UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

THE CAUSES AND MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE IN HIGH SCHOOLS IN UMGUNGUNDLOVU DISTRICT OF KWAZULU-NATAL

By

Chidi Idi Eke
211543894

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

of

Doctor of Philosophy

School of Management, IT and Governance

College of Law and Management Studies

Supervisor: Dr Given Mutinta

Co-Supervisor: Professor Brian McArthur

2016

DECLARATION

I, Chidi Idi Eke, declare that:

i.   The research reported in this dissertation/thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.

ii.   This dissertation/thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

iii.   This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.

iv.   This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:

a) Their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced;

b) Where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks, and referenced.

v.   Where I have reproduced a publication of which I am an author, co-author or editor, I have indicated in detail which part of the publication was actually written by myself alone and have fully referenced such publications.

vi.   This dissertation/thesis does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation/thesis and in the Reference sections.

Signature: …………………………………………………….………………

Date: 8th December, 2016

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

A great deal of research has been conducted globally on the phenomenon of school-based violence and the devastating effect it has on teaching and learning. School-based violence is a multifaceted phenomenon and no single perspective or factor can sufficiently explain why learners behave in the ways they do, at home and at school, that lead to violence. School-based violence is denying South African children their constitutional right to a basic education by creating a school climate that hinders teaching and learning. The obstruction of a learner's academic learning process as a result of violence could threaten their future prospects and their achievement of a better life in post-apartheid South Africa. It is for these reasons that this study examined the causes and management of school-based violence from a school-based perspective. The study aimed to determine the causes of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal, and to proffer a management model that would assist high school managers to reduce and manage school-based violence to create a school climate that promotes teaching and learning.

The study used Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory to provide rich insights into the causes and solutions to school-based violence in high schools. A qualitative approach and purposive sampling technique were employed in the study. In-depth interviews and focus group interviews were used as data collection instruments for the study. Data was analyzed using thematic analysis and NVivo, a qualitative data analysis software.

The study makes two contributions to the existing body of knowledge on school-based violence: the causes of school-based violence at each level of influence of the ecological systems model (microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem and macrosystem) were identified; and insights from these causes were used to develop a school-based violence management model that could assist school managers to reduce and manage school-based violence.

The key themes that emerged from the findings include (1) lack of parental involvement in learners' school issues; (2) learners' misconduct in school influenced by the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances; (3) lack of adequate school security; (4) school managers lacking the required managerial skills to contain issues of school-based

violence; and (5) female learners as the most significantly affected victims of cyber-violence.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AAUW	American Association of University Women
ANC	African National Congress
CCTV	Closed-circuit television
DoE	Department of Education
ESM	Ecological systems model
EST	Ecological systems theory
ICT	Information and communication technologies
IFP	Inkatha Freedom Party
NSSF	National School Safety Framework
SANCA	South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence
SASA	South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996
SAPS	South African Police Service
SGB	School Governing Body
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WHO	World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The study examined the factors which cause school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). The study adopted Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory (1979) in the research. The causes of school-based violence in high schools were divided into four levels, namely the individual, interpersonal, community and societal levels. The researcher adopted a qualitative research approach in the study using a multiple case study. Data was collected using interviews and focus groups with learners. Qualitative data collected in the study was analysed using a thematic approach and the NVivo data analysis software.

A great deal of research has been conducted globally on the phenomenon of school-based violence in high schools and the devastating effect it has on teaching and learning. South African high schools are the most dangerous in the world in terms of school-based violence (Mncube & Madikizela-Madiya, 2014). Joyce (2013) argues that school-based violence is a complicated phenomenon, and that there is no single factor that explains why high school learners behave in certain ways at home and at school that lead to violent incidents at school. There is no single explanation that has justified why learners behave in an unacceptable manner in school that leads to school-based violence. The adoption of Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory enabled the researcher to identify and provide the influencing factors that cause school-based violence in high schools.

Section 1.2 below provides some background insight into the phenomenon of school-based violence in high schools. This background identifies the academic gap that is addressed by the core objectives in the study.

1.2 Background of the study

The issue of school-based violence over the years has become a global phenomenon that has brought pain and grief to many families (Kostinsky, Bixler, & Kettl, 2001). Incidents such as those which occurred in Minnesota and Connecticut, both in the United States of America (U.S.), have shown the devastating nature of such violence in high schools. The Krugersdorp samurai sword killing of August 18, 2008, where Morné Harmse carried out

what Ajam (2008: 1) calls "the most barbaric act of schoolboy violence in South African history", is a local example. It could be stated that school-based violence is distorting the smooth running of high schools globally and has become an issue of great concern.

The proliferation of firearms, the expansion of organised crime, substance abuse, and a weak criminal justice system are deemed responsible for the escalation of violence in South African schools (Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011). Research has shown that alcohol, drugs and substance abuse are strong influencing factors that cause school-based violence in high schools in South Africa (Burton & Leoschut, 2012). Bullying was historically seen as the most common form of violence in high schools before the emergence of different forms of school-based violence, such as assault, vandalism, sexual harassment, rape, and, more recently, cyberbullying in high schools in South Africa (Jones, Moore, Villar-Marquez, & Broadbent, 2008). There is substantial evidence reinforcing the fact that crime and school-based violence in South Africa have been on the increase for the past two decades, as crime and violence have generally become a way of life for South African communities and high schools (Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011).

Furthermore, the high level of community and school-based violence makes educators feel unsafe in schools, which increases their burnout rate (Janosz, Thiébaud, Bouthillier, & Brunet, 2004). A high burnout rate for educators leads to disjointed class management, a breakdown in order and discipline, and conditions that increase the likelihood of school-based violence (Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011). The multifaceted nature of school violence makes it difficult to comprehend the causes of school-based violence in high schools.

Dan Olweus (2011) reveals that in 1988 there were very few publications and books written on bullying; however, since 2004 there have been over 150 publications annually on bullying alone. Bullying was the most commonly identified form of school-based violence globally in the 1980s and has increased substantially over the years. Bullying can be described simply as a situation where a learner is frequently mistreated by the undesirable actions of one or more learners. In most cases bullying involves the use of physical force on the part of stronger learners against weaker ones (Olweus, 2011). Mncube & Madikizela-Madiya (2014) maintain that the inability of weak learners to

defend and protect themselves from being bullied has given rise to gangsterism in high schools in South Africa. The authors suggest that gangsterism in high schools increases the availability of drugs and other substances, which influence learners' behaviour and can subsequently lead to further school-based violence. Gangsterism in high schools is a community problem because the schools represent a sub-sector of the community, and as such violence could spill over from the school and into the community (Crawage, 2005).
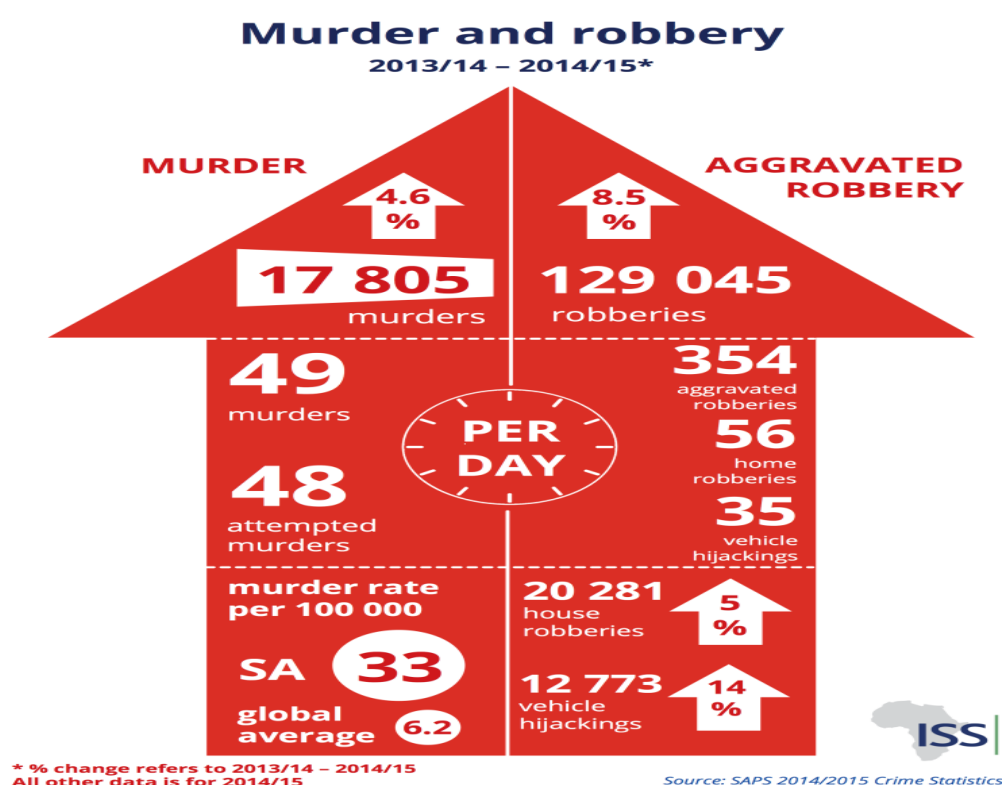
Figure 1: South African crime statistics, 2014/2015
Source: Institute for Security Studies, 2015

Figure 1 above shows the South African crime statistics on murder and robbery for 2014/2015, released by the South African Police Service (SAPS), and reveals that violent crime in South Africa is on the increase. These statistics support Mncube and Netshitangani's (2014) assertion that South African schools are the most dangerous in the world, if one accepts Bronfenbrenner's (1994) argument that a society with a high level of violence would experience a high level of school-based violence. Learners experience

violence in three distinct ways in society: as victims, as participants or as spectators. However, in whichever manner the learners experience violence, the encounters leave them with a psychological burden that increases the likelihood of their experiencing further violence in high school (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny, & Pardo, 1992). The South African crime statistics further reveal that two people are murdered every hour, and the murder rate is five times higher than the global average (Figure 1). Since the democratisation of South Africa in 1994, violence has been on the increase and many lives have been lost, as demonstrated in the recent xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals (Landau, 2012).

School-based violence affects not only those who are directly victimised but also those who witness violence occurring within and outside of the school premises (Harber, 2001). School represents a vital phase in a child's life, and therefore any distortion of the process as a result of any form of school-based violence could have devastating effects on the child's future (Harber, 2001). Some children experience problems at home, such as domestic violence, abuse, and sexual harassment by family members, and the school environment is the only place where they find peace and happiness. So the increase in the rate of violence in schools could suddenly remove the place the child sees as being safe and as providing a refuge to share experiences with other learners. Schools that operate feeding schemes also offer vital food security for many learners, and for some it is their only reliable source of a daily meal (Bowen & Bowen, 1999).

In a study conducted in Durban, Harber (2001) discovered that there was inadequate security in the schools, which provided fertile conditions for violence. There are two types of school-based violence: that which originates from the community, and that which occurs within the physical school environment (Jimerson, Nickerson, Mayer, & Furlong, 2012). The former occurs when learners or intruders come onto school premises and commit violent acts that are rooted in events external to the school setting. School violence not only puts lives at risk but leads to the destruction of property and a reduction of teaching and learning time (Catalano, 2004). Böök and Perälä-Littunen (2008) assert that parental responsibility needs to be taken into consideration together with the duties of an educator, which entail adequate monitoring and correctional counselling at different points in time on school premises and even outside the school premises if the need arises. The

researcher wholly agrees with this view because it involves the teaching of norms and values to a learner that could lead to acceptable behaviours in school. The absence of norms and values that positively shape the life of a learner could lead to school violence. The absence of adequate parental care could lead to the learner embracing negative norms and values, and harmful activities such as drinking and smoking, which could lead to the types of antisocial attitudes and behaviours that generally cause school-based violence.

According to Beck and Beck-Gernsheim (2002), parents continually ignore their parental responsibilities towards their children and instead opt for individualization. The term "individualization" can simply be described as a situation where parents focus on themselves becoming successful in life and pay little attention to their children (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2002). Such parental individualization can lead to the learner embracing antisocial vices that could lead to school-based violence in high schools (Smart & Shipman, 2004). School violence is escalating despite measures put in place by the Department of Education (DoE) and school authorities to curtail it and maintain the peace and order that promote teaching and learning in high schools (Shumba & Ncontsa, 2012).

Many high schools have taken safety measures such as installing install closed-circuit television cameras (CCTV) to monitor school premises on a daily basis, in order to identify learners who display delinquent behaviours and to ensure quick responses to violent incidents or attacks (Shumba & Ncontsa, 2012). The installation of these monitoring systems creates a safer school climate that promotes teaching and learning, because the mere fact that offenders can be identified via the monitoring system acts as a deterrent and reduces the incidence of violence. It is estimated that because of school violence, only 23 % of educators and learners in South Africa feel safe in schools (Mncube & Madikizela-Madiya, 2014). This statistic could account for the high rates of absenteeism in schools, which leads to poor academic performance, and could also mean that the measures put in place by the DoE to control school violence are not effective and need to be reviewed in order to reduce the risk factors that lead to school violence and to increase the protective factors.

This study focuses on high schools in the uMgungundlovu district of KZN province, and aims to identify the causes of school-based violence in high schools and to develop a managerial model that could assist school managers to manage the problem effectively. The core objective of the study was to create a managerial model that will assist school managers in managing and reducing school-based violence in high school and in similar academic environments, where applicable.

1.3 Research problem

It is estimated that in South Africa over 1.8 million learners in high schools have experienced violence in one way or another (Burton & Leoschut, 2012). The South African crime statistics for 2014/2015 show an increase in murder and aggravated robbery. Drug-related offences have increased by over 180 % over the past 10 years. Most studies on school-based violence have identified drugs as an influencing factor, because they trigger violent behaviours ranging from sexual harassment to rape (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013). A study on school violence in South Africa conducted by Burton (2008) found that 12.8 % of the learners in the sample 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. Hence, this study seeks to identify the causes of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal, where it has become a significant menace.

The acquisition of knowledge remains the primary reason for children to attend school. However, this objective may not be achieved with the escalating levels of violence in society and in schools. School-based violence is a global problem that obstructs teaching and learning, and threatens lives and property. Bronfenbrenner's (1994) ecological model identifies four distinct levels that could lead to a learner being a victim or a perpetrator of school-based violence in high school, namely the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem and macrosystem, and these were used to establish and structure the research objectives and research questions for this study.

1.4 The aim of the study

The aim of the study was to identify the causes of school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province and to develop a management model based on

the identified causes to assist school managers in managing school-based violence in high schools. This management model could assist school managers to reduce the level of school-based violence in their schools and create a school climate that promotes teaching and learning. The total eradication and prevention of school-based violence in high schools may not be possible; however, it is possible to reduce the levels of such violence, and it is upon this premise that the researcher resolved to proffer a school-based management model that could create a safe school environment.

1.5 Research objectives

The following research objectives were established for this study:

1. To understand the individual factors (microsystem) that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district.
2. To ascertain the interpersonal relationship (mesosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district.
3. To determine the community (exosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district.
4. To understand the societal (macrosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district.
5. To develop a management model that will incorporate school-based factors in the management and reduction of school-based violence at high schools in uMgungundlovu district.

1.6 Research questions

The following research questions were formulated for this study:

1. What are the individual factors (microsystem) that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
2. What are the interpersonal relationship (mesosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
3. What are the community (exosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?

4. What are the societal (macrosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?

5. What interventions could be employed in the management and reduction of school violence at high schools in uMgungundlovu district?

1.7 The contribution of the study

The reduction and effective management of school-based violence in high schools, based on the management model that incorporates school-based factors developed in this study, could create a school climate that would promote teaching and learning, and improve learners' academic results. An uninterrupted academic progression could lead to increased skilled labour and an increased human capital base. The future of every nation lies in the strength of its youth, as the productivity, development and sustainability of the country lies in the wealth of knowledge the youth possess to effectively meet the labour requirements of the state. On this premise, the researcher has resolved to contribute to the existing wealth of knowledge on paths that can be followed to restore safety in high schools in order to promote teaching and learning.

The strength of the data collection instruments adopted in the study enabled all stakeholders to contribute fully towards the success of the study.

This study makes two contributions to the existing body of knowledge on school-based violence in high schools: (1) the study identifies various causes of school-based violence at different levels of the ecological systems in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN, namely, the microsystem level, mesosystem level, exosystem level and macrosystem level; and (2) the study adopted these insights to develop a management model that could assist school managers to manage and reduce school-based violence in high schools. The school-based managerial model developed in the study may be adopted in other similar contexts.

1.8 Research methodology

The researcher adopted a qualitative research approach. In-depth interviews and focus group interviews were selected as data collection instruments. The researcher employed a

multiple case study research design, and purposive sampling was used to collect important information from respondents on the causes of school-based violence and on managerial strategies that would assist school managers to manage and reduce school-based violence in high schools. Thematic analysis and NVivo qualitative data analysis software were employed for data analysis.

1.9 Definition of terms

The following terms are used throughout the study and are thus defined in this section for the sake of clarity.

- **School-based violence**

  School-based violence in the study refers to any form of violence that results in negative outcomes or unacceptable behaviours committed within the school environment by a learner or group of learners, or involving a learner or group of learners on the school premises, with negative outcomes (Miller, Krauss, & Miller, 2008).

- **Professional manager**

  A professional manager refers to the principal, heads of departments and educators in high schools, who carry out the administrative functions of running the schools as prescribed in the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (SASA) (Republic of South Africa, 1996a).

- **School managers**

  School managers in the study comprise the principals, heads of departments, disciplinary committee members and school governing body (SGB) members. These categories of respondents are tasked with the responsibility of playing an active role in the running of schools, to create a safe school environment that could promote teaching and learning.

- **Management of school-based violence**

  Management of school-based violence entails the roles played by school managers in reducing risk factors (such as lack of class management on the part of educators)

and increasing protective factors (such as improving cognitive skills through training) to create a safe school climate that would promote teaching and learning.

1.10 Chapter outline

Chapter One of the study has simply been an overview of the study. It has provided a brief background to the study and states the research problem, the aim of the study, research objectives, research questions and the contribution of the study. It presents a concise picture of the core elements of the research in the study.

Chapter Two provides a more detailed background to the study, and discusses the era of increased school-based violence. It presents the two theories adopted in the study, namely the ecological theory and the heuristic theory, and goes on to discuss the forms of school-based violence, the application of the theories to the study, the effects of school-based violence and, lastly, the media impact on school-based violence. The literature reviewed in this chapter provides insight into the causes of school-based violence, its prevention and its management in high schools. Insights from this literature were used to develop a school-based model that could reduce and manage school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province.

Chapter Three reviews the various literature on the approaches designed to reduce and manage school-based violence in high schools. Various pieces of legislation, such as SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996a), are discussed to provide clarity on achieving the research objectives of the study. The chapter discusses other facets of school management, such as the SGBs' responsibilities in managing school-based violence, the challenges facing school managers in managing school-based violence, coping strategies, coping techniques, stress management techniques, stressor management techniques, networking as a managerial tool in managing school-based violence, and the influence of the media on managing school-based violence.

Chapter Four presents the methodology adopted to answer the research questions. The researcher used a qualitative approach, and used in-depth interviews and focus group interviews for data collection. The research instruments selected for this study were

suitable for the research and provided the desired data that enabled the researcher to achieve the research objectives of the study. Chapter Four contains the research objectives, research questions, research philosophies, research approach, research design, research choice, time horizon, data collection instruments, data analysis, sampling techniques, sample size, data quality control, ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

Chapter Five presents the data analysis and interpretation of results based on the data collected from the respondents through in-depth interviews. Data was analysed using a thematic approach and NVivo, the qualitative data analysis programme selected for the study. Richards (1999) posits that the strength of NVivo in qualitative data analysis lies in the ability of the programme to import data from a Word document, thereby enabling academic researchers to meet deadlines and effectively analyse qualitative data. NVivo was used to establish drifts and patterns of behaviours, peer influences, risky spots, and relationships among other variables within the high schools that lead to school-based violence. Descriptive statistical tools such as bar and pie charts were used in the presentation of certain results.

Chapter Six presents the data analysis and interpretation of results based on the data collected from respondents through focus group interviews. Data was analysed using a thematic approach and NVivo. The focus group interviews were used to gather learners' perceptions of the causes of school-based violence in high schools and of how the problems they identified can be managed.

Chapter Seven presents a discussion of the results emerging from the analysis and interpretations of the qualitative data collected in the study. The discussion of the findings in this chapter is structured in accordance with the research questions of the study, and develops from the logical outcomes of the qualitative software employed in the study.

Chapter Eight provides a summary of all the chapters in the study. It also describes the contribution of the study to the existing wealth of knowledge in the field of the management, prevention and reduction of school-based violence in high schools. This chapter also presents the limitations of the study and discusses the scope for future research

on the phenomenon of school-based violence in high schools. Chapter Eight presents the two models developed in the study, namely (1) the ecological causes of school-based violence in high schools, and (2) the school-based violence management model. This chapter also contains a summary of the core findings, the recommendations of the study, and the overall conclusions.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the entire study and has illuminated its key aspects, which include the objectives of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, and the limitations of the study. The background of the study in this chapter provides insight into the seriousness of school-based violence in high schools globally, in Africa, in South Africa and in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province. Chapter Two presents an overview of the literature on school-based violence in high schools.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The causes of school-based violence in high schools have been attributed to a number of influencing factors, which include alcohol, drugs and substance abuse by learners within and outside the school premises. This chapter presents a brief historical background on school-based violence in high schools, the era of increased school-based violence globally, heuristic theory variables on school-based violence, forms of school-based violence, ecological systems theory on school-based violence and the effects of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal.

2.2 A brief background on school-based violence

School-based violence has become a global phenomenon that has interrupted teaching and learning in high schools. Accounts of juvenile delinquency and unacceptable behaviour in schools can be traced back to Sumerian clay tablets from 2000 B.C. and across a range of countries and regions (De Wet, 2007: 15; Van Jaarsveld, 2008: 176). In Norway, Olweus carried out a study on school-based violence in 1970 that is frequently referenced in contemporary research on youth development (e.g. Greeff & Grobler, 2008). During the 1970s, bullying behaviours were on the increase in Scandinavian countries and were commonly referred to as mobbing (Olweus, 2003). Olweus has conducted a great deal of research on school-based violence, particularly on bullying (Greeff & Grobler, 2008: 127).

In spite of a great deal of community concern over issues of school-based violence in the late 1980s and 1990s, when the most commonly known form of such violence was bullying, school-based violence has continued to increase (Astor & Meyer, 2001; Astor, Pitner, Benbenishty, & Meyer, 2002). The term "school-based violence" appeared for the first time in 2002 in a research journal's title. Prior to this there had not been any comprehensive research that involved students, teachers and principals within the same institution (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008). Benbenishty and Astor (2008) argue that there has been a plethora of literature on other forms of violence, such as domestic violence and bullying, but that it is only recently that school-based violence has been distinguished from other forms of violence in the literature (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008).

A new trend in school-based violence emerged with the Columbine (20 April, 1999) and Virginia Institute of Technology (16 April, 2007) shootings in the U.S. These incidents, among others, compelled more in-depth enquiry and stimulated international interest in school violence on the part of scholars (Rossouw & Stewart, 2008). Interest in the study of school-based violence in South Africa was renewed as a result of the findings of an international study that revealed that South African learners experience the most unsafe conditions in schools globally (Rossouw & Stewart, 2008). The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund's (UNICEF) Annual Report (2001: 10) on South Africa reveals that "many schools are places of crime, violence, fear and intimidation and trauma, which consistently disrupts the normal functioning of schools". This report shows that international bodies are also concerned about the issue of school-based violence and how it affects learners who are the future leaders.

2.3 Era of increased school-based violence in South Africa

Despite efforts on the part of school managers to create a school environment that promotes teaching and learning, school-based violence has been on the increase for over a decade. Miller et al. (2008) claim that violence globally has been on the increase, as shown by statistics obtained from three primary sources (police reports, hospitals and emergency medical centres, and surveys and interviews). According to Blattman and Miguel (2010), the past half a decade has witnessed the rise of civil, ethnic and religious crises in Africa. Civil war in the Democratic Republic of Congo has left many youths as orphans and has created child-headed homes, which in turn raise specific challenges. But the major challenge remains the exposure of children to violence. Weapons appear to move freely within the community, and consequently violence spills over into the high school community (Blattman & Miguel, 2010).

In the international community, particularly in the U.S., incidents of school violence seem to be on the increase. The shooting at Umpqua Community College in Roseburg, Oregon in the U.S., which took place in October, 2015, was the 45th gun incident at a school in the U.S. that year alone, indicating the high level of firearm usage in U.S. high schools (Tuttle, 2015). The assailant in the shooting incident came into the school with 14 guns, and killed nine people and injured another nine before killing himself. One has to wonder how 14

guns found their way onto the school premises without being detected by school security and school management before the incident. In the United Kingdom about 900 learners are suspended from school daily for violent incidents perpetrated against fellow learners or teachers (Wainwright, 2011).

In South Africa, the ills of apartheid have left a bitter social and educational legacy, which contributes massively to violence in general, including school violence (Mncube & Madikizela-Madiya, 2014). This is exacerbated by the free movement of firearms without adequate control or monitoring. There are different forms of violence; however, this study will discuss only eight of them: physical violence, sexual violence, emotional violence, psychological violence, spiritual violence, cultural violence, domestic violence and school violence. The focus of this study is to identify the causes of school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district of KZN, and to develop a management model that could assist school managers to reduce and manage school-based violence at high schools.

School violence is escalating despite measures put in place by the DoE and by schools themselves to curtail it (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013). Mncube and Netshitangani (2014) state that only about 23 % of educators and learners feel safe in schools as a result of school violence. This situation could explain the high rates of absenteeism in schools, which could also lead to poor academic performance. It could therefore be argued that the measures put in place by the DoE to control school violence have not been effective and need to be reviewed in order to curtail the risk factors that lead to school violence. High school education represents a vital phase in a child's life; therefore, any distortion of the process as a result of any form of school violence could have a devastating effect on a child's future.

For some children, school is the only place where they experience a sense of safety, order and structure, away from the family problems they experience, such as abuse by family members, and from community violence. So the emergence of violence in schools removes their only place of happiness and sanctuary. Some schools in KZN operate feeding schemes, and for some learners this is the only place where a daily meal is guaranteed; any disruptions that could lead to the school's closure therefore threaten their food security. In

a study conducted in Durban, Harber (2001) found that inadequate security within the school environment exacerbated violence. Furlong and Morrison (2000) identify two kinds of school violence: that which originates in the community, and that which occurs within the physical school framework. The former occurs when learners or intruders come onto the school premises and violent situations unfold as a result of events external to the school setting. But the problem is not limited to learners alone; teachers are also at the receiving end of this wave of school violence. For example, Nokulunga Ndala, a KZN teacher, was stabbed to death by a learner in March, 2007 (Naidu, 2007). There are also other recorded deaths as a result of incidents of school violence against teachers. An individual's perception of the consequences of school-based violence affects his/her sense of impunity in a social environment like school, and human behaviour is equal to the role the individual plays in society (Patacchini & Zenou, 2012). For example, the mayor of a town is expected to be a positive role model for the youth.

2.4 Forms of school-based violence

The school is a legal physical unit where teaching and learning take place, and it is important to recognise that school-based violence takes place within the school but does not form part of the school. School-based violence in this study is defined as all misconduct and improper behaviours from learners that obstruct the smooth teaching and learning processes within the physical school environment, such as assaults and sexual harassment. Joyce (2013) posits that school violence is a type of behaviour that includes the general characteristics of violent behaviour, with the difference being that the actors are children and adolescents, and that it takes place in primary and secondary schools, in places where those involved are together for several hours each day for most of the year. The researcher supports the arguments of Barnes, Brynard, and de Wet (2012), who conclude that positive behaviours and attitudes in schools will boost the effectiveness of teaching and learning, and lead to the achievement of better academic outcomes.

The following six forms of school-based violence will be discussed in this study: bullying, corporal punishment, sexual harassment, vandalism, cyberbullying and racially motivated violence.

2.4.1 Bullying

Bullying is intentionally committed unacceptable behaviour that occurs several times against an individual who cannot defend himself or herself (Olweus, 2001). Bullying violates the rights of an individual and constitutes a crime. The World Health Organization (WHO) (2002: 32) defines bullying as

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

In most definitions of bullying, the concepts of aggression/strength and weakness appear prominently. Those who cannot defend themselves (the weak) are regularly bullied by aggressors (the strong); the weak may join gangs to protect themselves against bullies or may even resort to carrying weapons, thereby increasing the likelihood of violence occurring. Hong and Espelage (2012) point out that bullying is "a particularly vicious kind of aggressive behaviour distinguished by repeated acts against weaker victims who cannot easily defend themselves". This study will not examine detailed aspects of the characteristics of a bully, but presents a general understanding of the phenomenon of bullying in order to develop a management strategy that may assist school managers to reduce bullying at high schools.
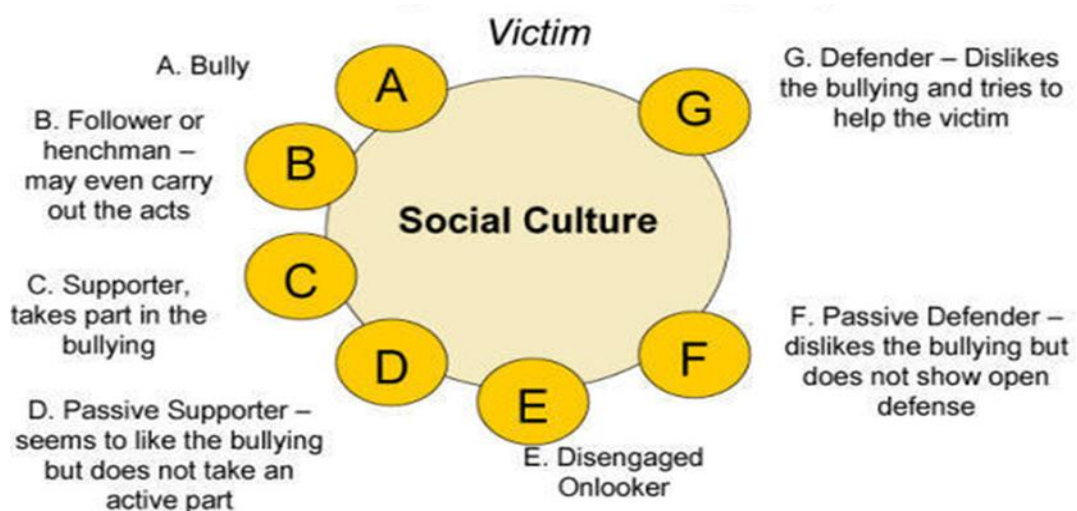
Figure 2: The circle of bullying
Source: Adapted from Olweus (2003)

The circle of bullying presented in Figure 2 identifies the various actors surrounding the victim: the perpetrator who initiates the bullying, the various types of active and passive bullying supporters, neutral parties, and various types of active and passive defenders of the victim.

2.4.2 Corporal punishment

Corporal punishment has been abolished in schools in South Africa, but traces of it remain visible in schools today. According to Ncontsa and Shumba (2013), some high school educators continue to use corporal punishment despite its being prohibited by law. The use of force to correct a wrongdoing may have a negative outcome in situations where learners react against the educators. Sometimes these learners bring in their parents to lodge formal complaints or even take legal action against the educators in question. Situations like this could cause the educators to lose authority and control over their classes, which could lead to increased violence in school. However, Gershoff (2010) argues that the negative impact of corporal punishment outweighs the benefits of immediate learner obedience. Gershoff maintains that while corporal punishment is intended to control and reduce aggression and antisocial behaviours, it is in fact more likely to increase such aggression and behaviours, and therefore the likelihood of further violence.

2.4.3 Sexual harassment

The increased presence and consumption of drugs and other harmful substances has increased the level of other forms of school-based violence, including sexual harassment (Burton & Leoschut, 2012). Sexual harassment can be described as unwanted sexual attention that interferes with your life (Espelage & Holt, 2007). Sexual harassment is not a behaviour that a person likes or wants (for example, unwanted kissing, touching, or flirting). A study conducted by the American Association of University Women (AAUW) (2001) reveals that 81 % of learners in U.S. schools have experienced some form of sexual harassment. Sexual harassment can be physical (such as touching, grabbing and pinching), or non-physical and mostly verbal (in the form of gestures, jokes and comments). The AAUW (2001) study reveals that female learners are primarily affected by this particular form of violence in high schools.

Sexual harassment is also prevalent in secondary schools, with most incidents involving learners harassing other learners (Timmerman, 2003). However, such harassment is not only confined to incidents between learners; educators have also been implicated in cases of sexual harassment against learners. In a four-year study, Shakeshaft and Cohan (1995) scanned 225 reports of incidents in which learners were sexually maltreated by educators in New York State. Similar South African studies conducted by J. Prinsloo, Ladikos, and Neser (2005) and S. Prinsloo (2006) reveal that sexual abuse and rape of learners by educators in South African high schools occur on school premises. Prinsloo (2006) states that some of the reported offenders at high schools are never prosecuted and some of the cases are disregarded at the provincial level of the DoE.

The problem of sexual relationships between educators and learners began over six decades ago. F. Wilson (2011) argue that sexual relationships between educators and learners in sub-Saharan Africa have always occurred but were never properly addressed until the 1950s. Wilson revealed that female victims of sexual crimes find it difficult to report these crimes to the police or their families, as they wish to protect themselves and their families from embarrassment. Timmerman (2003) and Wilson (2011) both correctly state that educators who are involved in sexual activities with their learners abuse their authority, confuse the locus of authority, and betray their moral and educational obligations to their learners. When the educators who are supposed to be the custodians of learners in the school environment abuse their position of trust, it could mean that there is a lack of adequate monitoring of learners' and teachers' conduct while at school. The basis upon which the KZN DoE disregards reports of sexual offences against learners is an important topic for future research (Human Rights Watch, 2006).

The existence of an inappropriate educator-learner relationship could compromise class management and increase the risk factors that lead to school-based violence. According to Le Roux and Mokhele (2011), the sexual abuse of female learners remains a major source of concern in South African schools, with about 33 % of the rapes of girls under the age of 15 being committed by teachers. An educator cannot use the consensus argument to justify having a sexual relationship with a learner. The South African Council of Educators

rejects such consensus-based arguments by insisting that educators are in a position of power and as such have undue influence on learners, and that a sexual relationship with a learner cannot ever be justified and must never occur. In order to create a safe school environment there is a pivotal need to educate learners on their rights and on the correct channels to use in reporting incidents of sexual harassment and rape against them to avoid further victimisation.

2.4.4 Vandalism

Aggression is unacceptable behaviour that results in hurting a second party or in damage to property (Thawabieh & Al-Rofo, 2010). Thawabieh posits that aggression is an act of sabotage and that vandalism is a form of aggression. Vandalism in a school context can simply mean the destruction of school property, which has economic and psychological effects on the school. Vandalism is a commonly occurring form of unacceptable behaviour in high schools, where learners write on desks and chairs, and destroy doors and windows. In the view of Le Roux and Mokhele (2011), learners who experience domestic violence tend to feel a great deal of guilt and hold themselves responsible for any acts of violence committed towards them. These emotions are sometimes vented at school by causing damage to school property, but the bitter emotions generated by domestic violence can be expressed in many different aggressive or violent ways at school. Substance abuse on the part of learners could have a negative impact on their behaviour. Learners who take drugs compromise their emotional and social growth, which leads to instability in their sense of personality and self-esteem (Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011). A learner who is under the influence of drugs could easily vandalise school property, or harass and assault other learners.

2.4.5 Online bullying

Cyberbullying occurs when learners use a computer-based communication tool in a threatening or aggressive way to target and influence the behaviour of other learners within the school environment (Mishna, Cook, Gadalla, Daciuk, & Solomon, 2010). Cyberbullying can be described as the intentional use of electronic media to harm a predetermined target (Bonanno & Hymel, 2013). Both sets of authors agree that

cyberbullying is a recent form of school violence that is rapidly spreading in schools. However, Olweus (2012) asserts that cases of cyberbullying are exaggerated and lead to the misdirection of resources in a bid to control it in schools. The researcher disagrees with Olweus on the grounds that the gravity of the harm may be difficult to evaluate, given that the perpetrators of cyberbullying are often difficult to trace, and that most cases are not reported, as argued by Bonnano and Hymel (2013).

The links between sexual harassment and cyberbullying are also difficult to quantify with certainty, as is the level of distraction and obstruction of teaching and learning created by the use of cell phones in class while teaching is occurring. But the impact of cyber-victimisation can be more detrimental than that of traditional forms of bullying, as victims may not find it easy to respond to and address the attacks, and thus may have few resources to cope with the impact of such violence (Bonanno & Hymel, 2013).

2.4.6 Racially motivated violence

The South African constitution strongly rejects segregation and racism (De Wet, 2001). South Africa is a multi-racial country where the historical consequences of apartheid have created a complex situation in which it is difficult for South Africans of different race groups to dwell peacefully together, given their memories of the past. Any failure to recognise and meet the challenges of harmonising all races to cohabit peacefully can create a volatile situation in schools that sometimes degenerates into violence. De Wet (2001) maintains that despite the huge political and social transformation in post-apartheid South Africa, racism remains a challenge in South African schools and has led to the death and assault of many learners and educators. However, this challenge is not unique to South Africa, as racial and cultural diversity have led to a high level of school-based violence in countries like "Japan, Jordan, Finland, Brazil, Norway, Israel, Malaysia, Columbia, South Africa, USA and Ethiopia" (Astor, Benbenishty, Zeira, & Vinokur, 2002).

2.5 Ecological systems theory on violence prevention

School violence is a multi-faceted phenomenon that cannot be defined from a single perspective. The ecological systems theory (EST) explains violent behaviour resulting

from multiple factors interacting across four distinct levels, namely the (1) microsystem (2) mesosystem (3) exosystem and (4) macrosystem. Each level of the EST contains its own unique risk factors that increase the chances of an individual becoming a perpetrator or victim of school violence. School-based violence refers to violent incidents that take place within the physical environment of the school, such as assault, bullying, and sexual assault and harassment, and that take place within the school premises. Van Jaarsveld (2008) claims that there is distinction between 'school' as a physical unit for violence that is rooted in the community, and 'school' as a structure that causes the confusion experienced by learners and educators.

The causes of school violence can be attributed to the following six factors: (1) family background, (2) social context, (3) school environmental factors, (4) psychological viewpoint, (5) emotional instability, and (6) alcohol and drug abuse (Thapa et al., 2013). Much research has been conducted on the causes of school violence and various solutions have been proffered. This research study has adopted Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory for violence prevention to elucidate the causes of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN.

The ecological systems theory, now known as the ecological systems model (ESM), was used for this study because it is able to accommodate the multi-faceted nature of school-based violence. The ESM is used to examine school-based violence at four different environmental levels: (1) the individual level, (2) the interpersonal relationship level, (3) the community level, and (4) the societal level. The ESM makes it possible for the researcher to understand how different factors related to different environments cause school-based violence in high schools. Johnson (2008) demonstrates that the four different levels of the ESM interact in complex ways and can together affect and be affected by the learners' development. ESM can also be applied to understand the manner in which an organisation functions to achieve its objectives, which is dependent upon the performance of various departments in the organisation.

22

| Poverty
High crime levels
High residential mobility
High unemployment
Local illicit drug trade
Situational factors | | Victim of child maltreatment
Psychological/personality
disorder
Alcohol/substance abuse
History of violent behaviour |

Societal   **Community**   **Relationship**   **Individual**

| Rapid social change
Gender, social and economic inequalities
Poverty
Weak economic safety nets
Poor rule of law
Cultural norms that support violence | Poor parenting practices
Marital discord
Violent parental conflict
Low socioeconomic household
status
Friends that engage in violence |

Figure 3: The ecological systems model
Source: Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems model

Each level of the ESM has a distinct influence on school-based violence, and as such can be used as an important tool for preventing violence in schools. School principals can implement different programmes and policies that will decrease risk factors and escalate protective factors to curtail school violence at different levels of the ESM in high schools. It is vital for the researcher to understand the different risk factors associated with each level of the ESM, in order to suggest different managerial approaches to reducing school violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN.

2.5.1 Individual-level influence (microsystem)

The first level of the ESM is the level of individual influence, which is also called the microsystem. The learners are nested in the microsystem; they are increasingly involved in a face-to-face interface with familiar faces, which over time generates a strong bond amongst the learners (Van der Merwe, Dawes, & Ward, 2013). These close associations have the most influence on a learner, and shape the learner's behaviour. The first level of the ESM identifies the following historical and biological factors that escalate the chances of a learner becoming a victim or perpetrator of school-based violence: age/gender, anger or hostility towards others, their parents being unemployed, lower levels of education,

23

lower levels of income, substance use, or a history of abuse. S. Prinsloo (2006) argues that male learners have a greater tendency than female learners to display violent attributes, at school and within the community.

Certain personal attributes increase the likelihood of a learner becoming a victim or perpetrator of school-based violence in high school, such as attitudes and beliefs that support gender violence, sexual harassment or sexual assault, and a history of family violence. The microsystem level is composed of influences that closely surround the learner, and of people and institutions that have direct contact with the learner. It can therefore have a strong influence on whether the learner starts to exhibit behaviours that would define him or her as a victim or perpetrator of school-based violence. Violent behaviour on the part of learners stems from the interface of risk factors and protective factors (Ward, 2007). Examples of risk factors are domestic violence, substance abuse by parents, learners associating with gangs, and the negative influence of peers.

Ward (2007) posits that these risk factors intersect in different ways in different environments, and take time to manifest. Learners who are exposed to more risk factors than protective factors have a higher tendency to exhibit violent behaviour, while those who are exposed to more protective factors have a higher tendency to develop pro-social behaviours (Miller et al., 2008). As a learner's risk factors increase, so does the possibility of their experiencing child abuse and neglect, which in turn increases the likelihood of their being involved in school-based violence. The support and strength that a learner has are what constitute their protective factors, for example parental care, and love and affection from family members (Miller et al., 2008). Protective factors are also visible at different levels of the environment; for example, love and support may be derived from parents, from family, and also from the community. These protective factors help build a learner's resilience against risk, and thus reduce violent behaviour on the part of the learner. The microsystem relationships oscillate in two directions: towards the child, and from the child. Bronfenbrenner calls this the "bi-directional influence", which takes place at all levels of the environment. E.S. Johnson (2008) posits that the bi-directional influence is most visible at the microsystem level, where it makes the greatest impact on a learner.

For example, a learner whose parents struggle to pay his tuition at a private high school may be motivated by the knowledge that he is being sent to a good school in the midst of poverty, and will study hard to achieve excellent grades in the matriculation examinations. The excellent results achieved by the learner could in turn make the parents so happy and proud of the learner that they would be willing to make an even bigger sacrifice to send the learner to university.

After the microsystem level comes the mesosystem level, which looks at interpersonal relationships among the different levels and structures of a child's microsystem that could result in a learner being a perpetrator or a victim of school violence.

2.5.2 Interpersonal, relationship-level influences (mesosystem)

The mesosystem represents the second level of influence in the ESM. Johnson (2008) defined the mesosystem as a set of linkages within the microsystem level of the ESM. The mesosystem involves the bi-directional relationships that take place within the different structures of the ecological model. The ESM illustrates that for learners "there are factors that increase risk due to their relationships with peers, intimate partners, and family members" (Johnson, 2008: 56). For example, a learner's family members, peers and partners who are involved with the abuse of drugs, alcohol and other substances could influence a learner's behaviour and range of experiences in ways that could ultimately lead to violent situations at school. Systems depend on one another to function properly.

Van der Merwe et al. (2013) demonstrate that interactions between systems within a larger system can generate significant effects on learners' development. For example, a continuous and constructive interaction between a learner's parents and the teacher could impact positively on the learner through feedback and any follow-up corrective measures that are designed to have a positive behavioural impact on the learner. Conversely, the use of corporal punishment by parents at home as a problem-solving mechanism can create violent norms that are frequently taken for granted. These established norms could contradict the norms and values taught at school, and could lead to the learner committing violent acts at school. The researcher strongly agrees with Simons and Wurtele (2010) that learners who are frequently abused by their parents through the use of corporal punishment

will over time develop attitudes in support of aggressive strategies as solutions to conflict resolution.

These adopted aggressive behaviours lead to school-based violence and the increased likelihood of learners' gravitating towards other negative vices, such as the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances (Flisher, Townsend, Chikobvu, Lombard, & King, 2010). Peltonen, Ellonen, Larsen, and Helweg-Larsen (2010) indicate that learners who are subjected to corporal punishment by their teachers or parents are likely to fall into depression, which could affect their academic performance and behaviour. The researcher is not an advocate of any form of violent punishment meted out to learners as a form of correction or retribution, and believes that whatever norms the learners accept in the microsystem, they reflect back to the community and school where they interact with others.

The influence of the retributory norms embraced by the learners can also be felt in the exosystem, which consists of community-level influences.

2.5.3 Community-level influences (exosystem)

The exosystem analyses how multiple key factors interact in the ecological model to mould the behaviour of learners, such as schools, the workplace, and the neighbourhood. Mncube and Madikizela-Madiya (2014) demonstrate that gangsterism is a global phenomenon that has generated serious crime problems in primary and high schools in South Africa. The infiltration of gangsterism into the primary school level of the education system reveals the impact of gangsterism in South African communities and on its educational system. Crawage (2005) defines gangsterism as the advancement of an urban individuality determined along racial and economic lines, which includes the founding of clusters with the aim of committing violent crime, and defending themselves physically against the violence of other groups.

