

**Attitude, Knowledge and Beliefs About Corporal Punishment: A
Case Study of Four Schools in KwaMashu Township, Durban.**

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

South Africa has adopted a human rights constitution, ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in 1995, and legally abolished corporal punishment in schools (South African Schools Act, 1996a); however, it is still a challenge for some South African teachers to abandon corporal punishment as a disciplinary practice. This study was about the attitude, knowledge and beliefs about corporal punishment: A case study of four schools in KwaMashu Township, Durban. The study aimed to assess the teachers' perceptions about corporal punishment and their disciplinary strategies; examine what teachers perceive as effective alternatives to corporal punishment (ATCP); find out how parents feel about the practice of corporal punishment; and examine the role played by school management in reducing violence in schools. This study used 15 participants from three primary schools and one high school based in KwaMashu Township. The primary data was collected through semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews.

The data was analysed qualitatively. The study found that educators who experienced corporal punishment while they were children or learners may also use corporal punishment to discipline their children or learners. It is used as a way to control children. It was further found that educators still believe that corporal punishment is an effective method to reduce learners' unwanted classroom behaviours. Furthermore, it was found that educators believe that they were very good as children because their parents used corporal punishment to beat them when they did something wrong. It was also found that most educators have not seen supplementary materials from the Department of Education (DoE) on ATCP; however, they are aware that corporal punishment was abolished. The study found that most teachers revealed that there is lack of ATCP because there are no detention facilities where they can detain learners in a polite way, rather than administering corporal punishment. They also revealed that there is lack of capacity in the whole education system because when corporal punishment was banned, relevant alternatives in line with the constitution of South Africa were not provided. Most teachers also indicated that they have not been trained in how to use alternatives.

The study recommended that the DoE should provide a document on ATCP to all schools to enable them to choose which alternative measures will be suitable for them. It is recommended that leadership must be provided: There should be great collaboration between the DoE and the principal, between the principal and the community, and on school level, between the principal and the teachers.

The DoE should provide information on ATCP to all schools. District officials should conduct workshops on why they should not use corporal punishment. While convincing teachers on reasons not to use corporal punishment, they must educate the teachers on ATCP. Teachers must be trained so that they can overturn this long-term belief in corporal punishment.

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE STUDY

ATCP:	Alternatives to corporal punishment
CRC:	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DoE:	Department of Education
SGB	School Governing Body

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CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the background of the study. It provides information on the background of the study and the research questions and objectives of the study. It also gives the definitions of key terms, the structure of the thesis and a conclusion.

1.2 Background of the study

The South African education system historically has used corporal punishment to maintain discipline. Criticism of its effects led in 1996 to the banning of this form of punishment. However, it is a challenge for some South African educators to abandon corporal punishment as a disciplinary practice (Morrell, 2001). According to Morrell (2001), corporal punishment has effectively disappeared from middle-class, formerly white schools, but is still relatively common in township schools. Reasons for the persistent and illegal use of corporal punishment include the absence of alternatives, the legacy of authoritarian education practices, and the belief that corporal punishment is necessary for orderly education to take place. Since 2017, newspapers have regularly reported that corporal punishment continues to be used in schools, sometimes resulting in hospitalisation. Some educators have been found guilty, and subsequently, had charges laid against them.

As recently as 4 September 2017, an article in Mercury newspaper reported that a child had tragically died as a consequence of physical complications resulting from corporal punishment. The article stated that it was common knowledge that the principal of the school administered lashes and that this was done with parental approval and the endorsement of the school governing body (SGB), who felt that corporal punishment was the only way to “kerb growing lawlessness among learners”.

The 1994 democratic government faced numerous challenges that continue to break out and raise grave questions about the quality of education in South African schools. Among these are poor teacher performance, learner underachievement, and particularly in previously underprivileged schools, overcrowded classrooms, scarce resources and learning materials. These issues present continuous problems to

school leaders, educational authorities, teachers, students and parent societies. School leaders currently encounter numerous challenges such as teen suicides, sexual humiliation, bullying, numerous forms of discrimination on the basis of corporal punishment, sexuality, faith, culture and ability, as well as unprofessional teachers, ranging from being unprepared to teach to questionable relationships with pupils.

Another challenge that faced the democratic government was the challenge of having to integrate the 19 racially segregated education systems and nine education examining bodies with unequal financial support into a working education system.

Burton (2008a) argue that kids are more likely to experience violence in South African schools than in their homes. Burton and Leoschut (2013) state that the reports of bullying and playground quarrels are swiftly being replaced by reports of drug abuse, drug dealing, stabbings, sexual assault, and to a large extent, gang-related activities. They state that up to 30% of educators report that they fear for their own lives at schools. Mncube and Harber (2013) posit that the different kinds of violence are influenced by gender and social dynamics, and that while there are more clear forms of violence, such as bullying or stabbing, there are more subtle forms of violence, such as cyber-bullying, threats, sexual harassment, or hazing and initiation. These, according to Burton (2008b) p. 2), “are more predominant in well-established schools than in township schools”.

According to Mncube and Harber (2013), corporal punishment is the most common internal violence committed by schools against students. They posit that while some learners might never have been corporally punished in their homes, they might be exposed to corporal punishment for the first time at their schools, which makes corporal punishment a form of violence internal to schools, both in the sense that it occurs at school and that the people who experience it there do not automatically experience it outside. Anger showed by male teachers appears to be huge challenge. They argue that “reports include the rape of a 13-year-old primary school learner; physical assault involving being grabbed by the neck and pushed down the stairs; and an educator attempting to drown a learner in a fishpond, demanding a police officer save the learner” (Mncube & Harber, 2013, p. 1).

The above studies clearly indicate that this kind of school violence affects the learners very badly and is a huge problem in schools, and it is extremely important that this study is conducted.

1.3 Research questions

- 1) What is teachers' perception of corporal punishment and their current disciplinary strategies?
- 2) What alternatives to corporal punishment do teachers perceive as effective?
- 3) How do parents feel about corporal punishment?
- 4) What role does school management and the Department of Education (DoE) play in reducing violence in schools?
- 5) What measures are used to help teachers maintain discipline in classrooms?
- 6) What are teachers' childhood experiences of corporal punishment and their present understanding of the practice?

1.4 Objectives of the study

- 1) To assess the teachers' perceptions of corporal punishment and their disciplinary strategies.
- 2) To examine alternatives, to corporal punishment that teachers perceive as effective.
- 3) To find out how parents feel about corporal punishment.
- 4) To examine the role of school management and the DoE in reducing violence in schools?
- 5) To assess measures that are used to help teachers maintain discipline in classrooms.
- 6) To examine teachers' childhood experiences of corporal punishment and their understanding of the practice.

1.5 Definition of key terms

This section looks at the terms used in this study. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) describe and define 'definition of terms' as aimed at clarifying the meaning of a given set of problems. The clarification of the meaning of terms helps us understand the researcher's perspectives and context within which the terms are used in the study.

The following terms are used and defined in the context of this study:

- **Learners:** Children who attend school for the purpose of attaining an education.
- **Corporal punishment:** A form of punitive discipline that "includes any form of physical punishment against a child in response of misbehavior" (Zoolotor & Purina, 2010, p. 230). Corporal punishment includes slapping, beating, pinching, spanking or any other action that produces physical pain without causing any injuries (Romano, Bell & Norian, 2013). In this study, corporal punishment refers to the purposeful infliction of pain through slapping or beating with an object as a way of correcting or controlling a learner's unacceptable behaviour.
- **Discipline:** A state of stability conducive to learning in the classroom or at school, meant to provide a particular degree of order suitable for the achievement of teaching and learning (Geldenhuys & Doubell, 2011). This is how discipline was considered in this study.

1.6 Summary structure of the thesis

This study is divided as follows into six chapters:

Chapter 1 covers the scope of the study as a whole. It includes the background of the study, the research questions and objectives of the study, definitions of the key terms, and a summary

Chapter 2 is the literature review. This chapter provides the historical background of corporal punishment, a definition of corporal punishment and policies banning corporal punishment. This chapter focuses further on the reasons why corporal punishment still happens at schools.

Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical framework. Bandura's social learning theory and the culture of violence theory are used as the theoretical framework for understanding and assessing educators' attitude, knowledge and beliefs about corporal punishment and to determine why school educators' resort to violence as a method of discipline.

Chapter 4 outlines the methodology of the study. This includes the relevant literature on research design, methods of data collection and analysis. This chapter also describes how research methodology literature was used in the current study.

Chapter 5 focuses on the presentation, analysis and discussion of the data collected through both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Chapter 6 presents the findings, conclusions and recommendations. It also includes suggestions on how corporal punishment can be reduced.

1.7 Chapter summary

This chapter provided a general overview of the study by giving insight into the core of the thesis as expressed through the background as well as the research questions and objectives of the study. The following chapter presents the literature review. I identified gaps in earlier literature and the recommendations for educators and other stakeholders will address the problem of school violence in many schools.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Kraska and Neuman (2012) assert that the purpose of reviewing literature is to show familiarity with a collection of information; to demonstrate the way of prior research and how the current study is associated with it; to coordinate and gather what is known; and to learn from others and re-enact new ideas.

This chapter covers the historical background of corporal punishment, policies banning corporal punishment, the meaning of corporal punishment, and the reasons why corporal punishment still takes place at schools.

2.2 Historical background of corporal punishment

There is a growing body of literature that suggests there is a growing and prevalent challenge of violence in both developed and under-developed countries (Human Rights Watch, 2001; Harber, 2001, 2004; Panos, 2003; Dunne, Humphreys & Leach, 2006); and South Africa is no exception (Burton, 2008; Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011; Burton & Leoschut, 2012; UNISA, 2012). This violence is spilling over into schools, which in turn contributes to high levels of absenteeism and school drop-out rates, causing some schools to be unable to function effectively (Zulu, Urbani, Van der Merwe & Van der Walt, 2004; Outwater, Abrahams & Campbell, 2005; Prinsloo, 2006; Wilson, 2008). Furthermore, a study done by Burton and Leoschut (2012, p. 11) found that "... one in five learners (22.2%) had succumbed to some form of violence while at school". The data shows that school violence remains relatively continuous despite the many efforts to deal with the challenge.

Another study conducted by Van der Walt and Oosthuizen (2006) in the North-West Province found that township schools still seemed to suffer from the troublesome after-effects of the struggle against apartheid that had disturbed their education and learning environments. They do not seem to have overcome the effects of their struggle past. Violence in South Africa, according to Hoffmann and McKendrick, (1990) was moved by the socio-political system of apartheid and the struggle to end it. However, the end of the apartheid system in 1994 did not automatically put an end to violence; instead, it continued but altered its form (Burton, 2008a; Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011).

According to Farrel (2005), South Africa's education policies have undergone an extensive metamorphosis since the beginning of democracy in 1994. Historically, the use of corporal punishment was first passed in the pre-apartheid period in South Africa under the Dutch East India Company governance of the Cape Colony.

According to Killingray (1994), the judicial and legislative use of corporal punishment on the African continent as well as its use as a behaviour corrective measure in schools dates back to the 17th century. The author states that its use has been a dominant distinctive of schooling that has remained communally acknowledged since the formation of official education. The practice of corporal punishment was an extension of the apartheid system that spread the knowledge that for the apartheid government to make the "impression of a modern capitalist world, "raw African labour needed to be trained and disciplined, and the most effective and economic way was physical persuasion" (Killingray, 1994, p. 202).

Physical punishment was also accompanied by the notion that Africans, coming from societies that inflicted brutal punishments on offenders, clearly recognised, and indeed, expected, physical abuse as a reward for misdemeanours. And in any case, it was argued that they possessed a high pain tolerance and preferred flogging as a punishment (Killingray, 1994, p. 202). When formal education was introduced, this practice was extended to schools. It came from the British judicial systems and was exported through missionaries and government to schools in Africa (Killingray, 1994).

Historically, at schools children were physically punished for a myriad of misdemeanours, which included being late for school, talking in class, not having an appropriate book or learning resource, not doing homework, failing a test, giving a wrong answer in class, absence from school, not wearing appropriate school uniform, and losing concentration in class (Harber, 1996). The practice involved beating with a stick on the palm of a hand, whipping with a "sjambok" or hosepipe on the buttocks, beating with a wooden ruler on the fingers, beating with a duster on the head or fingertips, standing on hands with legs suspended from the board in front of the class, and other more torturous forms of punishment (Harber, 1996). Muthivhi (2008) argues that the authoritarian school and classroom culture of dominance with features of teacher-centred pedagogy, rote learning without critical thinking, and limited freedom

of expression seem to be an African culture in the schooling system that has evolved from the colonial system.

Killingray (1994) alludes to this in the assertion that the colonial office in West Africa at some point used the educated African elite to act as watchdogs, and "rapidly regulated corporal punishment, steadily removing it from the workplace and confining its use to the native authority judicial codes, to schools, prisons, and the barracks" (p. 205). From 1806, under the British Empire, several Acts on the use of corporal punishment in South Africa were promulgated along with pass laws to control the mobility of natives and the labour force. Penalties included flogging. These Acts ratified corporal punishment, along with number strokes or a prison sentence specified in racial and gender terms. For example, Article 149 of The Basic Law of the South African Republic forbade the whipping of white people. Later on, Act No. 5 of 1888 and Act No. 21 of 1892 allowed courts to impose corporal punishment on white men for a wide variety of crimes, while the whipping of women remained unconstitutional (World Corporal Punishment Research, 2011).

After the Afrikaner Nationalist Party came to power in 1948, it made legislative amendments on judicial corporal punishment through its Criminal Sentence Amendment Act No. 33, which led to the increased use of penal corporal punishment. The legal system also took account of the use of corporal punishment on children. This is evident in Section 32 of The Children's Act No. 33 of 1960, which stated that a person who failed to comply with certain requirements under the Act was guilty of an offense, and if a child, was liable to a moderate whipping as provided in Section 345 of the Criminal Procedure Act (Farrel, 2005, p. 8). Although the law did not clearly specify how discipline had to be managed in schools, one of the acceptable ways of disciplining children was corporal punishment. In terms of common law, teachers were expected to act in *loco parentis*, a position that gives them the power to discipline and keep order in their classrooms (Burnet, 1998).

The South African education system historically used corporal punishment to maintain discipline. Corporal punishment was an integral part of schooling for most educators and learners in twentieth-century South African schools. The end of apartheid and the establishment of a human rights culture in the 1990s laid the foundation for the ending of corporal punishment (Morrell, 2001, p. 292) The manual *Alternatives to Corporal*

Punishment (DoE, 2000, p. 5) mentions that “Christian National Education (CNE) was designed to support the apartheid system by schooling children to become passive citizens who would accept authority unquestioningly”. In that period, educators maintained control in the classroom with the help of the cane.

Beating children to discipline them was an accepted and allowed practice: “Corporal punishment was sanctioned by law, encouraged by teacher training institutions and deemed a ‘scientifically irrefutable’ way to educate children” (DoE, 2001, p. 5). Naong (2007, p. 286) describes the use of canes and merciless beatings on Thursdays (known as ‘Donderdag’ in the Afrikaans language) in township schools as part of the exercise of corporal punishment during apartheid. Thursdays were set aside for recitations, revisions, and solving mathematical problems. The learners who failed to recite poems correctly or who forgot a few lines of the poem were given several lashes, and hence, this day was dreaded by most learners and was marked by a high level of absenteeism.

