1999) on behalf of the South African Human Rights Commission reveal that most participant learners were worried that some teachers were racists. Such teachers were abusive to learners and used derogatory language. The findings in this study further demonstrated that some principals condoned racism. When learners reported incidents of racism instigated against them by some
teachers, the principals asked the aggrieved learners to forgive the said teachers. On the other hand, SMT claimed that race relations were good.

Table 2.3 below provides a summary of emerging issues from review of literature in this subsection. These issues will serve as a guide when collecting data pertaining to the dynamics of teacher-on-learner violence. The items in the Table are not arranged in a particular order.

Table 2.3 Summary of teacher-on-learner violence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of teacher-on-learner violence</th>
<th>Causes of teacher-on-learner violence</th>
<th>Possible consequences of teacher-on-learner violence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporal punishment</td>
<td>authoritarian leadership</td>
<td>Violent behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse</td>
<td>religious, cultural beliefs</td>
<td>Low self-esteem,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical violence</td>
<td>lack of knowledge, misinformation</td>
<td>lack of confidence,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual violence</td>
<td>regarding</td>
<td>truancy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>homophobia</td>
<td>home environment, apartheid legacy</td>
<td>drop outs;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racism</td>
<td></td>
<td>feelings of revenge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suicides</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4.3 Learner on learner violence

Learner on learner violence seems to be the most common type of violence in South African Schools (Burton, 2008). Burton links the causes of learner violence to, inter alia, the violent nature of families and the larger community in which the school is located. Learners who are exposed to violence at home and the community tend to engage in violent behaviours in schools. The view that violent communities influence violent behaviour of learners is corroborated by Virasamy’s (2004) findings which illustrate that schools located in lower socio-economic communities seem to experience
more violence than schools situated in areas where middle class communities live. However, effective school leadership has the potential of leading and managing schools in such a way that schools experience low levels of violence even though they are surrounded by a violent community (Astor et al., 2009). Violence experienced by learners from home and in the community appears to have far reaching consequences in the development and behaviour of learners. As Burton (2008, p. 2) puts it:

Violence at the young age impacts negatively on the cognitive development of the individual as well as on the development of prosocial (or the ability to relate and interact in a healthy, positive way with peers and others) behaviours. Furthermore, violence and violent victimisation during childhood significantly increases the risk of antisocial or delinquent behaviour during adolescence, and of engaging in criminal behaviour in adulthood. Specifically within schools, violence impacts negatively on academic development and performance, as well as on the ability of children to function in a healthy way both within and outside of the school environment.

In many countries, bullying is one of the common types of violence which learners perpetrate against other learners (De Wet, 2010; Geffner, Loring, & Young, 2001; Liang et al., 2007). Harber (2004, p. 47) indicates that “bullying can take many forms physical violence, threats, name calling, sarcasm, spreading rumours, persistent teasing, exclusion from a group, tormenting, ridicule, humiliation and abusive comments.” This, in turn, implies that learners may experience or perpetrate one or more of these forms of bullying in different situations. Olweus (2005, p. 10) argues that:

…the term bullying is not (or should not be) used when two students of approximately the same strength (physical or psychological) are fighting or quarrelling. In order to use the term bullying, there should be an imbalance in strength (an asymmetric power relationship); the student who is exposed to the negative actions has difficulty defending him/herself and is somewhat helpless against the student or students who harass.

Bullying, therefore, is characterised by an unequal power relationship between the perpetrator and the victim. Olweus (1999) contends that experiences of bullying by
boys and girls may differ. Olweus’s study found that physical violence, as a form of bullying, was more common among boys than girls with boys experiencing physical violence both as victims and as perpetrators. On the other hand, verbal violence was common among girls. In addition, girls experienced bullying perpetrated by boys (Olweus, 1999). Dupper and Meyer-Adams (2002) contend that there are various factors driving bullying of school girls and boys. On the one hand, girls may be bullied mainly because other learners think the way in which they dress is not stylish or they are physically unattractive. However, they may also be bullied if they are considered to be well developed physically. On the other hand, boys may be bullied if their peers view them as not conforming to a stereotypic macho, male image. Sometimes learners are bullied because they wear unusual clothes or they are somehow different from the majority (Dupper & Meyer-Adams, 2002).

In South Africa, a survey that involved Grade 8 and 11 learners from public schools in the cities of Durban and Cape Town found that bullying is a common violent behaviour among learners. Male learners were found to be most at risk of being victims and perpetrators of bullying. In particular, bullies were found to be more prone to violence, risk taking and antisocial behaviour than bully victims. In this study, violent behaviour was reported as involving fighting, weapon carrying, suicidal attempts and suicide ideation while anti-social behaviour included theft, and vandalism. Walking alone, smoking and alcohol abuse were considered to be anti-social behaviour (Liang et al., 2007). In a study that investigated teachers’ perspectives pertaining to female violence among learners in five schools located in Durban, Virasamy (2004) found that girls also engage in violent behaviour. Such violent behaviour included swearing, use of inappropriate language, stealing money, assault and fighting over cigarettes and boys. Some girls formed gang groups which engaged in violent behaviours. These gangs intimidate, threaten and fight other learners. They are bribed by non-members for protection (Virasamy, 2004).

Cyber bullying is an emerging violent act among learners which is facilitated by new technologies such as mobile phones, online chat rooms, email, blogs, websites, social networks (Robinson, Saltmarsh, & Davies, 2012). This kind of bullying is done by learners while in the school and then continued when they are at home. Learners engage in cyber bullying for various reasons which include, inter alia, peer pressure, applying
power over others, taking revenge for being a victim of violence and the belief that cyber bullying is fun (Robinson et al., 2012)

Physical assault is another form of violence which occurs among learners. The victims of physical violence may be assaulted by either individual or groups of learners. Learners fight each other as a result of a number of reasons. These reasons include, but are not limited to, teasing, disagreements, taking another learner’s property without permission and bumping into another learner carelessly (Burton, 2008). Physical violence may also take the form of shoving, slapping, smacking and spanking (Dussich & Maekoya, 2007). In a study which investigated the scope of violence from four schools in Gauteng, Van der Westhuizen and Maree (2009) found that physical violence in suburban secondary schools did not occur regularly while, in the inner city schools, such violence mostly occurred among girls who often used scissors as weapons. The findings of this study indicate that physical violence among girls was caused by issues such as spreading rumours that a certain girl is HIV positive and relationship problems. The participants in this study indicated that girls used violence to solve issues since they were exposed to violence at home. The findings of a study by Doig (2005) in some KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) secondary schools show that sometimes learners engage in violent behaviour due to peer pressure. In particular, the learners fight one another because they are encouraged by their friends to do so even though they do not want to fight. The motivating factor for fighting is to get status and acceptance as a member of popular groups (Doig, 2005).

Sexual violence is also a common form of school violence that is perpetrated by learners on other learners. According to Leach (2003), some schools socialise learners in environments that are conducive to gender violence. Leach (2003) found that in Zimbabwe, Ghana and Malawi female learners experienced various forms of sexual violence perpetrated by their fellow male learners, for example, the boys touching the girls’ breasts and buttocks. In some incidents, boys show girls pornographic pictures or drawings with the intention of embarrassing them. Leach (2003) found that school authorities were reluctant to take measures against those boys who perpetrated violence against girls.
Furthermore, sexual violence perpetrated against girls is a serious problem in many South African schools (Prinsloo, 2006). In most cases the perpetrators of this form of violence were boys who attend the same schools with the girls. A study that was conducted by Haffejee (2006) for the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation shows that girls experienced different forms of sexual harassment which include labelling, sexual innuendos, name calling and unwanted touching. Boys treat girls like sexual objects by subjecting the latter to unwanted touching on their behinds and breasts. In essence, boys use sexual violence against girls as a strategy of control on girls’ social activities, their movements and over their bodies (Haffejee, 2006). Sexual harassment of girls has negative effects on the victims in various ways. The examples of such effects are unwanted pregnancy of girls, loss of self-esteem, depression, risk of suicide, low academic achievement, lack of participation in class and anger (Haffejee, 2006).

The use of alcohol and drugs by learners leads to violent behaviour of such learners (South African Council of Educators, 2011). Drugs and alcohol are easily available in South African schools. Learners smuggle them into the school. In some incidents, drug dealers come into the schools and sell these drugs to learners. Places such as toilets and areas behind the classrooms are used as trading spots. Unfortunately, some teachers also use learners to bring drugs and alcohol into the schools (Burton, 2008; South African Council of Educators, 2011). In one KZN school, four boys and a girl bunked classes and bought liquor. When they were drunk, the boys gang raped the girl and filmed this act. They circulated the film to friends via cell phones. They were later arrested by police (Pillay & Krishna, 2012).

Gay and lesbian learners in South African schools are subjected to different types of homophobia (Butler et al., 2008). Msibi (2012) uses ‘queer’ as an umbrella word for transgender, lesbian, gay and bisexual. There is no single definition for homophobia (Bhana, 2012). Msibi (2012) found that queer learners in South African township schools experienced homophobia in various ways. The findings of his study illustrate that homophobia experienced by learners from their fellow learners resulted from fear and a lack of understanding. Boys, for example, do not want to see their girlfriends in the company of lesbians since the former fear that the latter will make the said girl friend to become lesbian.
In a study conducted on behalf of gay and lesbian network, Stephens (2011) describes the prevalence of homophobia in Pietermaritzburg schools. The participants in this study were 10 female and male learners drawn from all racial groups of South Africa. 1301 students participated in this study. This study found that gays and lesbians are subjected by fellow learners to bullying and verbal harassment. As a result, gays and lesbians feel isolated and rejected. As compared to heterosexual learners, gays and lesbians appear to experience a higher level of academic under achievement, failure and dropping out of school (Stephens, 2011).

Table 2.4 below provides a summary of emerging issues from review of literature in this subsection. These issues will serve as a guide when collecting data pertaining to the dynamics of learner-on-learner violence. The items in the Table are not arranged in any particular order.
### Table 2.4 Summary of learner-on-learner violence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of learner-on-learner violence</th>
<th>Causes of learner-on-learner violence</th>
<th>Possible consequences of learner-on-learner violence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bullying</td>
<td>Influence by family</td>
<td>Violent behaviour, risk taking behaviour, suicidal ideation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wearing of unusual clothes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical violence</td>
<td>Teasing, disagreements, taking another learner’s property without permission, spreading rumours, peer pressure</td>
<td>Antisocial behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual violence</td>
<td>Alcohol abuse</td>
<td>Unwanted pregnancy of girls, loss of self-esteem, depression, negative impact on academic work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homophobia</td>
<td>Fear, lack of understanding</td>
<td>Academic underachievement, failure and dropping out of school.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.5 Interaction between leadership and the dynamics of school violence

This section puts the ingredients of leadership and school violence together by dwelling on emerging issues from sections of the chapter. School leadership is globally recognised as having influence on school effectiveness and improvement (Bush et al., 2010; Harris, 2002). As a result, the responsibility and roles of school leaders have increased (Odhiambo & Hii, 2012). In South Africa, there are more expectations from leaders due to, inter alia, devolution of decision making to schools, school violence and disciplinary problems (Botha, 2004).

Effective leaders have a vision for the schools that they lead. This vision is shared by various stakeholders such as parents, teachers and students (Blair, 2002). The leaders in effective schools strive for shared vision and values through communicating their vision by deeds, words and directions. They are able to influence learners and staff to buy into their vision. This vision reflects leaders’ personal values which include fairness, caring for students’ wellbeing, equality, honesty, integrity, promotion and modelling of respect for students and staff (Harris, 2002). However, creating a vision on the basis of common values is a challenging task as leaders have to negotiate and try to reconcile conflicting values of various stakeholders in education (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010). This challenging task is illustrated by the findings of a study by Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) in some township and rural schools of South Africa. They found that implementing the policy that abolished corporal punishment in the said schools was not easy to the principals since the issue of corporal punishment touched deeply held values of parents and some teachers about disciplining a child. The principals had to take time explaining to teachers and parents that learners will still be subjected to other, alternative disciplinary measures (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010). In a sense, effective leaders clearly communicate the vision to convince different stakeholders by using various communication techniques (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Blair (2002) contends that a careful selection of words is necessary when communicating the vision in order to avoid words that may be sensitive to certain groups. In the case of this study, communication of vision may require leaders to select words that are unlikely to offend either the victims or perpetrators of school violence.
Furthermore, effective leadership is credited for its ability to create and promote harmonious working relationships among staff members, learners, parents and leaders (Odhiambo & Hii, 2012). The importance of a good working relationship is captured by a study that was conducted by Mokhele (2011) in five public high schools located in Pretoria. This study reveals that, on the one hand, teachers who have bad working relationships with their learners find it difficult to create and maintain discipline in the classroom. On the other hand, the study shows that teachers who have good working relationships with their learners manage to establish and maintain desirable classroom discipline. The latter encourage learners to be self-disciplined, involve them in formulation of classroom rules, and only involve members of the SMT and parents for learners’ serious misconduct. They establish mutual understanding and respect between themselves and their learners (Mokhele, 2011). It is, therefore, suggestive that in an environment that nurtures good working relationship among various stakeholders in education, schools are likely to experience low levels of violence while in situations where relationships are tense, violence is likely to be rife.

The effective leaders value the development of people. Since the goals of organisations are mostly realised through the work of people, effective school leaders invest in developing human resources. Staff development may be effected through peer support schemes, in-service training and networking with other schools (Harris, 2002). The development of staff is likely to result in the growth of learners. The principal is responsible for initiation of staff development (Smith, 2005). However, the principal should preferably facilitate professional development initiatives since members of staff are likely to participate effectively in professional development programmes which are presented by their peers as opposed to those that are controlled by top management. In order to ensure that all members of staff own and contribute to professional development programmes, schools should establish professional development committees (Steyn, 2002). According to Norton (2008), staff development is the process of creating an enabling environment for staff to improve their skills, performance and knowledge taking into consideration organisational goals and values as well as staff’s needs and interests. Steyn (2002, p. 250) views professional development as:

…an on-going development programme that focuses on the wide range of knowledge, skills and attitudes required to educate learners more effectively. It is
a formal systematic programme designed to promote personal and professional growth. Professional development, therefore, refers to the participation of teachers or educational leaders in development opportunities in order to be better equipped as teachers and educational leaders.

It may be argued that education leaders require an on-going development programme aimed at equipping them with skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary to tackle school violence. Professional development serves as motivation to staff (Day et al., 2011). Given the fact that violence is one of the problems facing schools, it may be argued that there is a need for staff development in relation to strategies that can be used to address school violence. Davies (2002) argues that teacher development is a cornerstone for effective educational change. Emphasising the requirements for South African teachers to understand democracy, Davies (2002, p. 259) states:

The South African contribution would underlie such a requirement. The new Outcomes based curriculum and the democratic transformation of schools and society clearly needs a highly qualified, theoretically sophisticated, creative and professional body of teachers who can tackle racism, violence and gender discrimination. Here, all papers would be in concord, and there are powerful arguments here for a radical rethinking of teacher education globally if democratisation is to take root, or conversely, if authoritarianism is not to be perpetuated through repressive training.

Authoritarianism and democracy do not go hand in hand. Harber (2002, 2004) has consistently argued that authoritarianism contributes to school violence prevailing in a number of African countries in general and schools in particular. Authoritarianism in schools appears to be characterised, among other things, by strict hierarchies which serve as a barrier for smooth or effective communication between principals, teachers and learners. This barrier leads to mistrust, suspicion and misunderstandings. Learners’ complaints are repressed and as such anxiety and resentment are likely to occur among learners. As a result, any undesirable small incident may spark violence which learners may direct at property and other human beings (Harber, 2004).
The effective school leader creates and promotes a school culture premised on shared beliefs, values and norms. They also encourage trust and mutual caring among members of school community (Leithwood & Reihl, 2003). Although there are multiple definitions for culture, it is generally agreed that culture is a way of life in a particular organisation, manifested in symbols, traditions, norms and values (Walker, 2010). Bush and Anderson (2003, p. 91) contend that: “School leaders have a particular responsibility to promote and generalise school values as central part of the generation of school culture.” All leaders should take part in the development and promotion of a culture in which individuals are respected (Blaire, 2002). It may be argued that effective school leaders should promote a culture which is anti-violence. However, a high level of violence is likely to prevail in a school where the leaders do not bother to change a violent culture. Empirical evidence from South African schools illustrates that there is a culture of silence regarding some incidents of sexual violence which are considered as minor. School leaders and the communities tend to ignore these incidents. This silence normalises and perpetuates some forms of violence (Haffejee, 2006; Mpina, 2011). In situations where teachers or principals confront boys for humiliating, touching girls in an unwanted manner or harassing them in other ways, boys often claim that they were just playing. On the basis of this claim they are often not taken to task for their actions (Human Rights Watch, 2001). The victims of sexual harassment seem to have lost confidence in the school authorities’ ability to address violence effective. As Haffejee (2006, p. 14) puts it:

Participants' responses indicated that, for many, the school was not a safe place. They were harassed when they went to the toilet and when they stood in the tuck shop line; at these sites they were exposed to unsolicited touching and abusive language, and teachers did not appear to take such harassment seriously. This lack of action on the part of school officials once again left girls feeling that their experiences were being discounted.

In this regard, Harber (2004) points out that schools engage in violence by omission by not protecting learners against violence when they could do so. Learners themselves are at times reluctant to report some incidents of violence for a number of reasons. They may consider some of the incidents as not worth reporting or they avoid reporting them due to the stigma associated with such incidents. Again, they tend not to report due to
fear of further violence from perpetrators. Educators or principals may also be perpetrators of violence and the learners find it difficult to report. Principals sometimes ignore certain forms of violence because they want to protect the reputation of the schools they lead and also they do not want their leadership to be perceived as ineffective (Burton, 2008). School authorities, for instance, ignore or conceal sexual abuse of girls by teachers or other learners.

The ineffective leaders use rewards and coercive power since they do not have expert power (Knuth, 2004). “Reward power is the ability to provide positive consequences and to remove consequences for subordinates on the basis of their behaviour” (Knuth, 2004, p. 45). Coercive power is rooted in a top down approach to decision making where those with power demand immediate compliance (Goleman, 2007). In the case of this study, those who perpetrate violence may be regarded as using coercive power. Knuth (2004) contends that leaders who rely on rewards and coercive power lack necessary knowledge, competences and skills of influencing followers to work towards achievement of organisational goals. Mokhele (2011) posits that some teachers use authoritarian management styles because they have not been trained to manage teaching and learning in a democratic manner. When it comes to discipline of learners, such teachers rely on the use of a cane even though the use corporal punishment is illegal in South African schools. Corporal punishment is a form of violence perpetrated by teachers against learners and it leads to learners’ violent behaviour (Harber, 2004).

Power influences the effectiveness of management and leadership (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). Hersey, Blanchard and Natemeyer (1979) draw a link between leadership and power as thus:

Leadership is typically defined as a process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal accomplishment. Power is well described as the leader’s influence potential: the resource that enables a leader to induce compliance or influence followers.

According to Lunenburg (2012), the five sources of power were suggested by French and Raven (1959). These sources are coercive, legitimate, reward, expert and referent power. Coercive power allows leadership to achieve compliance from the followers by
use of threats of punishment for undesirable behaviour (Chance & Chance, 2002). Leaders who rely on the use of coercive power pursue their personal goals (Northouse, 2010). Legitimate power is rooted in leadership positions held by some people in the organisation (Blanchard & Natemeyer, 1979). This type of power may either be positive or negative in the management of people. Positive legitimate power is concerned about job performance in a constructive way while negative legitimate power focuses on threatening followers in an effort to influence them (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2008). Some teachers in South African schools abuse their legitimate power to subject learners to sexual harassment (Prinsloo, 2006). Leadership’s ability to influence followers’ behaviour by making available what the followers require is referred to as reward power (Lunenburg, 2012). Followers may respond positively to directions, orders and requests when they value the rewards which managers promise or are likely to provide. Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1997) contend that expert power is derived from the leaders’ skills and knowledge while referent power emanates from the leaders’ charisma and personality.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the conceptual framework which consisted of leadership, management, leadership-management interface, violence and dynamics. The chapter also reviewed literature pertaining to various leadership theories and the dynamics of violence.

Literature suggests that violence has a negative impact on individuals including learners and teachers as well as on the teaching and learning process. Learners and teachers experience different forms of violence. The causes of forms of violence are multifaceted. Various forms of violence reviewed in this chapter serve as a guide which informed data generation.

Literature further suggests that none of the various leadership theories may be used to tackle school violence in all contexts. However, school managers may draw from different theories to address school violence. Leadership theories reviewed in this
chapter provided leadership indicators which informed data generation and they were also used in explaining data pertaining to leadership practices.
CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

According to Silverman (2005), theories provide a framework for understanding a given phenomenon. This implies that there was a need to choose theories that were useful in understanding the role of leadership in addressing school violence. Since schools are institutions entrusted with teaching and learning as their main task in a given environment and context, the environmental theories of aggressive behaviour were considered relevant to this study. Estevez, Jimenez and Mustin (2008, p. 4) argue that “environmental theories stress the influence that the environment or social context exert on violent behaviour and consider that the person carries out an active role throughout the learning processes.” Violence was regarded as emanating from the environment in that a person learns behaviour in response to certain environmental events. Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystemic theory and Bandura’s social learning theory were selected as environmental theories for this study. They were used as a theoretical lens to explain the dynamics of school violence. Since this study was also concerned about leadership processes which schools used to address violence, distributed leadership theory was used as a theoretical base to understand and explain the said leadership processes. These theories are discussed below.

3.2 The ecosystemic theory

Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystemic theory was used as a theoretical base to understand the dynamics of school violence. This theory consists of five interrelated systems namely: micro, meso, exo, macro and chrono systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). At the centre of this theory is an individual who is ‘involved in the network of interconnected relationships’ emanating from the systems (Estevez et al., 2008). In this study, such an individual may be found among learners or teachers. The discussion of each system follows:
Microsystem is regarded as an individual’s immediate environment in which different activities, roles and interpersonal relationships transpire. It consists of social contexts such as family, school and peer groups (Brenfenbrenner, 1994). The family is an important institution for the socialisation of a child. Parents act as role models for their children. In families where violence is rife children are likely to adopt violent means to solve conflicts (South African Council of Educators, 2011). Parents influence their children in various ways. According to Estevez et al., (2008), family factors which may influence a child’s violent behaviour include the following: poor parental support, regular conflicts among members of the family, dysfunctional strategies of conflict resolution, authoritarian parental style, family history of problematic behaviour and a problem of communication within the family.

Allen (2010) contends that teachers learn classroom management at different stages of their learning experiences which includes the stage when they were learners themselves. During teaching, they may manage classrooms drawing from the behaviour of their own teachers. It is, therefore, suggestive that where teachers experienced as learners classroom environments characterised by violence, they may also adopt violent ways in the management of their classrooms. Allen (2010) also indicated that a lack of knowledge of teachers pertaining to violence in general and bullying in particular may contribute to an escalation of violence in the schools in that teachers ignore violent acts since they do not perceive such acts as violence.

Schools that have clear, fair and consistent policies are likely to experience lower levels of violence. Such schools also promote learner participation in decision making and good learner-teacher relationships (Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2009). Schools that model and reward socially accepted behaviour provide an environment which promotes pro-social norms and behaviours. However, some schools in South Africa “…directly model violence for learners; despite the fact that it is illegal, many schools still use corporal punishment.” (Van der Merwe, Dawes & Ward, 2012, p. 72)

Peer groups among learners serve as another important subsystem with microsystem. Van der Merwe, Dawes and Ward (2012, p.73) argue that:
Many delinquent acts are committed in the context of seeking approval, suggesting that peer groups play similar socialisation roles as do families and schools. That is, they too model and reward violent behaviour, enable children to develop self-efficacy for violent acts and set standards that approve of violence.

Card and Hodges (2008) drew from literature and suggest that learners’ relations with their peers have a link to their experience of violence. Learners who are rejected or not accepted by their peers tend to be victims of violence since they are easily targeted by the perpetrators of violence. The perpetrators of violence may also be motivated by their own friends or peers who cheer them up or laugh when they victimise other learners. Learners who associate with a deviant peer group are likely to engage in antisocial behaviour and violence (Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2009).

**Mesosystem:** According to Santrock (2008), mesosystem is concerned with the connection between microsystems such as family and school. Brenfenbrenner (1994) contends that the meso-system consists of relations between various microsystems. In some cases parents who had negative experiences of schooling tend to have negative attitudes towards the school and as such communication patterns between home and school are distracted. Communication between home and school might be restricted to situations where a child has misbehaved (Astor, Pittner, & Duncan, 1996) such as when a child has instigated violence against another child. The child who is exposed to violence at home may perform poorly at the school. However, if such a child is supported by teachers he/she may perform better (Van der Merwe, Dawes & Ward, 2012).

**Exosystem:** This level involves experiences from a particular context which has a bearing on what teachers and learners experience in their immediate setting. For example, work related stress experienced by parents and teachers may have an indirect impact on learners (Astor et al., 1996). Teachers, for instance, may be violent against their learners due to work related stress.

**Macrosystem:** The macrosystem focuses on culture, its values and ideologies. As Santrock (2008, p. 71) puts it: “Culture is a very broad term that includes the roles of ethnicity and socioeconomic factors in children’s development.” The culture, values and
ideologies that exist in a given society may influence teachers and learners. According to Estevez et al. (2008) children are likely to be violent if they live in a poor community where crime and violence are rife. This is so because children observe societal values and culture through observation and modelling.

### 3.3 Social learning theory

I adopted the social learning theory as a theoretical framework to understand and explain how learners and teachers were influenced by various models either to perpetrate or curb school violence. Bandura’s social learning theory explains ways in which people learn violent behaviour through modelling or direct reinforcement (Higson-Smith, 2006). According Bandura (1977, p. 22) “… most human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action.” Individuals are influenced by motivation to model a particular behaviour and as such motivation may either be direct or indirect reinforcements and punishment (Eysenck, 2003). Learning through modelling consists of four phases, namely; attenotional phase, retention phase, reproduction phase and motivational phase (Slavian, 2009). I now turn to a detailed discussion of the said phases.

**Attentional phase:** In this phase people learn by paying attention to the behaviour displayed by others. According to Bandura (1977) the main attenotional factor is an associational pattern which means ‘people that an individual associates with.’ In other words a learner is likely to pay attention to the violent behaviour of people with whom he/she associates with such as his/her peers. In addition Bandura (1977) contends that mass media attracts the attention of individuals. Mass media such as television, internet and movies portray violence in a glorified manner and this is one of the contributing factors to violence (De Wet, 2009). In a longitudinal study conducted in Chigaco (USA) Huesmann Molise-Titus, Polski and Eron (2003) found that children exposed to television violence are likely to be aggressive from when they are children until they are adolescents. Children do not imitate every model which they see on television performing a violent behaviour rather they imitate those models which they associate
with. Children should also have observed such models being rewarded for aggressive behaviour. Media violence affects children from different social background (Huesmann et al., 2003). However, it may sometimes affect males and females in different ways. In this regard, Powell, Symbaluk and Honey (2009, p. 474) posit:

One troubling possibility is that, although exposure to media does not predispose females towards behaving aggressively as much as it does males, it might make females more vulnerable to being victims of aggression. Desensitisation of violence may allow females to feel that violence and aggression are normal aspects of life, which could lead them to enter violence relationships. This may be related to the fact that, whereas most models of violent behaviour are males, a high proportion of victims are females.

Learners have access to various forms of media. As a result, they are likely to imitate violent models which they identify with.

**Retentional phase:** Bandura (1977) argues that people are influenced by modelled behaviour that they remember. Individuals, therefore, are likely to imitate violent behaviour that they have seen and remember. Both teachers and learners have various models. Sometimes such models may influence teachers or learners to be violent.

**Reproduction phase:** According to Slavin (2009), at the reproduction stage individuals strive to act in accordance with the model ’s behaviour. It, therefore, implies that learners or teachers may try to match their violent behaviour to that of the person that they are imitating. Children in particular learn by watching the acts of people around them. A child who witnesses his/her parents using conflict to solve problems is likely to solve conflicts through violence in future (Swartz, De la Rey, & Duncan, 2004). They do not only learn about violence at home but they also observe violent behaviour at the school (Swartz et al., 2004).

**Motivational phase:** individuals are influenced by motivation to model a particular behaviour and such motivation may either be direct or indirect reinforcements and punishment (Bandura, 1977; Eysenck, 2003). In other words individuals are likely to
perform violent behaviour that they have copied from a person who was rewarded for violent action. For example, a learner may use violence because he/she has seen someone being reinforced for violent behaviour. There are even more chances of aggressive behaviour from the learners if they can observe an aggressive adult being rewarded for violent behaviour. However, if an adult disapproves of violent behaviour learners may restrain from engaging in violence (Powell et al., 2009).

Social learning can influence children and adults positively or negatively (Louw & Edwards, 1993). In the context of this study, social learning was considered to have the potential to influence members of the school community positively or negatively with regard to the ways in which they dealt with school violence. The fact that South Africa is one of the most violent countries in the world (Harber, 2004) highlights the possibility that violence that persists in the society was likely to occur in schools. Through modelling or observational learning children are influenced by parents, peers, (Adefunke, 2010), media (Powell et al., 2009) and schools (Harber, 2004).

Louw and Edwards (1993) argue that social learning principles are important for leaders and public leaders since they should model constructive and positive behaviour. In this study, the said leaders and public figures could be found among learners and teachers. In essence, both formal and informal leaders could influence the behaviour of their followers. The principals and teachers are aware that their behaviour sets examples and influences students and other colleagues (Southworth, 2005). How school leaders in the two schools behaved and influenced both learners and teachers was a question that this study was concerned about.

3.4 Distributed leadership

In chapter 2, I conceptualised leadership as a process of influence which could be carried out by both positional and non-positional leaders. Consistent with this conceptualisation, I found distributed leadership as an appropriate theoretical framework for this study because it is also premised on the understanding that leadership is exercised by more than one person. The purpose of this section is to discuss distributed leadership as a theoretical foundation for this study. Given the fact
that there is a plethora of literature on distributed leadership (Harris, 2004), I commence
the discussion of this theory by drawing from different scholars.

As far back as 1954, Gibb is acknowledged as the father of distributed leadership
(Grown, 2002; Carson, Tesluk & Marrone, 2007). In the field of educational leadership,
distributed leadership was made popular by Gronn and Spillane working separately
(Mayrowetz, 2008). According to Carson et al., (2007), distributed leadership is based
on the notion of multiple leadership where two or more people share leadership
functions. In other words, distributed leadership in the context of a school involves two
or more teachers or learners undertaking leadership roles. Among seven claims
regarding successful school leadership, Leithwood, Harris and Hopkins (2008) include
distributed leadership. According to these authors, school leadership is more effective
when it is distributed. Distribution of leadership implies that leadership emanates from
various sources. These sources include learners, staff teams, individual teachers,
principals, vice-principals and parents (Leithwood et al., 2008).

Harris (2008) suggests three reasons that make distributed leadership to be popular in
recent years. These reasons are empirical power, representational power and normative
power. Research evidence illustrates that distributed leadership has a positive impact on
learners’ performances and change in the organisation. This evidence epitomises
empirical power of distributed leadership (Harris, 2008). The representational power of
distributed leadership lies in its potential to provide an alternative leadership approach
in response to demands and pressure on school principals. This alternative approach
allows schools to reshape their leadership teams and devise new roles in order to
address the demands of work (Harris & Spillane, 2008). Distributed leadership also
has normative power in that it appears to be an ideal approach relevant to the “…current
changes in leadership tasks practice in schools” (Harris, 2008, p. 14). The current
changes in schools have led to leadership responsibilities and tasks being expanded. The
old approach of an individual, heroic leader in charge of leadership is no longer
practical, hence, the need for collaborative, shared and distributed leadership (Harris &
Spillane, 2008). School violence has been identified as one of the major problems in
South African schools (Burton, 2008). It may be suggested that a single heroic leader is
unlikely to address this major problem effectively, hence, the need for distributed
leadership.
“Despite the widespread interest in the idea of distributing leadership, there have been competing and sometimes conflicting interpretations of the term” (Harris, 2008, p. 33). There appears to be ambiguity and confusion regarding the meaning of distributed leadership. Some definitions are contradictory (Mayrowetz, 2008). In order to avoid bringing about contradictory perspectives, I heavily relied on the works of Spillane and his colleagues in explaining distributed leadership.

According to Spillane and Diamond (2007), a distributed perspective is based on the notion that leadership is performed by multiple leaders. Such leaders may include: principals, assistant principals (deputy principals), teacher leaders and classroom teachers who lead as individuals or work collaboratively. Followers and leaders are engaged in a leadership relationship. This relationship is dynamic within the school context because leaders, at one point, may become followers in another. ‘However, these relationships and the dynamics associated with them are not unidirectional. Followers choose to listen to leaders and decide which leaders and leadership messages should be heeded and which should not’(Spillane & Diamond, 2007, p. 9). Leadership is not only a terrain for those with formal positions, but it also involves those with informal positions (Spillane, 2005).

Spillane and Orlina (2005) posit that distributed leadership consists of two aspects, namely; leader-plus and practice aspects. Spillane and Diamond (2007, p.7) discuss the leader plus aspect as follows:

A distributed perspective acknowledges that the work of leading and managing schools involves multiple individuals. Moreover, leadership and management work involves more than what individuals in formal leadership positions do. People in formally designated leadership and management positions and those without any such designations can and do take responsibility for leading and managing the schoolhouse.

The view that leadership by multiple leaders does not necessarily mean that everybody can lead (Spillane & Healey, 2010). Leadership may be distributed in three ways: strict division of labour, co-performance, and parallel performance. More often than not
leadership responsibilities are not executed by the single leadership position but rather it
takes division of labour for such responsibilities. A co-performance way of distributing
leadership requires multiple leaders carrying out leadership practice together in a
collaborated way. However, leaders do not always collaborate in carrying out leadership
routines, but they may also work in parallel. In all the three ways of distributing
leadership, leaders may pursue the same goals. Sometimes the leaders may work
towards achievement of different and often conflicting goals (Spillane & Orlina, 2005).

The leader-plus aspect is based on the notion that those who are leading and managing
the school should be identified. It also considers the manner in which responsibilities
are carried out and how various leaders complement one another (Spillane & Healey,
2010). Due to the fact that schools are faced with complex problems, they have to rely
on knowledge which is dispersed throughout within them to address such problems. In
essence, principals are dependent on teachers to implement changes. The process of
influence is, therefore, exercised by principals and teachers (Hatcher, 2005). Since
school violence affects various members of school community (Burton, 2008), it is a
complex problem which may better be addressed by drawing from knowledge provided
by both formal and informal leaders. Emphasising the importance of multiple sources
of expertise Mayrowetz (2008, p. 429) claims:

Another important idea that has emerged from the writings on distributed
leadership is that since things like leadership activity and expertise are not focused
or concentrated in one person, especially an administrator, then it is simply more
efficient to ask non administrators to engage in leadership activities if they have
the necessary expertise. Furthermore, since specific individuals like coaches or
lead teachers may have considerable expertise regarding instruction, for example,
it is likely to be effective to distribute or redistribute leadership practices to take
advantage of that knowledge.

