DISCIPLINE, SAFETY AND SECURITY IN SCHOOLS: A CHALLENGE FOR SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

by

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submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR EDUCATIONIS

in

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

in the

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

at the

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

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April 2008
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I gratefully acknowledge the Almighty God for granting me the strength and for guiding my intellect in completing this thesis.

My sincere thanks go to my promoter, Prof CF Loock for his guidance and motivation throughout this research study.

To my co-promoters, Dr PJ du Plessis and Prof BR Grobler for their contribution towards the completion of this research study.

To my parents and extended family members for instilling the love of education and hard work in me at an early age.

My special thanks go to my husband, Bonga for his support and encouragement throughout the research study.

My daughters Nontetho, Ziyanda and Sane for their support and understanding.

My colleagues, in the Department of Education for their co-operation and responses to the questionnaire.
SYNOPSIS

Chapter one provided a general introduction and motivation for the study, and the challenges of discipline, safety and security (DSS) were also introduced. A general background to discipline, safety and security challenges was provided. The research problem and research aims were formulated and the research methodology was discussed. The focus of the research was clearly demarcated. The chapter was concluded by clarifying the concepts related to the research topic and outlining the division of chapters.

In Chapter two a literature review was undertaken in order to determine the essence of DSS challenges and the extent of the challenges. In an analysis of the global perspectives in South America, Australia, and Botswana it became clear that DSS was a world wide phenomenon. Specific DSS challenges such as bullying, violence, substance abuse, guns and weapons, gangsterism, child abuse, HIV/AIDS and child-headed families were discussed.

In Chapter three a discussion of possible intervention strategies which could be of assistance to the school management and the SGB in maintaining DSS in schools in schools was done. General characteristics of well-disciplined and safe schools were discussed as functional Codes of Conduct for learners, effective leadership, a positive school culture and climate, strong parental and community partnerships and effective communication. The following were identified and discussed as strategies for managing DSS challenges in schools: co-operative discipline, behaviour management, developing resilience in learners, developing self-esteem in learners, establishing a process for conflict resolution, co-operative learning use of physical environment, time management and learner motivation. The Boys and Girls Town educational model was discussed and important discipline, safety and security lessons for all stakeholders were clearly identified.

In Chapter four a description of the empirical investigation which included the nature and purpose of quantitative research was provided. The pilot study and
the research instrument, the questionnaire, were discussed and the course of
the research was briefly indicated. The questionnaire was structured in such a
way that respondents were expected to state the extent to which they agreed
or disagreed with the statements related to DSS challenges. The population
and sampling procedure was discussed. Biographical information of
respondents was provided in relevant tables. The construct validity of the
questionnaire was investigated by means of successive first and second order
procedures.

The first-order procedure performed for Section B resulted in eleven (11)
first-order factors which were reduced to three using a second-order
procedure, from which three factors were obtained namely, “Aspects of
effective DSS leadership and management in schools” with a Chronbach-
Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.819, which consisted of twelve items;
“Fundamental structures to facilitate effective DSS management in schools”
with a Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.811 with sixteen items:
“Environmental conditions that influence the management of DSS in schools”
with a Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.766 with twelve items.
Section C consisting of ten (10) items was reduced to one factor that was
named: “Strategies to effectively manage DSS in schools” with a Chronbach-
Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.850.

In chapter five and analysis and interpretation of the empirical data as
obtained from the questionnaire was provided. The validity and reliability of
the structured questionnaire as research instrument used in this research was
briefly discussed. Hypotheses were formulated. A comparison of two
independent groups and three or more independents were done. The
statistical significance of differences between all independent groups was	abulated and thereafter discussed in respect of the four factors involved
Levene’s test for equality of variances was used to compare the mean scores
of the factors involved in the management of DSS. The factor mean scores of
the various independent groups were tabulated and the ANOVA for the
analysis of variance was calculated and briefly discussed.
In chapter six an overview of the research was provided. Important findings from both literature review and empirical investigation were recorded. It was concluded that the effective involvement of the suggested structures and implementation of strategies would have a positive influence on managing discipline, safety and security (DSS) in our schools.
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CHAPTER 1
ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

South African society has undergone major social, economic and political changes over the past decade. Among the changes in the education sector has been the decentralisation of school governance. Decentralisation means that all public schools have been granted legal personality to act as “juristic persons” and govern their schools autonomously. The concept of “juristic person” means that schools have legal rights and duties; schools can sue and can also be sued (Bray, 2005:133 and RSA, 1996:9).

Governance is an issue not only at the national level but at every level of the system including the level of the school. It involves the nature and extent of authority as well as the control and incentives applied to deploy human and economic resource for the well-being of an organisation (Buckland & Hofmeyr, 1993:30).

School governance refers to an act of determining policy and rules by which a school is to be organised and controlled. It includes ensuring that such rules and policies are carried out effectively in terms of the law and the budget of the school. Stakeholders should be involved when policy matters are decided. The South African Schools’ Act legislates the establishment of school governing bodies (SGB) in public schools. The SGB is regarded as the legitimate “government” of the school. The composition of the SGB allows the involvement of stakeholders. The governance of public schools and Discipline, Safety and Security (hereafter, DSS) in schools require the active participation of parents, educators and learners (RSA, 1996:9).

A school will not function optimally in situations of insecurity, indiscipline and in the absence of safety. (KZNDEC, 2003:5) As management of schools engage in their task of creating a positive teaching and learning environment,
discipline, safety and security issues become crucial. The art of creating a safe school environment poses great challenges to school management. It is stipulated in the Constitution and the Bill of Rights in Chapter Two (sec 24) that every child has the right: to an environment that is not detrimental to his health. This right also applies to learners and educators and protects them from being exposed to harmful environments, including the school. The school’s physical facilities, including buildings and grounds can pose safety problems. Educators are required to provide educational, physical and mental safety to learners (Netshitahame & van Vollenhoven, 2002:313).

A number of South African schools are faced with DSS challenges. These include violence, bullying, child abuse, substance abuse, HIV/AIDS, and the carrying of guns and weapons to schools. Schools have to come up with effective strategies to ensure that they remain places where educators and learners can safely engage in teaching and learning activities.

A school is a complex organisation with different people and personalities assembled to achieve a common purpose, namely, teaching and learning. In order to establish relationships and protect the rights of individuals, there has to be agreement on conduct. The legislation emphasises that the SGB is the authority responsible for the formulation of the Code of Conduct (RSA, 1996:8(i). The Code of Conduct should clearly distinguish between what is acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. Therefore, the rights and responsibilities of all role players and penalties should be defined. The Code of Conduct is binding to every learner at the school. The key words are ‘participation’ and ‘consensus’. Widespread consultation during the compilation of the code of conduct and genuine incorporation of reasonable suggestions should complete the process of adoption (KZNDEC, 1999:10 and Bray, 2005:133).

Not only schools but also social structures such as the family, the church and the state determine the kind of behaviour that is acceptable and what is not. These behavioural rules may rest on moral or judicial grounds. The list of unacceptable behaviour is comprehensive. According to Bortner (1988:6)
some types of behaviour are prohibited because they are unhealthy, others because they are immoral, in poor taste or illegal. To be regarded as a crime the act must be prohibited by law (Allen, 1997:1).

It is clear that a sound judicial framework has been developed in order to create a safe environment in every school where behaviour is regulated in such a way that it should be conducive to teaching and learning. Incidents involving ill-disciplined learners and violence, however, is an everyday occurrence in our schools. Why is this the case? It would seem as if the problem could be a manifestation of poor school governance and management. To govern effectively and efficiently the SGB must be able not only to make rules for government, but also to have the capacity to implement them.

Effective partnerships in education management and governance are built on good co-operation, mutual trust, reciprocal rights and obligations and sharing of resources and expertise to promote and serve the best interests of all learners (White Paper, 1995:21). With the above role-players clearly understanding and responsibly playing their roles, schools should be well disciplined.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Sound DSS depends on good management, both within the school as a whole and within the classroom context. Squelch and Lemmer (1994:42) maintain that planning for good discipline begins with a broad school policy empowering principals and educators to deal with a number of possible behaviour problems. They further state that planning for positive discipline and a safe environment should begin with principals, since they are the ones responsible for establishing a safe and orderly environment. Educators also have the responsibility of maintaining order and discipline in their classes.

School discipline creates an environment conducive to learning and ensures the safety and security of educators and learners. Discipline, safety and
security in schools is a global problem. No effective teaching and learning can take place without discipline (Bray, 2005:134 and Squelch, 2000:2). The maintenance of sound discipline is therefore important. Jackson (1991:77) states that learner discipline is a complex problem. It has its origin in the home. In order for the child to achieve self-discipline the guidance of mature and caring adults is a necessity. Discipline, safety and security problems are not limited to internal factors. Some external factors impact negatively on schools.

In keeping with international trends, South African schools have moved towards greater decentralised school governance (Lemmer, 2000:137). The South African Schools Act, Act 84 of 1996 has mandated school governing bodies to decide on matters of school policy and discipline (RSA, 1996). The principal as mandated by Section 16 (3) is responsible for the day to day running of and deals with professional matters of the school.

Included in the specific functions of the school governing bodies, as set out in Section 20 (d) of the Act, is the duty to adopt a Code of Conduct for learners at the school after consultation with the learners, parents and educators. Furthermore, the governing bodies must “promote the best interests of the school and strive to ensure their development through the provision of quality education at the school” (RSA, 1996).