Criticism of its effect led in 1996 to the banning of corporal punishment. The use of corporal punishment resulted in humiliation and submission of pupils to the teachers’ authority. This was an expression of domination by principals and teachers over learners. Corporal punishment has been used all over the world and was justified as being in the best interest of the learners. Pupils who experienced corporal punishment and became teachers perpetuated it by using it on their learners. Corporal punishment was found to be a quick, easy and effective way to maintain discipline in the classroom: It brought about the desired behaviour of obedience and compliance. Vally (1998, p. 4) argues that “in the name of discipline, teacher, and parental duty, character formation and religious precept many educators were expected to administer corporal punishment”. Thus, the use of power (corporal punishment) to discipline a learner was accepted and approved by education authorities during apartheid times.

In the words of Amin (2001), an apartheid classroom was a place where the chalkboard was the domain of the teacher and that entry into the classroom was through the teacher’s permission. There were also other symbols of power: The red pen, the ruler in the hand, the pointing finger, and then the stick in the corner. And the structures were supporting this power: The mark book, report cards, the detention

room, school uniforms, school regulations, the headteacher, other teachers, punitive measures, homework, and the "Black Book" (Amin, 2001, p. 41).

Burton (2008a) argues that learners are more likely to be corporally punished in South African schools than in their homes. According to Burton and Leoschut (2013) reports of bullying and playground quarrels are swiftly being substituted by events of drug abuse, stabbings, and to a large extent, gang-related activities, with up to 30% of educators reporting that they fear for their own lives at schools, violence occurs from pupil to pupil, from teacher to pupil, and from pupil to the teacher (Burton, 2008b; Burton & Leoschut, 2013; Mncube & Harber, 2013). The most common internal violence perpetrated by schools against pupils is corporal punishment. (Mncube & Harber, 2013). Hostility showed by male educators seems to be especially challenging. The rape of a 13-year-old primary school pupil and physical assault involving being grabbed by the neck and pushed down the stairs requiring a police officer to rescue the learner (Mncube & Harber, 2013).

According to the findings of the South African Council for Education's *School-Based Violence Report* (2011), there were more reports of pupils aggressively attacking teachers, with schools reporting threats, physical violence, and sexual violence against educators. Corporal punishment does not prevent the violent behaviour of pupils but rather produces aggressive behaviour. "Almost 100% of kids whose parents use corporal punishment commit violent acts against other children, as opposed to only 20% of kids whose parents have not used corporal punishment". (Holdstock, 1985, p. 355). Burton and Leoschut (2013) report that school leaders generally felt that their schools were places of safety for both their educators and pupils; however, research indicates that violence in schools is escalating despite the measures put in place by the DoE and schools themselves to address the problem (Fishbaugh, Berkeley & Schroth, 2003; Human Rights Commission, (2006). In their study, Fishbaugh *et al.* (2003, p. 19) point out that, "both educators and learners appear justified in fearing for their safety with the consequence that the learning process is hindered by the need to deal with unruly behaviors and to prevent serious aggression and violence".

The Human Rights Commission (2006, p. 1) also found that "the environment and climate necessary for effective teaching and learning is increasingly undermined by a

culture of school-based violence and this is becoming a matter of national concern". This implies that educators spend much of their time focusing on solving problems associated with school violence instead of focusing on effective teaching and learning. Burton (2008a) found that about 1.8 million learners between Grade 3 and Grade 12 (15.3%) had experienced violence in one form or another; 12.8% of the pupils had been threatened with violence; 5.8% had been assaulted; 4.6% had been robbed, and 2.3% had experienced some form of sexual violence at school. The above studies clearly indicate that this kind of school violence affects the learners very badly and is a huge problem in schools, which is why this study is extremely relevant.

What used to be universal views on corporal punishment has started to change. Gradually, research has shown a direct connection between corporal punishment and the level of violence in communities. Societies around the globe are starting to view the banning of corporal punishment in schools as an important move towards making more peaceful and tolerant societies. Now, in North America, Australia, Japan, Europe, and even South Africa, to mention but a few, corporal punishment has been criminalised.

2.3 The definition of corporal punishment

Corporal punishment is a very broad term that has been defined in many ways. Culture, ethnicity, and societal environments influence the understanding of corporal punishment.

Various education experts define the concept of 'corporal punishment' as the physical chastisement of an offender. Kahn and Ilson (1985) refer to corporal punishment as caning and flogging related to the human body. Cryan (1987) defines corporal punishment thus: 'Corporal' is derived from the Latin word 'corpus' meaning 'body, and concludes by saying that corporal punishment refers to the physical punishment inflicted on the body, such as whipping'. An educational definition of corporal punishment, according to Cryan, is 'the infliction of pain by the educator or any other educational official upon the body of the learner as the penalty for violating the school rules. In addition, Mwamwenda (1989) states that corporal punishment is the punishment of the body such as beating or whipping; whereas Mkuzo (1994) refers to

corporal punishment as the infliction of pain employing the cane or leather strap at the buttocks or back of the thighs to discourage an unwanted behaviour

Hughes and Hughes (1959) contribute another aspect to the definition of corporal punishment, stating that it is a reaction of society designed to preserve its own wellbeing, aimed at making a pupil a better member of society. Hobson (1986), for the purpose of his paper, defines corporal punishment as the intentional infliction of pain by someone in a position of authority upon a person who has committed an offence. Although Duxbury's (1994) and Hobson's (1986) definitions have common elements, they differ slightly when Duxbury defines corporal punishment as the deliberate infliction of physical pain by an adult in the name of education.

The South African office of Save the Children Sweden differentiates between two types of punishment that violate children's rights, namely degrading punishment and physical or corporal punishment (Soneson, 2005). According to Skelton (2015), in 1995 the South African constitutional court judge Pius Langa, described corporal punishment as both humiliating and degrading in nature in his judgement against corporal punishment.

Several definitions of corporal punishment focus on its physical aspects, with little or no attention to what makes it a form of punishment. For example, Soneson (2005) defines corporal punishment of children as follows:

... hitting the child with a hand or an object (such as cane, belt, whip, shoe, etc.); kicking, shaking, or throwing the child; pinching or pulling their hair; forcing a child to stay in uncomfortable or undignified positions, or to take excessive physical exercise; and burning or scarring the child.

The DoE (2000) adopted the Child Advocate's definition which is the following:

Any deliberate act against a child that inflicts pain or physical discomfort to punish or contain him/her. This includes, but is not limited to, spanking, slapping, pinching, paddling, or hitting a child with a hand or with an object; denying or restricting a child's use of the toilet; denying meals, drink, heat, and shelter; pushing or pulling a child with force; forcing the child to do exercise.

Borrowing from the United Nations' definition, the DoE further extended its definition to include the administration of corporal punishment "for educational purposes" and "as a disciplinary measure".

A fuller purposive conceptualisation is given by Smith, Lindsey, and Hansen (2006, p. 288), who quote Rohner's definition of corporal punishment, as a direct or indirect infliction of physical discomfort or pain on a child by a parent or other person in a position of authority, usually to stop the child's unwanted behaviour, for the purpose of preventing the occurrence of unwanted behaviour, or because the child failed to do something they were supposed to.

There is a widely held view that corporal punishment is meant to induce pain in order to instill fear of misbehaving in the child. Donnelly and Straus (2005, p. 3) stress that the intention of corporal punishment is not to cause injury. They define corporal punishment as the use of physical force with an intention of causing a child to experience pain, but not injury, for the purpose of correcting or controlling the child's behaviour. Straus (1994, p. 4) states that "the most frequent forms of corporal punishment are spanking, slapping, grabbing or shaving a child roughly (with more force than is needed to move the child) and hitting with certain objects such as a hairbrush, belt or paddle". The Oxford dictionary describes corporal punishment as to abuse or inflict a severe blow on an opponent. Corporal punishment is inflicted on the body especially by beating (Oxford Dictionary, 1990). Another definition is physical punishment as distinguished from pecuniary punishment or any kind of punishment of or inflicted on the body or the infliction by a teacher or other educational official upon the body of the student as a penalty for doing something which has been disapproved by the punisher (Maree in Morrell, 2001, p. 293).

2.4 Policies banning corporal punishment

South Africa adopted a democratic constitution that guaranteed the right to dignity, equality, freedom, and security for all its citizens with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996b), South African Schools Act 108 of 1996 (1996a), and the Bill of Rights.

2.4.1 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

The supreme constitution of South Africa forms the foundation for all legislation and policy, and the sections dealing with various rights are outlined here.

Section 10: “the right to have dignity respected and protected ...” (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1996b). According to Kung & De Waal (2007, p. 110), just as teachers are warned to treat learners with respect and concern in Section 10, learners also have the duty to treat teachers with the same respect and concern. Section 12: “the right to freedom and security...” (RSA, 1996b)

Section 16: “the right to freedom of expression...” (RSA, 1996b)

Although teachers and learners have the right to express their views and receive information, these views may not disrupt or affect education detrimentally. According to Malherbe and Venter (cited in De Waal, 2007, p. 110), learners need to be aware that freedom of speech does not allow them to interrupt the teacher or to backchat when reprimanded on the presumption they are using their right to freedom of speech.

Section 29: “the right to basic education and further education ...” (RSA, 1996b)

Mention is made of *in loco parentis* and the conditions for suspension and expulsion of pupils. Teachers have a legal duty in terms of *in loco parentis* to ensure the safety of learners (Prinsloo, 2005, p. 9).

2.4.2 South African Schools Act 84 Of 1996

The South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996a) makes provision for dealing with learner discipline and safety through the following sections.

- a) Section 8 (1–9) Code of conduct
- b) Section 9 (1–5) Suspension and expulsion from schools
- c) Section 10 (1–2) Prohibition of corporal punishment

The code of conduct must explain the various sanctions for disciplining learners, the levels of misconduct, and the communication process to be followed when disciplining learners.

In terms of Section 10 of the South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996a) corporal punishment is prohibited in schools. Section 10 on corporal punishment reads:

1. *No person may administer corporal punishment at a school to a learner.*
2. *Any person who contravenes subsection (1) is guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to a sentence that could be imposed for assault.*

According to Morrell (2001, p. 292), the government has attempted to fill the vacuum created by the abolishment of corporal punishment in two ways: It has introduced school-level codes of conduct, and parents have been given an unprecedented involvement in school affairs via representation on the SGB.

2.4.3 The National Educational Policy Act of 1996.

This Act also refers to corporal punishment: “No person shall administer corporal punishment or subject a student to psychological or physical abuse at any educational institution” (RSA, 1996c).

2.4.4 The Convention on the Rights of the Child

The international community put in place the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) to protect children’s civil rights. The CRC protects the rights of children by providing comprehensive minimum standards that recognise and protect the dignity of all children (Shmueli, 2008). Children’s rights are formulated along with human rights, but they specifically address children’s special needs to ensure their wellbeing and development (UNICEF, 2005). The CRC ensures children’s rights by focusing on care and protection because children are at risk of being abused, and therefore, need to be protected. The CRC perceives children as individuals with human dignity. It is based on the protection of human dignity that Article 37 of the CRC calls for the protection of children from all forms of torture as well as degrading, cruel and inhuman treatment or punishment (Bartman, 2002). At face value, this article does not seem to prevent children from receiving corporal punishment. Nonetheless, the Committee on the Rights of the Child (hereafter the Committee) describes Article 37 as abolishing all forms of corporal punishment. The Committee was established through the CRC to oversee the protection of children’s rights. In the spirit of upholding children’s rights, the Committee conscientises people about the adverse effects on children of corporal punishment. The Committee reviews country reports on the provision of children’s

rights and their protection and then issues suggestions for improvement (Bartman, 2002).

Article 19(1) of the CRC targets all forms of protection of children. It calls all state parties to protect children from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect, maltreatment, or exploitation. Children's protection should be legislative, administrative, social, and educational. Sharma (2001) argues that corporal punishment violates Article 19(1) of the CRC because it has the potential to become violent and abusive. Rose-Krasnor, Durrant, and Broberg (2001) reiterate that physical punishment, even in mild forms, is a violation of children's human rights because historically, corporal punishment was meant for powerless people such as slaves, who were considered less than full humans. The UN's abolition of corporal punishment is a shift towards recognising and protecting children as people.

The CRC suggests that children should be protected in every way, including legislative, administrative, social, and educational. Article 19(2) of the CRC stipulates that countries should establish social programmes that provide the necessary support to both children and their caretakers (UNICEF, 1989). Support to parents, guardians, and teachers can be provided through law reforms that involve enacting new laws that are consistent with the principles of the CRC (Odongo, 2004). However, Franks (2009) cautions that law reforms alone cannot be an effective measure to eradicate violations of children's rights such as corporal punishment, for there is a need to accompany law reforms with public awareness on the adverse effects of corporal punishment. These public awareness campaigns may also introduce forms of discipline that can be administered in a manner consistent with the provisions of international laws. Education programmes could aim at changing people's attitudes toward corporal punishment in order to pave the way for legal bans (Odongo, 2004). Franks (2009) observes further that laws that abolish corporal punishment would not be effective in an environment where society still believes in corporal punishment. Educational public campaigns would therefore aim at changing people's attitudes about the effectiveness of corporal punishment as well as its cultural acceptance.

Xu (2014) finds the CRC lacking because its principles are not imposed on the states. States are required to undertake appropriate measures to protect children's rights, but the implementation of the appropriate measures depends on the state, and when state

parties consider their activities to be within the specifications of the children's rights, they are implemented. The Committee recommends what should happen, but it cannot enforce its suggestions. Failure by state parties to comply with the Committee does not lead to any disciplinary action.

The CRC is not the only instrument meant to protect children. This issue of child protection is also advocated by the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment.

2.4.5 The Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment

The Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman, and Degrading Treatment (CAT) bars its members from using disciplinary measures that use torture. Torture is defined as the intentional infliction of physical or mental pain and suffering on an individual. Children, being individuals, are covered by this convention. As a result, the use of corporal punishment in schools is considered to be degrading and not suitable for use at school (Bartman, 2002).

2.4.6 The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Article 7 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights prohibits the use of reasonable chastisement. Chastisement in this context is viewed to be degrading, cruel, and inhumane (Bartman, 2002). Jonas (2012) argues against the argument of reasonable chastisement because the divide between reasonable chastisement and physical abuse is not clear. He argues that some learners may be injured, not because the use of corporal punishment is abusive but because their skin is too soft and easily bruises. In addition, some learners may have health issues that cause bruises that teachers may be unaware of.

2.4.7 The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child

Following the adoption and ratification of the CRC, the African Union called the Organisation of African Unity and created the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Children (from hereafter the Charter). The Charter was adopted by the African Union in 1990 and brought into function in 1999 (Olowu, 2002). It was drafted

around the values of the CRC and with the intention of “identifying and prioritising issues specifically affecting African children, in addition to globally recognised and generally applicable principles” (Njungwe, 2009, p. 12). African leaders studied the CRC and found that the instrument fell short on some matters affecting the African child, and therefore, decided to supplement the universal document (Kaime, 2009).

The unique matters that needed to be addressed to defend children in the African setting included conditions associated with socio-economic, cultural, and armed conflicts. These issues place children in circumstances that require special care and protection and may well put children at risk if they are not properly dealt with (Chirwa, 2002). According to Olowu (2002), the Charter forbids the employment of children in armed forces and the marriage or engagement of children. Furthermore, the Charter promotes children’s rights discourses within the African region by giving a setting through which children’s rights are debated (Chirwa, 2002). It is, therefore, very important for this study to examine the ways in which the Charter addresses the use of corporal punishment.