Distributed leadership as a theoretical lens is based on the understanding that leadership
is exercised by many people instead of an individual (Williams, 2011). Distributing
leadership provides opportunities for the principals to share their leadership
responsibilities since they are sometimes overburden by such responsibilities (Hartley,
2010). However, this does not imply the principals and other formal leaders are of less importance. As Harris (2004, p. 14) puts it:

This is not to suggest that ultimately there is no-one responsible for the overall performance of the organisation or to render those in formal leadership roles redundant. Rather the job of those in formal leadership positions is primarily to hold the pieces of the organisation together in a productive relationship. Their central task is to create a common culture of expectations around the use of individual skills and abilities. In short, distributing leadership equates with maximising the human capacity within the organisation.

In an effort to understand leadership practice of formal designated leaders, Spillane and Healey (2010, p. 261) consider three perspectives, namely; “[the] relative size of the team of formally designated leaders, the extent to which occupants of a particular position have a focused role, and the diversity of a leadership team.” Leader to staff ratio provides information pertaining to the ratio of leaders with formal position to the total number of staff without formal positions. This ratio is appropriate as a measure since schools differ in size and as such the total count of leaders in schools will also differ. The assumption is that if there are more formal leaders in a school there is also a likelihood of more support to the staff.

Another dimension for operationalising distributed leadership is position focus. According to Spillane and Hearley (2010, p. 264) this dimension is concerned with “the extent to which those who occupy formally designated positions are focused on a single leadership position or have their time divided among multiple positions that have potentially competing responsibilities.” The assumption is that leaders who focus on only one leadership position are likely to dedicate more time for that particular position and therefore perform their duties effectively. There is also a possibility of reducing role conflict which occurs when one leader focuses on various leadership positions. The diversity of school leadership and management team is also an essential part of the formal organisation. This diversity may be in aspects such as experience, gender and race. Diversity is likely to promote or hinder the effectiveness of a team.
In South Africa, the educational policy framework which has its roots from the Constitution encourages distributed leadership. This is clear in the establishment of democratically elected SGBs per the mandate of SASA. In this arrangement, various stakeholders are invited to take part in the transformation of education. In this way distributed leadership is promoted (Williams, 2011). Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) found that distributed leadership was practised in some South African township schools managed and led by effective leadership. Leadership was distributed to various stakeholders such as learners, teachers, deputy principals, HODs, parents and other members of the community. The manner in which leadership was dispersed illustrated the involvement of both formal and informal leaders in the management and leadership of the school. At a formal level, the schools had established school management teams which were part of school leadership. These teams met often to deliberate and made decisions on leadership issues. Delegation of duties also facilitated distribution of leadership to formal leaders who have expertise in certain leadership areas; deputy principals were delegated to prepare budgets and timetables since they had expertise in those areas. Members of RCL were involved in decision making. In addition distributed leadership was used to harness the capabilities of informal leaders in that teachers were delegated to perform tasks in which they were believed to possess knowledge. Young teachers who had recently graduated in particular were sent to workshops on the implementation of Outcome Based Education (OBE) since they were considered to have knowledge regarding the use of learner-centred teaching approaches. In turn, they were expected to train other teachers (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010).

Spillane and Diamond (2007) identify three co-leading types as collaborated, collective and coordinated distribution. The leadership process where multiple leaders work together in one place at the same time is collaborative distribution while collective distribution refers to the idea that leaders may work separately though their tasks are interdependent. In addition, coordinated distribution occurs where leadership work is carried out in a sequence (Spillane & Diamond, 2007).

Gronn (2002) discusses two forms of distributed leadership, namely; numerical and concertive action. From the numerical perspective, distributed leadership means that leadership is dispersed to various members of the organisation. The effort of each leader
is equally valued and there is a possibility that any member may be a leader at some point.

Concertive action refers to an approach in which leaders work together to carry out the leadership role (Gronn, 2002). There are three types of concertive action, namely; spontaneous collaborative, intuitive and institutionalised arrangements. Spontaneous collaboration is based on the notion that leadership results from multiple leaders’ interaction in a given situation not necessarily with the influence of the school principal or any other person. Spontaneous collaboration creates and opportunity for members of the school community with different skills to pull them together in an effort to solve a problem and thereafter disband. At times, tasks carried out through spontaneous collaboration may be anticipated and regular (Gronn, 2002).

Intuitive types of concertive action result from working together for a long time by members of school community who depend on one another to execute tasks and, therefore, build up good working relationships. ‘It is the working partnership as a focal unit which is attributed with leadership by colleagues, and the partners are aware of themselves as co-leaders’ (Gronn, 2002, p. 430).

The last concertive type of distributed leadership is apparent when schools institutionalise their formal structures either by adaptation or design. On the one hand, there may be a need to adjust existing arrangements in order to address a given problem. In this way, the formal structures would be institutionalised by adaptation. On the other hand, institutionalising by design means that new structures are established. This establishment may result from dissatisfaction with the current structures (Gronn, 2002). In the case of this study, the school leadership may decide to establish new structures to deal with school violence issues upon realising that the old structures have not been helpful.

Distributed leadership is, therefore, appropriate for this study since school violence is a problem that affects many people in the school, and it also occurs at different points. As indicated in chapter two, school violence occurs in the toilets, classrooms play grounds and other places in the school. Thus it was not possible for one leader or a few formal leaders to address school violence effectively, hence, the need for distributed leadership.
However, those in positional leadership should create an environment that allows the utilisation of individuals’ leadership abilities and skills. In this way, distributed leadership would mean that leadership is spread among both informal and formal leaders (Harris, 2004).

This study’s theoretical framework is three pronged. First, I used the ecosystemic theory to explain the findings pertaining to the dynamics of school violence taking into consideration the interdependence of different systems and subsystems. Second, social learning theory was applied to make meaning of the dynamics of school violence with the understanding that individuals (teachers and learners) learn aggressive behaviour through observation and modelling in their social context. In addition, social learning theory emphasises that media influence individuals to be aggressive. In explaining the dynamics of school violence, social learning theory assisted me to scrutinise the influence of media on teachers and learners as perpetrators or victims of violence. The last theory of distributed leadership theory informed the study process on the selection of the participants. One of the assumptions of this theory is that there are positional and non-positional leaders in a school. On the basis of this assumption, I was able to select positional and non-positional leaders as participants from the two schools. This theory was also used to explain the findings in relation to leadership practices which teachers and learners adopted in tackling school violence. In a nutshell, the three theories were used to complement each other.

### 3.5 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the practices of leadership in addressing school violence. This chapter discussed three theories which served as a guide in collecting data and interpreting it. Ecosystemic and social learning theories were used to address the first question which seeks to investigate the dynamics of school violence. Distributed leadership was appropriate for question two and three. Question two was intended to find out the nature of leadership in the two research schools. As indicated above distributed leadership is rooted in the assumption that any school will have multiple leaders ranging from various formal leaders to different informal leaders. This theoretical framework informed the process of data collection. In particular, the
participants in this study were drawn from formal and informal school leaders. The last research question was aimed at finding out the role of leadership in addressing school violence.
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the research design and methodology. First, it explains the research paradigm. Next, I present the research design. This is followed by a discussion on the ways in which I negotiated and gained access to the research sites and the participants. I then explain the sampling strategy I used to select the schools and the participants. From there, I describe the two schools as research sites. Then I move on to the discussion of data generation methods. Thereafter, I explain how data were analysed. After that, I discuss trustworthiness which is followed by discussion on limitations of the study. Last, I discuss the ethical issues.

4.2 Couching the study in the interpretivist paradigm

According to Mertens (1998, p. 6), “A paradigm is a way of looking at the world. It is composed of certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct thinking and action.” Paradigms focus on answering questions related to ontology, epistemology and methodology (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). This study is located within the interpretivist paradigm. Some scholars refer to interpretivism as constructivism (Robson, 2002). Interpretivism provides a framework for researchers to study and understand people’s beliefs, values, meaning-making, experiences, attitudes and self-studying (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). It is based on the view that in order to understand meanings which people attach to reality, this reality should be socially constructed (English, 2006). Interpretivism was appropriate for this study since it enabled the discovery of how the participants understood and made meaning of school violence as well as gaining an insight about the role that leadership played in addressing the said violence. The participants were provided with an opportunity to talk about the dynamics of violence in their school as well as the leadership processes and procedures followed to tackle the said dynamics. They drew from their experiences or what they had witnessed or heard about in the school. A paradigm consists of three main elements.
namely: ontology, epistemology and methodology. Each of these elements is discussed in detail below.

**Ontology (nature of reality):** The word ontology is made up of two words namely ontos and logos. Ontos means ‘being’ whereas logos refers to knowledge or theory (Duberley, Johnson, & Cassell, 2012). Ontology focuses on the nature of reality. It requires researchers to ask questions such as “How do we know that something is real?” Realities in this regard are those which are conceptual (Martens, 2007, p. 215). While positivists seek to find the truth, researchers operating within the interpretive paradigm believe that a phenomenon under investigation is underpinned by multiple realities (Henning et al., 2004). From the interpretivist viewpoint, reality is a creation and interpretation of people. They understand and make meaning of realities in their minds (Denscombe, 2002). Such realities are influenced by the context and experience of those who construct them (Guba, 1990). For Waring (2012, p. 18) ontology within interpretivism paradigm means that:

> There are multiple realities with the mind playing a central role by determining categories and shaping or constructing realities. We cannot see the world outside of our place in it. There is no separation of mind and objective since the two are inextricably linked together; the knower and the process of knowing cannot be separated from what is known and the facts cannot be separated from values.

These multiple realities are socially constructed (Martens, 2007). Informed by the distributed leadership perspective, the multiple realities of school leaders regarding their roles in dealing with violence were the focus of this study. Distributive leadership is based on the notion that there are multiple leaders in schools. It was likely that different leaders had different understandings of their roles in addressing school violence. As a result, multiple perspectives from both formal and informal leaders provided detailed information pertaining to the phenomenon under investigation.

**Epistemology.** The word epistemology is a combination of two Greek terms episteme which denotes knowledge (Krauss, 2005) and “logos which means knowledge, information, theory or account” (Duberley, Johnson, & Cassell, 2012, p. 16). In other
words, epistemology means ‘knowledge about knowledge’ (Duberley et al., 2012). Epistemology is concerned with questions which include, inter alia, “How do we know what we know? What counts as knowledge? What is the relationship between the knower and what is known?” (Krauss, 2005, p. 759). In this regard, the researcher and the participants are “…interlocked in an interactive process” (Martens, 1998, p. 13). From an interpretivist perspective, the researcher and the participants are interdependent in that they influence each other in producing knowledge (Guba, 1990). Since realities are socially constructed it is imperative for the researcher to interact with the participants (Martens, 2007). In other words, the interpretivist strives to understand a phenomenon from the participants’ point of view. Accordingly, the phenomenon of school violence was investigated from the point of view of the various school leaders.

**Methodology.** Interpretivists use qualitative data generation methods which include interviews, observations and document reviews (Denscombe, 2005; Henning et al., 2004). They use these methods in relation to the assumption that reality is socially constructed and as such the interaction between the researcher and the participants is essential (Mertens, 1998). Accordingly, the data generation methods used in this study include interviews, observation and documents analysis.

Given that this study was concerned about understanding the role played by school leadership in addressing violence, it adopted the qualitative methodology (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Creswell (2007) argues that qualitative research is appropriate when a detailed understanding of an issue is sought. This detailed understanding is only possible when the researcher visits people, talks with them and allows them to tell their stories (Creswell, 2007). In line with Creswell’s (2007) argument, I found the qualitative approach suitable for this study because it allowed for the visits to the schools and interaction with different school leaders about school violence and leadership. The aim, in qualitative research, is to find out from the participants in a setting how they experience and make meaning of a given issue. This requires methods that will allow the participants to speak about their experiences and offer their interpretations (Morse & Richarts, 2002).

According to Nieuwenhuis (2010a), a qualitative research methodology allows researchers to collect rich and thick data which will, in turn, enable them to uncover and
understand the phenomenon under investigation. In this study the data were generated by using multiple sources as mentioned above (Creswell, 2008) in an attempt of ensuring the data are rich and thick. Fraenkel and Wallen (2008) contend that qualitative research is conducted in a natural setting and, thus, this study was conducted in the natural context of two schools where the participants were interviewed. The essential issue is to collect data in the setting where the phenomenon under investigation occurs (Bailey, 2007). The chosen schools served as appropriate settings since the teachers and learners interacted with each other and communicated in the schools. It was during interaction and communication among teachers and learners that the issues of leadership and violence surfaced. In addition, qualitative research is dynamic in that the initial plan may change during the process of the research (Babbie, Mouton, Vorster, & Prozesky, 2004; Creswell, 2008). In this study the initial plan was to interview all the teachers in each of the case study schools. There were about forty teachers in each school and the plan was to have four focus groups of ten members each. Although the majority of the teachers expressed willingness to participate in focus groups, things did not happen as planned. Memorable High School used a relief system whereby teachers who were present in the school had to attend to learners during the lessons for teachers who were absent. As a result, each time there was an appointment for a focus group, the majority of the teachers did not turn up. The number that was available for an interview was always less than four. In this regard, the initial plan had to be abandoned. Individual interviews were done instead of focus groups interviews.

Qualitative research is interpretive inquiry since it provides researchers with an opportunity to interpret what they hear, see and understand. Participants also offer their own interpretation of issues (Creswell, 2007). The researchers’ interpretation may be influenced by a number of factors such as context, background, history and understanding (Creswell, 2007).

Merriam (1998) discusses five characteristics of qualitative research. The first main characteristic is that individuals construct social reality in interaction with their social world. Qualitative researchers, therefore, should strive to understand people’s lived experiences and how they make sense of their world. This understanding should be based on the perspective of the participants (Marriam, 1998). The qualitative researchers are interested in finding out what the participants think and do. The focus of
the researcher’s questions should be on reasons, motives, values, goals and assumptions of the participants (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). I interacted with the participants in the two schools in an effort to get an insight into their lived experiences of violence and leadership practices which influenced violence. During this interaction, I spoke to the participants in formal and informal settings.

Merriam (1998, p. 7) suggests that the second characteristic of qualitative research is that “the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis.” During data collection the researcher may decide to process, summarise and classify data as the study continues. This implies that the researcher plays the main role in the processes of data collection and data analysis. In this sense, I collected data and analysed it on my own without the help of research assistants. “Moreover, the researcher’s involvement and immersion in the changing, real situation is essential since the qualitative researcher needs to record those changes in the real-life context”(Nieuwenhuis, 2010b, p. 79). Collecting data on my own from the selected schools provided me with an opportunity to record my observations during observations and expanded the observation notes later without having to rely on the research assistants for explanations.

The third characteristic is that qualitative research is conducted in the field. A qualitative researcher should visit research sites in order to observe the participants’ behaviour in the natural setting (Merriam, 1998). Qualitative researchers do not take their participants to the laboratory (Creswell, 2007). In this study, I personally visited the two schools to engage with the participants in the process of data production. According to Babbie et al., (2004) qualitative research is suitable for studying attitudes and behaviours which can better be understood in their natural setting. In the natural setting the researcher and the participants interact face to face (Creswell, 2007). In this study, data were generated in the selected schools as natural settings where violence occurred and leadership attempted to deal with it. The classrooms, play grounds and other areas in the schools provided natural settings where I watched, listened and talked to teachers and learners about violence and leadership issues.
The fourth characteristic is that qualitative research is basically an inductive approach which builds hypotheses, concepts or theories instead of testing existing theories (Merriam, 1998).

The last characteristic of qualitative research according to Merriam is that it is concerned about meaning, process and understanding, its product is mainly descriptive. The researcher uses data to support findings. Such data may be presented as direct quotations from the participants and documents (Merriam, 1998). In this study, leadership processes and incidents of violence were described based on my understanding and mean making of data.

4.3 Research design: case study

One of the research approaches that the qualitative researchers may use is the case study (Mcmillan & Schumacher, 2001). A case study is an examination of a bounded example (bounded by time and place) in terms of which the researcher adopts multiple methods of data collection in order to generate thick and rich data within a given context (Creswell, 2008; Henning et al., 2004). The two schools selected, thus, served as the context from which data was generated using interviews, observation and documents analysis. Henning et al., (2004) argue that, if the case study approach is adopted for a particular study, it is essential that the researcher identifies the actual case. In this study, the cases comprise two high schools in South Africa. Thus, the study adopted a multiple case study of two secondary schools with the focus on investigating the role of school leadership in addressing violence. Yin (2009, p. 53) maintains that a study may have more than one case where “…each school might be the subject of an individual case study, but the study covers several schools and in this way uses a multiple-case design.” This study adopted a multiple-case design of two cases. Yin (2009) further states that, in terms of the case study approach, it is essential that each case be considered in terms of a particular purpose. Accordingly, in this study, each school was considered as a unique case within a specific context.

There are a number of advantages associated with the case study approach with the main one being the use of different data gathering techniques and as such the researcher is able to generate a variety of data (Niewenhuis, 2007). This study, therefore, used
three different data gathering techniques in order to generate the data. Cohen et al., (2007) contend that a case study has the potential to capture unique features of a phenomenon. This study was intended both to capture and to understand the phenomenon of school violence. I considered the case study approach to be appropriate for this study because it allowed me to investigate the relationships between leadership processes and school violence. Denscombe (2005, p. 24) argues:

Relationships and processes within social settings tend to be interconnected and interrelated. To understand one thing it is necessary to understand many others and, crucially, how the various parts are linked. The case study works well here because it offers more chance than survey approach of ongoing into sufficient detail to unravel the complexities of a given situation. It can deal with the case, in its entirety, as a whole, and thus have some chance of being able to discover how many parts affect one another.

In other words, a case study was appropriate for this study as a strategy which enabled me to explore the link between violent acts, behaviours and leadership practices as well as the leadership processes.

However, the main disadvantage of a case study is that it is not possible to generalise its results unless other readers or researchers are able to perceive the applicability of the results (Cohen et al., 2007). Nevertheless, the generalisation of results was not the main concern in this study but, rather; the intention is to gain a deeper understanding of the role of school leadership in addressing school violence.

4.4 Negotiating and gaining access to the research sites and the participants

In this section, I discuss my personal experiences of negotiating and entering the research terrain. I explain the challenges, I encountered during the research journey and how I attempted to overcome such challenges.

Researchers cannot demand access to research sites as if it is a right (Cohen et al., 2007). In essence, the gate keepers, teachers, parents and administrators need to be
Bell (2005) claims that a researcher should follow official channels when requesting permission to undertake a study. In line with this claim, I had to apply for ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal as it is mandatory for students to get ethical clearance from the university before any data can be generated. Having obtained ethical clearance, I obtained permission from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education in KwaZulu-Natal to conduct research in the seven selected secondary schools. I also obtained permission from the principals of the schools, and I personally delivered the letters of request to the principals. Seidan (1998) advises researchers to negotiate access by themselves instead of relying on a third party. The third person may not explain the purpose of the study appropriately since he/she is not as familiar about the study as the researcher. Two of the seven schools did not have permanent principals, but the deputy principals were acting as principals. I later learned that the principals were chased away by learners who revolted against them. This signalled the prevalence of violence in these schools and therefore their suitability for this study.

The first contact visit to the seven schools was essential in that it provided an opportunity for building of relationships necessary for the data production process (Seidman, 1998). In addition, to the letter of request, I spent some time with the principals explaining the proposed study. Cohen et al., (2007) contend that when negotiating access researchers should provide as much information as possible regarding the procedures, nature and aims of their study. In the same vein, Bell (2005) indicates that researchers should be honest about the condition and purpose of their research projects. My first visit to schools provided an opportunity to explain the purpose of the study to the principals. Despite their tight schedules all the principals afforded me time to explain the purpose of my visit to their schools. I shared with the principals my experience of school violence as a teacher. The majority of the principals expressed willingness to grant permission to conduct the research in their schools. One
principal, for instance, indicated that school violence is one of the stumbling blocks to
transformation in South Africa and as such they would give me unlimited support.
However, one acting principal was suspicious that I might be working for the
Department of Education even though the letter of permission from the same authority
clearly stated the reasons for my presence in the school. She wanted to know how I
obtained the letter when I am a university student. After, explaining that students have
to get permission from the Department of Education before going to schools, she finally
accepted my request.

Another important step was to negotiate with the prospective participants. For the pilot
part of the study only teachers were selected as participants. I requested principals to
allow me to talk to the teachers about the study and also to ask them to participate in the
study. I was able to talk to the teachers in five schools. The teachers showed willingness
to participate by completing the questionnaire. However, not all of them actually
participated. In one school, one of the teachers was very vocal about demanding to
know how this study would benefit them. She explicitly stated that she was aware that I
would obtain a PhD, but they would not obtain any qualification. I explained that after I
had completed the study I was willing to share the findings with the schools if they
wanted me to do so. The teachers who were present in that staff room refused to take the
questionnaire pointing out that they were very busy. Fortunately, the school had two
staffrooms. The second staffroom was occupied by older teachers and the purpose of the
study was explained to them. The majority of the teachers who were in the staffroom at
that time completed the questionnaire.

Two out of seven schools which were selected as research sites for the pilot study
granted their permission, but made it impossible for the data generation to happen. The
first school had an acting principal. Having explained the objectives of the study I also
highlighted ethical issues and assured her that the identity of the school and the
participants would not be revealed. She was relaxed and explained that the principal of
the school was currently not coming to the school due to violence which the study was
about. He was chased away by learners who went on strike. Everything was fine until I
handed over a letter of permission from the DoE granting the permission to conduct the
research in the school. As indicated above, the acting principal wanted to know how the
letter was obtained from the DoE. She also wanted to find out if I knew anybody in the DoE. I assured her that the study was not commissioned by the DoE, but rather it was a project required for a PhD qualification. She indicated that the school was preparing for Grade 12 trial examinations which would start in two weeks’ time. As a result, it was agreed that I would come back to the school in January 2013 to start the data production. In January, when I phoned, she pointed out that they were very busy with registration and I should call again in early February. However, when I phoned in February, there was another excuse. This time, I was told that the school was preparing to conduct interviews for the position of principal in mid-February. To that effect, it was advisable that wait for the permanent principal to renegotiate permission to conduct research in the school. At that time, I had already finished analysing questionnaires which I had administered in five schools. I was ready to start data generation through interviews, documents and observations. Although the acting principal never explicitly stated that she did not want me to carry out the research in this school, it was clear that she did not want this to happen. Perhaps, she was not convinced that I was not an agent of the DoE. Another reason might have been the nature of the topic which is in a way sensitive especially when the previous principal of this school left the school due to violence. The questions which the acting principal raised about my link to the DoE implied that she thought that I would inform the DoE about the nature of violence prevalent in that particular school.

In the second school, the principal also granted permission to conduct the study. However, he was quick to indicate that I should know that the teachers have rights and as such they may not be interested in participating in the study. Then, I requested a meeting with the teachers. On the day I was supposed to meet the teachers, the principal informed me that he forgot to inform the teachers about the study. He suggested that I should come back the following week in the morning since every Monday there was a short meeting before commencement of lessons. When I arrived on Monday I was told that the teachers would be discussing many issues and, therefore, it would be impossible for an address to them about the study. The principal suggested that I leave the questionnaires with him and he would distribute them to teachers. He gave his cell phone numbers and advised a call before arriving at the school. The following day I called him and he indicated that he distributed the questionnaire to the teachers. On Friday I called him to find out if I could visit the school to collect the questionnaire
responses, he informed me that I should be patient he would collect them from the teachers and then phone me to collect them from him. I waited for a week and realised that he was not going to call me, I phoned him and he said he was not in the school, but in a workshop for the principals. However, he emphasised that I should be patient with him. After another week I called him several times and he did not answer the cell phone. It became clear to me that the principal was indirectly telling me not to conduct research in the school.

The teachers’ strike which started towards the end of March and ended in mid-May 2013 interfered with gaining access to one of the schools selected for the main study though access had already being negotiated. In April 2013 when I got to the school, the principal informed me that their union instructed them not to entertain anybody from outside the school. Few learners were coming to the school and the teachers were not teaching. I tried to negotiate with the principal to allow me to commence with data production promising him that I would not interfere with the activities of teachers as mandated by the union. The principal informed me that he and the teachers could not defy the directives from the Union. As a result, I had to wait until mid-May to start data generation. I realised that it was essential for researchers to be aware that there are direct and indirect gatekeepers. Direct gatekeepers in this regard refer to those known people or organisations from which access to the research site has to be requested. Indirect gatekeepers are those people or organisations that control access to a research site by issuing instructions to direct gatekeepers pertaining to what should happen or not happen in the research site during a given time. In the case of this study, the Union (indirect gatekeeper) was a powerful gatekeeper whom the principal and the teachers had to obey.

Furthermore, I negotiated with the principals of the two schools selected for the main study to allow me access to the school documents that are kept in relation to school violence incidents. I assured the principals that the documents would be treated with confidentiality. In Memorable High School, the principal handed over to me his file which contained school documents to choose those that were relevant for my study. He also instructed the school secretary to copy the documents for me.
The researchers who are not based in a target community are likely to encounter problems of access especially when people feel insecure or threatened by research scrutiny (Cohen et al., 2007). Gaining access to the research sites is a complicated process. This process should be negotiated and renegotiated as need arises (Martens, 1998). “Negotiation occurs with each member until a stable relationship develops to gain access, develop trust, obtain information, and reduce hostile reactions” (Denscombe, 2002, p. 15). The gate keepers control access to the research sites and may grant or deny such access to the researchers due to several factors such as gender and ethnicity (Bailey, 2007).

4.5 Sampling

Sampling refers to the selection of participants from a particular population. This selection is based on decisions regarding what must be observed (Durrhein, 2006). In this study, the sampling was based on Nieuwenhuis’s (2007) viewpoint that qualitative researchers generally use non-probability and purposive sampling. Saunders (2012) elaborates that using purposive sampling enables the researchers to select cases which they regard as appropriate for providing information necessary to address the research questions. Accordingly, I adopted purposive sampling technique. Creswell (2008) contends that qualitative researchers choose a few individuals or cases to study. The choice of a few cases or individuals is based on the understanding that qualitative research should provide an in-depth picture of the phenomenon under investigation. As a result, two schools were chosen as research sites in this study. These schools were selected on the assumption that they would have rich information regarding school violence and the ways in which leadership deal with the said violence (Patton, 2002). Cohen et al., (2007) maintain that, in purposive sampling, qualitative researchers choose cases or sample on the basis of the typicality of these cases.

Due to limited financial and time resources, sampling in this study was also based on convenience. Cohen et al., (2007) indicated that in a convenience sampling the nearest individuals are chosen to participate in the study. Pinetown, in the District of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa was chosen as a site from which the two schools were selected. As highlighted, this district was selected because it is the nearest district to me hence it
was easily accessible, but it had to have schools which experience violence. Information about the level of violence in schools was requested from the DoE officials. The officials were requested to identify a Ward from the circuits found in the district of Pinetown where there were schools that experienced violence. It was not a difficult task for the DoE officials to suggest the ward since violence is one of the major problems facing South African schools. It appeared that the DOE officials knew of one or more schools in every ward which experienced high levels of violence. In the ward that I finally selected, the officials knew that two schools did not have substantive principals due to violence.

I carried out a pilot study in the identified Ward. Robinson (2002, p. 97) states: “a pilot is a mini-version of the study” which is carried out by a researcher before a researcher can be committed to the major study. It also provides an opportunity for the researcher to revise the design and reconsider sampling strategies (Robson, 2002). The main aim of piloting this study was to identify schools which experienced violence located in one ward of the district of Pinetown, KZN. Thus, the generation of data was done in two phases. There were seven public high schools in each Ward which were selected for the pilot study. As I indicated above only five schools participated in this study. Having identified these schools, I then selected the two schools which served as research sites in the second phase. The selection of the two cases was based on the findings of a pilot study which revealed that the participants considered Tenable High School (THS) and Memorable High School (MHS) as experiencing school violence. These two schools were of the same size in terms of the total number of learners and teachers.

Creswell (2008) indicates that purposive sampling applies to both site selection and participants choice. I selected the participants that I considered to have relevant knowledge (Rule & John, 2011) pertaining to the dynamics of school violence and the ways in which leadership addressed those dynamics. My choice of the participants was informed by the three theoretical foundations, namely: distributed leadership, ecosystemic and social learning theories. Since distributed leadership theory is premised on the multiple leaders’ perspectives, I selected different leaders from the two cases. The participants from each school consisted of principal, deputy (or deputies), some HoDs, some teachers and learners. Social learning theory highlights the possibility that
people learn violent behaviour from others. Within the school learners, teachers, deputy principals and principals are likely to influence each other’s behaviour and as a result they were considered to have knowledge relevant to this study. The selection of the participants is discussed below.

Principal: The principals of the two case study schools were selected as participants in the study because they were the most senior leaders in the schools and, as such, they were expected to possess knowledge which is relevant to the objectives of this study. Some of the incidents of violence perpetrated by learners against other learners would come to the attention of the principal. Equally, violence perpetrated by learners against teachers and vice-versa would sometimes be reported to the principal. Principals were also expected to have knowledge regarding leadership practices that their schools adopt in relation to school violence.

Deputy Principals: The deputy principals were selected to participate in this study because they assisted school principals in the leadership of schools. In addition, in the absence of the principal, a deputy principal assumes principal-ship of the school and, thus, the deputy principals were expected to possess the knowledge required to answer the research questions posed in this study. In Memorable High School, there were two deputy principals. One deputy principal was interviewed. The other deputy principal was not interviewed because he and other teachers stopped coming to the school due to the teachers’ strike. In Tenable High School, the positions for the two deputy principals were vacant.

Heads of Department: All the HoDs in the two case schools were selected as participants in this study. They were part of the SMT. As a result; they were expected to be aware of leadership processes and procedures which schools adopted in addressing violence. Some acts of violence may be reported by learners or teachers to the HoDs. There were four HoDs in MHS and only three of them agreed to be interviewed. In THS, four HoDs participated in this study.

Teachers: As indicated above the initial plan was to include all the teachers from the two schools as participants. However, things did not happen as planned. In qualitative research it is advisable to continue with data production until there is saturation which is
“the point at which no new information or themes are observed in the data” (Saunders, 2012, p. 44). In this way the actual number of the teachers interviewed was determined by data saturation. Six teachers were interviewed in each school. After I interviewed six teachers I realised that I was getting the same information and I became aware that the process had reached data saturation. Teachers were selected with the understanding that every teacher should exercise leadership and as such influence the dynamics of violence in the school. The teachers are required by the DoE to be leaders, managers and administrators (Department of Education, 2000c). In addition, teachers act as leaders in the classroom. I expected the teachers to have knowledge about violence that was perpetrated by learners against various members of school community since teachers discuss, as colleagues, problems that they encounter at work. The selection of the participants also took into consideration a willingness to participate.

**Learners:** It was necessary to include learners as participants because school violence often affects them more than other members of the school community. In support of this, Marshall and Rossman (2011) argue that there is a need for researchers in education to have learners as participants since they are most affected by educational policies. In addition, the decisions and actions of school leadership in dealing with school violence directly and indirectly affect learners. The learners were, thus, expected to possess knowledge regarding the violence in schools.

I interviewed three focus groups of learners from each school. The first focus group consisted of four female learners while the second group was made up of four male learners. The third group was composed of two males and two females. The grouping of learners as indicated was in line with the advice of Neuman (2006) who contends that a focus group should be made up of homogenous members. The learners were considered to be homogenous in various ways which included the fact that they had the same status of being learners. In addition, focus groups which consisted of only boys and girls respectively were homogenous in that learners of the same gender were grouped together. Two focus groups were selected from the prefects while the last group was selected from learners who did not hold leadership positions. The selection was based on the assumptions of distributed leadership which recognise that leadership is exercised by people appointed to leadership positions as well as those without out any leadership positions. In MHS, a teacher liaison officer assisted with the selection of the
prefects. In THS, one HoD was requested by the principal to assist me with selection of the prefects. The learners were selected from Grades 9, 10, 11 and 12. Grade 8 learners were purposively not selected since data generation started at the end of February when Grade 8 learners had just been in the school for a few weeks. They were not considered to be information-rich in this study.

4.6 The research sites

Babbie et al. (2004) contend that qualitative researchers take into consideration context of the study in order to understand processes, events and actions in the research site. Writing specifically about context in case studies, Leedy and Ormrod (2010, pp. 137-138) indicate:

The researcher also records details about the context surrounding the case, including information about the physical environment and any historical, economic, and social factors that have bearing on the situation. By identifying the context of the case, the researcher helps others who later read the case study report to draw conclusions about the extent to which its findings might be generalisable to other situations.

In describing the case study, I focus on the factors which were likely to have a bearing on school violence and leadership. While the description mainly revolved around the schools, I also highlight some relevant issues to this study regarding the area in which the schools are located. In conformity with ethical considerations, I use fictitious names in reference to the two schools.

MHS is a co-educational school offering academic subjects. It is located in a semi-urban area. This area was exclusively designated for Coloureds during the apartheid era. At the time of data generation for this study, the school had a total roll of 1234 learners. The majority of learners were Coloureds and Blacks. There were also few Indians. In a way, this school could be regarded as multiracial. The composition of staff consisted of Coloureds, Indians and Blacks.
The school had two male security guards. Each day one guard was on duty. The leadership and management structure of the school involved teachers and learners. The senior leadership and management members were a principal and his two deputies. There were also 4 HoDs. According to the principal, the school was entitled to have 5 HoDs. The vacant post for another HoD had not yet been advertised at the time of data production. The leadership and management structure responsible for security and safety was a two man committee which consisted of a deputy principal and one HoD. This committee also addressed disciplinary issues which involved violence matters. In fact, some teachers referred to this committee as a disciplinary committee.

Furthermore, the school had two management structures of learners. The prefects constituted the first structure. The second structure RCL. As indicated in Chapter two, SASA (no. 84) 1996 mandates high schools to have RCLs. This school is a no fee school and also provides a feeding scheme (lunch) to learners.

I observed that some members of the community around this school sometimes used violence to resolve issues. For instance, in April 2013 most teachers were on a go slow strike and did not issue learners’ academic progress reports to the parents. Some parents close to the school went to the school and closed the school gate pointing out that teachers would not go home before releasing the reports. The teachers were rescued by the police. The teachers stopped going to the school for a week in fear of being victims of violence perpetrated by the angry parents. Through my conversation with learners, teachers and other staff members I also learnt that the use of alcohol and drugs was a common thing to some members of the community.

THS is a co-educational secondary school offering academic subjects. The school leadership and management consisted of the principal, other members of the SMT and RCL. The positions for the two deputy principals were vacant at the time of data generation. There were three permanent HoDs and two acting HoDs. One HoD left the school in the beginning of 2013 as a result of threats of violence from the learners.

The school is a no fee school. In addition, there is a feeding scheme for learners. This school had 3 guards; 1 female and 2 males. These guards were on duty every day. In the
morning, 3 of them stood at the school gate. They randomly searched the bags of learners for illegal drugs and dangerous drugs. The searching did not happen every day. During the course of the day one or two guards walked around the school. I learnt that they walked around the school compound in order to check if learners were not doing anything illegal. After break, the Heads of Department go out to learners to tell them to go into the classroom and wait for the teachers. Some of them carried sticks and chased learners who delayed to follow instructions. Sometimes, a few other teachers assisted the Heads of Department. The principal also walked around the school to ensure that learners were in class.