Research on school discipline indicates that today’s schools are plagued by violence, crime and disruptive classroom behaviour. (Gaustad, 1992 and Van Gass, 2003:1). The MEC for KwaZulu-Natal Education declared in 2003 that: “Some pupils, in collaboration with criminals have turned schools into havens for drug dealers………” (Bisetty, 2003:3). During the first KwaZulu-Natal Representative Council for Learners’(RCL) conference held on 28 August 2003 in Durban, both the CEO and MEC of the Department of Education in KZN expressed concern about the spate of shootings, stabbings and the prevalence of drugs in schools. The RCLs were urged to lead learners in the rooting out of drug-trafficking, guns and all other forms of “evil” in schools.
A learner was stabbed to death by a classmate at Umlazi’s KwaMathanda High School (Mthembu, 2004:1), while more recently the media reported a spate of stabbings and incidences of violence among learners in Gauteng. The above incidents highlight the seriousness of the problem and the urgent need for more updated and valid findings on the problem.

The maintenance of sound discipline, safety and security in schools should be a partnership between parents, learners, the state and educators. Interventions by Education departments in the United States, Indiana and South Africa in the form of programmes to improve school safety highlights the states’ role in attempt to solve the problem. The relevant departments subsequently publicized the following respectively: School Violence Prevention, School Safety Specialists and Regulations for Safety measures in Public schools (RSA, 2001; www.myschools.com/tracks/educators/safeschl) (www.deanet.doe.state.in.us/issasa/law.html).

In addition to the issues discussed above, a number of cases against educators using corporal punishment have been heard in South Africa. Further, an outcry from religious groups seeking the return of corporal punishment to schools is an indication of the gravity of the discipline problem in schools. The Christian Education South Africa brought an application arguing that its right to religious and cultural freedom was violated by Section10 of the South African Schools Act, which prohibits corporal punishment (Bot, 1999:17). Bot (1999:15) and De Wet (2003:168) reported a considerable number of violent incidents such as educators killed, robberies, learners assaulting peers and educators and thugs injuring learners on school premises. Teacher Unions alike indicated their dissatisfaction with safety arrangements for educators.

Research relating to parent involvement in schooling is limited. Bearing in mind that most members of the school governing body are parents, the establishment of family-school relations should be an important focus area. The importance of both teachers and families in providing safety and security has been highlighted by research (Smit, & Liebenberg, 2003:1). Davidoff and
Lazarus (1997:165) emphasise the importance of capacity building since the school governing bodies have to provide an organic link between the school and its community. As the guardian of the school the school governing body and school management teams are challenged to guide the school with wisdom and insight. The important question is: To what extent are the school governing bodies capable of “establishing a disciplined and purposeful school environment, dedicated to the improvement and maintenance of the quality of the learning process” as required by Section 8(2) of the SASA (1996:7).

The predominance of the problem of safety in schools necessitates further research. More information is needed by principals who are faced with the problem on a daily basis. New information that will be collected will contribute to the expansion of scientific knowledge. Findings and conclusions drawn will be of assistance and interest to the stakeholders in education (De Vos, 1998:103; Mouton, 1996:102; Huysamen, 1990:10).

Having discussed the problem above, the statement of the research will now follow.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

From the discussions above it is clear that certain aspects of discipline, safety and security in our schools need further investigation. The emerging questions are:

- How could discipline, safety and security be established and maintained in our schools?
- What is the role of school governing bodies and school management with regard to discipline, safety and security in schools?
- What are the essential aspects of discipline, safety and security in a school environment?
- What are the current perceptions of educators and school management teams (SMT) on discipline, safety and security?
1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The general aim of this research study is to investigate the role played by the school governing bodies in ensuring discipline, safety and security in schools. The specific aims of this research are to:

- Clarify what is meant by discipline, safety and security in schools.
- Clarify the role of school governing bodies and school management teams with regard to discipline, safety and security.
- Identify and discuss the characteristics of a disciplined, safe and secure school.
- Investigate the current perceptions of educators and school management teams (SMT) on discipline, safety and security matters in schools.
- To formulate guidelines for the schools to manage the DSS challenges.

A discussion of the research methodology will now follow.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.5.1 Literature survey

Blanche and Durrheim (1999:18) contend that a literature review puts the research study into context by showing how it fits into a particular field. The purpose of literature review can be stated as follows: to identify knowledge
gaps, develop or refine a research problem, to identify a theoretical framework and to identify issues and variables related to the research topic (Blanche & Durrheim, 1999:19; and DeVos, 2002:128).

The literature survey will further sharpen and deepen the theoretical framework of the research (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:23). A well-structured and systematically presented literature review will add much to an understanding of the roles played by the school governing bodies and management teams (SMT’s) in the establishment and management of school discipline, safety and security. Readers of the study will gain more insight from the study (Schumacher & Mc Millan, 1993:112). Blanche and Durrheim (1999:19) further argue that a literature review involves more than citing as many sources as possible. It should highlight pertinent literature and contribute to the field by providing a novel and focused reading of the literature.

Because research is a source for building a knowledge base, learning about previous thinking on a topic is an essential step. Good research is laid by thorough literature research (De Vos, et al., 2002:128). In addition to this a thorough literature review improves the chances of obtaining significant results (Borg & Gall, 1979:98). In this study the literature review will be well-structured and systematically presented. A number of sources of literature such as books, articles in professional journals, the internet, research reports, newspapers, radio and TV broadcasts will be used as sources of information. As De Vos et al. (2002:133) warn, the latter two sources will be utilised with great circumspection and contents will be verified against scientific sources.

1.5.2 Empirical study

According to Mouton (1996:110), DeVos, et al., (2002:166) and Schumacher & Mc Millan (1993:223) different techniques for gathering data are used in quantitative research. A particular technique or instrument is chosen to fit the research design. The purpose of a quantitative research is among other
things to describe the frequency of perceptions. Emphasis is placed on precise measurement and control of possible extraneous sources of error. Numbers are assigned to objects in a consistent manner.

The researcher intends using the questionnaire as a data collection instrument. The objective is to obtain facts and opinions about the phenomenon from people who are informed on the particular issue. In this research the researcher requires information and opinions concerning issues of discipline, safety and security in schools from educators and SMT members, who are the informed people on the issue. A structured questionnaire is regarded as the most suitable method for this purpose. What makes this instrument even more appropriate is that the suspension of personal prejudices, biases and objectivity of the researcher can be ensured. The information thus gathered will be generalised to the larger population of KwaZulu-Natal schools (Mouton, 1996:111 and De Vos, et al. 2002:172).

In this research study, fifty (50) questions will be designed to obtain the perception of educators and SMT’s about DSS in schools and the roles of the school governing bodies and school management. Questionnaires will be distributed to educators in the different regions of the KwaZulu Natal province.

To improve the response rate the questionnaires will be hand-delivered to respondents. Considering the vastness and widely dispersed population the cluster sampling will be suitable for this study. A random selection of schools will be used to collect data. The questionnaire will include ordinal and equal-interval scale responses. The data will be analysed using the SPSS 11,0 programme.

Having discussed the research methodology, important ethical issues to be observed during the research will now follow.
1.6 ETHICAL ISSUES

It is important to conduct research that is in accordance with the relevant ethical procedures. Bogdan and Bilken (1998:42), define ethics in research as “the principles of right and wrong that a particular group accepts at a particular time”.

The researcher was aware of ethical issues involved and that these complied with the following ethical standard: respondents’ informed consent. This was done to protect the rights of educators and school managers that were participants in this study (see Annexure A). Further, in accordance with the ethical procedures and standards of the University of Johannesburg, the researcher respected the anonymity and confidentiality of the information gathered through the questionnaires. The names of the participants will not be mentioned in any published or unpublished documents as they were promised anonymity. Participants could withdraw at any stage without penalty.

Another ethical measure that was applied was to get permission for access from the Department of Education in KwaZulu-Natal province. Feedback will be given to respondents. The researcher complied with the required acquisition of approval as stipulated. Further ethical measures that were complied with in conducting this research study were: there was no violation of privacy nor emotional or physical harm, nor plagiarism; instead competence and skill was displayed (Herbet, 1990:106; Edward & Talbot, 1994:12; De Vos et al., 2002:75; Babbie & Mouton, 2001:470).

1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH

This research is restricted to a selected group of primary and secondary schools in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa.
Having presented the methods to be used in this research, it is important to clarify certain concepts used. The detailed research design will be discussed in chapter four.

1.8 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.8.1 Discipline

Discipline has its roots in the Latin word “disciplinare”, meaning to teach or instruct. It is controlled behaviour resulting from training that is expected to produce a particular character or pattern of behaviour. Discipline includes rules and punishment which are intended to correct no object (Thompson, 1995:384; Reader’s Digest Dictionary, 1987: 443).

Charles (1999:3) further defines discipline as that which teachers do to help learners behave in an acceptable manner in school. Discipline aims at removing bad habits and substituting these with good ones, especially those of order and obedience. The intention is to prevent, suppress and redirect misbehaviour. Savage (1991:7) agrees with Charles (1999:3) on the main goal of discipline. He further contends that when learners exercise self-control they demonstrate responsibility. Self-control is not an innate but rather an acquired characteristic.

1.8.2 Safety

Safety means freedom from or prevention of danger, risk or injury. It is affording protection against harm. The concept of safety also refers to precautions people take to prevent accidents (World Book Encyclopaedia, 1992:11). Prinsloo (2005:5) and Squelch (2001:149) point out that safety in schools implies a place where educators teach and learners learn without fear for their lives. A safe school is therefore a healthy school in that it is psychologically and physically safe.
1.8.3 Security

Security is an assured or a certain state of being untroubled by danger or fear. Specific responsibility for school security is not set down in legislation. School security is related to health and safety. Whoever therefore has responsibility for health and safety should consider what security measures are necessary to ensure, as far as reasonably practicable, the safety of the staff and learners. Schools need to be aware of their own security needs www.teachernet.com.