On matters relating to corporal punishment, Article 5 of the Charter states that all state parties shall take appropriate measures to ensure that the child is treated with humanity and respect for their inherent dignity when subjected to school or parental discipline (Chirwa, 2002). Dignity is one of the fundamental principles of the Charter, and it relates to both the status of an individual and the position that is associated with that status. It denotes the significance of a human being over the interests of the state (Freeman, 2010). Any form of corporal punishment on children is a breach of their inherent dignity and humanity (Waterhouse & Ruhukwa, 2008).

Article 16 states that governments shall take specific legislative, administrative, social, and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of torture, inhumane or degrading treatment (Chirwa, 2002). Many African countries complied with the stipulations of Article 16 of the Charter by putting in place legislative measures to protect children. For example, Kenya enacted the Children's Law in 2001 to abolish customary practices that violated children’s rights (Odongo, 2004).

Lloyd (2002) reiterates that there is a need to promote the Charter to anxious state officials and the general public at large so that they know how it works. However, there may be differing opinions about what degrading and inhumane punishment is (Hale, 18

2006). For example, Botswana, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, and Nigeria are some of the African countries that have not fully eradicated the corporal punishment of children. Corporal punishment in these countries is legally permissible because it is perceived to be a good cultural practice that is not harmful to the child (Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2012). Nonetheless, Article 21(1) states that state parties should take appropriate measures to eliminate harmful cultural practices that affect the welfare, dignity, normal growth, and development of the child.

African cultures are diverse and some countries may feel they need to preserve their own traditions and values. Instead of not ratifying the document, countries are given concessions on non-fundamental areas. For example, Botswana ratified the Charter but made reservations on Article 1, stating that it prefers to maintain its own standards, which already adhere to the spirit of the Charter (Lloyd, 2002).

All the countries that signed the international and continental conventions are expected to put in place local instruments to protect all the citizens, including children. While global instruments such as the CRC and the Charter protect children from all forms of abuse, there have been a lot of problems at the national and local levels. Governments approve the instruments and pass appropriate regulations, but in practice, the dynamics of the laws are not easy to implement (Kaime, 2009). In response to the instruments against cruel, degrading, and inhumane treatment, some countries legally abolished the use of corporal punishment at school and/or at home as well as in penal institutions. South Africa (Morrell, 2001) and Kenya (Mweru, 2010) are two countries that abolished the use of corporal punishment in schools because it is degrading and inhuman. Countries such as Tanzania have continued to uphold the use of corporal punishment in schools but placed restrictions on its use.

2.5 The reasons corporal punishment happens at schools

Many of the current South African educators were trained in an education system that heavily relied on corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure; even those who qualified after 1996 are very likely to have been trained by teacher educators who regarded corporal punishment as an appropriate disciplinary measure. They have also had to endure the effects of a systemic change process that left many educators confused, overworked, frustrated, and unable to deliver the expected democratic

transformation (Morrell, 2001). Noang (2007) argued that educators who feel their work lives are in disarray are unlikely to comply with the policy and give up corporal punishment, the only way many of them knew how to discipline. From teachers' perspective, abandoning corporal punishment might mean plunging losing control of the classroom, particularly when they had not been trained to use alternatives to corporal punishment (ATCP). Educators may also fear that learners will become disruptive and unmanageable, and then they relate the escalating lack of discipline to the elimination of corporal punishment (Noang, 2007). According to Noang (2007), aggravating factors in teachers' adherence to corporal punishment include the prevalence of stress; declining morale, resulting in some teachers leaving the profession; trying working conditions with large classes, and the expectation that teachers will be sensitive to each child's background, needs, abilities and interests; heavy workloads; pressure from reform movements; lack of support and resources to facilitate innovation; and poor pay and status.

Even though corporal punishment is illegal in South African schools (Burton, 2008a), it is still being administered in many schools. Recently, however, researchers such as Morrel (1999) and De Wet (2007) studied the effectiveness of corporal punishment in reducing bullying and misbehaviour and found that, in addition to the moral and psychological arguments against its use, it is indefensible on the grounds of efficacy. Prinsloo (2006) states that the results of corporal punishment are unpredictable, although it may sometimes be successful at inhibiting inappropriate behaviour. Numerous studies explain corporal punishment as a phenomenon emerging from family contexts (Donnelly & Straus, 2005).

Some teachers feel that learners will never show them respect or develop the discipline to work hard unless they receive corporal punishment or are threatened with it. (Asmal, 2000). They think their influence as teachers have been taken away from them because they are not allowed to use corporal punishment. The idea is supported by Makapela, (2006), who argues that learners take advantage of educators because they know that their chastisement will not equal the discomfort of corporal punishment.

Educators believe that corporal punishment is fast and easy, unlike other tactics that might need the time, patience, and skills that educators often do not have. Teachers

believe that other methods of administering discipline will not have an effect on disobeying pupils, particularly in situations of overcrowded classrooms and violence. Some teachers feel that since they themselves experienced no harmful effects from being beaten as children, there is no reason why they should not use it too.

According to Chisholm, (2007), the matter of kids' rights within the setting of disciplinary measures is a serious issue in the current education dispensation. As a result of the focus on children's rights, it should be emphasised that these rights have restrictions and it is vital that an individual's rights should not interfere with the rights of others. For example, Masitsa (2008, p. 240) observes that "children in schools now engage in criminal activities that are injurious to teachers and fellow learners and hamper academic activities".

The roots of child-rearing attitudes lie in deeply embedded cultural practices regarding discipline. Most cultures have, and continue, physically punish children and believe it to be appropriate (Nilsson, 2002). Bartholdson (2001) notes that in "almost all cultures, corporal punishment is an integral part of child-rearing". This is supported by Wiehe (1989) who claims that pro-spanking attitudes are linked to biblical doctrine. The book of Proverbs in the Bible advises not to, "spare the rod" (Proverb, 13:24) and is used as a basis for child-rearing. Flynn (1994) found that conservative Protestants, Assemblies of God, Jehovah's Witnesses, and so on are much more likely to support spanking than those affiliated with other denominations. Richardson, Wilcox, and Dunne (1994) argue that central religious principles, strong adherence to custom, and traditional philosophy all appear to contribute to the resistance of Southern community leaders to the elimination of corporal punishment.

Teachers play a key role in maintaining discipline within a school, probably because learners spend a bigger part of the day with teachers than with their parents. The teachers still believe that corporal punishment is an effective way to maintain discipline in overcrowded classrooms, and many still view it as an effective classroom aid. Teachers use corporal punishment as a tool to encourage learning. In a study by Steinberg (2013) on teachers' feelings about assessment, one of the interview participants (a teacher) expressed his thoughts on children's ill-discipline and lack of motivation to learn by comparing his childhood experience with his current experience as a teacher. He expressed his thought as follows:

Unfortunately, that kind of discipline, which is called corporal punishment is no longer available, because it lowers the standard of learning of our kids. Because our kids are no longer punished the way we were punished, they have decided not to do their schoolwork because they know no one is going to discipline them. So, in the end, it affects the results of the matric. They need something a little bit extra to energise them, to make them work hard. Can you see that? Because I have seen myself, it worked for me, and will also definitely work for other children. (p.252)

Children are born with a tendency to do evil. Corporal punishment can, however, help children to learn the correct awe and fear required to form conscience and to bring them closer to God (Potgieter, 1994; Grey, 1997). Gunter (1983) concurs and asserts that corporal punishment is essential to exterminate the “evil part of a child” so that the good in the child can flourish.

According to Christopher Khaemba, the principal of Alliance Boys High School, managing schools got more challenging with the ban on corporal punishment; it was a radical change, and there was nothing to replace it with. Some schools could not function after it was abolished (Daily Nation, May 11, 2003). Equally, at the annual general conference held in Eldoret in July 2001, principals blamed the Ministry of Education for taking away the cane without consulting them. They agonised over the trend of indiscipline in schools and demanded the reinstatement of corporal punishment (Daily Nation, July 16, 2001).

Mwamwenda (1995) argues that it would be naive to believe that corporal punishment has no place in maintaining discipline. The authors state that it can facilitate learning and may in fact be the only kind of treatment that will produce satisfactory behaviour in some instances. Corporal punishment may be used where there has been gross misbehaviour involving unbridled disrespect for school regulations, defiance of authority, and physical attacks against teachers and students. However, those who speak for corporal punishment agree that the following factors should be taken into consideration when administering corporal punishment:

- It should be used rarely and sparingly and as a last resort.
- Before a pupil is punished, they should be told why they are being punished.

- Punishment should be administered as soon as an offence is committed so that a link is made between the offence and the punishment.
- The punishment should be strong enough to bring the undesirable behaviour under control. However, care should be taken to ensure that the offender is not punished to the point of being physically and psychologically injured.

Corporal punishment may be administered to students who display negative classroom behaviours such as disrupt the learning process by talking, making noise, throwing objects, laughing, engaging in horseplay, being late (tardy) to class, wearing sagging pants, using profanities, and showing disrespect to the teacher (by talking back or walking out of class without permission). Negative student behaviours exhibited in the classroom have been shown to interfere with the learning process and impede teachers' instructional delivery (Shumate & Willis, 2010).

Mugabe and Maposa (2013) conducted a study on the challenges faced by teachers and school authorities in implementing the various methods used to curb indiscipline in schools. Their results reveal that 35% of the teachers preferred the use of corporal punishment while the remaining 65% were reluctant to use it. The high number of teachers who have reservations about the use of corporal punishment indicates that the efforts of human rights advocates have an effect.

Shumba, Mpofo, Chireshe, and Mapfumo (2009) conducted a study in Zimbabwe to determine the pupils' myths and beliefs about why teachers use corporal punishment. The research used a sample of 200 learners, and it discovered that learners believed that teachers beat learners in order to control those who broke the school rules and regulations. Learners who believed that teachers apply corporal punishment to curb the breach of school rules see the punishment as necessary. They had a positive attitude towards corporal punishment and were likely to accept its use.

Chemhuru (2010) reiterates that punishment in the classroom is a tool used to force learners to accept what they would not accept if they were not punished. It facilitates the learners' conscience when they behave in a disruptive manner by frowning upon their behaviour. This opinion suggests that punishment enables teachers to keep order that would otherwise not be possible. Chemhuru (2010), however, points out that a problem arises when corporal punishment is administered in an unfair manner. This is

likely to occur when teachers indiscriminately beat learners in response to learners' refusal to reveal those who have broken the rules. An indiscriminate application of corporal punishment is thus viewed as unfair to those who did not break the law.

Bartman (2002) argues that proponents of corporal punishment perceive it as an appropriate method for instilling discipline in children. Children who receive corporal punishment are said to appreciate authority and obey orders. This makes it easy to control them. Furthermore, the pro-punishment proponents believe that schools can will become chaotic if corporal punishment is not used.

Some teachers use corporal punishment illegally with permission from parents and SGBs. It is therefore impossible to report teachers if parents grant permission to use corporal punishment as they perceive it to be an acceptable cultural practice, especially if it is well regulated and is not severe (Crocker & Pete, 2009). The acceptance of corporal punishment at home influences its use at school. In a study conducted in Kenya, Kimani *et al.* (2012) found that most school stakeholders supported the use of corporal punishment in schools. Seventy percent of headteachers, 82% of teachers, and 60% of learners advocated for the reinstatement of corporal punishment. Consequently, the positive perception of corporal punishment by the school personnel influences its use outside the law. Furthermore, Kimani *et al.* (2012) argue that school personnel was likely not invited to participate in deciding to abolish corporal punishment in Kenyan schools. A top-down model of eradicating corporal punishment was used, and as a result, government officials abolished corporal punishment but never informed the teachers about the new law.

2.6 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed the literature on beliefs, knowledge, and attitudes about corporal punishment. The next chapter presents the theoretical framework.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

Our schools are meant to be safe havens for both the learners and teachers; a place where learning and teaching happens. However, in recent years schools in South Africa have become more violent and dangerous for both learners and teachers. There have been numerous incidents where teachers were attacked by pupils. In one incident, a 24-year-old mathematics teacher was stabbed to death by a 17-year old learner in a classroom in Zeerust, North-West. In another incident, a 15-year-old pupil from Eldorado Park, Johannesburg, was arrested after pointing a gun at his teacher and threatening to shoot. In the last incident, a Cape Town teacher was filmed smacking one of her learners after a violent argument broke out between the two.

The above incidents prove that educators are also victims of school-based violence, although educators are often portrayed as committing school violence. This portrayal fails to consider teachers' experiences and how they are coping with violence specifically directed towards educators.

This study interrogates teachers' attitudes, knowledge, and beliefs about corporal punishment. In an attempt to do this, this study will be guided by the social learning theory and the culture of violence theory. I chose this framework in the belief that it will help me answer the research questions.

3.1.1 *The social learning theory*

Bandura's social learning theory will serve as the theoretical framework to understand and assess educators' attitudes, knowledge, and beliefs about corporal punishment and to determine why school educators resort to violence as a method of discipline.

According to Bezuidenhout (1998, p. 50), Bandura's social learning theory emphasises observational learning-modeling. Modelling is learning that occurs by copying the behaviour of others. Furthermore, according to Higson-Smith (2006), the social learning theory states that human beings acquire violent behaviour through example or direct reinforcement. This is confirmed by Bandura (1977, p. 22) stating that "most people conduct is acquired observationally through displaying". According to Louw and

Edwards (1993), social learning can affect adults and children positively or negatively. Additionally, social learning theory also embraces that learners' conduct is affected by the environment and not by psychological or mental factors. According to Bandura (1977), learning would be problematic if human beings had to rely only on their own activities to learn what to do. Luckily, most people's conduct is acquired observationally through witnessing other human beings.

The social learning theory highlights the essentials of displaying and modelling the conduct, attitude, and emotional responses of others. Cohen, Manion, and Marrison (2011) claim that a theory could comprise a mixture of thoughts and ideas that constructs an obvious logical viewpoint of an event, conduct, or relationship with the goal of explaining or predicting the phenomenon under examination. Therefore, social learning theory can also be defined by expanding on human conduct with regard to continuous mutual interaction between intellectual, behavioural, and environmental effects.

According to Bandura (1977), there are four mediational processes, namely, attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation. Attention is the extent to which we are exposed to or notice the behaviour: For a behaviour to be imitated, it has to grab our attention. Retention is how well the behaviour is remembered: The behaviour may be noticed but not always remembered, which obviously prevents imitation. Reproduction is the ability to perform the behaviour that the model has demonstrated. Motivation is the will to perform the behaviour. The rewards and punishment that follow a behaviour will most likely be imitated by the observer. If the vicarious reinforcement is not seen as important enough to the observer, then the behaviour will not be imitated.

According to Muller, Hunter, and Stollak (1995), behaviour is learned through observation. Children who are exposed to corporal punishment may in turn be violent during childhood and as adults because the behaviour was acquired through observation. Burton (2008b) claims that schools that apply corporal punishment often socialise pupils into violent conduct. Soneson (2005) agrees with this viewpoint and claims that administering corporal punishment to learners is tantamount to teaching them that aggression is the way to solve a fight.

Tyson (1987) argues that if teachers continue discipline using abusive forms of punishment, they are teaching children that inflicting pain is an effective way to

discipline, thus perpetuating a culture of violence. A child physically abused by a teacher at school will continue the pattern of abuse by an adult. Children imitate various role models, from educators to film celebrities. The practical implication for teachers, according to the social learning theory, is that unacceptable behaviour learned outside school can be modified inside school through observational learning. Teachers must avoid adopting punitive attitudes towards children and instead present themselves deliberately as models of socially desirable behaviour (Docking, 1980).

Aggressive models may also arouse undue emotion, thereby increasing impulsiveness and aggressiveness. This may make children feel less inhibited about displaying aggression. They may feel less guilty about behaving aggressively as they become habituated to violence (Tyson, 1987, p. 177).