This school is located in an area characterised, inter alia, by a high rate of crime. During my first visit to the school, I was warned by the taxi driver not to ask anybody for directions to the school in order to avoid being robbed. He gave me clear directions and as such there was no need to ask for directions from people that I met on the way. Later on as I talked with teachers, non-teaching staff and learners the issue of crime in the community was highlighted. Little did I know that I would also have its taste before I completed data generation. At the end of May 2013, I was walking from the school to the taxi rank and I found four young men standing at the junction where the road from the school joins a road leading to the taxi rank. It was a bit cold and there were no people walking on the street. As I approached the four men, they lowered their voices so that I could not hear what they were saying. I did not suspect anything until one of them instructed me to pay toll gate fee indicating that it was African National Congress (ANC) policy. ANC is a ruling party in South Africa. He demanded R20.00 for the tollgate fee. I was surprised, but also felt threatened. How could I pay toll gate fee where there was no gate while I was not even driving a car? However, I could not ask questions. I panicked, but searched myself and took out R50.00 and gave it to him. I explained that I did not have R20.00 and I did not know why I was offering an explanation because nobody asked me to do so. I think this was due to the fear of being robbed and harmed. I provided an explanation in my language which is Sesotho. One of them said “umusotho, hamba Ndoda” literally meaning “he is a Mosotho, go away man.” I left them and they did not follow me. I did not report the case to anybody because I feared that they might harm me because at that time I had not yet interviewed the principal who was my last participant that I had to interview.
4.7 Data generation instruments

In terms of the qualitative research, researchers use multiple techniques in order to generate data (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). In this study the data generation techniques used were interviews, observation and document analysis. The first step in the data generation was to request the principals of the two schools to give me various documents relevant to this study. The principals provided the documents as requested. I started by requesting documents with the assumption that policy documents would provide guidelines to schools about procedures and processes to be followed when tackling school violence. The analysis of these documents provided indicators for violence and leadership practices in each of the schools and these were further probed during the interviews. The second step was to observe, though it continued until the end of the data generation process. Observation provided me with an opportunity to familiarise myself with the research site and also to request the participants to be interviewed. In each school I spent three days, before I started with the interviews, observing the research sites in general and violent behaviour acts as well as leadership processes. The last step was to interview the participants, but I also continued with observations as I have already indicated. The process of data generation using the three techniques is discussed in detail below.

4.7.1 Interviews

Interviews were used in order to gain an insight into the knowledge and views of the participants regarding the role of school leadership in addressing violence. According to Nieuwenhuisen (2007), an interview is a conversation between the interviewer and the participants which is conducted with the aim of generating data based on the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviour of the participants. Cohen et al., (2007) are of the opinion that an interview differs from an ordinary conversation in that the interview is controlled by means of the questions posed by the interviewer.
I adopted semi-structured interviews to get an insight regarding participants’ perceptions and beliefs about leadership and school violence (Greeff, 2002). According to Gray (2004), semi-structured interviews allow for flexibility in that the researcher can clarify questions and probe participants. Since case studies are intended “…to capture the uniqueness and complexity of the case, some level of flexibility is desirable” (Rule & John, 2011, p. 65). The researcher may also ask additional questions which were not planned or anticipated. Two types of interviews were used to generate data appropriate in answering research questions. These types were focus group interviews and individual interviews.

I utilised focus group interviews to generate data from learners in the selected schools. A focus group is used with the assumption that people’s beliefs are constructed socially in that individuals may form opinions after they have listened to those of others (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). It ranges from four to twelve people who are not friends but they have common characteristics relevant to the study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Neuman (2006) claims that four to six separate focus groups are ideal for a typical study. The composition of focus groups has been discussed above. The participants were interviewed once. Each interview lasted for about 45 minutes. The interviews were recorded using a voice recorder and transcribed.

A focus group is accredited for a number of reasons. It is effective in qualitative data production since many people are interviewed simultaneously. In addition, it provides enjoyable experiences to the participants. It also empowers participants in that they are given a platform to make their own comments while they are stimulated by comments of others within a group (Robson, 2002). However, the researcher needs to be aware of power dynamics in a focus group where certain participants may dominate the discussion (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). In this regard, I facilitated discussion in such a way that all the members of a focus group found an opportunity to participate in the discussion. In other words, the participants were requested to allow each other to talk. The participants who appeared to be passive were encouraged to say their views. Furthermore, Marshall and Rossman (2011) warns that time may be wasted when members of a focus group discuss irrelevant issues.
Qualitative researchers frequently use individual interview methods of data generation (Babbie et al., 2004). Individual interviews were held with the principals, deputy principals, HoDs and teachers from each school. These participants were interviewed once each. The interviews lasted for about an hour each. Some of the participants indicated that they could only be interviewed for less than one hour. One teacher, for example, said that she would spend twenty minutes for the interview. Since I needed data I agreed to interview her. However, the interview lasted for one hour ten minutes and after the interview she told me that she enjoyed it. Semi-structured interviews were held with each participant. Greeff (2002) advises that a semi-structured interview is appropriate since it allows the participants enough opportunity to tell their story. Since the questions were semi-structured, the participants had ample opportunity to talk about school violence and how leadership addressed it. The place and time for the interviews was negotiated with the participants. In MHS the teachers were interviewed in their classrooms when they were free. The principal, deputy principal and HoDs were interviewed in their offices. In THS, the deputy principal’s office was used for interviews with the teachers while HoDs were interviewed in their offices. The principal was interviewed at his home.

4.7.2 Observation

In order to understand the dynamics of school violence and leadership practices thereof I used observation as a data generation method. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010) qualitative researchers use observation to record detailed accounts of how humans or non humans act and interact. Observation was deemed appropriate for this study since the central activities of human beings are behaviours and actions (Robson, 2002). Leadership and school violence behaviours and actions are observable. The observation schedule which was pre-drawn contained various leadership and violence indicators. These indicators assisted me to focus on the interactions between learners and other learners as well as the interaction between learners and teachers. In particular I observed how violence and leadership unfolded. Neuman (2006) points out that a researcher should observe both physical setting and physical surrounding. Physical setting involves observing, inter alia, the conditions of buildings, arrangement of furniture. As indicated in Chapter 2, sometimes learners engage in violent acts against property which includes that of other learners and the teachers. What has been identified through observation of
physical settings and surroundings was further investigated during interviews with the participants. I observed teachers’ and learners’ daily routines which were related to the dynamics of violence and leadership influence. In particular, I observed learners’ interactions in different areas of the school compound. During break time, I walked around the school compound and observed learners’ interactions on play grounds, in the classrooms, at the tuckshops and other areas in the school. I visited classrooms and observed teachers’ interactions with learners. I requested permission from teachers to visit their classrooms. Four teachers were observed from each school. These teachers also participated in interviews. As I requested, the teachers explained to learners the purpose of my visit to their classrooms.

Paying attention to verbal behaviours is also essential during observation. The researcher needs to record how the participants talk in a social relationship (Bailey, 2007). Closely related to verbal behaviour of the participants is their speech patterns. Bailey (2007, p. 91) argues that understanding conversation in the research setting requires the researcher to be aware of the speech patterns and attempt to answer these questions: “Which types of words are being used by the participants?... are slang words, swear words, or technical words used regularly? Does the setting have jargon (words and meanings specific to that setting)?”

Cohen et al., (2007, p. 396) indicate that observation “… can focus on behaviours or qualities, such as the friendliness of the teacher, the degree of aggressive behaviour or the extent of unsociable behaviour among students”. I adopted Nieuwenhuis’s (2010) advice that researchers should be passive during the beginning of observation and examine behaviour and events in a natural setting without asking any questions. As time passed by the participants got used to me and at times voluntarily spoke about their problems to me.

4.7.3 Document reviews

Denscombe (2002) contends that documents may reveal information that is not accessible through the use of other research methods such as interviews. Accordingly, documents may be deemed suitable in augmenting and corroborating the data generated through the use of interviews and observation. This is also in line with Yin’s (2003,
p.87) suggestion that: “The most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources.” Rule and John (2011) argue that where a researcher uses various data generation methods including documents, starting with document analysis can be useful. Analysis of documents prior to utilisation of other methods is likely to help the researcher to gain an insight about the research sites and to be aware of their history and other aspects. This insight may also assist the researcher to attempt to find answers for more questions during interviews and observation (Rule & John, 2011). As has already been mentioned above, documents were obtained before interviews took place and analysis of such documents was done so as to make sense of their contents. A summary of analysis was made. It served as a guide to ask further questions during interviews.

In this study, various school documents were analysed. However, in reviewing these documents confidentiality was taken into account for ethical reasons. These documents included the following: learners’ code of conduct, school safety policy and notices.

4.8 Data analysis

Data were analysed at three stages. In the first stage, data were analysed while data generation process was continuing. This is in accordance with Merriam’s (1998) advice that generating and analysing qualitative data simultaneously is most appropriate since it assists the researcher to remain focused when generating more data. The researcher is able to read a few transcripts which are available and make notes and reflections of what has been read. It is during this time that the researcher will be able to write down ideas, hunches and tentative themes which in turn will inform the following data production process (Merriam, 1998). During field work, I wrote observation notes on a daily basis. I also read a few scripts of interview data. The data which I read from the documents, field notes and a few interview scripts served as a guide in the process of generating more data. After the first interview with a teacher, for example, I realised that she provided more information on learner-on-teacher violence and learner-on-learner violence while she provided less information on teacher-on-learner violence. As a result, I prepared more probing questions for teacher-on-learner section so that I could probe more when I interviewed other teachers.
The second stage of data analysis begun after data had been generated. Marshall and Rossman (2011, p. 45) claim:

The process of bringing order, structure, and interpretation to a mass of collected data is messy, ambiguous, time-consuming, creative, and fascinating. It does not proceed in a linear fashion; it is not neat. Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships and underlying themes.

Being aware of complexities pertaining to analysing qualitative data, I followed data analysis spiral strategy as suggested by Creswell (1998) and elaborated by Leedy and Ormrod (2010). In a spiral approach to qualitative analysis, the researcher does not follow a linear process of analysis but rather moves in analytic circles (Creswell, 1998). The researcher moves in circles through the following steps: organisation of data, perusal of entire data, classification of data and synthesising data (Leedy & Ormrod 2010). At the first step in the spiral, a researcher has to manage data by organising their index cards, file folders and computer files (Creswell, 1998). Since qualitative data can be generated through the use of various data collection methods, they should be organised before they are analysed. I typed the transcribed interviews and saved them into two separate files for each school. Observation notes were also typed and saved while documents were kept in files.

Having organised data, the researcher has to make sense of data (Creswell, 1998). This is done by perusing data several times (Leedy & Ormrod 2010). “Reading, reading, and reading through the data once more forces the researcher to become intimately familiar with those data; people, events, and quotations sift constantly through the researcher’s mind” (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 158). While I was reading and reading data, I also made comments pertaining to my interpretation.

The next step focused on interpreting data and identifying themes as well as subthemes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). This is the central point for qualitative analysis. The data in this study were in the form of interview scripts, field notes and documents. Identifying themes and categories from data is “tough intellectual work” and as such researchers make use of a coding technique (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). “Codes may take several forms: abbreviations of key words, coloured dots, numbers the choice is up to the
researcher” (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 160). In this study, data were coded using labelling by using different colours. The key research questions were used as a guide in identifying themes and subthemes.

4.9 Trustworthiness

While quantitative researchers strive for validity and reliability on instruments that they use, qualitative researchers are concerned about research which is trustworthy. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), trustworthiness is about ways in which the researcher convinces the readers that his or her findings can be trusted and the research is worth reading. Although the reader may not agree with the researcher, the former should be made aware of how the latter reached conclusions (Bailey, 2007). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that trustworthiness may be established through credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

The techniques of establishing credibility are prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, peer debriefing, reference adequacy and member checking (Babbie et al., 2004; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Prolonged engagement implies that the researcher spends a long time in the field until data saturation occurs (Babbie, et al, 2004). Staying longer in the field is likely to make the researcher to be accepted by the participants. The researcher will also be in a position to appreciate the culture at the research site (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this regard, I spent the first week of my data collection journey in the field making observations and familiarising myself with the research sites. During this week some teachers and learners got an opportunity to ask me about my study. In Memorable High School quite a number of learners came to me during the break time and asked me what I was doing in their school. One of the learners asked whether I was a teacher, a policeman or a DoE official. Although I addressed all the teachers about my study in the staffroom, some of them still came to me to ask me questions pertaining to my study. I started interviews during the second week. My initial data collection plan included interviewing all the teachers in each school. However, I only interviewed some of them as indicated above until saturation of
data occurred. Prolonged engagement enabled persistent observation. As Lincoln and Guba, (1985, p. 304) put it:

If the purpose of prolonged engagement is to render the inquirer open to the multiple influences - the mutual shapers and contextual factors - that impinge upon the phenomenon being studied, the purpose of persistent observation is to identify those characteristics and elements in the situation that are most relevant to the problem or issue being pursued.

While observing, I also interpreted my observations in various ways (Babbie, et al., 2004). A case study approach often uses triangulation to ensure credibility (Merriam, 1998). There are four types of triangulations, namely; methods, theories, sources and investigators (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As a way of triangulation, interviews, observations and document analysis were used in this study in an effort to ensure credibility (Nieuwenhuis, 2010b). Data generation through the three instruments were used to supplement each other and this is likely to strengthen credibility of this study. Since this study was concerned with two broad areas of leadership and school violence, three different theories were used. The triangulation of the three theories had a potential to strengthen the credibility of this study.

Peer debriefing implies that the researcher requests his or her colleagues to comment on the findings of the study (Merriam, 1998). Such colleagues should have the same status as the researcher. They should neither be juniors nor seniors (Babbie, et al, 2004). The colleagues probes, questions the assumptions and interpretations of the researcher. If the researcher is unable to respond to the questions raised by his/her colleagues he/she may have to reconsider his/her position (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).To this end, my PhD colleagues commented on my study. The PhD cohort provided an opportunity for students to present their studies to colleagues and supervisors. The supervisors and fellow students made comments and challenged each student to clarify certain issues regarding his/her study. Various parts of my study were subjected to ‘peer scrutiny.’ Our PhD cohort, for example, spent two days scrutinising data instruments for each student.
Another important factor is member check which means that the researcher goes back to the participants with data and initial interpretations to ask them to verify data (Merriam, 1988). If there are any errors that the participants may identify, the researcher should correct them. In addition, the researcher may find additional volunteer information from the participants (Babbie, et al., 2004). Member checking can either be formal or informal. It is continuous and may be done while the process of data production is continuing. A summary of the interview for day one may be presented to the participants the following day (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I followed Guba and Lincoln's advice by finding opportunities for member check while I continued with the data production process.

“Transferability refers to the extent to which the findings can be applied in other contexts or with other respondents.” (Babbie, et al., 2004, p. 277) While in quantitative approach, the researchers attempt to illustrate how their findings may be generalised to the population from which the sample was drawn, in qualitative study the onus to decide on the transferability of the findings rests with the reader (Babbie, et al, 2004). Guba and Lincoln (1985) contend that in qualitative research transferability may be established by thick description and purposive sampling. Transferability was addressed through a thick description of data pertaining to each case to allow readers to make their own judgements about the transferability of the findings of this study (Gray, 2004). As indicated above purposive sampling was utilised in the selection of cases for this study. If the findings are credible and transferable, they are also likely to be dependable and confirmable (Babbie et al., 2004).

4.10 Ethical considerations

According to Denscombe (2002, p. 175), “Ethics concerns the system of moral principles by which individuals can judge their actions as right or wrong, good or bad.” In other words, researchers should be conscious about what they should do and what should not be done.

One of the ethical issues that I considered in this study was informed consent. It means that the participants give their informed consent to participate in the study. Before they give informed consent, the researcher should inform them about the nature of the
research (Henning et al., 2004). Strydom (2002) warns researchers that gaining initial permission to the research site does not entitle them to access all information and, as such, permission should be negotiated from time to time as the need arises. Accordingly, I visited each school to make appointments with the participants. As indicated under sampling, the participants were the principals, deputy principals, HoDs, teachers and learners. All these participants were briefed about the nature and procedures of the study. I issued them with letters that formally requested them to participate in the study. The letters clarified that participation in the study was voluntary. The letters also indicated that the participants had a right to stop participating in the research any time they might want to do so. Participants were also made aware that no direct benefits were to be derived from participating in the study. Since learner participants in this study were minors, a written informed consent was obtained from the parents before learners were interviewed. The learners were also requested to participate in the study.

Moreover, I ensured that the participants were protected from any harm. They were not subjected to psychological or physical harm, embarrassment, stress and loss of self-esteem (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). However, I was aware that talking about school violence might evoke bad memories to some participants who might be victims or perpetrators of school violence. The plan was to immediately stop the session at any time if any of the participants indicated that they were upset or anxious during interviews (Gray, 2004). In this regard, Leedy and Ormorod (2010) advise that participants who experience psychological discomfort as a result of the research project should be counselled. Since I am not an expert in counselling, I made the principals aware that I might request them to make an arrangement with the counsellors should the need arise. Although some of participants talked about their experiences of violence as victims, at no point did any of them show signs of anxiety to the extent that we had to stop the interview.

Confidentiality and anonymity were also observed. Bailey (2007) warns that violating confidentiality can cause harm to the participants. Cohen et al., (2007) argue that the participants’ identities and any information that may reveal their identity should be treated with confidentiality. In line with this advice, the names of the Ward, schools and
the participants were not revealed in the study, instead pseudonyms were used. Before the commencement of the interviews, the participants were reassured that the information they provided would be treated with confidentiality. Assuring the participants about confidentiality and anonymity made them relax and they then talked about school violence and leadership without fear that their identity would be revealed. In addition, documents used as attachments in this study were treated with confidentiality in that sections on such documents which revealed the identity of schools were deleted.

4.11 Limitations of the study

According to Hofstee (2006) any study will have limitations and as such researchers should state major limitations that may affect the credibility of their findings. This study was conducted in two South African schools. Accordingly, it is not possible to generalise the findings of this study to all South African schools. However, an attempt was made to ensure that the findings are credible so that readers may decide whether or not the findings may be applicable in other situations. The way in which credibility was established has been discussed above.

Some of learners and teachers in the two schools speak isiZulu as their mother tongue. However, I have limited knowledge of isiZulu. This implies that I might have missed communication among isiZulu speakers which might have been relevant to this study during observation. Furthermore, the learners whose first language is isiZulu were also requested to speak English during the interviews and this might have limited them and as such affected the richness of data. In order to minimise this language barrier, I did not select learner participants from Grade 8 partly because I assumed that they did not yet have a good command of English language.

4.12 Conclusion

This chapter described research design and methodology adopted in this study. The chapter highlighted that interpretivist paradigm is suitable for the study since it allows
researchers to examine a given phenomenon from multiple perspectives. It further
described qualitative research and illustrated how its characteristics made it appropriate
for this study. The chapter also demonstrated that a multi-case study was adopted for
this study whereby research was conducted from two case study schools. It illustrated
procedures that were followed in negotiating access to the research sites and the
participants. The methods of data collection were discussed as well as the manner in
which data were analysed.
CHAPTER 5: LEARNER-ON-TEACHER VIOLENCE

5.1 Introduction

This study was aimed at understanding the role of leadership in tackling school violence. Data were generated through interviews, observation and document analyses to address the research questions. The major data generation techniques were interviews while observations and documents provided supplementary data. The two case study schools served as research sites. As indicated in chapter 4, I use pseudonyms and refer to these schools THS and MHS in order to protect their identity. I also assigned fictitious names to the participants. I named the principal of THS Tesco. The 4 HoDs for THS are referred to as Tersee 1, Tersee 2, Tersee3 and Tersee 4 while the 6 teachers are called Turner1, Turner 2, Turner 3, Turner 4, Turner 5, and Turner 6. I named the principal of MHS Master and his deputy Max. The 3 HoDs from MHS are given the following names: Miller 1, Miller 2 and Miller 3. The 6 teachers from the same school are called Mediator 1, Mediator 2, Mediator 3, Mediator 4, Mediator 5 and Mediator 6. Data were also sourced from 3 focus groups of learners in each school. As indicated in Chapter 4, the first focus group consisted of 4 female learners while the second was made up of 4 male learners. The last group was composed of 2 females and 2 males. In order to distinguish THS focus groups from MHS focus groups, I mention the name of a school immediately after referring to a focus group.

The findings from each school are presented in each section one after the other in order to highlight the similarities and differences. For each school, I begin by presenting data obtained from documents since some documents such as policies are used as guidelines for schools in relation to how schools should tackle violence. I then move to report on views of stakeholders. In order to have a logical presentation, I present the views of stakeholders by starting with principals and move to the deputy principals. Then I report on the views of HoDs. Teachers’ views follow and last I report on the responses of the learners. In other words, after identifying a theme I discuss views of stakeholders from one school before proceeding to presenting those of other participants from another school. However, there is a slight difference pertaining to the stakeholders in the two schools in that THS did not have deputy principals at the time of data collection. The
two positions for deputy principals were vacant. As I present the findings from interviews, I also highlight relevant observations I made which are relevant to interview responses.

This chapter is organised into two main sections namely; types of violence teachers experience and emerging issues. In line with the focus of this study, I also discuss leadership and management practices which were adopted in the two schools to tackle violence. In order to avoid unnecessary repetition, leadership and management issues are discussed in the last section.

5.2. Types of violence teachers experience

5.2.1 Physical violence
According to the Learners’ Code of Conduct in THS, physical violence was one of the very serious offences which might result in suspension of learners who were found guilty of this offence. The school safety policy of MHS states that:

Violence/ assault on school premises is not allowed. Persons found to be conducting this act must be reported to the principal who will take the necessary action.

The policy was a directive to all members of the school community including learners. Thus, the policy prohibited learners from assaulting the teachers. Learners’ acts of physical violence against the teachers in the two schools were rare. However, these acts were also worth reporting since the participants highlighted them as constituting part of types of violence which teachers experienced. As indicated in Chapter 2, one of the features of the dynamics of violence is variation in terms of its occurrence. This variation was evident in that some acts of violence occurred more often than others. In THS, several participants referred to an incident in which a teacher was physically attacked and killed by a learner. Although this incident happened more than five years ago, almost all the teachers that were interviewed reported it. Some of the teachers were not yet employed in this school when the incident occurred, but they were informed about it. The principal of THS had this to say:
One particular extreme case in our school, I think it was in 2008, one learner stabbed a teacher to death. It is something which is well known and that learner is still in jail. He stabbed a teacher in class while the teacher was teaching. It was a Grade 8 learner for that matter. It happened in front of other learners. The teacher was new in the school and she was a lady. That was a very extreme case which took place in our school. It was a very sad incident to those who witnessed it. We buried the teacher and she was a young lady. The teachers and learners were very traumatised. They had to undergo counselling. The main focus was on the learners who were in the class where the incident occurred (PTesco).

Tersee1 from the same school also referred to this incident:

I have been in this school since 2009 and when I came to this school I was made aware that there was really a serious case of violence against the teacher. The teacher was stabbed by a learner in the classroom. She was killed. This school became renowned for that incident and up until now people still talk about a teacher who was killed in the class by the learner’s hands.

One HoD from THS was empathetic that support offered to a colleague who experienced physical violence was essential so that the colleague did not feel let down by fellow teachers:

There was an incident where the learner slapped a teacher on the face and we supported that teacher. It was a Grade 9 learner and the teacher was new in the school. Learners do take chances. It was a female teacher. We called the learner to the staffroom and told him that we were not going to do anything on that particular day until he apologised. He realised that he had done the wrong thing and he apologised. Then from there we went to classes. But the learner was suspended from the school on that day. We called the learner’s parent and we tried our best to support the teacher. If we do not support the teachers, they will leave the school feeling that they were betrayed by their own colleagues or management. Since we supported the teacher, she did not leave the school (Tersee3).
Furthermore, an incident where a learner pushed a teacher at THS was reported as physical violence by one of the teachers:

In our school, there is a teacher who was pushed by a learner in the class. It was a confrontation between a teacher and a learner, the learner shoved the teacher. That was the closest incident to assault which I saw since I came to this school (TTurner2).

A teacher from this school spoke about another case of physical violence where a learner physically abused a teacher in the classroom:

It was a case where my other colleague was busy teaching and she had long braids. The learner stood up and pulled the teacher’s braids. The learners did not want to write the notes or something like that. The teacher came back from class crying. It was physical violence (TTTurner 5).

The incident where a teacher was pushed by a learner was reported by one participant in a discussion with a focus group of learners.

In my class one older boy was disturbing us. The teacher asked him why he was making a noise. He said, he was not making a noise and asked the teacher if she saw him talking. The teacher was angry and told the boy to go out of the class. He stood up and when he passed the teacher, he pushed the teacher. Some of us were afraid, other learners were laughing. The teacher left the class. I think the learner was called to the office (Focus group girls THS).

At MHS the participants had conflicting views regarding the prevalence or non-occurrence of physical violence instigated by learners against the teachers. While the principal and his deputy reported that physical violence did not happen in the school some participants reported otherwise. The principal had this to say:

We haven’t had any cases of physical violence where a child physically attacks a teacher. Physical violence by the learner against the teacher can lead to the learner’s expulsion. The matter is handled by SGB. It is the SGB which
recommends a transfer of a learner to another school. This is basically the same thing as expulsion from the school (PMaster).

The deputy principal reiterated the principal’s sentiments as follows:

We have not had a case where learners actually attack teachers physically. The last time we had a situation where learners raised their hands to teachers was, I will say, seven years ago or so where we had an assault case involving the then deputy principal. We got a disciplinary committee and it basically deal with issues which include violence. At the moment the committee has two members. They are two of our male teachers who deal with discipline and violence cases. They deal with these cases pretty much on a daily basis. We also have the governing body which deals with serious disciplinary hearings. If a learner has committed a serious offence the SGB suspends the learner (DMax).

To the contrary, one MHS teacher narrated a story of how a learner attacked a teacher using a brick. The learner was physically abusive to the teacher because he was angered by the teacher in the classroom. Instead of retaliating in the classroom, the learner waited for an opportunity to attack the teacher outside the classroom:

Not long ago when I came to this school one teacher was walking to the staffroom, a learner took a brick and aimed at the teacher. The learner threw the brick and it hit the teacher. That teacher got injured. That learner was suspended from the school (TMediator1).

It was also found that some learners in MHS did not only threaten teachers with physical violence, but they also applied physical violence as indicated by this participant:

There was an incident last year where a teacher asked for something from a child. It was during examination time. This learner threatened to assault the teacher. In fact the learner pushed her (TMediator 4)
Some forms of violence such as physical assault on a teacher caused a great impact on those who experienced or witnessed them even if they were not perpetrated often. It was likely that those in senior positions such as the principal and deputy principal might not paint a grave picture of their school since they feared that their leadership and management might be viewed as weak. Physical violence instigated by the learners against the teachers appeared to have been more serious at THS than MHS. Although it was a once off incident, the violent killing of a teacher by a learner at THS illustrates that learner-to-teacher violence may have serious repercussions.

5.2.2 Threats

Responses show that threats of violence occurred in both schools. At policy level, the two schools had Learners’ Code of Conducts which, inter alia, mandated learners to refrain from threatening any member of the schools’ communities. At THS, Learners’ Code of Conduct stipulated that “A learner must not render himself guilty of any of the following offences: (q) threats towards co-learners and/personnel.” The school safety policy at MHS indicated that learners and teachers were not expected to be subjected to threats of physical violence. The purpose of this policy was stated as: “To promote a culture of safety within the school where learners and educators are free to learn and teach without the threats of physical and/or psychological harm.” However, learners in these two schools reportedly continued to threaten teachers. PTesco from THS for instance reported:

He [a learner] informed the teacher that he had people outside the school that would catch this teacher if she could get him suspended again. The teacher reported this incident to the disciplinary committee and it was referred to SGB. That learner was expelled from the school because we found that he was a threat to the teachers. He was disturbing the effective teaching and learning in the class. The teacher reported the matter to us and we called the SGB. Sometimes you have to take drastic decisions just to stabilise teaching and learning.

Sometimes the threats became so serious that the victim had to leave the school. As indicated by HTersee2 from THS:
The attitude that we observed which the parents and learners were taking was to attack and threaten the teacher to create a situation where a teacher should leave the school. Unfortunately, the teacher had to be compromised. The teacher concerned was very furious, angry and felt that she was not secured. She felt helpless. She felt that the school had to take action drastically.

It was also reported in THS that learners threatened teachers with the possibility of inviting non-members of the school community to harm the teachers. The following participants highlighted this issue:

I mean you hear every now and then a teacher saying that a particular learner said he has got people outside (TTurner 5).

The teacher instructed him (a boy in the class) to go out of the class and he refused. The teacher was so angry that they nearly fought and then the boy said he will tell his friends from outside the school to wait for the teacher at the school gate. The teacher left the class (Focus group girls THS).

In MHS, threats of violence against the teachers were also reported by various participants. When provoked by the teachers, some learners were reported to retaliate by using threats of violence against the teachers with possible support from their parents. As PMaster put it:

We had a case where a teacher slapped a child and as the child runs out of the school premises to call the parents, the child threatened the teacher and said ‘I come back for you with my parents, watch it, you don’t do that to me again. I am coming back for you.’ So you find that the learners will be violent if they are provoked by the educator. There must be something really serious which has happened for a child to attack a teacher which may be physical abuse or whatever.

For DMax threats of violence were common in MHS, but learners did not actually attack the teachers physically:
We also have cases where learners have threatened to catch teachers after school perhaps because the teachers disciplined these learners during the day or they made them kind of…they humiliated them in class. So learners will make a threat to that particular teacher. However, we have not had a case where learners actually attack teachers physically.

One teacher indicated that a learner threatened him (teacher) with physical violence for no apparent reason known to the teachers. However, this teacher neither took action nor reported such incidents to any member of school management team:

I was in the classroom and the learners were leaving the class. So on his way out of the class this boy passed closer to me and said ‘I will stab you.’ I don’t remember saying or doing anything which might have annoyed him (TMediator 4).

Another teacher who experienced threats of violence from a learner had this to say:

One boy threatened me. He said he was going to call his father to sort me out. He wanted me to let him have his own way of doing things in the class, but I told him that he cannot do that. He wanted to leave the classroom before finishing the class work because everyone was going out for break (TMediator 1)

The principal of MHS was also not immune from learners’ threats of physical violence. As one teacher noted:

The learner turned around and he shoved the principal back and then said ‘you can’t hit me. Just try to hit me and you will see what I will do.’ The learner was suspended. The SGB ordered a disciplinary hearing. Anyway, he was suspended for a week and he came back to the school the following week and he was basically being monitored after that (TMediator 6).

In MHS, I observed a situation where a learner challenged a teacher against the use of corporal punishment and in a way acted as if she would retaliate. It was in a Grade 9 class and one girl (whom I later learned was in Grade 11) stood at the door of the
classroom facing inside. She talked to another girl sitting on the front seat. She did not ask for permission from the teacher. The teacher told her to stop disturbing his class. The learner was adamant that she was not disturbing any class, but talking to her friend. The teacher took a stick and walked towards the learner at the door. The learner said: “What do you want to do with that stick? There is nothing you can do with it. You want to treat me like a dog! I am not a dog.” Indeed, the teacher did not use the stick; he just looked at the learner. The learner raised her hand and waved it close to the face of the teacher. The teacher turned back and looked at his Grade 9 learners. They laughed at him. He appeared to be embarrassed and tried to smile. He went back and put the stick on the book locker.

The threats I reported above seem to have been as strong in impact as physical assault. One can, therefore, conclude that in terms of threats, the two schools can be said to have been quite violent against teachers. Some learners at MHS threatened teachers by a possibility of inviting their parents to instigate violence against such teachers. This suggests that their parents were role models who could solve misunderstandings through violence. Bandura (1977) argues that children imitate the behaviour of the model they remember. In this case, learners seem to have remembered the models that could assist and support them against the teachers. Threats negatively impacted on teaching and learning. In some instances, teachers had to abandon the teaching process as a result of threats. The violated teachers were also negatively affected as some of them felt helpless, angry and unsafe. It was also apparent that threats of violence instigated by learners against the teachers sometimes emanated from the teachers’ attempts to adopt violent means in disciplining the learners.

5.2.3 Written violence

Written form of violence was an offence in the two case study schools in terms of their policies. The Learners’ Code of Conduct for both schools classified as a serious misbehaviour threats against staff members which included written threats. Despite this I found that some learners adopted writing strategies to convey violent messages to teachers. When they were not seen by any adult, they wrote insults on areas where the targeted teachers would be able to read such insults. THS teachers were of the opinion
that the kind of vulgar language which learners wrote implied that such language was common among members of the community from which the learners came. In relation to this view, a HoD at THS had this to say:

The learners had written the word in isiZulu which is extremely vulgar language. They wrote igolo. This is a private part of a woman. They wrote on the door something like a rectangle and also wrote that so and so is that name meaning igolo. The writing was done during break time. I think the community does not uphold the values of respect, not using any word like vulgar language. You will find that it is common to these learners even among themselves. That is a very common thing which shows the level in the community for not upholding the correct values. For it says even the community has an element of doing or saying these things. The victim became a casualty in the entire process. The teacher was compelled to leave because of her security. There is a special placement that the DoE makes for a teacher who feels unsafe at a school (HTersee 2).

Reporting on the same issue another HoD at THS indicated that the level of written violence against the teacher became so serious that she had to leave the school. In her words the participant claimed:

There is one former member of our SMT who left the school. She was displaced because the learners wrote vulgar language on her office door. They insulted her in such a way that she had to leave the school. We found the alleged learners and suspended them. It started where some learners were punished by the SMT and that HoD was the only one who was picked up (HTersee 4).

The learners also wrote insults on teachers’ cars as highlighted by one of THS teachers:

There is one teacher Mr X on whose car was written some insults by learners. They are good at writing insults. The environment that these kids come from has a lot of bad influence on them. There is a high rate of crime. There is no culture of learning. Substance, drugs and alcohol abuse cause problems. You find that some of these kids come from homes where there are no parents. The majority of them
are orphans. So a family culture is not found in them. They don’t have any solid background of learning, morals and values (TTurner 3).

THS learners also acknowledged that some teachers were subjected to written forms of violence done by some learners in the absence of such teachers. However, learners who might have seen the perpetrators of this kind of violence did not report it due to fear of being victimised by the perpetrators. The teachers were hurt by what the learners wrote about them. The following quotation from a focus group of learners illustrates the manner in which one teacher responded to written violence:

There is this teacher who is a Shembe follower and he has big hair. The grade 11 learners drew a person who has big hair like him on the chalkboard in the classroom. Then they wrote the teacher’s name. That was so painful because the teacher nearly cried when he saw the writing (Focus group boys THS).

During my data generation at THS, I moved around different areas in the school and I noticed that there were writings in different buildings. In the boys’ toilet the following was written on the wall: “fuck you teachers who beat us.”

In MHS, I found that some learners wrote insults directed towards some of the teachers on the classroom walls. Commenting on the written form of violence the following participants claimed:

They [learners] have written on walls about certain teachers’ crafty (PMaster).
They [Learners] say derogatory things against the teachers and write derogatory things on the walls outside the teachers’ classes (DMax).

At MHS, the majority of the teachers were allocated a classroom which they used and learners moved from one classroom to another in order to attend lessons. As a result, whatever learners might want to write about a certain teacher, they could easily write it outside the classroom which was used by that particular teacher. There were lots of writings outside every building. On the door of a classroom which was used by one female teacher, for example, it was written “This year Miss X sucks.” During break time as I saw this statement, I asked three learners who were close to the building about
who might have written that. They laughed and one of them said, the statement might have been written by a learner who was angry at the teacher.