For the purpose of this research this would mean a reassurance by the stakeholders in education that public schools are accident-free.

1.8.4 Public schools

The South African Schools’ Act (RSA, 1996:11) defines public schools as schools provided for the education of learners by the MEC out of funds appropriated for this purpose by the provincial legislature. A public school may be an ordinary public school or a public school for learners with special education needs. Public schools will mean all public, primary and secondary schools that are funded by the national and provincial government; where tuition is offered from grade one to twelve.

1.8.5 School governing body

A school governing body is the body established in terms of the South African Schools’ Act which is responsible for the governance of a public school. It is established to govern the school in an autonomous (self-governing) manner, in line with the spirit of democracy, partnership and trust in education. This body stands in a position of trust towards the school (RSA, 1996:9; Bray, 2005:137). Section 23 (1) stipulates that this body consists of elected members, the school principal and co-opted members. The elected members as stipulated in Section 23(2) are representatives of the following stakeholders: the parents of learners at the school, the educators at the
school, non-educator members of staff and learners in a secondary school (Potgieter et al., 1997:24).

1.8.6 Dangerous object

A dangerous object may include among others:

- any explosive material or device;
- any firearm or gas weapon;
- any article, object or instrument which may be employed to cause bodily harm to a person or to cause damage to property; and
- any object which the Minister may by notice in the Gazette declare to be a dangerous object (RSA, 2001:1).

1.8.7 Illegal drug

A drug is a substance that produces a psychoactive effect. An illegal drug is a range of drugs which the production, sale and possession and use of is prohibited. These drugs include (but are not limited to) amphetamines, cocaine, dagga, ecstasy, heroin, LSD and mandrax (ELRC, 2003:A98). Regulations for safety measures at schools (RSA, 2001:1) defines an illegal drug as any unlawful, intoxicating or stupefying substance.

1.8.8 Educators

According to The Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998, an educator means any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and educational psychological services at any public school, further education and training institution, departmental office or adult basic education centre and who is appointed in a post on any educator establishment under the same Act (RSA, 1998:2). Educators will therefore mean all persons whose duty it is to teach or educate learners in the public school and who are employed under the Employment of Educator’s Act of 1998.
1.9 PLANNING OF THE STUDY

The order of discussion of this research study will be as follows.

**Chapter one** provides the motivation and background for the research. It also outlines the aims of the research, methodology used, demarcation of research and the clarification of concepts.

In **chapter two** a literature survey on challenges of school discipline, safety and security will be undertaken. Specific challenges such as bullying, child abuse, violence, HIV/AIDS will be discussed. Further insights will be gained from what other researchers have written.

**Chapter three** the guidelines for the management of the DSS challenges in schools will be given. Intervention strategies will be suggested for effective school management.

In **chapter four** the focus will be on the research design, the development of the research instrument and sampling.

In **chapter five**, empirical findings will be revealed. An analysis and interpretation of the empirical data obtained from the questionnaire will be done.

In **chapter six**, the final chapter, a summary of the study will be made, including applicable findings and recommendations for the future avenues of research to be undertaken.
1.10 CONCLUSION

In chapter one the researcher has indicated the crucial role the school management together with the SGBs have to play in establishing and maintaining discipline, safety and security in schools. A properly disciplined school should have all role-players operating in a safe and secure environment. The prevalent problem of ill-discipline, lack of safety and insecurity in South African schools has been stated. It is clear that this is a national phenomenon.

In the next chapter, a literature review will be undertaken in order to investigate the essence and the extent of discipline, safety and security challenges and the role that school management can play to address the problem.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW: DISCIPLINE, SAFETY AND SECURITY IN SCHOOLS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In 1994 South Africa adopted a new Democratic Constitution (RSA, 1996). This significant move ensured the rights to human dignity, equality and freedom, basic education as well as a safe environment. Legislative provision was made to safeguard the rights and safety of learners. In addition to the supreme law of the country, the South African Schools' Act (RSA, 1996) and the Child Care Act (RSA, 1983) created a platform for school governance, school management and parental involvement, including the establishment and maintenance of discipline, safety and security in schools.

Discipline, safety and security in schools is a global problem. Effective teaching and learning is impossible without school discipline. School discipline creates an environment conducive to teaching and learning and ensures safety and security of educators and learners. The maintenance of sound discipline in schools and classrooms is therefore imperative. Jackson (1991:77) states that discipline is a complex problem. It has its origin in the home. In order for the child to achieve self-discipline the guidance of mature and caring adults is a necessity. The fact that the educator acts ‘in loco parentis’, places the educator in a position of authority over the learner.

In keeping with international trends, South African schools have moved towards greater decentralised school governance (Lemmer, 2000:137). Section 16 (1) of The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 gives mandate to the school governing bodies to decide on matters of school policy and discipline (RSA, 1996). The principal as mandated by Section 16 (3), is responsible for the day to day running of school and dealing with the professional matters.
Included in the specific functions of the school governing bodies as set out in Section 20 (d) of the Act is the duty to adopt a code of conduct for learners after consultation with the learners, parents and educators. Furthermore, school governing bodies must “promote the best interests of the school and strive to ensure their development through the provision of quality education at the school”. Obviously the latter cannot be realised should the learners and educators not operate in a safe and secure environment.

The national MEC for Education, has admitted that “not all our schools are safe places” and further proclaimed that incidents of violence in schools “paint a worrying picture,” (Govender, 2006:1). During a recent string of accidents involving guns brought to school by learners and the inadvertent injuring school mates, a girl at Hillgrove Secondary School was shot by a fellow classmate showing off a gun in class. This has prompted the Provincial MEC for Education in KwaZulu-natal, to declare that school officials are to be allowed to conduct searches without a warrant. Mixed reaction was evoked by this statement, with the educator Unions in particular criticising the Department for failing to create a climate of safety and security in schools. (Goldstone & Matthew, 2006:3).

Recently a social function at a school was marred by rape, dagga smoking and drunken learners (Nair, 2006:3) indicates that the Department’s response was “our core function is to teach and not to be police officers…..parents need to take responsibility for their children’s whereabouts”.

Corporal punishment is a physical form of punishment which has been defined as: “the use of physical force with the intention of causing a child pain, but not injury, for the purpose of improvement or control of the child’s behaviour” (Collins Concise Dictionary, 2001:415). Slavin (1994:160) perceives punishment as “using unpleasant consequences to weaken behaviour”. Sogoni (1997:27) defines it as the deliberate infliction of physical pain on any part of the body by someone in a position of authority upon a pupil who has committed the offence of violating school rules.
Corporal punishment is based on the belief that if children are punished for wrongdoing, they will probably not repeat their inappropriate behaviour. This approach has, however, done untold damage to a number of children, often resulting in feelings of alienation, entrenched patterns of anti-social behaviour and even acts of violence (Department of Education 2000:1). On a daily basis educators are labouring to find effective alternative strategies to corporal punishment (Department of Education 2000:1).

The South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996 S.10 (1) declares that: no persons may administer corporal punishment to a learner at a school and that any person who contravenes subsection (1) is guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to a sentence which could be imposed for assault. Despite the fact that corporal punishment has been made illegal in South Africa, furthered a number of arguments that have been made against its use, some parents and educators still believe and rely on this type of punishment as an effective method of discipline (Hough, et al.,2006).

One of the main arguments against the use of corporal punishment is that it does not promote a desired behaviour, it merely tries to suppress misconduct. A number of cases against educators using corporal punishment have been heard in South Africa. Further, an outcry from religious groups seeking the return of corporal punishment to schools is an indication of the extensiveness of the discipline problem in schools. The Christian Education South Africa brought an application arguing that its right to religious and cultural freedom was violated by section 10 of the South African Schools Act which prohibits corporal punishment (Bot, 1999:17). The Parents Association of KwaZulu-Natal, also called for the reinstatement of corporal punishment (Bot, 1999:12). Bot (1999:15) and De Wet (2003:168) reported a considerable number of violent incidents such as educators being killed, robberies, learners assaulting peers and educators and thugs injuring learners on school premises. Teacher Unions indicated their dissatisfaction with safety arrangements for educators. The controversy around the showing of ‘Yizo Yizo’, an SABC youth programme and calls to stop screening it as well as projects such as ‘Ridge the Fence’ by the Western Cape Education Department, targeting schools...
with high levels of vandalism, are evidence of discipline, safety and security problem in schools.

In a society like South Africa’s, with a long history of violence and abuse of human rights, it is not easy to make the transition to peace, tolerance and respect for human rights.

Research shows a direct link between corporal punishment and levels of violence in society (Porteus, et al., 2001:6; Zulu, et al., 2000:171). Research further, shows that many parents still believe in corporal punishment as a means of dealing with misconduct and it is therefore necessary to inform all stakeholders of alternative methods for them to play a meaningful role (Van Wijk, 2004:52). Communities around the world began to see the scrapping of corporal punishment in schools as an important step towards creating a more peaceful and tolerant society. Most countries support this and corporal punishment has been banned in Europe, North America, Australia, Japan and in many other countries (Department of Education 2000:1).

According to Savage (1991:2) discipline is the development of self-control, character orderliness and efficiency. This reflects a philosophy that discipline is much more than a response to misbehaviour. These positive outcomes result in a satisfying and productive life as opposed to one of fear and conformity to arbitrary rules. These outcomes are further, consistent with accepting the responsibility of living in a democratic society as well as with the highest noblest goals of education (Savage, 1991:2).