Allen (2010) posits that teachers acquire management and leadership at several stages of their pupil stages, which incorporates the stage in which they were pupils themselves. They probably manage students' conduct based on the behaviour of their own educators. Therefore, if Several definitions of corporal punishment focus on its physical aspects, with little or no attention to what makes it a form of punishment. For example, Soneson (2005) defines corporal punishment of children as follows: teachers exposed to physical punishment as children will likely use corporal punishment to discipline their pupils. This is supported by Dubanoski, Inaba, and Gerkewicz (1983), who argue that many South African educators who were corporally punished by their parents and in school are more likely to use corporal punishment on their learners. Likewise, Lee and Weis (1992) found that educators who experienced restrictive results at home were more likely to select aversive interventions for their students.

Graziano and Namaste (1990) report that students who were not spanked as children are less inclined to use corporal punishment, compared with those who were spanked. There is considerable evidence that corporal punishment is transmitted across generations: Parents who were themselves physically punished as children are more likely to physically punish their own children (Graziano *et al.*, 1996; Bower-Russo *et al.*, 2001; Ghate *et al.*, 2003). This is supported by Buntain-Ricklefs *et al.* (1994) who argue that the rate of approval of corporal punishment is two or three times greater among those who experienced it than among those who did not.

3.1.2 *The culture of violence theory*

The culture of violence theory argues the following:

Within large and complex societies, subgroups learn and develop specialised norms and values through differential associations and organisations that emphasise and justify the use of physical force above and beyond that which is regarded as 'normative' of the culture as a whole. (Wolfgang, Marvin & Ferracuti, 1967)

The theory argues that violence and aggression are maintained in society; for example, they are used by parents as a form of enforcing obedience and conformity in young people within the family and in society. They are also used by teachers as physical punishment to discipline pupils. However, while violence in families and societies is considered a means of socialising young people, the effects that the violence has on young people remain mysterious because it has been accepted by society and is considered normal (Mkhize, 2012, p. 60). Therefore, educators act aggressively and violently toward learners as a form of corporal punishment.

Theorists believe that the exceedingly high rates of violence among a particular race can be linked to that race's subculture of violence, which is arguably a "potent theme of violence current in the cluster of values that make up the lifestyle, the socialisation process, and the interpersonal relationships of individuals living in similar conditions" (Wolfgang *et al.*, 1967, p. 140). This is supported by Bartman (2002) who argues that in some African cultures, corporal punishment is an accepted cultural practice; it has been done from time immemorial. Children grow up being beaten and consider it a beneficial practice. In such cultures, adults attribute their success to being beaten when they were young (Shumba *et al.*, 2009; Mugabe & Maposa, 2013). In some cultures, violence is socially accepted and encouraged; for example, beliefs such as "a man should not walk away from a fight", and "a boy needs to have a few fights while growing up" are very common (Straus, 2010). These norms, however, connect with the approval of corporal punishment for children. As a result, children learn to perceive corporal punishment positively.

In South Africa, Crocker and Pete (2009) found that some South Africans consider corporal punishment to be part of their culture. People with such positive regard for

corporal punishment believe that an African child only behaves appropriately after a good, hard spanking. The pain incurred during corporal punishment deters children from repeating the same mistakes. Similar results were found in Zimbabwe by Shumba (2003). Teachers support the legality of corporal punishment in schools because of the perception that an African child reacts positively to corporal punishment (Shumba, 2003).

In addition, according to Borak (2003), social learning theory is the intergenerational transmission of family violence: People who witnessed or suffered physical family violence when growing up have a greater likelihood of living in a violent domestic situation later in life. He adds that there are also associations between those people who have been sexually abused, especially boys, becoming sexual abusers as teenagers and adults.

However, the culture of violence theory states the following:

Affected individuals, regardless of their particular origin of violence, suffer from some kind of physiological and/or psychological imbalance(s) expressed by the combination of obsessive ideation, compulsive repetition, poor impulse control, rapid desensitisation to violence, diminished affective reactivity, failure to adapt to changing stimulus-reinforcement associations, hyper dependence, depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, paranoia, dissociation from their own feeling, anti-social tendencies, failure to empathise, and fear of intimacy. (Wolfgang et al., 1967).

The theory shows that even though violence can be normalised in society, it has an effect on people, especially those who are constant victims.

This theory is relevant to this study, as it gives clues as to what causes teachers to use violence as a form of corporal punishment to discipline their learners. Some teachers consider corporal punishment as the appropriate tool to use to discipline learners because they grew up being beaten and consider it a beneficial practice.

3.2 Chapter summary

The purpose of this study was to explore the knowledge, beliefs and attitude of teachers about corporal punishment. This chapter discussed the two theories that served as a guide in collecting and interpreting information.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology supporting the study. The chapter begins by discussing the research paradigm within which the problem is located, and this is followed by the research design. Then I discuss the methodology and procedures I used to produce the data, followed by the procedures to guarantee trustworthiness and ethics.

4.2 Research paradigm

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), a research paradigm signifies a particular worldview that describes, for the academics who convey this view, what is suitable to research and in what way. Interpretivists believe that the researcher and the participants are interdependent, meaning that they influence each other in producing knowledge (Guba, 1990).

This means that interpretivists strive to comprehend a phenomenon from the participants' point of view. In relation to the methodology, interpretivists use qualitative methods and data collection methods that include interviews, observations, and document reviews (Henning *et al.*, 2004; Denscombe, 2005).

This study is set within the interpretivist paradigm because the research objective was investigating the attitude, beliefs, and knowledge of educators about corporal punishment. This paradigm was used because it allows the researcher to look at how human beings attach meaning to their universe, and the way they view the universe influences the way they interpret the universe (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Interpretivists' aim is to understand the meaning that informs human behaviour. In the setting of my study, I needed to comprehend the attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge of educators about corporal punishment.

4.3 Research design

The research design is the strategy of how the researcher will systematically produce and examine the information or data required to respond to the research questions (Terre-blanche & Durrheim, 2002).

It is a mixture of many approaches and methodology and how to perform those approaches. The research design also defines the stages necessary to conduct the research. According to Creswell (2007, p. 5), “the whole process of study involves theorising a problem to writing research questions, and data gathering, analysis, explanation, and report writing”. In addition, Creswell (2007) suggests the three types of research design are the qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods designs.

Creswell (2007, p. 11) also claims that “novice researchers should guard against selecting more than one method in their study”. It was for this reason that I adopted the qualitative approach in this study. I believe using one design (qualitative) was enough to research my study aims. The goal of choosing this research design was closely connected with its appropriateness to answer the research questions.

I used a qualitative research design in this study because it deals with qualitative data, which is analysed through words and not through statistical means (Creswell, 2011). In qualitative research, data is produced through in-depth interviews and several other approaches to produce data; these approaches can be used to attempt to comprehend the phenomenon being researched. By means of qualitative research design, I will be able to study in its complexity the attitude, beliefs, and knowledge of educators about corporal punishment. In qualitative analysis, researchers are not worried about figures, but the senses that the research participants attach to their condition.

4.4 Sampling method

According to Nieuwenhuis (2010), sampling is the process used to choose a portion of the population for study. Qualitative research generally uses non-probability and purposive sampling methods and not random or probability sampling.

In purposive sampling, the researcher selects the case/s to be studied based on previous material in their possession of the precise features being required.

In this study, purposive sampling was used to select the participants from three primary schools and one secondary school. In addition, I selected participants based on their knowledge of the phenomenon I am researching.

According to Nieuwenhuis (2007), purposive sampling means that the participants are selected because of certain defining characteristics that make them the holders of data

needed for the study. In this study, the schools were chosen because of their reputation for violence. Sampling allows the researcher to choose a case because it illustrates some features in which the researcher is interested (Dillman, 2000).

I was limited to three primary schools and one secondary school from KwaMashu. The data sources were a circuit manager, a principal, a member of the SGB, and three educators from each school. In total, 15 educators participated in this study. The purposive sampling was used to identify the research participants and the schools.

I chose these three primary schools and one secondary school because I observed corporal punishment being used there. These schools were also picked because they are convenient and accessible since they are located in the circuit where I teach. Since the focus of the study is teachers' attitudes towards corporal punishment, three teachers were selected from each participating school. The school principal was chosen because he has to monitor the daily activities and emerging issues in the school. He represents the DoE with regard to the implementation of its policies, such as the banning of corporal punishment. The circuit manager was chosen because he has to support schools, principals, school management teams, and teachers. He must ensure that teachers receive enough training in how to maintain discipline in the classroom without using corporal punishment. One parent who is a member of the SGB and represents the other parents was included in the study to obtain a balanced view of the use of corporal punishment on their children.

Purpose sampling is mostly used by researchers in the interpretive paradigms; hence it is relevant to the study.

4.5 Pilot study

A pilot study is the preliminary administration of the research instrument to ascertain its effectiveness in collecting the data necessary to respond to the research questions. It allows the researcher to analyse and address the appropriateness of the questions in terms of their content, flow, and order. The insights gained through piloting enable the researcher to do necessary troubleshooting. Furthermore, time and resources that would have been wasted are saved (Imenda & Muyangwa, 2006; Bryman, 2012; Kumar, 2014).

The pilot study was conducted to improve the contents of the interview questions. It was conducted before the main study at a primary school in KwaMashu, and is not included in the final study. The primary school teachers at the pilot site gave individual written informed consent. Seven primary school teachers agreed to participate in the pilot study. The average time it took each teacher to respond to the questions administered by me or a fieldworker was 7–8 minutes.

These participants were chosen because they are similar to the participants in the main study. Two individual interviews and a focus group interview were conducted by the fieldworker. The analysis of the individual interviews schedules and focus group interview schedules of the pilot study revealed that the first question in the pilot study was not clearly stated. The question, which read, *have you ever experienced corporal punishment?* did not make it clear to the participants whether it referred to when they were a child or a teacher. It was replaced with *Have you ever experienced corporal punishment as a child at school?* All the other questions were well understood, and therefore, no changes were made to them.

4.6 Data generating approaches

According to Babies (2007), the approaches for generating data in qualitative research are mostly observations and interviews. However, Mertens (1998) states that there are numerous data generation approaches in qualitative studies. Additionally, McMillan and Schumacher (2006) state that data generation includes gathering material around the case under study. Because of these reasons, I decided to use semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews as data generation tools in this study.

Yin (2012) suggests that good case studies gain from having numerous sources of evidence. Additionally, Merriam (2009) observes that qualitative analysis that emphasises meaning in context needs data collection tools that are sensitive to fundamental meaning when producing and interpreting data. Using two data collection methods allowed me to ensure triangulation of data and allowed me to establish whether these two methods produced similar or different data.

Cohen *et al.* (2011, p. 141) define triangulation as “... the use of two or more approaches of data gathering in the study of some aspect of human behaviour”. In

addition, Kelly (2006, p. 287) defines triangulation as “gathering material in as many different ways and from as many sources as possible”. This, according to Kelly (2006, p. 287), “... can aid researchers to ‘home in’ on a better understanding of a phenomenon by approaching it from several different angles”. Moore *et al.* (2012) define triangulation as finding agreement among evidence collected from numerous sources and using various approaches.

Triangulation also improves the validity and credibility of findings. Additionally, according to Cohen *et al.* (2011, p. 141), “the advantages of the multi-methods approach in social research are manifold”. Triangular methods in the human sciences try to describe the richness and complication of human conduct by studying it from more than one position. Furthermore, the more approaches contrast with each other, the greater the researcher’s confidence. If, for example, the results of a questionnaire agree with those of an observational study of the same phenomena, the researcher will be more confident about the findings (Cohen *et al.*, 2011).

In addition, according to Cohen *et al.* (2011), triangulation is intended as a check on information, while member checking and elements of credibility are used as a check on members’ data building. Several definitions of corporal punishment focus on its physical aspects, with little or no attention to what makes it a form of punishment. For example, Sonesson (2005) defines corporal punishment of children as follows: the most important benefit of triangulation is comprehending diverse viewpoints of an investigated phenomenon. That does not automatically mean that validating data from two sources or methods and confirming it means it is correct. What is important is to improve the level of knowledge about something.

An interview schedule was made in advance to guide both the semi-structured and the focus group interviews. Greef (2010) upholds that having a prepared schedule compels the researcher to reason openly about what they hope the interview might cover. It also forces the researcher to think of potential problems, for example, the wording of the questions or delicate areas. Greef (2010) also claims that questions should follow a logical sequence, be limited to a few questions only, and cover the topic thoroughly.

4.6.1 *Semi-structured interviews*

Walliman (2009) suggests that interviews are a flexible instrument with an extensive variety of applications. According to Yin (2012), interviews can deliver comfortable and wider material than other approaches of data gathering. He further posits that interviews can be used for topics both general and specific in nature, and even, with the correct preparation, for very sensitive issues. Because I think still using corporal punishment to maintain discipline in schools is a sensitive subject, I used semi-structured interviews to collect data. Schensul (2012) suggests that researchers depend on in-depth interviews to disclose ways in which dominance and determined inequities are moved to the behaviours, opportunity structures, and meaning systems of susceptible people.

Lichtman (2006) summaries the different types of interviews as in-depth interviews, semi-structured interviews, informal or casual interviews, focus group interviews, and online interviews. The research in this study used face-to-face semi-structured interviews to gather descriptive data in the participants' own words. Semi-structured interviews are the most common type of interview used in qualitative social research (Dawson, 2009). The researcher needs to understand specific information that can be compared and contrasted with information gained in other interviews. But, the researcher also wants the interview to be flexible so that other vital information can still emerge (Dawson, 2009). Robson (2002) notes that semi-structured interviews are flexible and are favoured by educational researchers because they permit complexity to be achieved by enabling the interviewer to inquire and enlarge the interviewee's answers.

Semi-structured interviews were considered appropriate and subsequently employed in this study because they enabled me to control the content in order to get the desired responses from the participants. Each interview was at least 30 minutes long and was conducted at a time and place that suited the participants. Semi-structured interviews are less formal but very effective in capturing the participants' points of view (Creswell, 2011). I used an interview schedule to conduct the semi-structured interviews.

Lankshear and Knobel (2004) claim that interviews are organised, prearranged interactions among two or more people, where one asks questions relating to a

specific theme or subject of formal interest, and the other(s) answer the questions. When gathering data, Carpeken (1996) believes interviewers should take the opportunity to do the following:

- Generate content about an event from an insider perspective.
- Check the honesty, certainty, and exact meaning of the participants' replies in a face-to-face interview.
- Access a person's definition and understandings of concepts and processes that are of interest to the researcher.
- Analyse both verbal and non-verbal responses.
- Give immediate clarity if the interviewee was not certain in their response.
- Use follow-up questions that arise to provide detailed and/or specific answers.
- Tap into the interviewees' beliefs, values, worldviews, and the like.

In this study, then, interviews were conducted with diverse stakeholders in the education sector. This included the DoE, the school principal, the school educators, and the SGB. One representative from DoE was interviewed, one principal was interviewed, one SGB member was interviewed as well as 13 educators, one from each school.

I audio recorded the interviews to further authenticate the study. The voice recorder permitted me, as the interviewer, to check the phrasing of the statements completed by the interviewees. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006), the audio recording of interviews guarantees the fullness of the spoken interaction and gives material for reliability checks. Audio recording the interviews allowed me to have the complete and accurate information provided by each participant and also to create a better understanding between me and the interviewees. The voice recorder permitted me to attend and respond more quickly by removing the difficult process of manually recording lengthy answers. According to Tuli (2010), sometimes participants may become nervous with the use of a voice recorder. To avoid this, the purpose of the voice recorder was clearly described to the participants and did not appear to present any difficulty or uneasiness during the interview process. The voice-recorded

interviews were transcribed immediately after each interview based on Henning's (2004) suggestion.