Written forms of violence appeared to be an indirect way of learners to instigate violence against their teachers. While the intention was to hurt the targeted teachers, the perpetrators were careful that they were not seen by the teachers when they wrote insults. Other learners did not report the perpetrators to the teacher perhaps to protect fellow learners and also to protect themselves against possible harm from those who wrote insults. Some participants at THS were of the view that the community in which learners came from influenced them to use vulgar language against the teachers. The macro-system level of ecosystemic theory stresses the importance of societal values and ideologies in shaping the behaviour of children (Santrock, 2008). In this study, society was blamed for failing to uphold and instil values such as respect to some THS learners. In turn, such learners wrote insults targeted at some THS teachers. From a social learning theory perspective, some learners at THS learnt abusive language from some members of the community since children learn by observing the acts of people around them (Powell et al., 2009). Factors such as anger and feelings of revenge by some learners made them to adopt written form of violence against teachers who violated such learners. This written form of learner-to-teacher violence was one of the most regularly practised ones. It was a strong form of communication. The fact that learners adopted it often and that teachers violated felt very angry suggests that if nothing was done there would continue to be learner-teacher polarisation.

5.2.4 Verbal violence

The Learners’ Code of Conduct for THS was silent about verbal violence experienced by teachers from learners while that of MHS stipulated that the use of vulgar language towards educators may lead to the suspension of a learner from the school. However, interviews with various stakeholders from the two schools revealed that learners verbally abused teachers. In this regard THS principal reported:

There is one learner who was troublesome. He is no longer in the school now. In fact, he was using the drugs. He insulted the teacher in the class. It was in February or March this year [2013]. It was in a Grade 9 class and the teacher was
teaching. The causes of these violent incidents of learners against teachers most of the time are the socio-economic factors where some learners abuse drugs and alcohol. The majority of these learners are not staying with their parents who would be expected to guide them about the value of respect. Most of the parents are dead and, therefore, children are left without any adult person teaching them about good and bad things. These socio-economic factors affect the school. Some of the learners come to the school hungry and others are angry. As a result they become violent to teachers in different ways. Just because they come to school full of anger, they sometimes insult teachers or behave in other violent ways towards teachers. We have to ensure that the teachers are teaching and the learners are learning. So sometimes we have to take drastic steps like suspension or expulsion of learners to stabilise teaching and learning (PTesco).

I also found that some learners from the same school simply insulted the teachers in order to make such teachers angry. When the teacher lost his/her temper the learners enjoyed it as the following quotation illustrates:

> These learners insult you or behave in a manner that challenges your emotion. What the learners want to see is you as a teacher become angry. Then they will become excited (HTersee 2).

The learners also indirectly used verbal insults against the teachers thereby pretending to direct such violence against other learners. In this regard, the teachers felt offended. In THS one teacher had this to say:

> The second time the teacher said that the learner actually swore at the teacher. His [the learner] side of the story is that he was actually swearing at another learner which is one and the same thing because if he is verbally abusive to another learner in front of a teacher, he might as well being [regarded as] abusing the teacher herself. The principal informed the disciplinary committee about this matter of a learner being rude and insulting the teacher. The disciplinary committee called the parents of the learner. There was a disciplinary hearing. The learner was suspended (TTurner 5).
Taking disciplinary measures against the learner in the class sometimes led to the learner insulting the teacher. This is captured by the following THS teacher:

You will find that some learners insult teachers. In the class, for example, maybe one learner will make noise and when you try to discipline that learner verbally, the learner talks back and insults you somehow. You see when a learner has done something wrong and you try to call a parent, a very drunk person will show up and he will insult you in the presence of the child. Sometimes you think that maybe it is not the learner’s parent (TTurner 2).

TTurner 6 reported the procedures which the disciplinary committee followed in an attempt to tackle learner to teacher verbal violence.

We do have cases of learners being verbally abusive to the teachers. Teachers have to write down what exactly happened, how the incident happened. Then they give it to us and we write down a letter for the learner to take to their parents. Then we handle that case at disciplinary level. So there have been quite a few cases even this year. Learners will come in with parents, we will sit and discuss and then we will give learners a seven days suspension from the school. Then they come back after that. That is how we handle these issues. However, if that learner is consistent and repeats the same thing now and again, we no longer handle the case. We take the case to the SGB. They handle it at that level (TTurner 6).

Another teacher from the same school also highlighted the effect of talking to a learner who was verbally abusive to this particular teacher:

There was a boy in Grade 9 this year who shouted at me as I was walking in the corridor. When he spoke to me he said he was paying me a compliment. I was wearing sunglasses and he said something about them. I called that boy outside the classroom and I spoke to him for about 45 minutes. I told him that he should never do that. He apologised and he has never done that again (Turner 1).
One of the participants from a focus group of learners from THS indicated that teachers may be subjected to verbal attacks from learners who do not want to be punished in the class:

In my class the teacher gave us homework to do and one learner did not do it. The teacher wanted to punish him for not doing the home work; the learner started swearing at the teacher and not wanting to take the punishment (Focus group boys and girls THS).

Furthermore, the principal of MHS acknowledged the prevalence of verbal violence instigated by some learners against the teachers in his school as thus: “But there are cases where children verbally abuse teachers or pass incident remarks” (PMaster). Verbal violence perpetrated against the teachers by the learners was also done indirectly. The learners pretended to be addressing another person or learner while in actual fact; the message was intended for the teacher. A teacher from MHS had this to say:

Learners often insult teachers indirectly. They will say something mean about the teacher and they will say it to someone else or another learner. Sometimes they will say it in passing, but they won’t say it directly. One of the biggest problems would be an issue of abandoned children. Many of their parents have abandoned them. They live with their grannies, aunties, or someone who was forced by circumstances to take care of them; hence, they don’t trust the adults because in their experience adults have left them. So they easily use vulgar language against any adult. You will find these issues among boys (TMediator 4).

TMediator 5 reported that the social ills which girls were exposed to such as sexual abuse frustrated them. As a result, these learners turned to be violent against the teachers:

Among girls I found issues of sexual abuse. There is a recent case where a girl was raped numerous times throughout her life. Many of the children in the school are HIV positive as a result of rape and sexual abuse. So it is those deep issues which require a lot of counselling and unfortunately when you are chasing the
syllabus you don’t have time to conduct counselling. So it would be helpful if we could have a person who is dedicated to counselling in the school. You see all these problems frustrate children and they easily get irritated. They do bad things like disrespecting or insulting teachers because of problems and frustrations.

A participant from a focus group of boys and girls emphasised that the situation was bad in the school. In particular, learners swore at the teachers: “In our school it’s bad. Learners behave badly towards teachers in our school, like they swear at the teachers and say stuff to them” (Focus group boys and girls MHS).

One learner recognised shouting at the teacher by a parent as a way of encouraging learners to act violently against teachers.

The parents encourage their children to behave badly towards teachers because you will find a parent shouting or insulting the teachers in the presence of their children and the children also do the same thing (Focus group girls MHS).

The findings suggest a link between drug abuse and learner-to-teacher verbal violence; thus demonstrating that accessibility of drugs by learners contributed to violent behaviour of learners towards their teachers (South African Council of Educators, 2011). Some learners who did not live with their parents at THS tended to verbally violate some teachers. The advocates of social learning theory stress the role of a family as an important socialising institution (Swartz et al., 2004). In the absence of parents the family is crippled hence children may not learn socially accepted behaviour. However, some parents of MHS learners seem to have been promoting learner-to-teacher verbal violence by instigating verbal violence against some teachers in the presence of learners. Social learning theorists suggest that children learn most behaviour through observation and modelling (Bandura, 1977; Santrock, 2008). Other socio-economic factors such as poverty, HIV/AIDs and sexual abuse appeared to affect some learners negatively. In turn, such learners verbally abused teachers.
5.2.5 Ill-treatment of new teachers in the school

The findings from interviews with the participants indicated that newly recruited teachers in both schools were subjected by some learners to violent treatment in various ways. Underscoring this kind of treatment one THS teacher asserted:

Our learners have a funny way of mistreating new teachers or student teachers. I do not know what happens in their mind. When you try to teach as a new teacher, the learners interrupt or disturb you. They don’t listen. They try to play around and disturb learners who want to concentrate on what the teachers is saying (TTurner1).

Some of the new teachers feared learners and then the learners capitalised on that to mistreat these teachers. This was highlighted by another THS teacher:

When I first came to this school, I was afraid of learners because I knew the history of the school. I was scared, but I had no chance since I had to work. When I went to the class for the first time, learners could see that I was scared and they took advantage of that (TTurner2).

In MHS, new teachers were reported as struggling to control the learners because the learners subjected them to different kinds of violent acts which included refusal to follow instructions and back chatting:

I haven’t experienced any physical violence, but during my first year at this school the children tested me a lot because I was the new teacher in the school. For example, if I give instructions they would back chat. They would act like they were not listening to me. You know that kind of a thing, just to make me feel that I was not the one who was in control of the classroom (TMediator1).

The behaviour of learners towards new teachers posed a big challenge. The new teachers in the two schools could hardly control the learners and as such the process of teaching and learning was compromised. In a way, this was violence because the concerned teachers’ feelings were hurt.
5.2.6 Disrespecting teachers and refusal to obey instructions

In terms of Learners’ Code of Conduct in THS, learners are required not to render themselves guilty of disregard or undermining of authority. In MHS the Learners’ Code of Conduct states that “No learner shall be insolent to an educator or staff member.” Notwithstanding the said stipulations, the learners’ tendency to disrespect teachers and refusal to follow instructions given by the teachers was prevalent in both schools. In this regard, the principal of THS expressed his views as follows:

There are learners who repeatedly misbehave. One boy in grade 11 was suspended because he disrespected a teacher in the class. When he came back from suspension, he was hostile to the same teacher (PTesco).

A HoD from THS indicated: “The common one [violence perpetrated by learners against the teachers] is resistance to execute instructions (HTersee2)”. Emphasising the position of the teacher as an adult as well as the authority another THS HoD said:

A teacher in the class is an authority and adult so it is unacceptable for learners to rebel against the teacher. I think that kind of behaviour emanates from the socio-economic problems. Most of the learners in this school are the orphans and some learners do not stay with their parents. There is no authority figure at their homes. As a result they sometimes see teachers at the school as authority that they are not used to because at home these learners are authorities themselves. Sometimes they view some young educators like their brothers or sisters whom they ignore instructions from them at home. When the learner refuses to take instructions from the teacher, problems start (HTersee3).

A THS teacher expressed the view that learners disrespected the teachers. She further, said that teachers resorted to doing unplanned things in order to reclaim their authority:

Also our learners do not respect us. I think that is violence enough. They will push you to the extremes where you will do things that you have never thought of doing about the learner (TTurner2).
TTurner 3 spoke about how she felt about being disrespected by learners. She pointed out some of the possible effects of learner to teacher violence:

> It is irritating. Sometimes you feel like you don’t want to come to the school. I started teaching in this school in 2010. There were times when I felt like quitting teaching because it was very difficult. The learners in this school were unruly in such a way that I felt like going away to look for another job. I felt so stressful. You see you can’t perform under circumstances like this. You can’t perform at the standard that you are expected to perform (TTurner 3).

One of the teachers from THS talked about the way in which she tackled the issue of learners who disrespect the teachers:

> What I normally do is to calm down and let the learner speak until he calms down. After the lesson, I call that learner and talk to him or her alone because it is easier to talk to the learner alone than trying to discipline him or her in front of other learners. If you argue with a learner in the presence of others, he can talk until he is the one who wins. He will keep talking because he wants other learners to see him as a boss. If a learner is arguing with you and you keep quiet the learner also keeps quiet. After the lesson I call the learner and speak to him or her alone. When I speak to the learner, I find that his or her behaviour changes. He is not that learner who was talking about anything he liked while he was in the class (TTurner 2).

From a focus group interview with the girls, it emerged that learners sometimes disrespected teachers who seemed to be young.

> There was one incident where the learners were underestimating a student teacher because she was young. The learners called her names and when she talked, they also talked (Focus group girls THS).

One of the participants from the same group of girls reported that from a focus group that some learners did not view teachers who appeared to be young as the adult figure who should be obeyed:
They said they would not listen to the teacher because she was just a small girl. I as a member of RCL tried to stop them, but I was also scared of them. The teacher left the classroom and went to the principal to report the case. The principal came to our class and told us to respect all the teachers (Focus group girls THS).

In MHS, the participants also reported that some learners disrespected the teachers for various reasons. However, the principal from this school was of the view that teachers who planned their lessons were likely to have learners disrespecting them and disrupting lessons:

Some teachers go to class unprepared and as a result learners do whatever they like. In the end there are disciplinary and violence issues which happen in such teachers’ classes. Planning is the most important thing that any teacher should do. As management, we encourage teachers to plan their lessons and those teachers who prepare do not come to us to report that learners are disruptive, misbehaving or not cooperative in the class. They are able to keep learners busy throughout the lessons (PMaster).

Sharing the same sentiments was one HoD from the same school who claimed:

Proper preparation on the part of the teacher can alleviate discipline and violence problems. A lot of our problems stem from the fact that a lot of our teachers are doing the bare minimum of preparations. So a child goes into the class and finds a teacher ill prepared for the lesson. Since the teachers are ill prepared for the lesson, they are sitting at the chair pretending to be busy while the children are left to do whatever they like and this is where the discipline problems come about. If the teachers go to class prepared, we will have zero disciplinary problems (HMiller 2).

HMiller 3 spoke about various factors which caused learners to disrespect the teachers:
Ninety percent of our children come from single parent homes where they are adults in their own homes. They are being forced to mother their younger siblings because the parent who is supposed to be there is tied up in a job and unavailable etc. Another problem in this community is drugs and alcohol abuse. So you get parents who are in absentia because they are either drugged up or they are drunk all the time. Children, who are forced by circumstances to perform parents’ roles at home and then behave like children at school, will be confused and stressed. So sometimes they become rude to teachers.

In addition, one MHS teacher elaborated the root causes of learners to disrespect the teachers. Since, the school is a multi-racial in nature, the teacher linked lack of respect by Coloured learners as the main ingredient contributing to how learners in the school behaved towards their teachers. While the Coloured learners treated teachers as they did to their parents, the black learners were influenced by this behaviour. However, this teacher’s understanding was that the coloured learners in particular and African learners in general failed to uphold the values which demanded them to show respect to adults. In this case the adults were the teachers. In her own words, the teacher said:

We have African and Coloured learners in this school, so we know from way back that Coloureds do not have respect for teachers and even at home. They are not taught how to behave and when they find themselves in a school situation they are rude to teachers because they are used to speak to their parents anyhow. They do not have those values of showing respects to adults. African learners copy what is done by the coloured learner that is why the school is like this. They know that they are taught to respect adults at home, but when they see other children misbehaving, they also do the same thing. It is their attitude (TMediator 1).

Another teacher from the same school believed that parents of MHS learners emphasised the rights of the learners and, as result, learners disrespected teachers:

Besides, in the community that we teach in the parents often tell their children that the teachers have no right to shout at them or to tell them this and that. So if a teacher is sitting here and has no rights while children have all the rights, the children also assume that they also have a right not to learn hence they abuse
teachers and disrupt lessons whenever they feel like doing so. As a teacher you feel bad and your confidence is injured when you are disrespected or insulted by learners. You say to yourself ‘What am I doing here?’ (TMediator3).

TMediator 5 suggested that learners learnt behaviour of disrespect from home and transferred it to the school:

You know, there are learners where the history of disrespecting adults may be because of circumstances at home like socio-economic issues. All those things contribute to their behaviour. They come to the school and when the teacher threatens to hit them, they get into the defence mode and they want to hit back because they are used to this kind of violence at home. They have learnt to hit back at the adults at home. So adults are abusing them. However, one of the steps which we usually take whenever the learner is disrupting the lesson is to tell him to leave the class so that we can carry on with the lesson. Then we can deal with him after the lesson.

In two separate discussions with learners, it was found that some learners did not only refuse to follow instructions in the classroom, but they also ignored teachers’ instructions given outside the classroom. The following quotations illustrate this refusal:

Learners refuse to do the work given by teachers. They say they are tired. They say bad things to teachers (Focus group boys).

Sometimes they stay out of class and when the teacher shouts at them to go to class they refuse. It's bad! It's bad! (Focus group boys and girls).

From the learners’ perspective some learners used violence against the teachers after the latter had directed violence against the former:

Basically, what I can say is that before learners disrespect teachers, they are being disrespected by teachers first. In this school, you find racist teachers who call learners names. So how can we respect teachers like that (Focus group boys and girls MHS).
During data generation, I witnessed some learners in MHS ignoring the teachers when they were instructed to go to class. This happened after break.

The findings suggest that teachers in the two schools felt violated by learners who disrespected them and refused to follow instructions. Some factors were identified as the cause of this disrespect. Such factors emanated from the home and the community. Home plays a central role in socialising a child and ultimately how the child behaves at school towards the teachers. However, the absence of parents affected the fundamental foundation of their socialisation where such parents would guide them on societal norms of respecting adults and the need to obey the instructions of adults. Bronfenbrenner (1994) views home and school as systems that are interrelated where the problem in one system is likely to affect another system. In this study, the problem of lack of respect for adults which started at home was transferred to the schools. The teachers who were often victims tended to be younger teachers. Learners’ tendency to disrespect the teachers and refusal to follow instructions given by the teachers negatively affected the teachers and the process of teaching and learning. In some instances, angry teachers who were aggrieved by learners’ refusal to follow instructions, left classroom and as such did not teach learners. Some teachers felt like leaving the teaching profession. At the level of community, some parents of MHS learners abused alcohol and drugs and, therefore, did not have time to take care of their learners. This vacuum created by the said parents was filled by some learners who assumed dual roles of being parents at home and children at the school. Such role confusion exerted stress on some learners who in turn found themselves disrespecting teachers and disobeying their instructions.

The findings also point to a lack of planning on the part of some MHS teachers as a contributing factor for learners to disrespect such teachers. Polka (2007) contends that planning is a fundamental managerial task for successful operation of the school. In this study, the teachers who did not plan their lessons were viewed as creating a classroom environment where learners could be free to do whatever they wanted including acts which teachers considered to be violent. In such an environment some learners also tended to misunderstand and misinterpret their rights by thinking that they had the rights to behave anyhow in the classrooms.
5.2.7 Nicknaming as violence

Nicknaming was considered as violence by teachers and learners. Learners used these names in the presence of teachers. As a result, the teachers became aware that they had been given names by their own learners. In this regard, one HoD from THS noted:

For example there is one educator who is older than us and learners call her (Gogo) old woman. But she doesn’t like that because she is a teacher. She does not like the title that the learners give to her. Learners give teachers names no matter how they look or behave. Sometimes when you are in the class you will hear those names and you can associate them with something that you usually do or the way in which you look. As a teacher you feel degraded somehow (HTersee 4).

THS learners regarded nicknaming as a way in which learners disrespected teachers. This was noted by a participant from a focus group of learners who asserted: “In our school the learners do not respect teachers. They give names to the teachers” (Focus group boys and girls THS).

At MHS, it was also found that learners assigned nicknames to the teachers. Although some teachers were aware that learners gave them names, they did not mind.

You will find that learners give teachers nicknames. When the teacher comes to class, the learners will say that name. Some of them do not listen in class when the teacher is teaching. They talk among themselves. The teachers know that learners give them nicknames, so they don’t care. Sometimes they don’t even care when learners are not listening during the lesson (Focus group boys and girls MHS).

Teachers were given names on the basis of such factors as age, behaviour, looks and what they say. In a way this constituted violence because teachers did not like it. It made them angry and they considered it as degrading.
5.2.8 Racism

Learners’ Code of Conduct for MHS state that discriminatory behaviour and or remarks as an offence. In this regard it can be inferred that learners were mandated by the Code of Conduct to avoid discriminatory behaviour or remarks against the teachers. Racism was found to be a form of violence which occurred in MHS. As I indicated in chapter four, the population of learners in this school consisted of Coloureds, Blacks and Indians. The members of staff also belonged to the mentioned racial groups. In THS all the learners were black and the majority of the teachers were black. There was only one Indian teacher who had been in the school for a long time. The findings from THS show that there were no signs of racism in this school. In MHS, most participants were of the view that racism was prevalent while the Principal said “We haven’t had racism issues between teachers and learners” (PMaster).

Indian and African teachers were reported to be mostly affected by racism while their Coloured counterparts hardly complained about racism. This illustrated the legacy of apartheid. The place in which the school is located was designated for Coloured people during apartheid and as such it is still seen as the Coloured area. As HMiller 1 claimed:

I think it is important, it is basically that feeling, you know, ‘why don’t you go back to your own schools’ this is Coloured area. However, the teachers obviously will be affected, o.k. some more than others.

One Teacher from MHS summarised her own observation of the situation as follows:

My observation in this school is that learners treat teachers of different races differently. They have a lot of respect for coloured teachers. They have a lesser respect for Indian and black teachers. So that like promotes the level of violence they act towards teachers. They make comments which you hear, they say from time to time about black teachers can’t speak the language and Indian teachers speak with a funny accent. These are the teachers who they display more disrespect towards (TMediator 2).
Another teacher was more specific that the Coloured learners in general were the perpetrators of racism against African and Indian teachers. The indicators of racism were reported to be racist remarks, negative attitude towards teachers of a different race, disrespect, rudeness, noise and sabotaging of the lesson.

There is racism in our school. For some reasons, racism is alive and kicking in the school. You will find that learners will make racist remarks like you know. Most of the time it is generally, as I said Coloured learners who make racist remarks towards Indian and African teachers. They are disrespectful towards Indian and African teachers yet you will get Coloured teachers who will treat those learners badly. They will be rude to them. They will swear them. They would even hit them. But those Coloured learners would not retaliate or respond in a negative way. It is like, they still haven’t got that racism out of their heads and it took us long to gain respect. I have been here for twelve years now and it took me a long time to gain respect of the learners. If you are an Indian or African they would come to your class and sabotage your lesson. They will sit at the back, make noise, and pass things around. You would not know who it is and they will not even give you their right names. Racism is alive in this school (TMediator 6).

The learners reported that black teachers were undermined while Coloured teachers were respected by the learners:

Learners undermine teachers. For example when there is a Coloured teacher they listen and when there is a black teacher they take him like their age mate. They respect coloured teachers not black teachers. Sometimes they respect male teachers and not female teachers (Focus group girlsMHS).

They are undermined by Coloured learners in most cases (Focus group boys MHS).

On the contrary, one of the participants from a focus group of boys indicated that black learners used isiZulu to insult the teachers who did not understand this language:
Black learners sometimes say bad things to teachers. If a teacher does not know Zulu, they will insult this teacher in isiZulu (Focus group girls and boys MHS).

What emerges from the findings is that language was one of the indicators of racism which learners used to ‘other’ teachers who were of a different racial group. Racism can be shown or expressed through different ways which include discrimination (Berman & Paradies, 2010). Language was used by some learners to express racist remarks against some teachers. It was on the basis of language that Coloured learners, inter alia, seemed to discriminate against African and Indian teachers. In the same way, the African learners enjoyed using isiZulu to insult non speakers of isiZulu language. While there were African teachers who did not speak isiZulu in this school and, therefore, the issue of racism against them in this regard may be out of the question, the majority of the teachers who did not speak isiZulu were Coloureds and Indians. Racism, as a form of violence was perpetuated by the apartheid government which organised South African society along racial lines (Vally, Dolombisa & Portues, 1999) and thus emphasised difference rather than unity.

5.2.9 Xenophobia

The analysis of documents, particularly the Learners’ Code of Conduct, revealed that MHS had not adopted any policy against xenophobia. The teachers in MHS did not experience xenophobic violence since all of them were South Africans. The findings from the interviews with stakeholders from MHS revealed that learners sometimes expressed xenophobic remarks against foreign African teachers. The principal of MHS, for example, had this to say:

We had cases where learners use the word kwerekwere to foreign teachers and I addressed the learners on this issue to tell them that what they were saying was not acceptable. I explained to them why those types of words are not acceptable. At the moment we have got three foreign teachers. One of them complained and the other two teachers have never complained (PMaster).

One HoD viewed the xenophobic attitudes which learners showed against foreign African teachers as a major problem in the school. He was empathetic that perhaps the
manner in which xenophobia was dealt with in South Africa as a country influenced the attitudes of learners against African foreign teachers:

Our foreign teachers have got a serious stumbling block in our school. They really have to be strong because the way our country has been handling xenophobia has not been effective. There is xenophobic kind of attitude that comes out from the learners in our school. This generally happens in other KZN schools as well (HM 3).

A foreign African teacher who experienced xenophobia had this to say:

After I entered the class one learner started saying in isiZulu ‘kwerekwere.’ It happens that this is what learners say when they refer to the foreign African teachers. It was a Zulu girl learner who claimed that she was talking to another learner not me. But I heard her saying kwerekwere because for her any African teacher that doesn’t come from South Africa is a kwerekwere. It means may be you are not up to the standard as a teacher. I reported to the principal. The principal came to the class and addressed the girl and she apologised (TM 3).

One of the classrooms which I visited was taught by a foreign African teacher. I realised that he was struggling to settle the learners down so that he could start the lesson. Most of the learners kept talking and it was really chaotic. They kept quiet for a short time. After the lesson, I went outside and the learners also went out because it was time for break. Two boys came to me and asked me if their teacher was my brother of which I said yes. I told them that I came from Lesotho and spoke Sesotho. Apparently one of them came from Eastern Cape and spoke Sesotho. Upon hearing that I spoke Sesotho, he was quick to point out that he understood my language and he thought that I was a kwerekwere. When I asked what the meaning of the word was. He appeared to be ashamed of what he said and he replied that other learners say teachers from Nigeria were kwerekweres. In a way, what transpires in the classroom and my conversation with learners confirmed the view that African teachers who are not South Africans experienced xenophobia from learners.
The findings reveal that foreign African teachers in MHS experienced xenophobia instigated against them by some learners who used derogatory terms such as Makwerekwere. This term is used by South African citizens to refer to foreign African nationals who are perceived by the former to speak strange and unintelligible languages (Hemson, 2011). It is also used by South African citizens who consider as inferior people from other African countries (Manik, 2013). The foreign African teachers did not only experience verbal xenophobic attacks, but they were also exposed to some learners’ prejudices portrayed by an arrogant refusal to show respect to the said teachers in the classrooms. The xenophobic attitudes which foreign teachers experienced in this school can be understood from a broader social context of South African society. There is consensus among researchers (Hemson, 2011; Manik, 2013; Singh, 2006) that xenophobia is a phenomenon which exists among South African citizens. It reached a high climax in 2008 where many African nationals were attacked by South African society. Thus the xenophobia perpetrated by learners against foreign teachers at MHS was a reflection of the manner in which some South Africans sometimes treat foreign African nationals. Interpreted from social learning theory perspective, learners who were xenophobic modelled such behaviour from some members of the general public.

5.2.10 Violence against teachers’ property

Violence directed against teachers’ property especially their cars was found to be a problem in both schools. However, the two schools have policies in place which make it illegal for learners to damage the teachers’ property. The Learners’ Code of Conduct in THS, for example, directed learners to refrain from “wilful damage to or defacing of and pollution of property belonging to learners, educators and the school.” Although some learners damaged the cars of some teachers in MHS, it is clearly stated that vandalism is not allowed on the notice placed outside the building close to the school gate. The notice was visible to anybody entering the school compound. In addition, the learners’ Code of Conduct in this school mandated that:

Each learner has the right to be secure in person and property and the responsibility to uphold honest behaviour and security in the school, to
show respect for others’ property and not damage, deface, steal or in any way interfere with any property which is not his/her own.

In other words, the learners were entitled to learn in an environment where they and their belongings were safe. However, they also were expected to avoid destroying other people’s possessions. The findings from the interviews showed that the learners from the two cases undermined the mandate of the Code of Conducts. The principal of THS acknowledged being aware that some teachers’ cars were damaged by the learners. However, he was quick to indicate that the learners who perpetrated this type of violence were not known:

There are few cases where teachers’ cars are being stoned, scratched, and have written insults by learners. I know of cases where learners wrote insults on the teachers’ cars when those learners could not be seen by anybody. They write insults using bottles and stones. One of the teacher's car still has the insults (PTesco).

A HoD from the same school pointed out that:

The learners also slashed the tyres of the car for one teacher who left the school as well. The teacher was a female. Even now if your car is dirty they write some nasty things on it (HTersee 3).

The learners highlighted a possible cause of learners’ violent behaviour against the teachers’ cars:

Learners scratch the cars of the teachers. For example, when a teacher has shouted at a learner and the learner is angry. He will write swearing words on that teacher’s car (Focus group boys and girls THS).

In MHS some learners damaged some teachers’ cars as a way of retaliating following the punishment they received from certain teachers which they did not like. The following participants described the kinds of objects used by some learners to damage teachers’ cars and the manner in which learners applied violence on the said cars:
We also had the occasion, out of school, where we had the principal’s car being stoned by learners like when you have the meeting in the evening for example. Since the principal lives in the new section, he has to drive through the area where most of the learners live, so now and again his car has been stoned on his way to home. We had similar isolated cases for teachers too (DMax).

Learners do destroy the property of teachers. In one year, for example, they scratched the cars of some teachers. The learners were not happy about certain teachers. It all started from what the teacher expected the learners to do. All that culminated into discipline problems. If there have been confrontation between a learner and a teacher about certain subjects and then the learner is not satisfied about the punishment that was administered by that particular person. Then he feels that the teacher did him wrong. So to get back to the teacher is by destroying the teacher’s property. This societal problem arose because in South Africa there are lots of service delivery protests. Sometimes angry protesters destroy the property. They block roads and burn tyres. They destroy the property of community leaders (TMediator 2).

Apart from damaging the teachers’ cars some learners found a way of locking them. As the following participant puts it: “In this school there are incidents where learners scratch teachers’ cars and key them. Things like that” (TMediator 5).

What emerges from the findings is that some learners damaged the property of teachers as a way of taking revenge against the teachers. In a way, they relieved anger by directing violence to the property of teachers who might have angered them.

**5.3 Emerging issues**

The findings show that teachers experienced various forms of violence. Some appeared to be mild while others were serious. For example, physical violence instigated by the learners against the teachers was found to be a very serious act of learner-on-teacher
violence. Although it rarely occurred, it had far reaching consequences. The victimised teachers suffered psychologically and physically with one extreme case where one teacher actually died at THS. This form of violence also created bad images or reputations for the concerned schools. THS in particular became notorious about learner-on-teacher violence since a learner killed a teacher in this school. The findings also revealed that most of the teachers who suffered physical violence were females while the learner perpetrators were boys. Other forms of violence seem to be an expression of violence that is prevalent in the larger South African society. Racism and xenophobia which some teachers experienced at MHS, for example, are forms of violence prevalent in South Africa as a country. The macro system of Bronfebrrenner’s ecosystemic theory suggest that what happens at the level of a society may affect school as another system (Santrock, 2008).

The findings indicate that the two schools, in line with Learners’ Code of Conduct, adopted management measures as a way of tackling violence. Such measures were put in place as a reaction or response to learner-on-teacher violence. Evidence presented under the themes of physical violence and threats, for instance, shows that the learners who physically attacked the teachers in the two schools were suspended or expelled. Suspension or expulsion of learners as a way of tackling learner to teacher violence suggests task oriented leadership where school managers seemed to be more concerned about task than promoting harmonious relationship between the perpetrators and victims of violence. Under the theme of threats, for example, the principal of THS stressed that drastic measures such as suspending or expelling learners were necessary in order ensure that teaching and learning was not disturbed. Data presented under the theme of verbal violence show that a teacher from MHS was of the view that teachers were unable to provide counselling to some learners due to syllabus demands. Teaching and learning process is regarded as the main task in schools (Tarter & Hoy, 1988). While it was essential to create and maintain an environment where teachers would execute their teaching tasks effectively, relationship aspects seemed to be a lesser concern for school managers in the two schools.

The findings further reveal that the participants in the two research schools were aware that multiple factors caused learner to teacher violence. However, actions against the perpetrators of violence were based on the nature of violence committed as stipulated in
the Learners’ Code of Conduct. The causes of violence were not considered in determining appropriate action in dealing with learner to teacher violence. Thus, flexible leadership styles as proposed by advocates of situational leadership (Gates et al., 1976; McGuire, 2011; Werner, 2011) did not inform the leadership practices in the two participant school.

The importance of planning as a managerial task which could curb violence was emphasised by the participants as indicated under the theme of disrespecting teachers and refusal to follow teachers’ instructions. Planning guided the teachers who planned their lessons on actions and steps to follow in pursuit of school goals (Koontz & Weihrich, 1988). As a result, they did not experience violence from their learners.

In general, the findings point to the absence of leadership in the two schools. The principals and other members of school management teams seemed to be struggling to create and maintain an environment where teachers would experience less violence. New teachers, for instance, were said to be experiencing violence while they were teaching. This illustrates that positional leaders failed to guide the said teachers on how to tackle learner to teacher violence. House (1996) suggests that positional leaders should supervise their subordinates by making a clear and easy path to be followed. The leaders are expected to guide followers so that followers can tackle complex tasks (Gordon & Alston, 2009). However, some teachers also appeared to be ineffective as leaders. Instead of being violently victimised by learners, teachers were expected to be seen providing direction to learners for acceptable behaviour. As indicated in chapter one, South African teachers are mandated legally to be leaders (Department of Education, 2000c). In addition, distributed leadership is based on the principles which advocates that leadership should be is exercised by multiple leaders including the teachers (Gronn, 2002).

The findings also suggest a dearth of leadership on the part of learners. When some learners instigated violence against the teachers other learners tended to be silent or laughed. They might have chosen to remain silent due to fear that the perpetrators of violence would harm them. The other possible reason might be that they preferred to protect their fellow learners especially in situations where violent acts against the teachers were performed in the absence of such teachers. Such situations include when
learners wrote insults about the teachers, and when learners damaged the cars of some teachers. Leadership as a process of influence is available to any one (Northouse, 2009). Distributed leadership is based on the assumption that schools are faced with multiple challenges and such leadership should be dispersed throughout the organisation so knowledge of various leaders can be used to address the challenges (Hatcher, 2005). Such challenges include school violence.

Although the findings indicate that there was generally weak leadership in the two participant schools, it was also found that some THS teachers exercised leadership effectively and, therefore, succeeded in influencing some learners to change their violent behaviour. The influences of transformational leaders create a sense of support and respect in followers. This, in turn, made followers to be committed to change (Hallinger, 2003). Such teachers adopted transformational leadership approach to inspire, motivate and encourage some learners to stop being verbally abusive to teachers. During this process the teachers, as classroom leaders, focused on the learners who were the perpetrators of violence.
CHAPTER 6: TEACHER_ON_LEARNER VIOLENCE

6.1 Introduction

In this Chapter I present and discuss the views of the participants regarding violence instigated by the teachers against learners in the two participant schools. Informed by the nature of data, I also highlight and discuss leadership and management issues as I proceed with presentation and discussion of violence experienced by learners from their teachers. The findings from the interviews with these stakeholders are supplemented by relevant data obtained from documents and observations.

The chapter is organised into four main themes, namely; contesting views about corporal punishment, assault, verbal and racially motivated violence. The chapter closes with a section on issues emerging from the findings. As indicated in chapter four, pseudonyms are used in reference to the participants and schools. For the purposes of clarity, pseudonyms for the principals are preceded by the letter P where P denotes principal while D is written before deputy principal’s fictitious name where D stands for deputy. H and T are written before HoDs’ and teachers’ pseudonyms respectively. H stands for HoD and T denotes teacher.