Gangsterism represents an unacceptable mode of social interaction that results in a negative outcome. Crawage (2005) argues that gangsterism in schools ought to be viewed as a type of community delinquency because schools are a portion of the public realm. If

the impact of gangsterism can be felt at primary school level, then one would assume that the impact at high school would be felt on a much larger, deeper scale. Research has shown that schools where gangs are present experience a higher level of school-based violence than those without gangs, and learners who are gang members are more likely to indulge in serious school-based violence (Mncube & Madikizela-Madiya, 2014).

Crawage (2005), and Mncube and Madikizela-Madiya (2014) point out that a school is part of a larger community, and tends to reflect the magnitude of the violence occurring within that community. For example, schools with gangs within their community tend to have a higher instance of gang cells in the school. In this research study, however, it became clear that with the present economic conditions in South Africa, the high unemployment rate, the increased service-delivery protests, the xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals, and the general level of violence in the communities and schools (Fayomi, Chidozie & Ayo, 2015), it would be difficult to identify any school without any element of gangsterism in uMgungundlovu district. Tobacco, alcohol and drug abuse among learners is a core challenge for South African high schools (Flisher et al., 2010).

The trading of these drugs and other substances takes place in the wider communities and finds its way into the schools, which increases the likelihood of school-based violence. It has been established that there is a significant relationship between school dropouts at high school, and substance abuse, consumption of alcohol and drug usage (Zimmerman & Maton, 1992; Gfroerer, Greenblatt, & Wright, 1997; Aloise-Young, Cruikshank, & Chavez, 2002). However, in a longitudinal study carried out by Ellickson, Collins, Hambarsoomians, and McCaffrey (2005), the authors caution that there is no significant relationship between drug and substance abuse and school dropout per se, but that school dropout is rather associated with family issues, academic background, behavioural problems and peer influence. They see substance abuse as a symptom of deeper causative issues. The researcher strongly believes, however, that Ellikson et al. (2005) are oversimplifying the complexities of cause and effect, and that there is a significant relationship between drug and substance abuse and school dropout, because drug and substance abuse influence a learner's emotions and cognition negatively to a point that

could lead to school violence, poor academic engagement and performance, and ultimately dropping out of school.

The exosystem embodies the mesosystem and denotes social conditions that have an impact on the learner such as drug and substance abuse. According to Boemmel and Briscoe (2001), the exosystem does not have a direct relationship with the child but an indirect one; however, this indirect relationship still has a great impact on a learner that could lead to an increased likelihood of their being involved with school-based violence.

After the exosystem comes the macrosystem, which is the last level of the ecological system and identifies societal-level factors that influence school-based violence.

2.5.4 Societal-level influences (macrosystem)

The societal level represents the third level of the ESM. According to Boemmel and Briscoe (2001), macrosystem-level factors such as sexual harassment, gender inequality, religious or cultural beliefs, societal norms, and social policies influence school-based violence. E.S. Johnson (2008) insists that the macrosystem portrays a social blueprint of a given culture, subculture, or broad social context, and consists of the over-arching pattern of values, belief systems, lifestyles, opportunities, customs, and resources embedded therein. The macrosystem exerts a unidirectional influence on learners as well as on other levels of the ecological model. For example, where there is a tradition that only parents should discipline their children, it may not be socially acceptable for anyone else to perform this role. The parents' capacity or lack of capacity to carry out their parental function would have a serious impact on how effectively the microsystem functions.

The inability of an individual to carry out any primary responsibility could therefore have a negative impact. De Wet (2001) explains that political and traditional leaders who tolerate violence in a community could in fact stimulate violence within the community by failing to act against it; similar attitudes and behaviours could manifest in the school environment and disrupt teaching and learning. An inference could be drawn with the recent xenophobic attacks in South Africa in April 2015. Various quarters blamed the Zulu king for sparking off the violence as a result of an inflammatory speech he gave in public.

De Klerk-Luttig (2008) shows that people in leadership positions who publicly disregard the law set bad precedents, and learners could take on and embrace such negative attitudes and disregard set rules and regulations in schools, thus leading to disorder and possible cases of school violence.

The Bill of Rights in the South African Constitution provides a premise for a non-racial and non-violent society; however, much of the bombast of political leaders seems to have a pro-violence tone (Ward, 2007). An example of this was a call by Zizi Kodwa, the ANC Youth League spokesperson, for "dogs [political opponents] to be hit very hard until their owners and handlers come out into the open" (Brown, 2008: 56). Violent political rhetoric seems to be creating a norm in South Africa that political differences can only be resolved by violence (Govender & Killian, 2001). High school learners could emulate this violent approach as a problem-solving technique, thus increasing the likelihood of violent incidents at school.

2.6 Application of the ecological systems model to the study

2.6.1 Individual-level factors

The individual level represents the microsystem of the ecological system. Several factors, such as biological factors, psychological factors, family, parents, peers and the school environment, increase the likelihood of a learner becoming a victim or perpetrator of school violence. The abovementioned factors will be employed to identify management strategies that could increase protective factors in schools to reduce school-based violence and create a school climate that promotes teaching and learning.

2.6.1.1 Biological factors

Researchers maintain that male learners are more likely than female learners to act violently (Prinsloo, Ladikos, & Neser, 2005). Hormonal and genetic factors are said to be responsible for these differences in male and female learners' attitudes and behaviours at school (Flores, 2006; Dawes, Bray & Van der Merwe, 2007). Fowler et al. (2007) claim that learners who possess monoamine oxidase A, an enzyme in the human body commonly referred to as MAO-A, have a greater tendency to act violently and use weapons.

Neurophysiological variables have been recognized as a cause of violent behaviour in schools (Fowler et al., 2007). According to Hendricks and Liu (2012), complications during childbirth can lead to a propensity for aggressive behavior and could constitute a variable in school-based violence. Advances in medical technology are enabling researchers to discover further possible reasons for aggression, and thus for some of the causes of school-based violence.

2.6.1.2 Psychological factors

Many psychological factors have been associated with violent behavior in general, and thus with school-based violence, for example low self-esteem, depression, anxiety and an individual's negative perception of their self-control (Prinsloo, Ladikos & Neser, 2005). Perpetrators of school-based violence are mostly learners who are often socially isolated. These learners act violently to gain recognition and attention from other learners. Salekin et al. (2005) state that emotional immaturity, jealousy, a desire to seek attention and poor conflict-resolution skills are some of the factors responsible for violent behavior in young people. The biological and psychological factors discussed can possibly be viewed as medical causes of school violence with medical solutions, provided that school managers are tactful in facilitating such an approach. Interpersonal relationships between learners and their family members, parents and peers could also influence school-based violence.

2.6.1.3 Family factors

The impact of the bi-directional influence is strongest at the microsystem level of the ecological system, and has a greater impact on a child (Lakić, 2012). Family, school and peers play a vital role in shaping children's behaviour because these are institutions that children interact with directly on a daily basis, and with which they spend the greater part of the day. Learners who are exposed to domestic violence suffer from a number of social and emotional problems, which can include aggressive behaviour, anxiety, depression, decreased social competence, and poor academic performance (Carrell & Hoekstra, 2010). These problems can lead to inappropriate behaviour and serious school-based violence issues.

Learners internalise their family's norms, and if their family norm dictates that conflict can be resolved by violence and aggression, then they could use violence as a problem-solving tool and thereby create numerous incidents of school-based violence. One could assume, therefore, that learners whose families are deeply religious may have a higher tendency to behave in a morally upright manner at school, and therefore not act violently.

2.6.1.4 Parental factors

There is evidence that the family practice of parental monitoring of children in particular is a critical element in preventing substance abuse (Dishion & Loeber, 1985; Steinberg, 1987; Fletcher, Darling, Steinberg & Dornbusch, 1995; Lockman, 2003; Stanton et al., 2002; Stewart & Bolland, 2002). Research has shown that learners who are abused by their parents have a higher tendency to exhibit violent behaviour at school, thereby causing school-based violence (Humm, 1991). Parents have a duty to protect, love, care for, and control their children. Failure to meet these obligations on the part of the parents could result in the increase of juvenile crimes such as bullying, sexual harassment and assault.

2.6.1.5 Peer factors

The relationships that children have with their peers have a pivotal influence on them (Lakić, 2012). Ward (2007) state that peers represent a key socializing influence in adolescence, and that associating with a delinquent peer group could lead learners into school-based violence. Learners commit violent or criminal acts because they seek peer approval, attention and recognition. The researcher is of the opinion that some of the school-based crimes are committed by learners to gain leadership positions within the peer group, and sometimes in order to be respected or feared by other members of the peer group for being "dangerous". Singh (2012) argue that behavioural problems grow out of accumulated life experiences where members of antisocial groups contribute negative attitudes and values to destabilize a functioning school.

The extreme emotional difficulties experienced by children in situations involving child abuse or neglect, domestic violence and poor socio-economic conditions increase the risk of them adopting antisocial behaviours (Singh, 2012). The researcher is of the opinion that

lack of adequate parenting could lead to antisocial behaviour in children, which could lead to school violence and low academic performance. Similarly, sound parenting, emotional investment and sound behavioural management will lead a learner to pro-social behaviour that will improve their academic performance and create a school climate that promotes teaching and learning. Learners whose time is occupied with pro-social activities such as homework, tutoring, sports, and cultural or artistic endeavours, are far less likely to engage in substance abuse or delinquency (Ward, 2007).

This could mean that, increased school engagement in the form of homework and assignments could reduce school-based violence by reducing idle time after school hours. The researcher believes that the longer a learner resides in a particular place, the more likely the norms of the community will influence the learner, positively or negatively. The school represents another factor that moulds and influences the behaviour of the learner and who he or she will become in the future.

2.6.1.6 School factors

After the family, the school is the next most important influencing factor that shapes a learner's behaviour (Van Rensburg, 2010). The following risk factors were identified for violent behaviour at school: (1) a poor physical state of the school, (2) inadequate infrastructure, (3) narrow hallways, (4) broken buildings, and (5) a dirty environment (Van Rensburg, 2010). The inability of the school management to ensure that infrastructure and amenities are adequately maintained increases the likelihood of school-based violence. For example, a broken toilet door or window in the girls' toilets could increase the likelihood of sexual harassment and perhaps even rape in the school toilet, as decaying infrastructure gives users of the facility little or no protection and could make it easy for an attacker to gain access.

The development of antisocial behaviour in children begins with minor transgressions and gradually advances toward more significant expressions of deviance as they enter adolescence (McEvoy & Welker, 2000). This means that antisocial behaviours grow into more serious delinquent crimes as learners progress in life. School managers must note that the behaviours that lead to school-based violence have originated historically; it may

not be possible to prevent them, and it may be the case that they can only be strategically managed. An unproductive school response to antisocial behaviours in school could lead to a decline in the academic performance of learners, for example suspending a learner from school for three days for having a squabble with a school prefect.

There are five important aspects of the school climate that could influence learners to behave in a way that may lead to school-based violence: (1) safety (e.g. rules and norms, physical safety, social-emotional safety); (2) relationships (e.g. respect for diversity, school connectedness/engagement, social support, leadership, and students' race/ethnicity and their perceptions of school climate); (3) teaching and learning (e.g. social, emotional, ethical, and civic learning; service learning; support for academic learning; support for professional relationships; teachers' and students' perceptions of school climate); (4) the institutional environment (e.g. physical surroundings, resources, supplies); and (5) the school improvement process (Thapa et al., 2013).

These five aspects sum up the importance of the school as a core influential factor in the development of a learner, as antisocial behaviour starts at an early stage in a learner's life. The effective combination of these five key aspects of the school climate could completely transform an antisocial learner into a pro-social learner. The next level of the ESM evaluates the interpersonal relationships that exist within the microsystem.

2.6.2 Interpersonal, relationship-level factors

The mesosystem evaluates the linkages that exist within the various systems in the microsystem (e.g. interaction between the parents and school) and the impact these relationships have on the learners' academic performance (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). The influence of these relationships could lead to improved academic performance through a circular feedback system that is designed to be productive (Ward, 2007). For example, if the learner bunks classes on a daily basis, the parents can create a daily personal class logbook that the learner will carry and which must be endorsed by each teacher at the end of each period. It is likely that increased class attendance by the learner will improve his or her academic performance. Constant communication between the parents and teachers

could influence whether a learner will become a perpetrator of school-based violence (Wartman & Savage, 2008).

When learners are exposed to domestic violence by parents and family members at home, violent norms are generated and condoned. These norms are in conflict with the school norms, where any form of violence is not acceptable (Randall, 1991). The experiencing of domestic violence by a child as a tool for conflict resolution could have a devastating effect on the child. The learner could employ violent methods at school as conflict resolution strategies, which would lead to school-based violence. At this point, the interaction between the family and the learner may lead to school-based violence as a result of the learner emulating aggressive norms learned from conflict and from experiences of domestic violence.

Insights from the outcomes of relationships at this level will be used to develop management strategies that may reduce school-based violence and promote intimate relationships based on mutual respect, equality, and trust. These strategies would seek to harmonise the relationship between the learner's education and the family. Parents influence the academic performance of their children, not simply through the transfer of genes but also through direct parenting practices, and through the choice of schools which the child attends (Bjorklund & Salvanes, 2010). Parents sometimes take into consideration the history and academic performance of a school before enrolling their children. School culture and history could also shape a learner's behaviour. The researcher believes that workshops will also contribute immensely to the reduction and management of school-based violence.

According to Crews, Crews, and Turner (2011), workshops and seminars could sensitise learners to the negative effects of school-based violence and facilitate the reduction of such violence. These workshops and seminars should include the following: a mentoring programme, a peer programme, and a counselling programme that would increase emotional support for victims of school-based violence. These management strategies at the interpersonal level would facilitate the reduction of school-based violence at high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal.

The exosystem is the next level after the mesosystem in the ESM. It analyses the influence of the relationships that exist within the individual level, the microsystem and the community.

2.6.3 Community-level factors

The exosystem represents that system where the child's involvement and participation are absent, but the interplay of forces within the system and sub-systems affect and shape the child's development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Astor, Pitner and Duncan (1996) show that parental unemployment, a high rate of teacher burnout, conflicting school board policies, and a partial provision of basic amenities in schools are some of the obstacles that impact negatively on a child's development. Although the learners do not directly interact with these factors, the factors still influence and shape their behaviour. For example, parental unemployment could result in parents not being able to pay their bills, including school fees, uniforms, books and the transportation costs of travelling to and from school. This may lead to a learner dropping out of school, and joining gangs, and adopting the sorts of antisocial behaviours that lead to school-based violence (Almond, 2008).

The emotional state of learners could influence them to behave negatively or violently towards other learners on school premises. For example, a learner could get depressed as a result of continuously witnessing violence in the community, and this depression could over time develop into negative behaviours that could lead to school-based violence (Kennedy, Bybee, Sullivan, & Greeson, 2010). As a result of a high level of community violence, learners may begin to carry weapons to school in order to protect themselves from the perpetrators of the violence. According to Gorman-Smith, Henry and Tolan (2004), family support of learners could serve as a protective factor against community violence, and drug and substance abuse. Most researchers view parental income, parental level of education, and the environment in which the family resides, as the family support factors that moderate the impact of community violence on a learner. Emotional solidity, a robust family orientation, consistent parenting, and planned family roles and tasks were identified as key family protective variables (Kennedy, et al., 2010).

School-based policies can be developed as management strategies at this level of influence to curb antisocial behaviours that would have been acquired by learners as a result of participation in or witnessing of episodes of community violence. These policies should be designed to create a safe school climate that would enhance tuition and learning.

2.6.4 Societal-level factors

Legislation and media campaigns are some of the managerial strategies that could be adopted in controlling the societal-level influence on school-based violence. The societal level is the fourth level in the ESM for violence prevention. Societal-level influences relate to strong external factors, such as government policies, cultural and societal factors, socio-economic conditions, religion, and international community influence (Astor et al., 1996). The macrosystem influence affects all the relationships that exist in the three other levels of the ecological model, namely the microsystem, mesosystem and exosystem. The researcher believes that the impact of technology in the escalation of school-based violence cannot be ignored.

Cyberbullying is an aggressive, intentional act using electronic forms of contact which include texting derogatory messages; sending threatening emails, forwarding confidential email or pictures, and repeatedly sending inflammatory or upsetting messages (Goebert, Else, Matsu, Chung-Do, & Chang, 2011). Technology has made it possible for traditional forms of school-based violence to reach a wider audience. The Internet provides a lot of benefits, particularly for people seeking general information and solutions to various problems, but it is also a place where people vent their frustration and aggression on others. In the school environment, this can constitute its own form of violence in the form of cyberbullying, and can precipitate other violent conflict (Kowalski, Giumetti, Schroeder, & Lattanner, 2014).

The use of cell phones in high schools has made it easier for cyberbullying to occur, despite intense effort by authorities to ban the use of cell phones. Recent studies have revealed that cyberbullying in high schools is on the increase and is estimated to be as high as 75 % in some schools (Ortega, Elipe, Mora-Merchán, et al., 2012). Victims of cyberbullying may experience anxiety, depression, substance abuse, difficulty sleeping, increased

physical symptoms, decreased performance in school, absenteeism and truancy, dropping out of school, and murder or suicide (Privitera & Campbell, 2009). The researcher is of the opinion that stronger measures should be taken to ban the use of cell phones in high schools completely, because any antisocial behaviour that could lead to murder or suicide should be taken very seriously by the government in the form of policy enactments.

Social protection is a core poverty-reduction strategy that is employed by the government to reduce the negative effects of economic, social and other factors that could lead to school-based violence (Ludi & Levine, 2010). Social protection can also be transformative, helping to tackle power imbalances in society that encourage, create and sustain vulnerabilities, and helping to support equity and empowerment (Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2013). Constructive government policies can reduce school-based violence in high schools through the economic empowerment of families. Barrientos (2011) reminds us that social protection in developing countries is not effective in addressing issues of poverty and vulnerability, as a result of financial limitations. Similarly the extension of social protection in the form of pure income transfer, investment in human capital, integrated poverty-reduction programmes and income transfer conditional on work, have all been met with financial constraint problems (Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011). However, the issues surrounding social protection and extensions are areas for future research that need to be explored, and do not form part of the core objectives for this study.

The international community plays a vital role in the economies of developing countries through their foreign policies. The most significant players are the U.S., the United Kingdom, France, Germany, and China. Their foreign policies include trade agreements, grants, and technical assistance. Since the early 1990s, developing countries have relied on private sources of external capital income to stabilise their economies, and these external funds come in the form of foreign direct investment, which is estimated at about 75 % of their external capital inflow to stimulate economic growth and create jobs (Reiter & Steensma, 2010). Developmental aid (DA) should be used constructively to stimulate development, through economic development or further means (Minoiu & Reddy, 2010). The contributions and technical assistance of the international community cannot be overemphasised, be it in the form of aid or foreign direct investment.

This assistance has relieved the developing countries of some of the burden; however, this assistance does not come without a price. Despite the merits of foreign direct investment, it also possesses some drawbacks. Sometimes bilateral trade agreements are stipulated. Chinese foreign direct investment has supported corrupt regimes in developing countries in a bid to abuse their natural resources and provide markets for their mass-produced goods (Kolstad & Wiig, 2012). Religion could act as a protective factor by positively influencing the behaviour of learners and creating a safer school environment. Religiosity entails a set of behaviours such as being spiritual and attending religious programmes (Parsai, Marsiglia, & Kulis, 2010). Continuous attendance of religious programmes, including church, could provide emotional and psychological support to learners that would reinforce positive behaviours. Religion and religious institutions are part of the broader society in which learners live, and could regulate the behaviour and attitude of learners. Spirituality has been employed by parents to create family solidity and reinforce family values (Fife, McCreary, Brewer, & Adegoke, 2011).

The active participation of a learner in religious activities reduces the idle time the learner has to bond with peers who might influence the learner with antisocial behaviours. Kwakye-Nuako and Dankwah (2012) insist that there is a relationship between religiosity and the avoidance of substance abuse, as religiosity promotes pro-social behaviours among high school learners. A strict implementation of national and provincial legislation and school-based policies on school violence will form part of the management strategy that will be adopted at this level of influence to reduce school-based violence at high schools. The creation of awareness at school level through a national campaign against school violence on television, radio and newspapers will also be employed as a managerial strategy at this level of influence.

2.7 Heuristic theory variables on school-based violence

The study looked at heuristic theory to inform another school-based management model which focuses on school-based variables to reduce and manage school-based violence in high schools. This study did not adopt this model because it does not accommodate the identification of the causes of school-based violence and as such is not adequately positioned for the study. The following five school-based factors that influence school-

based violence in high schools are: (1) class management, (2) class size, (3) learner-teacher relationship, (4) school management, and (5) infrastructure. The five variables mentioned above are known as the heuristic theory variables because they are school-based factors that influence school-based violence.

2.7.1 Class management

The ability of educators to exert control and authority over their classes increases the protective factors that create a safe school environment. K.P. Allen (2010) notes with concern that teachers go to class unprepared in terms of classroom management skills, which include administrative tasks, curriculum management, and managing learners' behavioural issues. The increase in learners' antisocial behaviour inside and outside of the classroom has led to increased teacher burnout and an increased exit rate from the profession (Public Agenda, 2004). Larrivee (2005) claims that classroom management is a critical ingredient in the three-way mix of effective teaching strategies, which includes meaningful content, powerful teaching strategies, and an organisational structure to support productive learning.

According to Sucuoglu, Akalin and Sazak-Pinar (2010), classroom management represents the art of providing and supporting an effective tuition and learning climate that stimulates academic performance. When a teacher cannot manage a class effectively, it could give learners an opportunity to engage in different kinds of antisocial behaviours in class that could lead to school violence. For example, a learner who is not meaningfully engaged in class could see that as a reason to bunk classes or crack jokes in class. Such disrespect for authority can lead to additional behaviours and attitudes that could lead to violent incidents. In their research on educators' views of disruptive behaviour, Malone, Bonitz, and Rickett (1998: 75) find the following:

> The results of this study confirmed common perceptions about disruptive behaviour in the classroom. Time spent trying to control a class is time taken away from instruction. The teacher is simply less effective when instructional time is interrupted. Disruptive behaviour creates teacher-student conflicts, which cause undesirable interpersonal conditions for both teachers and students. The teachers reported overwhelmingly that disruptive behaviour allowed to continue on a large

scale destroys teacher morale. It also creates parental dissatisfaction and a negative image of the school. For individuals, disruptive behaviour contributes to low self-concept, peer conflicts, and disunity among the students.

Effective class management by teachers could produce a school climate that promotes tuition and learning, and subsequently leads to better academic performance by learners.

2.7.2 Class size

A sense of connectedness to school on the part of learners could lead to reduced school-based violence, and a sense of connection between learners and teachers is easier when the class size is small (McNeely, Nonnemaker, & Blum, 2002). A small class size makes it easier for learners and teachers to interact and connect, and as the class size increases so it becomes more difficult for learners and teachers to connect. However, there are some researchers who argue that the impact of small class size is negligible, and that there are other cost-effective methods of upgrading academic results (Slavin, 1989; Hattie, 2005; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005). For example, a strong interpersonal relationship between the learners and the teacher could make class management easier, thereby conferring more control on the teacher and reducing certain triggers for school-based violence (K.P. Allen, 2010). The researcher supports the idea that small class sizes could enhance better class control and class management.

2.7.3 Improved learner-teacher relationship

There is a continuous relationship between learners and teachers over time that enables them to appreciate each other's skills and interactive style (Hauer et al., 2012). The bonding that could emerge in these relationships may improve the learners' academic performance. A school climate that promotes teaching and learning, according to the extended attachment theory perspective, could provide learners with a secure platform to improve on academic engagements (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Pianta, Nimetz, & Bennett, 1997; Pianta, 1999). Learners' increased academic engagement could reduce the amount of time potentially spent on antisocial behaviours in school, thereby assisting in reducing school-based violence. Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, and Oort (2011) argue that closer learner-teacher relationships have various pros and cons. However, an improved learner-teacher

relationship could increase the learners' academic engagement, improve results and reduce school-based violence by shrinking idle time spent on antisocial behaviours in school.

2.7.4 School management

The manner in which learners view the school management structures in place influences the attitudes of both learners and educators towards tuition and learning (Joyce, 2013). According to Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, and Higgins-D'Alessandro (2013), there are five important aspects of the school climate: (a) safety (e.g. social-emotional safety), (b) relationships (e.g. school connectedness/ engagement), (c) teaching and learning (e.g. support for academic learning), (d) institutional environment (e.g. physical surroundings), and (e) the school improvement process. Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, and Higgins-D'Alessandro (2013) posit that maintaining a positive and constructive school climate could be seen as the core managerial function of a school manager, who in this situation is the school principal who has been tasked to run a high school to ensure continuous tuition and learning. A positive school climate promotes tuition and learning, while a negative school climate promotes antisocial behaviours that could lead to school-based violence (Cornell & Mayer, 2010).

2.7.5 Infrastructure

Children who are between the ages of 7 and 15 years have a constitutional right to a basic education, as stipulated in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). This constitutional right could become meaningless in an atmosphere that is not conducive to teaching and learning. The creation of the National School Safety Framework is an important measure that has been taken by the DoE to reduce and manage school-based violence. This policy is intended to ensure a safe teaching and learning environment. The core purposes of the policy are as follows: "(1) to help schools' management comprehend and identify security problems and threats, (2) to create an effective framework for effective responses to security matters and threats, (3) to develop a structure that will manage reported cases adequately, (4) to assist schools to keep a close watch on progress over time to create a safe school" (National School Safety Framework, 1999: 18).

Davison and Lawson (2006) argue that the provision of recreational facilities, equipment and permanent motion structures in school play areas increases the level of physical activity of the learners, and that when learners are occupied during recess periods, the likelihood of antisocial behaviours that lead to school violence developing, is reduced. Zapiro's 2007 cartoon in Figure 4 below highlights the lack of basic security services of some South African schools, which are not adequately fenced and protected against infiltration by gang members from the communities with different weapons. Such antisocial elements could lead to school-based violence. A typical example of the porosity of some South African schools was evident in the killing of Jacques Pretorius by Morné Harmse with a samurai sword at a high school in Gauteng in 2008. The unanswered question to date remains: how a samurai sword got into the school, and into the classroom unnoticed until it led to the death of a learner and the injury of others.
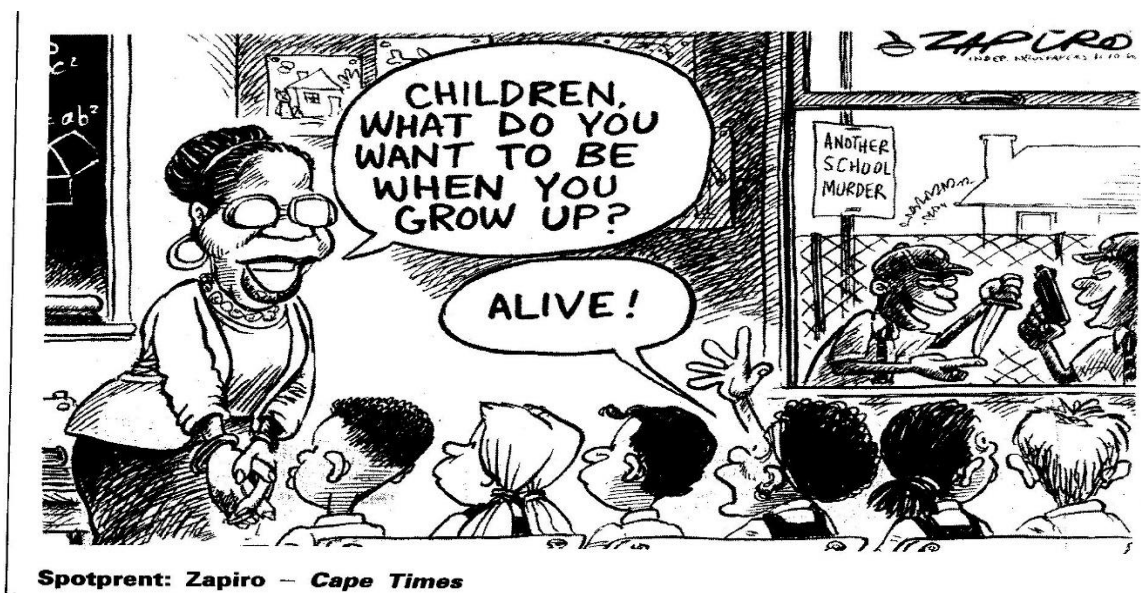
Figure 4: Cartoon display of unsafe school environment
Source: Zapiro, July 2007, http://mg.co.za/zapiro/fullcartoon/263

Burton (2008:14) contends that "in many schools, boys' and girls' toilets are located next to each other, making it easy for boys to enter girls' toilets or harass girls going to or leaving the toilet". The researcher believes that safety and risk factors should be considered by the DoE in the design of school structures to reduce school-based violence in high schools.

2.8 Justification for adopting Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory

Bronfenbrenner (1994) conceptualised the ecological systems theory (EST), a model developed for violence prevention, with the individual at the centre of the model. EST was used in this research study because the model focuses on the learner, around whom a safe school environment should be created. The ecological systems theory was adopted in the study because the four (4) levels of the model provide clarity on the causes of school-based violence at different levels of the ecological system. Based on the identified causes at different levels, intervention strategies can be put in place to reduce the rate of violence, since violence cannot be completely eradicated. However, it should be noted that school-based factors alone cannot provide all the answers required to ascertain the numerous causes of school-based violence, because school settings are entrenched in a much larger, nested context within a community. EST was therefore employed in this study to provide insight on how external factors reinforce the school-based factors to cause school-based violence.

2.9 The effects of school-based violence

School-based violence is a multi-layered phenomenon with serious consequences for victims and perpetrators. School-based problems affect the school management, the image of the school and also the community. This study is focused on the causes and management of school-based violence, as it distorts teaching and learning in high schools. As such the researcher will only focus on the causative factors of school-based violence that affect the school climate and that distort teaching, learning and the effective management of the school. Some of these effects are physical and emotional, including financial loss, resignation of educators, a high rate of absenteeism by educators and learners, loss of life and vandalism (Sela-Shayovitz, 2009). Wallace and Wallace (1998) rightfully conclude that the effects of school-based violence on victims in high schools include both a physical and emotional dimension. The impact of victimisation could lead to emotional stress and depression.

The academic performance of a learner who is emotionally stressed and depressed could decline substantially, which could be attributed to lack of concentration in class as a result of fear or loud noises emanating from onlookers of a school-based violence incident. For

example, a learner who witnesses the multiple stabbing of a fellow learner, which subsequently leads to the victim's death, could suffer an emotional and physiological breakdown. On August 18, 2008 Morné Harmse carried out what Ajam (2008: 1) calls "the most barbaric act of schoolboy violence in South African history". Wearing a home-made mask resembling those worn by U.S. rockers Slipknot, Harmse attacked Jacques Pretorius (aged 16), metres from the principal's office, slitting his throat with a samurai sword. Subsequently, Pretorius bled to death. Harmse then slashed Stephan Bouwer (aged 18) on the head before injuring two school gardeners, aged 43 and 26 years old, who had come to Bouwer's aid. This unfortunate incident is popularly known today as "The Krugersdorp samurai sword killing".

Corporal punishment is banned in high schools, but some educators and school managers continue to use it (Maphosa & Shumba, 2010). The use of corporal punishment as a corrective measure in high schools could lead to the learners suffering emotional and physical pain, and when learners retaliate against the use of corporal punishment, this could lead to violence between learners and educators. Sometimes conflict between learners and educators could lead to loss of life on both sides. Crawage (2005) assert that sexual assaults like rape within the school could lead to sexually transmitted diseases, unwanted pregnancy, physical and emotional effects, and even depression. The effect of rape in school-based violence cannot be over-emphasised because of the scars it leaves on the victims.

The use of drugs and other harmful substances by high school learners has diverse effects, ranging from school dropout, reduced occupational opportunities and income, poorer mental and physical health, and an increased likelihood of involvement in crime (Flisher et al., 2010). Thoma et al. (2011) allege that the effects of substance abuse at high school include the following: (1) reduced speed of learning in school, (2) low memory processing speed, and (3) increased antisocial behaviours. The influence of drugs could also lead to the destruction of school infrastructure. The presence of gangs in elementary and high schools increases the level of violence and crime in the community (Mncube & Madikizela-Madiya, 2014), and hinders educators from exerting their authority in their

classes. This increases the level of antisocial behaviour in school and leads to violence, and whenever an educator loses control of a class, teaching and learning are compromised.

These complexities could lead to high rate of absenteeism from school and subsequently a high rate of resignation. Bauer et al. (2006) claim that the high rate of teacher resignation is a result of burnout caused by the increased burden on teachers. Astor et al. (1996) note with concern that a lack of administrative support and a lack of clarity on how to handle school-based violence cases when they occur hinder teachers' ability to function effectively. Teachers are faced with the huge task of discipline, rather than their primary task of teaching. Freudenberger (1974) defines burnout as a syndrome affecting predominantly people in jobs with a high social and ethical responsibility. The syndrome comprises of (1) exhaustion, (2) low personal accomplishment, and (3) depersonalisation. The effects of school-based violence are therefore numerous; however, this study aims to identify strategies to reduce school-based violence, specifically in the context of the high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN.

2.10 The effects of social media on school-based violence

Cyberbullying could cause learners to have profound psychosocial outcomes like depression, anxiety, severe isolation and even suicide (O'Keeffe, 2011). According to O'Keeffe (2011) sexting, which is described as the sending or receiving of sexually explicit messages, photographs and images via cell phones, could lead to felony child pornography charges. The free movement of unacceptable images within the school premises could increase sexual harassment incidents in school. Johnson (2002) claims that watching programmes that contain violence on television could be associated with aggressive behaviours in schools that lead to school-based violence. Mayfield (2008) posits that violent media heightens real-world hostility that spills over into schools, causing school-based violence. A prolonged involvement in violent social media interaction by a learner could have antisocial consequences (Wood, 2010). These consequences could emerge as school-based violence issues like assault.

2.12 Conclusion

The ESM unpacks the root causes of general school-based violence in high schools. At each phase of influence in the four-level model, a managerial strategy will be developed to contain the violence at that level of influence. It should be noted that some of the antisocial behaviours that lead to school-based violence cannot be overcome or eradicated by school norms and enlightenment, but can only be managed. This study is aimed at developing a model that will reduce school-based violence and create a school climate that will promote tuition and learning in high schools in uMgungundlovu district. Chapter Three presents a review of various management literatures on school-based violence in high schools.

CHAPTER THREE: MANAGING SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE

3.1 Introduction

The multifaceted nature of school-based violence means that managing it requires a cluster of approaches. There is no single factor that is able to adequately account for the antisocial behaviours by high school learners that lead to school-based violence. The ecological systems theory indicates four different levels at which antisocial behaviours can emerge: the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem and macrosystem. Since this research study focuses on school-based violence, it was deemed necessary to employ a heuristic approach to school-based violence that examines internal, school-based causative factors. A collective effort on the part of school principals and all stakeholders is required to reduce and effectively manage school violence.

3.2 Legislations on the management of school-based violence

The South African Schools Act 84 (SASA) of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996a) empowers professional managers and school governing bodies (SGBs) to oversee the running and functioning of public schools to enhance teaching and learning. It emphasises that it is the duty of these two bodies to ensure a safe school environment. The "professional managers" designated in the Act refer to school principals, who the Act stipulates are the administrative heads of public schools. Jimerson et al. (2012) argue that schools are tools that can be utilised to reduce and manage school-based violence and antisocial behaviours. Principals are tasked with the responsibility of ensuring that teaching and learning take place in their respective places of primary assignment, and of effectively managing factors that adversely affect their core duty (Bester & Du Plessis 2010). The task of managing school-based violence would be made easier if school principals and other stakeholders, such as heads of departments, educators, SGB members, and parents understood the root causes of the violence.

Managing school-based violence requires a system of shared common values that involves the entire school community uniting to achieve the common goal of reducing the level of violence in the school. Squelch (2001) argues that although managing school-based violence is a complex task, it can be controlled in an environment that is adequately

protected with well-designed access control, with school structures in good condition, and with well-maintained recreational facilities. For instance, high learner enrolment and large class sizes affect the organisation of work in school, and can lead to educators losing control of their classes.

Burton (2008) suggests a whole-school approach in tackling the problem of school-based violence in South African schools. The approach looks at preventive intervention strategies that could involve all school stakeholders (learners, teachers, principals, SGBs and parents) in the maintenance of peace and order in school. Burton believes that an intervention strategy like this will produce a better result in managing school-based violence.

3.2.1 South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996

The South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (SASA) was enacted to promote teaching and learning in a democratic South Africa. This act was further designed to create a safe school environment that would help to reverse the bitter legacy of apartheid education, and unite all South African children of schoolgoing age (officially 7–15 years). SASA regulates the conduct of all persons within a school's premises, and outlines policies for the effective running of schools in South Africa. The Act was designed to create a safe school environment that promotes tuition and learning. However, it must be acknowledged that no school environment can be made completely safe. Because of the multifaceted nature of school-based violence, it cannot be eradicated completely but it can be reduced.

Karlsson (2002) states that the core objective of the introduction of governing bodies to public schools was to democratise public schools, in line with the statement in the DoE's Education White Paper 2 that "governance policy for public schools is based on the core values of democracy" (DoE 1996: 16). The democratisation of public schools through the creation of SGBs provided a platform for all stakeholders in public schools to unite to govern the schools through their respective representatives, and was a step in the right direction towards reducing indiscipline and inequalities, as well as maintaining adequate utilisation of school funds and the creation of a safe school environment that would

promote teaching and learning. The following sections examine specific aspects of SASA that promote pro-social behaviours in high schools that lead to safe school environments.

3.2.1.1 Possession of alcohol

The Basic Education Laws Amendment Act No. 15 of 2011, section 4(3)(4) (Republic of South Africa, 2011) stipulates the following: "No educator, parent or learner, and any other persons, may possess (a) alcohol; (b) illegal drugs; (c) any illegal substance; or (d) dangerous objects, during any school activity". Burton (2008) notes with concern that because the alcohol, drugs and weapons that learners bring into schools come from their homes and the community at large, it is crucial in addressing these issues that the communities are involved, if the prevention strategies are to succeed. Seedat, Van Niekerk, Jewkes, Suffla, and Ratele (2009) argue that the widespread violence in South African communities that overflows into high schools is a result of access to firearms, alcohol and drugs, a feeble culture of law enforcement, and a general inability to ensure citizens' basic safety.

This section of the Act could be seen as one of its most important aspects, as it helps to regulate the conduct of all persons within the high school environment by deterring antisocial behaviour that may lead to violence, particularly behaviour that could be attributed to the consumption of drugs or any intoxicant.

3.2.1.2 School safety

Chapter 2(5A)(2)(a) of SASA specifies the security perimeter that every school in the Republic must have to safeguard learners and educators. This subsection is designed to ensure efficient and effective access control of all persons who come onto the school premises, and to protect the school from violent intruders. Many high schools today use metal detectors to reduce the likelihood of violent incidents by preventing firearms and other dangerous weapons from coming onto school premises (Catalano, Loeber, & McKinney, 1999). This task is effectively implemented through a central entry and exit system. These measures are crucial, as matters of school safety and learners' positive self-control create the groundwork for all stakeholders to have confidence in a school environment that promotes teaching and learning (Hattal & Hattal, 2002; Fiore, 2006).

3.2.1.3 Search and seizure within the school premises

The Education Laws Amendment Act No. 31 of 2007 (Republic of South Africa, 2007), section 8a, addresses the issue of the random search and seizure of unauthorised items on the school premises. These items include drugs, weapons and other dangerous substances. This Act empowers principals to search for and seize any of the items mentioned above in any situation where the principal has reasonable reason to believe that learners' and teachers' lives are at risk. The word "school activity" was redefined in section 1(c) as "all official school activities within and outside of the school premises". This expansion of the definition of "school" means that a learner can be searched within or outside the school premises, as long as it is an official school engagement, and any unauthorised item may be seized. It is necessary that these measures are in place when trying to reduce the risk factors for school-based violence.

3.2.1.4 Corporal punishment

Chapter 2(10) (1) & (2) of SASA, subsection 10(1), completely prohibits corporal punishment in high schools. Subsection 10(2) states that any person who contravenes subsection 10(1) is guilty of a crime and could be convicted on the same penalty as assault. Gershoff (2010) posits that the effects of corporal punishment on a learner overshadow the gains of instant child obedience. Gershoff further asserts that resorting to corporal punishment to reduce aggressiveness and antisocial behaviour in a learner does not produce a positive result; instead it increases antisocial behaviour and aggressiveness, and the likelihood of violence. Marais and Meier (2010) caution that school-based violence often occurs in schools as a result of learners not being able to control their anger and emotional problems, some of which stem from their encounters and experiences with corporal punishment.

Conversely, Venter and Van Niekerk (2011) assert that the eradication of corporal punishment is one of the core reasons for the increase in school-based violence in South African schools. They state that teachers believe that their authority has been completely eroded. However, in most countries corporal punishment has been abolished in schools due to its unproductive effect over time on a learner's development (Payet & Franchi, 2008). In October 2000 the incumbent South African Minister of Education, Kader Asmal,

released a document titled "Alternatives to corporal punishment: the learning experience". This document explicitly states (Burton, 2008: 12):

> The alternative way of implementing discipline in the classroom is regarded as establishing ground rules, implementing the rules in a consistent way, getting to know the learners in the class, managing the learning environment enthusiastically and professionally, and allowing learners to take responsibility.

South Africa's endorsement of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, has cemented the government's commitment to the protection of learners from violence. However, there is evidence that corporal punishment is still practised in some South African schools (Burton, 2008).

3.2.1.5 Code of conduct

Chapter 2(8) (1) & (2) of SASA contains regulations pertaining to the code of conduct of learners in school:

> (1) All public schools must espouse a code of conduct for learners after talks with learners, teachers and parents/guardians. (2) The code of conduct referred to in (1) above must be directed towards discipline and creating a safe school environment that promotes tuition and learning.

Preuss (2010) describes a code of conduct as a number of ethical, social and environmental challenges that must be observed and overcome in school to create a safe climate that promotes teaching and learning, and to reduce school-based violence. The introduction of a code of conduct in high schools moderates the behaviour of learners at school. It further serves as a collective agreement amongst stakeholders to behave appropriately while at school. Such a collectively agreed upon code of conduct could lead to a reduction in school-based violence.

3.3 School governing board as a tool in managing school-based violence

The SGBs of public schools were established under SASA, chapter 3(16) (1) & (2). SASA explicitly states that the governance of public schools shall be vested in its governing body

and that the body shall stand in a position of trust towards the schools. An SGB is a body that is made up of parents, the school principal, teachers, and non-teaching staff who collaborate with professional management to ensure the smooth running of the school. They are tasked with the responsibility of ensuring safety and order in the school. Squelch (2001) states that SGBs play a very important role in the running of a public school, and emphasises that SGBs have a legal duty to ensure that schools are safe, protected and conducive to teaching and learning by ensuring that the necessary policies, procedures and structures are in place.

According to Squelch (2001), SGBs are largely made up of parents who enforce discipline on their children, and who could therefore potentially assist in coordinating discipline between home and school. Resistance from parents on school-based policies can be reduced, especially concerning pro-social policies to create a violence-free school environment. This is achieved through resolutions taken in parents' meetings, which are later implemented by professional managers in collaboration with the SGB. Section 15 of SASA states that "every public school is a juristic person with a legal capacity to perform its functions in terms of the Act". This means that schools can sue and be sued, which empowers public schools to do whatever is legally possible to instil discipline and to provide basic infrastructure that would reduce school-based violence, and increase the quality of tuition and learning in a safe school environment.

Serfontein (2010) points out that the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996b), confers on all citizens the right to basic education. However, the state alone cannot carry out this function, which requires established structures and instruments. The SGB is one such structure intended to create an enabling environment that will promote tuition and learning in a violence-free school setting. Squelch (2001) posits that high school SGBs possess a legal obligation to safeguard schools, and to ensure that teaching and learning are conducted in a safe environment. Through the necessary policies, procedures and structures, the objectives of the SGB could be achieved.

Empowering SGBs to carry out the financial and budgetary functions of schools has helped to reduce mismanagement of school financial allocations (Karlsson, 2002). This has enabled high schools to provide basic amenities and certain other safety structures intended to reduce the likelihood of school-based violence and of corruption on the part of school management. Mestry (2006) maintains that SASA clearly outlines how SGBs and school principals should collaborate in the management of school funds. This is to ensure financial transparency and accountability. It would be beneficial for members of the SGB or the principal to have financial accounting knowledge in order to produce transparent financial reports. Mestry further revealed that SGBs and principals have sometimes been invited to the DoE for a forensic audit as a result of mismanagement of funds.