The time of participation was negotiated between me and the participants, which ensured that the interviews were scheduled at a time suitable for the participants. Therefore, the interviews were mostly conducted during the non-teaching time. The sites for the interviews were also discussed with the participants, and they preferred their classrooms rather than the staffroom. This permitted a relaxed and non-threatening setting. Additionally, I assured the participants of strict privacy and anonymity during and after the reporting process.

4.6.2 *Focus group interviews*

According to Dawson (2009), focus groups are open debates between a researcher and research participants and provide the researcher with the opportunity to hear the various insights held about a particular subject of interest. With regard to a focus group interview or discussion, individuals come together to express their views on a subject that they have an understanding about described by the researcher (Merriam, 2009). A moderator leads the group and guides the discussion between the participants (Cronin, 2011). In addition, Mertens (2009) states that focus group interviews are a preferred means of data collection in human research. Furthermore, according to Robson (2002), focus group interviews are normally used in combination with other approaches such as observation and individual interviews. Greef (2010) also claims that focus group interviews are a means to better comprehend how participants think about a topic, a product, or service. Creswell (2007, p. 133) states that "focus groups are advantageous when the interaction among the interviewees will likely yield the best information when interviewees are similar and cooperative with each other, ... and when individuals interviewed one-on-one may be hesitant to provide information".

Focus group interviews rely on the interaction inside the group to debate a subject provided by the researcher to yield a collective rather than individual opinion. Hence, the participants interact with each other rather than with the interviewer, allowing the views of the participants to arise (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). Focus group interviews put together a specifically select sector of the population to discuss a specific given theme or subject, and the interaction with the group leads to data and consequences

(McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). The benefits of focus group interviews are that they can yield insights that would not otherwise have been accessible in a straightforward interview. They also save time, producing a large amount of information in a short period of time.

Rule and John (2011) state that most focus groups interviews consist of 6–12 people, while Merriam (2009) posits that a focus group should consist of 6–10 people. However, Hakim (2000) states that it should range from 4–12 people. Babbie and Mouton (2009, p. 292) suggest that “the number of participants should be enough so that the focus group does not fall flat if some members choose to remain silent”, while Chilisa and Preece (2005, p. 154) state that “the group should not be so big that participation by all is not possible, or so small that it is impossible to cover a large number of matters”. Therefore, I conducted two focus group discussions with educators, made up of at least five participants.

4.7 Trustworthiness measures

Madlala (2007) states that it is vital that the conclusions of a research project should be reliable to the readers and nobles in the field. Therefore, issues of validity and consistency are important in research circles. Due to the fact that validity and consistency are not attained in the same way in qualitative research as in quantitative research, qualitative researchers created their own methods to ensure trustworthiness. These are dependability, credibility, conformability, and transferability.

4.7.1 Dependability

Lincoln and Guba (1985) assert that there are close ties between credibility and dependability, arguing that, in practice, a demonstration of the former goes some distance to ensure the latter. Directly addressing the issue of dependability, they contend that the methods within the study should be reported in detail, thereby allowing upcoming researchers, whose intention is to get different results, to repeat the research. The dependability of this study was ensured by describing in detail the implementation of all processes, including fieldwork practices and operation and the preliminary visits. To improve the dependability of my study, I made sure that all

interview sittings were recorded with a voice recorder. This is supported by Lodico, Spaulding, and Voegtle (2010), who argue that recording devices are used extensively in all kinds of qualitative research to ensure dependability.

4.7.2 Credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985) claim ensuring credibility is one of the critical aspects that researchers have to think about to ensure that the reported conclusions are trustworthy. Readers of the research report must have confidence that the findings are authentic.

Credibility means “confidence in the truth of the findings as revealed through the participants” original data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 296) or a truth value (Boudah, 2011). Credibility is the answer to the question “how congruent are findings with reality?” (Shenton, 2004, p. 65). Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Marshall and Rossman (2010) suggest three initial activities to strategise the study. These are prolonged engagement, persistent observations, and triangulation. Boudah (2011) further adds peer debriefing, negative case analysis, and member checking as ways of boosting the credibility of qualitative research findings.

4.7.3 Confirmability

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), confirmability entails ensuring that research maintains its impartiality. Qualitative researchers view confirmability as comparable to impartiality in quantitative research. The concept of confirmability is comparable to qualitative investigators’ concern for neutrality (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this case, steps need to be taken to help ensure, as far as possible, that the work’s findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher (Shenton, 2004).

4.7.4 Transferability

Transferability demands that the findings are applicable in contexts other than that of the situation in which the research is undertaken. For Lincoln and Guba (1985), transferability refers to the extent to which the results of the research can be applied in similar contexts. However, Shenton (2004) argues that in qualitative research,

transferability is impossible since research project findings are from small-scale research. However, Bessey (1981) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that it is important that enough thick description of the phenomenon under investigation is provided to permit readers to have a good understanding of it, thereby enabling them to compare the instances of the phenomenon described in the research report with those that they have seen emerge in their situations.

4.8 Data analysis

Once the data was collected, it was immediately transcribed and the preliminary investigation started. Investigation may be defined as trying to organise, account for, and provide explanations of data so that some kind of logic may be reached about it in terms of participants' meanings of the condition and noting patterns (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1993). Neumann (1997) claims that generally, data analysis means hunting for patterns in data-repeated behaviours, objects, or a body of knowledge; while De Vos (2010) claims that qualitative analysis change data into findings. From this, it can be said that analysis involves making sense of the data obtained. In addition, Cohen *et al.* (2011, p. 461) state that "qualitative data often focuses on smaller numbers of people than quantitative data, yet the data tend to be detailed and rich".

Cohen *et al.* further state that a researcher needs to decide early on whether to present data individually and if so, to combine key matters arising across the individuals; or whether to proceed by working within a mostly prearranged analytical frame of issues that crosses the individuals concerned.

Marshall and Rossman (1999, p. 152) state that "the researcher should use the preliminary research questions and the related literature developed earlier in the proposal to provide guidelines for data analysis". Voluminous data collected can be overwhelming; therefore, analysis of the data should be done systematically so that there is some order in the process. Cohen *et al.* (2011) describe this as "domain analysis" and it involves grouping together items and units into related clusters, themes and patterns; a domain being a category that contains several other categories. Marshall and Rossman (1999, p. 154) state that "this phase of data analysis is the most difficult, complex, ambiguous, creative and fun". Creswell (2009) states that category generation means taking the qualitative information apart and

looking for categories, themes, or dimensions of information. Interpretation involves making sense of data and the “lessons learned”.

I chose Thematic analysis as the data analysis method as it moves beyond merely describing the data and identifies both the unspoken and obvious ideas within the data (Guest, McQueen & Namey, 2001). Broman (2004, p. 93) claims that “this technique of analysing data includes two processes, the mechanical and the interpretive component, both inextricably connected”.

The mechanical process refers to the physical activity of reading and rereading the data in search of main words, trends, and themes that will assist form analysis before any analysis takes place (Guest *et al.*, 2001). The interpretive component of the analysis happens if the researcher is immersed in the data, looking for the unspoken and attaching sense to it based on the broader picture offered by the findings (Rodwell, 1995). Therefore, thematic analysis is seen as taking the rather subjective voices and opinions of the participants’ viewpoints and giving them room to share their existing experiences and truths as they know them

(Mays, Pope & Popeye, 2005). The construction of themes was an ongoing process during the data analysis that started soon after the early interviews. For example, the data given by the participants was used to settle theoretical descriptions in the interviews with the key informants, and where important patterns had been identified, the topics were revisited in the subsequent interviews, permitting me to check and verify my constructions of their reality with them.

Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 13) suggest "two levels of analysing data using thematic analysis, the explicit level, and the implicit level". The explicit level deals with surface meaning, taking in what the client has said and looking for anything beyond; while the implicit level "attempts to theorise the significance of patterns and their broader meanings and implications".

4.9 Ethical issues

The Research Ethics Policy of the University of KwaZulu-Natal applies to all members of staff, and graduate and undergraduate students who are involved in the study on the campuses of the University. All students and members of staff have to familiarise

themselves with and sign an undertaking to comply with the University's *Code of Conduct for Research*. Strydom (2010) warns that anyone participating in research must be aware of what is appropriate and inappropriate when conducting research.

Bell (2005) claims that a researcher should follow official channels when asking for approval to conduct a study. Therefore, I had to apply for ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal, as it is obligatory for students to get ethical clearance from the University before any data can be collected. Having obtained ethical clearance from the University, I obtained permission from the KwaZulu-Natal DoE to conduct research in the four selected schools. I also got permission from the principals of the schools through letters I delivered. In addition to the letters of request, I spent some time with the principals explaining the proposed study. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) claim that when negotiating access, researchers should provide as much information as possible about the procedures, nature, and aims of their study.

All ethical considerations were discussed with the participants before the research was started, and I adhered to ethical principles throughout the study. According to King and Horrons (2010), ethics refers to the morality of human conduct, and this is based on the choices made and the accountability of the researcher throughout the research process. Mertens (2009) argues that ethical rules in research are needed to guard against any probable damage.

"The essence of anonymity is that information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity" (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p. 91). In addition, Alston and Bowles (2003, p. 21) state that "confidentiality means that the data given to the researcher will not be revealed to others, except in reporting research results as agreed, and that the information will not be used for any purpose other than the research". Therefore, I ensured participants' anonymity and privacy by identifying the participating schools and not the names of individual educators. I also made sure that their anonymity was not compromised in any way. Anonymity and privacy were strictly adhered to throughout the study, and pseudonyms were assigned to all participants. Cohen *et al.* (2007, p. 290) argue that the essence of anonymity is that information provided by participants should not in any way reveal their identity.

All the participants voluntarily signed informed consent forms that contained information on the overall purpose of the study and my identity. Permission to conduct

the study was obtained from the provincial education office, the principals (head of educators) of the respective schools, and the participants themselves. All the participants were also informed that they are free to withdraw from the study at any time, for any reason. Informed consent ensured that the rights of participants were not in any way infringed on by me.

4.10 Limitations of the study

One limitation of the study was that the research was exclusively concentrated in schools situated in KwaMashu Township. The study did not include schools from different vicinities, and thus the results may be constrained because it is focused on KwaMashu Township schools.

Another limitation is that it is difficult to tell how honest the responses were: Participants may have reported wrongly, intentionally, or unintentionally. This may have introduced bias into the results, resulting in false results, particularly as they relate to belief and attitude.

Another limitation of the study is that the teachers were only available at certain times, making conducting the interviews a time-consuming process. Another limitation faced is that the response to my application to the University's Ethics Committee took longer than anticipated. A further limitation was feared among school principals because researching attitudes of educators towards corporal punishment was threatening to most participants, more especially the school principals who thought I was spying on them. I suspected that some participants, especially school principals, feared their schools getting a negative reputation as a result of this study covering the sensitive issue of school violence. This was addressed by using my collegial relationship, being a former teacher in the district, and reinforcing issues of anonymity and confidentiality.

4.11 Chapter summary

The research methodology section reflected in detail the methodology that was used to achieve the aim of the study. This study was situated within the interpretive paradigm and followed a qualitative approach. This chapter highlighted how the research design was planned and executed; the sampling procedures; how the trustworthiness was assured; how the ethical considerations were assured; and the

limitations of the study. The data collection instruments were used in an effort to address the objectives of the study and to answer the research questions. We now move to Chapter 3 where the data analysis is discussed.

CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the primary qualitative data collected at the three primary schools and one secondary school in KwaMashu Township. Primary data is the data collected by me, the researcher, to answer the research questions (Kumar, 2008). This chapter also presents the major themes and categories that emerged from the data analysis.

Data was collected using semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews. This chapter also involves a presentation on the findings of the SGB members, teachers, principal and circuit manager's attitude, knowledge and beliefs about corporal punishment. The information gathered covered between 30–45 minutes. The identities of the participants and schools are not revealed, following the ethical guidelines.

In order to remind readers of the study aims and research questions presented in Chapter 1 and to maintain focus, the research questions are repeated here:

- What ATCP do teachers perceive as effective?
- How do parents feel about corporal punishment?
- What role does school management and the Department of Education (DoE) play in reducing violence in schools?
- What measures are used to help teachers maintain discipline in classrooms?
- What are teachers' childhood experiences of corporal punishment and their present understanding of the practice?

I wanted to ensure that the voices of the participants were not lost during the data presentation, and to this end, *verbatim* quotations are used throughout the data presentation and discussion. Pertinent findings are then analysed through content analysis as discussed in Section 4.8.

5.2 Biographic information

Fifteen participants participated in the study, 12 teachers, one SGB member, one principal and one circuit manager. The teachers who participated in the study were all

qualified teachers. Eight of them have a Bachelor's degree in Education (B.Ed.), four have an Honours' degree in Education, and one principal has a Master's degree in Education (M.Ed.). The interviewed teachers' teaching experience range between five and 22 years. Four of the 12 teachers were male and eight were female. The SGB member who participated was male and has a primary and post-primary education degree.

5.3 Profiles of schools

5.3.1 Profile of School A

School A is situated in a community with a very high unemployment level. It has 12 classrooms, excluding Grade R. It has electricity and water supply but no telephone facility. It is ranked in Quintile 2. At the time of the interviews there were 434 learners enrolled at the school, including the Grade R class. The teaching staff at the school consists of 13 female teachers and two male teachers, who are the principal and a volunteer educator. There is one female non-educator staff member. The language of learning and teaching at the school is IsiZulu for Foundation Phase and English for the Intermediate and Senior Phases.

5.3.2 Profile of School B

School B is similar to School A in terms of the socio-economic status of the community. It has nine classrooms, excluding Grade R. It has electricity and water supply but no telephone facility. It is ranked in Quintile 3. At the time of the interviews there were 187 learners enrolled at the school, including the Grade R class. The teaching staff at school consist of 10 female teachers. The one non-educator staff member is a male security officer. The language of learning and teaching at the school is IsiZulu for Foundation Phase and English for the Intermediate and Senior Phases.

5.3.3 Profile of School C

School C is also similar to School A and B in terms of the socio-economic status of the community. It has 23 classrooms. It has electricity and water supply but no telephone facility. It is ranked in Quintile 2. At the time of the interviews there were 1 152 learners enrolled at the school, including the Grade R class. The teaching staff at school

consists of 27 female teachers and 19 male teachers. There are three non-educator staff, four male security officers. The language of learning and teaching at the school is English.

5.3.4 Profile of School D

School D is similar to School A, B and C in terms of the socio-economic status of the community. It has 10 classrooms, excluding Grade R. It has electricity and water supply but no telephone facility. It is ranked in Quintile 3. At the time of the interviews there were 167 learners enrolled at the school, including the Grade R class. The teaching staff at the school consists of nine female teachers and three male teachers, who is the principal, an educator and a security officer. There is one non-educator staff. The language of learning and teaching at the school is IsiZulu for Foundation Phase and English for the Intermediate and Senior Phases.

5.4 Discussion of findings

This study's findings about teachers' beliefs, attitudes and, knowledge about corporal punishment are analysed and discussed under the following seven themes:

- Strong support for corporal punishment
- Objections to corporal punishment
- Reasons for not using ATCP
- Resource constraints
- Knowledge and information
- Distinction between abuse and corporal punishment
- Leadership

5.4.1 Strong support for corporal punishment

Most educators were unhappy about the elimination of corporal punishment. They did not think it was a good idea of the government to ban the use of corporal punishment. Some teachers believed that corporal punishment should be used as a tool to create a positive learning environment because it instils fear. Most teachers struggled to accept that children can learn and develop effectively without corporal punishment.