6.2. Contesting views about corporal punishment

The findings revealed that participants were aware that corporal punishment is abolished in South African schools though some teachers in the two schools still used it. The participants provided differing views pertaining to the use of corporal punishment in the two participant schools. In this study I adopted the South African Department of Education’s (2000) definition of corporal punishment. It included, inter alia such teachers’ acts as pushing or pulling a learner with force, hitting a learner using an object or a hand, paddling, pinching and spanking as well as making a learner to do exercises by force (Department of Education, 2000a). Punishment of learners in the two schools was regulated by Learners’ Code of Conducts. The Learners’ Code of Conduct in THS stipulates that “Every learner has a right to be treated and punished in a humane way, leading to his/ her development.” In THS, the practice of using corporal punishment
was overt while MHS adopted a covert strategy. I observed that some teachers in THS walked around the school carrying sticks and others went to class carrying the hosepipes. After the break, the HoDs drove learners into the classrooms to wait for the teachers. Some of the HoDs carried sticks and according to them, they carried sticks to scare learners so that they could move quickly to go into the classroom. I saw some teachers administering corporal punishment on learners on several occasions. On the contrary, I rarely saw teachers walking around carrying sticks in MHS. Some teachers kept sticks in their classrooms. The discussion in this subsection is further divided into sub-themes which are presented below. While literature reviewed in chapter two suggests that corporal punishment is a form of violence, the views of the participants about the use of corporal punishment cannot be overlooked. As a result, I present and discuss views of the participants below regarding the use of corporal punishment.

6.2.1 We know corporal punishment is not allowed.

In MHS various stakeholders revealed that they were aware that corporal punishment had been abolished yet some teachers still administered it on learners. While the principal of this school acknowledged that the teachers used this kind of punishment, he also highlighted the fact that it is illegal: “There are incidents where teachers pinched the learners and this is not acceptable. They are not allowed to use stick or any cane” (PMaster).

A HoD from the same school reported that he warned the teachers that using corporal punishment was illegal:

Even where the teacher is using the stick or ruler to discipline children, I have also warned them about the fact that it is illegal and what could eventually happen should they continue doing that (HMiller 3).

Learners were also aware that corporal punishment was illegal even though some teachers applied it. In this regard, one learner from a focus group discussion lamented: “Teachers are not allowed to hit learners, but some of them do” (Girls focus group MHS).
The illegality of corporal punishment was also highlighted by different stakeholders from THS. The principal of THS had this to say:

The government, through passing of the law, has said no to corporal punishment. All the teachers know about this law. So we always tell the teachers not to use corporal punishment. Some of them listen. Others do not listen. They go to the class carrying the sticks. But we always tell them that they are doing it at their own risk. Again, we make the teachers aware that the learners look up to us. These learners know that corporal punishment is banned and if we use corporal punishment, they may also not respect school rules (PTesco).

As I indicated above, I observed some THS teachers going to class carrying hosepipes. Thus, when PTesco reported that some teachers went to class carrying sticks, he was actually referring to a daily practice which was visible to everybody in the school. The principal also pointed out that school managers attempted to persuade teachers to stop administering corporal punishment but rather set a good example to learners by respecting the law. However, the statement that the school managers ‘tell them [teachers] that they are doing it at their own risk,’ seems to suggest that as far as corporal punishment was concerned, teachers could do as they pleased. In this way the school managers appeared to have adopted a laissez-faire leadership approach (McGuire, 2011).

One HoD from THS expressed the view that corporal punishment was illegal “When we use corporal punishment it is not right. The government has banned it in schools” (HTersee 2). A teacher from the same school noted that they still had to resort to the use of corporal punishment even though; it is illegal to do so. She claimed: “We understand that corporal punishment was banned. Sometimes we have to use it even though it is not legal” (TTurner 2).

One of the learners from a boys’ focus group was uncertain as to whether or not corporal punishment was legal. However, he reported that “The teachers hit us, but if I am not mistaken, the government does not allow them to hit us” (Boys Focus group THS).
The participants in the two schools were aware that corporal punishment is illegal in South African schools. However, some teachers in the two schools continued using corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure. This raises a question as to why was it that some teachers were still reluctant to stop using corporal punishment on learners. It appeared that some teachers took for granted the warning from school managers that they should stop administering corporal punishment on learners. The school managers also appeared to have not pursued this warning further. In this regard, school leadership seemed to be failing schools. A study that was conducted by Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) in four rural South African schools found that the principals were able to persuade teachers to stop using corporal punishment while also assuring parents that other, alternative, disciplinary measures would be used to discipline learners. The findings of Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) further show that it was a difficult task for the said principals to convince stakeholders that corporal punishment should not be used because corporal punishment concerns deeply held parents and teachers’ beliefs about disciplining a child. However, those principals continued to communicate with stakeholders until the latter were convinced. It is, therefore, apparent that effective leadership has the potential to inspire followers to change their practices. In the case of this study, the school leadership’s inability to motivate teachers to desist from using corporal punishment suggests weak leadership. The principals seemed to display absence of leadership by failing to motivate teachers to find alternative ways of disciplining learners without using corporal punishment.

6.2.2 It is a corrective measure

Corporal punishment was viewed as an essential part of corrective or disciplinary measure by some participants in the two schools. Underscoring this view, HMiler 1 from MHS indicated: “In certain classes learners who do not do the homework are made to stand on the chairs and the teacher hits them on the legs.”

A teacher from the same school argued that teachers used corporal punishment on learners with the aim of correcting their behaviour. He asserted “But I don’t think a teacher can hit the learner just for entertainment. A teacher hits the learner to correct him.” (TMediator 2) Sharing the same sentiments was Mediator 6 who pointed out that corporal punishment may be utilised by the teacher to discipline a learner. She indicated
that “The teacher may hit the learner with the intention to discipline or reprimand the learner.”

HTersee 1 from THS was of the view that corporal punishment was used by the teachers for the benefit of the learners.

But I see that some learners cannot work unless you use corporal punishment. So it is like a teacher who is concerned about pushing the learners to do their work resort to the use of corporal punishment. In a sense it is used for the learners’ benefit.

In relation to TTersee 1’s view I visited a Grade 9 class at THS. On that particular day, the learners had a debate session. One learner refused to take part in debates complaining that the teacher allowed visitors to come to their class when it was her turn to debate. The learner was referring to me as a visitor because the teacher introduced me as such. The teacher ignored her and allowed other learners to debate. After the lesson the teacher administered corporal punishment on the learner informing the learner that she was in charge of the class and learners were not expected to refuse when she instructed them to do school work. It may be deduced that this learner was punished for her benefit if the situation is understood from Tersee1’s perspective. One teacher from THS believed that corporal punishment may be used to make learners obedient. She said: “Corporal punishment inflicts pain and nobody likes pain. In order to avoid pain learners will do anything to ensure that they are not punished” (TTurner 6).

One of the learners elaborated the painful nature of corporal punishment thus: “It is painful and embarrassing because when you are beaten other learners will be looking at you and some of them laugh at you” (Girls’ focus group THS).

The use of corporal punishment was viewed by some teachers in the two schools as a punitive measure used against learners who failed to do what the teachers expected them to do. Although one teacher mentioned the painful effect of corporal punishment, the participants’ understanding was that learners were likely to avoid undesirable behaviour in order to avoid pain. It, therefore, seemed that the participants did not view
corporal punishment as violence but rather as a tool that may be utilised to discourage undesirable behaviour from learners.

6.2.3 It is African culture

Any organisation, including the school, has its own culture premised on shared values, beliefs and norms (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Some participants linked the use of corporal punishment to African culture. HMiller 2 from MHS, for example, did not only pin point the use of corporal punishment as culture but he also expressed a sense of doubt about what is regarded as corporal punishment:

I don’t know what corporal punishment is as far as I am concerned because it has to do with values and the culture. That is how we were raised. As an African, I know that corporal punishment was used when I was in school up to when I was in grade 12. But I did not leave the school. In a way that helped me in as far as education is concerned.

TMediator 3 described her observation of the attitudes of Coloured and African learners towards the use of corporal punishment at MHS:

I don’t physically punish learners. However, I have seen it happen and I found that, especially with African learners, learners like that sort of punishment. They seem to prefer that as opposed to having their parents being called to the school whereas the coloured learners in the school, physical violence does not work on them because they would rather call their parents to the school and argue on their behalf. So you have to weigh the situation.

Another teacher from the same school reported that black learners supported the use of corporal punishment and sometimes requested teachers to use it:

Sometimes learners, particularly black learners, will encourage the teacher to hit them pointing out that they are misbehaving because the teacher does not hit them. When I first came to this school, they used to tell me to hit them. They said
the teacher who left used to hit them and they behaved well. But I must hit only those who are misbehaving (TMediator 1).

Similar findings emerged from the interviews with stakeholders at THS. The idea that corporal punishment was part and parcel of African culture was mentioned by some participants. PTesco argued that corporal punishment was a form of punishment which had been used on some teachers when they were learners. He was also of the view that parents still used it at home despite existence of the law which prohibits it:

But the main problem is that the law is against something which has been done for a long time. Corporal punishment was used by our teachers on us. We also used it before this law was passed. The parents use it at home. So these learners know how they are punished at home when they misbehave.

HTersee 4 was more specific about the effectiveness of corporal punishment in schools that were predominantly attended by black learners:

I think corporal punishment should be legalized. The teachers have to be forceful to get results from a black child; I am specific about a black child. Maybe corporal punishment is not working in former model C and white schools, but for teachers teaching in black schools corporal punishment is necessary. Corporal punishment is a way of punishment used by blacks.

The teachers strongly believed that corporal punishment was a proper measure for managing the discipline of African learners. The findings suggest deep held beliefs about disciplining an African child which were rooted in the norms, beliefs and culture of the society. The macrosystem level of Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystemic theory stresses that culture is passed on from one generation to another (Astor et al., 1996).
6.2.4 Corporal punishment is necessary in this school

I found out that some teachers at THS strongly believed that the use of corporal punishment was essential for proper functioning of this school. In this regard, PTesco had this to say:

Teachers use corporal punishment to punish learners even though we tell them not to use it. Some of the teachers say learners in this school behave well when teachers use corporal punishment.

A teacher from THS reported that some learners deserve to be subjected to corporal punishment for various reasons.

Some of these learners are very stubborn hence corporal punishment is good for them. For example, they have a uniform but they do not want to wear it. They have the ties, but they keep them inside their bags. The government is providing them with exercise books, but they refuse to have these exercise books covered. They get new books from the government and they do not cover them though we keep telling them to do so (HTersee 4).

HTurner 3 was of the view that this school may not operate properly if the teachers did not use corporal punishment:

But then in this particular school without corporal punishment nothing will happen. We understand that the corporal punishment was banned. But if you do not use it, the school won’t go anywhere. It is what it is because of corporal punishment. So sometimes we have to use it even though it is not legal.

Reiterating the same sentiments another teacher claimed: “Sometimes we are just like stealing to use corporal punishment because with these learners you can’t move on without using corporal punishment” (TTurner2).
TTurner 3 believed that learners sometimes influence teachers to use corporal punishment.

Sometimes the learners themselves choose corporal punishment. For example, if you want to punish a learner using a detention, the learner may request you to use corporal punishment instead of detention.

In relation to Turner’s view, I witnessed two boys literally begging one member of disciplinary committee to administer corporal punishment on them instead of sending them home to call their parents to the school for a disciplinary hearing. It appeared, therefore, that some teachers accepted learners’ request to use corporal punishment as an alternative to other forms of punishments. From a leadership perspective, learners who requested teachers to hit them seem to exert influence on teachers about the type of punishment that they should receive. In the process of leadership such learners appear to assume leadership roles in persuading their teachers to adopt corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure.

One of the learners from a girls’ focus group posited that they were subjected to corporal punishment in most cases for various reasons:

We are beaten up all the times. The teachers use the red pipe to punish us. Sometimes the teachers will come to class and there will be noise. If he asks us who was making noise, we say we do not know and the teacher will start beating all of us. They also beat us when we have not done the home work (Girls focus group THS).

Almost on all the days that I observed teachers and learners’ interactions at THS, I saw some teachers administering corporal punishment on learners. The teachers administered corporal punishment inside and outside the classroom. Sometimes teachers called the learners to wait for them outside the staffroom where they administered corporal punishment.

Some teachers at THS accredited the use of corporal punishment for proper functioning of this school. It appeared that the said teachers valued the use of a single method of
effecting discipline on learners. Distributed leadership is rooted on the notion that there are various leaders in the school (Spillane et al., 2005). Such leaders include those with designated positions as well as those without positions. Ordinary teachers without positions are seen as having leadership influence in the classrooms where they interact with learners. However, some teachers who strongly believed in the use of corporal punishment for managing learners’ discipline appeared to demonstrate lack of sound leadership where they could take initiative to influence and inspire learners to follow school rules without subjecting such learners to corporal punishment. According to Bush, Bell and Middlewood (2010) leadership as a process of influence is aimed at achieving organisational goals. As a result, it could be possible for the teachers to exercise leadership roles in such a way that teaching and learning were achieved without resorting to the use of corporal punishment.

6.2.5 It worked for us

Other teachers considered corporal punishment to be an appropriate disciplinary measure mainly because their teachers used to administer it on them when they were learners. On this issue, the principal of THS had the following to say: “Corporal punishment has been very effective. I am in the office today because of corporal punishment” (PTesco).

Emphasising this idea, a teacher from THS indicated:

Personally, corporal punishment has worked for me. Not that I was a trouble maker at the school, but there are few incidents where I used to get punished. If I remember correctly it was Mrs. X, she was teaching business studies, and I got 98% and she asked why I did not get a 100%. She used to give us a hitting. It was her way of encouraging us because the second time we wrote a test, I got a 100%. So it was a way of pushing learners, but nowadays learners are unruly because corporal punishment is no longer used.
Two participants from MHS shared similar views with their counterparts in THS. Both the participants indicated that corporal punishment was beneficial to them as learners. They expressed their views as follows:

As an African I know that corporal punishment was used when I was in school up to when I was in grade 12. But I did not leave the school. In a way that helped me in as far as education is concerned (HMiler 2).

When we were learners our teachers used corporal punishment and we were a well-disciplined generation; but now that corporal punishment is not allowed, look at how badly these learners behave. I think the government should bring back corporal punishment (TMediator 1).

Some teachers who experienced corporal punishment as learners believed that the use of corporal punishment benefitted them. In a way, their experience of corporal punishment informed the way in which they treated their learners (Allen, 2010). The advocates of social learning theory believe that people are likely to model the behaviour which they remember (Bandura, 1977). It, therefore, appeared that some teachers relied on the use of corporal punishment to discipline learners mainly because their own teachers used to administer it on them.

6.2.6 It promotes violence

Although admitting that corporal punishment was used in the school, some members of school management team in THS linked the use of corporal punishment to school violence and violence which occurs in the wider society. One HoD asserted that:

I don’t want to be nasty. I don’t see any benefits of corporal punishment. You see we bring violence to the school. We endorse it and then these learners go out of the school and violence continues. We should try to make a non-violent society. That must start in the school. We should not tolerate violence in any part of our life. The school should be a violent free zone and we should also have a violent free zone outside the school. In the school, a violence free zone should be
enforced by the teachers and outside the school it should be enforced by the police (HTersee1).

Another HoD reiterated the same sentiments by saying: “From where I am sitting, if we are genuinely saying in a way we should have a society that is free of violence we need to think twice in terms of corporal punishment” (HTersee 2).

The use of corporal punishment was perceived by one learner from a girls’ focus group at THS as inappropriate for girls due to its effects:

This thing of being beaten by teachers is not good for us girls. Some girls cry because other teachers beat you harder. It is painful. Again, some learners will laugh at you and you feel like a fool (Girls focus group THS).

Another learner in the same school, but from a different focus group indicated that the use of corporal punishment caused some learners to bunk lessons:

Most learners do not go to class if they have not done Mr X’s work because he likes to hit learners. Some teachers do not hit learners all the time like he does. We know him very well. For any mistake he hits us. So if you know you are in the wrong you do not want to see yourself near him (Boys and girls focus group THS).

Consistent with the findings in this subsection, previous studies (Burnett, 1998; Burton, 2008; Department of Education, 2000a; Harber, 2004; Hayman & Perone, 1998; Morrell, 2001; Soneson, 2005) found that corporal punishment promotes violent behaviour of learners. Social learning theory shows that children are likely to model the behaviour of their role models (Santrock, 2008). Such models may be found among the teachers. It was likely that learners’ violent behaviour in the two schools was partly influenced by their experience of corporal punishment.
6.2.7 The influence of parents on the use of corporal punishment

The findings from the interviews with stakeholders in the two schools showed that the parents of learners attending these schools had an influence on the use of corporal punishment in the said schools. In THS the parents were reported as supporting the use of corporal punishment and as such the teachers administered corporal punishment on learners openly. On the contrary, some parents at MHS were said to be against the use of corporal punishment. From the THS principal’s point of view the use of corporal punishment by parents at home yielded positive results. He claimed:

The parents use corporal punishment at home. We know about that. Even now 70 to 76% of parents use corporal punishment. That is why their kids behave well at home. As I told you some of them behave well at home and misbehave at the school (PTesco).

Corporal punishment enjoyed the support of parents in THS. In reference to this support one participant had this to say: “Some parents come to the school for disciplinary issues of their children and they also resort to the use of corporal punishment” (HTersee1).

During data generation at THS, I found a Grade 12 female learner seated at reception area. She looked worried. After few minutes a male adult arrived and spoke to the school receptionist. The receptionist proceeded to the staffroom to call two members of disciplinary committee who were not in class at the time. The two teachers called the parent and the learner to one of the offices. Where I was sitting I could not hear their conversation, but I heard a sound of something like a cane being used on a person. There was a sound of a person in pain. The girl came out of the office crying. During break time I had an opportunity to chat with her. She informed me that she consistently failed to do her school work. As a result her father was called to the school to resolve the matter. The father did not want to waste time discussing this issue and decided to administer corporal punishment on her. She indicated that it was painful, but she knew that she deserved it.

In a focus group discussion with boys in THS, the participants mentioned some reasons for the teachers to administer corporal punishment on learners:
If a learner makes a noise or talks in class while the teacher is teaching (Boys focus group THS).
If the learner refuses to take punishment like kneeling down (Boys focus group THS).
If the learners fail the test some teachers hit them (Boys and girls focus group THS).

The findings with interviews with stakeholders in MHS revealed sharp differences with what I found from THS pertaining to parents’ support of the use of corporal punishment. The participants from MHS reported that the Black parents accepted the use of corporal punishment while the Coloured parents disapproved of it. PMaster pointed out that some parents wanted to use violence against the teachers for using corporal punishment on the said parents’ children:

Some parents had come to the school threatening to attack teachers who smacked their children. But we were able to deal with the situation as management. It never reached a stage where the parent actually attacked the teacher.

The deputy principal of MHS reported that some parents demanded compensation for medical costs resulting from medical treatment of their children after being smacked by some teachers:

Teachers smack learners and when the parents come to school they start talking about medical costs and other costs involved. Nine times out of ten the parents are trying to make money out of teachers and nothing in terms of the legal action takes place once a parent has got money out of a teacher (DMax).

One teacher from MHS indicated that Black parents of MHS learners supported the use of corporal punishment while the coloured parents were against it:

Sometimes learners report to the parents that a teacher hit them at the school. Black parents understand that the teacher did not punish the learner out of hatred,
but it was a correctional thing. But some Coloured parents will want to fight the teacher (TMediator1).

One learner from a focus group referred to a case where the parents wanted to physically attack the teacher for hitting their children:

The learner went home to tell the parents and the parents wanted to beat the teacher. There was a commotion at the office. The parents said the teacher doesn’t have a right to hit their child (Focus group girls MHS).

The role of the parents was very critical with regard to the use of corporal punishment in both schools. In THS, some parents did not only expect the teachers to apply this form of punishment, but they also went to the school and implemented it by themselves. While I found that corporal punishment was used by teachers on learners in the two schools, the findings show that corporal punishment was adopted by THS teachers more often than MHS teachers. From the ecosystemic perspective the relations between school and home may influence the use of corporal punishment in the school (Santrock, 2008). At THS, the home and the school subsystems converged and supported the implementation of corporal punishment. It seemed that both the parents and the teachers did not consider corporal punishment as violence. Morell (2001) partly found similar results to the present study. His study revealed that the kind of punishment adopted at home influences the manner in which the teachers punish learners at the school. Since parents use corporal punishment at home, learners accept this form of punishment at school. The parents also support the use of corporal punishment in the school (Morrell 2001). In this study, the parents of learners attending THS as well as the black component of MHS learners’ parents were found to be in favour of the use of corporal punishment. To this extent, the findings suggest a convergence between home and school about the use of corporal punishment. However, the findings from MHS showed that some Coloured parents opposed the use of corporal punishment on their children.

Overall findings pertaining to the use of corporal punishment in the two schools revealed diverse perspectives. From a social context, the findings suggest that in the African society, some reasonable amount of beating a child was acceptable as a way of effecting discipline. This practice seemed to have been going on for a long time. In this
society, the school was also expected to use corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure. Corporal punishment was historically and socially accepted in South Africa (Hyman & Perone, 1998). It appeared that the community and the school viewed corporal punishment from a positive perspective. The findings suggest that in some communities the views of stakeholders about corporal punishment cannot be undermined. From a legal perspective, all the participants appeared to be aware that corporal punishment was abolished. The Department of Education (2000a) also acknowledges that corporal punishment was banned in South Africa in line with international conventions which South Africa ratified. Such conventions include the Convention on the rights of the child and African Charter on the rights and welfare of the child (Department of Education, 2000). These conventions mandate member states to protect children against, inter alia, violence by putting in place appropriate legislative measures (Organisation of African Unity, 1981; United Nations, 1989). The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa stipulates protection of learners against maltreatment as a right. In addition, this Constitution stipulates that no one should be subjected to torture, cruel punishment and inhuman treatment (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). SASA specifically banned the use of corporal punishment in South African Schools (Republic of South Africa, 1996b).

Payet and Franchi (2008) found that teachers and principals tend to deny that corporal punishment is still a common practice in schools while learners do not hide that teachers continue to use corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure. Contrary to the findings of these scholars, the participants in this study were in agreement that corporal punishment was used in the two schools. The findings, therefore, revealed a dichotomy between the macro-level of the society and the micro-level of the same society. At the macro-level, the South African government passed the laws which prohibited the use of corporal punishment. At the micro-level, the teachers, learners and parents still strongly believed in the use of corporal punishment. Ecosystem theory suggests that different systems have an impact on each other. The macro-system in particular includes, inter alia, the dominant social values, practices and beliefs (Santrock, 2008). Such values, beliefs and practices appeared to be apparent at school level where stakeholders seem to have a consensus about the manner in which a child should be disciplined.
6.3 Assault

Assault as a form of violence includes, inter alia, hitting a learner (Burton, 2008), spanking, smacking, slapping and shoving (Dussich & Maekoya, 2007) of a learner by the teacher. Assault is sometimes taken as part of physical violence. Since corporal punishment is also physical violence, in this subsection I focus on more serious cases of assault. Few of these cases were reported by the participants in the two schools. In relation to assault of learners by the teachers at THS one HoD from THS had this to say:

I got one or two incidents where learners came to me and said a teacher has beaten them up. He is unfair to them. But normally our learners do not complain about the type of discipline enforced by our teachers. It may be one or two odd cases where they complain. We called the teacher and the learner in. We checked how the situation is and we call the parent if we need to. Fortunately what happened with the incident I had was that the teacher apologised to the learner. The teacher explained his point of view to say that he punished the learner because the learner did not do the home work. The learner accepted the apology because it was not a badly harm thing. It was a stick on a hand and there was a mark not a scar on the hand. So the learner accepted the apology of the teacher and the matter was settled like that. If the teacher did not apologise it would have gone a different route (HTeree1).

From the above quotation, it is apparent that HTeree 1 viewed the beating of learners by the teachers as a disciplinary technique which was not harmful as long as there was no scar. When the aggrieved learner complained, the school management involved the said learner and the concerned teacher in decision making. This suggests that the SMT sometimes adopted democratic leadership process in decision making regarding assault of learners by the teachers.

A teacher from THS reported one case where a teacher assaulted a learner:

We were in the staffroom and then we heard a sound of something being banged against the wall. We found that it was a teacher banging a learner's head against
the wall. We called that teacher and advised him not to do it again because it was a crime (TTurner 5).

One learner reported an incident where a boy who refused to serve punishment was assaulted by a teacher.

In Grade 9, Mr X said two boys who did not do homework must kneel down. One learner knelt down. The second learner refused to kneel down. He said he did not do the homework because he does not have a pen. The teacher told him to kneel down. This boy kept quite and just looked at the teacher. Other learners laughed. The teacher went to the learner and slapped him on the face. The learner stood up and left the class. I don’t know where he was going (Focus group boys and girls THS).

The principal of MHS was of the opinion that some teachers sometimes assaulted learners even though such teachers were aware that they were not expected to do so. He claimed that:

Pinching, slapping, caning and other acts of violence done by teachers on learners have to be reported immediately to the office. There are just those isolated cases of teachers who still do that. But they have been told not to do that. When such things happen I send for the parent to come to the school and the teacher as I said earlier on will have to apologise for doing that. If a parent wants to take the matter to the police I allow him/her to do that (PMaster).

It appeared that the principal of MHS attempted to resolve assault matters with the assistance of the parents of the victims.

A teacher from MHS acknowledged that sometimes teachers do perpetrate physical violence against the learners.

I have seen that some teachers physically assault learners and this can be quite damaging. This year a teacher slapped a learner just because the learner made a noise in the class (TMediator 3).
One learner from a focus group discussion reported that one teacher applied physical violence against learners when such a teacher was under the influence of alcohol.

If you run away, he hits you everywhere using stick or sometimes he uses his hands. This teacher sometimes comes to school drunk. We know that teachers are not allowed to hit us, but he does it and when he hits you it will be like he was drunk (Focus Group boys and girls MHS).

Another learner from a focus group of boys in MHS reported a case where a teacher assaulted a boy for refusing to follow instructions.

Last week three boys were talking and laughing in the class and the teacher was teaching. The teacher told them to stop, but they didn’t stop. The teacher said they must go outside the class. Two boys went out and one [boy] refused. The teacher was angry. He pushed the boy outside class and he said stupid boy leave my class (Focus group boys MHS).

One learner from a focus group discussion expressed the view that MHS managers were inactive about assault inflicted by the teachers on learners. Such managers in this case included teachers who ignored the problem and the principal:

There was a situation where a teacher used the broom stick to hit me. My hand was painful. It had to be bandaged. I reported the incident to my teachers, but they were not interested. It is only one teacher who was interested and she advised me to tell the principal. The principal said I should forgive that teacher because the teacher said we don’t do the tasks he gives us (focus group boys and girls MHS).

Assault as violence instigated by teachers against the learners was found to be a rare occurrence in the two schools. However, the existence of this form of violence suggest that where learners refused to follow instruction from their teachers, there was a likelihood that some teachers may violently try to force the learners to be submissive.
6.4 Verbal violence

The Learners Code of Conduct in MHS stipulates, inter alia, the responsibilities of teachers in relation to learners. In line with these responsibilities the Code of Conduct mandates the teachers to “refrain from abusive language and actions.” At THS I found no school based policy which regulated teachers in terms of verbal violence against the learners. While the Learners’ Code of Conduct in this school stated the responsibilities of learners and parents, those of the teachers were not mentioned. Verbal violence in this context emanates from such teachers’ behaviours against learners as name calling, sarcasm, ridicule and use of denigrating statements (Hyman & Perone, 1998). Although not mentioning it as violence, a HoD from THS admitted that he verbally punished learners until they got annoyed:

My punishment is verbal. When I come into the class and I see that learners are not doing the work. I scream and shout. I give learners lectures about good behaviour. I lecture them for ten minutes. So they get annoyed about it. So that's my strategy (HTersee1).

Sometimes the members of school management team in THS reprimanded teachers for verbal violence they instigated against the learners. HTersee 2 pointed out that as school management they emphasised that teachers should respect learners so that learners could also respect the teachers:

We also called one teacher because we felt that the verbal abuse of learners by him was excessive. We warned the teacher that what he was doing was wrong and non-acceptable because if we want these learners to respect us and also respect their peers we should show them the way to do it.

Another HoD from the same school reported that teachers used different inappropriate remarks against the learners when such teachers were angry.

Teachers are sometimes emotionally affected in such a way that they tell learners things like: ‘you cannot pass, you are stupid, you are in this class because we condoned you.’ Those remarks are not appropriate (HTersee 2).
HTersee 3 claimed that the school management team spoke to teachers about the importance of leading by example thereby refraining from using verbal violence against the learners instead they were advised to show learners respect:

As the school management, we talk about these issues with teachers during morning briefings. We make them aware that we are dealing with grown up learners. They are in a high school and we cannot insult them or just say anything we like. We should respect them so that they can also respect us.

The use of verbal abuse by teachers in this subsection is viewed as a bad example which may lead to learners disrespecting teachers. In addition, the school managers encouraged teachers to respect learners so that they could influence learners to respect others. These findings are consistent with literature (see Chapter 3) which suggests that children learn behaviour through observation and modelling. From a distributed leadership perspective if teachers could model nonviolent behaviour throughout the school, learners may attempt to learn and model such behaviour.

TTurner 1 pointed out that teachers became angry when learners failed to follow school rules. As a result, teachers became verbally violent on learners.

This happens because the learners push the teachers to insult them [learners] which are not good. They do many things which make you angry. They do not do their school work. They arrive late in class. Some of them are rude.

A participant from a girls’ focus group narrated how a teacher constantly directed verbal violence against a learner on the basis of that learner’s colour of skin.

There was a teacher who always intimidated one boy because the boy was the darkest learner in the class. Whenever that teacher came into our class, she would say: ‘Why are you so dark in my classroom?’ Even when that boy did not write the home work, the teacher would say: ‘You did not do your homework because you are too black’ (Focus group girls THS).
The findings from the interviews with stakeholders in MHS also revealed a range of verbal violence expressions made by the teachers against the learners. The principal of MHS was of the view that: “There are cases where teachers verbally abuse learners. They use derogative terms and other words. Teachers do that to show frustration” (PMaster). DMax admitted that there had been cases of verbal violence made by teachers against learners. He reported as follows:

We have more of the kind of verbal cases where teachers may be in a moment refer to children as idiots or stupid whatever the case may be. Those cases if they are reported to the principal, for example, the procedure is that the teacher and the learner are called in and both sides of the story are given. The parents will also be called in and generally an amicable understanding is reached where the teacher may have to apologise.

HM Miller 1 pointed out that some teachers were verbally abusive to learners in the way in which they talked to the learners. In her words she said: “Some teachers talk to learners in a funny way. They call them names. You know! Things like that.”

A teacher from MHS talked about the causes of verbal violence instigated by teachers against the learners: “Name calling and swearing are done by teachers because learners frustrate them about certain types of behaviour” (TMediator 3). One learner expressed the view that some teachers spoke words which hurt the learners:

They also swear at learners. Some teachers tell you that you will be nothing in life, why are you coming to the school? Why are you wasting your time? Why can’t you go and get married? Sometimes it is funny, but it hurts some learners (Focus group girls MHS).

Another learner from a different focus group highlighted the consequences of verbal violence which learners experience from the teachers:

Some teachers insult us. They call us monkeys. We take insults as jokes, but deep in our hearts it hurts. If we tell our parents they get emotional and angry about it (Focus group boys MHS).
In response to a question of why teachers end up being verbally violent on learners, a participant from a focus group of girls and boys in MHS stated that learners sometimes made noise in the class or argued with the teachers.

The learners argue with the teacher. It starts in class when the learners make noise and the teacher will tell them to keep quite. If the learners continue making noise and the teacher gets angry. She starts telling the learners that they are stupid and they will fail (Focus group Boys and girls MHS).

What I observed at THS was that sometimes verbal violence was coupled with other forms of violence such as corporal punishment. For instance, I saw a teacher administering corporal punishment on learners outside the staffroom and one girl constantly took away her hand when the hosepipe was about to hit her. As the girl was doing that a teacher accidentally hit herself on the foot. The two other learners who were waiting to be punished laughed. The teacher shouted at the learner who was being punished and said “Do you see what you have done you foolish girl. If you remove your hand again I will hit that useless big head of yours.” The learner was aware that the teacher was angry and she held out her hand to receive a hitting and did not remove the hand until the teacher had finished beating her.

Some teachers in the two schools seemed to adopt verbal violence tactics as a way of disciplining or controlling learners (Dupper & Meyer-Adams, 2002). Burton (2008) considers a school as an important institution which socialises learners about how they should behave. In this way, the learners may model the verbal violent behaviour which they experienced from their teachers (Bandura, 1997). Some THS members of school management team strove to manage cases of teacher-to-learner verbal violence there by warning teacher perpetrators while the principal of MHS collaborated with the parents and the concerned teachers to resolved teacher-to-learner verbal violence. At leadership level, the school managers at THS attempted to influence teachers to refrain from verbally abusing learners, but to lead by example. Leading by example or idealised influence is a factor emphasised by the advocates of transformational leadership. In a way, the THS leadership attempted to motivate teachers to be strong learners’ role models (Northouse, 2010). However, the conduct of some teachers seemed to illustrate
the dearth of leadership in the two case study schools regarding teacher-on-learner verbal violence. They displayed such leadership through utterances of abusive language against the learners instead of attempting to convince learners to do what was expected of them. Leadership as a process of influence occurs in the interaction context between the leaders and followers and leadership is available to anyone (Northouse, 2010). As indicated above, some teachers verbally abused learners because learners made them angry or frustrated them. While it may be understood that when the teachers were angry or frustrated they may not effectively do their main task of teaching as expected, it may also be argued that the teachers should also perform leadership tasks. In other words, teachers’ leadership would be apparent if they communicated, inspired and influenced learners to focus more on education. As literature suggests, influence is essential because it impacts on thoughts and behaviours of individuals (Farling et al., 1999). Learners were unlikely to change their behaviour which frustrates teachers in the absence of sound leadership from the teachers.

6.5 Racially motivated violence

Racism might manifest itself through other forms of violence discussed above, but I foregrounded it because racial issues are major matters in South Africa. Race was one of the main causes of conflicts in South African history during the apartheid era. After 1994 with the advent of democratic rule issues of racial conflicts were expected to die down, but it seems that they still exist. The rights and responsibilities of MHS learners are contained in the Learners’ Code of Conduct. This Code of Conduct states that “Each learner has the right to be treated with respect by other members of school community, regardless of personal, cultural, racial and religious differences and the responsibility to display tolerance and consideration towards others.” In other words, members of a school community including the teachers were mandated by this code to respect the learners regardless of their race among other factors. The findings regarding teacher to learner violence along racial lines revealed mixed feelings amongst stakeholders. The principal of MHS, for instance, was of the view that teachers at this school did not practise racism against their learners.
There are cases where teachers verbally abuse learners. They use derogative terms and other words. It is not a racial kind of abuse, but that is said by the teacher when sometimes a learner or learners are disruptive (PMaster).

The deputy principal of MHS also acknowledged that teachers sometimes perpetrated verbal violence against learners, but he was cautious that such verbal violence was not racially motivated: “We have more of the kind of verbal cases where teachers may be in a moment refer to children as idiots or stupid whatever the case may be, but not on racial grounds” (DMax).

A HoD from this school reported that Indian and Coloured learners accepted punishment from some teachers other than black teachers:

I will take you back to that issue of racism. You know when a Coloured teacher punishes a child in whatever way the learners somehow accept that. But when an African teacher does it against a coloured learner or Indian learner the concerned learners sort of make a meal out of it (HMiller 2).