One of the main arguments against the use of corporal punishment is that it does not promote a desired behaviour, it merely tries to eradicate a negative behaviour. Porteus et. al., (2001:12) argue that corporal punishment does not teach children lessons about discipline, but rather destroys their experience of school. It only teaches obedience to authority through fear, rather than teaching children to take responsibility for their behaviour.
There is little evidence on the active involvement of school governing bodies in the maintenance of discipline, safety and security. Bearing in mind that most members of the school governing bodies are parents, programmatic efforts and family-school relations should be an important focus area. The importance of both teachers and families in providing safety and security has been highlighted by research (Smit, & Liebenberg, 2003:1). Davidoff and Lazarus (1997:165) emphasise the importance of capacity building since the school governing bodies have to provide an organic link between the school and its community. As the guardian of the school the school governing body has a challenge to guide the school with wisdom and insight. The important question is: To what extent are the school governing bodies capable of “establishing a disciplined and purposeful school environment, dedicated to the improvement and maintenance of the quality of the learning process”? (RSA, 1996:7)

It is within this context that the researcher will investigate and describe the issues related to discipline, safety and security (DSS) in schools.

2.2. DISCIPLINE, SAFETY AND SECURITY

2.2.1 Discipline

Discipline roots in the Latin word “disciplinare” meaning to teach or instruct. It is controlled behaviour resulting from training that is expected to produce a particular character or pattern of behaviour. Discipline includes rules and punishment which is intended to correct (Thompson, 1995:384; Reader’s Digest Dictionary, 1987:443).

School discipline relates to the functioning of the school community through a system of relationships, rules, rewards and sanctions designed to progressively develop self-discipline within learners. To avoid confusion and conflict Cowin, et al., state that the school community should have a common understanding of what discipline means. Blandford (1998:7) postulates that schools need to develop an identity, one that reflects the values and beliefs of
its members. A school should be central to its local community. The school is actually a “community within a community”.

Charles (1999:3) further defines discipline as what teachers do to help learners behave in an acceptable manner in school. The intention is to prevent, suppress and redirect misbehaviour. Savage (1991:7) agrees with Charles (1999:3) on the main goal of discipline. He further contends that when learners exercise self-control they demonstrate responsibility. Self-control is not an innate characteristic but it is learned. Discipline includes the development of internal mechanisms that enable individuals to control themselves (Blandford, 1998:2).

Jones, (in Cotton, 2004:2) defines discipline as the business of enforcing simple classroom rules that facilitate learning and minimise disruption. Jones further defines discipline as the slow, bit-by-bit, time-consuming task of helping children to see the sense of acting in a certain way. Levin and Noulan (2000:21) define a disciplinary problem as any behaviour that disrupts the teaching act or is psychologically or physically unsafe. Savage (1991:9) advises that discipline should be managed. Blandford (1998:1) asserts that discipline and management are central to effective schools. Management of discipline is about managing the environment in such a way that discipline problems are prevented. Most researchers seem to agree that nowhere is it more true that “an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure” than in disciplining learners.

Blandford, further (1998:2) examines the effect of psycho-social factors on learner behaviour. She asserts that learners from dysfunctional families will behave irrationally, as a result of frustration and anger. The importance of a high self-esteem in learners at this developmental stage cannot be overemphasized. Hence learners with low self-esteem are likely to behave in an un-cooperative manner and would disrupt those around them.

The main causes of the lack of discipline in communities and schools often originate from a deeper moral level, namely the absence of integrated core
values such as respect, responsibility, honesty, diligence and self-discipline. A democratic society cannot function without these values. Values are the precious reminders that individuals obey to bring order and meaning into their personal and social lives. Ironically the ten values on the Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy (DoE, 2001) which are of paramount importance in South African schools, place greater emphasis on nation building than on character building, whilst the former is dependent on the latter.

In this study, the researcher intends to provide effective strategies to manage disciplinary problems that face KZN schools in South Africa. Some disciplinary challenges make schools unsafe and create security problems for schools. It is within this context that the relationship between the three concepts, namely discipline, safety and security is explored.

2.2.2 Safety

Safety means freedom from or prevention of danger, risk or injury. It is affording protection against harm. The concept safety also refers to precautions people take to prevent accidents (World Book Encyclopaedia, 1992:11).

A safe school is the one that is free of danger and where there is an absence of possible harm, a place where educators and learners may work, teach and learn without fear of harassment, humiliation, intimidation or violence. A healthy school is one that is psychologically and physically safe for learners and staff. Indicators of safe schools include the presence of certain physical features such as secure walls, fencing and gates, buildings that are in a good state of repair and well-maintained school grounds. Safe schools are further characterised by good discipline, a culture conducive to teaching and learning, professional educator conduct, good governance and management practices and an absence of crime and violence (Prinsloo, 2005:4; Squelch, 2001:138).
Teaching and learning cannot take place in an unsafe environment. It is stipulated in the Bill of Rights, (RSA, 1996) that every person has the right to an environment that is not detrimental to his health or well-being. This right also applies to learners and in principle protects them from being exposed to harmful environments, including the school. In addition to the educator’s duty to teach, the educator is required to provide educational, physical and mental safety to learners (Netshitahame & van Vollenhoven, 2002:313).

Learners have a constitutional right to receive education in a safe school environment (RSA, 1996). School governing bodies and school management have a duty to ensure that this right is ensconced. Educators have a legal “duty of care” which implies looking after the physical and mental well being of learners and the duty to maintain order at school. This includes the protection of learners from any harm during breaks and extra-mural activities (Prinsloo, 2005:9).

The Discipline, Safety and Security (DSS) unit of the KZN Department of Education, define a safe school as one that is free from the following:

- Burglary and theft;
- Physical and sexual abuse;
- Gangsterism;
- Guns and other dangerous weapons;
- Drugs and Alcohol;
- Bullying;
- Racism;
- Dangerous physical structures; and
- Other threats.

DSS issues pose a threat to the safety of both educators and learners. Schools are required to take precautionary measures to ensure safety for all. The SMT should be aware of factors in the school environment that might pose a threat to safety. Precautionary safety measures such as evacuation plans and safety policies should be put in place. The physical structures within
the school premises, if not in good repair, are a danger to educators and learners. When the safety of educators and learners is threatened, security becomes a necessity.

### 2.2.3 Security

Security is an assured or a certain state of being untroubled by danger or fear. A secure school is where learners and educators have a very low risk of physical, emotional and psychological injury. For the purpose of this research this would mean a feeling by the stakeholders in education that public schools are accident free. Security includes precautionary measures such as erection of fences, installation of security gadgets, or the hiring of security guards.

School governing bodies are bound by the Bill of Rights. One of the functions of the bill is the protection of people. In this context one of the most important rights of learners and educators is the right to freedom and safety and security of a person. The school governing body should determine principles to safeguard the property and school environment. In a society where escalating crime and violence (even on the school grounds) is a stark reality, the SGB will have to fund projects and even physical infrastructure such as electronic access, name tags, closed circuit cameras, alarm monitoring and security guards on site in order to protect educators and learners during school hours (DoE, 1999:14). These devices have huge financial implications for the school which could mean that it could be affordable to a few schools only.

### 2.3 A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE ON DISCIPLINE, SAFETY AND SECURITY

Since discipline, safety and security in schools is a worldwide phenomenon, South Africa can learn from other countries with regard to challenges posed by the establishment and maintenance of DSS. An analysis of the global perspectives including South America, Australia and one of the SADEC countries, Botswana, revealed common factors which are characteristic of discipline, safety and security in schools.
2.3.1 United States of America

Schools in the United States are seemingly seriously affected by DSS problems. The United States has experienced numerous violent incidents in schools including shootings, harassments, the bearing and use of weapons and bullying. School violence is rooted in deeper cultural norms and behaviours that are exhibited in homes and communities across the United States. With an estimated fifty million hand guns in circulation, a national homicide rate of nine people per 100,000 and headlines of brutality in every major newspaper and magazine, violence is a hot topic in the United States. Every element of the United States society is affected, but are most prevalent among adolescents and children (Forcey & Harris 1999:35).

Research on violence statistics in the United States revealed shocking results; more children (60 008) died between 1979 and 1999 from gunfire than the number of soldiers killed during the Vietnam and Gulf wars and in the engagements in Haiti, Somalia and Bosnia combined. Growing up in a culture in which violence has become common, youths are also arrested for violent crimes. On a typical school day, more than 135, 000 youths bring weapons to school because they fear for their safety (Forcey & Harris, 1999: 37).

Courts in the USA realize that educators need to use their discretion when disciplining students who break school rules. As long as discipline policies and procedures satisfy due process, courts usually uphold the actions of educators as long as they are arbitrary, capricious, or reasonable. It is well established that courts take the sex, age, and size as well as mental, emotional and psychological conditions and the nature of their offences into consideration when imposing penalties. Courts ordinarily do not review student conduct rules with the same scrutiny that they apply to criminal laws.

Statistics publicised by the Educational Resources Information Center’s (ERIC), are just as disturbing: Ten percent (10%) of high school learners admitted that they carried a weapon into school property; Nationally, five percent (5%) of learners reported that they had missed at least one day of
school because they felt unsafe at school. More than 6,000 students nationwide were expelled for bringing guns to school (Manning & Bucher, 2003:271).