Participant 11 stated the following:

I think that corporal punishment in schools is a necessary method of discipline. Children are hard-headed. There will always be some learners in schools who do not have enough respect for teachers. When teachers administered corporal punishment to children who misbehaved, the children behaved better. It is my point of view that there is nothing wrong with corporal punishment.

Participant 9 had this to say:

I want to be honest with you, corporal punishment sometimes helps more, especially with younger ones, but with older children I do not think it works. But with younger children, because I think there is no other way to mould a young child as young as eight or 10 years old; it works. I think corporal punishment is the way to go and I think it was the wrong idea to ban corporal punishment because these young learners cannot just listen. That is my view.

According to Participant 12:

There is nothing bad about CP [corporal punishment] is not an abuse. it was measure or way which was used to discipline a child.

Participant 8 said the following:

I believe corporal punishment is ok because children are doing what they want now, because they aware that none of us will beat them. Even they are not doing homework, disrupting or not writing. I think it necessary to corporally punish learners.

Participant 3 had this to say:

After 1994, the democratic government emphasised that the corporal punishment should not be used, as result most learners begun to misbehave, not writing their homework. I think if we can use corporal punishment in a positive way, we can able to maintain discipline at schools and the learners would able to do their homework accordingly. However, some educators use corporal punishment excessively, which caused other learners to drop out of school.

Some teachers in this study strongly supported corporal punishment because they believed that corporal punishment helps them ensure discipline in the schools. The teachers claimed that in the past it was very easy to maintain discipline and learners were not as unruly as they are nowadays, for that corporal punishment had an immediate warning effects that ensured the smooth flow of lessons.

Participant 2 stated:

I think they find it very difficult or challenging to keep learners inline or disciplined, that why other teachers opt to use CP [corporal punishment].

Participant 3 also stated:

I think they are using it because corporal punishment works for them and, is the only thing that the learners respond to it immediately.

Participant 5 had this to say:

I think the Department of Education (DoE) must come out with the plan of how we are going to discipline learners rather than using corporal punishment, because you will find out that other teachers are using corporal punishment because they have no other effective methods to use in order to maintain discipline at school rather than corporal punishment. So, the major task of DoE is to come out with clear alternatives to corporal punishment.

Some teachers also believe that the DoE has not yet done its part by training educators in how to use ATCP.

This was supported by the Participant 15, who had this to say:

There is a lack of alternatives to corporal punishment because we have no detention facilities where we can actually create that space to detent learners in politer way than administer corporal punishment. That is lack of capacity within the whole system because when the CP [corporal punishment] was banned, they should have actually provided us with the alternatives that are relevant inline with the constitution of South Africa where it talks about what is the learner.

Participant 5 stated:

I have used corporal punishment to my children; even now I am still using it on my children.

Participant 8 stated:

I think they are beaten up learners because they were also beaten up while they were growing up, and it made them who they are. And they believe that if corporal punishment will make a learner to become responsible person.

Participant 10 had this to say:

I think those teachers who are still using it, they are using it because they think it helps them because teachers are expected to produce good results and parents expect their children to pass. When children are not passing, parents may blame them, as result they may try to move their children to another school. Learners cannot do without corporal punishment.

Participant 12 stated:

I do use corporal punishment on my child, although the law is against it. But I used it to my child because eventually I would not like to see my child becoming unruly when she grows old. The Bible says that children just naturally do silly, careless things, but a good spanking will teach them how to behave.

Participant 6 had this to say:

Yes, I am still using it. Even now. For example, yesterday I have beaten up my 21 years old daughter.

Most participants in the focus group indicated that they are using corporal punishment on their children because they strongly support corporal punishment.

Participant 3 had this to say:

I believe in corporal punishment. It is very effective. They were very good kids at homes because their parents used to beat them up when they were doing something wrong.

Participant 13 stated:

When you speak about a child, there is no other way which can be used to discipline a child because a child is a child is not an adult. You can only use corporal punishment which the child is afraid of.

Participant 1 had this to say:

There are no strategies which I think can yield better results than using corporal punishment, because if you ask learners, for example, to stand behind the door, it does not work because learners ended up enjoying sitting there behind door.

Participant 14 had this to say:

Firstly, they talk about transformation; transformation is not a one-day issue but it is a process. People are not comfortable with the change. Teachers are aware that they should not use corporal punishment, and they attended a workshop concerning corporal punishment, but our main problem in our schools with regard to alternatives to corporal punishment is implementation. For example, in detention, you want to punish the child, you must keep him after school. This is not good. We cannot manage it, because we have no security in our school, so we also need the DoE to assist us with regard to alternatives so that it would be easy for educators to implement it.... With regard to legislation and policy, in schools we have the SGB. What I understand is that policy of the school comes from the SGB and members of community, which drive education toward the situation of that community. If there is lack of communication between the SGB and community as such, then they will be a big problem of legislation based on disciplining of learners, because parents have got a power to decide about the policies based on disciplining of learners in their schools. The teachers are quite aware that they should not use corporal punishment.

5.4.2 Objections to corporal punishment

It emerged from the data that participants had mixed feelings about the objections corporal punishment.

Participant 4 had this to say:

I think corporal punishment is not good, because it causes bad relationships between learners and teachers.

Participant 11 had this to say:

It is acceptable for teachers to beat learners so that they can maintain order and so that learners cannot behave as they please. If teachers do not use corporal punishment, learners make noise as much as they like, knowing that nothing will happen to them.

Participant 3 had this to say:

What I do not like about corporal punishment is that it causes pain to learners, as well as causes learners to be violent. In other words, it teaches the child that if one dislikes what somebody does, it is ok to hit that person.

Participant 4 stated:

I do not have objections in terms of using corporal punishment. I recommend the use of corporal punishment, because teachers are not killing learners. We are what we are because we were corporally punished. No teachers were killing me by administering corporal punishment on me, and there is no teacher who is intentional killing the learner by using corporal punishment.

Participant 8 stated:

I do not have anything wrong about use of corporal punishment, because it helps learners to grow and to become responsible person.

Participant 10 stated:

I think it was appropriate long time ago, because it was a good tool used to discipline learner. But now I think it is not appropriate now, because some teachers are not just administering corporal punishment to children for sake of disciplining child, but they are taking out their anger on children. That is why I think it is not good tool to be used now.

Participant 12 stated:

My objections toward corporal punishment are that it inflicts pain, is the abuse when you overuse it. Even me at home, as I have said that I am still using it, but I used it not excessively. I only use it to show that what have you done is wrong. I do not use it in an abusive manner.

Participant 13 had this to say:

I would not say it is good thing. There is a generation gap between children from old generation. They are not the same like the ones we are teaching now. Some learners come to school under the influence of alcohol or drugs, so when you beat up that learner, she/he might retaliate.

Participant 5 stated:

What I do not like about corporal punishment is to beat the child until she/he get hurt. Is not correct. If you administer corporal punishment on a child, you must administer corporal punishment lightly and with love.

5.4.3 Reasons for lack of support.

The teachers in this study offered some reasons for believing in corporal punishment. Most teachers stated that they were raised successfully with the use of corporal punishment, enabling them to discern right from wrong. It also helped them to develop the ability to concentrate and recall what they had learned. Teachers believed that taking corporal punishment away from teachers is removing a teaching tool as well as their childrearing responsibility. The idea is so foreign to some teachers that they feel immobilised and deskilled teaching without corporal punishment. Teachers are expected to produce good results in the Annual National Assessments and parents expect their children to pass. When children do not pass, parents may try to move their children to schools where, supposedly, they will make academic progress. Teachers thus feel they must resort to corporal punishment to put more pressure on children to perform and meet the academic performance expectations of the DoE and parents.

Participant 6 reported the following:

Yes, we were beaten up by teachers, and I think it helped us a lot in terms of making us concentrate when teacher was teaching. And the corporal punishment helped me to able to write homework and to memorise times table and to recite poems and other learning material. For example, if you were asked questions about these things, you would be beaten by the teacher. Yes, it was painful when we got beaten, but it helped us a lot.

Participant 11 stated:

While I was at school at primary, I experienced CP [corporal punishment]. It taught us in terms of discipline and it also make us to be what we were expected to be, for example, if the educator has found out that you have not done your homework, she/he would corporally punish you. As a result, most learners would do their homework to avoid corporal punishment. However, many learners were drop out of schools because of the corporal punishment. But the main aim of the corporal punishment was to teach learners discipline.

Participant 2 stated:

Yes, we were beaten up at school, that is why I was disciplined at school.

All the teachers who were interviewed had experienced corporal punishment, and they all believed that there was a direct relationship between the use of corporal punishment and their academic success, which is what they aspire for the children they are currently teaching. For example, Soneson (2005) defines corporal punishment of children as follows: All the participants from the focus group discussion agreed that they have experienced corporal punishment at home as well as at school.

Participant 5 had this to say:

Yes, during my school days corporal punishment was used to keep learners under control.

Most teachers who experienced corporal punishment as learners believed that the use of corporal punishment benefitted them.

Participant 1 had this to say:

We were beaten up all the time. 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 homework.

Participants 7 stated:

When we were learners, our teachers use corporal punishment and we were a well-discipline generation. But now that corporal punishment is not allowed, look at how badly these learners behave. Yes, we were beaten.

Participant 3 from another focus group had this say:

Yes, we were beaten. That is why I could do my work properly. I see that now 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.

Some participants linked the use of corporal punishment to African culture.

Participant 13 stated:

We were corporally punished, 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.

All the participants from another focus group discussion agreed that they have experienced corporal punishment at home as well as at school.

Participant 4 had this to say:

Yes, we were corporally punished at homes by our parents and at school by our teachers. That is why we were behaving well at home as well as at school. Even now most parents are still using this medicine, that is why these kids behave well at home and misbehave at the schools.

Some educators believe that children will neither show them respect nor develop the discipline to work hard unless they are beaten or threatened with being beaten. They felt that their power as educators has been taken away from them because they are unable to use corporal punishment.

Some educators showed the use of corporal punishment helped learners to reach their goals academically. They perceived corporal punishment as contributing to the learning process. However, it was argued that corporal punishment could succeed only if it was properly used.

Participant 10 had this to say:

I think those teachers who are still using it, are using it because they think it help them, because teachers are expected to produce good results and parent expect their children to pass. When children are not passing, parent may blame them, as result they may try to move their children to another schools. Learners cannot do with it without corporal punishment.

5.4.4 Resource constraints

The findings from the study indicated that there is a lack of support for using ATCP, for example, Soneson (2005) defines corporal punishment of children as follows:

This will be discussed in the next sections under various subthemes.

5.4.4.1 Training

It became very clear that in terms of resources, there is a lack of proper training from the DoE on how educators should use ATCP. Instead, the DoE is very good at creating awareness of what not to do, for example, not to use corporal punishment, but the actual training has been lacking. Data revealed that most of the teachers interviewed were not happy that they have not been trained on how to implement ATCP.

Participant 5 had this to say:

I think the Department of Education (DoE) must come out with the plan of how we are going to discipline learners rather than using corporal punishment because you will find out that other teachers are using corporal punishment because they have no other effective methods to use in order to maintain discipline at school rather than corporal punishment. So, the major task of the DoE is to come out with clear alternatives to corporal punishment.

Participant 14 had this to say:

Firstly, they talk about transformation; transformation is not a one-day issue but it is a process. People are not comfortable with the change. Teachers are aware that they should not use corporal punishment, and they attended a workshop concerning corporal punishment, but our main problem in our schools with regard to alternatives to corporal punishment is implementation. For example, detention, you want to punish the child, you must keep him after school. This is not good. We cannot manage it, because we have no security in our school, so we also need the DoE to assist us with regard to alternatives so that it would be easy for educators to implement it... With regard to legislation and policy, in schools we have the SGB. What I understand is that policy of the school comes from the SGB and members of community, which drive education toward the situation of that community. If there is lack of communication between the SGB

and community as such, then they will be big problem of legislation based on disciplining of learners, because parents have got a power to decide about the policies based on disciplining of learners in their schools. The teachers are quite aware that they should not use corporal punishment.

There is a lack of ongoing support from the DoE, although most teachers indicated that they have attended workshops. They knew about ATCP, but they just did not know how to implement it. Some teachers indicated that they have seen supplementary materials from the DoE on the ATCP in the principal' office. But the question is, how can a manual in the principal 's office help educators reinforce discipline in the classroom? There is no ongoing support because supplementary materials from the DoE is in the principal's office. This suggests that the DoE has not yet done its part by training educators in terms of how to use ATCP.

This was supported by the Participant 15 who had this to say:

There is lack of alternatives to corporal punishment because we have no detention facilities where we actually create that space to detent learners in a politer way than administer corporal punishment. That is lack of capacity within the whole system because when corporal punishment was banned, they should have actually provided us with the alternatives that are relevant in line with the constitution of South Africa where it talks about what is the learner. When we actually emulate and take into consideration human beings, we need to have alternatives that are constructive, that will ensure that when we detained is not that we are punishing the learner but we are trying to instil responsibilities that will be carried into that life of that particular learner.

Participant 5 stated:

Yes, there are policies that give us the other alternatives to corporal punishment. It is there in Principal's office, and even teachers do get it during the staff meeting so that we can read and see what alternatives to corporal punishment there are.

5.4.4.2 Physical space

Comments from some teachers revealed that there is a lack of ATCP because the physical space to administer ATCP is not available.

Participant 15 had this to say:

There is lack of alternatives to corporal punishment because we have no detention facilities where we actually create that space to detain learners in a politer way than administer corporal punishment. That is lack of capacity within the whole system because when corporal punishment was banned, they should have actually provided us with the alternatives that are relevant in line with the constitution of South Africa where it talks about what is the learner.

5.4.4.3 Security

Another resource constraint is security: The teachers lack the security to implement the ATCP.

Participant 14 had this to say:

Teachers are aware that they should not use corporal punishment. They have attended workshops concerning alternatives to corporal punishment, but our main problem in schools with regard to alternatives is implementation. For example, in detention, you want to punish the child, you must keep him after school. This is not good. We cannot manage because we have no security in school, so we also need the DoE to assist us with regard to alternatives so that it be easy for educators to implement it.

Participant 2 stated:

One of them is a detention, but this detention thing is not good. I cannot manage it. Maybe you want to punish the child, you keep him/her after school. When he/she is left behind, the child may be in danger because he/she may be caught up there on the street, and you will be in trouble, you, as teacher.

5.4.5 Knowledge and information

The teachers claimed they know that corporal punishment has been abolished, but they have not seen any documents on ATCP from the DoE; however, other teachers claimed they saw a document on ATCP in the principal 's office. This means that there is a conceptual misunderstanding in the meaning surrounding ATCP as a concept. Most teachers indicated that they have attended some workshops about ATCP.

Participant 15 had this to say:

Each and every educator when he/she was appointed some time ago, was introduced to a book called a 'Policy Handbook', where educators was given introduction to say out of that policy what is it that is expected of him/her.

Participant 4 had this to say:

No, I have never seen it. As I spoke to you before that DoE must come up with the alternative measures to maintain discipline at schools.

Participants 1 and 13 stated:

No, I have not seen it.

Participants 11 stated:

They have not seen a book from DoE but, are aware that they should not use corporal punishment rather alternatives to corporal punishment.