On the one hand, another HoD from the same school reported that some teachers used violence on the basis of race; according to her: “Some teachers are derogatory, racist or just calling learners names” (Miller 1).

A learner from a focus group discussion was of the view that certain teachers were racist:

In this school, you find racist teachers. Some Coloured teachers like to shout at black learners for behaving in a bad way, but they keep quite when Coloured learners do the same thing. I think that is racism (Focus group boys and girls MHS).

The notion of Coloured and Black teachers being racist against their learners was debated in a focus group of boys. The following quotations illustrate the debate:
It was a Coloured teacher who said a black boy was a monkey. This boy was talking to another learner and that teacher said: ‘Keep quite you monkey, don’t you see that you are the only one making a noise in this class.’ Other learners laughed and that boy also laughed. I think he was laughing to make other learners think that he was not hurt (Focus group boys MHS).

There is one teacher who likes to hit us. But it is like he is unfair, you know what I mean! When he hits a Coloured learner, he hits harder than when he hits a black learner. All what I am saying is that may be Coloured teachers say bad stuff to black learners, but black teachers are also harsh on the Coloureds (Focus group boys MHS).

Racism includes, inter alia, discrimination according to race, stereotypes and prejudice tendencies of individuals (Henkel et al., 2006). According to Berman and Paradies (2010), discrimination refers to racial practices and behaviours while stereotypes denote racist beliefs. Prejudice means racist emotions (Berman & Paradies, 2010). Racism is characterised, inter alia, by positive-self representation and negative other-representation (De Wet, 2001). The principal and the deputy of MHS denied the existence of racism in this school perhaps to paint a good picture of the school and in a way presenting a positive image of the school and their leadership. However, other participants labelled some Coloured and Black teachers as violent racists. This demonstrates racial tension in this particular school and racially divided members of school community. The MHS principal and the deputy principal seemed to have created a barrier, which hindered them from creating an environment where various leaders in the school would work towards eradication or minimisation of teacher to learner racism. The advocates of distributed leadership argue that those in designated position should create an enabling environment in which the skills and talents of various members of the organisation are utilised for betterment of the organisation (Harris, 2004). It was, therefore, likely that teacher to learner racism would continue in MHS.
6.6 Emerging issues

This study was aimed, inter alia, at identifying and discussing the dynamics of violence in the two schools. This chapter partly addressed this aim by highlighting teacher-on-learner forms of violence. The findings suggest that teacher to learner violence is a multi-faceted phenomenon. The use of corporal punishment in particular was highly contested by various stakeholders. It also emerged from the findings that some teachers responded to learners’ undesirable behaviour through the use of violent means. Corporal punishment as a violent disciplinary act, assault, verbal and racially motivated violence constituted such means. In chapter two conceptualisation of the word dynamic included variation in terms of degree of occurrence (Crystal, 2003). It emerged from this study that assault did not occur more often in the two schools as compared to other forms of teacher to learner violence. Corporal punishment was more visible at THS than MHS. As a result, it appeared that THS was more violent than MHS in terms of teacher to learner violence. The frequent and open use of corporal punishment at THS portrayed the violent nature of this school.

It seemed that some teachers in the two schools tended to rely more on managing learners’ behaviour and did very little to adopt leadership strategies for attempting to motivate learners to change unwanted behaviour. A study conducted by Mokhele (2011) found that some teachers in South African schools apply authoritarian management styles in disciplining learners because they have not been trained to use democratic styles. Such authoritarian styles include the use of a cane to punish learners. With regard to leadership it seemed that there was generally a lack of sound leadership in the two participant schools. Distributed leadership is based on the assumption that there are multiple sources of leadership within a school. These sources include those with designated leadership positions like the principals, deputy principals and Heads of Department. They also included those without formal leadership positions such as teachers (Leithwood et al., 2008). What emerged from the findings was that absence of leadership appeared to be apparent at different levels of the two schools. At the level of leaders with formal positions in the schools there appeared to be a lack of capacity to create environment where teachers would be empowered to address teacher to learner violence. These leaders also displayed a dearth of leadership by failing to convince the teachers to refrain from instigating violence against the learners. Literature indicates
that followers are free to do whatever they want to do in the absence of leadership (McGuire, 2011). Consistent with literature, it was likely that teachers would continue inflicting violence on the learners because leaders avoided providing direction and guidance (Jones & Rudd, 2007). At the level of leaders without formal leadership positions, the findings show that some teachers relied on the use of violent tactics in an attempt to control learners instead of influencing the learners to behave in an acceptable manner. They tended to use coercive power to demand immediate compliance from the learners (Goleman, 2007).
CHAPTER 7: LEARNER-ON-LEARNER VIOLENCE

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss data regarding learner-to-learner violence in the two schools. In keeping with the focus of the study, I also comment on the role of leadership and management on issues of such violence. As in Chapters 5 and 6, I present data generated through interviews, observations and documents. Informed by the data generated, I present and discuss findings based on the following themes: fights, bullying, verbal violence, sexual harassment and teachers not trained about school violence. Although all the first four themes are forms of violence, I found it necessary to include the last theme because of the strongly emphasised issue of teacher training. The chapter concludes with a discussion of emerging issues from the findings. Even though most of the themes are about forms of violence, the discussion does not necessarily focus on similar issues. The nature of data generated and subthemes emerging thereof under each theme dictate the nature of discussion.

As highlighted in Chapters 5 and 6 pseudonyms are used in reference to the participants and schools. For the purposes of clarity, pseudonyms for the principals are preceded by the letter P where P stand for principal while D is written before deputy principal’s fictitious name and this D stands for deputy. H and T are written before Heads of Departments’ and teachers’ pseudonyms respectively. H denotes HoD and T stands for teacher.

7.2 Fights

Codes of Conduct for learners in the two participant schools prohibited fighting among learners. Such fighting in the two schools is classified by Learners’ Code of Conducts as serious misbehaviour which may lead to suspension or recommendation for expulsion of the offenders. The discussion in this section encompassed six issues: types of fights, causes of fights, popular places for fights, fighting as a form of entertainment and responses of stakeholders to fights.
7.2.1 Types of fights

The common types of fights in the two schools were those which occurred between two learners. However, at THS gang fights was another type which the participants reported. I turn to a discussion of these two fights below.

7.2.1.1 Fights between two learners

One HoD from THS reported that sometimes fights between learners were very violent since they involved the use sharp objects as weapons:

I am not a police, I am a teacher. So I have seen that learners can get very violent. I have seen a learner taking a bottle and stabbing another learner on the head. The learner was running from one class to another and he took a bottle and stabbed another learner (HTersee1).

Another HoD from THS did not only emphasise the violent nature of fights between boys, but he also indicated that more fights occurred among boys than girls: “Many fights happen among boys. Girls do fight but their fights are not so violent like those between boys.” (HTersee2).

The principal of MHS reported that fights among learners happened irrespective of their sex:

There is also physical violence where you find that boys end up fighting. Sometimes girls also fight each other because of differences. Sometimes it is a boy against a girl or a boy against another boy or a girl against a girl (PMaster).

The deputy principal from the same school was of the view that there had been a few cases in the school where learners fought using weapons:
The violence that we have in this school is sporadic kind of incidents. Maybe I bumped into you by mistake. Learners fight while on school compound. We had one or two cases where weapons were used ranging from anything like pens used as stabbing weapons. We have had two or more cases where weapons have been brought into the school compound, but this does not happen often. Weapons such as knives and even homemade guns have been brought onto school premises. Fortunately, these weapons have never been used on the school premises, so usually what happens is that one learner would report that a certain learner is carrying a gun and the gun would be taken from the learner before it is used in the classroom. There is also sporadic violence where learners are kind of more or less aggressive and defensive. Generally, we had dealt with cases where there were fights not involving weapons (D Max).

HMiller 1 noted that fighting among learners occurred between learners of the same sex or learners of different gender: “Girls have fights as well. In fact, the fights are between girls most of the time. The fights which happen in this school may be a girl and a girl, a boy and a boy or a boy and a girl.”

In order to avoid any form of punishment, in some cases, some boys at MHS denied that they were fighting while in actual fact they engaged in fighting. One teacher had this to say:

Sometimes you see the boys fighting when you approach them and try to find out why they are fighting; they tell you that they were not fighting. You see that is a problem because they know the consequences of fighting in the school compound they don’t want to tell the truth. Sometimes they hide their activities. They do these things secretly that even the authority will not understand their codes. They use a lot of slang or street language to communicate among themselves (TMediator 2).

Indeed I observed an incident where two boys from MHS fought, but told me that they never fought. It was during break time and I was on school grounds to observe interactions among learners. Suddenly, some learners were shouting with excitement and running to block C (classroom building) and I followed them. Behind this block, I saw two Coloured boys fighting and I approached the scene. Some learners saw me
approaching the scene and two boys quickly separated those who were fighting. The learners who had assembled to watch the fight dispersed. The two fighters also went their separate ways. I approached one of the boys who separated the fighters and asked him why the two boys were fighting. He told me that there was no fight. The two were just playing. I replied that the fighters looked angry. I assured him that I was a researcher and I was not going to tell the teachers or the principal. He appeared to be relaxed and told me that the two boys were actually fighting. When I reflected on this incident, I realised that researching school violence is a big challenge to the researcher. Although I approached the area where learners were fighting, I did not have a plan of what I would do if they continued fighting. While the fight presented a situation for my data collection, it would be morally wrong for me as an adult to watch the learners fighting and did not attempt to stop the fight. However, attempting to stop the fight might also be dangerous since I did not know how the fighters would respond to my intervention.

The findings suggest that boys and girls in the two schools could be involved in fighting. However, the nature of fights between male learners differed from those which occurred among female learners. The female’s fights tended to be mild while male learners’ seemed to be harsh. However, fights were more common among boys than girls at THS while at MHS girls fought more often than boys. This difference highlighted the dynamic nature of fights in particular and school violence in general. The smuggling of weapons into the school by some MHS learners meant that there was a possibility that they could be used during fights and some learners might be seriously injured especially if weapons such as knives or guns were used.

7.2.1.2 Gang fights

The findings revealed that fights among THS learners sometimes took place among groups. The conflict might have emanated between two learners, but at a later stage involved other learners in a group. On the issue of fights among groups of learners, THS principal had this to say:

Sometimes there are groups which fight against each other. Learners from one area come together and fight against a group from another area. The conflict
might have started between two learners and each of these two learners then invites other learners from their areas (PTesco).

Referring to the issue of gang fighting at THS, one teacher narrated a story of a serious fight between gangs which teachers had to invite the police to stop it:

It is worse when learners fight in this school. When I first came here, there was a boy who carried two knives at the school. During break time he tried to stab one learner and when we followed that case we found that the conflict started outside the school. It was a big fight because the other learner called his gangs and the one with knives also called his gangs. The two gangs fought. The teachers could not stop the fight. It was dangerous to try to stop the fight. We had to call the police. That is how far it can go in this school (TTurner 2).

At THS I witnessed when two rival groups of boys were called by three members of the disciplinary committee to the office. The conflict between these rival groups emanated from their support of two boys who fought over a girl. One boy (Buhle) accused another one (Velaphi) of beating the former’s sister. Three boys reportedly coming from Buhle’s home area supported him and Velaphi was supported by two boys from his home. Buhle and Velaphi actually fought in the classroom during break time; but some learners stopped them before the other boys could join in. The matter was reported to the teachers by some girls upon realising that the two rival groups were intimidating each other and threatening to continue with the fight outside the school compound. Buhle and Velaphi were given letters to give to their parents. One member of disciplinary committee informed me that the letters given to the two boys invited the parents of the said boys to come to the school the following day. The two boys would be instructed to sign another form declaring that they would not fight again and if they fought they would be suspended from the school.

The findings illustrate that sometimes a conflict between two learners spilled over onto other learners. As a result, two groups emerged where each group supported one of the fighters. The two groups then attempted or actually fought against each other.
7.2.2 Causes of fights among learners

The participants from the two schools explained the causes of fights among the learners. A HoD from THS had this to say:

Learners fight for petty things sometimes like one boy took another one’s file. I think they have the reputation and all these things which they want to uphold and that result into violence (HTersee1).

Another HoD from THS was of the view that several factors caused fights among learners:

The prefects are sometimes powerless. If learners want to fight they will fight. I remember last year it was the first period after break and the teacher came into the class. After the teacher had left for change of period, a girl from grade 11 went to Grade 10 and confronted another girl accusing her of gossiping about her. Suddenly the two girls fought. The whole class went outside the class. Learners fight for different reasons. They fight over food, the meal that they receive from the government. At times girls fight over boyfriends and boys over girlfriends. There were two boys who fought over a girl in Grade 11 (HTersee 3).

In relation to Tersee 3’s report, during my first day of data generation at THS I witnessed a fight between two boys. It was during break time and most learners were walking outside the classrooms. The fight took place in the open space between two blocks of classrooms. Most learners ran towards the fighting scene. They shouted ‘shaya! (beat) shaya!(beat). I also followed them. I watched the incident from a distance. One boy (Sipho) was lying down and struggling to stand up while his opponent (Mandla) kicked him. Mandla kicked Sipho faster and harder as other learners cheered him. Shaya (Beat him)! Shaya (beat him)! It also looked like Mandla was trying to ensure that Sipho did not stand up. None of the learners attempted to stop the fight. A security guard rushed to the scene and stopped the fight. He walked with the boys to the office. I followed them. They met two female teachers whom I later learnt
that they were members of the disciplinary committee. The two teachers and the concerned learners met in the waiting area close to the reception. The teachers asked the boys about the cause of the fight. The boys were reluctant to state the cause of the fight. However, they ended up disclosing that Mandla attacked Sipho because Sipho was seen walking with Mandla’s girlfriend during the weekend. When Mandla demanded to know what Sipho was talking about with his girlfriend, Sipho said it was none of Mandla’s business. Mandla became angry and the fight started. However, Sipho pointed out that he did not fight, but he was attacked by Mandla. Sipho’s shirt was torn on the back and there was blood flowing out of his mouth.

The deputy principal of MHS spoke about the causes of fights among girls:

Fights among girls occasionally occur, but also once again the causes of these fights are about boys. They fight for boys; I mean issues such as ‘I saw you talking to my boyfriend’ or ‘you said this and that about me’ (DMax).

One of MHS teachers felt that learners were influenced by their parents and media to engage in fighting:

This issue of school violence is complicated. Some learners are violent because of their background, seeing their parents fighting now and again. So they think that this is the right way to go. We need to change their mind set as young as they are and tell them that ‘you cannot solve a problem by fighting.’ When you listen to the news here in South Africa, you hear that people were fighting someone who was stealing at a house and he was killed. So this issue of violence goes way back. Learners listen to the news and watch TV. They think what they get from the news is a way of life. This is why they like to fight and steal (TMediator 1).

One of the participants from a focus group discussion talked about the causes of fights among girls:

We have lots of fights. Girls fight for different reasons. They fight for boys, gossiping, name calling. They fight for small things like who is popular and who
is not. If the teachers come to know about the fight, the learners involved will be taken to the office and given warning letters (Boys and Girls focus group MHS).

Confrontations, misunderstandings, and differences among learners caused conflicts which learners attempted to resolve through fighting. Some learners fought in order to preserve their status or reputation among their peers. It also emerged that parents who fight in the presence of their children indirectly influenced such children to do the same with other learners. The media, especially television, was also viewed as propagating and perpetuating fighting among learners thereby broadcasting information pertaining to fights frequently. The findings, specifically about THS learners, suggest that the lunch provided to learners at this school sometimes served as a source of conflict which caused some learners to fight.

7.2.3 Popular places where learners fought

Fights among learners took place in specific places within the schools’ compounds. One of the THS HoD noted that: “You will find learners hitting one another along the corridors and on playgrounds shirts torn” (HTersee2).

It also emerged that some learners fought in the classroom while teaching and learning process took place. In this regard TTurner 5 commented:

There are lots of fights between learners especially in Grade 8. When you are writing on the chalkboard as a teacher you will hear a struggle behind you and when you face the learners you will see them fighting; I don’t know why they behave like this. They do not talk, they hit one another. They use their hands more than their mouths.

Sharing the same sentiments was TTurner 2 who spoke about learners who fought in the presence of a teacher in the classroom:

It happened in my colleague’s class that some learners fought. However, as much as I hate saying this, learners cannot fight in the class when you are busy teaching. It is impossible. They can only fight if you are in the class doing nothing. When
you come into the class and give them activities, one learner from this row may insult a learner in another row and as a teacher you can deal with the situation at that early stage.

Classrooms in MHS were also identified as a space where learners fought. Such fights sometimes started in the classroom and continued outside the classroom. In relation to this, HMediator 4 reported that one boy from her class fought with a girl:

Another incident happened in my class again. I was with the learners in a social science classroom and one girl threw a bottle of water to another girl, but the bottle hit a different learner, so that created a fight. They hit each other in the classroom. Then when they left the classroom, they hit each other outside the classroom as well. So it is like a daily thing in this school.

However, it was also reported that some learners at MHS fought outside the classrooms:

Sometimes they fight outside the classrooms and any concerned learner will go and inform the principal. Sometimes they fight in groups (Boys and Girls focus group MHS).

The play grounds, corridors and classrooms appeared to be warzones for learners sometimes. Learners fought when they were not supervised during break or in the classrooms in the absence of the teachers. In rare cases, learners fought in the classroom in the presence of some teachers.

7.2.4 Fighting as a form of entertainment

HMiller from MHS reported that fights among learners served as entertainment to learners who watched others fight:

Our learners like fights. They take fights like entertainment. They like fights and you will find that they will cheer on the fight instead of stopping it. The onlookers want to see other learners fighting so they won’t stop the fight. If the fight starts at school and learners know that they can’t do too much at school, the fighters will
stop and continue after school outside the school premises. Those who were present when the fight started in the school will spread the word that there will be a fight after school and the whole school will know. You will see that after school the learners are standing by the gate instead of going home. They are standing there waiting for the fight to take place.

HM 3 also reiterated the view that learners liked to see others fighting. He drew a link between the reactions of members of the community and the learners at MHS. Both the community and the learners were reportedly entertained by watching fights:

Fighting among girls is very common in our school. Again, the community in which the school is located does not frown upon two women fighting. In fact a lot of time for the community it is very entertaining to have two women fighting and they are sort of encouraged. This also happens in a school situation where learners who are not involved in the fight add fuel to the fire. They want the situation to boil over so that everybody can have an occurrence to talk about for the next few days.

According to some participants at THS, fighting among learners in this school also made the onlookers to be excited and entertained. HTersee1 from THS had this say:

When the learners fight others just watch the fight and do not do anything. You can actually see that they enjoy watching the fight. This is the problem and the same thing happens in the society. When the society see acts of violence, nothing is done people just watch. Sometimes I think of leaving this school. I don’t want to be here because of learner-on-learner violence. You see, learner on learner violence can easily be learner on teacher violence.

One of the participants from a focus group discussion at THS talked about the way in which she was entertained by watching girls fighting:

Learners in this school like to fight. We like to watch other learners fighting. The girls’ fight is interesting because they just push each other and shout. It is like you are watching an action movie [all the participants laughed]. I don’t like to see the
fight between boys. They are too rough. Their fight is not funny like the girls’ fight (Boys and Girls Focus Group THS).

The findings show that fights among learners served as entertainment to learners in the two participant school. Each of the fighters attracted supporters from the onlookers. The fighters were encouraged to fight harder by their supporters who cheered them on. The findings further illustrated that the behaviour of onlookers cheering on the fighters mirrored what transpired in the community when people fought.

7.2.5 Responses of stakeholders to fights

The principal of THS described the procedures that were taken to address fights among learners at THS:

They fight each other as I said. If they fight we call their parents to the school. We send parents letters and invite them to come to the school. We record these incidents. We have a disciplinary and safety committee. This committee manages these kinds of situations where learners fight each other and disturb teaching and learning (PTesco).

At THS I observed that members of the disciplinary committee were responsible for tackling learners’ reported misbehaviour in general and fights in particular. When the cases were reported, any available members of disciplinary committee attended to the matter immediately. The concerned learners would be called to a vacant office where the members of disciplinary committee met.

A HoD from the same school reported that some teachers failed to perform their leadership and management roles in the classrooms due to fear of violence. As a result, fights between learners which could have been prevented occurred in the classroom in the presence of such teachers:

In some cases which were reported to management we found that learners fought, but then that could have been stopped at a low level even before this issue could
move to the level of fighting. When we engaged the learners, they openly said this happened in front of the teacher and the teacher did nothing. It is in situations like this where I said to you, the fear from the teacher wherein some incidents of violence could have stopped at a level of insults before they become a fight. As I indicated teachers sometimes are scared of taking their responsibilities. They are scared because of experience and the history of this school. This school has a history of a learner who stabbed and killed a teacher (HTersee 2).

When asked how the disciplinary committee tackled fights among learners a teacher who was a member of this committee at THS had this to say:

We call in the learners. If two learners fought, they both receive letters addressed to their parents inviting them to come to school. When they come back with their parents, there is a disciplinary hearing. We listen to the story of each of the learners involved in the fight. We then suspend them. They write down a declaration. They declare that they will not be found in any kind of misconduct, otherwise great measures will be taken against them and that would be expulsion. We see that this does help. It helps in the decline of violence. The disciplinary committee does not expel anybody. If a learner repeats misconduct, we hand over the case to the SGB. The SGB with the learners’ component, the RCL, teachers’ component, parents’ component come together and actually decide on the verdict as to what needs to be done to this learner. If they say learners must be expelled, they are expelled. The other learners seeing that some learners got expelled, the behaviour of the remaining learners does change. They become aware that there is a price to pay if they are not following the conduct of the school (TTurner 6).

The principal of MHS spoke about the ways in which fights among learners at MHS were tackled:

In cases where learners fight we call the concerned learners to the office and ask their parents to come to the school. If it is a serious case of violence they are immediately suspended pending hearing. After disciplinary hearing they may be expelled from the school. In certain cases we encourage the parents to take a transfer to another school other than taking the expulsion route. In most cases the
parents take the advice to transfer their children to other schools. These cases are handled by me or members of disciplinary committee. We still need to strengthen this committee because it has only two members (PMaster).

One teacher from MHS narrated how she tackled an incident of a fight between two learners which happened in the classroom during her presence:

I sent them to the office where the deputy principal contacted their parents because it is against the school’s Code of Conduct to be involved in any form of physical fight; again because the boy hit the girl quite badly. So his mother was called in and he was reprimanded for that. However, he was not suspended because he said he was very sorry. In the classroom he was punished by me. I made him sweep the classroom for a week. This learner I’m talking about is a problem. So his father has abandoned him and that type of a thing. So he has got issues. With him it is a daily conversation, giving moral lessons and values. There have been some improvements (HMediator 4).

The findings suggest that some learners in the two cases resolved misunderstandings by engaging in fights. In a way, the schools were sometimes turned into battle fields where the fittest survived. Some girls and boys were players in this field. However, the fights among boys were found to be rougher than those among girls. This study found that fights occurred more among THS boys than girls while in MHS fights were more common among girls than boys. The learners were exposed to violence that occurred in the community around the school. Some of those learners tended to be violent (Burton, 2008).

The violent nature of fights among learners scared some teachers to the extent that such teachers did not attempt to stop learners from fighting. The media seem to influence learners to engage in fights (Bandura, 1977) and to encourage other learners to fight (Doig, 2005). The media portrays fights in a glorified manner meant to entertain people. The learners in the two participant schools appeared to view fights among learners entertaining just like what they see on television. The media exposes the violent nature of South African society to learners. On a daily basis, learners learn about people who fought in particular and those who engaged in other violent activities in general. It was,
therefore, likely that learners construed fighting as one of the ways to use in solving conflicts or differences of opinion.

The findings also suggest that learners who fought in the two schools were rewarded by other learners or onlookers who cheered them on. In a way fighters who won or dominated the fight were directly motivated through direct reinforcement from their peers (Eysenck, 2003). This motivation was likely to influence some fighters and the onlookers to be violent. Some fighters might fight again when confronted by a similar situation since they were previously rewarded for fighting. In the same way, some of the onlookers might resort to fighting as a way of resolving differences because they observed some learners receiving approval for fighting from their peers. From the distributed leadership perspective, leadership emanates from multiple sources (Spillane, 2005) such as principals, teachers and learners. Spillane and Diamond (2007) note that distributed leadership may be exercised through collaborated distribution where multiple leaders work together in pursuit of a common objective. However, there was dearth of leadership among learners in the two participant schools. The learners who witnessed others fighting did not attempt to exercise leadership by encouraging or persuading the fighters to stop the fight.

It also seemed that sometimes fights occurred at classroom level due to lack of sound leadership and management on the side of some teachers at THS. Such teachers did not attempt to inspire and motivate learners to avoid fighting and resolve issues in a peaceful manner. At school level, the disciplinary committee at THS attempted to resolve cases of fights among learners. This committee consisted of ordinary teachers and the principal. As a result, teachers without designated positions as well as the principal with a designated position had an opportunity to manage or influence learners’ behaviour with regard to fights. This was consistent with distributed leadership principles which suggest that leadership in a school is carried out by formally appointed leaders as well as those without formal leadership positions. On the contrary, the disciplinary committee at MHS was made up of one HoD and a deputy principal. In this way, the management of learners’ misbehaviour and fights in particular was left in the hands of managers with a formally designated position; thus suggesting that leadership and management in this school could only be carried out by formally appointed leaders. However, it appeared that the committees in the two schools only adopted such
measures as suspension of learners from the school in an effort to maintain discipline among learners. The members of the committee seemed to be unaware that as leaders they could exert influence on learners so that such learners could understand that fighting was not a good option for solving problems.

7.3 Bullying

Bullying in this study is used to refer to intentional and harmful words, acts or behaviour which are instigated by a learner or a group of learners against another learner or learners. Such words, acts or behaviour prevailed in situations characterised by, inter alia, unequal power relationship where the learner being bullied was helpless or was struggling to defend him/herself (Olweus, 2005). In relation to school policies, THS learners were mandated by Learners’ Code of Conduct not to render themselves guilty of bullying while the Learners’ Code of Conduct at MHS states verbal and/or physical bullying as a misconduct deserving suspension from school. The participants in the two schools considered bullying to be a major problem. The findings are further organised into two subthemes, namely; types of bullying and possible consequences of bullying.

7.3.1 Types of bullying

7.3.1.1 Plundering of learners’ possessions

The findings in the two schools revealed that some stronger learners took other learners’ possessions by force. Such possessions included food, stationery, school bags and money. One HoD from THS had this to say:

Bullying is a huge problem in this school. It is almost something like initiation. It is about boys and girls wanting to have power. Power is about tormenting others to feel inferior, pushing them around and bullying them. So it is happening in the school. It is a common practice for stronger learners to take weaker learners’ food (HTersee1).

Another THS HoD reported that some learners who used drugs took younger learners’ food:
We have also discovered that some learners exploit the younger learners because we have a feeding scheme. They sometimes take food from the young learners in Grade 8. They get too hungry because they smoke dagga and that is why they end up taking younger learners’ food (HTersee 3).

I observed that THS provided lunch for learners. The learners had a chance to eat during lunch break. At lunch break time, most learners ran to the kitchen where food was served. The cooks handed food to learners. The situation was chaotic because learners pushed each other. Some boys who looked stronger would just stand at the back of a crowded group of learners and take food from girls or younger boys. Sometimes the stronger boys took more than one plate full of food. The learners whose food was taken would go back to the cooks to collect food again. Sometimes some learners found food finished. This situation was a daily occurrence until the prefects for each class started collecting food from the kitchen and learners were served food in their respective classrooms.

HTersee 4 described bullying as a crisis and pointed out that the victims of bullying were new and younger learners:

Bullying is a major crisis. Learners bully each other and those who suffer most are the new learners in the school. They take other learners’ belongings by force. You find that a learner who is older in the class will just take stationery of a learner who is younger by force and he knows that the younger learner cannot do anything. Sometimes they take the food or money from younger learners.

The acts of bullying at THS did not only involve taking of other learners’ food, but they also involved taking of money and bags. In relation to these acts, two teachers had this to say:

Some learners take the food or money from younger learners (Turner 2).
Two Grade 11 learners went to Grade 8 learners and demanded money from them almost every day. They took the school bags of those who did not have money (TTurner 3).

Bullying among learners at THS was reported by one learner from a focus group discussion as a way in which some stronger learners forcefully expropriated other learners’ possessions:

There are some incidents going on in the school where you find that there are those boys who are bigger than us. They force us to write their homework. They kind of force everything on us. We cannot do anything about this because they are older than us. They will beat you up, take your bag, take your books and copy the home work (Girls focus group THS).

For DMax bullying at MHS took forms which he expressed as ‘normal’: “The kind of violence among learners is just your normal bullying where they intimidate other small learners by demanding their lunch.”

Sometimes bullying at MHS involved groups of learners who threatened an individual learner in order to make him to surrender his money. However, this case was reported to school managers who addressed it:

There is bullying. I had an incident about a week ago where a Black male learner came to tell me that a Coloured boy had stolen his umbrella and eventually the coloured boy approached the black boy and demanded money in exchange for the umbrella. The friends of a coloured boy, who are also coloured, surrounded and threatened this black boy. We had to talk to them and said this is not on. You can’t get your friends to surround another learner. It is wrong. If it happens again we will be calling parents and if there is a need to suspend you we will do so. We had to make it sound very serious. But they were friends. They spoke to each other and promised us that it won’t happen again. I haven’t heard anything since then and I am hoping that everything is O.K. (DMiller1)
Bullying in the form of plundering provided immediate benefits to the perpetrators who appropriated the possessions of the victims. The findings also revealed that the victims occupied a position of weakness because the instigators were either older learners or boys who victimise girls.

7.3.1.2 Cyber bullying

While some acts of bullying were similar in the two participant schools, cyber bullying was also reported by MHS participants. In this regard, the MHS principal had this to say:

There is bullying on the phone. This is cyber bullying and issues of violence there. Girls in particular use this kind of bullying. For example, one girl writes a long list of other girls and refers to this list as the names of bitches or prostitutes in this school. We then prohibited the use of cell phones in this school. We had cases of cyber bullying and we called parents to explain this problem. We had taken from learners some cell phones and showed the messages to the parents. We banned the use of cell phones at the school. We encourage parents not to buy their children cell phones (PMaster).

Although learners were prohibited to use cell phones at MHS, I saw many learners in possession of cell phones. Some of them used their cell phones to make calls during break. I also observed some learners holding their cell phones pressing buttons. Some participants in a focus group of girls at MHS talked about cyber bullying:

There are lots of insults among learners like this thing called the list. On this list it is like they will write the names of other learners and bad things about them and then circulate the information. They write messages on the cell phones and send it to as many people as possible. They will write that so and so is like this even if it is not true. Sometimes, they send it to people who are not in the school. For example, they can even send it to people in Johannesburg (Girls focus group MHS).
It seemed that cell phones provided a vehicle which could be used by some MHS learners to circulate messages intended to humiliate and harm others. However, this form of bullying appeared to be complex since cell phones were small devices which learners carried to school even though they were prohibited to do so. Cell phones also could be used without the supervision of any adult, either the teachers or parents and as such learners could easily misuse them.

7.3.2 Possible consequences of bullying

The findings suggest that bullying in the two participant schools affected both perpetrators and victims. The bullies who took belongings off some learners at THS were subjected to suspension by the disciplinary committee:

Eventually that came out and the disciplinary committee intervened. They denied, but they were suspended. Some bags were found in their possession. This is the serious case that I can remember which happened recently (TTurner 3).

One participant from a focus group of girls at THS reported that some of the learners who were bullied dropped out of school:

We report them to the teachers and they get punishment, but after that they continue doing the same thing. You see other learners do not come to the school because they know that they are going to be abused or bullied by someone (Girls Focus group THS).

Two MHS HoDs spoke about a serious case of bullying where a learner who was repeatedly bullied by another learner killed the bully:

The common incident of violence among learners is bullying where learners bully each other. A few years ago we had a major incident where a learner was killed by another learner as a result of bullying. One learner stabbed another because of bullying (HMiller 2).
A few years ago we had a case of this type of bullying and eventually when the child who was being bullied got tired, he murdered the bully. This was about three years ago. I was a grade head at the time. The bullying started at the school and it was reported to the office. But the boy who was being bullied ran away from the school. In the morning of the following day he waited on the road carrying a knife and when the bully arrived, this boy stabbed him. The stabbed learner died in my arms. To me that was not a nice experience. This is why I deal with learner-on-learner violence very seriously. The boy who was the bully had been bullying this young man and I believe that the last straw was when the bully took this boy and put him up at the balcony. He made fun of the victim in front of other learners. I think that was the final straw for the boy who was being bullied. He had had enough. I think the case has not yet been resolved to date. Both the boys were Africans. He was suspended from the school. We advised him that it was not safe for him to come to the school because we could only protect him while he was in the school. However, there was no way in which we could protect him on the route to and from the school. So I think his family realised that it was too dangerous for him to come to the school (HM 3).

Cyber bullying evoked emotional feelings such as anger among some victims and they wanted to take revenge. As one participant from a girls’ focus group at MHS reported:

If your name is written on the list, sometimes you feel angry and you want to fight, but you will not know who wrote you on the list. Some learners report to the principal, but it doesn’t help because he will also not know the first person to write on the list. Few learners report cases to the principal because he is a bit slow in taking actions (Girls focus group MHS).

The repercussions of bullying could sometimes lead the victims to think of resorting to self-destruction measures as it was reported by one of the learners from a focus group discussion: “You know! One learner even wanted to commit suicide because of rumours circulated in the list” (Girls focus group MHS).

The effects of bullying on the victims varied ranging from feeling angry, feeling powerless, wanting to commit suicide and bunking school. At THS the effects of
bullying on the perpetrators included punitive measures taken by teachers and suspension instituted against the perpetrators by the disciplinary committee. However, it seemed that the punitive measures were not effective since the bullies continued victimising some learners. On the contrary, some victims at MHS appeared to have lost confidence in the ability of school managers to address bullying since some of them considered the principal to be too slow in taking action. Such mistrust of school managers might have led to one of the victims trying to rescue himself from the bully, but ended up killing the said bully.

The findings in this study regarding the prevalence of bullying in the two schools are consistent with the findings of previous studies (De Wet, 2010; Geffner et al., 2001; Harber, 2004; Liang et al., 2007; Olweus, 1999) which indicate that bullying in schools is common among boys and girls. The findings revealed that bullying sometimes had serious repercussions. The killing of one learner who retaliated against a bully at MHS was a case in point though this was an isolated issue. The findings also suggest that bullying was a stumbling block pertaining to access to education for some learners who had to stay at home because they feared bullying at THS. While the Constitution of South Africa declares education as a right (Republic of South Africa, 1996a), this right could not easily be enjoyed by some learners if bullying is not effectively addressed.

The findings in this study further revealed that there is a link between drugs and bullying. At THS, for example, it was found that some learners bullied others after they smoked dagga. In schools which are located within communities where drugs are freely available such drugs can easily be imported into the schools (South African Council of Educators, 2011). It also appeared that new technologies such as cell phones were misused by some learners at MHS to perpetrate bullying against other learners. This form of bullying seemed to be a complicated phenomenon to the school managers and learners. The learners who were victims of cyber bullying felt angry and frustrated because the origin of cyber bullying could not be traced. The school managers could not do anything other than banning the use of cell phones on the school compound. This strategy of banning cell phones hardly worked because some learners continued to carry and used cell phones while they were on school compound. While there was an attempt to manage bullying in the two schools, there appeared to be weak leadership from teachers and learners in terms of persuading and inspiring the bullies to refrain from
bullying other learners. Leadership as a process of influence is characterized, inter alia, by inspirational and rational persuasion (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2008).