The pairing of SGBs and professional managers to handle the financial administration of public schools serves as a "check and balance" on the financial situation of public schools (Mncube, 2009). Neither of these bodies can take a financial decision without due consultation with the other, which ensures more prudent financial decisions on school expenditure. The relationship between prudent school expenditure and school-based violence can be seen in relation to the maintenance of school infrastructure. Well-maintained infrastructure reduces risk factors and increases protective factors (Burton, 2008). For example, funds saved through prudent spending can be used for the provision of decent toilets for boys and girls a distance apart, and for soccer fields, basketball courts and other recreational facilities, which work to reduce risk factors for school-based violence (Aisenberg & Herrenkohl, 2008).

3.3.1 The role of the School Governing Body

The role of the School Governing Body is very important in the running of public schools and is outlined in the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (SASA), which states that SGBs must:

> 20. (1) (g) administer and control the school's property, and buildings and grounds occupied by the school …
> (k) … allow the reasonable use under fair conditions of the facilities of the school for educational programmes not conducted by the school;
> (2) … allow the reasonable use of the facilities of the school for community,

social and school fund-raising purposes, subject to such reasonable and equitable conditions as the governing body may determine, which may include the charging of a fee or tariff which accrues to the school.

21. (1) (a) … maintain and improve the school's property, and buildings and grounds occupied by the school…. (Republic of South Africa, 1996b, sections 20 and 21)

3.3.2 Constituting the School Governing Body

Constituting an SGB is purely a democratic process. SASA stipulates that SGB elections must be held every three years and must be overseen by a district electoral officer appointed by the DoE. SGBs are statutory bodies, according to SASA, and stand in a locus of trust towards the schools. Every school appoints an electoral officer who oversees the election of the SGB members, and the electoral officer must be a member of the school management team (SMT). SGB members must be learners, educators and non-educators working at the school, and parents or guardians whose children are currently in the school. Nominations are made for various positions in the SGB by stakeholders, followed by the election of candidates into the various designated positions.

3.3.3 Section 20 and Section 21 schools in South Africa

There are different classes and categories of schools in South Africa, but for the purposes of the study, the researcher discusses two: Section 20 and Section 21 schools. Karlsson (2002) argues that the core reason for public schools' governance reforms was mainly to ensure the democratisation of public schools. The ills of apartheid necessitated school reforms designed to empower the disadvantaged majority of Africans with a high school education. Section 21 schools manage their own fund allocations from the DoE through their governing body, and are "no-fee" schools that strongly encourage children to attend school regardless of their family's financial position (Karlsson, 2002). In line with SASA, the macroeconomic conditions of the community in which the schools are located are considered before determining whether schools should be classified as Section 20 or Section 21. Section 21 schools are mostly situated in economically disadvantaged communities with a high level of unemployment (I.J. Prinsloo, 2005). The funds for the running of Section 20 schools are held and managed by the DoE, unlike Section 21 schools

whose funds are deposited into the school account and managed by the school through the governing body.

The Section 20 SGBs are vested with more responsibility and powers to run the school in line with school policies, with due consultation with the DoE, and can determine school fees. Section 21 SGBs are tasked with fewer responsibilities and can only exempt learners from paying school fees. They cannot determine school fees since the schools are "no-fee" schools.

3.4 Challenges facing high school managers in managing school-based violence

Research has shown that school-based violence is a multifaceted phenomenon that requires a diverse managerial approach to contain. In the following sections, the researcher looks at various school-based challenges facing school managers in the management of school-based violence in South Africa, and generally. School managers in this context comprise an SGB and a professional manager, as stipulated in SASA.

3.4.1 Cultural diversity

South Africa is a country of different races and cultures, which sometimes produces conflicting norms and values that have the potential to generate friction and to lead to school-based violence. Greenberg (2004) maintains that controlling learners from diverse cultural backgrounds remains a challenge in managing school-based violence. Greenberg further states that many learners lack the social and emotional competence to deal constructively with cultural conflicts, and as a result become less connected to school. As a learner feels more disconnected from the school, the likelihood of the learner engaging in antisocial behaviour could increase. Catalano, Haggerty, Oesterle, et al. (2004) emphasise that school bonding is one of the core pro-social factors to reduce antisocial behaviour and increase positive behaviour in a child's developmental process.

Similarly, increased school bonding could enhance learner-teacher relationships. Chen and Astor (2011) assert that the bonds formed in positive learner-teacher relationships could strengthen the protective factors that reduce school-based violence, while problematic

learner-teacher relationships could increase the types of antisocial behaviour that may lead to school-based violence. Elias et al. (1997) define social-emotional learning as the process of acquiring core competencies to recognise and manage emotions, to set and achieve positive goals, to appreciate the perspectives of others, to establish and maintain positive relationships, to make responsible decisions, and to handle interpersonal situations constructively.

The inability of learners from diverse backgrounds to build social and emotional skills increases their likelihood of disconnecting from school (Herrenkohl, Kosterman, Hawkins, & Mason, 2009). This disconnection increases the likelihood of antisocial behaviours in school that could lead to school-based violence. The challenge for school managers is the lack of a single policy that can accommodate all the learners from diverse backgrounds (Freidenfelt Liljeberg, Eklund, Väfors Fritz et al., 2011).

3.4.2 Classroom management

Classroom management is the ability of a teacher to adopt strategies and skills that will maintain an environment conducive to learning (K.P. Allen, 2010). Strategies in this context include adopting disciplinary measures to influence and control negative behaviours in class that could lead to chaos and subsequently to school-based violence. Experienced teachers adopt strategies "for establishing rules and procedures, organizing groups, monitoring and pacing classroom events, and reacting to misbehaviour" (Borko & Putnam, 1995: 41). It is a complex task for teaching and learning to take place in a chaotic environment, and upholding a progressive and productive classroom remains a challenge (Barbetta, Norona, & Bicard, 2005). This can be attributed to a number of factors, such as the emotional state of a learner at a particular point in time, drug and alcohol abuse, and violent influences from the community.

The loss of class control could lead to chaos and subsequently to school-based violence, and the researcher concurs that class management remains a significant challenge in the management of school-based violence. Violence begets violence; when a learner disrupts a class and challenges a teacher, the teacher could respond with anger, and if the situation is not well managed then chaos could erupt and violence could ensue that would affect the

community if not well managed. A teacher's class management abilities can be evaluated according to the outcomes of whatever transpires in the classroom (Milner & Tenore, 2010). It cannot be overemphasised that the possession of effective class management skills remains an added advantage for educators in increasing protective factors in schools. It is vitally important that teachers be trained and re-trained in class management skills to reduce the menace of school-based violence.

3.4.3 Information dissemination

Communication is vital in the management of school-based violence in high schools. Information about trends in school-based violence and about preventive strategies should be shared amongst professional managers. Botvin (2004) notes with concern that disseminating information on evidence-based prevention programmes is one of the challenges faced by school managers in combating school-based violence. Communicating evidence-based prevention programmes and promoting the adoption of these programmes to reduce school-based violence remain formidable tasks for school managers and teachers who are struggling with adopting information communication technologies. Buabeng-Andoh (2012) argues that despite huge educational investment in information and communication technologies (ICT) by the DoE, school managers and teachers still lack adequate knowledge of and familiarity with ICT. The researcher attributes the challenges that high school managers face in disseminating information on evidence-based prevention programmes and the adoption of violence prevention initiatives, to this lack of ICT knowledge.

Botvin (2004) further posits that school managers' and teachers' failure to use ICT technologies could be attributed to the following factors: lack of teacher confidence, lack of pedagogical teacher training, lack of suitable educational software, limited access to ICT, the rigid structure of traditional education systems, and restrictive curricula. Effective information sharing or networking could facilitate the reduction of school-based violence in high schools.

3.4.4 Implementation fidelity

The distribution of an evidence-based school violence prevention programme is a step in the right direction towards combating school-based violence in high schools. However, another challenge remains in the implementation fidelity of school violence prevention initiatives. Botvin (2004) points out that high fidelity in the implementation of school-based prevention initiatives and adoption would produce a far better outcome that would reduce school-based violence in high schools, while poor fidelity would produce an ineffective violence prevention programme. Implementation fidelity can simply be described as the process of problem solving, where most factors that will facilitate the effectiveness of the implementation initiative are rightly positioned (Schoenwald et al., 2011). Some of the factors that facilitate implementation fidelity include lack of training and support, limited resources, classroom overcrowding, classroom management and disciplinary problems, low teacher morale and burnout, multiple competing demands, and insufficient time (Botvin, 2004). Elliott and Mihalic (2004) conclude that an important determination should be made to encourage implementation fidelity and realm programme integrity.

According to Breitenstein (2010), the absence of an effective structure to implement and monitor school-based violence preventive initiatives and policies could lead to low fidelity implementation. The absence of an effective school-based violence management intervention programme, such as ensuring a secure and well-fenced school, could result in low implementation fidelity.

3.4.5 The inadequacies of school governing bodies in school management

SASA gave substantial powers to SGBs in the running of public schools. Professional managers are prohibited from taking core decisions that affect their school without due consultation with and the subsequent approval of the SGBs. Much of the research carried out on the management of school-based violence has not adequately addressed the strategic role of SGBs in the running of public schools in South Africa (Welsh, 2000; Rensburg, 2010; Samuel, 2014). The researcher is of the opinion that delays in taking decisions pertaining to school-based violence issues have contributed to the inability of school managers to contain such violence. The absence of the required capacity to function as

SGB members can also contribute to the increase of school-based violence in South African schools (Squelch, 2001). Squelch maintains that managerial and administrative experiences are not being considered in the nomination of members for the SGB. This could simply mean that only people who have spare time to attend school meetings and other school activities are nominated onto the boards, and consequently managerial skills, administrative experience and competence are sacrificed for availability and the mere presence of individuals.

It seems that SGB members do not understand their roles, duties and liabilities in the running of a public school, and as such the task of combating violence in schools is hindered (Squelch, 2001). SASA outlines how schools' finances should be managed (Mestry, 2006). It also offers a blueprint for the roles and tasks of SGBs and professional managers in handling the finances of public schools. The provision of basic structures in schools is said to reduce risk factors and increase protective factors; since the provision of these amenities is dependent upon finance, it is not clear who should take the financial decisions and play a vital role in the effective running of the school. The views of the SGB and professional managers could differ in terms of what constitutes security, risk and basic infrastructure. These differences in views constitute a hindrance in the effective management of school-based violence.

In *Schoonbee & others v MEC for Education, Mpumalanga and another (Unreported case no. 33750/01) (T),* the MEC alleged that the principal of a high school in Ermelo had misappropriated the school funds, and the principal was charged accordingly. Findings in this case concluded that there were conflicting opinions about whether the principal or the SGB in fact shoulders the responsibility and accountability for public schools' finances. Such confusion can cause administrative disarray and increase the risk factors for violent behaviour. Where there is no financial prudence on the part of the SGB and the principal, implementation of financial policies and decisions suffers, which could increase certain risk factors that cause school-based violence.

3.5 Coping strategies in the management of school-based violence

Much research has been carried out on the coping strategies of learners who are victims of school-based violence. However, little research has been conducted on coping strategies for school managers in combating school violence on a daily basis. This aspect of the study looks at coping strategies and coping techniques for school managers in managing violence in high schools in the context of uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal. The importance of reviewing coping strategies and coping techniques in this study is to provide principals with the skills and tools to manage stress and reduce school-based violence in high schools. Allison (1997) rightly concludes that the job of a principal is filled with uncertainties. There are school-based violence issues that cannot be managed by the direct application of typical operating procedures and fixed, unchanging strategies.

Principals who are creative are therefore guaranteed to be more successful than those who cannot cope with the exigencies of being a principal, and more especially, with managing school-based violence (Astor, Benbenishty, & Estrada, 2009). Coping is the ability of an individual to rebound and recuperate from an incident that is traumatic (WHO, 1999). Lazarus (1993) defines coping as an individual's continuous dynamic emotional and behavioural ability to contain specific external or internal anxieties. School-based violence does not only affect the victims but also those who witness the crime being committed, or people who witnessed the extent of harm in terms of assault on victims (bodily injury); principals therefore always witness the situation in some way. McGee (2003) argues that studies on coping strategies and behaviour problems among learners have shown that emotionally-focused coping is associated with distress and behavioural problems, whereas problem-focused coping is linked with constructive behavioural outcomes.

3.5.1 Problem-focused coping strategy

A problem-focused coping strategy embraces functions like planning, coordinating, organising, strategizing, and making an effort to normalise a chaotic situation in a school. Accordingly, a problem-focused coping strategy encompasses fixing the delinquent situation at school to create an environment that will promote teaching and learning (A.B. Allen & Leary, 2010). McGee (2003) clearly states that a problem-focused coping strategy

could lead to constructive behavioural outcomes. A problem-focused coping strategy is focused on constructive problem-solving attitudes and skills that will increase protective factors and decrease risk factors (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2010). When protective factors are increased, it creates a safer school environment that promotes teaching and learning.

However, the creation of a safe school environment requires identifying the problem areas and developing strategies to solve them to promote teaching and learning. D. Mitchell (2004) posits that a problem-focused coping strategy is designed to change alleged stress by employing straight action when situations are urgent and are able to be changed. A typical example could be when a principal stops two high school learners from fighting using dangerous weapons. The intervention by the principal was a straight action and the continuation of the fight might leave one of the learners seriously injured. The problem-focused coping strategy largely depends on decision making and the alteration of relationships to be effective to achieve the desired result (Williams & McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2000: 538–539; Büyükşahin, 2009: 709).

The problem-focused coping strategy relies on creativity, on developing new acceptable behavioural standards and on embracing social change to be effective. Effectiveness in this context means that protective factors to reduced school-based violence are increased.
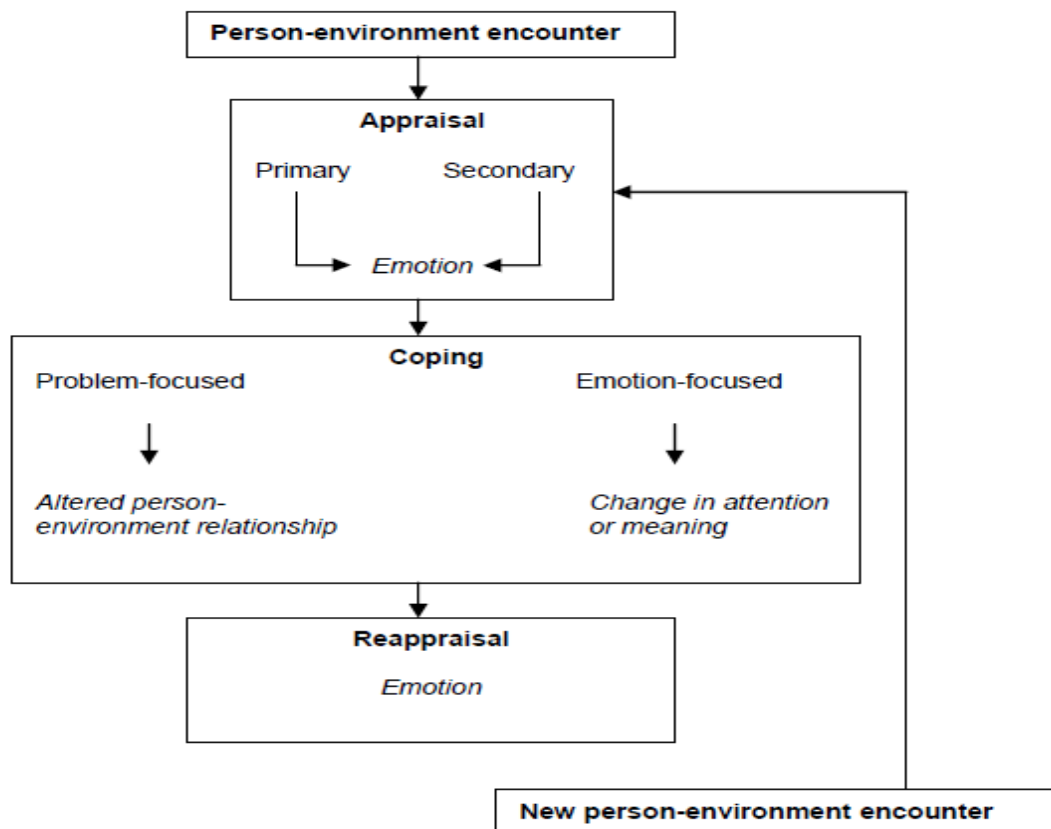
Figure 5: The transactional model of coping and stress
Source: Adapted from Folkman & Lazarus (1988: 467)

Problem-focused coping could be adopted when a stressor is evaluated to be dangerous, harmful and challenging, and where there is a solution at hand (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter et al., 1986: 993; Renk & Creasy, 2003: 160; D. Mitchell, 2004: 10). There are two types of problem-focused coping strategies: (1) behavioural (outward-directed), and (2) cognitive (inward-directed) (Goodkind et al., 2009). The outward-directed strategy looks at various ways in which learners' behaviours can be changed from being antisocial to pro-social. The inward-directed approach looks at the individual's skills and attitudes towards school-based violence (Goodkind et al., 2009).

3.5.2 Emotion-focused coping strategy

Emotion-focused coping involves controlling stressful emotions by ignoring the issue, withdrawing, or engaging in antisocial behaviour (Williams & McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 2000: 538; Büyükşahin, 2009: 709). D. Mitchell (2004) posits that emotion-focused

coping strategies concentrate on the inner emotional state of an individual rather than on the external conditions that have triggered the emotions. The researcher is of the opinion that the issue of school-based violence cannot be dealt with effectively by using emotion-focused coping strategies. It is an issue that none of the stakeholders can afford to ignore or withdraw from, as it is imperative that any forms of harm be avoided. Furthermore, in a school environment it is almost impossible for teachers and principals to understand the emotional state of learners to the extent of being able to moderate any behaviour that could lead to school-based violence.

The inability of emotion-focused coping strategies to control school-based violence is further cemented by Agnew (2001), who suggests that listening to music and relaxation are conventional strategies for solving problems in an emotion-based way. Such strategies cannot be applied in a school environment because they will obstruct teaching and learning. Problem-focused coping seems to be a better approach to tackling the problem of school-based violence in high schools. Emotion-focused coping strategies would be strategically inappropriate for dealing with school-based violence, because many situations require instant intervention and quick decisions in order for them not to escalate and affect the community.

3.6 Coping techniques in school-based violence

Professional managers should be aware of current violent trends in society in order to function effectively in their jobs. Allison (1997) points out that school principals experience very tiring and volatile working conditions on a daily basis, with learners, teachers and parents eager to see them for various reasons. Allison further argues that principals are overworked, and are constantly under pressure from work, and as a result of complex school-based problems, the issue of violence in the school environment being one of them. Allison (1997) describes stress as the reaction of an individual whose work demands surpass the available resources needed to take control of a complex situation.

School principals and teachers are known to experience serious physical and emotional burnout in the process of performing their teaching duties while attempting to control learners' antisocial behaviours in an effort to avoid violent conflict. According to Brock

and Grady (2002), principals and teachers who suffer protracted and remorseless stress are contenders for burnout. Burnout can be described as a condition of bodily and emotional exhaustion which may include the development of negative attitudes towards their job, a poor professional self-concept, and low empathetic concern for clients (learners and parents) (Mukundan & Khandehroo, 2010). Working in school environments with such high levels of occupational stress could lead to teachers' developing physical or psychological illnesses if the conditions that cause the occupational stress and the stress responses themselves are not well managed (Allison, 1997).

This research study explores two coping techniques that can be employed by high school principals and other stakeholders involved in the day-to-day management of antisocial behaviours in the school environment: stress-management techniques and stressor-management techniques can assist principals and teachers to overcome burnout.

3.6.1 Stress-management techniques

Stress management techniques involve having a faithful perspective on issues when they occur, keeping a progressive attitude, and adopting a physical health programme. Increased spiritual and social involvement will also assist in stress management (Allison, 1997). Varvogli and Darviri (2011) rightly conclude that exercise, such as soccer, tennis or the many other games that involve continuous movement, reduces stress and anxiety. They argue that stress management techniques are not only meant for people who are experiencing stress at work, but for healthy people too, as they are an effective health-protection tool that could enhance an individual's life span. The following stress management techniques could be adopted by school managers: abdominal breathing, progressive muscular relaxation and concentrating on relaxing imagery. Autogenic training and biofeedback are other well-known techniques for relaxation and stress management (Kang, 2011).

Kang explains that recreation and reflection are effective in improving health and general wellbeing, and in supplementing the treatment approaches of numerous chronic diseases, such as cardiac illnesses and cancer. Bradshaw (1991) states that teaching is a career that frequently leaves teachers psychologically exhausted, even if they are not physically

exhausted, and advocates exercise (which he describes as "nature's best relaxer") to balance the mind and body. Exercise can improve an individual's mood and regulate his or her emotions, and a continuous exercise culture could provide teachers and management with the energy required to deal in a hands-on way with incidents of violence at school.

3.6.2 Stressor-management techniques

Time management, increased involvement at work, and training are some stressor-management techniques that can be adopted by principals in managing school-based violence in high schools (Allison, 1997). Many teachers and principals find time management difficult as a result of increasingly higher demands from learners and the community in the quest for better academic results (Hawkins & Klas, 1997; Teuchmann, Totterdell, & Parker, 1999; Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002). Time management is the effective and efficient combination of time assessment, goal setting, planning, and monitoring of school-based activities to create a safe school environment (Häfner & Stock, 2010). Effective time management on the part of principals could free them up to attend to urgent school-based conflict timeously, be it learner-learner conflict, teacher-learner conflict, or teacher-teacher conflict.

Stressors can be reduced through training and workshops, for example learning how to conduct a meeting, how to gain community support and how to apply established approaches of conflict resolution (Allison, 1997). Mrozek (2005) states that stressors are continually visible in the education profession, and suggests that teachers should be trained to manage stress effectively in order to function optimally. It is obvious that teachers can manage stress and function effectively if they are trained in the appropriate skills to overcome the stressor. The researcher believes that the DoE as the employer of teachers in public schools should embark on a continuous process of training and retraining teachers. This training should be designed to equip teachers with the relevant skills to overcome stressors, which could lead to a reduction in the level of school-based violence in high schools.

A-Acknowledge B- Behaviour Modification C - Communication

Figure 6: The ABCs of managing teacher stress
Source: Nagel & Brown (2003)

The ABC model of managing teacher stress is shown in Figure 6. The model advocates the acknowledgement of the stress upon the teacher as the first step, embracing behaviour modification as the second step, and communication with learners and other stakeholders as the final step (Nagel & Brown, 2003). Research has shown that there will be a tremendous increase in the demand for teachers in years to come (Amid teacher shortages, 2001), and that this demand will not be able to be met if the issues that affect teacher retention are not adequately addressed. Nagel and Brown (2003) insist that the greatest threat to the retention of teachers remains the increasing level of stress experienced by them. This increase could be related to the high increase of antisocial behaviours in high school, and the associated increase in school-based violence (Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). The ABC stress management model reveals strategies that teachers can adopt to reduce burnout as a result of stress.

3.6.2.1 First step: A – Acknowledge

The first step teachers should take in managing their stress is to acknowledge what is causing their stress. Teachers' most common sources of stress include lack of time (Kyriacou, 1987), poor relationships with colleagues and principals (Troman, 2000), large class size (Trendall, 1989), inadequate resources (Chaplain, 1995), heavy workload (Borg, 1990), poor student behaviour (Friedman, 1995), adapting to change (Kyriacou, 2001), and role conflict (Pearlin, 1989). Stress factors vary from teacher to teacher, and what constitutes stress for teacher X could be different from what constitutes stress for teacher Y. Identifying the stress factors enables a teacher to apply the appropriate coping strategy to overcome the stress. Acknowledging the stress factors remains a vital step in overcoming stress-related issues.

3.6.2.2 Second step: B – Behaviour

Homeostasis is attained by teachers when they embrace different approaches in their quest to manage stress (Nagel & Brown, 2003). Physical exercise as mentioned above helps an individual develop resilience to stress, as it assists in the reduction of stress hormones. Studies have shown that the release of stress hormones is drastically reduced in physically fit people (Winder & Heinger, 1973). It is also necessary for individuals like teachers to take some time and rest quietly, and reflect on the things that create emotional balance and reduce stress. The success of this step in the ABC stress-management model depends on the individual's willingness and openness to change within the immediate environment, such as embracing time management on work-related issues, approaching challenges creatively and reframing the stressor to have a neutral or positive impact on them. Winder and Heinger (1973) further posit that the use of body language in communication by teachers could prevent stress or, in situations where stress cannot be prevented, minimize it.

3.6.2.3 Third step: C – Communication

A teacher's body language sends messages to the learners that influence their behaviour and self-regulation (Nagel & Brown, 2003). Docking (1985) observe that there is a relationship between a teacher's level of anxiety and the behaviour of the learners in the class. He further explains that when a teacher feels stressed, the learners also start to feel stressed, and this in turn exacerbates the stress level of the teacher. The teaching profession is strongly involved with emotions, and a teacher's moods and body language can be read easily by learners, and can affect them positively or negatively. Teaching is more effective when a teacher is happy and displays positive body language to the learners. It has been established that active stress management can reduce teacher burnout and increase academic performance; increased academic performance, in turn, could reduce school-based violence in high schools (Nagel & Brown, 2003). The ABC stress management model should be embraced by all teachers because it is a simple model that may help to improve class management, increase academic performance and reduce school-based violence. Increased class engagement could reduce antisocial behaviours, and thus reduce the likelihood of school violence.

3.7 Networking as a strategic tool in managing school-based violence

This study evaluates the importance of networking for high school principals in the management of school violence. De Klerk (2010) describes networking as a set of nodes which are aimed at solving matters of common interest. In this case, the common interest for principals would be the problem of school-based violence that obstructs the administration and effective running of schools, and which impacts on teaching and learning negatively. Networking can also be defined as team work designed to solve a complex task. We live in a dynamic environment where micro and macro environments affect each other and influence the activities that occur in the systems and sub-systems. As these environments change, so do the problem-solving approaches for principals, who have to institute changes in order to increase protective factors in their schools. The need for networking becomes even more urgent in the quest to overcome the complex challenges inherent in the management of school violence (Fazel et al., 2012).

The conceptualisation and operationalisation of networks has been discussed by numerous scholars from a variety of disciplines. Recent scholarly writings consider networks to be "effective instruments to demystify complexities in nature and society" (Aduojo, 2010: 98). Contemporary social logic has entrenched the notion of networking as a product of the Internet age, suitable only for the younger generation (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). This development can probably be associated with the growth of short messaging services (SMS) into a multi-billion dollar industry, and of social media platforms. The idea of networking has more recently been utilised in Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) to denote the connectedness of two or more computers to enhance efficient information sharing (Aduojo, 2010). Companies like Facebook, Twitter, Yahoo and Google are key players in this new social networking establishment.

Kenis and Schneider (1991) further note that microbiologists consistently refer to cells as information networks, while ecologists conceptualise the living environment as a network of systems. Aduojo (2010: 36) rightly notes that the "concept of a network is developed and widely used in science"; within the context of this study there is an added component, which is that of the social dimension. Social networking is viewed as a physical or virtual network of individuals within society generally, and in the corporate environment,

specifically (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). The crux of the notion of a social network is human connectivity, and much like human society itself, the social network has been the object of study in several fields of enquiry, namely, sociology, political studies, policy and developmental studies (Duggan & Smith, 2013). Although, with the advent of the Internet and social networking sites, attention has seemingly drifted away from the important notion of personal relationships, it remains true that these sites would not qualify as networking sites if, in essence, they did not function to bring about the increased socialisation of people within a particular setting (Mangold & Faulds, 2009).

The foundational idea in social networking, therefore, concerns every form of social tie. Zaaiman (2006: 8) defines networking as "a complex set of personal and professional connections between individuals". Several studies have classified social networking into two main groups: a personal social network, in which one individual is the cynosure of every other individual's attention, and in some cases, respect; and group social networking, in which every participant receives as much attention as everyone else and carries the responsibility for sustaining the network. It is the latter group that, according to Atkinson and Moffat (2005: 12), helps us to discover who we are and, in the process, to define our existential selves.

Networking reinforces our ability to function better in certain critical arenas, such as that of school-based violence. Atkinson and Moffatt (2005) further contend that individuals within such networks often consciously find it mutually beneficial to remain in the network, since by definition social networking is an inter-relational facility that unites people who share similar values, beliefs and information, and who generally trust each other within the same social networks. One of the areas in which the use of social networking has shown itself to be a useful tool is in the area of managerial abilities (Chou et al., 2009). Rouse (2006) explains social networking as the practice of expanding the number of one's business and/or social contacts by making connections through individuals. In the corporate context, networking provides a useful technique, albeit an informal one, to broaden one's customer base and also to allow for consultation with other top officials, in order to seek organisational opinions and solutions to complex school-based violence issues.

Social networking in terms of organisational behaviour implies that apart from the formal work relationships between or among employees and employers of the same organisation, or even across organisations and industries, informal and traditionally freer spaces in which people share their thoughts and inspirations, as well as their professional problems, are helpful and engender after-hours relationships. Social capital refers to the effects of social relationships that were derived from the roles played by those individuals in question (Van der Walt et al., 2009). Atkinson and Moffat (2005) explain that since the members of such social networks retain their essential individuality, they tend to translate and interpret the information that they receive from the network in their own, unique ways, producing a unique set of effects as a result of the process. The particular way in which society regards the groups to which each member belongs also plays a part in how social capital is translated and internalised (Greene et al., 2011).

The reality is that one needs time to begin to belong and to develop one's belonging to such social networks. Social networking creates a community in which people become aware of each other's strengths and abilities, and are able to develop a certain amount of reliance on them (Ragins, Townsend & Mattis, 1998). Basically, social networks provide the tools for participants not only to rise to top-level managerial positions, but also to succeed in their chosen careers.

3.8 Theories of networking

The principle of networking in education comes largely from practitioners and researchers with a practical school-improvement focus and lacks a theoretical foundation (which is unsurprising in view of the applied nature of education as a field of inquiry). This theoretical base does exist outside of the field, in sociology, psychology, and business studies. These underlying theories have frequently been described by the shorthand ''network theory''. However, four distinct theoretical perspectives can be seen to make up the broader category: constructivist organisational theory, the theory of social capital, the ''New Social Movements'' theory and the Durkheimian network theory.

3.8.1 Constructivist organizational theory as a basis for networking

According to constructivist theory, organisations are sense-making systems creating shared perceptions and interpretations of reality. This means that each organisation will, to a certain extent, have its own unique perception of reality, albeit one that is anchored in its context (organisations are thus not free to construct an unanchored reality without failing). This sense-making function is essential for organisations to function effectively but runs the risk of becoming myopic, in that this shared perception of reality may be closed to external influences, and may lead to a disconnection with alternative realities and with the organisation's broader environment. It is this myopia that can be addressed through networking with other organisations or other external partners, who can provide access to a complementary cognition (Weick, 1995).

This ''myopia problem'' also means that the more uncertainty and complexity that exists in the environment, the more there is a need for collaboration to ensure that organisations are able to adopt the necessary competencies to cope with the complexity that surrounds and impacts on them (Nooteboom & Gilsing, 2004). This would certainly appear to be the case in education, and particularly for schools serving disadvantaged communities. The constructivist view of the organisation is connected to Vygotskian views of learning. Vygotsky posited that co-operation lies at the basis of learning, through the way in which interaction leads to the scaffolding that allows actors to achieve more than they would be able to do individually (Vygotsky, 1978).

Knowledge for Vygotsky, like for Piaget (Piaget & Inhelder, 2000), is embodied in actions and interactions with the environment and with others. In this sense, organisations are most likely to be effective where school managers form networking clusters or other collaborative arrangements, and are engaged in a process of social learning that occurs when actors who have a common interest in some subject or problem collaborate to share ideas, find solutions, and foster innovation. This view of collaborative ventures as communities of practice therefore presupposes that new knowledge emerges as groups work together towards the achievement of joint goals (Borgatti & Foster, 2003).

However, as organisations have complementary cognitions and a different sense of reality, collaboration, while often necessary, is by no means straightforward. In order for learning and growth to occur, collaborating organisations need to have sufficient cognitive distance for new insights to emerge, yet simultaneously need to be similar enough for dialogue to be possible and constructive (Nooteboom & Gilsing, 2004). Communication and collaboration between organisations over time will, however, lead to organisations becoming more similar to one another (Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, & Tsai, 2004). Social networking facilitates communication but could conversely encourage myopia in the collaborative. Constructivist organisational theory can clearly be linked to moves towards creating schools as learning communities, in that, from the constructivist point of view, this effort may be more successful if carried out by schools collaborating in a network rather than by schools acting alone.

School networks can therefore be said to fall within this model when they are formed primarily with the goal of knowledge creation, and are constructed in such a way as to allow optimal openness and collaboration. Regular contact between educators across schools and from all levels of the school hierarchy and relationships, based on the view that all schools in the network have a valuable contribution to make, would characterise this type of network.

3.8.2 Creating social capital as a basis for networking

A related theory on the importance of networking focuses on the value of networking and collaboration in creating social capital. Social capital contains three main elements: (1) resources embedded in a social context (2) that is accessed or mobilised and (3) in purposive action (Lin, 1999: 30). The value of networking from this perspective lies in its ability to harness resources held by other actors and to increase the flow of information in a network. Furthermore, a network can exert more influence on its social and political surroundings than individual actors (Lin, 1999). Social capital can also help spread innovation, which, according to Hargreaves and Tiggemann (2004), is best done through bottom-up networks that can both quickly link schools to innovators and may themselves lead to innovations that are more open to change and challenge, and less likely to ossify than top-down strategies.

Knowledge lies in different minds individually and collectively, and therefore networks are needed to increase effectiveness. The value of networking lies in spanning ''structural holes'' where information or skills are lacking (Burt, 1997).This makes collaboration a potentially fruitful strategy for all actors involved in a network, as each may in theory be able to span structural holes, something which becomes more likely when a network consists of several actors. From this perspective, networking can be unsuccessful where there is too strong an imbalance between actors in terms of the information or skills they possess, or where structural ties can imprison actors in negative behaviour patterns (Borgatti & Foster, 2003).

3.8.3 Creating networks as New Social Movements

The term ''New Social Movements'' was coined to describe the novel forms of social action (such as the environmental movement) that developed from the 1960s onwards. These are seen as far more fluid than traditional social movements (such as trade unions) and are characterised not so much by single insurrections as by a series of events, and by individuals linked together in various more or less informal and transient patterns (Juris, 2005). They thus form complex and heterogeneous network structures, in which actors no longer act as individuals but do so in a linked and interdependent way. Actors may have different values and beliefs but share the common goal of their movement (Diani, 2013).

New Social Movements are not built on traditional identities around class, ethnicity, or gender, but develop their own collective identity. They are also not constant, but leave structures and cultures behind when they disappear. They are often built around and dominated by activist leaders (Hadfield, 2005; Diani, 2013). Networks of schools can, according to Hadfield (2005), therefore be classified to some extent as New Social Movements, displaying as they do a number of these characteristics, such as transience, complexity, and the need to build up new identities for the network that are distinct from those of the individual schools (which may, for some schools, be a key motivator to become part of a network). The dominant role of activist leaders can likewise be seen in many school networks. However, a key distinction between New Social Movements and

school networks would, for most networks at least, appear to lie in the voluntary nature of the alliance (Diana, 2013).

While New Social Movements are seen to be formed from the bottom up, as a result of perceived common interests, this is only the case for some school networks, as many are formed at least in part in reaction to financial incentives or to some form of coercion from higher authorities. This perspective may provide interesting insights into networks that are bottom-up and values-driven or political in purpose, and the emphasis on the transience (Della Porta, 2013).

3.8.4 Avoiding organizational anomie as a basis for collaboration

Another perspective on the importance of collaboration is provided by looking at Durkheimian notions of anomie, which can be defined as malaise in individuals, characterised by an absence or diminution of standards and an associated feeling of alienation and purposelessness. Anomie commonly occurs when society has undergone or is undergoing rapid change, and when there is a significant discrepancy between the ideological theories and values individuals and society hold, and their actual practices (Durkheim, 1972; Giddens, 1986). According to Durkheim (1972), anomie results from a lack of strong ties and the regulation and integration that they bring. This double source of constraints is seen as positive for the individual if these constraints are balanced with clear benefits and can help the individual's health, as compared with a system of loose or no ties (Segre, 2004).

This concept can be usefully applied to schools facing challenging circumstances, which may find themselves in situations of considerable stress and change, with few links or ties to either other schools or to the community, and who are often struggling to balance the values of inclusiveness and social justice with the demands of performance and competition that are foisted upon them. Networking in this sense may therefore not merely be important for school improvement in the traditional sense but may have a positive impact on alleviating organisational anomie through providing integration and regulation with partner schools that may share similar values and goals. Failing schools may often show strong signs of the anomie described by Durkheim (1972), and their involvement in

collaboration may show elements of a wish for increased regulation and integration (e.g. Chapman & Harris, 2004; Muijs, Harris, Chapman, Stoll, & Russ, 2004). This may be seen as a willingness on the part of such schools to take part in networks even as an unequal partner, supported by perceived stronger schools.

Durkheimian network theory also links to education in its focus on one issue that does not feature strongly in theories prevalent in the business field: moral purpose. Educational research and theory are increasingly positing moral purpose as a key factor in the successful performance of educational organisations (Harris & Lambert, 2003). Durkheim, in his theories of networking, sees moral purpose as playing a similarly important role, in that ''moral density'', the taking into account of the impact on society of the work of individuals, is seen as key to avoiding anomie (Segre, 2004). This ties in to the views of many school improvers, who posit that effective leaders in education have a strong moral purpose that can move the school forward.

3.9 Strategies in preventing school-based violence

In all matters concerning children, the best interests of the child remain the most vital (Section 28 of the Bill of Rights). SASA highlights the right to a basic education of children between the ages of 7 and 15 years. The school environment should be safe to promote teaching and learning. However, the high rate of school-based violence has shown that learners in high schools are not adequately protected and the pledge to protect the best interests of the child has not been adhered to. Research has shown that there are no visible anti-violence strategies and policies in many South African schools (Netshitahame & Van Vollenhoven, 2002; Steyn & Janse van Rensburg, 2010).

Physical security structures like fences, adequate access control and CCTV cameras are part of visible security strategies that could be put in place to prevent school-based violence in high schools. School-based violence issues have metamorphosed into severe public health issues with physical, economic, social, and psychological impacts and consequences (Park-Higgerson, Perumean-Chaney, Bartolucci, Grimley, & Singh, 2008). There are many strategies designed to prevent school violence in South African schools. However this study will look at strategies in preventing school-based violence in high

schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. These strategies include the provision of basic infrastructure like playgrounds, and sick bays, partnerships with stakeholders, a school safety response team, a zero-tolerance approach to school violence issues, and the training of teachers and principals on school violence issues.

3.9.1 Provision of adequately maintained physical structures

The National School Safety Framework (NSSF, 1996) outlines safety issues that must be taken into consideration when drawing up safety policies for high schools. The DoE is committed to building safe and caring learning surroundings (NSSF, 1996). These safety measures include the fencing of the school, the structural design of the school to assist in eliminating dangerous areas in schools, and a policy to maintain the structures. Ward (2007) maintains that school infrastructure represents a vital unit in the safety of a school. DeJong (1994) insists that security measures such as adequate perimeter fencing, security guards and access control, maintenance of school buildings by replacing or repairing broken facilities, and keeping the campus clean and green, form part of violence-prevention strategies. The presence of the structural facilities mentioned above promotes pro-social behaviours and reduces antisocial behaviours that could lead to school-based violence in high schools.

3.9.2 Stakeholder commitment as a school-based violence prevention strategy

Co-operative relationships within and between all participants in school management (educators, administrators, staff, learners, families of learners and management) in high schools would make a great difference in the formation of a safe and vigorous school community that would reduce school-based violence. A partnership with the DoE would serve as a system of support and monitoring for the school (Griggs, 2002: 135; Rossouw & Stewart, 2008: 268). The collaboration with the DoE would also serve as a consultancy unit for clarity when there are complex school-based violence issues on which management seeks clarity.

A healthy working relationship with the local police would also provide additional security support for the school, and would facilitate effective search and seizures for drugs and

weapons on school premises, which could deter learners from carrying drugs and dangerous weapons on school premises (Leoschut & Burton, 2006; Masitsa, 2008). Research has shown that an effective partnership between the police and the community results in a sharp decrease in school-based violence (Rossouw & Stewart, 2008). This could be achieved through a free flow of information from the community to the police in relation to criminal activities, extreme antisocial behaviours on the part of individuals in the community, and the sale of drugs and other substances within the community. A positive working relationship with all stakeholders should lead to the identification of which stakeholder strengths can be exploited to develop policies that will create a safe school environment and reduce school-based violence in high schools.

3.9.3 Safety-response team as a school-based violence prevention strategy

Schools should develop a prevention and response plan against school-based violence (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998). Dwyer et al. (1998) state that it is not enough to develop strategies to curtail school-based violence, and that measures must be put in place to implement the developed strategies. A response team needs to be put in place to implement the strategies developed to create a safe school. When school violence preventive strategies are developed and supported by all stakeholders, the chances of that preventive strategy succeeding is high. It has been established that many school teachers and non-teaching staff are afraid to take action when faced with potentially violent situations in school (Dwyer et al., 1998). They explain that this is because they do not feel that they have the support of stakeholders to take decisions when faced with critical situations, and they feel that they will therefore be held personally accountable.

It is vital that the staff and stakeholders of public schools respond to violent situations promptly to prevent them from escalating (Peterson, Larson, & Skiba, 2001), and that all stakeholders be in a position to deal with the aftermath of the crisis. The researcher proposes that a response team be put in place to respond to issues of school-based violence when they occur. However, these teams must be well trained to repel attacks that may be committed with deadly weapons (Burton, 2008). CCTV cameras should be used to monitor the activities of the learners within the classrooms and on the playground. The use of monitoring gadgets will facilitate an efficient and quick response to distress calls, in order

to reduce causalities to the bare minimum. Emergency drills should be scheduled, demonstrated and implemented to teach stakeholders on the school premises how to respond to emergencies (Hill & Hill, 1994; Johns & Keenan, 1997).

A well-structured response team is an important tool for combating school-based violence. Media management should be part of the response team's prevention strategy so that communication with the media will be prompt when crises occur, in order to avoid confusion and sending the wrong signal to the public.

3.9.4 Training of stakeholders in a school violence prevention programme

The training of key school violence prevention agents, such as members of SGBs, principals and teachers, would increase their awareness, skills, and their motivation to successfully implement a school violence prevention programme (Fagan & Mihalic, 2003). Many studies have revealed that there is a relationship between educator training and programme success; proficient teachers implement school-based violence prevention programmes with superior fidelity (Connell, Turner, & Mason, 1985; Fors & Doster, 1985; McCormick, Steckler, & McLeroy, 1995). The implementation of school violence prevention programmes produces improved learner outcomes in terms of pro-social behaviours and improved academic performance (Taggart et al., 1990; Parcel et al., 1991; Ross, Luepker, Nelson, Saavedra, & Hubbard, 1991).

It is vital to provide updated training for teachers, principals and SGB members in subsequent years, in order to alert them to the important changes in school violence trends, to update them on the prevention strategies to be adopted, and to ensure a sustainable programme (Gingiss, 1992; Gager & Elias, 1997). The success of any well-designed school violence prevention programme lies in the integration of all stakeholders in the vision of the programme, and the commitment of all stakeholders to support the programme in its success (Gager & Elias, 1997). Any school-based violence prevention programme that is not supported by the community has a high likelihood of failure, and could encounter high levels of resistance. Mihalic (2009) notes with concern that the very concept of a school-based violence prevention programme may clash with the general philosophy of the community; however, such differences in ideology could be overcome

when community members are integrated into the prevention programme of the school and can see the benefits the programme will bring to the community.

3.10 Social media influence on the issue of school-based violence

This research study looks at the influence of the media in publicising incidents of school-based violence, and how this publicity has urged school managers to develop and implement prevention programmes in high schools. The media have influenced the DoE to take swift action to normalise irregularities in schools by reducing school-based violence and promoting teaching and learning. Bauman (2008) insists that research on school-based violence has proliferated over the years as a result of the media frenzy on issues of school-based violence. Dogini (2014) argues that the media publicity provides the impetus for stakeholders to look beyond the causes of the issue and focus on settlement and prevention modalities.

Media focus on incidents of school violence encourages the community to look at ways in which the incident could have been prevented or avoided. Beran and Shapiro (2005) assert that the media are generally sceptical about the effectiveness of prevention programmes, especially of the fact that there is equalised power in the institutionalisation of the programme. They further suggest that the media are generally of the opinion that any transformation or empowerment should be in the best interests of the learner. Most media reports are obtained from an insider within that organisation and as such are mostly factual (Carney & Merrell, 2001). Most school managers avoid media coverage because it could reveal shortcomings on their part. Investigative journalism tends to uncover the underlying reasons for why incidents of school violence occurred, and seeks answers about the causes.

In the course of answering questions, villains are identified and could be held accountable. It could be said that media influence ensures accountability on the part of school managers and in turn enhances efficiency. Camaj (2012) maintains that the media offers a hypothetically powerful external influence on undemocratic behaviours in organisations. Stapenhurst (2000) explains that investigative journalism has the ability to assist prosecutorial bodies by scrutinising and broadcasting cases of unethical behaviour. School-based violence could also be caused by the lack of adequate supervision resulting

from the high rate of teacher absenteeism. Media coverage of issues of teacher absenteeism in high schools could force the DoE to take drastic measures to reduce the rate of absenteeism, increase school engagement, and reduce school-based violence.