Participant 14 had this to say:

Firstly, they talk about transformation, transformation is not a one-day issue but it is a process. People are not comfortable with the change. Teachers are aware that they should not use corporal punishment, they have attended workshops concerning corporal punishment, but our main problem in our schools with regard to alternatives is implementation. For example, detention, you want to punish the child, you must keep him after school. This is not good. We cannot manage because we have no security in our school, so we also need the DoE to assist us with regard to alternatives so that it be easy for educators to implement it, however, I have never seen it.

Participant 14 stated:

Most educators have attended the workshop, and there was a policy that speaks about the banning of corporal punishment. Teachers should use their skills as professionals to discipline learners, because they know as teachers how they discipline learners without resorting to corporal punishment. They must also include parents in trying to discipline learners.

Participant 10 stated:

Not yet, but I have just attended a workshop where we were taught other measures to discipline learners rather than corporal punishment

Participant 7 stated:

I don't remember seeing a document which talks about alternatives to corporal punishment.

Participant 5 stated:

Yes, there are policies that give us the other alternatives to corporal punishment. It is there in Principal's office, and even us teachers, we do get it during the staff meeting so that we can read and see what alternatives to corporal punishment are.

From these participants' testimonies, it appears that the main discourse around corporal punishment is based on warning teachers not to use corporal punishment, with little discussion supporting teachers' capacity to discipline without relying on corporal punishment.

5.4.6 Distinction between abuse and corporal punishment

The study revealed that the participants did not consider corporal punishment an abuse unless it is applied excessively or enough to cause physical harm to children.

Participant 1 revealed the following:

No, it is not so, to beat up a child is not child abuse; but you are helping the child to grow

Participant 5 stated:

No, I do not think it is connected to abuse, unless the teacher has a psychological problem.

Participant 3 had this to say:

Corporal punishment is not at all connected to child abuse, unless the discipline is excessive enough to cause physical harm to a learner. When we were young, our parents beat us, but I did not think they were abusing us.

Participant 7 stated:

Yes, since they have right they claimed it is abuse to administer corporal punishment to children, but according to my view it is not child abuse.

Participant 10 had this to say:

I do not think that corporal punishment is connected to child abuse because there are some learners who do not listen unless they are beaten. You are beating them because you want to show them as educators that what they did was wrong. We are not killing them.

Participant 11 stated:

It is a big mistake if we think that corporal punishment is abuse. Abuse kills. Corporal punishment does not kill, but it instils discipline to the child.

Most participants in the focus group did not think that administering corporal punishment to a child is the same as child abuse.

Participant 2 had this to say:

Corporal Punishment is not child abuse, but corporal punishment is an effective method of reducing learners 'unwanted classroom behaviours.

Some of the participants agreed that the corporal punishment is similar to child abuse because of the way some teachers are disciplining children; some children ended up in hospital.

Participant 6 stated:

Yes, I do believe that corporal punishment is connected to abuse with regards to human rights. It is an abuse to corporally punished learners, so if you are

corporally punishing a learner, you are violating his right. We must try to find other methods to discipline our learners at school.

Participant 9 had this to say:

Really corporal punishment was not a bad idea a long time ago, but now I think it is abuse now, because of the way in which teachers are applying corporal punishment on learners. Which is very bad. Some learners ended up in hospital because of corporal punishment.

Participant 12 stated:

My thinking around corporal punishment tells me that it is not appropriate method to discipline our kids in today's generation, and there are teachers who just not like children or actively abuse them.

5.4.7 Leadership

The study noted that the role of leadership in addressing school violence is about how schools reached out to the members of the community within which the school is located. It is about schools working in partnership with their local environment.

Participant 14 had this to say:

Hey, you can involve all the stake holders such as parents, SAPS [South African Police Services], social workers and even the community leaders in trying to fight against any school violence that may be manifesting, and we also within our wards we have safe committee which can also assist schools in fighting violence.

Participant 15 stated:

Probably we having a problem of lack of capacity in terms of leadership most in our public schools but we need to intensify programmes and policies that will ensure that violence at all levels are dealt with, because some kids comes with these violent tendencies from their families. But in role of leadership we need to play a role as the DoE in terms of giving capacity that is relevant to our nowadays, where we must ensure that we kept that scourge of violence at all level by all stakeholders, including the parent and SGB component in our

school. But in all what I have I said, I believe that we need to restructure our policies because some of our policies are rigid enough not to provide relevant help in terms of instructional leadership in principals. With that said, I believe that once we change the paradigm shift of changing policies, we are going to have a smaller scale of violence in our schools.

Lack of leadership at community levels, school level as well as the DoE levels can be used to explain the prevalence of corporal punishment. Good leadership is needed in the classrooms from the teachers, so that learners can actually respect their teachers, because without good leadership in classrooms, the teachers will end up using corporal punishment. The DoE is good at telling teachers what they should not do, rather than what they should do; in a way, the DoE is using a corporal punishment approach.

5.5 Chapter summary

This chapter presents the analysis of the results collected through focus group interviews and semi-structured interviews with the 15 participants in the targeted three primary schools and one secondary school in KwaMashu, Durban. The next chapter will discuss the findings and give the conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to determine teachers' attitudes, knowledge and beliefs about corporal punishment: A case study of four schools in KwaMashu Township, Durban. This chapter discusses the findings, draws conclusions and make recommendations. The discussion draws on Bandura's social learning theory, the culture of violence theory and previous studies on the use of corporal punishment in schools. The discussion on the findings is guided by the themes that emerged from the data.

6.2 Strong support for corporal punishment

From the data gathered, it emerged that most teachers strongly support corporal punishment. Although some references date back to the early 2000, it is confirmed that corporal punishment is strongly supported. Are these references from 2000 and 2001 still relevant in 2020? I believe it is still valid because once something is ingrained in a culture (for example, corporal punishment is necessary to get children to listen) it becomes very difficult to break. There are some underlying beliefs about corporal punishment that keeps it ingrained in a culture. For example, corporal punishment is often part of a culture or religion, and once people see it as part of their culture or religion, it becomes very difficult to change those beliefs. Why do some teachers continue to use corporal punishment if it has been banned? Teachers' childhood disciplinary experiences have an influence on how they understand discipline and corporal punishment. This is rooted in the Bandura social learning theory. According to Allen (2010), educators learn leadership and management during various phases of learning, including the phase when they were learners themselves. During teaching, they manage learners' behaviour by drawing on the conduct of their own teachers. This is why the findings of this study suggest that educators who experienced corporal punishment as learners also use corporal punishment to discipline their learners. This was supported by Dubanoski *et al.* (1983), who argues that South African educators who were corporally punished by their parents and at school are more likely to use

corporal punishment to their learners. Likewise, Lee and Weis (1992) found that educators who had strict rules at home growing up are more likely to use severe interventions for their students.

Most participants expressed the belief that corporal punishment is the best method of discipline as it yielded the best results for correcting negative behaviours in the classroom. They stated that corporal punishment is an effective method to reduce learners' unwanted classroom behaviours and they lamented the abolition of corporal punishment.

This supports Morrell (2001) who states that the current South African teachers are part of a generation that heavily relied on corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure, and even those who qualified after 1996 have probably been trained by teacher educators who regarded corporal punishment as an appropriate disciplinary measure. They have also had to endure the effects of a systemic transformation process that left many teachers confused, overworked, frustrated and underqualified to deliver the expected democratic changes. Noang (2007) agrees with this, stating that teachers who feel their work lives were in disarray are unlikely to comply with the policy and give up corporal punishment, which is the only way many of them knew how to discipline. From teachers' perspective, stopping corporal punishment would mean losing power in the classroom, especially if they had not been trained in ATCP.

It also emerged from the data that all the participants perceived the use of corporal punishment by other teachers as something aimed at controlling learners' deviant behaviour. They believed that others are still using corporal punishment because they may believe that corporal punishment helps them maintain discipline and they are not trained in ATCP.

The above findings are consistent with the findings by Chemhuru (2010), who asserts that punishment is not necessarily used as an end in itself, but as a means to achieve some good, that is good behaviour that is compatible with the process of education. It is used to enable a smooth and successful education process through creating a disturbance-free and conducive environment that benefits learners. Bartman (2002) argues that proponents of corporal punishment perceive it as an appropriate method for instilling discipline in children. Children who receive corporal punishment are said to appreciate authority and obey orders. However, other researchers, such as Morrel

(1999) and De Wet (2007), have studied the effectiveness of corporal punishment in reducing bullying and misbehaviour and found that, in addition to the moral and psychological arguments against its use, it is not effective. Prinsloo (2006) states that the results of corporal punishment are unpredictable, and may even sometimes be successful at inhibiting inappropriate behaviour.

6.3 Objections to corporal punishment.

The findings revealed that there are very few objections to corporal punishment. The participants thought it is good to administer corporal punishment when its general concern is to help develop learners and not out of anger or frustration. What emerged here is that teachers were not saying administering corporal punishment is wrong or right, but that it is wrong when administered out of anger and frustration. Some teachers objected to corporal punishment, not because it is a bad thing, but because of fear of retaliation from learners.

The study also discovered that some teachers felt that corporal punishment inflicts pain and causes children to be violent. This is confirmed by the finding of the South African Council of Education's *School-Based Violence Report* (2011), which state that there are more reports of pupils aggressively attacking teachers, and schools are reporting threats, physical violence and sexual violence against educators. "Almost 100% of children whose parents use corporal punishment commit violent acts against other children, as opposed to only 20% of kids whose parents have not used corporal punishment". (Holdstock, 1985, p. 355)

6.4 Reasons for lack of support

The study found that most participants believed that alternatives to corporal punishment would be ineffective. The research also found that most participants revealed that no provision has been made for ATCP at their schools. They further revealed that they have not been trained to use detention facilities, which could actually create a space to detain learners in a polite way rather than administering corporal punishment. The participants also argued that the whole educational system lacks capacity, because after corporal punishment was banned, no relevant

alternatives were provided inline with the constitution of South Africa. Most participants also indicated that they have not been trained to use ATCP.

The study also revealed that the teachers felt they have been stripped of their powers and they have no control over their learners, rendering them helpless. With the abolition of corporal punishment, teachers feared that children would become unruly and unmanageable, and they associated the escalating lack of discipline with the abolition of corporal punishment (Noang, 2007; Maphosa & Shumba, 2010). Machos and Shumba (2010) cite teachers' disregard for the ATCP guidelines as follows:

Most of these alternative methods are actually time- wasting. A teacher would spend weeks just trying to deal with the case of a child who is not doing his or her work at school. This takes a lot of teacher's time and also disturbs serious children as the teacher may not attend classes while attending to disciplinary hearings or talking to parents summoned to the school.

The policy making corporal punishment illegal was a major change, which required planning by the DoE. According to Stoner and Ortega (1995), change in organisations is inevitable; however, for any change to be effective, it has to be planned. In this case, making corporal punishment illegal in Kenyan schools was a radical change, since corporal punishment had been used since the start of formal education. The feelings and opinions of teachers and parents should have been sought, and the teachers should have been adequately prepared by through training in ATCP.

It emerged from the data that most participants used corporal punishment at home to their children because they struggle to accept that a child can learn and develop effectively without corporal punishment. They believed corporal punishment is effective: They were very good children growing up because their parents used to beat them when they did something wrong.

This study's findings are also consistent with the findings by Nilsson (2002) that childrearing attitudes have their roots in taken-for-granted cultural practices regarding discipline. Most cultures have used, and continue to use, physical punishment of children and believe it to be appropriate. This is supported by Bartholdson (2001), who notes that in almost all cultures, corporal punishment is an integral part of child rearing.

This lack of support for ATCP is not surprising given that most educators were brought up with corporal punishment.

6.5 Resources to administer alternatives to corporal punishment

All teachers were aware that corporal punishment had been abolished. Most participants expressed that they have not seen supplementary materials from the DoE on ATCP but some have attended a workshop on ATCP. They, however, argued that the workshops were not very good at training them in how to implement ATCP. From the participants' comments it appears that the dominant discourse around corporal punishment is warning teachers not to use corporal punishment, with little or no genuine discussion affirming teachers' capacity to discipline without relying on corporal punishment.

The study also revealed that ATCP were not used because there are no detention facilities to detain learners in a polite way. When corporal punishment was banned, the DoE should have provided teachers with relevant alternatives in line with the constitution of South Africa, but it failed to do that.

These findings are consistent with the findings of Tungata (2006), who reports that when the ATCP law was passed, schools and teachers were left with a number of problems. Firstly, the DoE did not immediately provide the teachers with alternatives or suggestions to deal with disciplinary problems after corporal punishment was abolished in 1996; the ATCP was only introduced in 2000. Teachers, and even parents, were left to themselves to provide ATCP to discipline children. Secondly, Tungata (2006, p. 142) notes that a representative from Childline South Africa once raised a concern that, "... not enough was being done to train teachers in alternative methods of discipline, with educators 'floundering' to find alternatives which enabled them to feel in control of the children they taught". As a result, he continues, the organisation has come across many incidents in which children were humiliated and hurt emotionally and psychologically because of a lack of knowledge of alternative methods of discipline. Maphosa and Shumba (2010) agree with this and state that teachers claim that they were never consulted on their views when the strategy was initiated, and this could be a contributing factor to the continuous use of corporal punishment and the partial or non-use of ATCP. If there was no consultation and the

ATCP was simply given to teachers to implement, then whose interest is the ATCP serving? Is it teachers', learners' or government's interests? This failure to consult may have produced conflicts, and the refusal or reluctance of teachers to implement the ATCP could have led to conflicts between school leaders, teachers and learners.

Some of the issues identified by Tungata (2006) and Maphosa and Shumba (2010) still exist 13 years later. What does this say about policy, procedure, leadership and political will in the DoE? The fact that these issues still exist means that the DoE has neither acted on them nor addressed them.

6.6 Knowledge and information

The findings established that the teachers feel the DoE acted inconsiderately by banning corporal punishment and failing to train them in ATCP. The Participants believed that there are no support structures in place to help them use ATCP successfully. Additionally, there are no clearly defined alternative forms of bringing learners back in line to replace corporal punishment. This is clearly portrayed in a study by Gannon (1998) that quotes a teacher stating that "they have taken away corporal punishment and given us nothing in place, our hands are tied". This statement makes it clear that teachers do not have the correct methods to discipline since the state banned corporal punishment. This has the effect of encouraging indiscipline.

6.7 Distinction between abuse and corporal punishment

This study revealed that while some participants recognised that there is a difference between abuse and corporal punishment, others did not agree. Some participants could not identify circumstances in which corporal punishment becomes abuse.

The findings also revealed that most participants did not regard corporal punishment as a form of child abuse. They mentioned that they were corporally punished as children, and according to them, corporal punishment does not harm pupils but instils discipline.

These findings are consistent with Toffler and Toffler's (1995) findings that physical punishment or corporal punishment when administered with reason is not abusive or threatening of becoming abusive. They argue that corporal punishment is an excellent and effective way of controlling misbehaviour. Toffler and Toffler (1995) believe social

correction not only corrects the present behaviour but also corrects future behaviour. Toffler and Toffler base their argument on the actions of past generations and the effect on present and future generations. They ask, if we lived through receiving corporal punishment and became successful citizens, why is it that our children are now being abused? Toffler and Toffler argue that corporal punishment is a proven method of social correction that has stood the test of time.

This study also reveals that some participants felt that corporal punishment is linked to child abuse because it causes learners to be aggressive to other learners and it teaches learners that violence is the answer. According to Kohn (1996), even in the short term, corporal punishment sends out the wrong message: It puts forward a model of violence, particularly the use of violence by those in positions of power and authority. Children learn that if you do not like the way someone is acting and you become frustrated with that person, some form of physical force is an effective response.