### 7.4 Verbal violence

Cursing and obscene language were categorised as level one offences by Learners’ Code of Conduct at THS. This Code of Conduct defines cursing as “scolding, cursing, showing obscene signs” while obscene language is defined by the same Code of Conduct as “…insult and derogatory remarks against co-learners.” In terms of MHS Learners’ Code of Conduct use of discriminatory behaviour/remarks and use of vulgar language towards learners were prohibited. The presentation and discussion of data in this subsection is organised into the following subthemes: teasing, insults, verbal homophobia and factors contributing to verbal violence.

#### 7.4.1 Teasing

The principal of THS believed that some learners teased others in order to gain recognition as people with power:

Learners tease one another. They insult each other and instead of reporting they take authority into their hands. They do not report these issues to the teachers because they feel like they want to deal with them by themselves so that they will be seen as bosses. Our expectation is that learners should report these issues to the class teacher or class manager. If it happens in the classroom, they should report to the subject teacher. The matter can then be reported to the class teacher who will in turn transfer it to the security and safety committee (PTesco).

One THS HoD was of the view that some learners have a habit of expressing negative remarks against others even during lessons:

There is a tendency among learners even when you teach and you are making an example, not necessarily a negative example but because you identified one learner to use as an example you find that other learners are making negative remarks towards that learner. This is why some
learners are not comfortable in the classroom to respond to questions asked by the teachers (HTersee 2).

Some learners at THS were reported as making fun of other learners who spoke English incorrectly:

In our class there are some girls who like to laugh at other learners. You know! English is not our [first] language. We are Zulus, but if you talk incorrect English grammar they laugh at you. Some learners are not free to talk in class because they don’t want to be embarrassed. But I don’t care because I am a Zulu and white people cannot talk good isiZulu grammar, so I talk English anytime I want to because I know I am learning it (Focus group boys THS).

Pregnant learners as well as those who had children were also said to be subjected to verbal violence by other learners:

Some learners make fun of pregnant learners. Sometimes they laugh at girls who have children. They call them Mama or Mothers. The girls do not want to be called mothers. I think they feel bad to be called mothers. It is like they are adults (Focus group boys and girls THS).

Nicknaming according to physical appearance was considered as a form of verbal violence by one participant from a focus group discussion:

In this school, you can be insulted for anything. They give you any name they like. There is one boy in Grade 9, he is thin. So they call him bones. There is this girl in grade 11 and her body is big. So they call her big Mama. Big Mama is an actor in movies (Focus group girls THS).

The findings suggest that some learners used various abusive words to hurt others. In the classroom, some learners were verbally criticised by others as a way of controlling their behaviour. This was the case in the classroom where the findings indicated that some learners avoided responding to teachers’ questions so that they were not teased.
Verbal violence, therefore, had the potential of negatively affecting teaching and learning since effective learning required interaction between learners and teachers.

7.4.2 Insults

A THS teacher reported a gendered verbal violence where boys used various words to insult girls and tried to belittle them: “Sometimes boys call girls whores, (izefebe). ‘You have lots of boyfriends, you are nothing, you are empty’ in such a way that girls become emotionally abused” (TTurner 5).

One MHS HoD noted that some boys called girls names. However, he did not consider insults among learners as a major problem:

There are few incidents that I know of where a girl learner will complain about a boy learner saying words that a girl was not comfortable with. These boys sometimes call girls bitches. We find a way of dealing with issues like this. They will come to an end. They are not major issues like rape (HMiller 2).

TMediator4 was empathetic that learner-to-learner verbal violence undermined classroom rules since learners called each other names and also referred to some members of their families in this verbal battle:

Despite the existence of classroom rules, learners continue to call others names. It is just that they like to bring their family issues to the school. For example, one will call the other the baked beans and the other will call him smelling toes. You know! That may create a problem and then it will go from a name like baked beans and smelling toes to your mother said this, your granny said this. So it is a daily battle we have here to instil respect.

One participant from a focus group discussion reported she was verbally attacked by a boy due to her physical appearance:

I will use myself as an example. I have been teased and it really hurts. It is not a good thing. Last year one boy stood in front of me while I was walking through
the passage and he touched me on the head. He teased me about my hair because it was short. He said I was ugly. It was really hard to me and heart breaking. I was very hurt. I went to the office to report the case to the deputy principal. The boy was suspended and I told my mother about this issue. She helped me to sort out my hair and the teasing stopped (Focus Groups Girls MHS).

Some boys used derogatory name calling terms to belittle girls and this had negative emotional effects on girls. It also emerged that insults among learners sometimes had a gendered dimension where boys subjected girls to insults. HMiller 2 from MHS did not consider verbal violence among learners as a major problem and thus suggesting that school managers were not attempting to address it. However, one of the victims of verbal violence from MHS appeared to be satisfied that the perpetrator was suspended by the principal.

7. 4.3 Verbal homophobia

Two teachers from THS reported that lesbian and gay learners were subjected to verbal abuse by their fellow learners:

    Last year there was one boy who acted like a gay and other boys used to pick on him in class. They liked to tease him and there would be laughter for a moment. However, as teachers we used to tell them to stop teasing another learner and they did stop (TTurner 4).

    There was one girl in Grade 12 who came out and declared that she is a lesbian. Other learners used to abuse her verbally, but she did not care (TTurner 5).

The deputy principal from MHS was of the opinion that gay and lesbian learners were not physically abused by other learners but they were rather criticised verbally:

    There are gays and lesbians in our school, but I don’t know of any case where they have been violently mistreated, but they are criticised verbally by other learners. But we haven’t had any cases where a boy will come out and say that he is gay (DMax).
During data generation at MHS I saw two girls standing facing each other. The first girl had her hands around the second girl’s waist while the latter had her hands around the neck of the former. They were talking and smiling. Some girls were also standing and talking, but not holding each other like the two girls. They appeared not to be disturbed by these two girls. A group of boys came towards these girls and as they passed by one of the boys looked at the two girls and commented ‘lesbians! shit! You are whores! What do you think you are doing’! Other boys laughed. The two girls did not bother. They continued holding each other.

One participant from a focus group of girls was of the view that gays were subjected to verbal abuse by other learners while lesbians were accepted:

In our school, it is cool to be a lesbian. But to be a gay is a problem. They bully and tease gays. If you are a gay and you sit near the boys they will touch you and ask you if you are a boy or a girl, but if you are a lesbian it is cool (Focus group Girls MHS).

Homosexuality was not accepted by some learners. Gays and lesbians in the two schools were ridiculed and teased by fellow learners. They were subjected to verbal violence as a way in which perpetrators voiced out their disapproval of some learners who behaved against the societal norms and values.

7.4.4 Factors contributing to verbal violence

Several factors were identified by the participants as contributing to learner-to-learner verbal violence. TTTurner 3 from THS noted that some learners verbally abused other learners due to various societal factors which included unemployment, rude parents, single parents, absent fathers and young parents:

The main problem of these learners to be so violent or verbally violent is something that happens in their households. It doesn’t begin in the school. It begins at home. You will find that a mother will just call her child a bitch. If the
girl, for example, arrives late at home the mother will just say ‘where do you come from bitch?’ Then the child takes whatever she learnt at home into the school. This whole vulgar language begins at home. The parents of some of these kids are young. Some of them do not know their fathers. Some of them are staying with their grandparents. Some of them do not have parents at all. So as much as there can be some sorts of counselling within the school, we will never end this verbal violence or vulgar language. It has to end at home. Some of these kids’ mothers are 27 years old while they are 14 years. They also have their own kids. This child is staying in the two roomed house. So it is continuation of a generation. These learners come to school without any vision to learn. The mother is staying at home doing nothing. The father is not there.

TMediator3 from the same school believed that some learners verbally attacked others because they were teenagers trying to be mean or having fun:

Teasing and calling names are common among learners. You know with teenagers teasing is done just for being mean, sometimes they are just being malicious. Sometimes they will say they do it just for the fun of doing it. They will say they did not mean it seriously.

Some learners experienced verbal abuse instigated against them by their peers due to the socio-economic status of their families. This was revealed by some of the participants in a separate discussion with two different focus groups at MHS:

Teasing may be as a result of your background and family. Maybe you are not rich and other learners are rich, so they tease you. For example, they will say you go for feeding scheme, why don’t you buy lunch. You are poor. Also the way you wear your uniform. Some learners have shoes which are opened and they are teased for their shoes. They are teased for wearing a yellow shirt which is not bright like other shirts (Focus MHS group boys).

Learners talk bad things about those who go for feeding scheme. They mock you. They will say you are poor, you don’t have money, and you depend on feeding
scheme. But with me I don’t care whatever they say because I need food. I just go and eat (Focus group MHS boys and girls).

The findings illustrate that there was a causal relationship between home and school in terms of learner-to-learner verbal violence. Some of the learners were said to be using verbal violence against others because they imitated their parents who used vulgar language. In addition, it appeared that the nature of some family structures such as a single parent and young parent families crippled the capability of parents to supervise and guide children in acceptable behaviour.

The findings revealed that lesbian and gay learners in the two schools were subjected to verbal ridicule because of their sexual orientation which appeared to be defiance against what was generally considered as ‘normal.’ This homophobic attack against lesbians and gays was done through language with the aim of sending a strong message that some learners disliked, despised and/or hated lesbians and gays. At South African societal level there exists religious and cultural intolerance of relationships that defy normative gender standards (Stephens, 2011). Such intolerance was demonstrated through verbal expressions in the two schools by some learners against lesbian and gay learners. The macrosystem of Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystemic theory indicate that culture, beliefs and values which exist in the broader society indirectly affect individual members of the society (Santrock, 2008). The verbal attacks of gay and lesbian learners by some learners in the two participant schools may be regarded as an indirect influence that a broader South African society has on such learners. It was also apparent that some boys in the two schools directed gender based verbal violence against girls by labelling them derogatory names.

The socio-economic status of some parents seemed to have a bearing on violence which was perpetrated or experienced by some learners in the two schools. Factors such as poverty caused stress on parents and as a result they might be violent to their children (Burnett, 1998; Burton, 2008). Leaners that experienced verbal violence at home were likely to verbally abuse their fellow learners. Literature on social learning theory suggest that children whose parents use vulgar language or verbal violence were likely to imitate their parents by insulting their own peers (Slavin, 2009; Swartz et al., 2004). At MHS some learners were verbally abused by their peers for eating food provided by
the government through a feeding scheme. In the eyes of instigators of verbal violence eating such food illustrated poverty. Another factor which seemed to indirectly contribute to learner on learner verbal violence was young and single parents who were unlikely to be mature enough to take care of their children and teach them acceptable societal norms, values and beliefs.

7.5 Sexual harassment

Sexual harassment was a matter of concern in the two schools as reflected in the Learners’ Code of Conducts. The Learners’ Code of Conduct in THS classified sexual affliction as a serious misbehaviour of learners. This Code of Conduct defines sexual affliction as “remarks with implicit sexual connotation or affliction, indecent cuddling and/or exposure by any person.” In addition, sexual offences were stated in this Code of Conduct as very serious offences. In terms of the Code of Conduct, sexual offences refer to “Any sexual deed (or any attempt thereto) committed on school supervision, or where the learner of this school, including indecent assault (sic).” In a way, the type of sexual offence committed by a learner determines the type of disciplinary action that may be taken against such a learner since the punishment for very serious offences is harsher that for serious transgressions. MHS Learners’ Conduct includes sexual harassment among the list of offences stated as deserving warning, suspension or expulsion. The discussion of sexual harassment is organised around three subthemes, namely; physical sexual harassment, visual and verbal sexual harassment as well as girls like what boys do on their bodies.

7.5.1 Physical sexual harassment

The research participants from the two schools reported various forms of physical sexual harassment which girls experienced from boys. Such harassment included unwanted kissing and unwelcome touching of girls’ bodies like breasts, buttocks and private parts. Talking about sexual harassment instigated by learners against fellow learners the principal of THS had this to say:
Sometimes learners sexually abuse others like touching the private parts of their bodies. We take these kinds of misconduct very seriously. We call the parents of the involved learners and explain that to them. Some parents would say that their children go to the church and they would not do things like that. But when we explain to them what their kids are doing, they almost collapse because some of these learners misbehave at school and behave well at home. They know that we are the teachers and with this bill from the government where learners are given lots and lots of rights, it is difficult for us. They know that we cannot hit them. They respect their parents, but they do not respect us (PTesco).

One of the reasons that PTesco advanced for prevalence of peer sexual harassment was the prohibition of corporal punishment. However, I saw some teachers administering corporal punishment at THS on numerous occasions as I indicated in chapter six.

Some female learners at THS were also said to have been sexually molested by some boys: “Some Grade 8 girls also reported that some boys touch them in an uncomfortable way and kiss them unwillingly” (Tersee4).

Turner 3 spoke about a case where a group of boys assisted one of them to rape a girl:

There was a boy who was suspended and he agreed that he did do it. The friends of this boy held one girl and then he went underneath the girl and performed oral sex. The girl reported the case and the boy was suspended. His parents were called to the school. That was a Grade 9 learner.

One participant from a focus group discussion reported her personal experience of sexual harassment:

I want to talk about what happened to me. Last week, on Friday, I was the only one left in the classroom during break time. One of the big boys [the boys which the participants said were more than twenty years old and therefore not expected to be high school learners] that we are talking about found me in class. I saw him smiling and asking me why I was in the class alone. I said I did not want food, so I decided to stay in the class. He said I was beautiful and he kissed me. Nxa! That
is sexual harassment. Mmm! you know! I was angry! I left him in the class and went to the tap to wash my mouth. I did not tell [report the incident to the teachers] the teachers because I feared that he would beat me up (Focus group boys and girls THS).

Responding to a question of whether or not boys also experienced sexual abuse perpetrated against them by girls or other boys, one participant had this to say:

How can a boy be sexually abused by a girl? It is impossible because if a girl can just go to a boy and kiss him the boy can be happy. If a girl kisses me, I can kiss her back. She can do whatever and I can be happy (Focus group boys and girls THS).

The principal of MHS had this to say:

There have been cases where some girls came to the office to complain that boys sexually harass them. They like to touch them on the bums and breasts. We take issues of sexual harassment very serious. We warn the boys that the behaviour is unacceptable and it should not happen again (PMaster).

The deputy principal of MHS acknowledged that some girls reported acts of sexual harassment instigated against them by boys:

We have cases where girls do report issues of sexual harassment. For example, the girl will report that a certain boy touched her on the breasts or buttocks and this is normally reported to teachers whom the girl will first find otherwise the learner will come down to the office and report the case to me or the principal (DMax).

Sometimes a group of learners instigated sexual harassment against other learners. One such incident was reported by one of MHS teachers:

There was an incident of sexual abuse. It wasn’t rape as such or anything close, but last year in Grade 9 class there was a group of boys. It was a rainy day like today. This group of boys had an umbrella and they went around the school
sticking the sharp end of their umbrella into the girls’ private parts. As the girls were standing they would do that. The girls reported this incident [sexual harassment] and the parents were called to the school. There was a tribunal and the boys were given a warning and suspended from the school. There are also numerous cases which we have to deal with almost on a daily basis where girls complain that boys touch them on breasts, bums or any part of the body and the girls are uncomfortable with that. You find this happening mostly among African learners. The boys will just touch the girls anywhere and think that nothing will happen. It is absolutely normal to them. So I constantly counsel them. During the second break I always talk to them about appropriate behaviour and why it is wrong to touch people in the private parts of their bodies and things like that. So it is a daily thing, talking to them and teaching them. After talking to them some of them understand and change their behaviour. But it comes down to respect and what they see at home because the boys see nothing wrong with what they do. It is normal for them. It is something which is actually scary that it is normal for them. (TMediator 4).

From a discussion in a focus group of boys and girls at MHS one participant reported that some boys sexually harassed girls but they got away with it because the aggrieved girls were instructed by school managers to forgive such boys:

Boys like to touch girls when girls walk through the passage. They touch you everywhere. When you go to report at the office, they will say you should call the person who touched you. When this boy arrives at the office, he will be told to apologise and you are told to forgive him. You can see that sometimes it is useless to report at the office because the boy will not be punished. He can even beat you if he meets you outside the school (Focus group girls MHS).

The findings from both schools show that most of the victims of physical sexual harassment were girls. The unwanted touching of various parts of female learners’ bodies done by male learners illustrates that the said bodies were sites of sexual harassment. These findings are consistent with those of Haffejee (2006) who found that boys sexually harass girls by touching them in an unwelcome manner in order to control girls’ movements and to treat girls as sexual objects. Sexual harassment also created a
hostile environment (De Wet & Oosthuizen, 2010) for victims of this type of violence. This study found that some cases of sexual harassment went unreported because the victims feared further victimization by the perpetrators. In some instances, it appeared that some learners did not report sexual harassment incidents because they lost confidence in the school managers’ potential to address such incidents. Perhaps some teachers or members of school management team might have considered some sexual harassment issues as minor and, therefore, instructed the perpetrators to apologise to the victim, but the view of some learner participant was that school managers were unwilling to take necessary actions.

The findings further revealed that some learners at MHS stopped sexually harassing girls after a teacher talked to them and explained that sexual harassment was wrong and harmful. Leadership as a process of influence creates an opportunity for various stakeholders in the school to exert influence in order to realise organisational goals. In this case, a teacher who convinced some learners that sexually harassment is wrong demonstrated that leadership had the potential to have a positive impact on sexual harassment in particular and school violence in general.

### 7.5.2 Visual and verbal sexual harassment

Although the majority of cases of sexual harassment in the two schools involved female learners as victims and male learners as perpetrators, there were few incidents of visual sexual harassment where male learners were victims. A HoD from THS, for example, commented that one female learner sexually harassed boys by showing them her genitals:

There is also this incident of a female learner who is in Grade 12 and she showed the private parts of her body to some Grade 8 boys. One of the boys reported the incident. This happened last year and I was not part of management then so I do not know all the details about what happened to that girl. But I remember that her parents were called to the school. The disciplinary measures were taken against her (HTersee 4).
In a discussion with a focus group of boys it emerged that male boys found it sexually abusive when some girls sat on the desks with their skirts pulled up:

Some girls abuse boys in the way in which they sit. During break time some of them sit on the desks and you can see that they are not sitting in a good way because their skirts are pulled up. It is a challenge to us boys because with some girls you can even see their underwear. Some of them do it deliberately to test boys (Focus group boys THS).

One of the teachers from THS attested to the view that it was normal for boys to verbally harass girls when boys are teenagers:

Boys will always be boys. They sometimes say inappropriate words to girls. For example, recently one girl reported that some boys in Grade 9 told her that her legs are hairy and they think that she has a bush under her skirt where Bill Laden was hiding. You could see that the girl was hurt because she was crying. The boys apologised. But as I said boys behave like boys and it is normal for them to behave like that because they are teenagers (TTurner 1)

Learners could also be sexually harassed due to their sexual orientation. A teacher from THS reported that one gay was subjected to verbal sexual harassment by fellow male learners: “There is also a boy in grade 8 who is a gay. Other boys call him names. They say stuff like ‘this one is menstruating today. He does not care, he just laughs” (TTurner 5).

Similarly, the deputy principal of MHS reported that gay and lesbian learners experienced verbal sexual harassment instigated against them by other learners:

If a boy talks in a kind of funny way, he will be teased by other learners and that kind of thing, but not really in any violent way. We never had cases of physical attack against gays or lesbians. There had only been criticism like ‘so and so is a lesbian, so and so is a gay’ (DMax).
One participant from a focus group of MHS girls believed that some boys who did not respect girls verbally harassed girls: “Some boys do not respect girls. If they quarrel with a girl and a girl is assertive, they will call that girl a bitch. If they hate a girl they call her a bitch” (Focus group girls MHS).

The findings suggest that visual sexual harassment was mainly experienced by some boys at THS. Verbal sexual harassment was experienced by both male and female learners. Male learners experienced verbal violence instigated against them by fellow boys.

7.5.3 Girls like what the boys do on their bodies.

Sexual harassment is understood as a form of violence which is harmful to the victim. However, it emerged from the findings of this study that some participants were the view that in some instances girls who experienced sexual harassment appeared to like it. One HoD was of the view that few incidents of sexual harassment occurred at THS, but she was adamant that sometimes girls liked to be sexually harassed by boys:

There are rare cases where boys touch girls when and where girls do not want to be touched. The incidents of sexual harassment can be 1% except in grade 8 where girls provoke boys because they are at the teenage stage. But they like what the boys do on their bodies. If you see them and ask ‘why are you letting that boy to touch your thighs’? The girl will say: ‘No madam I was coming to report him.’ You can actually see that the girl is enjoying it. So you cannot intervene on cases like this. Some girls tolerate sexual abuse by boys because they are also abused by their uncles. Most of the learners are abused because they do not have parents. In order for them to be taken care of, they are being abused by the uncles or whoever (HTersee 3).

During data generation at THS I saw one girl ignoring what I considered to be sexual harassment. It was break time and one girl was standing close to the reception window talking to the school clerk. A group of boys passed by heading towards one office and one of the boys moved closer to the girl, touched and massaged her buttocks. He then followed other boys into the office. The girl looked at him and then back at the clerk
continuing with her conversation with the clerk as if nothing happened. I expected that
the girl would respond in a manner that would illustrate disapproval of what the boy did
to her. However, I did not know if the girl kept quiet because she liked to be touched in
that way or because she feared the perpetrator and, therefore, decided to keep quiet. I
decided not to ask her why she was not responding because I considered the incident to
be a sensitive issue which had a potential to harm either the victim or the perpetrator if
it was pursued further. I chose to adhere to the ethical principle which dictates that any
research should not cause harm to anybody.

The deputy principal of MHS spoke about the complexity of sexual harassment where
boys simply perform acts of sexual harassment on girls and then claim that they were
playing. The complex part was that girls also agreed that what was seen a sexual
harassment was a game:

There are cases also where the teachers have seen the boys touching girls on the
breasts or anywhere and the girls not responding on the way in which the teachers
would expect. If you see, for example, from a distance a boy touching a girl in a
manner that shows an element of harassment you would expect that when you
pass close to them the girl will complain, but she does not complain. If you asked
the boy what he was doing, he will simply reply that they were playing and the
girl will agree with her. So the trick line here is that sometimes the girls let the
boys touch them any how under the pretext that, ‘I am just playing’, but the next
day when the mood is not so nice she wants to come down to the office and report
that she was sexually harassed. It is a kind of a tricky situation, but when learners
do report these cases, it is taken very seriously (DMax).

HMiller 1 from MHS was of the view that boys sexually harassed girls because the
girls enjoyed what the boys were doing on the girls’ bodies:

They like what the boys are doing. For example a girl will be walking and when
she passes close to the boys, a boy will just grab her and touch the bum and lift up
the skirt. Sometimes you will see a girl smiling after the boy has done all this
which means she likes it. It is like they are not educated when it comes to that
type of the thing. These are the kinds of things which may lead to rape and the
boy will say but she consented, she did not stop me. They like what the boys are doing.

A participant from a focus group shared similar views with HMiller 1: “Some girls enjoy being touched, they like it. When they are touched, they will make a noise as if they don’t like it, but you know that they like it” (Focus group girls MHS).

Literature illustrates that school managers and teachers ignore some acts of sexual violence experienced by learners (Human Rights Watch, 2001; Mpina, 2011). While this may be a valid point, the findings in this study suggest that teachers and school managers sometimes found it difficult to take measures against perpetrators of sexual violence when the victims did not report the incidents. Another inhibiting factor was the positive response of ‘would be’ victims towards sexual harassment. When girls did not report sexual abuse acts or they smiled it was understood to mean that they were inviting boys to sexually harass them. In this way it seems that sometimes girls were blamed for being victims of sexual abuse. From the social learning perspective most violent models are males while most victims are females and as such there was a risk that some girls in the two schools tolerated sexual harassment because they considered it as part of females’ normal life (Powell et al., 2009). From the same token of male models being violent, it might be argued that some girls appeared to accept sexual harassment due to fear of being victimised by violent boys.

The reactions of school managers in the two schools towards sexual harassment depended on the nature or seriousness of sexual harassment incidents. For more serious cases of sexual harassment, the perpetrators were suspended and thus sending a message that sexual harassment is a human rights violation which schools did not tolerate. However, the response of school managers towards less serious sexual harassment acts such as unwanted touching was worrying as they ignored them. By ignoring such acts the school managers created a school environment which was conducive to sexual harassment. The indirect message appeared to be that it was right that boys could touch girls anyhow. The findings suggest girls in the two participant schools experienced sexual abuse more than the boys. Sexual abuse means that some learners in general and girls in particular had a negative schooling experience.
7.6 Teachers not trained about school violence

Several participants expressed views that teachers in the two participant schools were not trained to understand and address school violence. HTersee 1 from THS spoke about challenges that hindered this school from organising teachers’ professional development with regard to school violence. He commented that large classes coupled with disciplinary problems exhausted teachers and as such it was not easy for teachers to attend workshops after work:

We do not have such training. Like I said we run the school so tight and the classes are so big. Teachers need a break for training outside school time. It is very difficult because it is frustrating to be in a class teaching large numbers of learners and dealing with discipline issues. The teachers are normally tired at the end of the day. They need a break. They need to recharge their batteries. So it is very difficult to organise workshops (HTersee1).

A teacher participant from THS acknowledged the importance of teacher professional development workshops which did not only address curriculum issues, but also school violence because teachers were expected to multi-task:

We need training on school violence because we only attend workshops on the curriculum every year and the curriculum is not the only thing we are mandated on as teachers. There is misconduct and violence that we come across so I believe we need to be ‘work-shopped’ on how to handle those. I am actually surprised that there is nothing like that when we do actually come across problems. I believe workshops would be very helpful. As I said we really do need workshops. It is just the experience of the older teachers that help. These older teachers [experienced teachers] know about different measures and ways of managing discipline in the school (TTurner 6).
The deputy principal of MHS was of the view that the Department of Education should be responsible for organising professional development of teachers so that they could be in the position to tackle school violence:

I don’t know of any kind of workshops where educators are given an opportunity to be trained on issues specifically related to ways of dealing with violence at the schools. I think the department of education should take that initiative and kind of do more in terms of equipping teachers with skills required to address violence in schools (DMax).

On the contrary one MHS HoD lamented that school violence was not a major problem hence there had not been any teacher professional development to that regard: “Given the fact that the violence in our school is not a major issue, we have not had a workshop per se” (HMiller2).

A teacher from the same school expressed a different view from that of HMiller 2: “There is nothing as important as training. We need to learn how to deal with issues of violence. Maybe that will make a difference” (TMediator6).

Staff professional development may be realised through in-service training, networking with other schools and peer support schemes (Harris, 2002). The only available avenue for staff development at THS was uncoordinated peer support where new teachers learnt from experienced teachers. The availability of such peer support was not reported at MHS. Lack of training of staff in particular implied that they might be promoting violence while they believed that they were trying to curb it. To this effect, Mokhele (2011) contends that teachers who have not been trained to manage teaching and learning in a democratic way adopt coercive management styles such as the use of corporal punishment to tackle learners’ discipline. In a study that investigated experiences of queer learners in South African township schools, Msibi (2012) found that school managers were unable to protect homosexual learners against violence due to lack of knowledge since they were not trained to understand school violence. However, professional development of people is essential for effective performance of their duties. The focus could be on a continuous development programme concerning knowledge, skills and attitudes about school violence (Steyn, 2002).
7.7 Emerging issues

It appears that the attitudes of some learners in the two schools created an environment conducive to learner-to-learner violence. Such attitudes include the excitement which some learners demonstrated when other learners were fighting, for example. Learner to learner violent acts or behaviour portrayed the dynamic nature of violence. For example, fights among learners appeared to be a form of violence which was considered to be a more serious offence in the two schools. Other forms of violence seemed to have variations in terms of seriousness. As a result, the school managers in the participant schools adopted a range of punitive measures such as warning, suspension and expulsion in an attempt to control or minimise learner to learner violence. More focus of school managers and teachers appeared to be on management of school violence than providing leadership which would influence learners to avoid instigating violence against other learners. More worrying findings indicate that due to the fear of being victimised by learners some THS teachers turned a blind eye on learners’ violent acts. There was, generally, a dearth of leadership from stakeholders in the two participant schools. Distributed leadership is based on the idea that leadership is exercised by multiple leaders who share leadership functions (Carson, Telsluk, & Marrone, 2007). Such multiple leaders should lead as individuals or work collaboratively (Spillane & Diamond, 2007). In the absence of leadership it was likely that learner-to-learner violence would continue in the two research schools.

Although there was generally leadership absence, it was found that there were a few isolated incidents where some teachers performed leadership roles. The findings revealed that learners could change their attitudes and behaviours of instigating violence against other learners if teachers and other school managers talked to them and stimulated them to be innovative by changing and un-learning old habits of violent behaviour. One teacher from MHS, for example, was reported as having succeeded in persuading some boys to stop harassing girls sexually. Hoy and Miskel (2005) maintains that transformational leaders motivate followers to be creative by questioning
old ways of doing things and adopting new ways. It is, therefore, apparent that there is a possibility for effective tackling of learner to learner violence if leadership emanating from various sources (Northouse, 2010) could encourage learners to question their violent behaviours and adopt non-violent means.

Another important issue which emerged from the findings was that teachers in the two research schools were not capacitated on school violence matters through staff development initiatives. Literature reviewed in this study (see chapter two) suggest that the development of people is essentials for realisation of organisational goals (Harris, 2002; Smith, 2005; Steyn, 2002). Such development would better equip the stakeholders with knowledge and skills necessary in tackling school violence. However, the absence of such training could mean that stakeholders dealt with schools in any way they considered best which could in turn promote or reduce school violence.
CHAPTER: 8 LEARNING FROM THE RESEARCH JOURNEY

8.1 Introduction

This study sought to explore leadership practices adopted by two schools in an attempt to tackle school violence. There is a consensus among researchers that violence is one of the major challenges facing South African schools (Burton, 2008; Harber, 2006; Mpina, 2011; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013). Leadership is viewed as having the potential to tackle various challenges (Blair, 2002). As a result, I was interested in finding out how leadership addressed the challenge of violence in high schools. The type of leadership examined in this study is based on the idea that leadership in a school should be exercised by many leaders (Spillane & Diamond, 2007) including teachers and learners. As indicated in chapter 1, the word ‘teacher’ in this chapter is used to denote classroom teachers, HoDs, deputy principals and principals.

This study was guided by three critical questions:

1. What are the dynamics of school violence in each of the selected schools?
2. How can the nature of leadership in each of the selected school be described and explained?
3. What can be said to be the role of leadership in addressing school violence?

Chapters 5, 6, and 7 answered these critical questions. This chapter draws from the said three chapters to reflect on the research journey regarding the dynamics of school violence and how leadership practices were enacted in the two schools to tackle such dynamics. In the discussion, I highlight similarities and differences of findings regarding the two participant schools. However, there appear to be more similarities than the differences. The Chapter also uses the findings to articulate the thesis of the study. It is divided into two main sections, namely; crystallising the research journey, and lessons from the research journey.

8.2 Crystallising the research journey

The motivation to undertake this research journey emanated from my realisation that school violence is one of the major challenges facing schools in South Africa. School violence is a stumbling block to quality teaching and learning. As a student of
education leadership, I was aware that leadership is crucial if schools have to address violence effectively. In order to provide a map way for my journey, I began by exploring its background and purpose. I highlighted international and South African policies that framed this research journey and highlighted the problem statement, and the significance of undertaking it (Chapter 1). In pursuit of what is already known about the topic with a view to identifying gaps and position my own study, I examined literature in two broad areas, namely; leadership, and the dynamics of violence. Key observations emerging from this part of the journey include that dynamics of school violence consisted, inter alia, of various forms, causes and possible consequences. In order to understand these dynamics I chose to focus on learner-to-teacher violence, teacher-to-learner violence and teacher-to-learner violence. It also emerged that there are various leadership theories which could be used to understand and explain leadership practices. However, no study was identified which focused on how leadership influences school violence. It was this gap in literature which I set out to fill (Chapter 2).

In seeking to develop a deep understanding of the two broad areas of school violence and leadership, I selected three theoretical lenses, namely; ecosystemic, social learning and distributed leadership theories. Through the first and second lenses I was able to make meaning of data pertaining to the dynamics of school violence. The third lens assisted me in identifying appropriate participants. It also enabled me to interpret leadership processes which were undertaken or not taken in the two schools in an attempt to address the dynamics of violence (Chapter 3). In proceeding with my research journey, I identified and explained the paradigm in which the research project was located. I described how I got access to research sites highlighting procedures I followed as well as the challenges I encountered. I explored the research design and methodology. I then described and provided justification for selecting data production methods I used to generate (Chapter 4).

Due to the vast amount of data which I generated through the use of interviews, observations and document analysis, I decided to present and discuss data in three separate parts (chapters 5, 6 and 7). In part one, I presented and discussed data pertaining to violence instigated against the teachers by learners. Violence experienced by teachers from their learners was discussed in part two while part three discussed
violence perpetrated by learners against other learners. In all the three parts I also discussed leadership and management practices which the two schools adopted to address school violence.

8.3 Lessons from the research journey

This section is organised along two sub-themes: dynamics of school violence and the relationship between leadership and school violence.

8.3.1 Dynamics of school violence

This sub-theme reflects and discusses the lessons I learnt from the research journey in relation to the dynamics of violence and leadership processes thereof. It focuses on the following dynamics of violence: types of school violence, causes of school violence, variation and gravity of school violence as well as the relationships within and between forms of school violence.
8.3.1.1 Types of school violence

Table 8.1 below presents a summary of the types of violence which were discussed in the previous three chapters.

Figure 8.1: Types of school violence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Box A</strong></td>
<td><strong>Box B</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical violence, threats, written violence, verbal violence, Ill-treatment of new teachers, disrespecting teachers and refusal to follow instructions, nicknaming, racism, xenophobia, violence against teachers’ property</td>
<td>Corporal punishment, assault, verbal violence, racially motivated violence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Box C**

Fights, bullying, verbal violence, sexual harassment
Box A contains the forms of violence which some learners in the two schools instigated against the teachers. Box B shows forms of violence suffered by learners from their teachers while Box C shows the types of violence which learners experienced from other learners. The three boxes constitute a triangle within which school violence is experienced by some of the stakeholders including learners and teachers. In terms of varieties of school violence, the findings suggest that teachers in the two research schools experienced more types of violence than learners. The scenario that teachers suffered more violence illustrates that they were struggling to influence learners for non-violent behaviour. One of the legislated roles of teachers in South Africa is that a teacher should be a leader, manager and administrator (Department of Education, 2000c). Thus, each teacher is expected to carry out leadership roles and influence learners. However, it seemed that some teachers in the two participant schools could not inspire and influence learners in such a way that learners desist from instigating violence against the teachers.