It is well known that the mass media blow issues out of proportion to increase their sales and profits (Kaske, Kügler, & Smolnik, 2012). The media often concentrate on the details of a school-based violent incident, and on the sensational aspects of the story, rather than on the impact it will have on victims (Bester & Du Plessis, 2010). The researcher agrees with Lindle (2008) that the media provides politicians with platforms upon which they gather support for their policy decisions through the identification and sensationalization of social ills. However, the researcher believes that the media influence on school-based violence issues would facilitate the development of preventive measures to curb the menace. However stakeholders view the impact of the media, its contribution towards reducing school-based violence cannot be over-emphasised.

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter looked at various school-based violence management approaches and intervention initiatives designed to reduce school-based violence in high schools. The interventions and approaches are geared towards promoting teaching and learning, and reducing antisocial behaviours in school. Further research should be carried out to identify the reasons for the continuous increase in the rate of violence in schools in order to develop managerial strategies on how to manage school-based violence. The next chapter presents the research methodology of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The research methodology of a study represents the blueprint or roadmap for the study, as it guides the researcher from the beginning through data collection and analysis. This chapter elucidates the study's research philosophy, research approach, research design, choice of research methods (qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods), data collection instruments, sampling method, population, sample size and method of data analysis.

4.2 Definition of research

Research is a process of discovering answers to questions through a careful and systematic analysis of factors relevant to the situation (Sekaran, 2006). Research is a systematic and scientific approach en route for a purposeful investigation of a phenomenon (Bhattacharya, 2006). Research can also be described as the conception of new knowledge through a scientific process that would provide answers to problematic situations (Matthews & Ross, 2014).

4.3 Research objectives

The overall objective of this study is to identify the causes of school-based violence and the possible managerial approaches that can be adopted in its management in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The precise objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To understand the individual factors (microsystem) that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district.
2. To ascertain the interpersonal relationship (mesosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district.
3. To determine the community (exosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district.
4. To understand the societal (macrosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district.

5. To develop a management model that will adopt school-based factors in the management and reduction of school-based violence at high schools in uMgungundlovu district.

4.4 Research questions

The research questions emerging from the objectives of the study are as follows:

1. What are the individual factors (microsystem) that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
2. What are the interpersonal relationship factors (microsystem) that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
3. What are the community factors (exosystem) that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
4. What are the societal factors (macrosystem) that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
5. What interventions could be employed in the management and reduction of school violence at high schools in uMgungundlovu district?

4.5 Research philosophies

The research questions and objective of a study to a great extent determine the philosophies adopted. Wahyuni (2012) posits that the quality of any study is embedded in the truthfulness and transparency of the research philosophy and approaches employed in the study, rather than in the supremacy of any single paradigm. Wahyuni further explains that the adoption of the most suitable research design, strategies, approaches, data collection instruments and techniques affects the quality of the findings of a researcher. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill's (2009: 108) "research onion" (Figure 7) was adopted in this study in order to create a visual road map for the researcher.
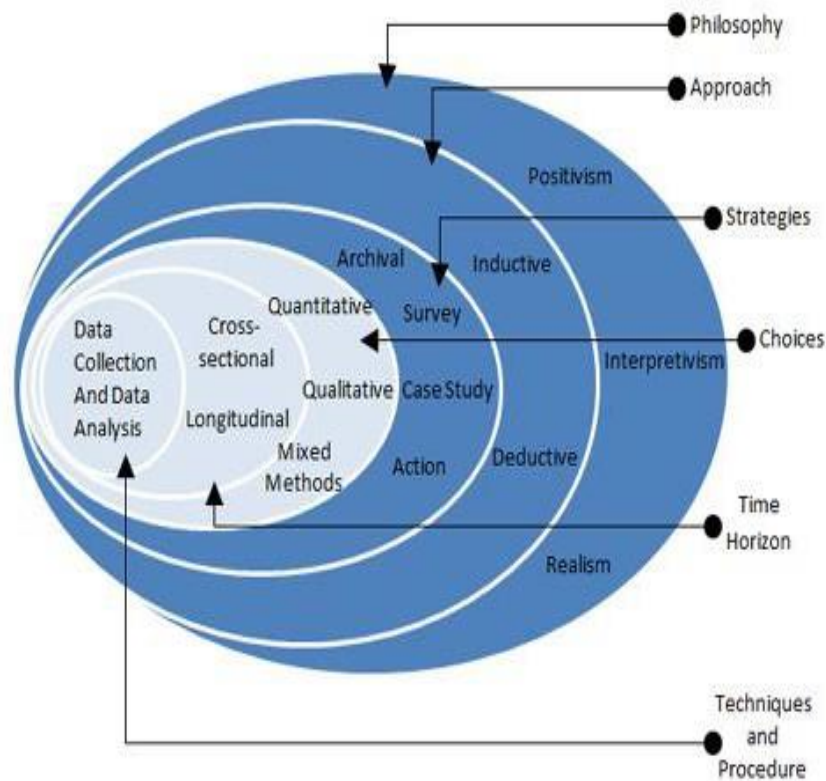
Figure 7: The Research Onion
Source: Adapted from Saunders et al. (2009: 108).

4.5.1 Interpretivism

Phenomenology and symbolic interactionism constitute what makes up interpretivism (Saunders et al., 2011). Phenomenology deals with the manner in which researchers see phenomena within their communities (Lester, 1999; Goulding, 2005; Saunders et al., 2009). Symbolic interactionism explicates the endless elucidations and understandings of the community in which we reside (Saunders et al., 2009; Boksberger & Melsen, 2011). There should be a clear understanding of the causes of school-based violence in high schools before an effective control and prevention strategy can be put in place. It is important for researchers not to allow emotions or personal views to influence the findings in their study. Interpretivism was adopted in this research study because it offers a more tenable pledge of attaining knowledge of the underpinnings of phenomena in the study.

4.5.2 Research philosophy adopted in the study

Having explored the different research philosophies, the researcher considered the interpretivist philosophy to be the most appropriate for the study. Interpretivism is a widely accepted approach for conducting qualitative research (Creswell, 2013). This research study is focused on understanding the in-depth reasons for why learners exhibit different antisocial behaviours that lead to school-based violence in high schools. A sound school-based violence prevention model cannot be developed without the researcher understanding the in-depth causes of such violence, which is why the study adopted a qualitative approach to reading meanings and interpreting them adequately. Benbenishty and Astor (2008) maintain that school-based violence is a multifaceted phenomenon and as such requires a complex problem-solving approach to combat it.

The complex nature of the phenomenon being researched necessitated a complex approach to understanding it, in order to avoid a thin understanding that would not provide sufficient or adequate answers to why learners display antisocial and violent behaviour in schools. Crotty (1998) rightfully stated that qualitative researchers who embrace interpretivism and subsequently interact with respondents through open-ended questions obtain their views on phenomenal issues. An understanding of the phenomenon being studied through gathering the thoughts and observations of multiple respondents are core elements of interpretivism that suit this qualitative study (Creswell, 2013). The development of a school-based violence prevention model was achieved through incorporating multiple respondents' experiences, suggestions and ideas. The ultimate goal of a researcher is to use the information from the respondents on the subject matter as much as possible in order to draw inferences and develop a model (Crotty, 1998).

4.6 Research approach

There are basically two comprehensive methods of reasoning in research: the deductive or "top-down" approach, and the inductive or "bottom-up" approach. Noor (2008) posits that the research approach adopted in a study depends on the nature of the research problem. All approaches and philosophies should be geared towards answering the research question in order to achieve the study's objectives. However, the research approach employed in a study is also a preconceived decision of the researcher based on the

theoretical path that he or she wishes to navigate in answering the research questions (Saunders et al., 2011).

4.6.1 Inductive approach

The core objective of the inductive approach is to embrace research outcomes that arise from data collected from research fieldwork without the limitations imposed by controlled procedures (Thomas, 2006). The inductive approach is deeply rooted in the interpretivist value of inquiry, as a substitute for positivist suppositions in methodical research (Thomas, 2006; Kelliher, 2011). Researchers in the field of social science acknowledge that the inductive approach creates room for in-depth analyses of research phenomena. The interaction between respondents and the researcher gives the researcher a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon that enables the researchers to develop models to answer the research questions. Studies that employ the inductive approach use research instruments such as in-depth interviews and questionnaires to obtain first-hand information on the relevant phenomena. Saunders et al. (2011) argue that researchers who seek to understand the "how" and "why" of a phenomenon lean towards the inductive research approach.

4.6.2 The research approach adopted for the study

The core objective of this study is to develop an effective model that could reduce school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN; after a careful evaluation of the pros and cons of the deductive and inductive research approaches, the researcher decided to employ the inductive approach (Morgan, 2007; Franz , 2011; Creswell, 2013) because it provides a broad explanation of the different circumstances that lead to the forms of child delinquency that affect the school environment and subsequently lead to school-based violence. The inductive approach provides a clear view of what transpires at different levels of the ESM on violence prevention.

Ecological systems theory enables the researcher to understand the factors that cause school-based violence in high school and how to effectively identify and control them to increase protective factors and decrease risk factors at high schools (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2012). Thomas (2006) shows that the inductive research approach develops themes,

concepts and models through the interpretation of raw data collected by the researcher. The choice of the inductive research approach in the study further validates the researcher's choice of the interpretivist research philosophy in the study (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Thomas (2006) further outlines the following reasons for why researchers embrace the inductive approach:

1. To summarize the data collected by the researchers.
2. To establish the relationship between the summarised findings and the objectives of the study in a justifiable manner.
3. To develop a model that reflects the core objective of the study.

The researcher adopted interpretive validity in the study to ensure that the respondents' views were unadulterated (Burke,1997). The adoption of the inductive method strategically positions the study to effectively contribute to the existing wealth of knowledge on the management and prevention of school-based violence in high schools, and to specific knowledge on the issue in uMgungundlovu district of KZN.

4.7 Research design

Research design refers to the holistic strategy the researcher employs to synthesize all the apparatus of the study in a comprehensive and logical manner to answer all the research questions (Saunders et al., 2011). A research design can be exploratory, descriptive and explanatory in nature, irrespective of the research design a researcher chooses (Yin, 2013). The research design must be able to answer the research questions and meet the research objectives, and must suit the research philosophy underpinning the study (Creswell, 2013). There are several types of research design: longitudinal, ethnographic, action, case study and grounded research design. However, this study will employ an ethnographic, grounded, case study research design because they are inductive approaches and so reinforce the researcher's choice of an inductive research approach to the study.

4.7.1 Case study research design

A case study research design allows for in-depth scrutiny of actions, occurrences or other real-life milieu in social research, which enables the researcher to make inferences about a phenomenon (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Case studies that employ qualitative approaches are

beneficial in seeking answers to current anomalies based on past proficiencies (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). This research study examines school-based factors in the management of school-based violence. Creswell (2012) reveals that research is circumscribed by time and actions, and as such data collection should be carried out over a specified period of time. The collection of multiple sources of data in qualitative case study research ensures that the phenomenon is not viewed from a single perspective and gives the researcher a broader range of information from which to make logical inferences.

4.7.2 Justification for adopting the case study research design

The multifaceted nature of school-based violence and the urge to provide answers to the research questions influenced the choice of case study research design in the research. The consideration of the strengths and weaknesses of other research designs and the choice of a research design that is well positioned to reinforce the research philosophy and research approach adopted in the study influenced the researcher's adoption of the case study research design. A case study gathers valuable information about incidents and experiences that can generate theoretical ideas that demonstrate real-life situations. This is because case study uses a past problem-solving methodology to forecast solutions on current problems (Yin, 2013); in this study, the nature of the violence determines the future managerial approach to be adopted in solving the problem.

All high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province are governed by the same legislation, and therefore have similar school policies in terms of discipline, safety, security and procedures in handling disciplinary issues. Because of this, the researcher believes that a case study research design was ideal for the study, as case studies contain information about real-life experiences that can provide clarity at different stages of a study. This is made possible as a result of the face-to-face interaction with the respondents through the choice of research instruments adopted for the study. In-depth interviews allow the researcher to ask leading questions and seek clarity at different stages of the interview. Each interview in the data collection process provides a broader knowledge base and perspective for the next one, which means that experience acquired in one interview can be used to inform questions in the next interview. For example, when a learner says "I smoke in the toilet because no one checks what happens in the toilet", a follow-up question

to a school manager could be, "Why is the toilet not being monitored to prevent smoking in the toilets by learners?" The adoption of the case study research design makes it easier for the researcher to identify respondents who are privy to vital information that would add value to the study, and this is achieved through personal interaction with respondents (Creswell, 2012).

A case study based on interviews provides a context for researchers to interact with respondents to exchange ideas that could generate a dynamic problem-solving theoretical framework. A case study can serve as a research and teaching apparatus, as the researcher learns more about the phenomenon of the study while conducting the research (Curry et al., 2009). The adoption of a multiple case study research design provides different opportunities to establish and test similar or repeated findings (Saunders et al., 2011), and to establish whether the findings can be generalized. Yin (2013) claims that the adoption of a multiple case study design is better than using a single case study. This study utilized two research sites to conduct the study, which are represented as School A and School B. Using multiple case studies increases the value of the research findings.

4.8 Research choices

The research onion basically reveals three core research approaches: the quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method research approaches (Saunders et al., 2011). The nature of a study's research questions in most cases influences the research approach to be adopted by the researcher. The research questions and research objectives of a study influence the choice of data collection instruments, because these instruments should be able to collect data that will answer the research questions.

4.8.1 Qualitative research approach

The qualitative research approach can be adopted to comprehend complex social phenomena from the viewpoint of respondents (Curry, Nembhard, & Bradley, 2009). School-based violence is a complex social phenomenon that requires in-depth understanding of the essential aspects of the phenomenon, and the phenomenon is interpreted through a qualitative approach employing in-depth interaction with

respondents. The qualitative research approach as a research strategy therefore emphasizes the words of the respondents in data collection and the inferences derived from these words in the process of data analysis (Bryman, 2012). Curry et al. (2009) argue that the qualitative approach can be useful when researchers are interested in looking beyond identified variables that are statistically linked with a desired effect to understand why a given intervention has a specific impact, how the impact occurs, and in what organizational context.

Qualitative studies have been criticized for the lack of generalizability in the findings of the study. Yin (2013) argues that the adoption of a multiple case study approach generates greater confidence in the results of the study, and where there is evidence of consistent findings in the multiple cases, the findings are considered to be very robust. Yin insists that using multiple case studies increases the level of accuracy, validity and reliability of the study. At this juncture broad conclusions could be reached on the findings of the study. Polit and Beck (2010) rightly conclude that qualitative studies are more concerned with providing enlightening, contextual understandings of the phenomenon under study than generalization in a study. Qualitative researchers believe that generalization entails extrapolations that cannot be proven (Polit & Beck, 2010).

The qualitative approach is habitually investigative in nature and generates insights by employing an inductive rather than a deductive research approach. School-based violence is a real-life experience and can only be comprehended by gathering these experiences into words, which could take the form of in-depth interviews with the respondents, who play a pivotal role in a qualitative study. The process of transferring knowledge from the educator to the learner could be distorted in an environment filled with violence, which could lead to a drastic decline in the standard of education and skilled labour. This obstacle in the development of human capital could be understood, and therefore addressed, through qualitative studies that provide researchers with the opportunities to investigate the phenomenon in a natural environment.

4.8.2 Justification for the use of a qualitative research approach in the study

The researcher adopted a qualitative research approach for the study after a careful evaluation of the three research methods discussed above. It was evident that the qualitative method was well positioned to answer the research questions and achieve the research objectives of the study, because school settings provide a natural platform for the collection of qualitative data (Creswell, 2013). The school setting provided a platform where respondents voluntarily agreed to be part of the study and were also privy to vital information that would add value to the study. These respondents include the principals, heads of departments, educators, counsellors, learners and SGB members. The availability of these key respondents made it possible for the researcher to employ in-depth interviews as a data collection instrument in the study, which is a qualitative tool.

The adoption of the qualitative method in the study reinforces the choice of the inductive research philosophy employed. It was decided that the results of data analysis using a qualitative research method could provide meanings from which the researcher could draw inferences to develop a preventative model of school-based violence that would assist school managers in the management and prevention of school-based violence in the high schools in uMgungundlovu district. The qualitative research method also provided scope for the use of a case study research design. Saunders et al. (2011) rightly conclude that the adoption of multiple case studies provides methods to determine whether the results in the leading case happen in other cases. They state that the findings in these cases can easily be generalized.

The adoption of multiple case studies is better than employing a single case study because it creates ways to explore existing theories, challenge other theories and develop new research questions (Yin, 2013). The unique strengths of the qualitative research approach made it ideal for this study. This study conducted research at two sites, which are represented as School A and School B. The use of multiple case studies for this research increases the value of the findings in the study.

4.9 Data collection instruments and sources adopted in the study

Data collection instruments relate to the tools the researcher utilizes for data collection in the study. The data collection technique simply entails the route the researcher navigates in gathering data for the purpose of tendering solutions to the research questions of the study (Creswell, 2009; Saunders et al., 2009). Basically there are two forms of data: primary data and secondary data. Primary data has to do with information that is obtained first-hand from sources, for example from respondents, while secondary data is information that already exists in documentary form or any other manner where the existing document has been stored. The researcher in the study utilized primary data obtained through in-depth interviews and focus group interviews, and secondary data from sources like SASA and school safety policies.

4.9.1 Primary data

The primary source of data refers to information collected first-hand from the respondents on the factors of interest that would assist the researcher to answer the research questions of the study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). It must be noted that the research questions of the study influenced the choice of the research instruments adopted in the study. Primary sources of data were the main source of data for the study and in-depth interviews and focus group interviews were adopted as the data collection instruments for the study. Both instruments entail face-to-face interaction with respondents that enables the researcher to ask leading questions and seek clarity where necessary to answer the research questions and objectives of the study.

4.9.1.1 In-depth interviews

In-depth interviews were adopted in the study to enable respondents to express themselves freely on the variables of the study. Saunders et al. (2011) refer to unstructured interviews as in-depth interviews, where the respondents are allowed to freely discuss events, behaviour and beliefs that will answer the research questions and meet the research objectives. The use of in-depth interviews in this study enabled the researcher to get first-hand information from respondents within the high school environment and seek clarity on areas that would directly answer specific research questions in the study. In-depth

interviews enabled the researcher to employ persuasive skills to encourage respondents to speak further about various aspects of their experience that gave the researcher a clearer picture of the causes of school-based violence in high schools.

The adoption of in-depth interviews in the study enabled the researcher to seek possible preventive measures on the phenomenon of school-based violence. Saunders et al. (2011) identify four strengths of in-depth interviews as follows: the purpose of the study, the importance of having a face-to-face discussion, meeting time constraints, and the type of data required to achieve the objectives of the study. These categories are discussed below in the justification for using in-depth interviews in the study.

4.9.1.2 Focus group

Using focus group interviews in the study created a relaxed atmosphere for learners to talk freely without fear of victimization. The composition of focus group interviews in a study consists of eight to ten members knowledgeable on the research phenomenon with a moderator piloting discussions on variables of the research sphere (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The study focus group consisted of ten members with the researcher serving as the moderator. The unstructured and natural views of respondents reflected original views, ideas and feelings about school-based violence in high schools (Sekaran & Bougie 2010). The informal nature of the focus group in this study added value to the study because learners were comfortable speaking their minds on issues without fear of being victimized. Morgan (2007:46) emphasized "the importance of interaction in focus group interview and identified the three major branches of focus group interview as (1) a technique dedicated to data gathering, (2) interaction as an avenue of data collection, and (3) the active role of the moderator in stimulating discussions that could generate useful information that will add value to the study". Focus groups are fairly inexpensive and provide dependable information within a short period of time.
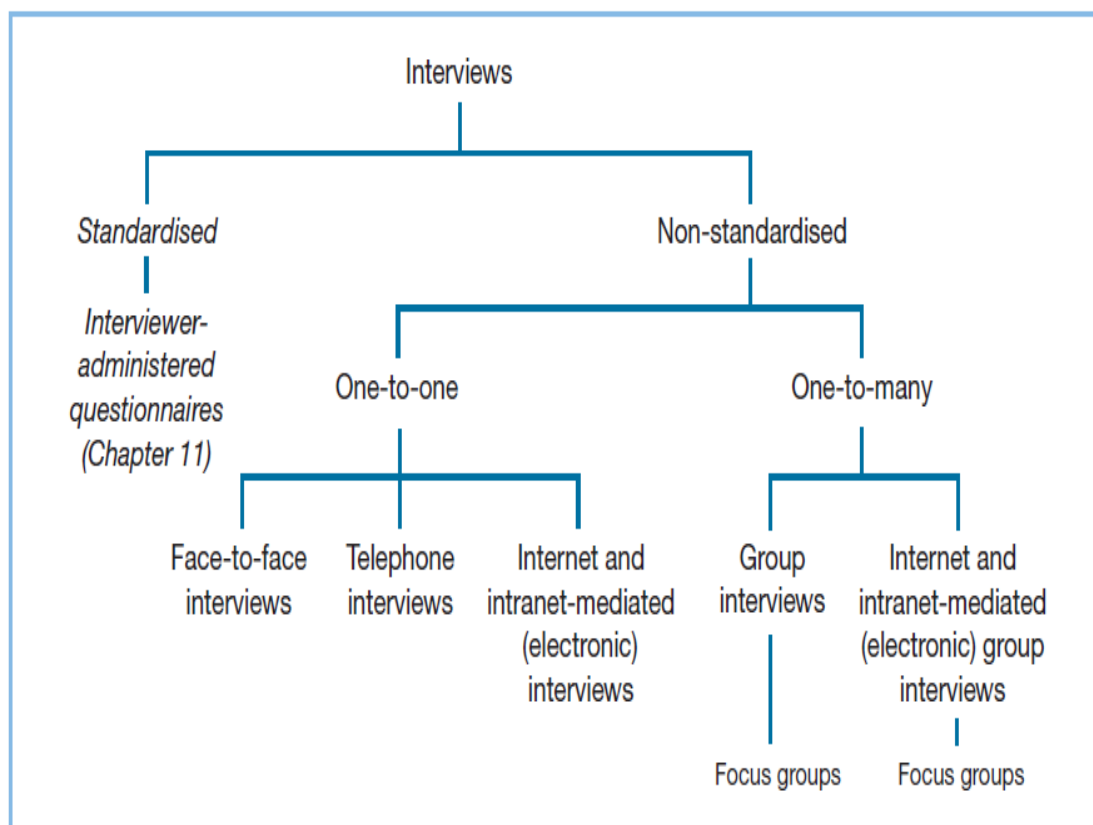
Figure 8: Forms of interviews
Adopted from Saunders et al. (2012)

4.9.1.3 Justification for adopting in-depth interviews for the study

Basically in-depth interviews and focus groups are the only non-standardized interview methods adopted in the study. The study looks at the causes of school-based violence in high schools and in order to answer all the research questions in the study the researcher had to adopt a qualitative approach to understand why learners behave in an antisocial manner that leads to school-based violence. It was vital that the researcher interact face-to-face with respondents who had voluntarily agreed to participate in the study, to enable the researcher to answer the research question and achieve the research objectives of the study. Saunders et al. (2011) posit that in-depth interviews are less expensive to conduct and consume less time, which gives the academic researcher the opportunity to meet deadlines in their research. In-depth interviews are cheaper to conduct and provide fairly dependable data within a short time period (Sekaran & Bougie, 2012). Cross-sectional studies like this one, which is qualitative in nature, are cheaper to conduct, unlike

longitudinal studies which are usually quantitative in nature. The role of the researcher as the moderator of the focus groups ensured that the focus groups' interaction was geared towards questions and discussions that would meet the research objectives and answer the research questions.

In-depth interviews promote a higher response rate and questions can be reframed when respondents are not clear on questions asked. There were instances in an interview when a respondent was not comfortable answering a particular question. The strength of a face-to-face interaction was that the researcher could reframe questions in a way that encouraged respondents to talk freely and allowed the interview session to continue. Face-to-face interaction enabled the researcher to explain questions, simplify questions and ensure clarity where the need arose. Researchers often find that aspects that were not identified earlier in the study are in fact important to the study, and face-face interaction provides the opportunity to ask leading questions on those areas to boost the study. Lancaster (2007) argues that in-depth interviews are flexible and can be conducted at different locations and times to suit respondents and sometimes researchers. Interviews held with the principals at the research sites used in the study were conducted in their offices away from the location for educators, students and learners, and SGB members. The time scheduled for all the interviews was at the respondents' convenience.

In-depth interviews have been criticized for being expensive due to the time-intensive nature of the approach (Lancaster, 2007), but the researcher disagrees with this statement because qualitative studies have a smaller sample size compared to qualitative studies, whose larger sample size requires more effort, time and cost. The issue of flexibility did not pose a problem in the study as the researcher was more interested in getting first-hand information from respondents at a time and place convenient for them. The researcher adequately addressed ethical issues in relation to gatekeepers, parental consent for learners who are minors, consent letters, and an ethical clearance letter from the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Confidentiality was assured at all times in the study.

4.10 Data analysis

Content analysis and NVivo were employed in the analysis of data collected in the study. Elo (2008) maintained that content analysis replicates and validates extrapolations from data to their context, with the purpose of providing knowledge and new insights within the phenomenon of the study which suits this study. Richards (1999) posits that the strength of NVivo in qualitative data analysis lies in the ability of the software to import data from Word documents, thereby enabling academic researchers to meet deadlines. Descriptive statistical tools were used to represent the demographic data collected in the study. For example, a pie chart was used to represent the population of the research sites. NVivo was used to establish drifts and patterns of behaviours, peer influences, risky locations, and relationships among other variables within the schools that lead to school-based violence in high schools.

4.11 Study site

UMgungundlovu is one of the 10 district municipalities of KZN (which has one additional metropolitan municipality, eThekwini). The seat of uMgungundlovu is Pietermaritzburg. The majority of its 101 7763 (106.99 per km²) people speak isiZulu (2011 Census). UMgungundlovu District Municipality comprises seven local municipalities: uMshwathi, uMngeni, Mpofana, Impendle, Msunduzi, Mkhambathini and Richmond. The first research site is a high school located in the Richmond district referred to as School A in the study while the second research site is a high school located in Mbali; Pietermaritzburg referred to as School B. The research sites of the study were chosen for the study based on the following variables:-

1. The population of the high school.
2. The volatile nature of the community in which they are situated.
3. They are Section 21 schools.

4.11.1 Background of study site one (School A)

School A is a Section 21 school located in Phatheni a rural area in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. Section 21 schools are no-fee schools in South Africa. Phatheni is a rural area located 80 km from Pietermaritzburg, which is the administrative capital of KZN. The

indigenes of Phatheni are isiZulu-speaking people who are divided along political lines. Most people in Phatheni are members of the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP). However, the post-apartheid era in Phatheni has seen a rise in membership and support for the African National Congress (ANC), which has led to political violence in the community that has resulted in the loss of many lives.

Table 1: Population composition of School A in the study

Description	School A
Principal	1
Deputy Principal	None
Head of departments	2
Educators	8
Learners	327
SGB	5
Total	**343**

The population of School A in terms of learner enrolment is low, yet it has a history of school-based violence. The majority of the people in the area are not educated and are unemployed; those who are employed are mainly farm workers who earn very little.

4.11.2 Background of study site two (School B)

The second study site is School B, located in Richmond. Richmond is a town located 38 km southwest of Pietermaritzburg. The majority of the people are farm workers who earn very little income. Richmond was founded in 1850 by the British Byrne settlers from Beaulieu. Richmond has a history of violence that began with the killing of two British officers at Byrne in 1906. School B is a non-fee, Section 21 School. The area to the west of School B is populated with political supporters of the IFP, while the area to the east is populated by supporters of the ANC. The school is at the centre of political violence in the area as a result of political disagreements.

Table 2: Population composition of School B in the study

Description	School B
Principal	1
Deputy principal	2
Head of department	6
Educators	47
Learners	1226
SGB	5
Total	**1287**

School B has the highest learner enrolment in Richmond and also has the highest number of school-based violence cases in the district of uMgungundlovu.

4.11.3 Justification for the choice of study sites in the study

The high schools used in the study were identified through their record of school-based violence with the DoE whilst obtaining the gatekeepers letter for the study (see Appendix C). It was a coincidence that one of the schools was in a rural area and the other in an urban area, but they are both Section 21 non-fee schools. Section 21 schools were used in the study to ascertain the influence of lack of parental involvement as an influencing factor that causes school-based violence in high schools. The study was purely a qualitative study and did not involve many participants, and as such the two research sites provided the required number of participants to answer the research questions of the study. Non-fee schools were used in the study to ascertain the causes of school-based violence in both schools.

4.12 Population of the study

The population of a study is the total assemblage of respondents from which the sample is drawn (Saunders et al., 2011). The sample of a study represents the attributes of the population upon which the research is carried out. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) describe the

population of a study as the sum total of the variables, elements, people and things of interest that a researcher wishes to investigate. In this study the population consists of all the stakeholders involved in school management. The utilization of sample size to carry out research is as a result of the limitations in using the population to conduct the study. Some of these limitations include financial constraints, time, effort and meeting deadlines in academic research. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) define a population as the total number of inhabitants, variables or the subject of interest a researcher investigates. The population of the study was 1 630, which represents the combined number of SGB members, principals, HODs, educators and learners at the two research sites used for the study. The population composition is outlined in Table 3.

Table 3: Composition of study population

Classification	School A	School B	Total population
Principals	1	1	2
Deputy principals	_	2	2
HOD	2	6	8
Educators	8	47	55
Learners	327	1226	1553
SGB	5	5	10
Total population	**343**	**1287**	**1630**

The statistics in Table 3 above were obtained from the respective schools' snap survey documents. A school snap survey document is a school-based document that contains the current total number of learners and educators in a school in the current academic year. The research sites adopted in the study were both located in uMgungundlovu district of KZN.

4.13 Sampling techniques

Sampling techniques provide different ways for a researcher to collect data for a study. There are basically two sampling approaches a researcher can use for data collection: probability and non-probability sampling. Saunders et al. (2011) maintain that the possibility of an element being selected from the population in a probability sampling is

known and all elements have an equal chance of being selected for the study. With non-probability sampling, however, the chance of elements being selected from the population for the study is not known and elements in the population do not have an equal chance of being selected for the study.

4.13.1 Justification for adopting non-probability sampling in the study

Non-probability sampling is a sampling technique where the elements in the population do not have an equal chance of being selected to represent the population in a study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The research questions of a study determine the most well positioned sampling technique to answer the research questions based on the subjective judgment of the researcher in a study. Saunders et al. (2011) insist that the use of non-probability sampling in a study offers different approaches to picking a sample based on the subjective conclusion of the researcher. The verdict of the researcher should be in line with providing answers for the research questions in order to achieve the objectives of the study.

A non-probability sampling technique was adopted in the study because both professional managers and school managers have in-depth insight on the issue of internal school-based violence since they are the administrative and disciplinary heads of the school. Since the researcher through subjective judgment identified respondents who are privy to information that would answer the research questions, the non-probability sampling method was used in the study. The subjective conclusions of the researcher were relied upon to achieve the objectives of the study (Yeager et al., 2011). There are basically four forms of non-probability sampling: quota sampling, snowball sampling, convenience sampling and purposive sampling.

4.13.2 Justification for the use of purposive sampling in the study

The purposive sampling technique enabled the researcher to select respondents who would provide data that would answer the research questions of the study (Saunders et al., 2011). This study sought to involve all stakeholders in answering the research questions, including principals, heads of departments, educators, SGB members and learners. The

purpose of targeting this set of respondents was to access their wealth of knowledge in handling disciplinary and managerial issues in school. The adoption of purposive sampling in the study enabled the researcher to identify the appropriate respondents to enable the research questions to be answered. Purposive sampling, which is also known as judgment sampling, enables the researcher to pick the most productive sample to achieve the objectives of the study (Marshall, 1996). Purposive sampling is a more intellectual approach to adopt in research than other forms of non-probability sampling techniques (Marshall, 1996).

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2012), research that adopts purposive sampling may not generalize the findings of the study. The researcher concurs with Sekaran and Bougie on the deficiencies of purposive sampling in relation to the issue of generalization of findings. However, the researcher notes that this study is not aimed at generalizing the findings of the study but at understanding the logic behind why learners exhibit antisocial behaviours that lead to school-based violence at these schools. Understanding why learners behave the way they do enabled the researcher to develop a model that would assist high school managers to reduce and manage school-based violence effectively. The adoption of the purposive sampling technique in the study enabled the researcher to answer the research questions of the study because of the strengths of the technique.

4.14 Sample size of the study

The researcher made use of the qualitative approach in identifying the causes and possible preventive approaches in the management of school-based violence in high schools. Creswell (2012) points out that a qualitative study has smaller sample sizes than quantitative studies. In this qualitative study, the researcher aimed to gain meaningful insight into the phenomenon of school-based violence in high schools that could lead to emergent solutions to the problem. The sample size for the in-depth interviews was 18 and the composition is contained in Table 4.

Table 4: Composition of sample size

Classifications	School A	School B	Total
Principals	1	1	2
HOD	2	2	4
Educators	2	2	4
Learners	2	2	4
SGB	2	2	4
Total sample size	**9**	**9**	**18**

There is a point of diminishing return with a qualitative sample; as the study goes on, more data does not necessarily lead to more information (Mason, 2010). Qualitative studies are guided by the principle of saturation, which means that the researcher may stop gathering more data at the point where no new information is coming in to add further value to the existing data. The study focus group was made up of 10 members, with the researcher serving as the moderator. The unstructured and natural views of respondents reflect original views, ideas and feelings about school-based violence in high schools (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

A focus group was employed in the study as a data collection instrument. Two focus groups were designed for the study, one at each research site, comprising of 10 learners each. In total 20 learners agreed to participate in the focus group sessions. However, only 19 learners finally participated in the focus group interviews as one learner in School B could not attend the session due to ill health, and could not be replaced because parental consent letters were endorsed by parents in advance. The choice of a focus group was motivated by the fact that learners could reveal more information on the subject matter in an interactive, informal forum. The researcher ensured that discussions were directed and concentrated on variables that would provide answers to the research questions of the study and ultimately achieve the research objectives of the study.

4.14.1 Justification for sample size of the study

Sample sizes for qualitative studies are much smaller than sample sizes for quantitative studies, and it has been suggested that the minimum acceptable sample size for a PhD study is 15 respondents (Mason, 2010). In this study the researcher used 18 respondents as the sample size for the in-depth interview and a total of 20 respondents for focus group interviews (10 learners from each research site). The combination of the respondents for the two data collection instruments employed in the study amounted to 35 respondents, which represents more than the minimum acceptable sample size. Respondents who participated in the in-depth interviews were not used for the focus group interviews. The measure was adopted to collect more ideas in the study by increasing participation. Watson (2010) reminds us that six respondents are adequate in a qualitative research study. In a case study like this that looks at the causes and management of school-based violence, 10 respondents is considered adequate for the study (Creswell, 2012).

The ideal sample size for a qualitative study is one which is able to answer the research questions (Marshall, 1996). The bigger the sample size of a study, the smaller the sampling error; however, the sampling error of a study is the reverse equivalent of the square root of the sample size, therefore there is nothing significant to be gained from using a large sample size in a study (Marshall, 1996). The sample size of the study, which consists of 18 in-depth interviews and two focus group interviews, was able to answer all the research questions to the point that no new information was emerging from the respondents, thereby leading the data collection process to saturation. However, the researcher believes that the definition of a qualitative study sample size by Marshall (1996) is inadequate as it should have contained a specific numerical value to give academic researchers more clarity.

Saunders et al. (2011) maintain that the adoption of multiple case studies in a qualitative study increases the reliability of the study. The study adopted multiple case studies in data collection, which are presented in the study as School A and School B. Indeed, the utilisation of multiple case studies in the research revealed other vital information on school-based violence that was not identified at the first research site. Mason (2010) reminds us that occurrences are not vital in a qualitative study because one single incident can produce sufficient information. For example, the prison experience of Nelson Mandela

on Robben Island could be more robust than the prison experience of ten inmates on Robben Island. The sample size adopted in the study provided rich insights in answering the research questions of the study.

4.15 Data quality control

It is paramount to note that the outcome of any study could lead to a positive change when the findings are valid and reliable. Miller et al. (2008) argue that incorrect data could lead to inaccurate decision making that could have a devastating effect on the organization. For example, an incorrect decision made by a school principal as a result of an incorrect finding in a study on school-based violence could lead to increased school-based violence. The locking of school toilets during classes because learners smoke in the toilets could be dehumanizing for learners and could lead to health issues. Saunders et al. (2011) posit that the right data should be collected for a particular set of research questions to enable the researcher to fulfil the research objectives of the study.

Data collected from in-depth interviews, focus group interviews and secondary sources of data leads to data triangulation, which represents a type of construct validation. Data quality control of the study was boosted through the adoption of the four elements of trustworthiness which are important in a qualitative study: (1) credibility, (b) confirmability, (c) dependability, and (d) transferability (Sinkovics & Ghauri, 2008). The researcher's supervisors were instrumental in reducing the possible level of bias in relation to the content analysis, by verifying the transcript coding before agreement was reached on objective classifications.

4.15.1 Credibility

Credibility in qualitative research is parallel to internal validity (Sinkovics & Ghauri, 2008). Credibility was established in the study through answering the research questions with the data provided by the respondents in the study. Credibility was achieved in the study in that respondents gave a true-life account of their experiences and the incidents of school-based violence they witnessed in high schools (Tracy, 2010). School managers are disturbed by the increasing problem of school-based violence because they want to find a

lasting solution to the problem and so they are willing to give a true picture of the issues in order to find solutions.

4.15.2 Confirmability

Confirmability was achieved in the study through the analysis of the responses of respondents on the same issue in the study without bias and influence from a third party, and most importantly because the respondents did not stand to benefit from their responses (Sinkovics & Ghauri, 2008). For example, most respondents stated that alcohol and substance abuse was responsible for the high rate of school-based violence in high school. Confirmability was achieved when most of the respondents were neutral and maintained that alcohol and substance abuse was a strong influence on school-based violence. Shenton (2004) maintains that confirmability can be achieved when findings reflect the exact views of respondents and not the subjective ideas of the researcher. The findings of the study reflect the true position of respondents in the study, thereby enabling the researcher to achieve neutrality, in other words confirmability.

4.15.3 Dependability

The accounts of violent incidents in school are continuous and as such respondents' experiences are accumulated over time and could be regarded as being dependable (Sinkovics & Ghauri, 2008). For example, the response of a disciplinary committee member on a school-based violence issue could be said to be dependable as a result of his position in the disciplinary process in school. Baxter and Jack (2008) posit that the use of purposive sampling in case study research brings about dependability in a study. Dependability, which is also known as consistency, was achieved in the study through the application of the purposive sampling method and the use of a case study approach.

4.15.4 Transferability

Transferability in qualitative research is equal to external validity in a quantitative study (Sinkovics & Ghauri, 2008). The study achieved transferability in that accounts of learners' misconduct from educators at the first research site were similarly experienced and embraced by the other educators at the second research site. School-based risk factors

are almost the same in most high schools, with educators sharing similar complaints and experience. Tracy (2010) maintains that where similar risk factors exist with a common outcome, at that point transferability is achieved. The study identified the schools' toilets as a high-risk zone where learners smoke marijuana and abuse other substances; this unacceptable behaviour occurs at both research sites of the study.

4.16 Ethical clearance

The researcher obtained full approval and an ethical clearance letter issued from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee at the University of KwaZulu-Natal to conduct the study. A gatekeeper's letter was obtained from the DoE KZN to enable the researcher to conduct the study in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The essence of the study was communicated and explained to all respondents before the commencement of the data collection. Respondents were adequately informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw their participation in the study at any point. Consent letters were duly signed by all respondents in the study before the commencement of the research. Parental/guardian consent was obtained in situations where minors were involved, in order to adhere to all ethical considerations. Pseudonyms were adopted in the study to protect and maintain confidentiality and anonymity.

Respondents were assured by the researcher that all information given to the researcher would be used for purely academic purposes. The soft copy of interviews and all hard copies of research materials would be locked away in a safe by the researcher for a minimum period of five years as stipulated in the University policy. The researcher has not in any manner manipulated any respondent or any aspect of the study.

4.17 Conclusion

The adoption of Saunders' (2009) research onion in the study provided a clear road map for how the study was to be conducted scientifically through a stage-by-stage progression with the methodology. The research onion provided insights on the research philosophy, approach, strategies, techniques and procedures for data collection in the study. The study

is purely qualitative in nature and as such, this chapter has provided a clear justification for the sample size used in the study. Chapter Five looks at the presentation and analysis of the in-depth interviews in the study.

CHAPTER FIVE: IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS DATA PRESENTATION

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the research methodology of the study. This chapter presents the data and analysis of the in-depth interviews that were conducted. The study adopted a qualitative research approach underpinned by ecological systems theory with in-depth interviews and focus groups as sources of data. Thematic analysis and NVivo qualitative data analysis software were used to analyse the data collected. The data is presented sequentially according to the structure of the research questions of the study.

5.2 Overview of the causes of school-based violence in the study

In accordance with the ESM, the model below presents an overview of the causes of school-based violence across the four (4) levels of the ecological systems theory based on the data collected via in-depth interviews in the study.
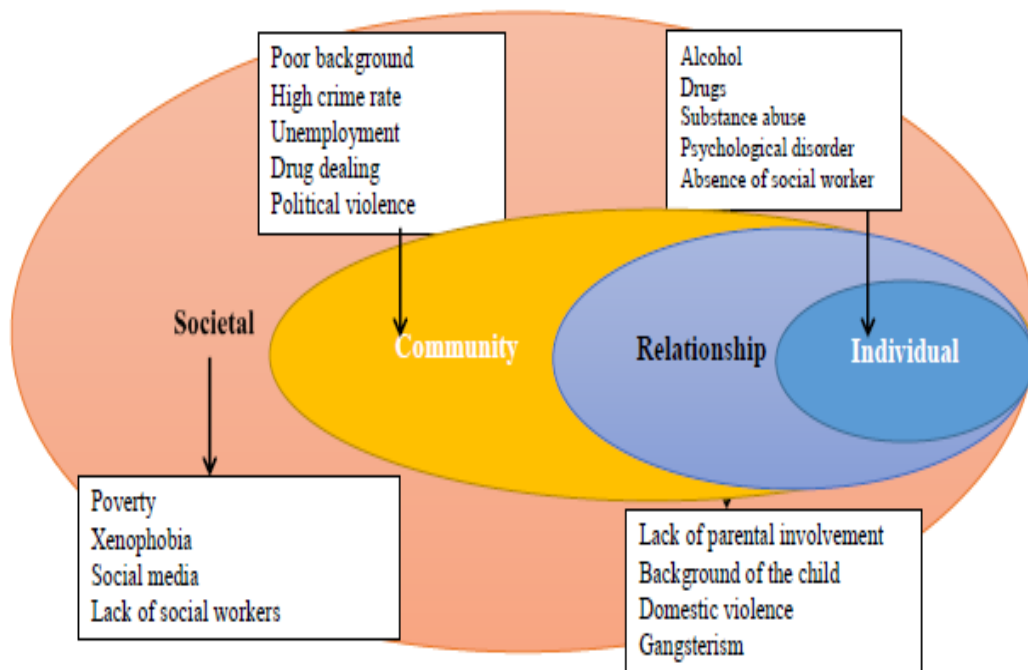
Figure 9: Summary of the causes of school-based violence in the study

In the microsystem, alcohol, drugs, substance abuse and psychological disorder were identified as the causes of school-based violence in high schools. In the mesosystem, lack of parental involvement, the background of the child, domestic violence, and gangsterism were identified as the causes of school-based violence in high schools. In the exosystem, the poor background of the child, a high crime rate, unemployment, drug dealing and political violence were identified as causes of school-based violence, while in the macrosystem, poverty, social media and lack of social workers were identified as causes of school-based violence in high schools.

5.3 Presentation of demographic data

It was considered important that men and women be equally represented in the study to provide a gender-balanced set of results. Data from both genders, and from victims and perpetrators of school-based violence in high schools, is represented. The views of each gender enabled the researcher to determine the victims and perpetrators of different forms of school-based violence.