It is important to note the similarities in the historical perspective of the USA and South Africa. These similarities are apparently embedded in the histories of the African Americans and that of the Black South Africans. Both had a long struggle of slavery and a discriminatory education system. With the arrival of integrated education in America and the post-Apartheid education in South Africa, both countries saw a movement of black children to historically white schools, creating a social structure where learners from the same community do not support the same values and are divided about the future and opportunities to better themselves. This seems to be a common factor in most countries with diverse societies, including Australia.

2.3.2 Australia

With the abolition of corporal punishment in all the states in the country by 1991, the state had to provide staff-development programmes to train educators on alternative methods of discipline. Schools needed to develop policies on discipline in consultation with parents and the local community. The school’s behaviour expectations of learners, their rights and responsibilities were to be clearly stipulated (Slee, 1995:127).

Slee (1995:131) is of the opinion that schools in Australia that are best at creating sound learning environments are those that promote:

1) **A participatory model** which accords equal status to all members of the school community in decision-making processes;

2) **Mutual respect:** The maintenance of order in schools is dependent upon all members sharing a mutual respect for the rights and feelings of others. Processes that promote discussion, understanding and concern for others should be encouraged;
3) **Co-operation**: The school should be organised in such a way that all participants can cooperate in seeking a jointly determined outcome. Staff, learners and parents should all develop and agree on a sense of direction and jointly determine guidelines for the running of the school.

4) **Conflict resolution**: A mutually-agreed upon set of procedures for resolving conflict should be put in place. Negotiation being central to conflict resolution rather than a direction from a hierarchical body.

Research proves that bullying is a widespread phenomenon. An Australian survey of more than 38,000 children found that approximately one (1) child in six (6) is bullied at school at least once a week. In a class of thirty (30) this would mean five (5) learners would be victims weekly. This would eventually mean that in a school with a population of 300 learners, fifty (50) learners would be victims. In the UK, Smith conducted a research in nineteen (19) schools targeting children of six (6) to ten (10) years. The finding was that overall thirty two (32) percent had been bullied at this young age (Sullivan et al., 2004:10).

Similar to the USA and South Africa, Australia needed to integrate or rather accommodate the Aboriginal people into their education system. One could thus ask the question whether schools in a historically stable and “normalised” homogeneous society, like Botswana, experience similar problems with regard to school discipline, safety and security.

### 2.3.3 Botswana

The Republic of Botswana was established in 1966 with Great Britain terminating her colonial status. It is a member of the British Commonwealth and also a member of the Southern African Development Community (SADEC). The key challenges are high levels of poverty, unemployment and the rapid increase of prevalence of HIV/AIDS (Marlow-Ferguson, 2002:154). Botswana is a unique country in Africa because of its sustained growth and
political stability. Education is free, but not compulsory (Marlow-Ferguson, 2002:161).

The challenges of discipline, safety and security are also predominant in Botswana schools. The recent press coverage of the abuse of a standard five pupil at Polokwe Primary School who was hit about the head with a belt buckle as part of a mass punishment of pupils in a Setswana class, again highlights the problems associated with corporal punishment. The Revised National Policy on Education (1994) of Botswana states that schooling in Botswana must develop moral and social values, cultural identity and self-esteem, good citizenship and desirable work ethics. Human rights education should be incorporated into the curriculum for primary education so that children are prepared for life as citizens in a democratic society. Children should participate with teachers and parents in the decision-making processes, including learning how to express opinions as well as to respect different opinions, cultural practices, as well as to give and receive respect. A framework is needed to protect and develop those rights within schools (Mmegi, 2006:1).


Mmegi (2006:1) writes, “We are in the middle of the "UN Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World" (2001-2010); an initiative that originally came from the Nobel Peace Prize laureates. What has been accomplished so far in this decade? Can Botswana move to ban corporal punishment from its schools, as have Namibia and South Africa?” More importantly is, what would be the effect on DSS if corporal punishment is banned in Botswana?
Parental involvement in school affairs has been recognised as the most essential element of child upbringing in school settings. It is clear from the literature that parental involvement does not necessarily imply their physical presence in schools (Moswela, 2004:183). The involvement of parents can help improve the behaviour of their children. Problems of learner discipline in Botswana secondary schools have grown out of hand (Moswela, 2004:183; Garegae, 2006:5). A concerted effort of parents, educators and the community at large, is needed. The manifestation of the lack of discipline is in the form of substance abuse, truancy, bullying and vandalism.

Although parents may wish to participate in their children’s discipline in schools, there are some obstacles which hinder them from actively participating. Barriers like the style of living that Botswana upholds, parents’ attitudes towards educators and their low self-esteem, the school environment and the lack of clear roles that parents have to play in the running of schools (Halsey, 2005).

Having looked at some countries, two with a history of Black oppression and one with a history of stability and a normalised society, it would seem as if DSS challenges are a global problem, although historical events and oppression legalities have a long lasting effect on societies. South Africa is not unique in this regard and will have to deal with issues of DSS in schools in its own way.

2.4 THE CHALLENGES OF DISCIPLINE, SAFETY AND SECURITY IN SCHOOLS

When South Africa adopted a new, Democratic Constitution and the Bill of Rights, guaranteeing the individuals right to dignity, equality and freedom, to basic education and to an environment that is not harmful to the health or well being of all citizens, it followed the example of other democracies. The physical and psychological integrity of learners in South African schools is protected in several acts, namely the Child Care Act, 1983, the Domestic

South Africa is a signatory to the United Nations’ Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), which compels the country to pass laws and take social, educational and administrative measures “to protect the child from all forms of physical and mental violence, injury or abuse, maltreatment or neglect”. As a signatory to the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, South Africa has an added responsibility to take steps to ensure that a child “who is subjected to school or parental discipline shall be treated with humanity and with respect for the inherent dignity of the child” (Prinsloo, 2005:5).

In spite of the above legal mandate, South Africa seems to be plagued by challenges of discipline, safety and security. In an official survey by the Department of Education, it was discovered that all nine provinces had seriously affected schools. An official survey (Govender, 2006:7) in KwaZulu-Natal to which 2320 of the 6017 schools responded revealed shocking findings that include: ten (10) killings; 273 rape cases; 2504 cases of drug possession; 2614 cases of assaults; and 1381 cases of dangerous weapons carried to schools. In the Western Cape, the findings were as follows: 597 cases of abuse, including sexual abuse; 451 cases of burglary and vandalism; 450 criminal offences, including robberies and 121 incidents of gang violence.

As a result of these findings the Department of Education has recently come up with a plan to bolster security in seriously crime-plagued schools across the provinces. Some schools have been identified as priority cases that will benefit from the bulk of the R45 million set aside to advance security in an attempt to curb violence in schools. The money is earmarked for security guards, fencing, metal detectors, floodlights and in some cases, closed-circuit television surveillance (Govender, 2006:7). In addition the researcher has identified a number of DSS challenges that currently face schools and school governing bodies.
Schools have always been the testing ground for societal changes and conflicts. The researcher agrees with both Graaf's (in Makola, 2005:18) and Ballantine's (1989:237) views that:

"when children walk into the school building they bring with them baggage from home: ambition, motivating pressures, expectations, physical and mental strengths or weaknesses; sometimes abuse, insecurities, stress and other problems."

This view indicates that learners in public schools come from different backgrounds, families and circumstances. This state of affairs lends itself directly and indirectly to some of the critical DSS challenges that impact on teaching and learning and affects learner motivation and educator morale.

The challenges include bullying, violence, substance abuse, gangsterism, weapons and dangerous objects, child abuse, HIV/AIDS and the emergence of child-headed families.

The following figure shows the different DSS challenges facing schools.

Figure 2.1: Discipline, safety and security challenges in schools

2.4.1 Bullying

Bullying in schools is a worldwide problem which negates the right of the learner to learn in a safe environment. Bullying is a negative and often
aggressive or manipulative series of acts by one or more learner against another over a period of time. It is an ongoing systematic, psychological, physical or mental abuse of one learner by another or others. The victim is not or no longer in a position to defend himself or herself (De Wet, 2005:82). Bullies repeatedly engage in merciless, aggressive tactics that they are sure to win because of their superior power (Whitted & Dupper, 2005:167). Sullivan, Cleary and Sullivan (2004:7) further maintain that bullying is hidden, opportunist, mean-minded and involves an imbalance of power (Manning & Bucher, 2003:273).

Bullying contains the following elements: the intentional use of aggression, an unbalanced relationship of power between the bully and the victim, the causing of pain that has an emotional and psychological effect and it occurs over a period of time (De Wet, 2005:82). Bullying can be physical, non-physical (verbal or non-verbal) and can take the form of damaging property. Damage to property can include ripping clothes, damaging books, destroying property and taking property (theft) (Sullivan et al., 2004:5; Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:36).

Neser et al., (2003:129) identified the following three common categories of bullies: proactive bullies who are more provocative in nature and need no provocation to hurt or humiliate someone; reactive bullies - this is a category of previous victims who retaliate by bullying other weaker or smaller children; and proactive victims who provoke fights and if challenged they are quick to cry or display exaggerated responses.

There is growing evidence that bullying has a profound negative effect on the learning environment of a school. Fear of being ridiculed, harassed, threatened and ostracized at school interferes with a learner’s ability to learn and should be treated as serious. Victims of bullying feel angry, depressed, afraid, useless and disempowered. Victims of bullying tend to have lower levels of self-esteem, feel insecure, depressed and are often quiet. O’Hagan (1993:50) emphasizes the major adverse impact of bullying upon the educational and social life of the child. Bullying invariably leads to a sustained
deterioration in the child’s emotional and psychological health. If left unchecked it can result in more dangerous and sometimes fatal forms of violence (KZNDEC, 2003: 24; Rassool, 2002:1; DoE, 2002:18). A sad exemplary incident is that of a boy that was stabbed to death in Durban’s Riverdene Secondary over a packet of cigarettes while at school (Pather, 2004:6 and Khan & Bolowana, 2004:1).