The findings also revealed that learners experienced violence instigated against them from two sources, namely; by learners and teachers. Although teachers might experience violence perpetrated against them by their colleagues as well, that part of school violence falls outside the scope of this study. I found that the interpretation of what constitutes violence was not common among the participants. The findings, for instance, illustrated that corporal punishment was a highly contested phenomenon in terms of whether or not it was violence. At the policy level corporal punishment is legislated against and, therefore, technically a form of violence. However, at the implementation level or school level most of stakeholders in THS did not view it as violence. They considered it to be a corrective disciplinary measure. As a result, corporal punishment was still commonly used at THS. The use of an old and illegal disciplinary measure could be interpreted as a sign of leadership absence. Leadership is associated with transformation of organisation (Morrison, 2008) change and movement (David & Lazarus, 2002). In this case, leadership would have addressed the issue of corporal punishment if the teachers facilitated and allowed transformation to occur by devising alternative means of disciplining learners. However, teachers seemed to have been stagnant in adopting corporal punishment despite the fact that it has been declared to be illegal. Therefore, a lack of leadership was apparent.
Similarly, some acts of sexual harassment (such as when a boy touched a girl on the buttocks or breasts and the girl did not resist or complain) in the two participant schools were not considered as sexual harassment by some stakeholders. Their understanding was that when the girls did not complain about being touched they enjoyed what the boys did on their bodies. This understanding could have a bearing on how boys and girls in the two schools interpreted some sexually violent acts. One possibility would be that girls would accept some sexual harassment acts as part of their normal school experience while boys might think that it was not wrong to touch girls anyhow (Powell, et al., 2009). Judging from the views held by various participants regarding some acts of sexual harassment acts, sometimes there was no leadership attempt to encourage the perpetrators to stop their behaviour. Learners and teachers tended to ignore leadership responsibilities (Hoy & Miskel, 2005). From a social learning theory perspective, most behaviour is learnt through observation and modelling (Bandura, 1977). Hence, some learners who might have observed teachers ignoring such acts might in future perform the said acts.

Some violent acts or behaviour tended to be covert. With regard to learner-to-teacher violence, written forms of violence and damage to teachers’ property were good examples. The learners who either damaged teachers’ property or wrote insults about some teachers did so covertly. It appeared that such learners wanted to hurt the targeted teachers, but did not want to be identified. Cyber bullying among learners at MHS also fits into the category of covert forms of violence in that it was not easy to trace the original sender of a violent message against the victims of this form of violence. The participants at THS did not know of any incidents of cyber-bullying in this school. The perpetrators of both forms of violence wanted to remain anonymous. It appears that there was lack of smooth communication between learners and teachers. Lack of open communication channels implied that some learners could not express their grievances and, therefore, resorted to expressing their anger violently, but ensured that they could not be identified. Harber (2004) contends that lack of communication between learners and teachers is a barrier which may lead to suspicion, mistrust and misunderstanding. In turn, learners may be frustrated and express their anger through violence directed to property and humans. It may also be argued that a lack of communication acted as a
barrier for teachers to persuade some learners to avoid instigating violence against the teachers and their property.

It was also apparent that some forms of violence were overt. The perpetrators of these kinds of violence instigated them against the victims in full view of members of school community. To illustrate, learner fights mostly occurred in the presence of other learners. The onlookers often became excited and, therefore, attracted the attention of other learners and teachers who might not have been at places where fighting took place. In classrooms, some learners disrespected and verbally attacked teachers in view of other learners. Some teachers at THS avoided providing leadership directions to learners about violence due to a fear of being victimised by learners. The fear emanated from the fact that the school had a history where one teacher was killed by a learner. In some situations, therefore, some teachers ignored learners who disrupted their lessons.

In situations where covert violence erupted among some learners, other learners responded in a manner that illustrated a dearth of leadership. They got excited and entertained. Instead of encouraging those who were fighting to stop the fight, for instance, the onlookers cheered them on to carry on with the fight. Similarly, in other cases some learners verbally attacked their teachers in the classroom and such learners’ peers did not attempt to persuade violent learners to stop violent behaviour. Leadership is a process of influence which can be exerted by anybody in the school (Bush et al., 2010; Werner, 2011; Van der Mescht & Tyala, 2008). Similarly, distributed leadership is based on the notion that leadership in a school should emanate from multiple sources (Spillane & Diamond, 2007). As a result, covert school violence could be addressed effectively if teachers and learners performed leadership roles. The situation of covert violence was likely to be exacerbated if teachers and learners continued to avoid exercising leadership roles of encouraging and motivating the perpetrators of violence to refrain from such behaviour.

While it was possible that any of the stakeholders in the two schools could be a victim of violence, some members tended to be more exposed to violence than others. In this regard, sexual harassment among learners was experienced by girls more than boys. Sexual harassment of females by males is also a problem in South Africa (Human Rights Watch, 2001). South Africa is said to be one of the countries in the world with
the highest rate of sexual harassment. South African females experience different types of sexual harassment in various areas which include school, home and community (Gevers & Flisher, 2012). Thus, what transpired in the two schools in relation to sexual harassment mirrored the societal challenges. However, some boys at THS mainly experienced visual sexual harassment which none of the girls at THS were reported to have experienced. Bullying among learners revealed power relations as younger learners were victimised by bigger and stronger learners. The victims of bullying rarely retaliated because they were powerless. It was in rare cases where the victims of bullying defended themselves. Such a rare case at MHS resulted in a victim of bullying stabbing and killing the perpetrator. The fact that some learners were more likely to be victims of violence than others illustrates that their rights to education were undermined. In addition, forms of such as violence such as sexual harassment among learners can be predicted in terms of who was likely to be the victim (mostly a girl) and a perpetrator (mostly a boy). Similarly, it could be predicted that bullying occurred between the powerful or older and the powerless or younger where the former was a perpetrator while the latter was a victim. Another aspect which illustrate the dynamic nature of school violence was that some forms could be predictable (Katerndahl et al., 2012). If these predictable forms of violence occurred and re-occurred without being addressed it was likely that they would be part of culture in the two schools since the people’s way of life becomes its culture (Walker, 2010). It, therefore, appears that leadership was failing schools by not appealing and influencing learners to unlearn their habits of sexually harassing and bullying others.

In most cases, learner-on-teacher violence occurred in the classrooms. It was in the classrooms where teachers interacted with learners mainly about teaching and learning processes. However, these processes were sometimes distracted by violence. Learner-on-learner violence happened more often than not during break time in the classrooms, on play grounds and along corridors. These places provided an opportunity for perpetrators of violence to victimise other learners. The prevalence of violence in different spaces within schools demonstrates that there was lack of leadership among learners and teachers. According to Harris (2008), there is empirical evidence that distributed leadership has a positive change on an organisation. Therefore, if leadership was exercised at different spaces by learners and teachers a change in the school as an organisation would be achieved through the reduction of school violence. Distributed
leadership would mean that violence is addressed at all levels. It should exist in the classrooms, on school grounds and at school level. Leadership should not only be treated as a preserve for formally appointed people, instead it should be carried out by different members of the organisation in pursuit of group aims (Horner, 2003). Various stakeholders such as learners and teachers should exercise this kind of leadership precisely because school violence occurs in different places and affects all stakeholders.

Given the scenario that violence occurred in different areas within the schools where teachers and learners interacted, suggests that the occurrence of some forms of violence at any given time and space was unpredictable. However, some forms of violence tended to be predictable. In various forms of violence, leadership should be effective at all levels of the schools. However, if teachers and learners continued to shy away from exercising leadership, it was likely that violence would keep occurring and recurring.

8.3.1.2 Causes of school violence

The causes of violence were found as an essential part of the dynamics of school violence. Violence in the school originated within and outside the school environment. In order to discuss the causes of violence within their appropriate context, I took into consideration four main ecosystems suggested by Bronfenbrenner. Although the discussion is guided by Bronfenbrenner’s ecosystems, I also bring within the discussion the two theoretical foundations of this study, namely; social learning and distributed leadership theories.

**Microsystem**

This system is seen as an individual’s immediate environment in which different activities, roles and interpersonal relationships transpire (Slavin, 2009). The family as an immediate environment for learners was found as one of the sources of violence in the two schools. Both Bandura (1977) and Bronfenbrenner (1994) emphasise the crucial role which the family plays in relation to children’s behaviour in general and violent behaviour in particular. The findings revealed that some learners came from child-headed families while others had single parents. Some parents were reported by
the participants to be violent and often instigated violence against their children and thus socialising such children to be violent (Bandura, 1977). Those who came from child-headed households tended to lack values such as respect to adults and authorities. As a result, they tended to easily behave in a violent manner towards other learners and teachers.

Learners’ peers were also found as contributing to violence in the two schools. The peers caused violence directly and indirectly. In a direct way, they encouraged some learners to engage in violent behaviours. For example, in situations where some learners fought, others cheered them so that they could continue. Indirectly, learners tended to cause school violence by laughing when others were provoked so that those provoked could retaliate. It appeared that there was a culture in which some learners fuelled school violence instead of attempting to eliminate it. Harris (2004) contends that distributed leadership is characterised, inter alia, by the creation of a common culture where individual abilities and skills are used for the betterment of the organisation. It may be argued that some learners had untapped abilities and skills which could be used to reduce fights in particular and violence in general among learners. However, it seems that the teachers in the two schools did not create such a culture. However, distributed leadership may also be spontaneous where some members of the school community collaborate and create opportunities to pull together their abilities and skills to solve a problem and thereafter disband without the influence of the principal (Gronn, 2002). As a result, it could be possible for some learners to attempt to stop violence between other learners without being influenced by the teachers to do so. It can, therefore, be concluded that both learners and teachers demonstrated weak leadership.

**Mesosystem**

The mesosystem is to do with the connection between microsystems such as family and school (Santrock, 2008). In some instances, some learners from MHS threatened teachers with violence because such learners knew that their parents would support them. Some parents at MHS verbally attacked teachers in the presence of learners when such parents were invited at the school for disciplinary hearings regarding their children’s misbehaviour. Such parents acted as violent role models to their children. It was, therefore, apparent that some learners at MHS instigated verbal violence against
the teachers because they witnessed some parents trying to solve misunderstandings with violence (Swartz et al., 2004).

On the contrary, some parents of THS learners supported the use of corporal punishment on their children. Sometimes, other parents actually administered corporal punishment by themselves if they were called to the school for disciplinary issues of their children.

The socio-economic factors such as crime, poverty and unemployment prevalent in the communities around the two schools influenced violence which occurred in these schools. Crime sometimes is violent in the communities where some learners come from and some learners tended to imitate violence performed by criminals in the community. At THS, for example, some learners stole other learners’ possessions like bags. Some learners at MHS were also said to have expressed xenophobic remarks against foreign African teachers. Racism, which is still a problem in South Africa, occurred between teachers and learners at MHS. In both schools, sexual harassment of learners by other learners was common. The cause of sexual harassment could be traced back to the wider South African society since literature shows that South African women experience high rates of sexual harassment. The existence of these forms of violence in two schools which seems to be fuelled from the community demonstrates the ineffectiveness of school leadership in tackling violence.

**Exosystem**

This level focuses on experiences from a particular context which has an influence on what teachers and learners experience in their immediate setting (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Some forms of violence, for example, are rife among South African society but indirectly influenced how learners interacted with other learners and teachers. I reported that, for instance, xenophobia was a common form of violence which some South Africans instigate against foreign African nationals. Since most behaviour is learnt observationally through modelling (Bandura, 1977) some learners at MHS disrespected foreign African teachers. Some participants were also of the view that some learners fight other learners because they imitate some members of the society. As a result, of learners’ misbehaviour some teachers became frustrated and angry. Frustration and anger makes a person to feel uncomfortable. Such a person is also unable to relax. In
order to relieve the pressure of frustration and anger, some teachers instigated violence against learners. Such teachers, for instance, used strong language which technically could be interpreted as verbal violence against the learners. In chapter six, I reported that some teachers assaulted learners while others verbally attacked the learners in an attempt to control and manage the learners’ behaviour and ensure that they obeyed the instructions.

**Macrosystem**

This system involves culture, values, beliefs and ideologies (Sarantakos, 2005). The deeply held values and ideologies of how a child was raised in the community around the two schools influenced how teachers disciplined learners. Due to the said values and ideologies, teachers in the two schools administered corporal punishment on learners though THS teachers used corporal punishment on learners more often and then their counterparts at MHS. There was also a noticeable culture of writing on the walls in the two schools and some learners misused this culture by instigating written violence against the teachers. Some acts of sexual harassment among learners were also caused by the belief that they did not constitute violence or the victims liked to be subjected to such acts. Some of the teachers and learners in the two schools held this belief and as such some boys continued to harass girls without being brought to book. In relation to leadership, it was found that there was a dearth of leadership among teachers and learners. The role of leadership would be to inspire and motivate members of a school community to embrace such values as respect, tolerance and non-violent means of resolving misunderstandings. Since distributed leadership is exercised by multiple leaders (Spillane et al., 2005) various leaders among learners and teachers could encourage stakeholders to question norms, symbols, values and traditions that represent violence or promote it.

The causes of violence in the two participant schools were multifaceted and emanated from different sources. An understanding of how various stakeholders interacted within these systems is essential for schools to address violence effectively. However, in the absence of leadership, such causes were likely to remain a challenge in the two schools.
8.3.1.3 Variation and gravity of school violence

Variation was found to be one of the essential elements which characterised the dynamics of violence in the two schools. Some forms of violence were more prevalent in one school than in the other. Corporal punishment, for instance, was more used in THS than MHS since most the stakeholders at THS supported its use. Some learners at THS indicated that corporal punishment was their daily experience in this school. Their views were indeed consistent with my observation. With regard to learner-to-learner violence, bullying was reported to be more prevalent at MHS than THS; in addition to the common way of bullying, some learners at MHS used cyber-bullying to victimise other learners. In relation to learner-to-teacher violence physical violence acts were more violent at THS than MHS.

Furthermore, variation of violence was reflected in the frequency of the types of violence in the two schools. Physical violence instigated by learners against the teachers was found to be a rare occurrence while teachers experienced verbal violence often. The variation aspect of school violence indicated that violence was unpredictable. Variation was also apparent in terms of the seriousness a given type of violence was tackled by stakeholders. The way in which the stakeholders responded to any form of violence was in accordance with its gravity. Forms of violence such as verbal violence and some acts of sexual harassment among learners were taken lightly. Learner-to-teacher violence was taken more seriously than other aspects of school violence. However, on occasions where some teachers perpetrated physical violence against learners such teachers were merely required to apologise to the learners. As I indicated above, other forms of violence such as corporal punishment were not taken as violence. However, physical violence perpetrated by learners against the teachers constituted a serious transgression case. It appeared that violence instigated by learners against the teacher or other learners was considered as misbehaviour which required corrective measures. As a result, this study established that there was more management than leadership in the two schools as a way of responding to school violence instigated by learners either on other learners or teachers. The management structures and processes in the two schools demonstrated a deliberate effort by the two research schools to tackle violence through management
means. Management is about establishing structures for effective operation of the school (Davidoff & Lazurus, 2002). Such structures included disciplinary committees in the two participant schools which were tasked with the responsibility of tackling learners’ disciplinary issues in general and school violence in particular. These committees attempted to address violence as it pertains to learner-on-teacher and learner-on-learner. As indicated in chapter two, management and leadership complement each other, but for change to occur leadership is essential.

Violence appeared to a big challenge to the said committees as they struggled to address it without it declining. In an effort to manage school violence, THS disciplinary committee adopted tactics such as punishing learners, suspending them and inviting parents to the school. MHS disciplinary committee and the principal also appeared to be preoccupied with managing violence on every school day. The time which teachers would have used for teaching and learning was spent on trying to resolve school violence. The findings also show that individual teachers attempted to manage school violence more than providing leadership where they had to address violence. In the classrooms teachers are expected to maintain control and provide direction so that aims of teaching and learning can be accomplished. When some learners either perpetrate violence against the teacher or other learners, some teachers attempted to maintain order by using coercive power where they expected learners to immediately comply with the teachers’ demands (Chance & Chance, 2002). Such use of coercive power included warning learners to stop their behaviour immediately. As indicated above, if the learners refused to follow instructions some teachers resorted to mocking, threatening or actually assaulting them. This kind of management where learners were expected to follow instructions of authorities without question illustrated an authoritarian management style which unfortunately causes violence (Harber, 2004) instead of reducing it.

Although there was generally an absence of leadership in the two research school, it is worth mentioning that few teachers in the two research schools recognised the impact of talking on the violent behaviour of some learners. They used the power of talking to encourage and persuade such learners to change their violent behaviour. Leadership as a process of influence can be enacted by words. Talking to learners provided the said teachers with the opportunity of making learners understand that their violent behaviour had negative effects. Such teachers used rational persuasion by logically convincing the
learners to stop perpetrating violence against some members of the school community (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2008). The findings suggest that some learners indeed changed their behaviour after teachers spoke to them. One teacher from MHS was reported by the participants as having managed to convince some boys to stop sexually harassing girls. Another teacher from THS was said to engage learners who instigate violence against teachers in talking and persuaded them to stop being violent against the teachers.

The variation aspect of the dynamics of violence illustrates that violence is unpredictable and, therefore, should be understood within the context in which it occurred. Since the two participant schools focused more on managing school violence by adopting punitive management tactics, it was likely that school violence would continue and quality education would be undermined. Some of the tactics teachers used seems to be violent. Hence, instead of reducing school violence, it was promoted because ‘violence begets violence.’ The success of some teachers in motivating and encouraging learners to desist from violent acts and behaviour, demonstrates that leadership was essential and appropriate in processes for the tackling of violence. However, it seemed that only a few teachers in the two schools were able to exercise leadership which yielded positive result in relation to a reduction of school violence. Thus their influence was likely to be minimal.

8.3.1.4 Relationship within and between forms of school violence

School violence discussed in this study relates to learner-to-teacher, teacher-to-learner and learner-to-learner violence. The forms of violence discussed in this study appeared to be intertwined. It emerged from the findings that sometimes violence started at a lower level until it became a serious issue. Verbal violence among learners, for example, led to fights in some instances.

The findings further indicate a strong link between learner-to-teacher and teacher-to-learner violence. This link illustrates another dimension of the dynamics of violence. Some acts of violence which were instigated by learners against their teachers were a way of retaliation against teacher-to-learner violence. In chapter five, for example, this researcher reported that attempts or actual assault of some learners by teachers in MHS
led to such learners threatening the teachers with violence. Similarly at THS some learners who were punished by members of the school management team singled out one head of department and wrote insults on her door. The cars belonging to some teachers in the two schools were damaged by some learners in revenge against teachers who took disciplinary measures against them or violated them. It seems that teachers were not aware of the relationship between forms of violence; hence, they were likely to continue using violent means in an attempt to address school violence.

The role of leaders with positions is central for creating and promoting an environment where various leaders could exercise influence (Harris, 2008) aimed at addressing the dynamics of school violence. Different members of a school community should be empowered to enable them to identify the forms of violence, their causes and other dynamics. This empowerment could be realised through, inter alia, staff professional development among teachers. Staff professional development could serve as basis for the creation of an environment where staff improve their knowledge, skills and performance pertaining to the manner in which they tackled school violence (Northouse, 2010). As indicated above, there were some teachers in the two schools who inspired and motivated some learners to transform their violent behaviour. Such teachers were resources which schools could harness for peer sharing of experiences with other staff members, hence, professional development. In addition, networking with schools which have succeeded in reducing school violence challenges could also be helpful for teacher professional development. Although violence is a major problem in many South African schools, there are schools in which progress is visible in reducing school violence (Harber, 2006). School based workshops or training could also enhance knowledge of teachers about school violence.

The implication to attempted or actual teacher-to-learner violence is that violence was likely to continue if teachers did not adopt non-violent means to control or discipline learners. This is supported by the belief held by advocates of social learning theory which proposes that children who were exposed to violence were likely to adopt violent means in solving problems (Bandura, 1977).

The significant finding in this subtheme is that the dynamics of violence were complex and multidimensional. Such dynamics were characterised by unpredictable and
predictable different forms of violence which were said to be caused by multiple factors and surfaced in different areas within the schools. If schools were to succeed in their attempt to address violence, the fundamental issue would be to understand the complexity and multidimensional nature of the dynamics of violence. School leadership and management processes could, therefore, be directed to tackle all different dimensions of school violence.

8.3.2 Relationship between leadership and school violence

This study has established that teachers were not aware of the importance of their role as leaders. They tended to separate the work they do from leadership. As indicated above in some situations they avoided exercising leadership roles while in other situations they focused more on managing learners’ behaviour. This influenced violence in the two schools. It was found that the two participant schools showed general absence of leadership in relation to addressing school violence. Teachers and learners illustrated a lack of leadership at different points. The teachers appeared to have been unable to create and maintain an environment in which various members of a school community could take leadership initiatives aimed at tackling school violence. Some teacher participants from the two schools, for example, indicated that there were no school based initiatives for staff professional development about school violence. In the absence of such initiatives, teachers and learners did not have opportunities to be empowered with knowledge necessary to understand the dynamics of violence and skills which they could employ to tackle violence. Lack of understanding of the dynamics of violence implied that sometimes teachers or learners promoted violence unintentionally. Some teachers at THS, for example, strongly believed that corporal punishment was an appropriate disciplinary measure. They did not view the use of corporal punishment as violence. Thus it can be argued that such teachers did not have an opportunity for professional development in terms of the kind of disciplinary measures which are violent and therefore promote violence. In situations where leadership was exercised in the two schools there appeared to be a decline in school violence. However, there were few and isolated cases where leadership was carried out and as such there was little impact. This brings me to the thesis of this study which I state below.
Leadership is crucial for the reduction of school violence. School violence cannot be reduced if teachers do not exercise leadership.

8.4 Ending the research journey

This study was intended to investigate the role of leadership in addressing school violence. The study established that the dynamics of violence were multifaceted and they served as stumbling blocks that undermined the rights of stakeholders to be free from abuse and maltreatment. It revealed that management processes and practices were more apparent in the two schools than leadership processes and practices. However, such management practices and processes seemed ineffective because various stakeholders in the two schools continued to experience violence. Some of the management practices were violent. The schools were overwhelmed with violence.

The study also established that leadership is of paramount importance for effective tackling of school violence. In situations where some stakeholders exercised leadership, those who instigated violence changed their violent behaviour and acts; thus illustrating that leadership has the potential to address multiple challenges facing schools in general and school violence in particular. Leadership at different levels of the schools could adequately reduce the levels of school violence. However, the study also showed that violence occurred and recurred in situations where there was a dearth of leadership.

In chapter 4 (methodology and design chapter), I noted that the participants were selected from various stakeholders in the two schools. Such selection was based on the understanding that any school has leaders with formal positions and those without formal positions. The former include principals, deputy principals, heads of departments and prefects. The latter could be found among learners and teachers who carry out leadership roles even though they did not hold formal leadership positions in the schools. This kind of selection provided an opportunity to source information from diverse participants who had a direct and indirect influence on issues of leadership, management and school violence.
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APPENDIX TWO: Letter requesting permission to conduct the study from school principals

Postgraduate Residence
Edgewood Campus
UKZN
Private bag Xo3
Ashwood
The Principal

Dear Sir/ Madam

Request for the permission to conduct research

My name is Sekitla Makhasane. I am a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As a PhD student I am required to undertake a research project. My study is entitled: the role of leadership in addressing school violence: a comparative study.

I am kindly requesting permission to conduct a research in your school. All information generated for this study will be treated with confidentiality. To protect the identity of the school and the participants pseudonyms will be used. Teachers and learners will be requested to participate in this study by being interviewed. Participants will be conducted before hand in preparation for the interview.

The study will use three data collection methods namely interviews, observations and document reviews. Information provided will be treated with confidentiality and pseudonyms will be used. The participants will have a choice to withdraw from the study for any reason, anytime if they so wish without any penalties.

Should you encounter any problems during this research project, please feel free to contact my supervisor using the following details: Professor Chikoko at 031 260 8064

In addition, should you have any queries please feel free to contact me using the following contact details:

Sekitla Makhasane
Cell: 0787093752
Email: sdsekitla@gmail.com

Should you grant permission for this project to be undertaken in your school, please complete, sign and return the declaration form below, back to me.

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Declaration
I …………………………………………………………………….. (Full name of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this letter and the nature of the research project. I grant permission for undertaking of this project in my school. I understand that the participants can withdraw from the project at anytime they wish to do so.

Signature of the principal: ---------------------------

Date---------------------------
APPENDIX THREE Letter of informed consent to the deputy Principals and Principals

Postgraduate residence
Edgewood Campus
Private bag x03
Ashwood

25 March 2013

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Sekitla Makhasane, a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus). I am currently engaged in a research project entitled: the role of leadership in addressing school violence: a comparative study.

I am kindly requesting you to be a participant in this study. As a participant you will be interviewed on an individual basis. I am also requesting you to allow me to record the interviews. The interview will take about one hour. I may ask you to answer questions in a questionnaire.

This project is aimed at determining the dynamics of school violence and the nature of leadership which influence the said dynamics. There will be no financial benefits for participating in this project. However, your participation in this study will help in providing information which may inform the schools about useful leadership practices and processes in addressing violence. Information provided will be treated with confidentiality and pseudonyms will be used. You will have a choice to withdraw from the study for any reason, anytime if you so wish without any penalties.

Should you encounter any problems during this research project, please feel free to contact my supervisor using the following details: Professor Chikoko at 031 260 8064 In addition, should you have any queries please feel free to contact me using the following contact details:

Sekitla Makhasane
Cell: 0787093752
Email: sdsekitla@gmail.com
If you agree to take part in this project, please complete, sign and return the declaration form below, back to me.

------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Declaration
I …………………………………………………………………….. (Full name of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this letter and the nature of the research project. I consent to participating in the research project and I agree to the recording of the interviews. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project should I so desire.

Signature of participant: -----------------------------------
Date-------------------------------------
APPENDIX FOUR: Letter of informed consent to the teachers

Postgraduate residence
Edgewood Campus
Private bag x03
Ashwood
25 March 2013

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Sekitla Makhasane, a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus). I am currently engaged in a research project entitled: *the role of leadership in addressing school violence: a comparative study*.

I am kindly requesting you to be a participant in this study. As a participant you will be part of a focus group of teachers to be interviewed. I am also requesting you to allow me to record the interviews. The interview will take about one hour. I may ask request you to answer questions in a questionnaire.

This project is aimed at determining the dynamics of school violence and the nature of leadership which influence the said dynamics. There will be no financial benefits for participating in this project. However, your participation in this study will help in providing information which may inform schools about useful leadership practices and processes in addressing violence. Information provided will be treated with confidentiality and pseudonyms will be used instead of the actual names of the school and the participants. You will have a choice to withdraw from the study for any reason, anytime if you so wish without any penalties.

Should you encounter any problems during this research project, please feel free to contact my supervisor using the following details: Professor Chikoko at 031 260 8064

In addition, should you have any queries please feel free to contact me using the following contact details:

Sekitla Makhasane
Cell: 0787093752
Email: sdsekitla@gmail.com

If you agree to take part in this project, please complete, sign and return the declaration form below, back to me.

----------------------------------------------------------
Declaration
I ................................................................. (Full name of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this letter and the nature of the research project. I consent to participating in the research project and I agree to the recording of the interviews. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project should I so desire.

Signature of participant: ------------------------------

Date-----------------------------------------
APPENDIX FIVE: Letter of informed consent to the Learners

Postgraduate residence
Edgewood Campus
Private bag x03
Ashwood
25 March 2013

Dear Learner

My name is Sekitla Makhasane, a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus). I am currently engaged in a research project entitled: the role of leadership in addressing school violence: a comparative study.

I am kindly requesting you to be a participant in this study. As a participant you will be part of a focus group of learners to be interviewed. The interview will take about one hour. I am also requesting you to allow me to record the interviews. I may ask you to answer questions in a questionnaire.

This project is aimed at determining the dynamics of school violence and the nature of leadership which influence the said dynamics. There will be no financial benefits for participating in this project. However, your participation in this study will help in providing information which may inform schools about useful leadership practices and processes in addressing violence. Information provided will be treated with confidentiality and pseudonyms will be used instead of the actual names of the school and the participants. You will have a choice to withdraw from the study for any reason, anytime if you so wish without any penalties.

Should you encounter any problems during this research project, please feel free to contact my supervisor using the following details: Professor Chikoko at 031 260 8064

In addition, should you have any queries please feel free to contact me using the following contact details:
Sekitla Makhasane
Cell: 0787093752
Email: sdsekitla@gmail.com
If you agree to take part in this project, please complete, sign and return the declaration form below, back to me.

Declaration
I …………………………………………………………………………… (Full name of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this letter and the nature of the research project. I consent to participating in the research project and I agree to the recording of the interviews. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project should I so desire.

Signature of participant: -----------------------------

Date------
APPENDIX SIX: Parental Consent

Dear Parent/Guardian

My name is Sekitla Makhasane, a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus). I am currently engaged in a research project entitled: the role of leadership in addressing school violence: a comparative study. I am humbly requesting you to allow your child to participate in this study. If my request is granted, I will interview your child in a focus group with other learners. I am also requesting you to allow me to record the interviews.

This project is aimed at determining the dynamics of school violence and the nature of leadership which influence the said dynamics. There will be no financial rewards for participating in this study. However, your child ‘s participation in this study will help in providing information which may inform schools about useful leadership practices and processes in addressing violence.

Information provided will be treated with confidentiality and pseudonyms will be used. You child will have a choice to withdraw from the study for any reason, anytime if he/she so wish without any penalties.

Should you encounter any problems during this research project, please feel free to contact my supervisor using the following details: Professor Chikoko at 031 260 8064

In addition, should you have any queries please feel free to contact me using the following contact details:

Sekitla Makhasane
Cell: 0787093752

Email: sdsekitla@gmail.com

IF you agree that your child should take part in this project, please complete, sign and return the declaration form below, back to me.

---

Declaration
I …………………………………………………………………….. (Full name of parent/guardian) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this letter and the nature of the research project. I consent to my child participating in the research project and I agree to the recording of the interviews. I understand that my child is at liberty to withdraw from the project should he/she desire.
Signature of the parent/guardian: ------------------------------------

Date---------------------------------------
APPENDIX SEVEN: Questionnaire cover letter

Postgraduate residence
Edgewood Campus
Private bag x03
Ashwood

10 Sep 2012

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Sekitla Makhasane, a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus). I am currently engaged in a research project entitled: the role of leadership in addressing school violence: a comparative study.

I am kindly requesting you to be a participant in this study by answering all questions in the attached questionnaire.

This questionnaire is intended to gather information pertaining to the level of violence in schools. There will be no financial benefits for participating in this project. However, your participation in this study will help in providing information which may inform schools about useful leadership practices and processes in addressing violence. Information provided will be treated with confidentiality and pseudonyms will be used. You will have a choice to withdraw from the study for any reason, anytime if you so wish without any penalties.

Should you encounter any problems during this research project, please feel free to contact my supervisor using the following details: Professor Chikoko at 031 260 8064
In addition, should you have any queries please feel free to contact me using the following contact details:

Sekitla Makhasane
Cell: 0787093752
Email: sdsekitla@gmail.com

If you agree to take part in this project, please complete, sign and return the declaration form below, back to me.
Declaration
I …………………………………………………………………………………… (Full name of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this letter and the nature of the research project. I consent to participating in the research project and I agree to the recording of the interviews. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project should I so desire.

Signature of participant: ----------------------------------

Date----------------------------------
APPENDIX EIGHT: Individual interview schedule- deputy principals and principals

1. Tell me about how leadership in your school deals with violence?

2. What roles do you think different stakeholders (teachers and learners) play in addressing school violence?

3. Do you think violence requires school leaders to have certain skills?

4. Tell me about challenges that school leadership face regarding school violence.

5. Is your school’s security and school safety policy helpful with regard to addressing violence? How?

6. School violence against the teachers

   • Tell me about forms/ types of violence perpetrated against teachers by learners?
   • What are the possible consequences of violence perpetrated against teachers by learners?
   • Where does this violence occur?

7. Violence against learners

   • What are forms of violence perpetrated by teachers against learners?
   • What are the causes of violence perpetrated by teachers against learners?
   • What are possible effects of teachers’ violent behaviour against learners?
8. Violence against learners by fellow learners

- What are causes of violence perpetrated by learners against other learners?
- What are forms of violence perpetrated by learners against other learners?
- What are the possible effects of violence perpetrated by learners against other learners?
- Where does violence in your school normally occur?
APPENDIX NINE: Individual interviews-Teachers

9. What roles do you think principals should play in addressing school violence?

10. What roles do you think deputy principals should play in addressing school violence?

11. What roles do think teachers should play in addressing school violence?

12. What roles do you think learners should play in addressing school violence?

13. Do you think violence requires school leaders to have certain skills?

14. Tell me about challenges that school leadership face regarding school violence.

15. Is your school’s security and school safety policy helpful with regard to addressing violence? How?

16. School violence against the teachers

- Tell me about forms/ types of violence perpetrated against teachers by learners?
- What are the possible consequences of violence perpetrated against teachers by learners?
- Where does this violence occur?

17. Violence against learners
• What are forms of violence perpetrated by teachers against learners?
• What are the causes of violence perpetrated by teachers against learners?
• What are possible effects of teachers’ violent behaviour against learners?

18. Violence against learners by fellow learners

• What are causes of violence perpetrated by learners against other learners?
• What are forms of violence perpetrated by learners against other learners?
• What are the possible effects of violence perpetrated by learners against other learners?
• Where does violence in your school normally occur?
APPENDIX TEN: Focus group interview-Learners

1. Who are responsible for leadership in your school?

2. Who are responsible for dealing with violence issues in your school?

3. Is learners’ code of conduct assisting in issues of violence in your school? How?

4. What forms of violence occur in your school?

5. In which places does violence occur in your school?

6. Tell me about the possible causes of violence?

7. Who are affected by violence?
APPENDIX ELEVEN: Observation schedule

1. Leadership

- Teachers’ anti-violence messages at assemblies
- Meetings where school violence issues are discussed.
- General school culture (arrival time for teachers and learners, learners’ behaviour at assemblies, daily interactions of learners on play grounds (e.t.c)

2. Security measures

- Operation of the security gate
- Weapons and drugs search and seizure

3. Dynamics of school violence

- Writings in the classrooms, toilets walls which convey violent/anti violent messages
- Corporal punishment
- Warning messages against school violence
- Violent behaviour on school grounds
- Daily routines and interactions of learners during play time
- Interactions of teachers and learners in the classrooms
APPENDIX One: Ethical clearance certificate

Research Office, Govan Mbeki Centre
Westville Campus
Private Bag x54001
DURBAN, 4000
Tel No: +27 31 260 8350
Fax No: +27 31 260 4609
snymann@ukzn.ac.za

16 May 2012

Mr Sd Mekhasane (208509045)
School of Education

Dear Mr Mekhasane

PROTOCOL REFERENCE NUMBER: HSS/0176/012D
PROJECT TITLE: The role of leadership in addressing school violence: A comparative study

In response to your application dated 03 May 2012, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted FULL APPROVAL.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

[Signature]

Professor Steven Collings (Chair)
HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

cc. Supervisor — Professor V Chikoko
cc. Dr MN Davids
cc. Mr N Memela / Mrs S Naicker
APPENDIX Fifteen: Letter of permission from Department of Education

kzn education

Department:
Education
KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwer
Tel: 033 341 8810
Ref: 24/08/243

Mr. Sekita Daniel Makhasesa
Room 11 Postgraduate Residence
Edgewood Campus UKZ
Private Bag X03
Ashwood

Dear Mr. Makhasesa

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: The Role of Leadership in Addressing School Violence: A Comparative Study, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The Period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 July 2012 to 31 December 2013.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please not that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Mr. Alwer at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report / dissertation / thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Director-Resources Planning, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to the following Schools and Institutions:

[Signature]
Nkosinathl S.P. Sishl, PhD
Head of Department: Education

2012/01/20
Date

.. dedicated to service and performance beyond the call of duty.