5.3.1 Gender representation in the study

A total of 18 respondents participated in the in-depth interviews, and they were divided into four categories: (1) principals, (2) heads of department (HODs), (3) educators, (4) SGB members, and (5) learners. The gender breakdown of the participants is presented in Figure 10 below.
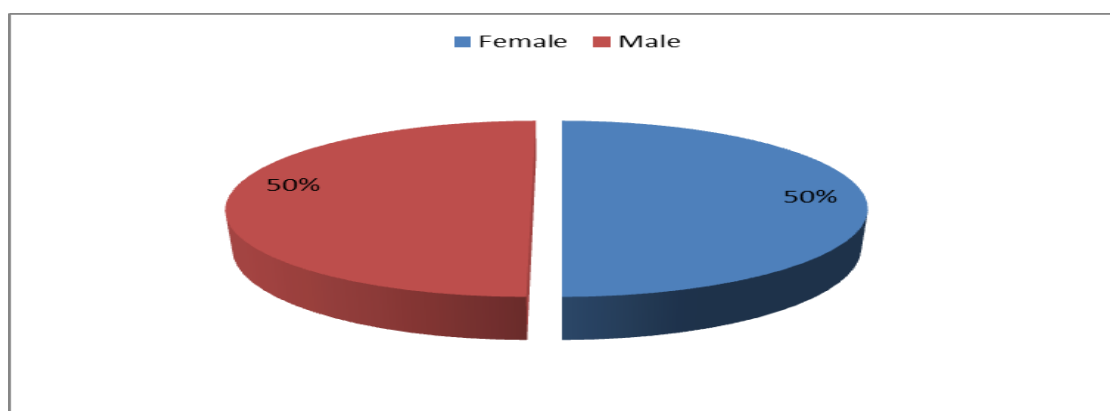
Figure 10: Distribution of participants by gender

Figure 10 presents as a percentage the gender breakdown of the participants in the in-depth interviews. The data collected revealed that 50 % of the participants were male while the remaining 50 % were female. The gender breakdown of the participants in the study was therefore exactly equal for the in-depth interviews, and no gender was favoured in terms of voice.

5.3.2 Professional distribution of respondents

The 18 respondents who participated in the in-depth interviews were selected from different categories of stakeholders at the schools, as represented in Figure 11 below, which presents a breakdown of the respondents according to their professional classifications. The SGB members, educators and learners each constituted 22 % of the total number of respondents for the study, while the principals and the HODs constituted 11 % and 23 % respectively. The composition of the respondents shows that the researcher's selection of respondents was representative of the different categories of stakeholders at the schools.
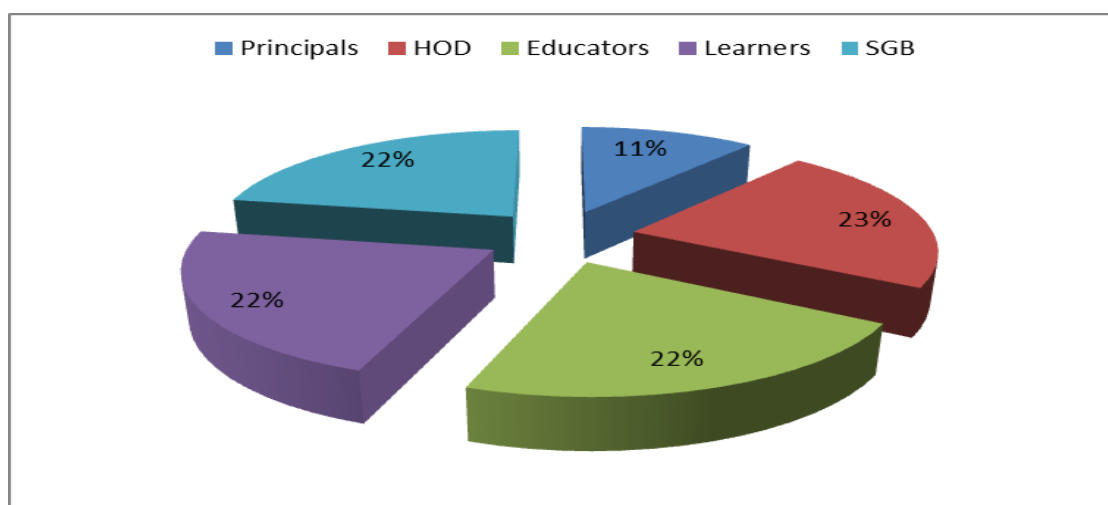
Figure 11: Professional distribution of respondents

5.4 The microsystem factors that influence school-based violence

Data collected across the two (2) study sites identified the same individual factors that cause school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province.

Alcohol was identified as a cause of school-based violence at the microsystem level of the ESM. A participant who is a professional manager in one of the research sites stated as follows:

> *This community is like a location people drink day and night adults and children, you can smell alcohol on some learners on their way to school. Some of the learners are drunk before school starts.*

The above extract reveals that some learners enter the classroom drunk before classes begin. A learner who is drunk in class could commit different kinds of school-based violence in class under the influence of alcohol. This is illustrated in the tree diagram in Figure 12 below.
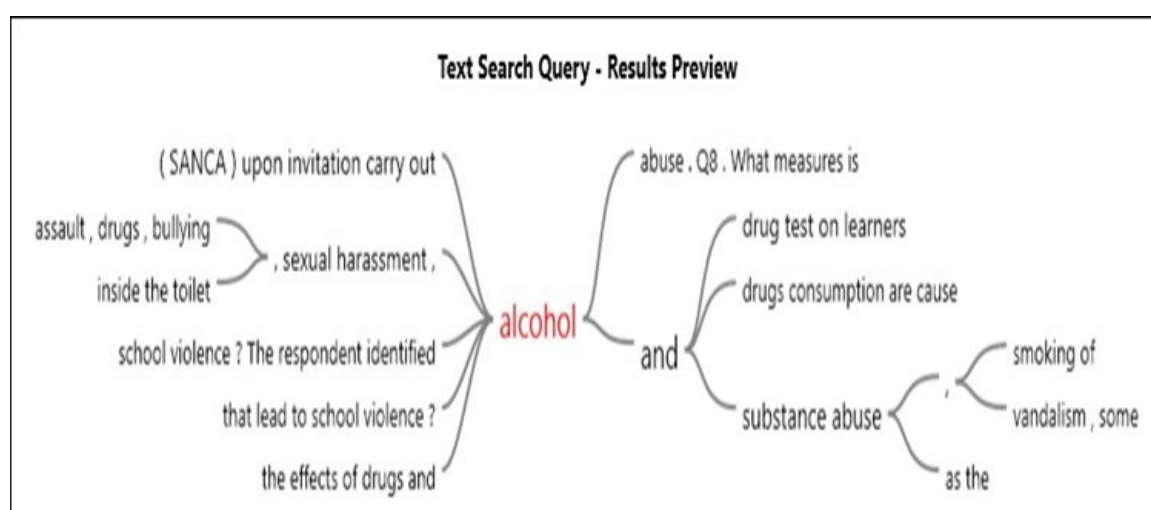
Figure 12: Alcohol as a factor influencing school-based violence

The tree diagram in Figure 12 reveals that there is a direct link between alcohol and sexual harassment in schools. It illustrates how alcohol could influence learners, whose unacceptable behaviours could lead to sexual harassment and other forms of violence in school, including bullying and assault. A participant revealed that some of the learners come to school with alcohol and consume it in the school toilets during break time, which explains the relationship between alcohol and the toilet in Figure 12. A participant who is a learner revealed that:

Learners bring in alcohol in water bottles so that security at the gate will think it is water. They drink in the toilets even in the classroom.

The presence of alcohol in high schools could increase the level of violence, because it can lead to situations of intense peer pressure where non-drinkers are influenced to consume alcohol.

The smoking of marijuana by learners was also identified as a cause of school-based violence in the study. A participant who is a Head of Department revealed the following:

Violence in our school is high because these children smoke "Darka" marijuana. Oh the girls take snuff; you know the snuff old "gogo" take; these young girls too take them to get high.

The data collected in the study revealed that learners do not only consume alcohol but smoke marijuana in school, which leads to school-based violence in high schools. These influencing factors could trigger various forms of school-based violence in high schools, such as verbal and physical assault, bullying, and sexual harassment.
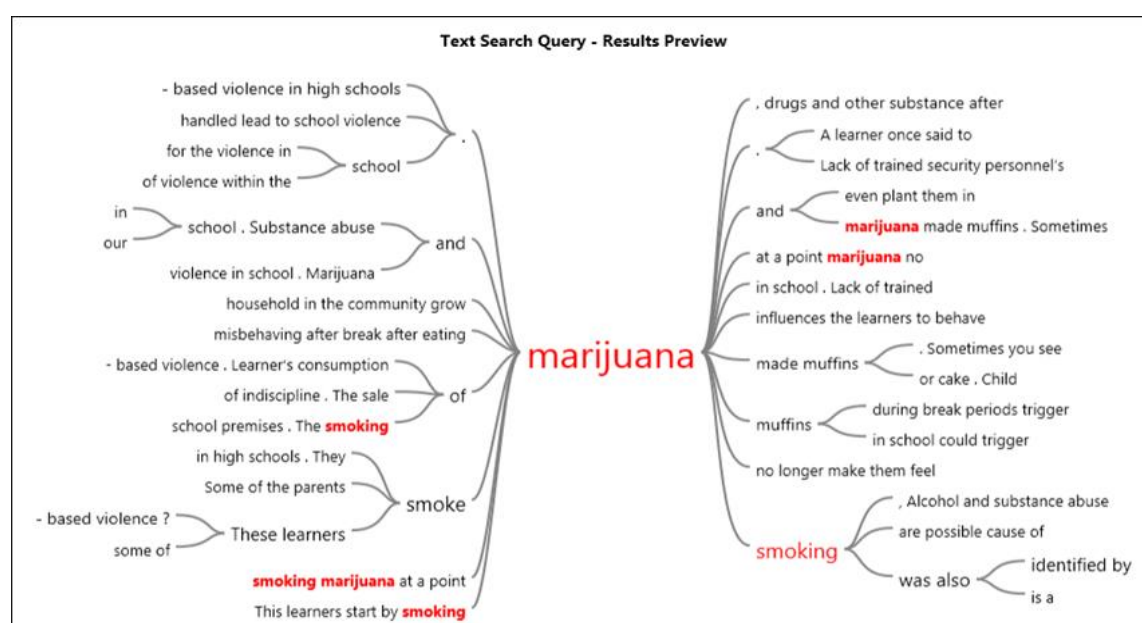
Figure 13: Marijuana as a factor influencing school-based violence

The tree diagram in Figure 13 shows a direct relationship between marijuana smoking, assault, and other forms of school-based violence that occurs within and outside the school premises. It also reveals that marijuana is grown in the community, which makes it accessible to learners. A participant who is a learner stated the following:

> *Sir, learners smoke marijuana in the toilets, on the soccer field during break and in the classroom after closing hours.*

This comment shows that the school lacks adequate monitoring of the learners, which has resulted in the learners being able to smoke marijuana freely on the school premises. The lack of professional security services in the school has created room for unacceptable behaviours that lead to school-based violence.

Drug abuse by learners was identified as a cause of school-based violence in the study. A participant revealed that:

> *Marijuana is planted all around the community so they take it any time and when marijuana cannot make them (learners) high any longer they resort to drugs and substance abuse like tyre solution, wonga and ecstacy.*

Drugs that find their way onto the school premises are supplied by sources in the community, and as such the eradication of drugs from the community remains a social problem that must be handled by the appropriate government agencies like the South African Police Service (SAPS).
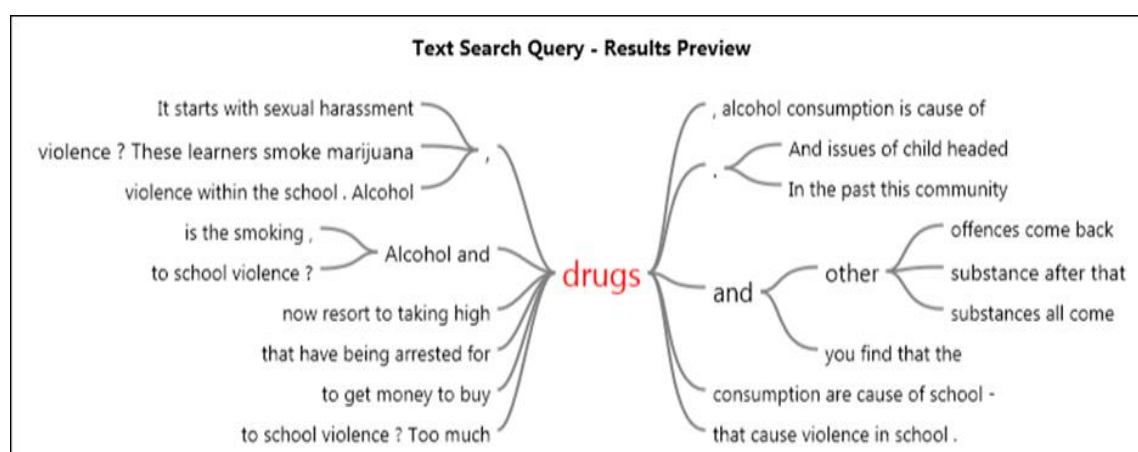
Figure 14: Drugs as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 14 above shows that drug abuse has a direct influence on learners that causes school-based violence in high schools. Regardless of whether these drugs are consumed within or outside the school premises or even within the community, they have a strong influence on learners that causes different forms of violence in school as shown in the tree diagram in Figure 14. The tree pattern above depicts sexual harassment and other forms of unacceptable behaviours within the school environment. A participant stated that:

> *Some of these learners do not only consume these substances but also sell them within the school premises*

This opinion was echoed by most participants in the study that some learners also sell drugs within the school premises. Drug dealing in school requires a strong affiliation with drug dealers in the community.

Psychological factors were identified in the study as a cause of school-based violence at the microsystem level of the ecological systems theory. A participant in the study who is a counsellor stated that:

> *The consumption of drugs and other substances has a psychological impact on learners that increases the rate of violence within the school environment.*

This statement by a participant shows that the psychological state of mind of a learner could increase the level of violence within the school. A learner who is a drug addict, for example, could have a higher tendency to cause violence within the school than someone who is not on drugs.

5.5 The mesosystem factors that influence school-based violence

The study at the mesosystem level identified the same factors that cause school-based violence across the two (2) study sites. Poor parental involvement was identified as a cause of school-based violence at this level of the ecological systems theory. Data revealed that there is a direct relationship between poor parental involvement and the individual-level factors that cause school-based violence in high schools. A participant stated that:

There is high level of unemployment in the community, most parents are unemployed all they do is drink alcohol and abuse substances. As you drive to work in the morning, you see them in groups just seating looking very dejected. It is extremely difficult for them to care for their children when they cannot even control themselves and live an exemplary life.

The statement above suggests that parental involvement has a relationship with economic empowerment. It could be interpreted to mean that parents are less involved in the affairs of their children when they do not have the financial resources to meet the family's needs.
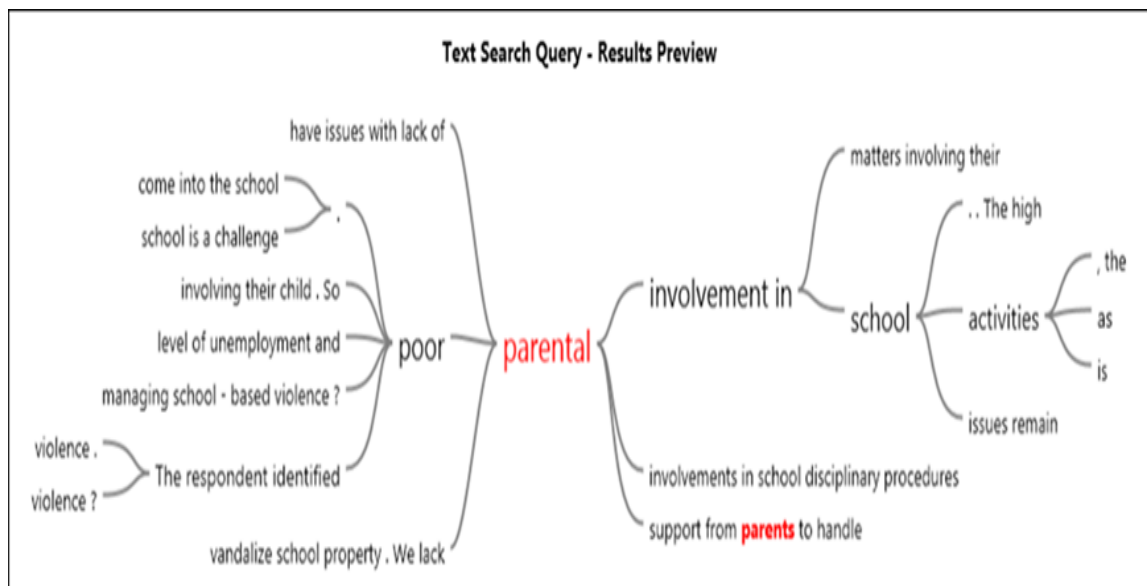
Figure 15: Parental involvement as a factor influencing school-based violence

Poor parental involvement, as shown in the tree diagram in Figure 15 above, could increase the level of school-based violence in high schools. The diagram also connotes a relationship between unemployment and parental involvement. School managers in the study insist that disciplinary issues and measures are more effective when parents are involved in the disciplinary process. The impact of punishment and retribution are heavy on the child and yield more positive results when parents support the disciplinary process and the decisions of the school disciplinary committee. When parents are not involved in the process of disciplining a perpetrator at school, it can create challenges for the school by increasing the disciplinary issues that could lead to increase school-based violence. A participant in the study who is a SGB member stated that:

The prolonged political violence in the area led to so many loss of lives between African National Congress (ANC) supporters and Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) leaving so many children as orphan today.

The bitter impact of the prolonged political violence left many learners orphans. It seems that lack of parental involvement is a significant reason for school-based violence being on the increase. Lack of parental involvement in the life of a learner could be seen as an influencing factor that causes school-based violence.

The background of the learners was identified as one of the causes of school-based violence in high schools at the mesosystem level. The school is part of the community, and whatever finds its way into the community, like political violence, drugs and substance abuse, could easily filter into the schools and thereby increase the level of violence. A participant stated that:

Our learners are exposed to volatile political and social situations in their homes and in the community, this in my opinion plays a vital role in the shaping of a learner's behaviour.

A learner exposed to domestic violence at home and to other forms of violence in the community could easily exhibit violent tendencies at school that could lead to school-based violence. The tree query in Figure 16 below depicts the relationship between the background of a learner and school-based violence.
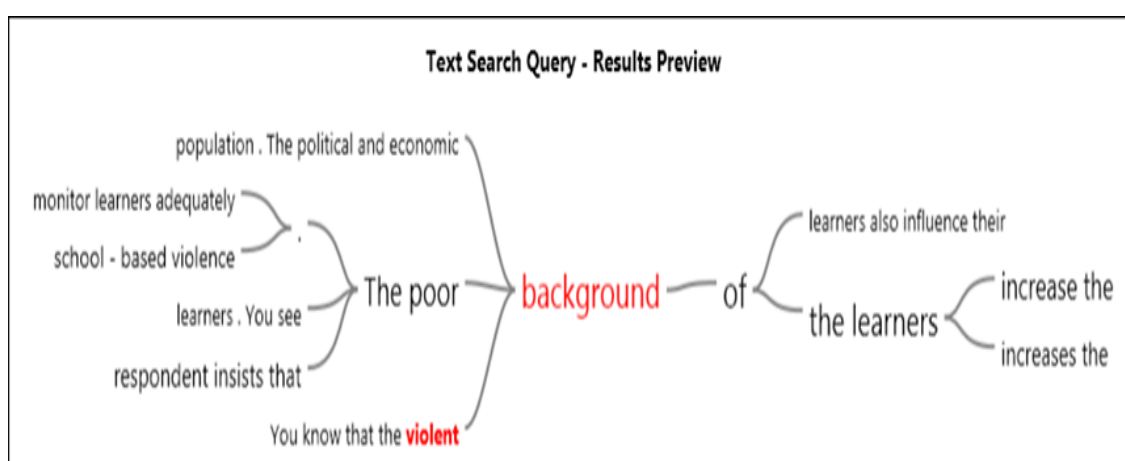
Figure 16: Family background as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 16 above shows that the socio-economic and political background of a learner influences the learner's behaviour in terms of school-based violence. Learners from communities where political conflict is settled violently have a tendency to demonstrate violent traits at school. Themes that emerged from Figure 16 demonstrate that learners from poor backgrounds could be influenced easily by peers from a stronger financial background, and by those who make money through illegal activities such as selling drugs. A participant stated that:

> *Sometimes we must listen to these learners and not treat them like children; some of them are passing through very difficult challenges in life.*

The decision processes relating to issues concerning learners should not be made in a hurry, and the voice of the learners should be heard and their viewpoint shared before decisions are reached. Learners tend to react negatively when they are treated unfairly, and this reaction could be violent. The reasons underpinning their behaviour may have a direct relationship with their background. Domestic violence was identified as a cause of school-based violence at the mesosystem level of the ecological systems theory. A participant stated that:

> *A learner exposed to domestic violence could have a high tendency of using violence to resolve issue with classmates.*

A learner exposed to constant fighting at home could have a high tendency to use violence to resolve issues at school. Most participants agreed with the statement that school-based violence in high schools is on the increase because of the increased level of violence in the community and at home.

Gangsterism was identified in the study at the mesosystem level of the ecological systems theory as a cause of school-based violence in high schools. A participant stated that:

> *Most young men in the community go into drug dealing and other illegal transactions as a result of lack of jobs. It sometimes starts as a group of friends then it goes into a full blown gangsterism. You see them at the tuckshops playing loud music in their cars. These gangs have cells that sell drugs for them in schools.*

116

The school represents a subset of the larger community, and within the school also are subsets of gangs that belong to the larger gangs in the community. Frictions among gangs in the community can easily manifest on school premises and cause serious unrest. The tree diagram in Figure 17 below shows the relationship between gangs and school violence.

Text Search Query - Results Preview

created fraction and as such

influence school - based violence ? Community → **gangs**

smoke together so they form

and when they are together

are formed within friends at

have cell in our school
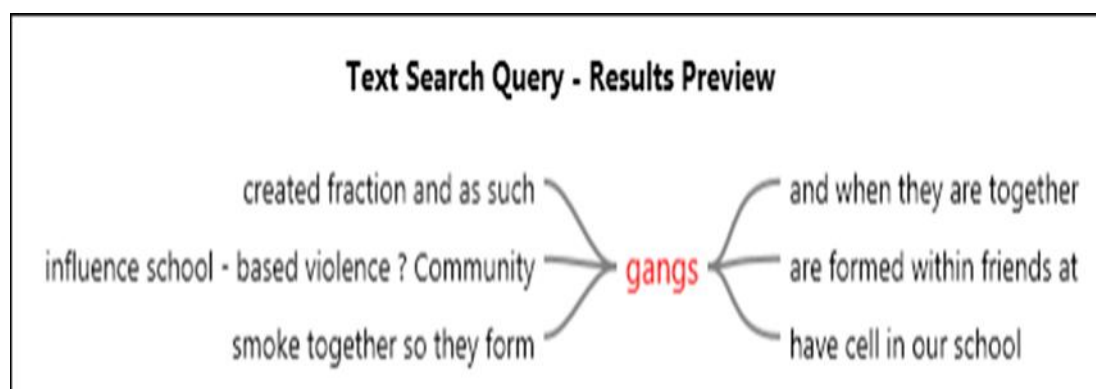
Figure 17: Gangs as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 17 shows that gangsterism causes school-based violence by influencing the behaviour of learners, and that it has its roots in the community. Gangs originate with groups of friends who develop stronger ties as time goes on. A participant stated that:

> *I am so scared of some of these learners, one educator was beaten in our school because he confiscated a cell phone belonging to a learner in class before break time. After break the learner's gang members from the community came to school with two cars to collect the cell phone and beat-up the educator.*

The activities of gangs within the school premises could prevent educators from carrying out their primary assignment effectively and efficiently. When gang-related incidents happen in school, teaching and learning are negatively affected.

5.6 The exosystem factors that influence school-based violence

Community-level influences represent the third level of the ecological systems theory. Data collected at this level of influence impacts deeply on the risk factors that cause school-based violence in high school. The background of the learners has been identified

at this level of influence as one of the causes of school-based violence. However, this factor will not be discussed at this level because it has been discussed at the mesosystem level above.

Political violence emerged as one of the factors that cause school-based violence in high schools. Most participants in the study identified political violence as an influencing factor that causes school-based violence at the exosystem level of the ecological systems theory. A participant stated that:

> *This area is a stronghold of Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP), the African National Congress (ANC) supporters and that of IFP have being fighting for majority and leadership of the area which has resulted in the loss of many lives and properties. This political disagreement has being imbibed even to the learners that they do not want to share a common goal. Bitterness of the past easily results in serious fights in school which spill over into the community.*

The spillover of political disagreement amongst political party supporters into school premises would only complicate the management of the antisocial behaviours that lead to school-based violence in high schools. The tree query in Figure 18 below shows the relationship between political violence and school-based violence.
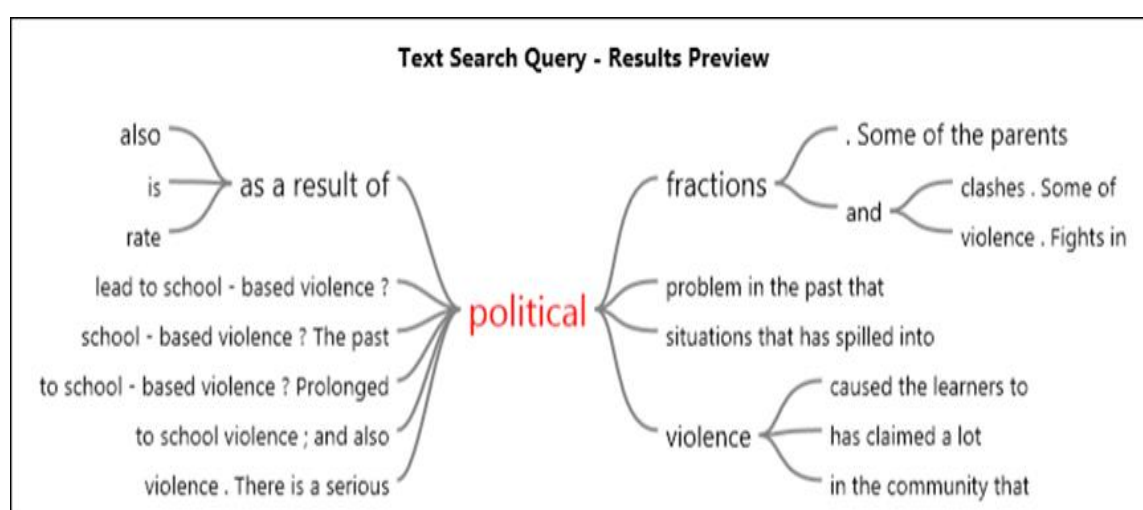
Figure 18: Political violence as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 18 establishes a relationship between political violence and school-based violence in high schools. The impact of political violence in the community spills over into the school environment, aggravating unacceptable behaviours in school that lead to school-based violence. A participant stated that:

> *The political division in the area makes it extremely difficult for the school to have the most ideal people in the School Governing Body (SGB), compromising quality decision making which creates room for disagreements. For example, parents do not support any motion raised by a member of the opposition party. The disagreement generates chaos which spills over to learners and causes problems in school that lead to violence.*

School management could be more effective when SGB members support the school management adequately and where the SGB has the full support of the parents. A participant maintained that respected community members who are highly educated do not want to be members of the SGB because of the intense political division in the community, which is also visible in the SGB.

Drugs have been discussed in section 5.4 above, and to avoid repetition will not be discussed in this section.

The high level of unemployment emerged as a factor that causes school-based violence at the exosystem level of the ESM of the study. A participant in the study stated that:

> *Most of the community members are not educated and are unskilled; the few that are working are mostly farm workers who earn very little. In my opinion, I believe the high rate of unemployment is responsible for the high crime rate in the community.*

Almost all participants affirmed that the high level of unemployment is a factor that causes school-based violence and could be responsible for the high crime rate in the community.

Figure 19: Unemployment as a factor influencing school-based violence
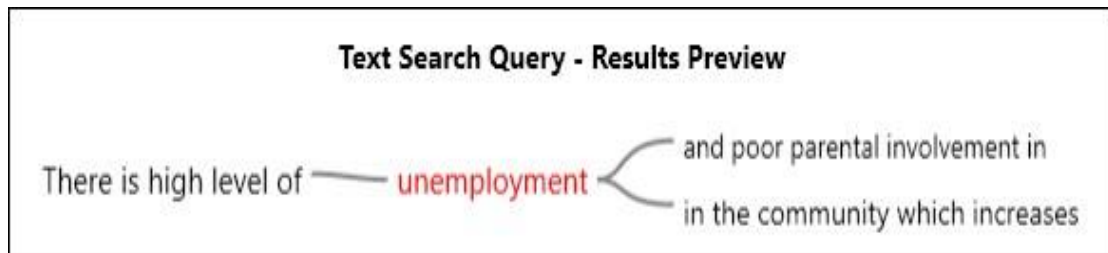
Figure 19 above shows that unemployment leads to poor parental involvement in the lives of learners. Poor parental involvement has been identified a factor that causes school-based violence in high schools.
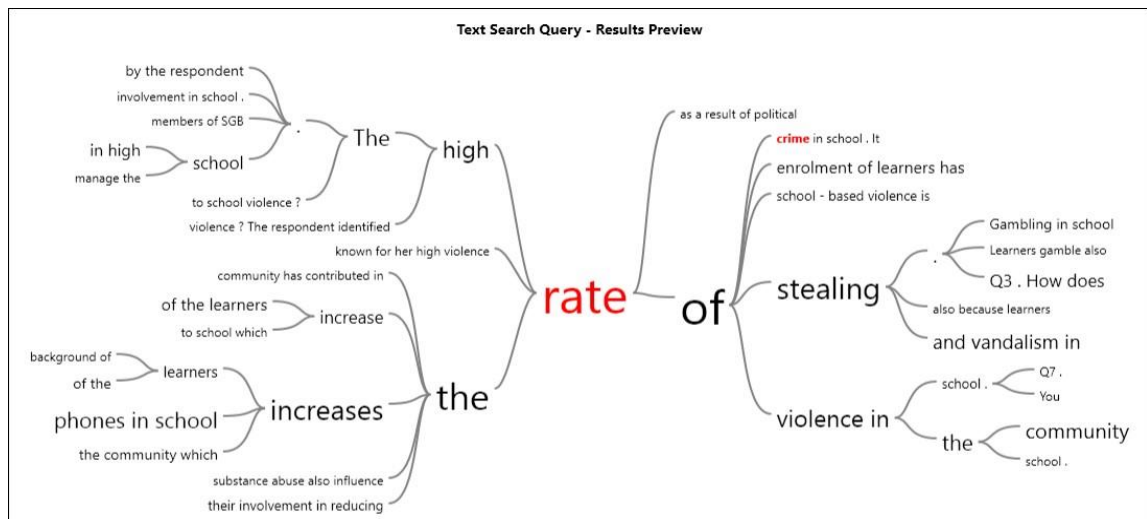
Figure 20: Crime rate as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 20 above demonstrates the relationship between school-based violence in high schools and a high crime rate in the community, and shows the position of the majority of the participants that the high crime rate in the community influences school-based violence in high school. Vandalism of school property and theft of cell phones are crimes that commonly take place on the school premises.

5.7 The macrosystem factors that influence school-based violence

The societal-level influence represents the last level of the ESM. Socio-economic factors feature prominently in the list of factors identified as causes of school-based violence in high schools from the data collected in the study. A participant stated that:

> *Our feeding scheme in school is the only place where some of these learners are assured of a meal a day. Their background is so poor that even feeding is a problem, some of the learners are here not because they want to learn but because they are assured a meal at break time. Some learners do not come back to class after break.*

The above statement illustrates the high level of poverty in the community which could be related to many of the influencing factors on school-based violence, such as vandalism of school property, the psychological impact of poverty, poor parental involvement, and the high crime rate.
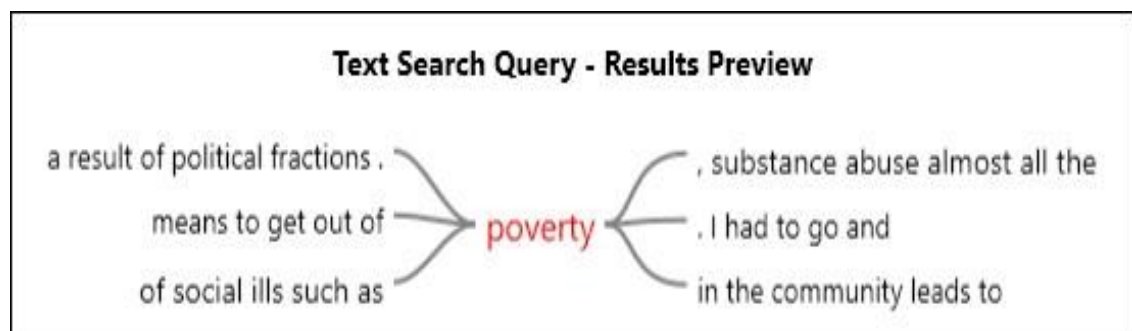
Figure 21: Poverty as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 21 above shows a relationship between poverty and substance abuse, which has been identified in the study as a factor that causes school-based violence in high schools. Poverty as a social ill has an immensely negative impact in the community. A participant in the study stated that:

> *Some families barely have a meal a day, this is what has caused the increase in crime, stealing and prostitution which has increased HIV/AIDS in the community. You would not believe some of these young female learners are lured to bed by men just to have something to eat.*

The empowerment of community members through skills acquisition through Further Education and Training (FET) colleges could be an ideal intervention.

Social media was shown to increase the rate of cyberbullying in high schools. A participant stated that:

> *It is better imagined what these learners do on their cell phones. Smart phones have made it very easy for learners to send and receive very foul images, which has given rise to child pornography and cyberbullying.*

Cyberbullying has been identified in the study as a form of online violence that is on the increase in high schools. Technological advancement in cell phone technologies is said to have given rise to online crimes like cyberbullying and the creation and dissemination of child pornography in schools.
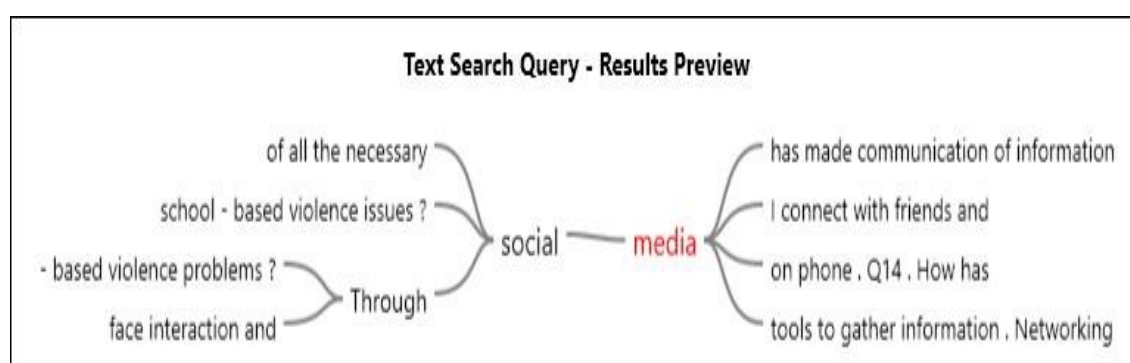
Figure 22: Social media impact as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 22 above reveals a direct relationship between school-based violence and social media influence. Cyberbullying is an example of social media violence which is perpetuated online. Lack of social workers in high schools was identified by most participants in the study as a factor that could be responsible for the increase in school-based violence in high schools. A participant in the study stated that:

> *All the schools in these districts have two (2) social workers who visit once in two weeks and even when they come they spend less than two (2) hours except in exceptional situations. Each school is supposed to have a resident social worker. I do not think that the Department of Education is fully aware of the functions of*

social workers and the immense benefit they provide to the school and the community.

Most participants affirm that the absence of social workers in schools leaves a vacuum that increases the rate of violence in schools. Participants maintain that issues that are supposed to be dealt with immediately are left to get out of control, making the situations worse and more complex to handle.
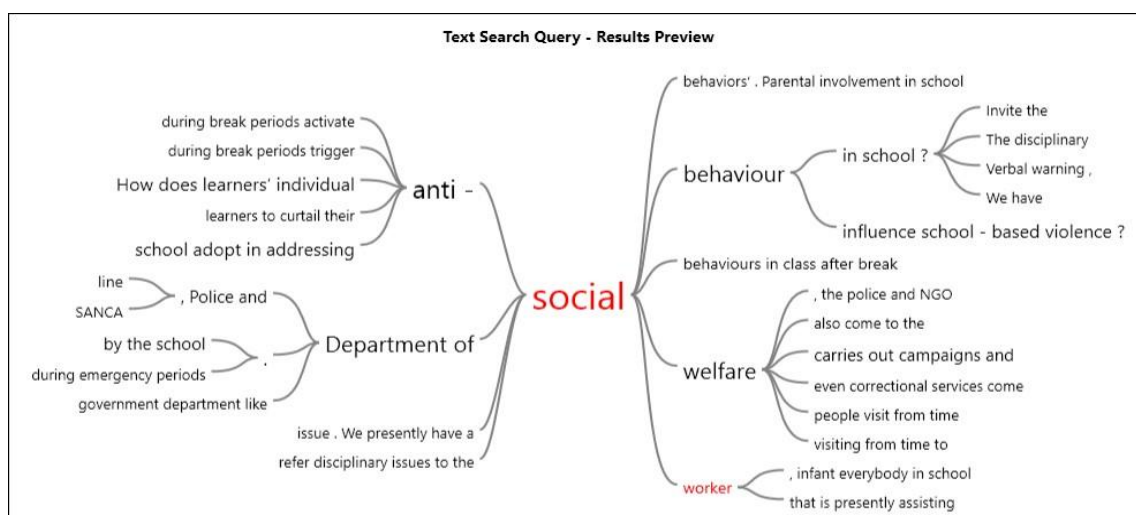
Figure 23: Social workers as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 23 shows that the presence of social workers in schools could address behavioural issues. Participants insist that social workers should facilitate the intervention of the Department of Social Welfare where the need arises, and should make professional recommendations, for example in relation to drug-addicted learners.

The educators play the role of teachers and counsellors simultaneously, which increases their likelihood of burnout. It would be ideal if each school to have a permanent social worker to address issues professionally. Sometimes the police are called in to handle issues involving minors that should not escalate to the point of police involvement. Violence begets violence, and when minors are treated like criminals the results are seldom positive.

5.8 Interventions that could be employed to manage school-based violence

The intervention strategies proffered by participants in the study will be presented sequentially according to the four (4) levels of the ESM adopted in the study. Most participants in the study are of the opinion that school-based violence can be contained in high schools.

5.8.1. Intervention strategies at the microsystem level

Most participants were of the opinion that adequate monitoring and good security personnel would help curb the issue of school-based violence. A participant who is a member of school management team stated that:

> *We require a well fenced school, trained security personnel, a professional*
> *social worker and support from civil society.*

The participant suggested that support from civil society could be in the form of bursaries for learners, school uniforms and well-developed recreational facilities for the school.
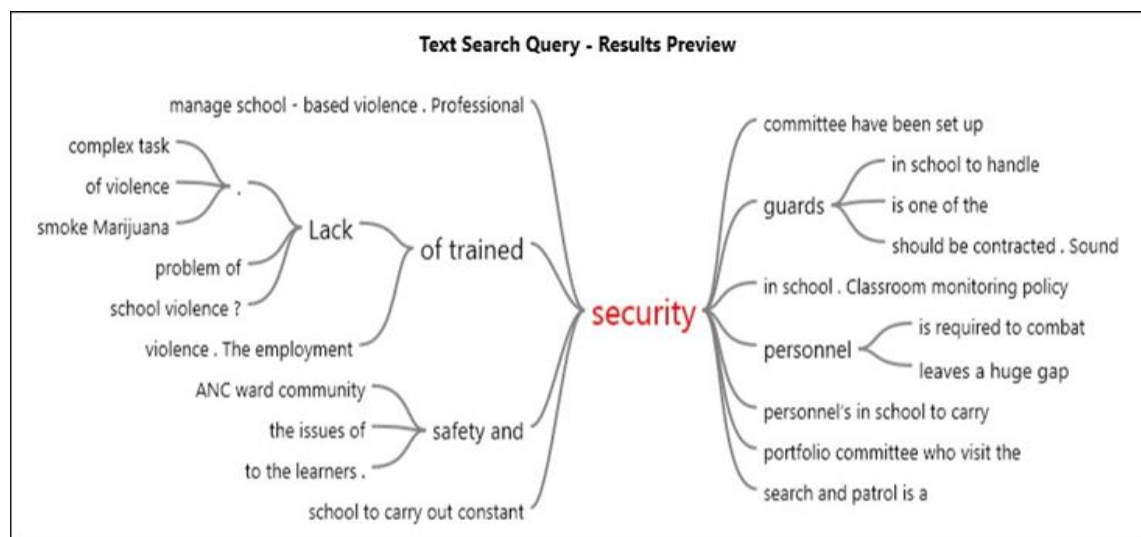
Figure 24: Security as a factor influencing school-based violence.

Figure 24 shows that the engagement of professional security services in high schools to provide security and monitoring would reduce the level of school-based violence in high schools. A participant in the study stated that:

124

ANC ward committees on security should be called upon by schools to assist in fighting drug dealers and gangsterism in schools. The ANC councillor in the areas where these schools are located know the community members, and identifying trouble makers will not be a problem.

Most of the participants affirmed that the involvement of ward councillors in school-based violence matters would make the phenomenon more manageable.
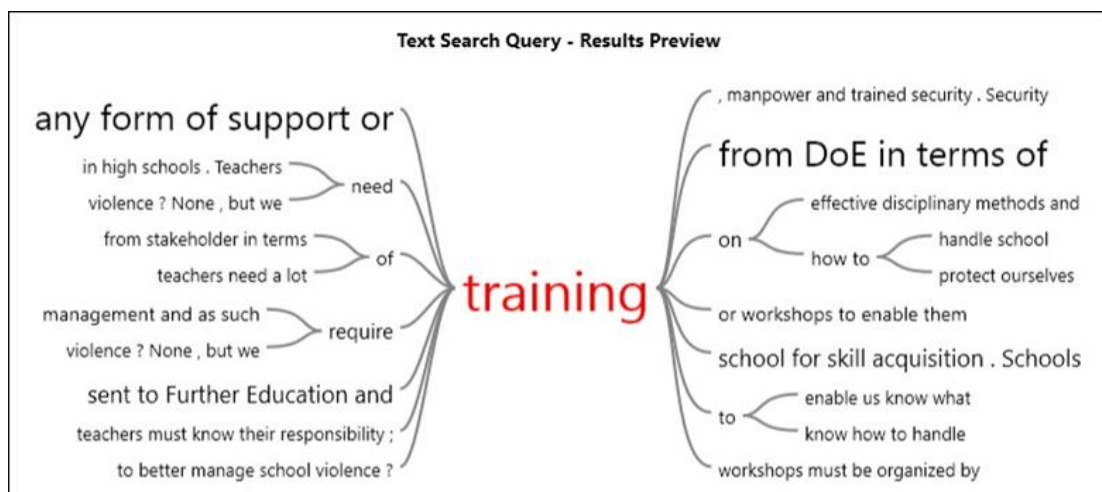
Figure 25: Training as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 25 reveals that educators and other school managers lack the required skills to manage school-based violence in high schools. It further shows that when school managers and educators are equipped with the right skills, school-based violence could be better managed.

A participant who is an HOD in the study stated that:

Educators require any form of support that would enable them manage school-based violence effectively to enhance teaching and learning.

An educator stated that:

> *Workshops on conflict resolution and effective disciplinary methods must be introduced in school to replace the abolished corporal punishment.*

Most participants in the study agreed that educators, HODs, principals and SGB members require professional development in the management of school-based violence in high schools.

5.8.2 Intervention strategies at the mesosystem level

At the mesosystem level most participants claimed that awareness campaigns within the community to expose socials ills like drug addiction, domestic violence and gangsterism would assist in the management of school-based violence in high schools. A participant stated that:

> *SGB members should be adequately trained in school management to ensure the smooth running of schools. Likewise a social worker should be attached to each school to render the required services to the learners.*

A participant who is an HOD stated that:

> *SGB members should be carefully vetted before being elected onto the SGB to ensure that capable people for the positions actually occupy them. By so doing, efficiency and standards will not be compromised.*
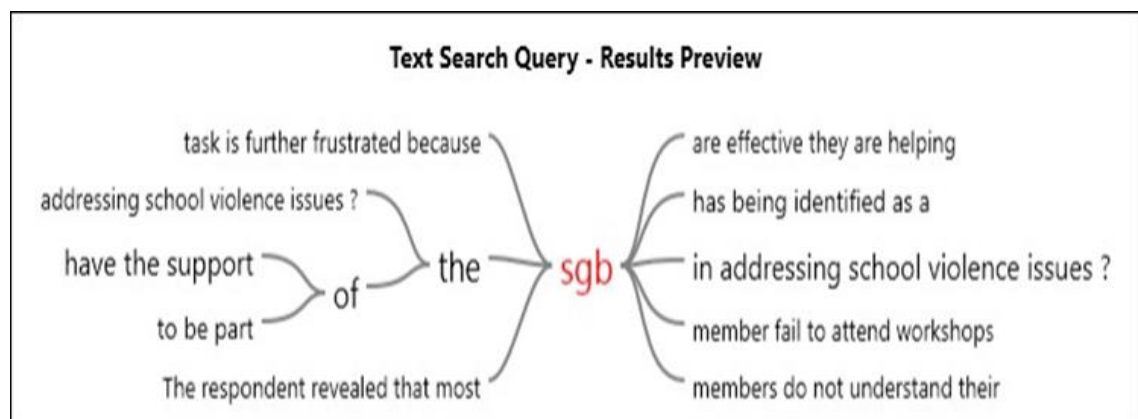
Figure 26: The SGB as a factor influencing school-based violence

Figure 26 shows that SGB members are most often nominated and elected based on their availability rather than their credentials. The tree query illustrates how school management is frustrated by SGB members who do not attend workshops provided by the DoE, and who also do not possess the right credentials to occupy those positions. However, they are of the opinion that parents with good credentials who are influential in the community should be encouraged by the school management to be members of the SGB.