Roland (2002:62) found that not only victims but also bullies have suicidal thoughts and symptoms of depression. Zeelie (in de Wet, 2005:82) writes that bullying is a “…loss of safety, loss of self-esteem. Bullies experience a loss of belonging and lose control over their own life”.

Rigby (Whitted & Dupper, 2005:167) remarks that in the past, bullying was sometimes described as teasing and dismissed as normal childhood behaviour (De Wet, 2005:83). It is important to note that bullying is not normal behaviour and that it occurs in a social context. Manning and Bucher (2003:274) warn that educators should not assume that some bullying is normal. Getting teased, picked on and pushed about at school should not be part of growing up for any learner. While it affects the victims most of all, but it affects others as well. A bullying culture can spread like wildfire in a school. That is why it should be eradicated before a bullying culture takes hold of and dominates the entire social culture of the school. Closely related to bullying is violence.

2.4.2 Violence

Zulu, Urbani and van der Merwe (2004:170), define violence as the exertion of physical force to injure or destroy, accompanied by anger and hostility. It is any act where there is a deliberate attempt to inflict physical harm. Bender (1992:75) maintains that violence is a learned behaviour. Children can acquire this behaviour through family and social environment. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:123) describe school violence as any behaviour of learners, educators and administrators who attempt to inflict physical injury on another person or to damage school property.
A history of high levels of violence which dates back to the Apartheid-era exists in South Africa (Dreyer et al., 2005; Harber, 2005). (Human Rights watch Report, 2005). Schools are faced with a heavy burden of overcoming the legacy of violence within them. It is disturbing to note that both learners and educators have been victims of violence within and around school premises. Educators are constantly threatened with knives and guns. This presents insecurity to both learners and educators and has in a debilitating effect on the morale of school managers and educators.

The most important source of the violence is family breakdown. Television also promotes youth violence. Researchers have established that years of ingesting television’s repast may promote aggression. The television teaches in movies that “good guys use violence as a first resort. It is a hero’s way of solving problems (Bender, 1992:68)

There are multiple psychosocial effects of violence on communities, the most powerful of which are fragmentation and disempowerment. Violence may traumatised individuals and relationships in families are also affected as they become fractured due to loss and displacement caused by conflict. Relationships are often strained by a lack of trust, often leading to enmity and a culture of mistrust (Hough, et al., 2006:6).

Schools have become highly volatile and unpredictable places. Violence has become a part of every day life in some schools. A number of incidents of violence in schools have resulted in statements by the DSS Directorate Chief Official, in KZN that “there is generally a hostile environment in many schools.” “Intimidation is rife in schools “ …“this is a serious problem ”(Pillay, 2004:1). The Daily News, (quoted by Pather, 2005:12) criticised parents for thinking that disciplining learners was the sole prerogative of educators. The editor’s view was according to Pather, (2005:12) that violence and crime in schools will only be eradicated by a joint effort by parents, educators, learners, police and community leaders.
The above remarks are underpinned by numerous incidents of shootings, and assaults resulting in killings within the schools’ premises (Mhlongo, 2004:5) The KZN Provincial Association For School Governing Bodies even argued that the Department of Education was passing the buck on the issue of providing security for schools (Baloyi, 2004:3).

When a seventeen year old was stabbed to death by a fellow schoolmate for a fight over cigarettes in Newlands West in Durban, the then MEC, said “What happens in schools mirrors what happens in society, so we rely on society to educate our children about violence” The minister further urged the governing bodies to work together with communities in ensuring the safety of learners (Horner & Ngalwa, 2004:1). The same sentiments from the head of the DSS were erected by Provincial Directorate declaring that the department wanted to make schools “a safe haven”. He further stated that violence was a societal problem. “These children come from communities where old men rape and domestic violence is prevalent”.

In another similar incident an eighteen year old Grade 11 learner bled to death after being stabbed to death by a fifteen (15) year old from the same school, on the school premises. The learners boycotted classes as they felt they were not safe in the school, until the MEC intervened. The mother of the boy believes the stabbing happened because of the school’s failure to instill discipline in learners. The boy’s mother blames the school and declared……” I no longer have faith in our schools. When I sent my son to school I entrusted his safety to the teachers. They failed him” (Mcetywa, 2006:1). An angry MEC called for a partnership between parents and teachers in disciplining children to curb the violence. In her remarks, the MEC said” …..How is it that children are coming to school with knives and guns in their pockets? What does this tell us about the homes they come from and the community they live in? We cannot expect schools to bring violence to a stop unless parents play their role.” As Adolf Hitler once said “A young generation is in the making which will be part of the community, belonging to it and nothing else….. “ (Cairns, 1996:107).
The pandemic of violence in schools in South Africa has psychological and emotional effects on learners. When learners see the dead bodies of their schoolmates lying on the school premises it is severely traumatic. Mohlala (2006:2) warns of the following emotional reactions to loss: there is a strong sense of disbelief initially and the knowledge takes time to settle in and be accepted, guilt is strongly associated with loss and needs to be addressed. Anger is a common reaction to loss: anger at God for allowing it to happen, anger at themselves for not being better friends. Fear is also normal-fear that they will die, or other people close to them will die too. They experience difficulty concentrating, sleeping and eating, feelings of loneliness and great loss and emptiness.

The escalation of violence in schools often leads to learner-educator conflict. When a learner at Thornwood Secondary in Pinetown was disciplined by an educator who caught him copying during a test, he responded by attacking the educator with a knife and the educator was killed instantly inside the classroom. (Mshengu, 2007:1; Ross, 2007:7; Shangase, 2007:3). These are societal problems facing schools on a daily basis and such challenges have even led to very low educator and learner morale.

This leaves no room for surprise at the reaction of Penny Dlamini (of Johannesburg-based Soul City Institute for the Youth) when hearing that countless cases of assaults against children happen in schools was “children need a safer environment, not one of fear,” and further stated….“it is not right that learners don’t feel safe when all they want is to learn”. (Mc Gregor, 2006:3).

It is interesting to note that school violence includes corporal punishment inflicted on learners by educators. Almost a decade after corporal punishment was outlawed, a learner died after being caned by the principal in Hammarsdale. This prompted the Provincial Minister of Education, in Kwa-Zulu Natal to proclaim, during the World Children’s day celebration; “I want to stand still for a moment and look at violence in our schools. On this day, a day on which we show love, affection and protect our children, a boy was
killed in one of our schools!...at the hands of an educator” (Chetty, 2004:3; Ntuli, 2004:3). In another similar incident a school girl fractured her wrist after allegedly being hit with a stick by the school principal in Verulam (Premdev, 2004:1). In Chatsworth, a learner who had not completed her homework was caned by an educator (Gangaram, 2004: 5).

In some communities parents still believe in using corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure. As it was used during their school days, they do not understand how schools can maintain discipline without using corporal punishment. In some homes it is actually used as a disciplinary measure. This results in the conflict of home and school values. The tension in our society due to domestic violence leads to an escalation of violence in schools. Violence in South African schools is a reflection of the wider societal problem. On a number of occasions the national Department of Education (DoE) has argued that parents should help the schools by facing their responsibility for the proper upbringing of their children, as the behaviour of learners is often adopted from what they see in the home and community (Enoch, 2006:2).

Some common arguments for the use of corporal punishment are that some educators believed that children will neither show them respect nor develop the discipline to work hard unless they are beaten. It is believed to be quicker and easier to administer corporal punishment than using other methods that require time and skill. Since corporal punishment was experienced as a form of punishment during their school days they see no harm in it being used. The only way to deal with difficult or disruptive behaviour is to administer corporal punishment (DoE, 2000:6)

One of the main arguments against corporal punishment is that it does not demonstrate a desired behaviour, it merely tries to extinguish a negative behaviour. Thus learners are not provided with real examples of alternatives to violence. Porteus et al., (2001:12) argue that “corporal punishment does not teach children lessons about discipline, but rather destroys their experience of school”. Corporal punishment teaches obedience to authority
through fear, rather than teaching children to take responsibility for their behaviour. The fact that same learners tend to be beaten repeatedly for the same offences means that corporal punishment does not deter bad behaviour. This ultimately lowers their self-esteem and their negative self-perceptions become self-fulfilling prophecies. This further tends to enhance aggressive hostility in learners as it shows that violence can be used to solve problems, especially by people in positions of power or authority.

In addition to this, corporal punishment often masks underlying problems that may cause misbehaviour. Social challenges such as poverty, domestic violence and crime are often barriers to learning that result in overt behavioural problems. Hough et al., (2006:3) state that children who face challenges outside of school are especially vulnerable to the psychosocial ill-effects of corporal punishment. Corporal punishment is also likely to have a negative impact on interpersonal relationships between the child and parents, educators, peers and siblings. Turner and Finkelhor (in Hough et al., 2006:3) assert that children who receive corporal punishment are three times more likely to assault their siblings than those where never physically punished.

Extensive research shows that “violence begets violence”. Children exposed to violence in their homes and at school tend to use violence to solve problems, both as children and as adults. Research findings show that corporal punishment does not build a culture of human rights, tolerance and respect, nor does it nurture self-discipline in children, but rather evokes feelings of aggression and revenge. Children worry about being “caught”, not about personal responsibility or self-discipline. Despite the overwhelming evidence that corporal punishment has a negative impact, it is still being used in some schools (Porteus, et al., 2001; Sogoni, 1997; Turner & Finkelhor, 1996).