Participant 12 stated:

My thinking around corporal punishment tells me that it is not an appropriate method to discipline our kids in today's generation and there are teachers who just do not like children or actively abuse them.

This statement reveal that corporal punishment is an abuse, particularly in this generation, because there are educators who actively abuse learners.

Straus (1979) state that corporal punishment is “an act carried out with the intention of causing a child to experience physical pain, but not injury, for the purposes of correction or control of behaviour”.

6.8 Leadership

From the data it emerged that school leadership plays an important role in managing school violence, as they take charge of the situation, interact with parents and also get the local police involved when necessary. Begley (2001) describes genuine leadership as a leadership that is knowledge based, value informed, skilfully executed, hopeful, open-ended, visionary and a creative response to social situations. He further claims that leadership acknowledges and accommodates in an integrative way the legitimate needs of individuals, groups, organisations, communities and cultures. Therefore, the

school leadership's role is central as the body that has the authority to punish offenders. This study also revealed that the participants recognised that violence takes place in the community and there is a need to get other stakeholders on board. However, this has not been done effectively because of a lack of leadership in the schools in reaching out to members of the community.

According to Xaba (2006), the SGB is responsible for formulating school safety and security policies. Teachers and principals should ensure that learners are safe during school hours and should set up safety and security committees to accomplish this.

The participants also mentioned that most public schools lack effective leadership, and that school principals are not given adequate support.

It was also established that school leadership involve parents of the learners and social workers in the process of trying to maintain peace and stability and combating school violence. It is clear that the role played by the school management is essential because they make sure that the stakeholders are involved in the process. Smith (2010) asserts that the involvement of parents in the education process and in drawing up a code of conduct can be a significant advantage. The study also revealed that there is a lack of leadership in classrooms.

6.9 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the analysis of the findings. In summary, I tried to harmonise existing literature and theoretical frameworks with the themes that I identified during the data analysis. The themes discussed are perceived ineffective ATCP, strong support for corporal punishment, resource constraints, knowledge and information, objections to corporal punishment, distinction between abuse and corporal punishment, reasons for not using ATCP and leadership.

6.10 Conclusion

6.10.1 Strong support for corporal punishment

The study concludes that most educators experienced corporal punishment as children at home and at school. It was discovered that educators who experienced

corporal punishment as children or learners likely use corporal punishment to discipline their children or learners.

The study further concludes that teachers still believe that corporal punishment is an effective method to reduce learners' unwanted classroom behaviours and that they lament the abolition of corporal punishment. Some teachers believe that abolishing corporal punishment took away their power in the classroom, especially since they have not been trained in ATCP. The study also found that some teachers think corporal punishment is sometimes bad because it causes pain and teaches learners to be violent. Finally, some teachers believe that their colleagues who still administer corporal punishment do so because they believe it helps to ensure discipline in the classroom and school, since they are not trained in ATCP.

6.10.2 Objections to corporal punishment

The research concludes that the participants had very few objections to corporal punishment and that the participants who objected did so is not out of principal but because some factors prevented them using corporal punishment. These factors include getting caught by the DoE, retaliation from learners, and considering it wrong when a teacher uses corporal punishment out of anger. Teachers seem to say corporal punishment might be acceptable if administered to develop or teach a child and not out of anger or frustration. The study also found that some teachers believe corporal punishment inflicts pain and causes children to be violent.

6.10.3 Reasons for lack of support

The study concludes that most teachers find there is a lack of ATCP because there are no detention facilities where they can detain learners in a polite way, rather than administering corporal punishment. They also revealed a lack of capacity in the whole education system because relevant alternatives were not provided in line with the constitution of South Africa when corporal punishment was banned. Most teachers indicated that they have not been trained to use alternatives.

6.10.4 *Resources constraints*

The study concludes that most teachers expressed that there is lack of ATCP because there are no detention facilities where learners can be detained in a polite way. It also concludes that some teachers claim that they have not seen any book from DoE on ATCP but some of them have attended workshops on ATCP. All teachers are aware that corporal punishment was abolished but they have not been officially informed or seen any document on ATCP from DoE. From these participants' testimonies, it appears that the dominant discourse around corporal punishment is based on warning teachers not to use corporal punishment, with little or no genuine discussion affirming teachers' capacity to discipline without relying on corporal punishment.

6.10.5 *Knowledge and information*

The study found that teachers know about the legislation and policy on the ban of corporal punishment. The study also concludes that newly-appointed teachers know what is expected of them because they are given *The Policy Handbook*. The study concludes that although most teachers have attended workshops, the information provided by the DoE has not overturned their beliefs and attitudes about corporal punishment. This speaks volumes about the ineffectiveness of the current government efforts as well as the efforts by the DoE. It implies that the problem does not lie with the provision of information or organising workshops, but with policy implementation.

The study further concludes that teachers feel there are no support structures in place to help them use ATCP and there are no clearly defined alternatives to bring learners back in line to replace corporal punishment.

6.10.6 *Distinction between abuse and corporal punishment.*

The findings reveal that most teachers do not regard corporal punishment as child abuse unless it is applied excessively or cause physical harm to children. According to them, corporal punishment does not harm learners, but instead instils discipline in learners. On the other hand, some teachers believe that corporal punishment is linked to child abuse because it causes learners to be aggressive to other learners and because they learn that if you do not like the way someone is acting and you become frustrated with that person, some form of physical force is an effective response.

6.10.7 Methods or strategies that yield better results than corporal punishment

The study concludes that most teachers believe that there are no effective ATCP. For example, they agree that there is no detention facility available where learners can be detained instead of receiving corporal punishment. The findings of the study also reveal that most teachers indicate that they have not been trained how to use ATCP and that they feel disempowered by the outlawing of corporal punishment. It has become increasingly difficult for educators to ensure discipline in schools as a result of the ban on corporal punishment. They have no control over their learners and feel they have been given no ATCP. The study also revealed that teachers believed that most of the alternative methods are actually time wasting.

6.10.8 Leadership

The study concludes that school management plays a critical role in managing school violence as they take charge of the situation, interact with parents, and also get the local police involved when necessary. The study also found that schools should have safety and security committees to deal with school violence. The study found that participants believe that most public schools lack effective leadership. It was also established that the school leadership involved parents of the learners and social workers to combat school violence and maintain peace and stability.

6.11 Potential implication if the status quo continues

We cannot continue much further with disallowing corporal punishment without giving support, proper training and assistance to our teachers. This study found that teachers believe they are not getting enough support from the DoE. The DoE has not been effectively supporting teachers by delivering ATCP. Teachers are frustrated. They believe they cannot do their work. Teachers are becoming more frustrated and less productive. For example, 10 teachers are not doing the work of 10 teachers, but of five teachers. If the DoE wants to improve the productiveness of teachers, they should adopt some cost-saving measures: Instead of hiring more teachers, existing teachers must be made more productive. They should be assisted in every possible way, properly trained and given needed resources. This will go a long way to improving their productivity levels. Withdrawing corporal punishment without giving teachers the

necessary support has led to resentment. If we keep telling teachers what they cannot do without giving them adequate support to do what they can, teachers will become more frustrated and less productive. This loss of productivity will cost the Department more and the DoE will lose money. In the last 20 years, these issues have not been addressed and we have seen teachers' morale declining. We have always known what the problems were, but the problems have not been addressed and the cycle continues. This study did not stop at identifying why the problems persist, but goes further by making the following recommendations.

6.12 Recommendations

After considering the findings of this study, I offer these recommendations to address the frustration of teachers:

- 1) Leadership must be provided: There should be collaboration between the DoE and the principal, between the principal and the community, and at the school level, between the principal and the teachers.
- 2) The DoE should provide information on ATCP to all schools. District officials should conduct workshops on why corporal punishment should not be used. While convincing teachers of why not to use corporal punishment, they must also educate teachers on ATCP. Teachers must be trained so that they can overturn this old belief in corporal punishment. The DoE must make more resources available for ATCP.
- 3) There should be close collaboration between parents and educators to ensure the development of self-discipline.
- 4) The DoE is currently telling teachers not to use corporal punishment, but it does not tell parents the same. A new law came into effect in 2019 that makes it illegal for parents to hit their children. This is a social issue that requires close collaboration between the DoE and the Department of Social Development.
- 5) At school level, teachers need to workshop on formulating anti-corporal punishment school policies. Such policies will help the schools to create a safe environment that does not depend on corporal punishment.

- 6) Teachers must be made fully aware of government policy regarding corporal punishment. The reports by the teachers of colleagues using corporal punishment is troubling.
- 7) Recommendations for further research: The research question is; DoE has a policy that teachers obey it but do they fully endorse it? Teachers have not taken it into their hearts. DoE should win over the hearts and minds of teachers. The DoE should organise workshops for the teachers to find out what teachers consider to be effective alternatives to corporal punishment.

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APPENDIX 1: ETHICAL CLEARANCE: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL



13 May 2019

Mr Lucky Wiseman Ntuli (210551910)
School of Built Environment & Development Studies
Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Ntuli,

Protocol reference number: HSS/2035/018M

Project title: Attitude, knowledge and belief about corporal punishment: A case of four schools in KwaMashu Township, Durban

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

In response to your application received on 31 October 2018, 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 discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 1 year from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully,

Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)

/ms

cc Supervisor: Dr Gerard Boyce
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Oliver Mtshali
cc School Administrator: Ms Angeline Msoni

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X94001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3687/03521567 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4000 Email: amsib@ukzn.ac.za / rsibanda@ukzn.ac.za / msolani@ukzn.ac.za

Website: www.ukzn.ac.za



Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville

APPENDIX 2: SEMI-STRUCTURE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS AND PARENT

My name is Lucky Ntuli, a student at the University of KZN-Durban, South Africa and I am doing my Master's in development studies. I want to use the information to write my Master's research project your comments and opinions are very important to me. Please feel free to talk freely, your comment will be recorded, but I will not quote you in the report. We will share a summary of my final thesis with you later.

- Have you ever experienced corporal punishment as a child at school?
- What are your thoughts about corporal punishment?
- Why do you think other teachers are still beating up learners?
- Why do you think other teachers are not beating up learners?
- Do you use or have you used corporal punishment at home on your children?
- Have you ever seen a book from the DoE on alternative to corporal punishment?
- Is corporal punishment a remedial measure?
- How children were generally disciplined in the neighbourhood?
- What are your objections concerning the use of corporal punishment?
- Do you think corporal punishment is connected to child abuse?
- What discipline methods or strategies do you think yield better results than corporal punishment?
- Is corporal punishment commonly used in schools in this area including this school?

Thank u very much for your cooperation and participation. It is really appreciated.

APPENDIX 3: SEMI-STRUCTURE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PRINCIPAL AND CIRCUIT MANAGER

- What can be said to be role of leadership in addressing school violence (corporal punishment)?
- Tell me about how leadership in school deals with violence?
- Are educators trained how to use alternatives to corporal punishment?
- What are educators' knowledge of legislation and policy on discipline?
- Are educators aware of a book from the DoE on alternative to corporal punishment?

APPENDIX 4: ETHICAL CLEARANCE: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION



education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

ENQUIRIES: MR MB SANGWENI

DATE: 14/12/18

Mr L Ntuli
187 Musa Road
Kwa-Mashu
4359

Dear Ms/Mr Ntuli


RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

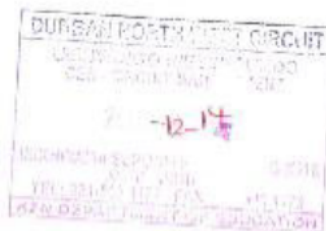
I acknowledge receipt of your written letter.

Permission is hereby granted to you to conduct research

I conclude by taking this opportunity to wish you the best of luck in your studies and hope that you will be assisted by all role players.

Yours Faithfully


Mr. Mb Sangweni
Acting Circuit Manager



...Together moving South Africa forward through
quality education and skills development!

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
DURBAN NORTH WEST CMC
Postal Address: Private Bag X018 • KwaMashu • 4360 • KZN, Rep. of S. Africa
Physical Address: 186 MUSA ROAD • KWAMASHU • 4359
Tel: 031 601 177 • Call Centre: 12 1 9800 100 353 • Fax: 031 601 178 • Email: vsm.d.nwdh@kzndoe.gov.za • Web: www.kzndoe.gov.za

APPENDIX 5: DATES ON WHICH PARTICIPANTS INTERVIEWED

School A	Dates on which participants interviewed
Participant 1	28 / 05/ 2019
Participant 2	28 / 05/ 2019
Participant 3	31 / 05/ 2019
School B	Dates on which participants interviewed
Participant 4	10 / 06/ 2019
Participant 5	10 / 06/ 2019
Participant 6	12 / 06/ 2019
School C	Dates on which participants interviewed
Participant 7	04 / 06/ 2019
Participant 8	04 / 06/ 2019
Participant 9	04 / 06/ 2019
School D	Dates on which participants interviewed
Participant 10	13 / 06/ 2019
Participant 11	13 / 06/ 2019
Participant 12	13 / 06 2019
Participant 13 (parent)	11 / 07/ 2019
Participants 14 (principal)	12 / 07/ 2019

Participants15(circuit manager)	17 / 07/ 2019
Group discussion 1	09 / 07 / 2019
Group discussion 2	12 / 06 / 2019

APPENDIX 6: LETTERS REQUESTING PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA



UKZN HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HSSREC)

Information Sheet and Consent to Participate in Research

Date:

Greeting: Dear Sir/ Madam

My name is Lucky Wiseman Ntuli From UKZN doing Master's in Development Studies in the School of Built Environment and Development studies. Should you need further assistance and information my contact is +27748564801 and email address is luckywntuli@webmail.co.za

You are being invited to consider participating in a study that involves research on teachers' attitude towards corporal punishment in South Africa. The main aim and purpose of this research is to find out about the teachers 'perception about corporal punishment and their disciplinary strategies. The study is expected to enrol about 15 participants. It will involve an in-depth interview. The duration of your participation if you choose to enrol and remain in the study is expected to be about 35 minutes long. Furthermore, participation is on voluntary basis meaning you can choose not to participate in the study and will not face any consequences because of that fact. The study is self-funded that means I as the researcher using personal money to sponsor all activities during the study.

This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (approval number **HSS/2935/018M**)

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at +27640951441

Yours sincerely

Mr L.W. Ntuli.

**APPENDIX 7: CONSENT FORM TO BE FILLED BY THE TEACHERS,
PARENT AND CIRCUIT MANAGER**



CONSENT

I _____ have been informed about the study entitled “Attitude, Knowledge and belief about corporal punishment: A case study of four schools in KwaMashu Township, Durban”.

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I agree voluntary to be a participant in this research. I confirm that no one forced me to participate in this study, and the consent has been given freely and voluntarily.

If I have any further questions or concerns about my rights as a study I understand that I may contact the researcher at cell: +27748564801 email: luckywntuli@webmail.co.za

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researcher then I may contact:

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building.

Private Bag X 54001

Durban 4000

KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

Tel: 27312604557 Fax:27312604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Additional consent, where applicable

I hereby provide consent to:

Audio-record my interview/Focus group discussion **YES/NO**

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Witness: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX 8: PROOFREADING CERTIFICATE



WORDPLAY EDITING
Copy Editor and Proofreader
Email: karien.hurter@gmail.com
Tel: 071 104 9484
Website: <http://wordplayediting.net/>

To Whom It May Concern:

This letter is to confirm that the Master's dissertation *Attitude, Knowledge and Beliefs About Corporal Punishment: A Case Study of Four Schools in KwaMashu Township, Durban* by Lucky Ntuli was edited by a professional language practitioner.

Regards,



Karien Hurter