5.8.3. Intervention strategies at the exosystem level

Job creation and community policing are new interventions that have emerged at this level of influence in the study. A participant in the study stated that:

> *The government should create jobs for parents to be meaningfully employed. By so doing, parents can take care of their families and get more involved in school matters involving their children.*

Most participants affirmed that job creation would facilitate the management of social vices in the community, such as drug dealing and vandalism, which spill over into the school environment.

5.8.4. Intervention strategies at the macrosystem level

At the macrosystem level, it was suggested that clear government policies would provide clear direction on how to manage school-based violence issues. For example, a participant stated the following:

> *Since the abolishment of corporal punishment in schools the government has not provided any alternative measure of punishment in schools. So clear directives should be provided on effective disciplinary measures in schools.*

A participant maintained that:

> *Entrepreneurial development programmes should be created by the government to address the issues of unemployment through further education and training colleges in the country.*
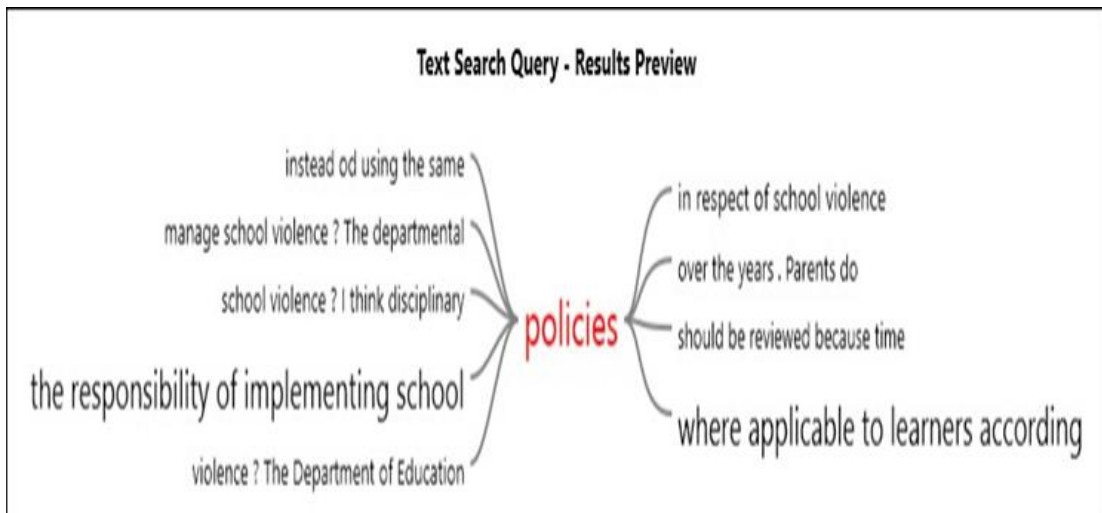
Figure 27: Policies as intervention initiative in managing school-based violence.

Figure 27 indicates that present school polices are obsolete because they do not cover current school-based violence issues, such as the online violence being experienced in schools. These policies should therefore be reviewed.

A participant stated that:

> *The disciplinary process of expelling a learner who has a serious disciplinary problem is too long. However, practically in line with school policies you cannot expel a learner but can only transfer the learner to another school thereby transferring the problem to another management.*

Most participants affirm that clear school polices would make it easy for school managers to manage school-based violence in high schools effectively and efficiently.

5.9 Forms of school-based violence identified in the study

This study looked at the causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province. One of the core contributions of the study was to develop a model that would assist school managers to reduce and manage school-based violence in high schools. It is vital to understand the school-based factors that influence violence in schools, and as such the opinions of learners who are at the centre of the violence and are closest to the perpetrators of school-based violence needed to be

heard. The contributions of the learners to the study therefore cannot be overemphasised. A respondent stated that:

> *Yoh we experience lots of violence in the school but the main problem is drugs, substance abuse and marijuana smoking in school because this one influences others.*

Participants in the study maintained that alcohol and drug abuse are among the most important factors that influence school-based violence in high schools. The researcher believes that alcohol, drugs and substance abuse have a direct influence on assault, bullying, rape, sexual harassment and vandalism.

A participant stated that:

> *There have been increased cases of vandalism and theft of expensive school bags and cell phones. These unacceptable acts are the handiwork of drug users who want quick money for drugs.*

Participants who are learners stated that drug usage in school was on the increase compared with the preceding year. Data indicated that sex-related offences were on the increase in schools as a result of the increased influence of alcohol and substance abuse. Participants affirm that vandalism of school property and theft in school are carried out by learners who take drugs in school. The vandalised property and stolen goods are sold to obtain money for drugs and other substances.

5.10 Conclusion

This chapter presented and analysed the data from the in-depth interviews conducted in the study. Data on the influencing factors that cause school-based violence at different levels of the ESM at high schools were presented and analysed. Forms of school-based violence identified in the study were also presented and analysed. The following chapter contains presents and analyses the data from the focus group interviews conducted in the study.

CHAPTER SIX: FOCUS GROUP DATA PRESENTATION

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented and analysed the data from the in-depth interviews conducted in the study. This chapter presents and analyses the data from the focus group interviews. Two focus group interviews were conducted in the study, one from each research site, in order to enrich the quality of the study and reinforce the data collected through the in-depth interviews. Each focus group was made up of 10 learners (four learners from Grade 12, and two learners each from Grades 9–11). The learners chosen were the class representatives of their classes and their deputies. Grade 8 learners were excluded from the study because they had spent less than six months in their respective schools at the time of the study, and the researcher was of the opinion that they were yet to settle down at school and could not provide in-depth information for the study.

A total of 20 learners were scheduled to be interviewed in the study. However, one learner from School B was absent from school on the day of the interview and did not participate in the study. A total of 19 participants participated in the focus group interviews, which represents 95 % of the scheduled participants. The justification for the size of the focus groups in the study is contained in section 4.14.1.

The data is presented sequentially, according to the research questions of the study.

6.2 Overview of the causes of school-based violence in the study

The overview of the causes of school-based violence in the study was presented in section 5.2 in the previous chapter, and in order to avoid repetition, will not be presented in this section.

6.3 Demographic representation of participants in focus group interviews

A total of 19 learners participated in the focus group interviews across four grades. These learners were categorized according to their gender and their grade only. This categorization was necessary to provide more clarity on the participation of learners across the grades in the study.

6.3.1 Gender representation of participants in focus group interviews
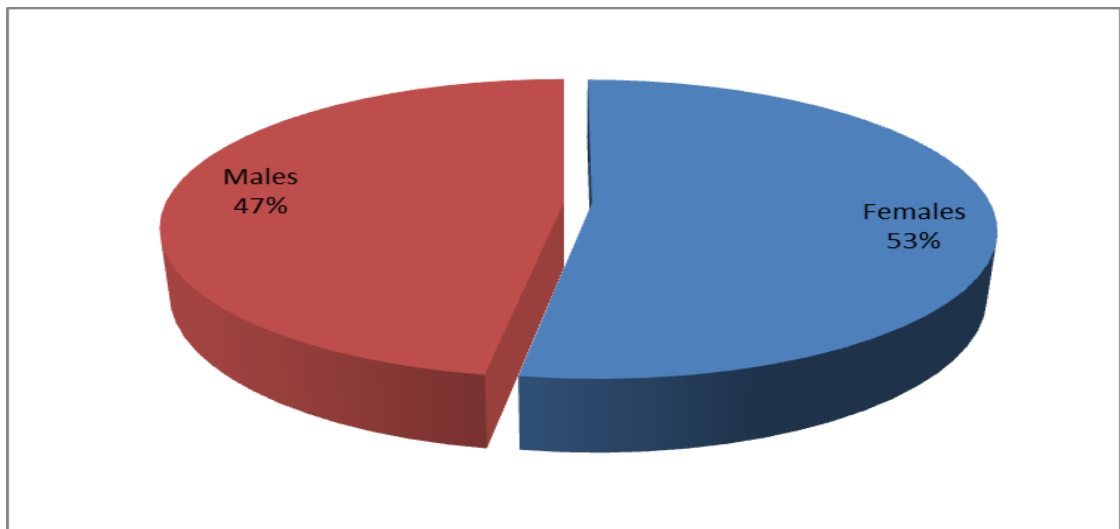
Figure 28: Distribution of participants by gender in focus group interviews

Figure 28 shows the gender breakdown of the participants in the focus group interviews in the study. Female participation stood at 53 %, with 47 % male participation. The slight imbalance in gender representation in the study was as a result of the absence of one participant in the focus group interviews.

6.3.2 Grade representation of participants in focus group interviews
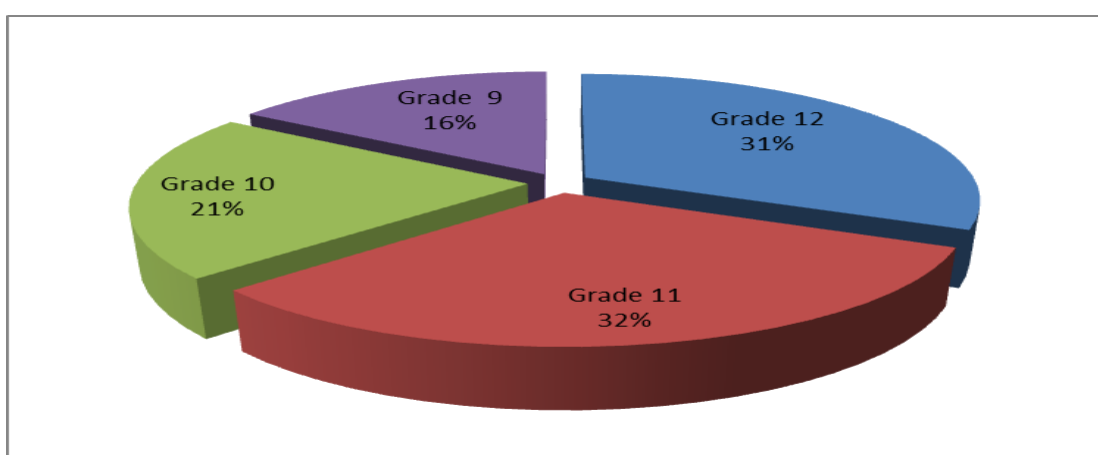
Figure 29: Distribution of participants by grade in focus group interviews

Figure 29 shows the grade representation of participants in the study. Grades 11 and 12 had six (6) participants from each grade respectively, while Grades 9 and 10 had four (4) respondents per grade. However, one participant from Grade 9 could not participate in the focus group forum because he was absent from school on the day of the interview.

6.4 The microsystem factors that influence school-based violence

Data collected from the two focus group interviews revealed that some learners are on drugs and are under the influence of different substances that influence their behaviour in school, and that can lead to school-based violence. The findings revealed that learners smoke marijuana, and consume alcohol and various other substances while on the school premises. The consumption and abuse of these substances can affect learners' behaviour and lead to school-based violence. A participant stated that:

> *Our learners smoke marijuana, drink alcohol in school which they bring in with water containers. Sir! Do you know snuff, our girls also take snuff in the toilets also.*

The findings revealed that a range of substances find their way onto school premises and influence the behaviour of learners, causing school-based violence. The consumption of alcohol, drugs, and other substances was confirmed by participants to trigger school-based violence in schools. Another participant revealed that:

132

There are marijuana farms all around the community so why would the learners not smoke, because it is readily available without cost? People sit and smoke freely in the community.

The comments above infer that the growing of marijuana in the community makes it easily accessible to learners. Community leaders, parents, and law-enforcement agencies can be said to be failing in their responsibility for the wellbeing of the children by allowing community members to plant marijuana within the community, knowing full well that it is not legal. The findings revealed that alcohol, drug consumption and substance abuse are key factors that cause school-based violence in high schools. These factors trigger different forms of school-based violence, such as verbal and physical assaults, bullying and sexual harassment.
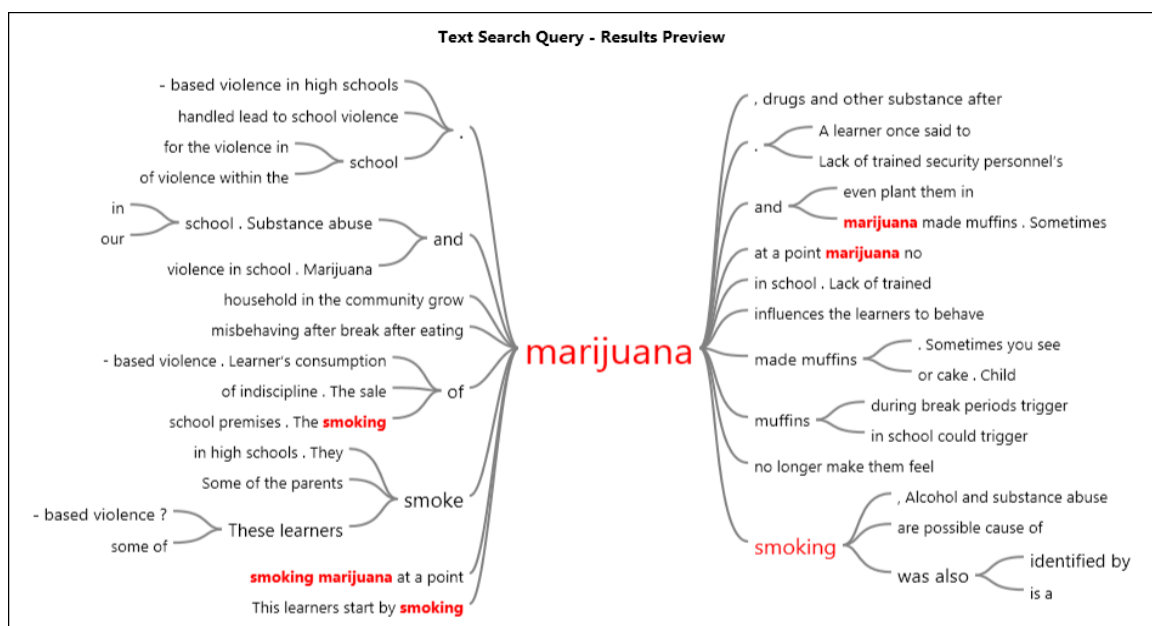
Figure 30: Marijuana as a factor that influences school-based violence

Figure 30 shows the negative behaviour learners display as a result of smoking marijuana, which could lead to school-based violence. The diagram depicts a direct link between marijuana and the community, the inference being that some members of the community plant marijuana, creating easy access to it in the community. The availability of marijuana

could increase its consumption and also could increase the level of violence within and outside the school environment. A participant stated that:

> *Our community is too violent, too many political problems that has led to the death of a lot of people in the community. The political history of the community gave rise to the carrying of weapons to school by learners.*

Findings from the focus group interviews revealed that most learners in school have lost a family member or a member of their extended family as a result of political violence in the community. A participant maintained that these deaths have resulted in families in the community being headed by children who are also learners. The psychological trauma and stress experienced by these children, according to the participants, leads some of them to abuse alcohol and drugs, which has an effect on school-based violence in high schools. The psychological impact of a child assuming such adult responsibilities could be overwhelming and frustrating, and could increase their likelihood of engaging in unacceptable behaviours that could lead to school-based violence. A participant in the study stated that:

> *Some of the school security guards connive with some of the dangerous learners to vandalise school property, sell and share the money. The security cameras installed a few months ago are all gone.*

The above statement reveals very useful information that the school management could use to take strategic decisions on security matters to avoid the vandalism of school property. Participants in the focus group interview maintained that there are serious security issues at school.

6.5 The mesosystem factors that influence school-based violence

Participants stated that the prolonged political violence which has led to several deaths in the community has led to a lack of parental involvement in the lives of many learners. The participants affirmed that a lack of parental involvement increases the risk factors for learners in relation to school-based violence. A participant stated:

> *Really, I do not know what will happen to me without my parents, I cannot even imagine it. My life will stop without them.*

The above statement reveals that there is a direct relationship between parenting and the wellbeing of the child. Lack of parental involvement could lead to the development of a range of antisocial behaviours that influence school-based violence. Poor parental involvement in learners' academic issues has been identified from the literature as one of the motivating factors in school-based violence in high schools. School managers in the study insisted that disciplinary measures are more effective when parents are involved in the disciplinary process, as punishments yield more results when parents support the disciplinary processes and decisions of the school disciplinary committee. When parents are not involved in the disciplinary process, it can constitute a huge challenge to the school and the disciplinary process.
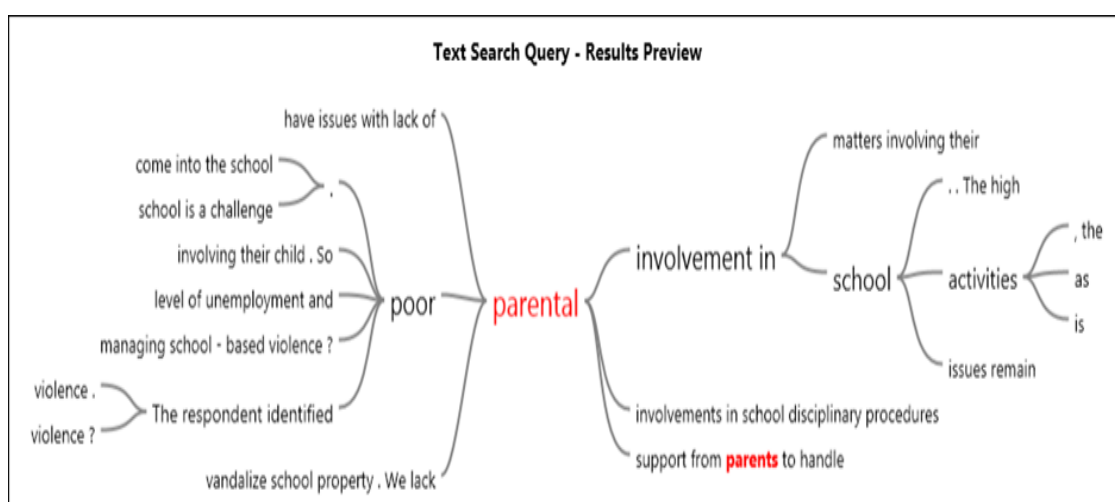
Figure 31: Parental involvement as a tool in managing school-based violence

A participant stated that:

> *We are vulnerable when our parents are not there to take care of us. Some of our parents even earn little and cannot provide basics for us. Men, even male educators entice us with money, gifts and marks for sex. Some of the guys you see there smoking marijuana across the road have good results but do not have anyone to sponsor them for varsity.*

The schools used for the study are no-fee schools located in economically disadvantaged communities. The findings reveal that the background of the learners influences their behaviour. The inference that can be deduced from the above statement by one of the participants is that the inability of learners' parents to support them financially could lead to unacceptable behaviour in the community and in school. The participant maintains that male educators sexually harass female learners in exchange for money, gifts and good marks.

The school is part of the community and whatever finds its way into the community, like political violence, drugs and substance abuse, could easily filter into the schools and thereby increase the rate of school-based violence. Similarly, when there is peace and order in the community, the involvement of SGBs could make the management of school-based violence more effective in schools. As with political violence and substance abuse, an increase in gangsterism in the community could filter into the school and increase school-based violence. A participant confirmed that some learners bully others because they belong to gangs outside the school and can always rely on their gang members to protect them when there is trouble. Learners develop and build relationships within their respective classrooms, which brings about closer bonding outside the classroom. These relationships translate sometimes to a type of gangsterism in the process of protecting each other's interests.

6.6 The exosystem factors that influence school-based violence

The school is a sub-sector of the community; the community-level influence represents the third level of the ESM. Findings at this level of the ESM have a substantial impact on the risk factors that cause school-based violence in high school. A participant stated that:

> *Our community has a high illiteracy rate and the majority of the community members are unemployed and those working are mostly domestic workers.*

The high rate of unemployment could be responsible for the high rate of political violence in the community. Participants maintained that there have been a series of service-delivery protests in the community that have paralyzed school activities, and that learners have participated actively in these protests. The involvement of learners with violent protests in

the community influences the way they behave in school. This violent approach to conflict resolution in the community is carried into the school environment and causes school-based violence. Violent community protests also lead to different forms of violence like vandalism and gangsterism.

Political violence, domestic violence, and drugs emanating from the community spill over onto the school environment, and can trigger and influence the level of school-based violence in high schools. Service delivery protests by community members force schools within the community to close. Sometimes educators are threatened, and are prevented from driving into the school, which sends the wrong message to the learners.

Text Search Query - Results Preview

created fraction and as such
influence school - based violence ? Community → gangs ← and when they are together
smoke together so they form — are formed within friends at
have cell in our school
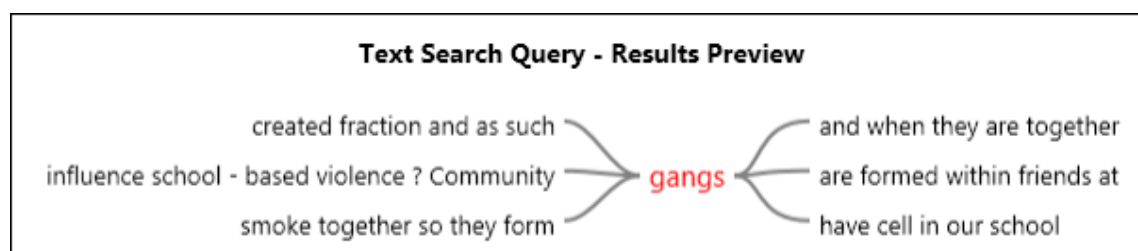
Figure 32: Gangsterism as a factor that influences school-based violence

The tree diagram in Figure 32 shows that there is a relationship between community violence, gangsterism and school-based violence in high schools. Another inference that can be deduced from the diagram is the creation of friction between community members as a result of violent approaches to issues. The friction created within the community filters into the school environment, and disagreements on issues outside of the school premises could subsequently lead to school-based violence.

6.7 The macrosystem factors that influence school-based violence

The societal level of influence represents the last phase of the ESM. This level of influence deals with how socio-economic variables influence the behaviours of learners that lead to school-based violence in high schools. A participant stated that:

> *I think the government should provide good jobs for our parents, the government should do something, some of us are really finding things very difficult.*

When learners get to the point of openly expressing that things are difficult, it is likely that their situation has already spun out of control. A participant revealed that some learners come to school because they are sure that they will have a meal to eat. The participant revealed that some families in the community cannot afford a decent meal each day. The economic empowerment of the community could be a long-term strategy to address the issue of school-based violence in high schools. A peaceful and economically empowered community would increase the protective variables for learners in school and would thus reduce school-based violence in high schools.

A participant stated that:

> *The school enrolment is too much and makes control and monitoring very difficult. If the government can build another school in the community, it will make control easier for the educators I think.*

The findings revealed that the school enrolment is too large and makes control and monitoring of learners extremely difficult. A participant who is a school manager revealed that the school is the only high school in the community, and has a great number of feeder primary schools. The participant maintained that there is no way the school can turn down enrolment requests from parents, since the learners do not have any other school to go to. The only solution, as the participant suggested, is for the government to build more high schools in the area. High enrolment rates lead to unmanageable class sizes, which increases risk factors that lead to school-based violence. A participant suggested that the DoE should make provisions to adequately expand schools with high enrolment rates in order to maintain quality teaching and learning. Where expansion is not viable, new schools should be built to adequately accommodate pupils from primary schools who are moving into high schools.
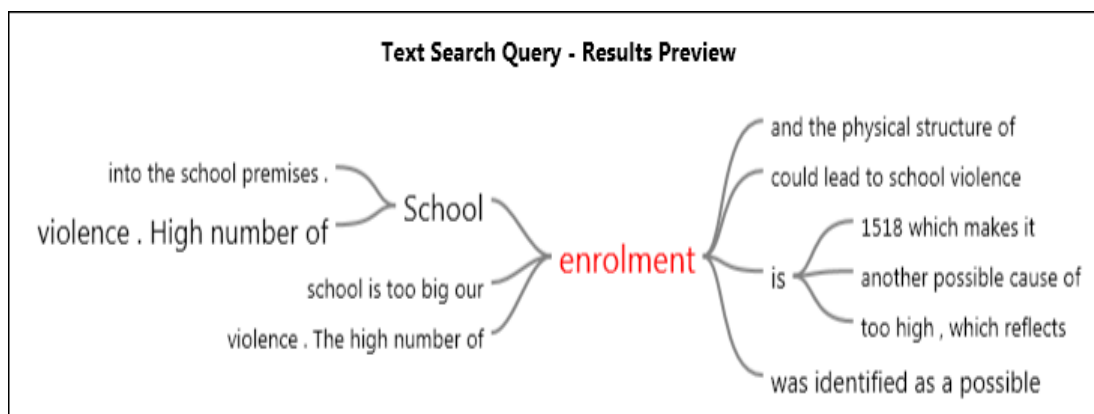
Figure 33: Learners' enrolment as a factor that influences school-based violence

Figure 33 shows how high learner enrolment could lead to school-based violence as a result of teachers' inability to monitor learners adequately in overcrowded classes. This endangers class management and may result in school-based violence. A large class size could also increase an educator's likelihood of burnout and exit from the profession, which would lead to further loss of class control and subsequent chaos that could result in various forms of violence. A participant maintained that:

> *Educators want us to respect rules and regulations in school yet they do not practice what they preach. Corporal punishment has been abolished in schools but some still hit us like we are animals.*

Participants assert that educators still employ corporal punishment in schools as a disciplinary measure despite the abolishment of corporal punishment in schools.
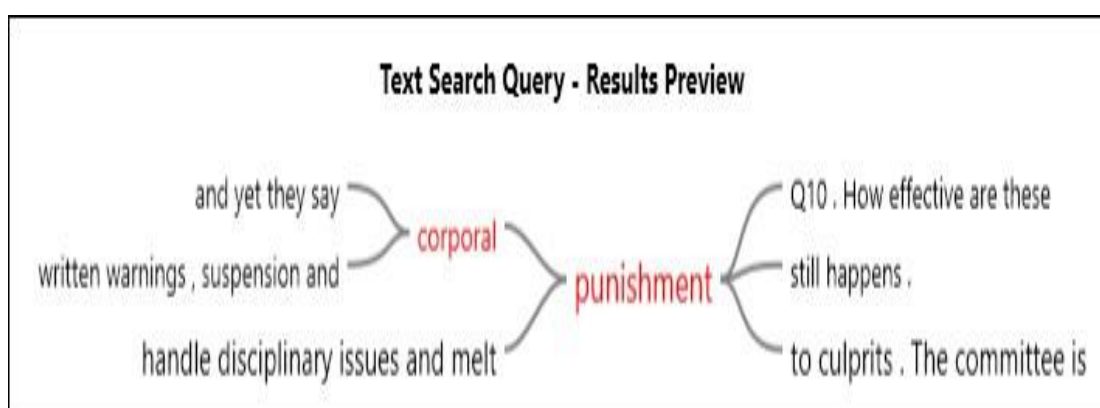
Figure 34: Corporal punishment as a factor that influences school-based violence

Figure 34 above reveals that corporal punishment is still in use in schools despite its abolition in South African schools. The continuous usage of school-based violence seems to aggravate the level of school-based violence in high schools.

6.8. Interventions that could be employed in managing school-based violence

This section covers intervention strategies that could be employed by school managers in the management and reduction of school-based violence in high schools. However, to avoid duplication intervention strategies that have already been discussed in Chapter 5 will not be discussed again.

6.8.1. Intervention strategies at the microsystem level

6.8.1.1. Engagement of professional security outfits

Professional security outfits should be employed to provide security for the schools; however, in order to avoid connivance with learners in vandalising school property, individuals from the community should not be employed as security personnel at schools in the same community.

6.8.1.2 Moderation of learners' test and examination materials

Moderation of learners' test and examination materials should be intensified to avoid situations where educators award good marks in return for sexual gratification from learners.

6.8.2. Intervention strategies at the mesosystem level

There was no new intervention strategy that emerged from the focus group interviews that has not been discussed in the previous chapter in section 5.8.

6.8.3. Intervention strategies at the exosystem level

There was no new intervention strategy that emerged from the focus group interviews that has not been discussed in the previous chapter in section 5.8.

6.8.4. Intervention strategies at the macrosystem level

The following intervention strategies were identified in the focus group interview at the macrosystem level.

6.8.4.1 School enrolment policies

School enrolments should be carried out in line with the capacity of the school infrastructure. Class sizes should be manageable in order to ensure class control and to facilitate class management.

6.8.4.2. Implementation of policies

The DoE should develop clear policies and ensure that effective implementation machinery is put in place to implement the policies. Effective implementation machinery could make the management of school-based violence more effective through, for example, the shortening of administrative processes in decision making regarding school-based violence.

6.9. Forms of school-based violence identified in the study

Most participants in the study maintained that a high proportion of the school-based violence committed in schools is influenced by the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances. The contributions of the learners in determining the different forms of violence in school cannot be overemphasised because perpetrators of school-based violence are learners and have direct contact with other learners with whom they interact at school.

> *Em, we have bullying, sexual harassment and fighting and stealing of cell phones, these are the forms of violence I know*

A participant in the focus group stated that:

> *Ayibo Sir, there is corporal punishment, vandalism, assault and even rape in the toilets after school hours.*

But Sir, a participant shouted,

> *Girls get raped in the toilets. I almost got raped in school during school hours. I took permission from my teacher to go to the toilet, upon entering the female toilet*

some boys smoking marijuana almost pulled me into the toilet. I screamed and ran out.

The findings in the study revealed the following forms of school-based violence: assault, sexual harassment, rape, corporal punishment and vandalism.

6.10 Conclusion

The focus group interviews provided deeper insights into the phenomenon as other emerging factors that influence school-based violence were identified, such as the continuous use of corporal punishment, security guards' connivance with learners to vandalise school property, and the effects of service delivery protests in the community. The following chapter discusses the findings of both the in-depth interviews and the focus group interviews conducted in the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter contained the presentation and analysis of the findings of the focus group interviews conducted in the study. This chapter presents the discussions of the findings of both the in-depth interviews and the focus group interviews in line with the research questions of the study. The study looked at the causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province. Insight has been based on the ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Ecological systems theory was adopted in the study because it provides rich insight into the causes, prevention and management of school-based violence in high schools. The discussion in this chapter follows the sequence of the research questions of the study.

7.2 Overview of the causes of school-based violence in the study

Figure 35 below provides an overview of the factors that influence school-based violence identified in the study. These influencing factors have been identified according to the different levels of the ESM below.
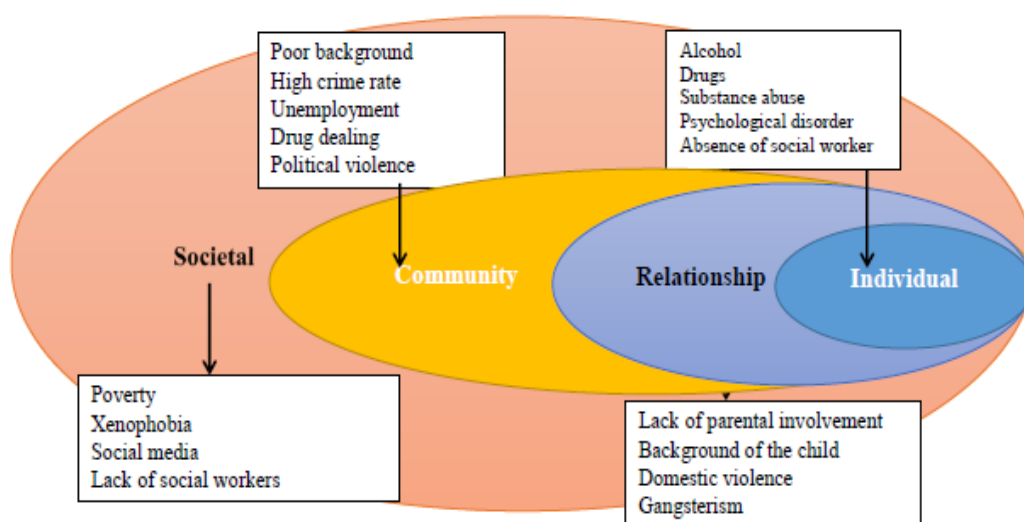
Figure 35: Overview of the causes of school-based violence in the study

These influencing factors, which have been identified in line with the research questions of the study and according to the framework of the ecological systems theory underpinning this study, will be discussed sequentially according to the research questions of the study.

7.3 Demographic representation in the study

The study looked at the ecological causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The data collection instruments employed in the study required the researcher to interact with different categories of participants in the study. The demographic composition of the study consisted of the following variables: (1) gender and (2) professional distribution of participants. These two variables in the demographic composition were chosen to avoid gender bias and to provide information on the composition of participants in the study.

7.3.1 Gender representation in the study

The nature of the study necessitated the assurance of gender equality in the study, in order to identify whether any gender was in a disadvantaged position as a victim of school-based violence in high schools. The sample size of the study was made up of 18 respondents (9 males and 9 females) which show an equal representation of gender in the study. Likewise the focus group interviews were made up of 10 learners (5 male and 5 female learners), also demonstrating gender equality in the study. 100 % of the identified participants took part in the in-depth interviews, while 95% of participants took part in the focus group interviews.

7.3.2 Professional distribution of participants in the study

The study sample was made up of 18 respondents that included all stakeholders (principals, deputy principals, HODs, SGB members, educators and learners). The composition of the sample size of the study is presented in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Professional distribution of participants

Classifications	School A	School B	Total
Principals	1	1	2
HOD	2	2	4
Educators	2	2	4
Learners	2	2	4
SGB	2	2	4
Total sample size	**9**	**9**	**18**

The rationale for adopting purposive sampling in the study was to gather valuable information from relevant and appropriate respondents, such as members of the disciplinary committee who manage disciplinary issues on a daily basis in the high schools. Purposive sampling enabled the researcher to locate the targeted respondents in the study, and thus enabled the researcher to answer the research questions of the study.

7.4 Microsystem factors that cause school-based violence

The first research objective of the study was to understand the individual (microsystem) factors that influence school-based violence, and the first research question focused on how individual (microsystem) factors influence school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. School-based violence is multifaceted and there is no single explanation that can explain why learners behave in an antisocial manner that leads to school-based violence. The following forms of school-based violence were identified: assault, bullying, rape, sexual harassment and vandalism. The causes of school-based violence cut across the various layers of the ESM, as revealed in the findings of the study.

The individual-level (microsystem) influences represent the first layer of the ESM, which deals with the individual factors that influence school-based violence in high schools. The violent behaviour in learners oscillates between the interface of risk factors and protective factors. Risk factors represent variables like domestic violence, substance abuse by

parents, association with gangs by learners, and the negative influence of peers. A participant in the study claimed that most cases of sexual harassment are not being reported by students for fear of being victimized at school by educators or attacked in the community by perpetrators who may belong to gangs within and outside of the school premises. One specific suggestion that emerged from the data regarded the placement of toilets. School toilets should be designed in such a way that female toilets are distinctly separated from the male toilets, and the toilets should be adequately monitored by security personnel. This would result in the sexual harassment of female learners in the toilets being reduced.

In line with the literature on individual factors that influence school-based violence in high schools, the study identified the following risk factors: (1) alcohol, (2) drugs, (3) substance abuse, and (4) psychological disorders.

7.4.1 Abuse of alcohol as causes of school-based violence

The findings identify the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances as individual factors that strongly influence school-based violence in high schools. Alcohol and substance abuse in high schools influences the behaviour of learners, which generally leads to school-based violence and sometimes loss of life, for example with the Krugersdorp samurai sword killing of August 18, 2008 as discussed in Chapter 1 in section 1.2.

The findings revealed that learners use juice bottles to bring alcohol onto the school premises to drink in their classrooms, outside during break, and in the toilets. Alcohol consumption increases antisocial behaviours in learners that lead to school-based violence. The findings of the study also affirmed this assertion that when learners consume alcohol, marijuana and other substances, they disobey educators and sometimes fight with them, thereby disrupting teaching and learning.

The school toilets have been identified as the spot in school where many of these nefarious activities occur. The provision of trained security personnel to monitor the school adequately, including access control, could curb individual factors that influence school-based violence in high schools. Lack of parental support for a learner increases the

community-level risk factors of alcohol, drugs and substance abuse that influence antisocial behaviours that lead to school-based violence in high schools.

The high rate of political violence in the past in the community led to the death of many community members and in the process many learners lost their parents. Some of these learners automatically assumed leadership roles in their families and some, out of frustration, took to drugs and other substances as a result of the psychological impact of the loss of the breadwinners of their families. As soon as the male learners assume the fatherly role of their late fathers, the masculine nature of the male learner begins to manifest in the learner. Learners who find themselves in a disadvantaged position tend to be violent and aggressive in order to attain peer expectations, and demonstrate a high level of antisocial behaviour that leads to school-based violence.

Participants in the study confirmed that learners who lose their parents in a violent manner could be emotionally imbalanced to such an extent that they would destroy public property.

Psychological problems could lead to a general aggression that may transform into other forms of school-based violence, such as vandalism, assault and sexual harassment. The consequences of the loss of a family member could lead to several social imbalances in a child that might lead to numerous school violence issues.

7.4.2 Psychological disorder as a cause of school-based violence

The findings revealed that the research communities of the study have experienced a great deal of political violence that has claimed many lives in the communities. The friction between the ANC and the IFP was revealed to be responsible for the political violence in the communities. Many learners at the research sites lost their parents in the political violence, and they are now the caregivers or members of child-headed families. The impact of the loss of family members and the emotional impact of the political violence in the communities on learners has in some cases led to aggression and subsequently school-based violence. Political and community violence are core risk factors for psychological disorders in a learner. Such psychological disorders are a core risk factor for school-based

violence. The loss of a learner's parent as a result of political or community violence could have emotional and behavioural implications that could lead to school-based violence in high schools.

The problems in the community that led to the political violence could be reflected in the school setting, leading to factions or gangsterism within the school. Sometimes learners may want to seek revenge for the death of their loved one, which could result in increased school-based violence that would in turn affect the community. However, of the five individual-level factors influencing school-based violence in high schools that have been identified, it should be noted that the core individual-level factors that influence school-based violence at high schools are the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances. The findings established that these substances emanate from the community. There are families that grow marijuana in the community, which makes marijuana easily accessible and cheap.

7.5 Mesosystem factors that cause school-based violence

The second research objective of the study was to ascertain the interpersonal, relationship-level (mesosystem) factors that influence school-based violence. The second research question of the study sought to ascertain the interpersonal, relationship-level (mesosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The following factors were identified from the findings of the study as interpersonal, relationship-level (mesosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in high schools: lack of parental involvement, the background of the learners, the high level of domestic violence, and gangsterism.

7.5.1 Lack of parental involvement as a cause of school-based violence

The findings revealed that a lack of parental involvement in the school activities of a learner constitute a form of community-level influence in the ESM that could lead to school-based violence in high schools. Lack of parental support increases the community-level risk factors for a learner being involved with school-based violence. The absence of parental support exposes learners to peer risk factors such as the abuse of alcohol, drugs

and other substances. These individual-level factors could lead to further violence like sexual harassment and rape. Learners who lack parental support are more likely to be abused and to display antisocial behaviors that could lead to school-based violence in schools. When learners are exposed to domestic violence, they accept such violence as a societal norm. To them, violence is part of life, and they see school as part of the community, with similar norms.

Parental support reduces community-level risk factors and increases individual-level protective factors that enable the learner to display pro-social behaviours in schools, which promote teaching and learning in a safe school environment. The management of a school is made easier when learners adhere to rules and regulations, allowing educators to concentrate on the teaching and development of future leaders. Lack of parental involvement and support was identified as a key factor in school-based violence in high schools in the study. School managers and disciplinary committee members claim that the right parental support could reduce risk factors and increase protective factors across all levels of the ESM. The disciplinary committee members also maintain that the discipline of learners would be more effective and could reduce school-based violence when parents are involved in their children's disciplinary processes in school, to deter the learners from committing further crimes in school.

7.5.2 Background of the learners as a cause of school-based violence

The background of the learners was identified as one of the interpersonal, relationship-level factors that influence school-based violence in high schools. Most of the learners in the study sites live in a situation where both parents are unemployed and lack any meaningful source of income. The poverty level is so bad that some of the learners depend on the schools' feeding schemes for an assured meal a day. The majority of the parents who do have jobs are farm workers who earn very little and can barely support their families financially. The resulting social isolation means that learners from poor vicinities are excluded from various social groups. Social isolation generates cultural segregation which, when pooled with reduced study and labour market prospects, leads to the expansion of traditional repertoires. Learners from poor neighborhoods could be exposed

to "ghetto specific" situations where alcohol, crime, drugs and sexual offences are viewed as opportunities to transcend poverty.

The situations discussed above influence learners to behave in unacceptable manner that could lead to school-based violence in high schools. The background of the learners increases their risk factors for coping strategies such as stealing, assault and substance abuse, which contribute to school-based violence. Communities with a high rate of unemployment are often characterized by a high level of negative social vices that can lead to violence, and when learners do not see adults discussing work and work-related issues meaningfully, they become demotivated and do not take life seriously because they have no positive role models. Many learners experience serious psychological problems and lack the required counselling support services to see them through their predicament.

7.5.3 Domestic violence as a cause of school-based violence

A learner's experience of domestic violence increases the risk factors that lead to school-based violence. Learners who are exposed to domestic violence often display anger, aggression and difficulty in relating to other learners in school. The findings revealed that most unemployed parents resort to alcohol to deal with the frustration of not being able to meet the financial needs of their families. An environment characterized by poverty brings about "ghetto specific" attitudes which are characterized by negative social vices like alcohol, drug and substance abuse. The study revealed that the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances leads to high levels of domestic violence. The findings revealed that aggression could lead to vandalism, assault and other forms of school-based violence.

7.5.4 Gangsterism as a cause of school-based violence

Gangsterism emerged as one of the interpersonal, relationship-level factors that influence school-based violence in high schools. The study revealed that the drugs associated with gangsterism often lead to assault, sexual harassment, rape, bullying, and stealing. A female respondent stated that she is scared of teaching after school hours as she fears a certain group of learners. She narrated how learners take pictures of her while she is busy writing on the board in the classroom, and out of fear the other learners will not say who took the

picture. Gangsterism is a global problem at schools and the presence of gangs in schools increases the problem of drug abuse and the level of school-based violence. This obstructs teaching and learning, and also limits the extent to which an educator can teach after hours as a community service to assist learners who seek extra tuition to pass their examinations.

7.6 Exosystem factors that cause school-based violence

The third research objective of the study seeks to ascertain the community-level (exosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in high schools, and the third research question looks at how community-level (exosystem) factors influence school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The study identified the following community-level factors that influence school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district: the poor background of the learners, the high level of crime, the high unemployment rate, the drug trade, and political violence.

7.6.1 Poor background of the child as a cause of school-based violence

The poor background of the learners was identified in the findings of the study as one of the community-level factors that influences school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The poor background of the learners increases risk factors like the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances. The study also revealed that the conditions in poor backgrounds often lead to teenage pregnancy for female learners. Educators were identified in the study as one of the agents who entice female learners with cash, gifts and good marks in return for sexual favours, which could lead to teenage pregnancy. Poverty remains one of the community-level factors that cause school-based violence in high schools. The inability of parents to meet the welfare needs of the learner could increase risk factors that lead to school-based violence. Learners sometimes commit crimes to meet their personal needs when their families are found lacking. Community empowerment through skills development and training could be a way to eradicate poverty in the community and therefore reduce the behaviours that lead to school-based violence.

7.6.2 High crime rate in the community as a cause of school-based violence

A respondent in the study insisted that the high crime rate in the area is as a result of the high level of unemployment in the community. The respondent maintained that most able men and women take to illegal activities like theft, robbery, house breaking and prostitution to meet the daily challenges of life. It has been established that there is a direct relationship between drug trading and consumption in the community, and school-based violence in high schools in South Africa. Burton and Leoschut (2012) report that about half of the sample size of their study acknowledged knowing people who smoke marijuana and other substances at school; these illegal substances emanate from the community, and their presence on school premises influences learners' behaviours to cause school-based violence.

The sale and consumption of these substances could be responsible for the high rate of vandalism and theft at schools, as demonstrated in the previous chapter. It is estimated that about 72 % of high school learners cannot concentrate during classes because they are afraid of what could happen to them during break time and after school as a result of school-based violence (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013). It could be argued that school-based violence impacts negatively on the academic performance of learners in high schools.

7.6.3 Unemployment as a factor that causes school-based violence

Poverty and inequality are risk factors that influence school-based violence in high schools. However, there was no indication from the data collected that the educators' ability to teach influences school-based violence in high schools. Educators were found wanting for having affairs with their learners in exchange for marks, but were not found wanting in relation to their academic and teaching skills. Poverty, inequality and unemployment influence school-based violence in high schools. Poverty results from a lack of meaningful employment that could bring in wages and salaries to meet daily needs. The inability of parents to meet the basic needs of their children may have a drastic effect on the children that could lead to negative behaviours. The research site of the study has a high rate of unemployment, which could increase antisocial behaviour like the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances, and could influence school-based violence.