The escalation of violence in schools highlights other related challenges which might be causing callous learner behaviour. One of these is substance abuse.
2.4.3 Substance abuse

A number of factors are conducive to substance abuse. Substance abuse refers to any use of a given substance which has an unwanted impact upon the user. The effect that substance has on the individual and his or her life dictates whether the substance is being abused. The substance must interfere with the person’s functioning (Mc Dowell & Spitz, 1999:3). This includes glue, alcohol and drug abuse. Durrant (2003:14) defines ‘drug’ as a medical substance and a narcotic stimulant causing addiction. Many adolescents are poly-drug abusers, which means they abuse more than one drug.

Substance abuse in schools by learners is a complicated and multi-faceted global problem. Durrant (2003:24) asserts that the costs associated with alcohol abuse is related to safety and public order. Substance abuse is implicated in traffic accidents, occupational injuries and violence. It is rooted in the learners’ communities, hence the increase in schools.

When discussing substance abuse one cannot ignore the possible root causes. A young person in emotional pain wanting to feel better may be tempted to use drugs as the mood-altering chemical (Gonet, 1994:26). The society from which the school learners come, is more often than not riddled with socio-psychological problems. Therefore some learners at this stage cannot cope with emotional pain caused by domestic violence at homes, which is also related to substance abuse by adults. In an attempt to drown their worries, they turn to substance abuse.

Peer pressure is a great contributing factor. At the adolescent stage, young people want to try out new identities, values and behaviours among their peers. For teenagers, group identity is important. For the insecure teenager the peer group provides a sense of belonging (Gonet, 1994:28). This need for a sense of belonging is at times caused by the absence of loving, nurturing families. It is a fact that some learners grow up without this important unit, the family.
In South Africa statistics point to the fact that more school-going adolescents are experimenting with drug and alcohol abuse than before. The use of drugs in schools is increasing. Roberts (2005:4) discovered that learners deal with and buy drugs on school premises all over the country on a daily basis. The Chatsworth Anti-drug Forum found that a concoction of heroin and cocaine is being sold to and used by primary school learners (Naidoo, 2005:18). One Soweto principal states that about twenty percent (20%) of his learners abuse narcotics (Nare & Tetyana, 2005:6). In this regard Terblanche and Venter (1999:117) warn that in terms of factors contributing to substance abuse, the availability of the substance in the neighbourhood is the most important factor fuelling substance use and abuse.

Adolescent drug abuse statistics are always debatable because it is complicated for a researcher to infiltrate and conduct research on drug abuse tendencies. Adolescent drug abusers fear that the school, parents or police will be informed and their supply will cease. Researchers are therefore compelled to rely on information supplied by rehabilitation centres (Hoberg, 2003:242).

Alcohol abuse is on the increase among schoolgoing adolescents. Alcohol abuse leads to impaired social and interpersonal functioning. The norm is to experiment with a cocktail of different beverages which is consumed with club drugs. When excessive amounts of alcohol are taken together with a cocktail of club drugs, blackouts and even convulsions may occur which can result in death (Medical Research Council, 2003:10). All schools are declared drug-free zones by the Department of Education. Possession of alcohol and illegal drugs within the school premises renders learners, and educators unsafe. This is an illegal activity which schools should report to the South African Police Services (KZNDEC, 2003:30) (Section 5(2) (c) Regulations for Safety Measures at School, RSA, 2001:2). In the rural areas alcohol is readily available and parents (especially fathers) allow their sons to drink. In such communities it is acceptable to consume alcohol. Another illegal drug that is freely available is dagga, which is planted in the fields. Schools therefore fight a losing battle in such circumstances.
As noted by Newcomb and Bentler (in Orcutt & Rudy, 2003:123) substance abuse during adolescence is strongly associated with other unruly behaviours such as delinquency, deviant attitude or school dropout. These behavioural problems not only have a long term effect on the lives of young people, but there is also a strong drug-crime connection, often including guns and weapons.

2.4.4 Guns and weapons

The Web defines a “gun” as a weapon that discharges a missile at high velocity while a “weapon” is any instrument used in fighting. The Regulations for safety measures at public schools (RSA, Regulations for Safety Measures at School, 2001:1) defines a "dangerous object" as:

- any firearm or gas weapon;
- any explosive material or device;
- any article, object or instrument which may be employed to cause bodily harm to a person;
- any object which the Minister may by notice in the Gazette declare to be a dangerous object.

In the same National Policy it is stipulated that all public schools are declared drug-free and dangerous object-free zones (RSA, Regulations for Safety Measures at school, 2001:1) hence the schools are required to display signs declaring the above.

In South Africa death by gunshot is on the increase. Gun owners argue that crime is so high in South Africa and people have a right to defend themselves. The carrying of weapons to schools by learners mirrors the patterns of domestic violence and crime in the society. In spite of the legislation prohibiting the carrying of weapons in schools, there is evidence that learners do bring weapons to school.
Research reports that approximately ten percent of grade eight to twelve learners questioned, reported that they had brought a weapon to school at least once a month (National Education Goals Panel, 1994). The prevalence of weapons and gangs increases the likelihood that learners will resort to violence in order to solve their conflicts. The challenge to schools is to be able to recognise the genesis of potentially violent situations and manage disruptive school behaviour adequately. Educators must be able to defuse such situations and direct learners toward more pro-social means of conflict resolution (Levin & Noulan, 2000:29).

It is also important to note that murder rates are not only limited to the size of the country’s population gun ownership. Murder rates and specifically safety problems in schools also reflect the use of knives and other blunt-force weapons, sometimes in groups and gangster activities.

2.4.5 Gangsterism

Gangs are organised groups whose distinctive language and dress identify their members. Buckley (2006:1) writes that gangs have existed since the earliest times. Gangs are not necessarily bad but gangsterism invariably is. One example of a ‘good’ gang would be the “Guardian Angels” gangs in New York whose members function to reduce crime. An extreme form in South Africa is “People Against Gangsterism and Drugs” (PAGAD). This group in the Cape is motivated by the inability and apparent powerlessness of the law. Gangs become an important force and affect school safety, due to their involvement with drugs and weapons and turf wars.

Gangsterism is a social phenomenon that at times has political dimensions. In Australia for instance, a group identified as “ethnic gangs” is believed to be behind Australia’s increasing crime rate. Sociologists believe that modern gangs stem from social circumstances such as unemployment, poverty and lack of self-esteem. They operate as mini-communities with their own hierarchies and create a sense of belonging amongst youths in particular. The adolescent stage is characterised by the sense of belonging to a particular
group and by peer pressure. When schoolgoing adolescents identify themselves with a particular external gang, the influence of this gang crops up in their behaviour within the school. The values of the group often clashes with those of the school and eventually leads to them misbehaving. This poses a great threat to the discipline, safety and security in the school.

Another threat to DSS is the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

### 2.4.6 HIV/AIDS

Van Dyk (2001:4) defines AIDS as an acquired disease. AIDS is an acronym for Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. It is caused by a virus called HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus). AIDS is not a specific illness, but a collection of many different conditions that manifest in the body because the HI virus has weakened the body’s immune system.

HIV/AIDS is a pandemic that has no cure and continues to affect South African families on a daily basis. It is one of the major challenges to all South Africans. The findings of the 1998 HIV survey among pregnant women attending public antenatal clinics of the Department of Health, show that the pandemic in South Africa is severe and continues to increase at an alarming rate estimated at 33,8%. According to the United Nations Report on HIV/AIDS Human Development in South Africa, it is estimated that almost 25% of the general population will be positive by 2010 (RSA, 1999:5).

It is estimated that by the year 2010 there will be more than two million orphaned children under the age of sixteen in South Africa. The schools’ main business is teaching and learning, but the well-being of learners also affect their learning.

The HIV/AIDS pandemic has resulted in an increase of orphaned children and eventually child-headed families.
2.4.7 Child-headed families

A child-headed family is one which is led by a child under the age of 18. This child takes on responsibilities usually carried out by the parents, including providing care to the other children. Child-headed families have been observed in parts of Africa which have been badly affected by AIDS. They are a novelty in those areas. The main cause of this change is the large number of young adults dying from AIDS. Child-headed households are one way in which the extended family is adapting to cope with problems produced by HIV/AIDS. Child-headed families face a wide range of issues. The most pressing relate to survival needs and poverty.

The orphan crisis in South Africa is placing an unprecedented challenge on the notion of family. In the past orphans were to be taken care of by the extended family, but the sheer extent of the orphan crisis is challenging the capability and ability of this form of family. Not only is it challenging the financial means of the family, but also the coping and caring skills of this family at psychosocial levels. Researchers also claim that the South African form of the extended family is weaker than others in Africa, as it was already disrupted during apartheid (Foster, et al., 1996:39; www.childrencount.ci.org.za) Retrieved on 16 December 2007.

Within the South African context, child-headed families are growing in number, largely due to the reality of HIV/AIDS. The Children’s Right Centre (2002:1) estimated that in the year 2005, five million children in South Africa would be orphaned as a result of HIV/AIDS. A human sciences Research Council study commissioned by the Mandela Children’s Fund found that these children lacked not only the basics like food, clothing and shelter, but also the guidance, support and love generally offered by parents. They often bore the brunt of discrimination and ostracisation from others in the community because of the stigma attached to AIDS and were vulnerable to harassment, violence and sexual abuse.
The children-heading families form part of the school and education communities. Within the educational context and system, as learners, they exercise their right to attend schools in order to enrich their lives with some skills, knowledge and values that may lead to an enhanced quality of life. It is the responsibility of the state, parents and other adults who are placed in positions of care, to ensure that the rights of children as enshrined in the Bill of Right of the Constitution are respected and realised (Louw & Boucher, 2003:5).