7.6.4 Drug dealing as a factor that causes school-based violence

The effects of drugs and other substances on learners could lead to school-based violence like sexual harassment, assault, rape and vandalism. Learners' dropping out of school due to drug and substance abuse causes further social ills, such as expanding drug dealing and robbery, which could also lead to school dropout and prostitution. School-based violence could be easily triggered by the presence of drugs and substance abuse in the community. It has been established that there is a link between drugs and other forms of violence which influence school-based violence in high schools. Findings in the study indicate that there is a steady connection between school dropout and the use of drugs. Drug dealers and drug users all know each other, and it is the civic responsibility of the community to take legal steps to eradicate drug dealers from the community, and to therefore reduce school-based violence and restore sanity in the community.

7.6.5 Political violence as a factor that causes school-based violence

The findings of the study revealed that the research sites have a long history of political violence which has claimed many lives in the past and has turned many learners into orphans and the caregivers of child-headed homes, which, as discussed above, influences and increases school-based violence. Participants in the study claim that learners' experiences of political violence, whether as victims, participants and/or observers, increase the risk factors that could lead to school-based violence in high schools. Community violence leads to loss of life, the destruction of property, gangsterism and friction in the community that erupts at school. Incidents of violence habitually produce a shock reaction with a variety of associated behaviours that could lead to school-based violence. The preferred process of a learner's development remains one that would be free of violence, and where non-violent conflict resolution is adopted for a safe school environment.

Learners who witnessed, participated in or observed these violent incidents are bound to experience some level of trauma that could lead to school-based violence. The problem of xenophobia in South Africa appears to be caused by economic hardship rather than cultural

diversity, as local people's anger seems to focus on job opportunities, skills and wage compromises. Findings from the study revealed that local people are resentful of foreign nationals who offer their unskilled labour at a cheaper rate, thereby rendering the local labour force redundant. Participants assert that cultural, educational, social and economic diversity has increased the risk factors for group-based conflict, which could lead to school-based violence.

7.7 Macrosystem factors that cause school-based violence

The fourth research objective of the study was to understand the societal (macrosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in high schools, and the fourth research question sought to identify the societal (macrosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The study identified the following societal factors that influence school-based violence in high schools: poverty, social media influence and lack of social workers.

7.7.1 Poverty as a societal-level factor that causes school-based violence

Poverty was identified in the study as a societal-level factor that influences school-based violence in high schools. Poverty results from a lack of meaningful employment which would bring in wages and salaries to meet daily needs. Figure 21 illustrated how a background characterised by poverty and associated factors can lead to school-based violence. The communities in the study have a high rate of unemployment, which increases antisocial and potentially violent behaviours. The research communities of the study are small commercial centres with few opportunities, and foreign nationals own over 95 % of the businesses that do exist in these communities. These foreign-owned businesses are looted each time there is any form of violence in the community, and there are frequent xenophobic attacks on these foreign nationals.

Learners participate in various ways in these unlawful attacks on foreign-owned businesses and foreign nationals, either as observers, participants or leaders; this cements the idea of aggression and violence as a strategy, and increases the risk factors for school-based violence. Steenkamp (2009) explores the relationship between xenophobia and trust,

and concludes that trust represents the belief in the benevolence of "others towards one's own interests and wellbeing". This trust was broken at the point where the local people revolted against the foreign nationals who set up businesses in their "back yards" and exploited the few business opportunities available. Some of these violent incidents led to the deaths of many foreign nationals, and the looting and destruction of their businesses and properties. Such violence leaves a psychological scar on learners who were victims, or who participated in or witnessed the violence, which could influence their behaviour and lead to future violence in the school setting.

7.7.2 Social media as a factor that causes school-based violence

Despite the banning of cell phones in schools, findings from the study revealed that learners still smuggle cell phones onto the school premises and into the classrooms. The presence of cell phones on the school premises increases the risk factors that lead to theft. In addition, smart phones provide several methods of communicating via social media and provide direct access to the Internet, with enough speed to upload offensive material without due restriction. Innovations in technology have also resulted in the phenomenon of cyberbullying as another form of school-based violence in high schools. Cyberbullying is an intentional act of psychological violence that is not physically confrontational, so often parents and teachers are unaware of the involvement of their children or learners in such acts. Cyberbullying is linked to numerous risk factors that could lead to school-based violence, such as assault, sexual harassment, data theft and even premeditated rape in situations where minors are lured to unknown locations via social media.

7.7.3 Lack of social workers

Findings in the study revealed that there are no professional social workers at the research sites of the study. The circuit only has two social workers that visit twice a week, and sometimes they do not even visit the schools. Sensitive issues regarding female students are handled by a female school management team member while a male counterpart handles those that of male learners. This situation increases the burnout rate of educators because they now serve dual purposes in schools. Time allocated for lesson preparation and teaching is used to address learners' antisocial behavioural issues. Educators are

forced to handle behavioural issues that really require the intervention of professional social workers. The absence of social workers in schools creates a gap that influences school-based violence in schools.

7.8 Intervention measures in managing school-based violence

This section presents discussions of various intervention initiatives on how to manage and reduce school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province. These intervention initiatives emerged from data collected in the study. The discussions of these intervention initiatives will be carried out consecutively according to the four levels of the ecological systems theory underpinning the study.

7.8.1 Intervention measures at the microsystem level of influence

7.8.1.1 Fencing of public schools

It is of paramount importance to fence public schools to ensure access control of learners as well as intruders. Participants maintained that the wire security fencing is inadequate for schools as drug peddlers sell drugs and pass other items to learners through the wire security fence. It should be noted that even with the right security personnel in place, the absence of adequate fencing makes the duties of the security personnel cumbersome.

7.8.1.2 Provision of professional security services

The engagement of professional security services to provide security in schools with the right fencing would curb issues of school-based violence. The engagement of professional security services would reduce the inflow of drugs, alcohol and other substances onto the school premises. The engagement of professional security services could also eliminate the connivance of security personnel and learners in vandalising school property, as identified in the focus group interview. The engagement of professional security personnel to provide security would also create jobs and reduce unemployment nationally.

7.8.1.3 Moderation of subject schedules

School managers should ensure that educators' subject schedules are closely moderated and monitored to avoid situations where educators trade marks in return for sexual gratification from learners.

7.8.1.4 Training

The DoE should provide educators, school managers and SGB members with the right training on how to manage school-based violence issues. Most participants in the study affirmed that they require the necessary training to equip them adequately to address school violence issues.

7.8.1.5 Provision of a social worker

Schools should be provided with a professional social worker who would be at the school on a full-time basis to see to learners' and educators' concerns. The handling of behavioural issues by a professional social worker would provide the right channel to handle such issues and reduce school-based violence. Learners would easily access grants they qualify for through the services of the social worker who could also introduce different behavioural intervention initiatives in the school.

7.8.2 Intervention measures at the mesosystem level of influence

7.8.2.1 Training

The issue of training also emerged at this level of influence; however, training will not be discussed in the section, as it has been discussed in section 7.8.1.4 above.

7.8.3 Intervention measures at the exosystem level of influence

7.8.3.1 Job creation

Job creation emerged at this level of influence in the study as an intervention strategy that could reduce school-based violence in high schools. Most participants in the study maintained that if people were gainfully employed in the community, it would reduce the

crime rate and foster better parental involvement in the lives of learners, which would reduce school-based violence in schools. Engaging professional security services at schools would also create jobs nationwide.

7.8.4 Intervention measures at the macrosystem level of influence

7.8.4.1 Clear government policies on school violence issues

There should be clear government policies and effective implementation strategies to handle school-based violence issues. Most participants in the focus group interviews affirmed that even though corporal punishment has been abolished in South African schools, it is still in use. However, educators and school managers insist that since the abolition of corporal punishment in schools, the government has not provided an alternative form of punishment.

High schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN have adopted a range of measures to manage school-based violence, as identified in the findings of the study. These measures include improved parental involvement in disciplinary processes, random search and seizures of learners' property, improved monitoring of learners, and the counselling and disciplining of offenders. Since the legal abolition of corporal punishment in South African schools, disruptive behaviour has become an issue of grave concern. It has been left to individual educators to devise approaches to deal with disruptive behaviours in school, as corporal punishment has not been replaced with any truly effective strategy for managing learners' behaviour.

Most participants reported that the abolition of corporal punishment in schools has increased the rate of school-based violence. The researcher observed that despite the abolition of corporal punishment, it is still used as a strategy by educators in high schools. However, not all educators still practise corporal punishment, but educators who no longer employ corporal punishment in addressing disruptive behavioural problems in school insist that their level of stress has increased. The burnout rate of educators who do not use corporal punishment has increased over the years and has reduced their efficacy as teachers. There are various arguments for and against corporal punishment in schools.

However, the abolition of corporal punishment in schools has left a gap that has not been filled and has led to all kinds of disciplinary problems in schools.

The findings in this study revealed that there has not been any effective disciplinary strategy formally put in place since corporal punishment in schools was abolished. Parental involvement in the disciplinary processes of schools has been adopted by professional managers at the study sites. These professional managers maintain that the involvement of parents in the school disciplinary processes makes these processes more effective, because punishments are supported by parents and the discipline becomes a dual process in that the parents caution their children at home while the school also addresses these concerns.

Schools adopt random search and seizures to check for weapons and drugs. The findings revealed that such search and seizures have led to the discovery of various weapons and drugs on school premises. School managers maintain that it has also led to the identification of perpetrators of school-based violence at the study sites. The threat of search and seizures has also deterred learners from bringing unauthorised materials onto the school premises and has helped to restore a certain level of calm and order. The schools have drawn up duty rosters for educators to monitor learners and to be on the watch for unacceptable behaviours during breaks. Such close monitoring of learners by educators deters the learners from engaging in antisocial behaviours that could lead to school-based violence during these break periods.

The findings revealed that schools use verbal warnings as disciplinary measures to address disruptive behaviours in school for first-time offenders. The next level of discipline after a verbal warning is a written warning, and then the suspension of the learner from all school activities. Violence does not reduce violence, and educators should therefore not abuse learners emotionally or humiliate them by swearing at them or calling them names. Instead they should adopt a corrective approach and attempt to counsel the learners, rather than a retributive approach for managing school-based violence.

7.8.4.2 Adherence to enrolment policies

Enrolment of learners at schools should be based on the school's infrastructural capacity to accommodate learners. Schools should not enrol more learners than their infrastructural capacity can handle, because increasing class sizes could lead to a lack of class control.

7.9 Comparison of forms of violence in the literature and in the study

7.9.1 Assaults

Assault was identified as one of the forms of school-based violence in the study. However, this form of violence was not discussed in the literature. Domestic violence, alcohol, drugs and substance abuse were affirmed by most participants as influencing factors that lead to learners assaulting each other. Assaults were identified as the most common form of school-based violence in high schools. Assault could be divided into two forms, namely verbal and physical assault. Verbal assault is thought to occur most commonly, while physical assault is thought to be less common.

7.9.2 Bullying

Bullying was identified in the literature and also emerged from the study as one of the most common forms of school-based violence in high schools. Bullying is common amongst stronger learners who oppress weak learners.

7.9.3 Online bullying

Online bullying was discussed in the literature but did not emerge in the study. The active involvement of learners on social media exposes learners to online hazards like watching phonographic movies online, which could stimulate sexual harassment at schools. The impact of social media in the study revealed that online bullying is visible in high schools but was not identified because the learners may not have been aware of online bullying as a form of school-based violence.

7.9.4 Rape

Rape was not discussed in the literature but emerged as a form of school-based violence in the study. Most participants reported that alcohol, drugs and substance abuse are factors

that influence rape in high schools. The absence of adequate security and monitoring provides an enabling environment for perpetrators of rape to prevail within school premises. The engagement of professional security service within school premises could drastically reduce the level of this form of school-based violence in high schools.

7.9.5 Sexual harassment

Sexual harassment was discussed in the literature and emerged in the study as one of the forms of school-based violence in high schools. Most participants in the study affirm that alcohol, drugs and substance abuse are factors that influence sexual harassment in high schools. The engagement of professional security personnel would reduce the level of sexual harassment, as discussed in section 7.9.4 above.

7.9.6 Vandalism

Vandalism emerged in the literature as well as in the study. Most participants affirm that poverty level, unemployment, alcohol, drugs and substance abuse remain strong factors that influence vandalism in high schools. The connivance of security guards in school with learners to vandalise school property increases the level of vandalism in schools, as identified in the focus group interview. The engagement of professional security personnel could check the activities of vandals in school and reduce the vandalism of school property.

7.10 Comparison of in-depth interview and focus group data in the study

The comparison of the data from the in-depth interviews and from the focus group interviews in the study was based on the broader objective of identifying the causes of school-based violence in high schools. The comparison is be broken down into the four levels of the ecological systems theory underpinning the study.

7.10.1 Microsystem level

The two instruments adopted in the study identified alcohol, drugs, smoking of marijuana, substance abuse, and lack of adequate security as factors that influence school-based violence in high schools. However, the focus group interviews identified the connivance of security personnel and learners in the vandalism of school property. The reason for this

discrepancy in data could be explained through the simple fact that the perpetrators of school-based violence are learners who talk to each other and come from the same community. The focus group interviews also raised the issue of educators awarding marks in return for sexual gratification from learners. Lastly, the issue of the continuing usage of corporal punishment in schools increases the rate of school-based violence. The learners know themselves and share information, and the focus group interviews in the study therefore added a lot of value to the research.

7.10.2 Macrosystem level

The two data collection instruments provided the same information at the mesosystem and exosystem levels. Through the focus group interviews the learners identified enlarged class size as a factor that causes school-based violence in high schools. However, the suggestions of policy implementation and amendments were identified in both data collection methods adopted in the study.

7.11 Limitations related to the research method and analysis in the study

- The researcher spent a lot of time and resources on obtaining ethical clearance for the study. The researcher had to obtain ethical clearance from UKZN and the DoE KZN. However, the main challenge was obtaining parental consent for all the learners who were scheduled to participate in the study. Parental consent letters had to be sent to parents through the schools weeks ahead. The researcher had to wait for all consent letters to come in before the data collection could commence.

- Scheduling appointments for participants for the in-depth interviews was a challenge; however, the researcher was able to interview all the participants. Appointments for interviews had to be booked weeks in advance with a long wait by the researcher for the most convenient time for the participant.

- The researcher was careful not to allow personal opinion to interfere with the results of the findings. This possible limitation was mitigated by the usage of emergent data and findings only from the study.

- Learners who participated in the in-depth interviews were often quite tense during the interview session because the use of the deputy principal's office for the

interview made them uneasy. This limitation was surmounted through the adoption of a focus group session that was held in the science laboratory, which gave the session a more relaxed atmosphere.

7.12 Conclusion

The discussion of the findings in this chapter has revealed key issues that have influenced the level of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. It was revealed that the high level of community violence influences school-based violence. It should be noted that the communities surrounding the research sites for this study have high levels of unemployment and have been classified as economically disadvantaged by the DoE KZN, so learners in these schools do not pay fees. Alcohol, drugs and marijuana emerged as key factors that influence school-based violence in high schools. Chapter 8 presents the recommendations, summary of findings and conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER EIGHT: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

The study investigated the causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The study aimed at reducing school-based violence and creating a school climate that promotes teaching and learning in high schools. The study developed two models: (1) the causes of school-based violence from the perspective of an ecological systems model (ESM), and (2) a school-based violence management model that will assist school managers to reduce and manage school-based violence in high schools. The preceding chapter offered an in-depth discussion of the findings of the study. This chapter presents a summary of the major findings of the study, certain recommendations, and the conclusions of the study. The limitations of the study and scope for further research are also discussed, and the contributions of the study to knowledge in the field of the management of school-based violence are highlighted.

The summary of the major findings, the recommendations and the conclusion of the study are presented sequentially in accordance with the research questions, which were as follows:

1. What are the individual factors (microsystem) that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
2. What are the interpersonal relationship (mesosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
3. What are the community (exosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
4. What are the societal (macrosystem) factors that influence school-based violence in uMgungundlovu district?
5. What interventions could be employed in the management and reduction of school violence at high schools in uMgungundlovu district?

8.2 Summary of key findings in the study

The study revealed that the key cause of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district is the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances. Learners bring these illegal substances onto school premises for their own consumption, which influences them to behave in an unacceptable manner that often leads to violence. The findings revealed that these substances are most commonly used in the toilets. Both male and female learners are involved in these unacceptable behaviours on the school premises. The study revealed that the schools lack the services of professionally trained guards to monitor and control nefarious activities that occur within the school premises. The schools have security guards who lack the required skills to provide adequate security services for the schools.

8.3 Contributions of the study to the field of management

This study looked at the causes and management of school-based violence from a management perspective to contribute to the existing body of knowledge on how to reduce the problem of violence in high schools and create a school climate that promotes teaching and learning. The core objectives of the study were: (1) to identify the causes of school-based violence across the four levels of the ESM, and (2) to develop a model using school-based factors to manage and reduce school-based violence in order to create a school climate that promotes teaching and learning. The causes of school-based violence are illustrated in Figure 36, while Figure 37 presents the school-based violence management model developed in this study. This model could be adapted for other similar situations of social unrest.

8.3.1 Emergent ecological causes of school-based violence in the study

The study employed in-depth interviews and focus group interviews as data collection instruments, and the causes of school-based violence were identified from an analysis of the data collected in these interviews. The findings indicated the causes of school-based violence in the high schools in uMgungundlovu district according to the four levels of the ESM. The multiple causes of school-based violence cannot be compartmentalized because they are related and interrelated in a complex way. They could also be described as being

linked and interlinked. The causes of school-based violence at the community level of influence in the ESM could affect individual-level factors. For example, a large marijuana plantation in the community could increase the consumption of marijuana by learners, which could negatively influence their behaviours and subsequently result in school-based violence.
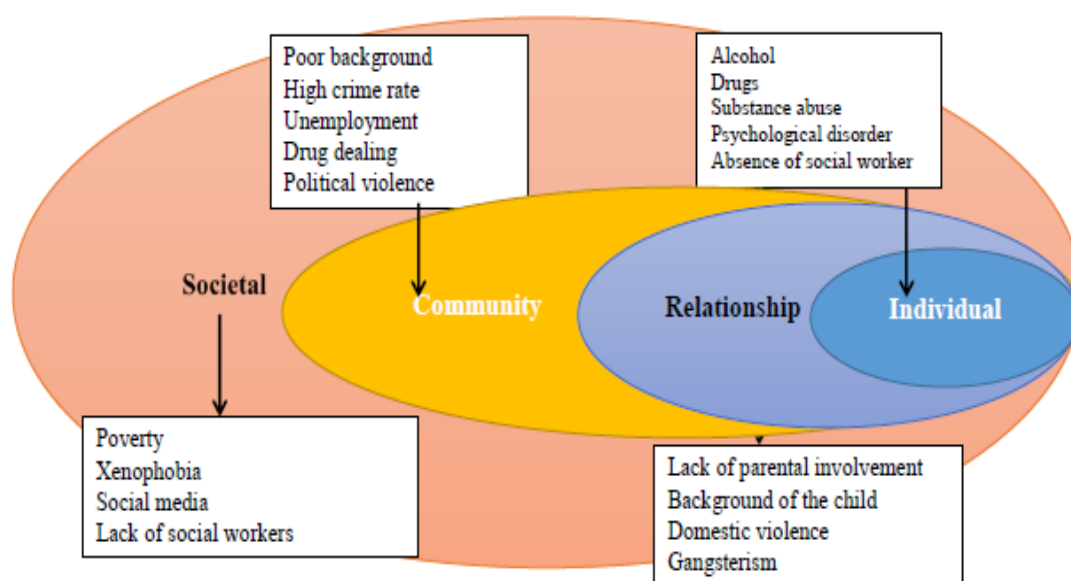
Figure 36: Emergent ecological causes of school-based violence in the study

8.3.1.1 Individual-level influences

A total of five factors were identified as causes of school-based violence in high schools at the level of individual influences: alcohol, drugs, substance abuse, child-headed families and psychological disorders.

8.3.1.2 Interpersonal, relationship-level influences

At the interpersonal, relationship level, four factors were identified as causes of school-based violence in high schools: lack of parental involvement, the background of the child, domestic violence, and gangsterism.

8.3.1.3 Community-level influences

The study identified five factors at this level as causes of school-based violence in high schools: poverty in the background of the learners, a high crime rate, unemployment, drug dealing, and political violence.

8.3.1.4 Societal-level influences

A total of five factors were identified at the level of societal influences as causes of school-based violence in high schools: poverty, xenophobia, a poor economic environment, social media, and lack of social workers. Insights were drawn from the emergent ecological causes of school-based violence identified in the study to develop a managerial model for school managers that would reduce violence and enable school managers to manage school-based violence more effectively in high schools.

8.4 The inter-relationships of the causes of school-based violence

This study has examined the causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KZN province in South Africa. The causes of school-based violence across the four levels of the ESM, as shown in Figure 36, are linked and interlinked. For example, lack of parental involvement in a learner's life at the relationship level of influence could lead to alcohol and substance abuse at the individual level of influence. Likewise, the managerial strategy adopted in the management of the causes of school-based violence at one level of influence could affect other levels of the ESM. For example, the control of alcohol sales in the community, and an adherence to age limits for its consumption, could reduce the inflow of alcohol onto high school premises. In fact, the management of school-based violence in high schools across the different levels of the ESM simply cannot be compartmentalized.

8.5 Emergent school-based violence management model

The school-based violence management model developed in the study drew insights from the causes of school-based violence identified in the study according to the different levels of influence in the ESM, as shown in Figure 36. Figure 37 shows various intervention

strategies designed to manage the identified causes of school-based violence in the study at the different levels of influence.
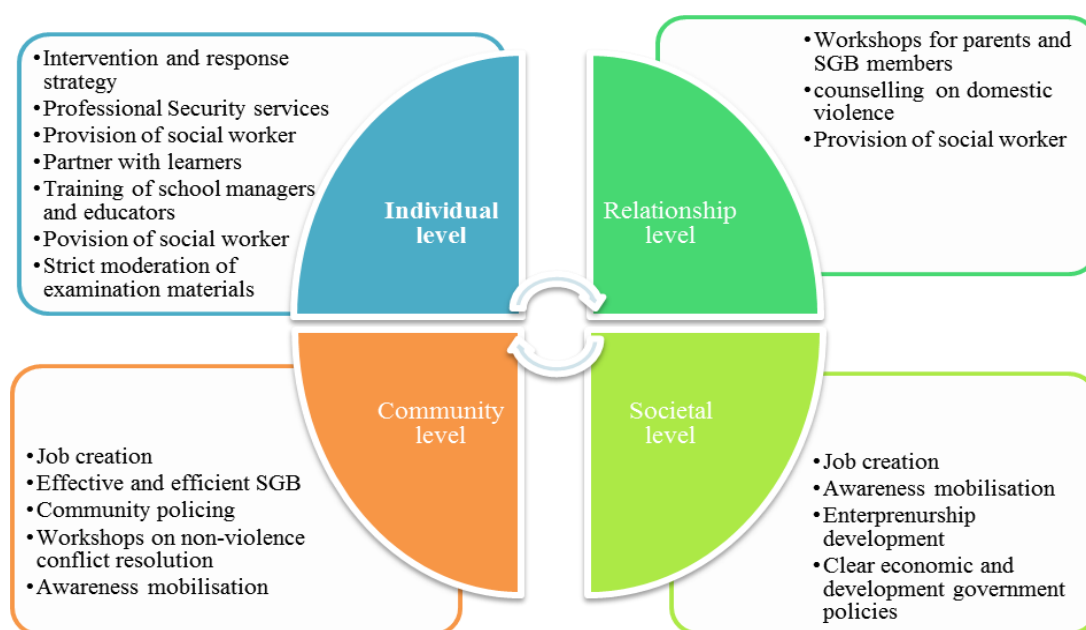
Figure 37: Emergent school-based violence management model of the study

8.5.1 Individual level of influence

Under the individual level of influence in the ESM, the study identified alcohol, child-headed families, drugs, substance abuse and psychological disorders as factors that cause school-based violence in high school. In addressing the identified causes of school-based violence at the individual level of influence, the following management strategies could be applied.

8.5.1.1 Intervention and response strategy

The study findings revealed that the schools do not have a school-based violence strategy in place to respond swiftly to incidents of unrest in schools. Educators have to serve as the response team to control and curtail the level of harm and destruction when violent incidents occur. Schools should engage the services of professional security companies to provide security in schools. These security personnel can be used as a school-based violence response team because of their professional expertise.

8.5.1.2 Professional security service

Schools should engage the services of professional security services as mentioned above. The engagement of professional security services would enhance access control, monitoring of learners, and monitoring of unacceptable behaviours on the school premises. The presence of professional security personnel could deter learners from bringing unacceptable substances onto the school premises and could also deter them from unacceptable behaviours at school.

8.5.1.3 Provision of a resident social worker

The findings in the study revealed that the schools in uMgungundlovu district do not have a professional resident social worker to attend to learners' needs. Social workers schedule planned visits to schools to attend to needy learners, and this creates a gap that could generate chaos and subsequently school-based violence. Schools should have a resident social worker who attends to the needs of the learners and provides counselling when the need arises. The provision of a resident social worker would enhance learners' welfare in schools, especially at the schools that offer school feeding schemes. Information and support for accessing grants and other welfare packages from the Department of Social Development could easily be facilitated by a social worker. The issues of child-headed families and general psychological disorders could be addressed by a resident social worker

8.5.1.4 Partnership with learners

A respondent in a focus group interview revealed that the opinions of learners are not included in decision making on school matters that affect them. Schools should include input from the learners on vital school matters that affect the learners directly. Doing so would help learners to appreciate and better understand the reasons behind vital managerial decisions taken at the school. Partnerships with learners could also serve as a method of disseminating information to parents and other community members.

8.5.1.5 Training

The causes of school-based violence in high schools are numerous and intersect across the various levels of the ESM. Professional managers are trained to teach and educate people, not to manage school-based violence. However, teaching cannot have the desired impact on learners unless the school climate promotes teaching and learning in a school environment with minimal violence. As a result of the alarming increase in school-based violence, all stakeholders, including learners, should be trained in the basic skills to manage people. The promotion of non-violent conflict-resolution approaches must be adopted as part of human development strategies. About 98 % of the respondents maintain that they need training on strategies to manage school violence. The government and the private sector should unite to finance the training of school managers in managing school-based violence.

8.5.1.6 Moderation of learners' schedules

Learners' test and examination schedules should be strictly moderated to avoid situations where educators award marks in exchange for gratification of any nature, as identified in the focus group interviews.

8.5.2 Interpersonal, relationship level of influence

The following causes of school-based violence were identified at the interpersonal, relationship level of influence in the ESM: lack of parental involvement, the background of the child, domestic violence, and gangsterism. The following managerial strategies could be put in place to address the risk factors at the interpersonal, relationship level identified in the study.

8.5.2.1 Workshops

Workshops should be organized regularly for parents and SGB members to educate them on the roles they are supposed to play in school and at home to support their children and increase learners' protective factors. These workshops would adequately position SGB members to perform their duties effectively and efficiently.

8.5.2.2 Managerial linkage of strategies across levels of the ecological model

The provision of a resident social worker at the individual level of influence would have a great impact on changes at the interpersonal, relationship level of influence. For example, the provision of a resident social worker in a school, who handles learners' issues, could trace problems to the family level and thereby extend social services to the family as well, such as counselling for parents and family members, and further recommendations to the Department of Social Development for intervention. The managerial strategies adopted at the individual level of influence would adequately address and check the causes of school-based violence at the interpersonal, relationship level of influence in the ESM.

8.5.3 Community level of influence

The following factors were identified at the community level of influence as causes of school-based violence in high schools: a poor socioeconomic background, the high crime rate, unemployment, drug dealing, and political violence. These factors influence learners negatively, and often lead to school-based violence. The empowerment of school managers through human resources development and training would adequately position school managers to complement the work of the resident social workers to counsel learners who require psychological assistance. Adequate access control and monitoring by professional security personnel would ensure that unwanted items do not find their way onto the school premises. The effective administration of the components of the management of school violence would create a school climate that promotes teaching and learning in high schools.

8.5.3.1 Job creation

It is a core duty of the government to create jobs for citizens; however, this responsibility can be made easier through entrepreneurship development programmes. Parents are able to function better in performing their duties when they have a source of income to provide for their families. Entrepreneurship programmes would create jobs and could reduce the rate of violence in the community by reducing many of the risk factors that lead to school-based violence in high schools.

8.5.3.2 Community policing

The SGB can contribute positively by ensuring that community policing is effective in the community to reduce violence. Reduced community violence and crime reduces certain risk factors that lead to school-based violence in high schools. Effective community policing would reduce drug dealing in the community, which would increase protective factors that create a safe school environment that promotes teaching and learning.

8.5.3.3 Awareness campaigns

Community leaders should embark on awareness campaigns to discourage political violence in the community and to preach non-violent conflict-resolution among political party members. A decrease in political violence could reduce school-based violence at high schools. Non-violent conflict resolution can also be introduced in workshops for parents, educators, SGB members and learners. The causes and management of school-based violence cannot be compartmentalized because they are interrelated, which is why managerial strategies adopted at the level of individual influence would also address the causes of school-based violence identified at the community level of influence.

8.5.4 Societal level of influence

Factors at the societal level of influence that cause school-based violence in high schools are factors beyond the control of school managers. These factors include high levels of poverty, xenophobia, a poor economic environment, and a lack of resident social workers. Factors identified at the societal level of influence can be handled by the government's economic and developmental policies, such as job creation initiatives, entrepreneurship development programmes, training of social workers, and awareness campaigns against xenophobia. The managerial intervention strategies discussed above address the causes of school-based violence at the societal level of the ESM in the study. However, the interrelatedness of the causes of school-based violence also extends the managerial strategies and solutions at one level of influence to the others.

8.6 Recommendations for school managers

- Schools should conduct non-violent conflict-resolution workshops for learners on a quarterly basis, because one workshop annually may not be adequate to instill a culture of non-violent conflict resolution in learners who experience high levels of violence in the community.

- Schools should institute effective mechanisms that would implement the school's code of conduct.

- Positive learner-teacher relationships should be encouraged through mentorship programmes.

- Learners with serious behavioural problems should be identified and individual intervention strategies like counselling, and drug and substance abuse rehabilitation programmes are recommended as a corrective measure through the resident social worker.

- An effective safety and disciplinary committee should be constituted to handle behavioural problems that could lead to school-based violence.

- Sound disciplinary measures should be developed to gauge unacceptable behaviour in schools.

- School management should act swiftly on all complaints about unacceptable behaviours on the part of learners at school before situations spiral out of control.

- School management should ensure absolute confidentiality for both learners and parents in relation to school issues.

- Educators, learners and parents should be empowered to intervene in issues regarding discipline at school.

8.7 Structural recommendations for the DoE

- High school fences should be constructed using bricks or blocks and not security wire to ensure the total separation of learners and community members while learners are at school.

- School toilets should be located strategically on the school premises for easy monitoring by school security personnel.

- Schools should generally be designed to facilitate easy monitoring and ensure the safety of learners.
- Classroom windows should be constructed from unbreakable materials rather than glass, as broken glass is sometimes used by learners as a weapon.

8.8 Recommendations for government agencies

- Community policing units should ensure that they are adequately represented on high school safety and security and committees.
- Regular random search and seizure operations should be carried out by the police in their respective communities with the full co-operation of the schools.
- Awareness campaigns should be organized for learners on a quarterly basis to teach them the effects of engaging in criminal activities and the consequences of these activities in the long run.
- The South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence (SANCA) should carry out workshops each term at high schools on the effects of alcohol and drug consumption on the future of learners.
- SANCA should carry out random blood tests each term on learners for alcohol and drug usage to deter learners from consuming these harmful substances.
- SANCA should have an effective long-term rehabilitation programme for learners who have tested positive for alcohol or drug use at school.
- The Department of Correctional Services should design a programme for high school learners to use inmates as motivational speakers to share personal experiences on why they went to jail, their experiences in jail, and how it has affected their future.
- The Department of Health should from time to time organise psychological workshops for high school learners who are encountering challenges but cannot speak out.

8.9 Limitations of the study

The findings of the study are limited to Section 21 schools located in economically disadvantaged communities in uMgungundlovu district of KZN. The emergent causes of

school-based violence in the study, as illustrated in Figure 36, were based on the data collected from respondents at the research sites used for the study. The emergent managerial model developed in the study for the management and reduction of school-based violence can only be considered for application to Section 21 schools located in economically disadvantaged communities. The managerial model has been developed based on the emergent factors that influence school-based violence in the high schools in this study, and may not be effective in schools with different characteristics.

8.10 Suggestions for further research

Further research should be conducted on effective disciplinary methods at high schools. Most educators insist that since the abolition of corporal punishment there have not been any effective methods proffered on disciplinary approaches in high schools. Over 95 % of the respondents concurred that the disciplinary measures used in high schools today are not effective. Further research should also be conducted on the causes and management of school-based violence in Section 20 schools, since this study focused only on Section 21 schools.

8.11 Conclusion

It is evident that crime has been on the increase in South Africa as demonstrated by the most recent South African crime statistics (Institute for Security Studies, 2015). It has been established in this study that there is a relationship between community violence and school-based violence in high schools. Schools are sub-sectors of the larger community and as such the display of unacceptable behaviours in school could be attributed to what they learnt from the community. In addition to the influence of the high rate of violence in the community, it was established that the abuse of alcohol, drugs and other substances are also key factors that influence school-based violence in high schools.

The study also revealed that school managers lack the skills to manage and reduce school-based violence in their respective places of primary assignment. The abolition of corporal punishment at schools in South Africa has created a disciplinary gap that has not yet been bridged. Participants in the study maintained that all disciplinary measures adopted in schools are ineffective, and revealed that corporal punishment is still in use in some South

African schools. The school-based violence management model developed in this study and the recommendations of this research could assist school managers to reduce and manage school-based violence effectively in their high schools and in other similar contexts.

REFERENCES

ADUOJO, O.T. (2010). *The challenges and benefits of policy networks: A case study of labour policy implementation at the Centre for Criminal Justice*. Pietermaritzburg: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

AGNEW, R. (2001). *Juvenile delinquency: Causes and control*. Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury.

AJAM, K. (2008). Sword attack was 'carefully planned'. *Independent Online.* Retrieved from: http://www.iol.co.za/news/south-africa/sword-attack-was-carefully-planned-1.413575; accessed 25 October 2015).

AISENBERG, E., & HERRENKOHL, T. (2008). Community violence in context: Risk and resilience in children and families. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 23(3), 296–315.

ALLEN, A.B., & LEARY, M.R. (2010). Self-compassion, stress, and coping. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 4(2), 107–118.

ALLEN, K.P. (2010). Classroom management, bullying, and teacher practices. *Professional Educator*, 34(1), n1.

ALLISON, D.G. (1997). Coping with stress in the principalship. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 35(1), 39–55.

ALMOND, L. (2008). *School violence*. Detroit, MI: Greenhaven Press.

ALOISE-YOUNG, P.A., CRUIKSHANK, C., & CHAVEZ, E.L. (2002). Cigarette smoking and perceived health in school dropouts: a comparison of Mexican American and non-Hispanic white adolescents. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology,* 27(6), 497–507.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN (AAUW). (2001). *Hostile hallways: Bullying, teasing and sexual harassment in schools*. Washington, DC: AAUW.

"AMID teacher shortages, states look to community colleges". 2001. *Community College Week*, September 3, 12–14.

ASTOR, R.A., & MEYER, H. (2001). The conceptualization of violence-prone school sub-contexts: Is the sum of the parts greater than the whole? *Urban Education,* 36, 374–399.

ASTOR, R.A., PITNER, R.O., BENBENISHTY, R. & MEYER, H.A. 2002. Public concern and focus on school violence. In: L.A. Rapp-Paglicci, A.R. Roberts, & J.S. Wodarski, (eds) *Handbook of violence*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, pp. 362–302.

ASTOR, R.A., BENBENISHTY, R., & ESTRADA, J.N. (2009). School violence and theoretically atypical schools: The principal's centrality in orchestrating safe schools. *American Educational Research Journal*, 46(2), 423–461.

ASTOR, R.A., BENBENISHTY, R., ZEIRA, A., & VINOKUR, A. (2002). School climate, observed risky behaviors, and victimization as predictors of high school students' fear and

judgments of school violence as a problem. *Health Education & Behavior*, 29(6), 716–736.

ASTOR, R.A., PITNER, R.O., & DUNCAN, B.B. (1996). Ecological approaches to mental health consultation with teachers on issues related to youth and school violence. *Journal of Negro Education*, 336–355.

ATKINSON, S.R., & MOFFAT, J. (2005). The agile organization: From informal networks to complex effects and agility. Information Age Transformation Series, Command and Control Research Program: Washington, DC.

BARBETTA, P.M., NORONA, K.L., & BICARD, D.F. (2005). Classroom behavior management: A dozen common mistakes and what to do instead. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth*, 49(3), 11–19.

BARNES, K., BRYNARD, S., & DE WET, C. (2012). The school in school violence in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. *Journal of Social Science*, 31(2), 209–218.

BARRIENTOS, A. (2011). Social protection and poverty. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 20(3), 240–249.

BAUER, J., STAMM, A., VIRNICH, K., WISSING, K., MÜLLER, U., WIRSCHING, M., & SCHAARSCHMIDT, U. (2006). Correlation between burnout syndrome and psychological and psychosomatic symptoms among teachers. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 79(3), 199–204.

BAUMAN, S. (2008). The role of elementary school counselors in reducing school bullying. *The Elementary School Journal*, 108(5), 362–375.

BAXTER, P., & JACK, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544–559.

BECK, U., & BECK-GERNSHEIM, E. (2002). *Individualization: Institutionalized individualism and its social and political consequences*. London: Sage.

BENBENISHTY, R., & ASTOR, R. (2008). School violence in an international context. *International Journal of Violence and School*, 7, 59–80.

BERAN, T., & SHAPIRO, B. (2005). Evaluation of an anti-bullying program: Student reports of knowledge and confidence to manage bullying. *Canadian Journal of Education/Revue canadienne de l'education*, 28(4), 700–717.

BESTER, S., & DU PLESSIS, A. (2010). Exploring a secondary school educator's experiences of school violence: A case study. *South African Journal of Education*, 30(2), 203–229.

BHATTACHARYA, D.K. (2006). *Research methodology*. New Delhi: Excel Books.

BIRCH, S.H., & LADD, G.W. (1997). The teacher–child relationship and children's early school adjustment. *Journal of School Psychology,* 35, 61–79.

BJORKLUND, A., & SALVANES, K. G. (2010). Education and family background: Mechanisms and policies. Discussion paper series // Forschungsinstitut zur Zukunft der Arbeit, No. 5002. Retrieved from: http://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/36834/1/62977904X. pdf; accessed 5 October 2014.

BLATTMAN, C., & MIGUEL, E. (2010). Civil war. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 48(1), 3–57.

BOEMMEL, J., & BRISCOE, J. (2001). Web quest project theory fact sheet of Urie Bronfenbrenner. National-Louis University. Retrieved from: http://pt3. nl. edu/boemmelbriscoewebquest. Pdf; accessed 4 August 2014

BOKSBERGER, P.E., & MELSEN, L. (2011). Perceived value: A critical examination of definitions, concepts and measures for the service industry. *Journal of Services Marketing,* 25(3), 229–240.

BONANNO, R.A., & HYMEL, S. (2013). Cyber bullying and internalizing difficulties: Above and beyond the impact of traditional forms of bullying. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 42(5), 685–697.

BÖÖK, M.L., & PERÄLÄ-LITTUNEN, S. (2008). Children need their parents more than a pizza in the fridge! Parental responsibility in a Finnish newspaper. *Childhood*, 15(1), 74–88.

BORG, M.G. (1990). Occupational stress in British educational settings: A review. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology,* 10(2), 103–126.

BORGATTI, S.P., & FOSTER, P.C. (2003). The network paradigm in organizational research: A review and typology. *Journal of Management*, 29(6), 991–1013.

BORKO, H., & PUTNAM, R.T. (1995). Expanding a teacher's knowledge base: A cognitive psychological perspective on professional development. In: T.R. Guskey & M. Huberman, eds, *Professional Development in Education: New Paradigms and Practices*. New York: Teachers College Press, pp. 35–65.

BOTVIN, G.J. (2004). Advancing prevention science and practice: Challenges, critical issues, and future directions. *Prevention Science*, 5(1), 69–72.

BOWEN, N.K., & BOWEN, G.L. 1999. Effects of crime and violence in neighborhoods and schools on the school behavior and performance of adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 14(3), 319–342.

BRADSHAW, R. (1991). Stress management for teachers: A practical approach. *The Clearing House*, 65(1), 43–47.

BRASS, D.J., GALASKIEWICZ, J., GREVE, H.R., & TSAI, W. (2004). Taking stock of networks and organizations: A multilevel perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(6), 795–817.

BROCK, B.L., & GRADY, M.L. (2002). *Avoiding burnout: A principal's guide to keeping the fire alive*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

BRONFENBRENNER, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

BRONFENBRENNER, U. (1994). Ecological models of human development. *Readings on the evelopment of Children,* 2, 37–43.

BROWN, K. (2008). "All they understand is force": debating culture in Operation Iraqi Freedom. *American Anthropologist*, 110(4), 443–453.

BRYMAN, A. (2012). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

BUABENG-ANDOH, C. (2012). Factors influencing teachers' adoption and integration of information and communication technology into teaching: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology*, 8(1), 136.

BURKE, J. (1997). Examining the validity structure of qualitative research. *Education*, 118(2), 282–293.

BURT, R.S. (1997). The contingent value of social capital. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 339–365.

BURTON, P. (2008). *Dealing with school violence in South Africa*. Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP) Issue Paper, 4, 1–16.

BURTON, P., & LEOSCHUT, L. (2012). *School violence in South Africa: Results of the 2012 National School Violence Study*. Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention.

BÜYÜKŞAHIN, A. (2009). Impact of self-monitoring and gender on coping strategies in intimate relationships among Turkish university students. *Sex Roles,* 60(9), 708–720.

CAMAJ, L. (2012). The media's role in fighting corruption: Media effects on governmental accountability. *The International Journal of Press/Politics*, 18, 21–24.

CARNEY, A.G., & MERRELL, K.W. (2001). Bullying in schools: Perspectives on understanding and preventing an international problem. *School Psychology International*, 22(3), 364–382.

CARRELL, S.E., & HOEKSTRA, M.L. (2010). Externalities in the classroom: How children exposed to domestic violence affect everyone's kids. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 2(1), 211–228.

CATALANO, R.F., LOEBER, R., & McKINNEY, K.C. (1999). School and Community Interventions To Prevent Serious and Violent Offending. *Juvenile Justice Bulletin*, 1–12.

CATALANO, R.F., BERGLUND, M.L., RYAN, J.A.M., LONCZAK, H.S., & HAWKINS, J.D. (2004). Positive youth development in the United States: Research findings on evaluations of positive youth development programs. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 591(1), 98–124.

CATALANO, R.F., HAGGERTY, K.P., OESTERLE, S., FLEMING, C.B., & HAWKINS, J.D. (2004). The importance of bonding to school for healthy development: Findings from the Social Development Research Group. *Journal of School Health*, 74, 252–261.

CHAPLAIN, P. (1995). Stress and job satisfaction: A study of English primary school teachers. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology,* 15(4), 473–489.

CHAPMAN, C., & HARRIS, A. (2004). Improving schools in difficult and challenging contexts: strategies for improvement. *Educational Research,* 46(3), 219–228.

CHEN, J.K., & ASTOR, R.A. (2011). School engagement, risky peers, and student–teacher relationships as mediators of school violence in Taiwanese vocational versus academically oriented high schools. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 39(1), 10–30.

CHOU, W.Y.S., HUNT, Y.M., BECKJORD, E.B., MOSER, R.P., & HESSE, B.W. (2009). Social media use in the United States: Implications for health communication. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 11(4), e48.

CONNELL, D.B., TURNER, R.R., & MASON, E.F. (1985). Summary of findings of the School Health Education Evaluation: Health promotion effectiveness, implementation, and costs. *Journal of School Health*, 55(8), 316–321.

CORNELL, D.G., & MAYER, M.J. (2010). Why do school order and safety matter? *Educational Researcher*, 39(1), 7–15.

CRAWAGE, M. (2005). *How resilient adolescent learners in a township school cope with school violence: A case study*. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Johannesburg.

CRESWELL, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

CRESWELL, J.W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

CRESWELL, J.W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

CREWS, K., CREWS, J., & TURNER, F. (2011). School violence is not going away so proactive steps are needed. *College Teaching Methods & Styles Journal (CTMS),* 4(1), 25–28.

CROTTY, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

CURRY, L.A., NEMBHARD, I.M., & BRADLEY, E.H. (2009). Qualitative and mixed methods provide unique contributions to outcomes research. *Circulation*, 119(10), 1442–1452.

DAVISON, K.K., & LAWSON, C.T. (2006). Do attributes in the physical environment influence children's physical activity? A review of the literature. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 3(1), 19.

DAWES, A., BRAY, R. & VAN DER MERWE, A. (EDS). (2007) *Monitoring child well-being: a South African rights-based approach.* Cape Town: HSRC Press.

DEJONG, W. (1994). *Preventing interpersonal violence among youth: An introduction to school, community, and mass media strategies.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

DE KLERK, S. (2010). The importance of networking as a management skill. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 41(1), 37–49.

DE KLERK-LUTTIG, J. (2008). An educational strategy for combating moral degeneration in South African society. *Dutch Reformed Theological Journal/Nederduitse Gereformeerde Teologiese Tydskrif*, 49(3 & 4), 113–123.

DELLA PORTA, D. (2013). Democracy inside social movements. The Wiley-Blackwell Encyclopedia of Social and Political Movements. Retrieved from: http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/9780470674871.wbespm067/ abstract; accessed 4 May 2014.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. (1996). *Education White Paper 2: The organisation, governance and funding of schools. Notice 130 of 1996*. Pretoria: DoE. Retrtieved from: http://www.polity.org.za/polity/govdocs/white_papers/educwp2feb.html; accessed 25 October 2015.

DE WET, C. (2001). A media discourse analysis of racism in South African schools. *International Education Journal*, 2(5), 98–110.

DE WET, C. (2007). School violence in Lesotho: The perceptions, experiences and observations of a group of learners. *South African Journal of Education*, 27(4), 673–689.

DISHION, T.J. & LOEBER, R. (1985). Adolescent marijuana and alcohol use: The role of parents and peers revisited. *American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse,* 11(1–2), 11–25.

DOCKING, R.A. (1985). Changing teacher pupil control ideology and teacher anxiety. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 11(1), 63–76.

DOGINI, E.U. (2014). Influence of media on school-based bullying intervention program in primary schools: A focus on preventive social medicine. *International Journal of Education and Science*, 1(4). Retrieved from: http://www.ijessnet.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/1.pdf; accessed 25 October 2015.

DUGGAN, M., & SMITH, A. (2013). *Social media update 2013*. Pew Internet and American Life Project. Retrieved from: http://www.pewinternet.org/2013/12/30/social-media-update-2013/; accessed 4 April 2014.

DURKHEIM, E. (1972). *Selected writings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

DWYER, K., OSHER, D., & WARGER, C. (1998). *Early warning, timely response: A guide to safe schools.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

D'ZURILLA, T.J., & NEZU, A.M. (2010). Problem-solving therapy. *Handbook of Cognitive-Behavioral Therapies*, 3, 197–225.

EDMONDS, W.A., & KENNEDY, T.D. (2012). *An applied reference guide to research designs: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

ELIAS, M.J., ZINS, J.E., WEISSBERG, R.P., FREY, K.S., GREENBERG, M.T., HAYNES, N.M., ET AL. (1997). *Promoting social and emotional learning: Guidelines for educators*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).

ELLICKSON, P.L., COLLINS, R.L., HAMBARSOOMIANS, K., & MCCAFFREY, D.F. (2005). Does alcohol advertising promote adolescent drinking? Results from a longitudinal assessment. *Addiction*, 100(2), 235–246.

ELLIOTT, D.S., & MIHALIC, S. (2004). Issues in disseminating and replicating effective prevention programs. *Prevention Science*, 5(1), 47–53.

ESPELAGE, D.L., & HOLT, M.K. (2007). Dating violence & sexual harassment across the bully-victim continuum among middle and high school students. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 36(6), 799–811.

FAGAN, A. A.,& MIHALIC, S. (2003). Strategies for enhancing the adoption of school-based prevention programs: Lessons learned from the Blueprints for Violence Prevention replications of the Life Skills Training program. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 31(3), 235–253.

FAYOMI, O.O., CHIDOZIE, F., & AYO, C. (2015). A Retrospective Study of the effects of Xenophobia on South Africa-Nigeria Relations. *International Journal of Human and Social Sciences* 6(2).

FAZEL, M., REED, R.V., PANTER-BRICK, C., & STEIN, A. (2012). Mental health of displaced and refugee children resettled in high-income countries: risk and protective factors. *The Lancet*, 379(9812), 266–282.

FIFE, J.E., MCCREARY, M., BREWER, T., & ADEGOKE, A.A. (2011). Family rituals, religious involvement, and drug attitudes among recovering substance abusers. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 13(1), 87.

FIORE, D. (2006). *School community relations*. 2nd edition. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.

FLETCHER, A.C., DARLING, N.E., STEINBERG, L., & DORNBUSCH, S. 1995. The company they keep: Relation of adolescents' adjustment and behavior to their friends' perceptions of authoritative parenting in the social network. *Developmental Psychology,* 31(2), 300–310.

FLISHER, A.J., TOWNSEND, L., CHIKOBVU, P., LOMBARD, C.F., & KING, G. (2010). Substance use and psychosocial predictors of high school dropout in Cape Town, South Africa. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 20(1), 237–255.

FLORES, R.L. 2006. Adolescent girls speak about violence in their community. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences,* 1087, 47–55.

FOLKMAN, S., LAZARUS, R.S., DUNKEL-SCHETTER, C., DELONGIS, A., & GRUEN, R.J. (1986). Dynamics of a stressful encounter: Cognitive appraisal, coping and encounter outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 50(5), 992–1003.

FORS, S.W., & DOSTER, M.E. (1985). Implication of results: Factors for success. *Journal of School Health,* 55(8), 332–334.

FOWLER, J.S., ALIA-KLEIN, N., KRIPLANI, A., LOGAN, J., WILLIAMS, B., ZHU, W., & VOLKOW, N.D. (2007). Evidence that brain MAO A activity does not correspond to MAO A genotype in healthy male subjects. *Biological Psychiatry*, 62(4), 355–358.

FRANZ, N.K. (2011). The unfocused focus group: Benefit or bane? *The Qualitative Report*, 16(5), 1380–1388. Retrieved from: http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR16-5/franz.pdf; accessed 25 July 2015.

FREIDENFELT LILJEBERG, J., EKLUND, J.M., VÄFORS FRITZ, M., & AF KLINTEBERG, B. (2011). Poor school bonding and delinquency over time: Bidirectional effects and sex differences. *Journal of Adolescence*, 34(1), 1–9.

FREUDENBERGER, H.J. (1974). Staff burn-out. *Journal of Social Issues*, 30(1), 159–165.

FRIEDMAN, I.A. (1995). Student behavior patterns contributing to teacher burnout. *The Journal of Educational Research,* 88(5), 281–289.

FURLONG, M., & MORRISON, G. (2000). The school in school violence: definitions and facts. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 8(2), 71–82.

GAGER, P.J., & ELIAS, M.J. (1997). Implementing prevention programs in high-risk environments: Application of the resiliency paradigm. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 67(3), 363.

GARBARINO, J., DUBROW, N., KOSTELNY, K., & PARDO, C. (1992). *Children in danger: Coping with the consequences of community violence*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

GERSHOFF, E.T. (2010). More harm than good: A summary of scientific research on the intended and unintended effects of corporal punishment on children. *Law & Contemp. Probs.,* 73, 31.

GFROERER, J.C., GREENBLATT, J.C., & WRIGHT, D.A. 1997. Substance use in the US college-age population: differences according to educational status and living arrangement. *American Journal of Public Health*, 87(1), 62–65.

GIDDENS, A. (1986). *The constitution of society*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

GINGISS, P.L. (1992). Enhancing program implementation and maintenance through a multiphase approach to peer-based staff development. *Journal of chool Health*, 62(5), 161–166.

GOEBERT, D., ELSE, I., MATSU, C., CHUNG-DO, J., & CHANG, J.Y. (2011). The impact of cyberbullying on substance use and mental health in a multiethnic sample. *Maternal and Child Health Journal*, 15(8), 1282–1286.

GOODKIND, S., RUFFOLO, M.C., BYBEE, D., & SARRI, R. (2009). Coping as a mediator of the effects of stressors and supports on depression among girls in juvenile justice. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice*, 7(2), 100–118.

GORMAN-SMITH, D., HENRY, D.B., & TOLAN, P.H. (2004). Exposure to community violence and violence perpetration: The protective effects of family functioning. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 33(3), 439–449.

GOVENDER, K., & KILLIAN, B. (2001). The psychological effects of chronic violence on children living in South African townships. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 31(2), 1–11.

GREEFF, P., & GROBLER, A. (2008). Bullying during the intermediate school phase: A South African study. *Childhood*, 15(1), 127–144.

GREENBERG, M.T. (2004). Current and future challenges in school-based prevention: The researcher perspective. *Prevention Science*, 5(1), 5–13.

GREENE, J.A., CHOUDHRY, N.K., KILABUK, E., & SHRANK, W.H. (2011). Online social networking by patients with diabetes: A qualitative evaluation of communication with Facebook. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 26(3), 287–292.

GRIGGS, R.A. (2002). *Preventing crime in South African schools: A review of learning and good practice from eight interventions*. Cape Town: Open Society Foundation.

GOULDING, C. (2005). Grounded theory, ethnography and phenomenology: A comparative analysis of three qualitative strategies for marketing research. *European Journal of Marketing,* 39(3/4), 294–308.

HADFIELD, M. (2005). *Middle leaders and the nature of distributed leadership in networks*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.

HÄFNER, A., & STOCK, A. (2010). Time management training and perceived control of time at work. *The Journal of Psychology*, 144(5), 429–447.

HARBER, C. (2001). Schooling and violence in South Africa: Creating a safer school. *Intercultural Education*, 12(3), 261–271.

HARGREAVES, D.A., & TIGGEMANN, M. (2004). Idealized media images and adolescent body image:"Comparing" boys and girls. *Body Image*, 1(4), 351–361.

HARRIS, A., & LAMBERT, L. (2003). *Building leadership capacity for school improvement*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

HATTAL, G.R., & HATTAL, C.M. (2002). Battling school violence with mediation technology. *Pepperdine Dispute Resolution Law Journal* 3, Retrieved from: http://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/drlj/vol2/iss3/3; accessed 25 October 2014.

HATTIE, J. (2005). The paradox of reducing class size and improving learning outcomes. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 43, 387–425.

HAUER, K.E., O'BRIEN, B.C., HANSEN, L.A., HIRSH, D., MA, I.H., OGUR, B., & TEHERANI, A. (2012). More is better: students describe successful and unsuccessful experiences with teachers differently in brief and longitudinal relationships. *Academic Medicine*, 87(10), 1389–1396.

HAWKINS, F., & KLAS, L. (1997). Time management as a stressor for helping professionals: Implications for employment. *Journal of Employment Counseling,* 34(1), 2–6.

HENDRICKS, K., & LIU, J. (2012). Maternal depression and childhood aggression: Literature review. *MCN: The American Journal of Maternal Child Nursing*, 37(4), 253.

HERRENKOHL, T.I., KOSTERMAN, R., HAWKINS, J.D., & MASON, W.A. (2009). Effects of growth in family conflict in adolescence on adult depressive symptoms: Mediating and moderating effects of stress and school bonding. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 44(2), 146–152.

HILL, M.S., & HILL, F.W. (1994). *Creating safe schools: what principals can do*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

HONG, J.S., & ESPELAGE, D.L. (2012). A review of research on bullying and peer victimization in school: An ecological system analysis. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 17(4), 311–322.

HUMAN RIGHTS WATCH. (2006). *Report of the Public Hearing on the Right to Basic Education*. Pretoria: South African Human Rights Commission.

HUMM, S.R. (1991). Criminalizing poor parenting skills as a means to contain violence by and against children. *University of Pennsylvania Law Review*, 1123–1161.

INSTITUTE FOR SECURITY STUDIES. (2015). SA crime stats 2015 - Murder and robbery. Retrieved from: https://www.issafrica.org/media-room/videos-and-infographics/sa-crime-stats-2015-murder-and-robberyl; accessed 29 September 2015.

JANOSZ, M., THIÉBAUD, M., BOUTHILLIER, C., & BRUNET, L. (2004). Perception du climat scolaire et épuisement professionnel chez les enseignants. *Actes du XIII-ème Congrès de Psychologie du Travail et des Organisations*, 26–29.

JIMERSON, S., NICKERSON, A., MAYER, M.J., & FURLONG, M.J. (2012). *Handbook of school violence and school safety: International research and practice*. New York: Routledge.

JOHNS, B.H., & KEENAN, J.P. (1997). *Techniques for managing a safe school*. Denver: Love Publishing.

JOHNSON, E.S. (2008). Ecological systems and complexity theory: Toward an alternative model of accountability in education. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 5(1).

JONES, N., MOORE, K., VILLAR-MARQUEZ, E., & BROADBENT, E. 2008. *Painful lessons: The politics of preventing sexual violence and bullying at school.* Working Paper 295. London: Overseas Development Institute, and Plan International.

JOYCE, T.M. (2013). School Violence: Reimagining Schools as 'Safe Havens'. *Journal of Social Science*, 37(3), 249–258.

JURIS, J.S. (2005). The new digital media and activist networking within anti–corporate globalization movements. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 597(1), 189–208.

KANG, Y.S. (2011). Stress management and mind-body medicine: focusing on relaxation and meditation. *Journal of the Korean Medical Association*, 54(3), 284–293.

KAPLAN, A.M., & HAENLEIN, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business Horizons*, 53(1), 59–68.

KARLSSON, J. (2002). The role of democratic governing bodies in South African schools. *Comparative Education*, 38(3), 327–336.

KASKE, F., KÜGLER, M., & SMOLNIK, S. (2012). *Return on investment in social media--does the hype pay off? Towards an assessment of the profitability of social media in organizations.* Paper presented at the System Science (HICSS), 2012 45th Hawaii International Conference.

KELLIHER, F. (2011). Interpretivism and the pursuit of research legitimisation: An integrated approach to single case design. In: A. Bryant, ed., *Leading issues in business research methods*. UK: Academic Publishing International, pp. 44–61.

KENIS, P., & SCHNEIDER, V. (1991). Policy networks and policy analysis: Scrutinizing a new analytical toolbox. In: B. Marin & R. Mayntz, eds, *Policy networks: Empirical evidence and theoretical considerations*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, pp. 25–62.

KENNEDY, A.C., BYBEE, D., SULLIVAN, C.M., & GREESON, M. (2010). The impact of family and community violence on children's depression trajectories: Examining the interactions of violence exposure, family social support, and gender. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 24(2), 197.

KOLSTAD, I., & WIIG, A. (2012). What determines Chinese outward FDI? *Journal of World Business*, 47(1), 26–34.

KOSTINSKY, S., BIXLER, E.O., & KETTL, P.A. (2001). Threats of school violence in Pennsylvania after media coverage of the Columbine High School massacre: examining the role of imitation. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, 155(9), 994–1001.

KOWALSKI, R.M., GIUMETTI, G.W., SCHROEDER, A.N., & LATTANNER, M.R. (2014). Bullying in the digital age: A critical review and meta-analysis of cyberbullying research among youth. *Psychological Bulletin*, 140(4), 1073.

KWAKYE-NUAKO, C O., & DANKWAH, J. (2012). Religion and treatment of psychological disorders in Ghana: A review of the Ghanaian literature. *Ghana Social Science Journal*, 9(1), 90.

KYRIACOU, C. (1987). Teacher stress and burnout: an international review. *Educational Research,* 29(2), 146–152.

KYRIACOU, C. (2001). Teacher stress: Directions for future research. *Educational Review,* 53(1), 27–35.

LAKIĆ, A. (2012). The family and an obese child. *Medicinski glasnik Specijalna bolnica za bolesti štitaste žlezde i bolesti metabolizma Zlatibor*, 17(44), 61–74.

LANCASTER, G. (2007). *Research methods in management*. New York: Routledge.

LANDAU, L.B. (2012). *Exorcising the demons within: Xenophobia, violence and statecraft in contemporary South Africa*. Tokyo: United Nations University Press.

LARRIVEE, B. (2005). *Authentic classroom management: Creating a learning community and building reflective practice*. Boston :Allyn and Bacon.

LAZARUS, R.S. (1993). Coping theory and research: past, present, and future. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 55(3), 234–247.

LEOSCHUT, L., & BURTON, P. (2006). *How rich the rewards? Results of the 2005 National Youth Victimisation Study*. Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, Monograph Series, No 1.

LE ROUX, C., & MOKHELE, P. (2011). The persistence of violence in South Africa's schools: In search of solutions. *Africa Education Review,* 8(2), 318–335.

LESTER, S. (1999). *An introduction to phenomenological research*. Taunton: Stan Lester Developments.

LIN, N. (1999). Building a network theory of social capital. *Connections*, 22(1), 28–51.

LINDLE, J.C. (2008). School Safety Real or Imagined Fear? *Educational Policy*, 22(1), 28–44.

LOCKMAN, J.E. (2003). Preventive intervention targeting precursors. In: Z. Sloboda & W.J. Bukoski, eds, *Handbook of drug abuse prevention: Theory, science, and practice*. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum, pp. 307–326.

MAJOR, V.S., KLEIN, K.J., & EHRHART, M.G. (2002). Work time, work interference with family, and psychological distress. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 87(3), 427–436.

MALONE, B., BONITZ, D., & RICKETT, M. (1998). Teacher perceptions of disruptive behaviour: maintaining instructional focus. *Educational Horizons,* 76(4), 189–94.

MANGOLD, W.G., & FAULDS, D.J. (2009). Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix. *Business Horizons,* 52, 357–365.

MAPHOSA, C., & SHUMBA, A. (2010). Educators' disciplinary capabilities after the banning of corporal punishment in South African schools. *South African Journal of Education,* 30(3), 0–0.

MARAIS, P., & MEIER, C. (2010). Disruptive behaviour in the Foundation Phase of schooling. *South African Journal of Education*, 30(1), 41–57.

MARSHALL, M.N. (1996). Sampling for qualitative research. *Family Practice*, 13(6), 522–526.

MASITSA, G. (2008). Discipline and disciplinary measures in the Free State Township schools: unresolved problems. *Acta Academica,* 40, 234–270.

MASON, M. (2010). Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews. Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research 11(3). Retrieved from: http:// nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs100387; accessed 13 March 2014.

MATTHEWS, B., & ROSS, L. (2014). *Research methods: a practical guide for social sciences*. New York: Pearson Higher Ed.

MCCORMICK, L.K., STECKLER, A.B., & MCLEROY, K.R. (1995). Diffusion of innovations in schools: a study of adoption and implementation of school-based tobacco prevention curricula. *American Journal of Health Promotion,* 9(3), 210–19.

MCEVOY, A., & WELKER, R. (2000). Antisocial behavior, academic failure, and school climate: A critical review. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 8(3), 130–140.

MCGEE, Z.T. (2003). Community violence and adolescent development: An examination of risk and protective factors among African American youth. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 19(3), 293–314.

MCNEELY, C.A., NONNEMAKER, J.M., & BLUM, R.W. (2002). Promoting school connectedness: Evidence from the national longitudinal study of adolescent health. *Journal of School Health*, 72(4), 138–146.

MESTRY, R. (2006). Financial accountability: The principal or the school governing body? *South African Journal of Education*, 24(2), 126–132.

MIHALIC, S. (2009). *Implementation fidelity*. Unpublished Manuscript. Retrieved from: http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.180.9133&rep=rep1&type=pdf; accessed 4 March 2014.

MILLER, T., KRAUSS, R., & MILLER, T. (2008). School-related violence: Definitions, scope, and prevention goals. In: T.W. Miller, ed., *School violence and primary prevention*. New York: Springer, pp. 15–24.

MILNER, H.R., & TENORE, F.B. (2010). Classroom management in diverse classrooms. *Urban Education*, 45(5), 560–603.

MINOIU, C., & REDDY, S.G. (2010). Development aid and economic growth: A positive long-run relation. *The Quarterly Review of Economics and Finance*, 50(1), 27–39.

MISHNA, F., COOK, C., GADALLA, T., DACIUK, J., & SOLOMON, S. (2010). Cyber bullying behaviors among middle and high school students. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry,* 80(3), 362–374.

MITCHELL, D. (2004). *Stress, coping, and appraisal in an HIV-Seropositive rural sample: a test of the goodness-of-fit hypothesis*. Unpublished MSc thesis, Ohio University.

MNCUBE, V. (2009). The perceptions of parents of their role in the democratic governance of schools in South Africa: Are they on board? *South African Journal of Education*, 29(1), 83–103.

MNCUBE, V., & MADIKIZELA-MADIYA, N. (2014). Gangsterism as a cause of violence in South African schools: The Case of Six Provinces. *Journal of Sociology and Social Anthropology*, 5(1), 43−50.

MNCUBE, V., & NETSHITANGANI, T. (2014). Can violence reduce violence in schools? The case of corporal punishment. *Journal of Sociology and Social Anthropology*, 5(1), 1−9.

MORGAN, D.L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48–76.

MROZEK, K. (2005). *Teacher stress*. Northern Illinois University College of Education. Retrieved from: http://www.cedu.niu.edu/~shumow/itt/Teacher%20Stress.pdf; accessed 12 July 2014.

MUIJS, D., HARRIS, A., CHAPMAN, C., STOLL, L., & RUSS, J. (2004). Improving schools in socioeconomically disadvantaged areas: A review of research evidence. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 15(2), 149–175.

MUKUNDAN, J., & KHANDEHROO, K. (2010). Burnout among English language teachers in Malaysia. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research (CIER),* 3(1), 71–76.

NAGEL, L., & BROWN, S. (2003). The ABCs of managing teacher stress. *The Clearing House*, 76(5), 255–258.

NAIDU, E. (2007). Spate of attacks as schools turn into war zones. *Sunday Tribune*, September 23, p. 4.

NCONTSA, V.N., & SHUMBA, A. (2013). The nature, causes and effects of school violence in South African high schools. *South African Journal of Education,* 33(3).

NETSHITAHAME, N.E., & VAN VOLLENHOVEN, W.J. (2002). School safety in rural schools: Are schools as safe as we think they are? *South African Journal of Education,* 22(4), 313–318.

NOOR, K.B.M. (2008). Case study: A strategic research methodology. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 5(11), 1602–1604.

NOOTEBOOM, B., & GILSING, V.A. (2004). Density and strength of ties in innovation networks: a competence and governance view. (No. ERS-2004-005-ORG). ERIM Report Series Research in Management. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/1765/1124

OLWEUS, D. (2001). *The bullying circle*. Bergen/Norwegen.

OLWEUS, D. (2003). A profile of bullying at school. *Educational Leadership,* 60(6), 12–17.

OLWEUS, D. (2011). Bullying at school and later criminality: Findings from three Swedish community samples of males. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*, 21(2), 151–156.

OLWEUS, D. (2012). Cyberbullying: An overrated phenomenon? *European Journal of Developmental Psychology,* 9(5), 520–538.

ORTEGA, R., ELIPE, P., MORA-MERCHÁN, J.A., GENTA, M.L., BRIGHI, A., GUARINI, A., & TIPPETT, N. (2012). The emotional impact of bullying and cyberbullying on victims: a European cross-national study. *Aggressive Behavior*, 38(5), 342–356.

PARCEL, G.S., ROSS, J.G., LAVIN, A.T., PORTNOY, B., NELSON, G.D., & WINTERS, F. (1991). Enhancing implementation of the Teenage Health teaching modules. *Journal of School Health*, 61, 35–38.

PARK-HIGGERSON, H.K., PERUMEAN-CHANEY, S.E., BARTOLUCCI, A.A., GRIMLEY, D.M., & SINGH, K.P. (2008). The evaluation of school-based violence prevention programs: A meta-analysis. *Journal of School Health*, 78(9), 465–479.

PARSAI, M., MARSIGLIA, F.F., & KULIS, S. (2010). Parental monitoring, religious involvement and drug use among Latino and non-Latino youth in the Southwestern United States. *British Journal of Social Work*, 40(1), 100–114.

PATACCHINI, E., & ZENOU, Y. (2012). Juvenile delinquency and conformism. *Journal of Law, Economics, and Organizatio*n, 28(1), 1–31.

PAYET, J.-P., & FRANCHI, V. (2008). The rights of the child and the good of the learners: A comparative ethnographical survey on the abolition of corporal punishment in South African schools. *Childhood*, 15(2), 157–176.

PEARLIN, L.I. (1989). The sociological study of stress. *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour*, 30(3), 241–256.

PELTONEN, K., ELLONEN, N., LARSEN, H.B., & HELWEG-LARSEN, K. (2010). Parental violence and adolescent mental health. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 19(11), 813–822.

PETERSON, R.L., LARSON, J., & SKIBA, R. (2001). School violence prevention: Current status and policy recommendations. *Law & Policy*, 23(3), 345–371.

PIAGET, J., & INHELDER, B. (2000). *The psychology of the child*. New York: Basic Books.

PIANTA, R.C. (1999). *Enhancing relationships between children and teachers*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

PIANTA, R.C., NIMETZ, S.L., & BENNETT, E. (1997). Mother-child relationships, teacher-child relationships, and school outcomes in preschool and kindergarten. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 12 (3): 263–280.

POLIT, D.F., & BECK, C.T. (2010). Generalization in quantitative and qualitative research: Myths and strategies. International *Journal of Nursing Studies*, 47(11), 1451–1458.

PREUSS, L. (2010). Codes of conduct in organisational context: From cascade to lattice-work of codes. I, 94(4), 471–487.

PRINSLOO, I.J. (2005). How safe are South African schools? *South African Journal of Education*, 25(1), 5–10.

PRINSLOO, J., LADIKOS, A., & NESER, J. (2005). Attitudes of public school learners to under-age drinking and illegal substance abuse: A threat to social stability. *Child Abuse Research in South Africa*, 6(1), 28–40.

PRINSLOO, S. (2006). Sexual harassment and violence in South African schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 26(2), 305–318.

PRIVITERA, C., & CAMPBELL, M.A. (2009). Cyberbullying: the new face of workplace bullying? *Cyberpsychology and Behavior,* 12(4), 395–400.

PUBLIC AGENDA. 2004. Teaching interrupted: Do discipline policies in today's public schools foster the common good? http://www.publicagenda.org/files/teaching_interrupted. pdf; accessed 25 October 2014.

RAGINS, B.R., TOWNSEND, B., & MATTIS, M.C. (1998). Gender gap in the executive suite: CEOs and female executives report on breaking the glass ceiling. *Academy of Management Executive*, 12, 28–42.

RANDALL, P.E. (1991). *The prevention of school-based bullying*. Hull: University of Hull.

REITER, S.L., & STEENSMA, H.K. (2010). Human development and foreign direct investment in developing countries: the influence of FDI policy and corruption. *World Development*, 38(12), 1678–1691.

RENK, K., & CREASY, G. (2003). The relationship of gender, gender identity, and coping strategies in late adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 26(2), 159–68.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. (1996A). *The South African Schools Act, No. 84 of 1996*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. (1996B). *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. (2007). *Education Laws Amendment Act, No, 31 of 2007*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. (2011). *The Basic Education Laws Amendment Act No. 15 of 2011*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

REUPERT, A., & WOODCOCK, S. (2010). Success and near misses: Pre-service teachers' use, confidence and success in various classroom management strategies. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(6), 1261–1268.

RICHARDS, L. (1999). Data alive! The thinking behind NVivo. *Qualitative Health Research*, 9(3), 412–428.

RIVKIN, S.G., HANUSHEK, E.A., & KAIN, J.F. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society,* 73(2), 417–458.

ROORDA, D.L., KOOMEN, H.M., SPILT, J.L., & OORT, F.J. (2011). The influence of affective teacher–student relationships on students' school engagement and achievement a meta-analytic approach. *Review of Educational Research,* 81(4), 493–529.

ROSS, J.G., LUEPKER, R.V., NELSON, G.D., SAAVEDRA, P., & HUBBARD, B.M. (1991). Teenage health teaching modules: impact of teacher training on implementation and student outcomes. *Journal of School Health,* 61(1), 31–34.

ROSSOUW, J.P., & STEWART, D. (2008). Student/learner discipline and bullying: a comparative analysis of legal risk management in schools in Australia and South Africa. *Acta Academica*, 40(2), 244–274.

ROUSE, W.B. (2006). Agile information systems for agile decision making. In: K.C. Desouza, ed., *Agile information systems*. New York: Butterworth Heinemann.

SABATES-WHEELER, R., & DEVEREUX, S. (2013). Sustainable graduation from social protection programmes. *Development and Change*, 44(4), 911–938.

SALEKIN, R.T., SALEKIN, K.L., CLEMENTS, C.B., LEISTICO, A., GRISSO, T., & VINCENT, G. (2005). Risk-sophistication-treatment inventory. In: T. Grisso, G. Vincent, & D. Seagrave, eds, *Mental health screening and assessment in juvenile justice*, New York: Guilford Press, pp. 341–356.

SAUNDERS, M., LEWIS, P., & THORNHILL, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students*. 5th edition. Harlow: Pearson.

SAUNDERS, M.N., SAUNDERS, M., LEWIS, P., & THORNHILL, A. (2011). *Research methods for business students*. 5th edition. New Delhi: Pearson.

SAUNDERS, M., LEWIS, P., & THORNHILL, A. (2012). *Research methods for business students*. 6th edition. Harlow: Pearson.

SCHOENWALD, S.K., GARLAND, A.F., CHAPMAN, J.E., FRAZIER, S.L., SHEIDOW, A.J., & SOUTHAM-GEROW, M.A. (2011). Toward the effective and efficient measurement of implementation fidelity. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*, 38(1), 32–43.

SEEDAT, M., VAN NIEKERK, A., JEWKES, R., SUFFLA, S., & RATELE, K. (2009). Violence and injuries in South Africa: prioritising an agenda for prevention. *The Lancet*, 374(9694), 1011–1022.

SEGRE, S. (2004). A Durkheimian network theory. *Journal of Classical Sociology*, 4(2), 215–235.

SEKARAN, U. (2006). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

SEKARAN, U., & BOUGIE, R. (2010). Research methods for business: A skill building approach. 5th edition. West. Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

SELA-SHAYOVITZ, R. (2009). Dealing with school violence: The effect of school violence prevention training on teachers' perceived self-efficacy in dealing with violent events. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(8), 1061–1066.

SERFONTEIN, E. (2010). Liability of school governing bodies: a legislative and case law analysis. *TD: The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa*, 6(1), 93–112.

SHAKESHAFT, C., & COHAN, A. (1995). Sexual abuse of students by school personnel. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76 (7): 513–520.

SHENTON, A.K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22(2), 63–75.

SHUMBA, A., & NCONTSA, V. (2012). *The nature, causes and effects of school violence in South African high schools*. ICERI2012 Proceedings, 923–938.

SIMONS, D.A., & WURTELE, S.K. (2010). Relationships between parents' use of corporal punishment and their children's endorsement of spanking and hitting other children. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 34(9), 639–646.

SINGH, G.D. (2012). *Managing learner aggression in rural secondary schools in the Empangeni district of KwaZulu-Natal*. Unpublished Master's thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal.

SINKOVICS, R.R., & GHAURI, P.N. (2008). Enhancing the trustworthiness of qualitative research in international business. *Management International Review*, 48(6), 689–714.

SLAVIN, R. (1989). Class size and student achievement: Small effects of small classes. *Educational Psychologist*, 24(1), 99–110.

SMART, C., & SHIPMAN, B. (2004). Visions in monochrome: families, marriage and the individualization thesis. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 55(4), 491–509.

SQUELCH, J. (2001). Do school governing bodies have a duty to create safe schools? An education law perspective: current issues in education law and policy. *Perspectives in Education: Education Law and Policy in South Africa: Special Issue 4*, 19, 137–149.

STAPENHURST, R. (2000). *The media's role in curbing corruption*. World Bank Institute Washington.

STANTON, B., LI., PACK, R., COTTRELL, L., HARRIS, C., & BURNS, J.M. (2002). Longitudinal influence of perceptions of peer and parental factors on African American adolescent risk involvement. *Journal of Urban Health,* 79(4), 536–548.

STEENKAMP, C. (2009). Xenophobia in South Africa: What does it say about trust? *The Round Table*, 98(403), 439–447.

STEINBERG, L. (1987). Familial factors in delinquency: A developmental perspective. *Journal of Adolescent Research* 2, 255–268.

STEWART, C. & BOLLAND, J. (2002). Parental style as a possible mediator of the relationship between religiosity and substance use in African-American students. *Journal of Ethnicity in Substance Abuse,* 1(4), 63–81.

SUCUOGLU, B., AKALIN, S., & SAZAK-PINAR, E. (2010). The effects of classroom management on the behaviors of students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms in Turkey. *The Journal of the International Association of Special Education*, 11(1), 64–74.

TAGGART, V.S., BUSH, P.J., ZUCKERMAN, A.E., & THEISS, P.K. (1990). A process evaluation of the District of Columbia "Know Your Body" project. *Journal of School Health*, 60(2), 60–66.

TEUCHMANN, K., TOTTERDELL, P., & PARKER, S.K. (1999). Rushed, unhappy, and drained: An experience sampling study of relations between time pressure, perceived control, mood, and emotional exhaustion in a group of accountants. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4, 37–54.

THAPA, A., COHEN, J., GUFFEY, S., & HIGGINS-D'ALESSANDRO, A. (2013). A review of school climate research. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(3), 357–385.

THAWABIEH, A.M., & AL-ROFO, M.A. (2010). Vandalism at boys' schools in Jordan. *Introduction Journal of Education Science*, 2(1), 41–46.

THOMA, R.J., MONNIG, M.A., LYSNE, P.A., RUHL, D.A., POMMY, J.A., BOGENSCHUTZ, M., & YEO, R.A. (2011). Adolescent substance abuse: the effects of alcohol and marijuana on neuropsychological performance. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research*, 35(1), 39–46.

THOMAS, D.R. (2006). A general inductive approach for analyzing qualitative evaluation data. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 27(2), 237–246.

TIMMERMAN, G. (2003). Sexual harassment of adolescents perpetrated by teachers and by peers: An exploration of the dynamics of power, culture, and gender in secondary schools. *Sex Roles*, 48(5-6), 231–244.

TRACY, S.J. (2010). Qualitative quality: Eight "big-tent" criteria for excellent qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16(10), 837–851.

TRENDALL, C. (1989). Stress in teaching and teacher effectiveness: A study of teachers across mainstream and special education. *Educational Research*, 31, 52–58.

TROMAN, G. (2000). Teacher stress in the low-trust society. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 21(3), 331–353.

UNICEF (UNITED NATIONS CHILDREN'S FUND). (2001). Annual Report, 2001. New York: Unicef. http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/Annual_Report_2001.pdf; accessed 25 September 2014.

VAN DER MERWE, A., DAWES, A., & WARD, C.L. (2013). The development of youth violence: An ecological understanding. In: C.L. Ward, A. van der Merwe, & A. Dawes, eds, *Youth violence: Sources and solutions in South Africa*, Cape Town: UCT Press, pp. 53–92.

VAN DER WALT, J.S., BUITENDAG, A.A., ZAAIMAN, J.J., & VAN VUUREN, J.J. (2009). Community living lab as a collaborative innovation environment. *Issues in Informing Science and Information Technology*, 6, 421–436.

VAN JAARSVELD, L. (2008). Violence in schools: a security problem? Paper presented at the Acta Criminologica: CRIMSA Conference: Special Edition 2.

VAN RENSBURG, A.P.J. (2010). *Dimensions, coping strategies and management of school-based violence*. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of the Free State.

VARVOGLI, L., & DARVIRI, C. (2011). Stress management techniques: Evidence-based procedures that reduce stress and promote health. *Health Science Journal*, 5(2), 74–89.

VENTER, E., & VAN NIEKERK, L. (2011). Reconsidering the role of power, punishment and discipline in South African schools. *Koers: Bulletin for Christian Scholarship/ Koers: Bulletin vir Christelike Wetenskap*, 76(2), 243–260.

VYGOTSKY, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. London: Harvard University Press.

WAHYUNI, D. (2012). The research design maze: Understanding paradigms, cases, methods and methodologies. *Journal of Applied Management Accounting Research*, 10(1), 69–80.

WAINWRIGHT, M. (2011). Almost 900 pupils suspended from school each day for violence. *The Guardian* 28 July, 2011. https://www.theguardian.com/education/2011/jul/28/ pupils-suspended-exclusions-violence; accessed: 3 August 2016.

WALLACE, D., & WALLACE, R. (1998). *A plague on your houses*. London & New York: Verso Press.

WARD, C. (2007). Young people's violent behaviour: Social learning in context. In: P. Burton, ed., *Someone stole my smile: An exploration into the causes of youth violence in South Africa*. Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, pp. 9–35.

WARTMAN, K.L., & SAVAGE, M. (2008). *Parental involvement in higher education: Understanding the relationship among students, parents, and the institution*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

WATSON, D.P. (2010). The mental health of the older homeless population: Provider-perceived issues related to service provision. *Journal of Applied Social Science*, 4(1), 27–43.

WEICK, K.E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations, Vol. 3*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

WILLIAMS, K., & MCGILLICUDDY-DE LISI, A.M. (1999). Coping strategies in adolescents. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology,* 20(4), 537–549.

WILSON, F. (2011). *Gender based violence in South African schools*. UNICEF/IIEP Working document, 4.

WINDER, W.W., & HEINGER, R.W. (1973). Effect on exercise of degradation of thyroxine in the rat. *American Journal of Physiology*, 224, 572–575.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION. (1999). Report of the Consultation on Child Abuse Prevention, 29-31 March 1999, Geneva: WHO. Retrieved from: http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/65900#sthash.VUAH5wIE.dpuf; accessed 14 February 2014.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION. (2002). World Report on Violence and Health: Summary. Geneva: WHO. http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/ world_report/en/summary_en.pdf; accessed 15 August 2014.

YEAGER, D.S., KROSNICK, J.A., CHANG, L., JAVITZ, H.S., LEVENDUSKY, M.S., SIMPSER, A., & WANG, R. (2011). Comparing the accuracy of RDD telephone surveys and internet surveys conducted with probability and non-probability samples. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 75(4), 709–747.

YIN, R.K. (2013). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

ZAAIMAN, S.M. (2006). *The existence and form of social networks in organisations*. Unpublished MBA dissertation, University of Pretoria.

ZIMMERMAN, M.A., & MATON, K.I. (1992). Lifestyle and substance use among male African-American urban adolescents: A cluster analytic approach. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 20, 121–138.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF ™
KWAZULU-NATAL
──────────────────
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

18 January 2016

Mr Chidi Idi Eke (211543894)
School of Management, IT and Governance
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Eke,

Protocol reference number : HSS/0530/015D
Project title: The causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in Umgungundlovu District of KwaZulu-Natal

Approval Notification – Amendment Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application and request for an amendment received on 08 January 2016 has now been approved as follows:

- Change in Supervisor

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form; Title of the Project, Location of the Study must be reviewed and approved through an 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 period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

Yours faithfully

....
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

cc Supervisor: Dr Given Mutinta and Professor Brian McArthur
cc Academic leader Research: Professor Brian McArthur
cc School administrator: Ms Debbie Cunynghame
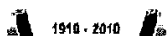
APPENDIX B: GATE KEEPER'S LETTER

education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar   Tel: 033 341 8610   Ref.:2/4/8/1/82

Mr C Eke
3 Royal Palm
27 Ivy Road Bellevue
Pietermaritzburg
3201

Dear Mr Eke

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **"THE CAUSES AND MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE IN UMGUNGUNDLOVU DISTRICT OF KWAZULU-NATAL"**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the Intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 February to 30 June 2016.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Mr. Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report / dissertation / thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Director-Resources Planning, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to schools and institutions in KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (Umgungundlovu District).

Nkosinathi S.P. Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education
Date: 15 April 2014

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL: Private Bag X 9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200, KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa ...dedicated to service and performance
PHYSICAL: 247 Burger Street, Anton Lembede House, Pietermaritzburg, 3201. Tel. 033 392 1004 Fax 033 392 4203
EMAIL ADDRESS: kehologile.connie@kzndoe.gov.za; CALL CENTRE: 0860 596 363;
WEBSITE: WWW.kzneducation.gov.za

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW GUIDE

TOPIC: **"THE CAUSES AND MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE IN HIGH SCHOOLS IN UMGUNGUNDLOVU DISTRICT OF KWAZULU-NATAL"**

- What are the individual factors that influence school violence?
- How do individual factors influence school violence?
- Why do individual factors influence school violence?
- Do you think an individual's personal factors like attitude and belief influences school violence?
- What is an individual's social circle that influences behaviour the most?
- How do these relationships like family and peers influence school violence?
- To what extent do you think these relationships mentioned above influence school violence?
- Why do these social circles influence behaviour that might cause school violence?
- How do community influence an individual's behaviour that could lead to school violence?
- What factors are responsible for the influence of an individual by his community that could lead to school violence?
- Why do community influence behaviour that could lead to school violence?
- To what extent do you think that an individual's community influences behaviour that could lead to school violence?
- Macrosystem like gender, inequality, religion and cultural beliefs is said to influence school violence; to what extent do you think this statement is true?
- How do macrosystem influence behaviour that could lead to school violence?
- Why do macrosystem influence an individual's behaviour that could lead to school violence?
- What are the school-based factors that lead to school violence?
- How do school-based factors cause to school violence?
- Why do school-based factors cause school violence?
- What are the school-based factors that can be employed in the management of school-based violence?

- What emergency plan do your school have to respond to school violence issues?
- Do your school have any anger management program(s) put in place to reduce and control school violence?
- What measures are your school taking to reduce school violence?
- Do you receive any form of support from DoE in terms of managing school violence?
- If yes above; what sort of support do you receive?
- How this support is implemented and how effective is it?
- Are there training programmes designed to assist educators manage school violence?
- If yes, are the training useful; what can be added unto the training to make it more beneficial in managing school violence?
- What ways can you suggest on how to better manage school violence?

APPENDIX D: IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW CONSENT LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

School of Management, IT and Governance

Doctoral Research Project
Researcher: Chidi Idi Eke (0733935501)
Supervisor: Dr Given Mutinta (031-2608854)
Co-Supervisor: Professor Brian McArthur (031-2605605)
Research Office: Mariette Snyman (031-260 8350)

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW CONSENT LETTER

I_____(full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

I consent / do not consent to having this interview audio- recorded.

_____   _____

Signature of Participant   Date

APPENDIX E: PARENTAL CONSENT LETTER

University Of KwaZulu-Natal
School of Management, IT and Governance

PARENTAL CONSENT LETTER

Dear Respondent,

PhD Research Project
Researcher: Chidi Idi Eke (0733935501)
Supervisor: Dr Given Mutinta (031-2608854)
Co-Supervisor: Professor Brian McArthur (031-2605605)
Research Office: Mariette Snyman (031-260 8350)

You are being asked to allow your child to participate in a research study. Before you give your permission, it is important that you read the following information and feel free to contact either me (the researcher), or my supervisor if you are unclear about anything, to ensure you understand what your child will be asked to do. It is your choice whether or not your child will participate.

Your decision of whether or not to allow your child to participate will have no effect on benefits or services to which you are otherwise entitled, the *quality of your care, academic standing, job status, etc. (whatever phrase is appropriate).* Please ask questions if there is anything you do not understand.

The study involves "the causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal".

There will be no benefits to you should you decide to allow your child participate in this study. *Your child's participation will help us get an insight about what he/ she perceive as the causes of school violence.*

You will not receive any compensation if the results of this research are used towards effective management of school-based violence in high schools.

There are no costs for participating in this study other than the time your child will spend responding to the questions during the interview/focus group interaction.

It is unlikely that participation in this project will result in harm to participants.

Your child's privacy will be protected?

Other than responding to the questionnaire, there will be no additional information collected as data for this study. Data collected for this study will be maintained for a period of about five years. Efforts will be made to protect the identities of the participants and the confidentiality of the research data used in this study, participants are not expected to give their names, ID numbers or any information that is confidential. All records will be kept in a locked file until the study ends and will be destroyed at the stipulated time. Access to all data will be limited to the researcher and supervisor.

The information collected for this study will be used only for the purposes of conducting this study. What we find from this study may be presented at meetings or published in papers but your child's name will not ever be used in these presentations or papers

• **Withdrawal from the study:** If you decide to allow your child to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue his/her participation at any time and without any penalty. Your decision to stop your child's participation will have no effect on the *quality of care, academic standing, job status, etc. (whatever phrase is appropriate).*

• **Funding:** "There is no outside funding for this research project."

Questions about this study *if applicable*: *or concerns about a research related injury* may be directed to the researcher in charge of this study: or the research administrator

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Management, IT and Governance

PARENTAL CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Chidi Idi Eke (0733935501)

Supervisor: Dr Given Mutinta (031-2608854)

Co-supervisor: Professor Brian Mcarthur (031-2605605)

Research office: Mariette Snyman (031-260 8350)

Consent Letter

I have read the above information about *(The causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal.)* and have been given an opportunity to ask questions. By signing this I agree to allow my child to participate in this study and I have been given a copy of this signed consent document for my own records. I understand that I can change my mind and withdraw my consent at any time.

By signing this consent form I understand that I am not giving up any legal rights.

_____   _____

Parent or Legal Guardian Signature   Date

Name of Child _____

Proofreader's Report

P.O. Box 100715

Scottsville

3209

7 August 2016

To whom it may concern,

This is to certify that the thesis "The causes and management of school-based violence in high schools in uMgungundlovu district of KwaZulu-Natal", written by Chidi Idi Eke (student number 211543894) has been edited by me for language.

Please contact me should you require any further information.

Kind regards,

Debbie Turrell

debbie.turrell@gmail.com

081 303 0439