This new family structure places schools in a difficult situation where they have to deal with children who become adults when at home. The emotional stress and a huge responsibility facing these children lead to problems of discipline, safety and security. Earners from child-headed families, however, are a marginalized group within the education system, and need appropriate support from the different social and educational state departments, in order to survive and develop. Sloth-Nielsen (2003:24) mentions that the once African kinship-care system that would have absorbed these learners into communal life can no longer be relied upon to fulfil that function. Orphans find themselves without families, and it is the responsibility of the State to fulfill their socio-economic rights to basic nutrition, shelter, health care and social services, much of which would otherwise be provided by parents and family.

The extent of the harm caused by the above factors in the lives of young children is immeasurable. What can the educators with limited resources do to teach such learners respect and discipline? Discipline should be learned at home and be developed at school.

2.4.8 Child Abuse

The word ‘abuse’ is defined as improper use, a corrupt practice, violation and to take bad advantage of. In child abuse, there has to be one person perhaps more, taking bad advantage of a child. An adolescent who is made to feel
powerless, helpless and unable to give informed consent is being abused (Doyle, 1994:7). Child abuse is the physical, emotional and psychological maltreatment of a child by an adult. Any undermining of the rights of the child constitutes child abuse.

Child abuse is a worldwide phenomenon which takes different forms, namely, physical, sexual and emotional. In KZNDEC (2003:25) physical abuse is any non-accidental injury inflicted on or sustained by the child, through an adult’s omission to protect the child from physical harm or injury. A physically abused child may have marks under the eyebrow ridge, finger and thumb bruises on the face, neck and arms, bites, cigarette burns and any other unexplained bruises (Montgomery, 1989:48). In addition to these physical indicators, an abused child will show behavioural changes such as withdrawal and fear. It is important for educators to be able to identify these changes in their learners.

Sexual abuse is an activity relating to the sex organs engaged in for sexual gratification which takes advantage of children. This might involve intercourse, touching, exposure of the sexual organs, the showing of pornographic material or talking about sexual things in an erotic way. Sexual abuse can also be defined as the involvement of a dependent, developmentally immature child or adolescent in sexual activities they do not truly comprehend and to which the child is unable to give informed consent (Doyle, 1994:9). In their definition, Richter, Dawes and Higson-Smith (2004:99) add the use of force, threat or deceit to secure the child’s participation. They further include the dimension of power differentials and the nature of the relationship with the adult. Doyle (1994:8) adds that the physique, power and status of an adult increases the vulnerability of a child.

Indicative behavioural change of a sexually abused child is withdrawal, difficulty in walking and sitting in an unusual/bizarre manner or age-inappropriate sexual knowledge.
What is common and particularly disgusting about sexual abusers is that they are usually not strangers to the child. Horrifying as it is, the sexual abuse of children is not new nor is it peculiar to South Africa. Examples can be quoted from the U. S. A. and Australia. Many sexual abuse incidents are ignored or covered up. Daily reports from the media give effect to the nature and extent of the problem.

Research proves that the age of first abuse, the nature of the victim-abuser relationship and the type of abuse of the abuser or perpetrator has a significant effect on their abusive acts. This is strong evidence that sexual abuse of children by perpetrators is a re-enactment of their own sexual abuse (Ritcher et al., 2004:81). Signs of emotional abuse include high levels of anxiety, depression and apathy.

Emotional abuse is an attack on the child’s emotions and feelings of self-worth via, for example, criticism, insulting, belittling, withholding of love and support. Ritcher et al., (2004:80) argue that emotional abuse co-occurs with sexual and physical abuse. Moreover, they view emotional abuse as the core issue of childhood adversities because it unifies the dynamics that underlie the destructive power of all forms of child abuse and neglect. The effect of emotional harm creates the cycle of all forms of abuse.

Having learnt the harm of the vicious circle that is created by the different forms of abuse the researcher is of the view that the abuse of children should be subjected to severe scrutiny. The behavioural problems experienced in schools today result from what is happening in the communities they come from. It is therefore important for schools to guard against being perpetrators of the abuse. Abused learners will also grow and learn to abuse. Just like the family and community members, schools also choose to be quiet and deny having heard of or observed abused children.

The encroachment of societal factors into the school and classroom has resulted in educators being thrown in at the deep end of several complexities.
2.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter the researcher has discussed the problem of discipline, safety and security in South African schools. The global challenges of DSS were discussed with particular reference to the United States of America, Australia and Botswana. It was notable that the experiences in South African schools regarding issues of discipline, safety and security is a worldwide phenomenon.

The DSS challenges were discussed in detail. The challenges include bullying, violence, substance abuse, guns and weapons, and gangsterism. HIV/AIDS, the emergence of child-headed families and child abuse were the specific DSS challenges identified.

The complexity of the DSS problem in South African schools was postulated. Learners are also victims of different weapons such as knives, scissors, physical and sexual abuse. Schools seem to be easy targets for outside criminals. The violence that is seen in society seems to be spilling over to schools.

It became clear that the establishment and maintenance of school discipline needs serious attention and should also be a collaborative effort by all stakeholders. Schools need to develop strategies to manage DSS within their own environment and contextuality.

The next chapter deals with strategies which could assist school managers and governing bodies in effectively managing DSS in schools.
CHAPTER 3
MANAGING DISCIPLINE, SAFETY AND SECURITY IN SCHOOLS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Before 1996, the governance structures in public schools had less or no influence on policy decisions in schools (Lemmer, 1999:136). The governance of schools was more hierarchical and decision-making powers resided with the school principal. There was very little or no participation from parents or learners in the school (Lemmer, 1999:128).

The Schools’ Act (SASA, 1996) stipulates the idea of partnership between all people who have an interest in the school. DSS challenges will be improved only through the joint efforts of parents, educators, learners, members of the local community and various departments. Shared governance tends to seek collaboration among all schools and community stakeholders (Blasé & Dungan, 1995:137). Squelch and Lemmer (1994:101) further assert that school governors, parents and educators need to form a relationship of mutual trust and understanding so that they can work as partners for the benefit of the school and the learners.

An important challenge confronting educators worldwide is to effectively manage and support learner behaviour. In South Africa, factors such as overcrowded classrooms, and the abolition of corporal punishment contribute to a situation where some educators find it difficult to maintain discipline. Particularly those educators who in the past had relied heavily on corporal punishment experience difficulties in developing other, more appropriate strategies (Eloff, et al., 2000:5; Volksblad, 2006:1). Research shows that the use of corporal punishment remains the first choice for many educators when dealing with disciplinary problems. Individuals’ perceptions, interpretation and experience is determined by personal values which have a radical impact on the individuals’ behaviour. Thus in spite of the proven ineffectiveness of this
method, educators’ deep-seated personal values may drive them to opt for it. When the collective values of parents and educators conflict with the values embedded in an education policy the result will be frustration. Values and convictions of educators need to be addressed through in-service training to avoid the current frustrations (Ferreira & Badenhorst, 2006:1; Butroyd, 1997:3; Manstead, 1997:245; Marshal, 2005:51; Almog, 2005:4).

Values can be described as those aspects (behaviour, possessions or convictions) an individual or community pursues because they are meaningful to them. Values assume a more central or deep-seated place than attitudes and convictions. The publication of the Manifesto on values, education and democracy underlines the cardinal role of values in education (RSA, 2001; Coetzee, 2005:1; van der Walt, 1994:7). Values which direct educators’ decision-making in respect of managing behaviour are often derived from the way in which they experienced their own education. The fact that corporal punishment, in spite of its being outlawed, is still commonly used in some South African schools may imply that the educational values of educators are in conflict with what is prescribed by policy-makers. Detention is one of the legitimate methods of punishment that can be used.

It is currently a legal requirement that each South African school has to formulate a Code of Conduct (RSA, 1996). A disciplinary programme that is commonly included by schools in the Code of Conduct is a point system. Learners are awarded points for good behaviour and lose points for negative behaviour. When learners lose a certain number of points, they are sent for detention. Detention sessions last from one to four hours (Ferreira & Badenhorst, 2006:8). It is also important to identify the causes of negative behaviour so that they can be dealt with or eliminated (Bambara, 2003:4).

What is important is that any behaviour management or other intervention strategy should be embedded in and subordinate to the current legislative framework.

The diagram below gives an overview of the current legislative framework.
3.2 THE LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

LEGISLATION IMPACTING ON EDUCATION (IN ORDER OF SUPREMACY)


The National Education Policy Act, Act 27 of 1996

The South African Schools Act, Act 84 of 1996

The KwaZulu-Natal Schools Education Act, Act 3 of 1996

Regulations pertaining to the above

Directives from the department, e.g. circulars

School policies

KZN Circulars:
- 3/2002
- 55/2001

Code of Conduct for Learners.

HIV/AIDS
Figure 3.1: The Legislative framework

Through the establishment of governing bodies in schools, substantial decision-making authority and responsibility are vested in schools. The South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996) distinguishes between the terms “governance and professional management” assigning the former to the SGB and the latter to the school principal, in consultation with the school management team (SMT). Furthermore, school governance has to do with specific functions of the governing body in public schools such as policy making. In terms of section 16 of this Act, the governance of a public school is the SGB’s responsibility while the principal, assisted by the SMT, must focus on the professional management of the school.

School management, on the other hand, means co-ordinating the implementation of the education policy in the school. Education policy includes all school education policies developed by the SGB and public education policies developed by the Minister of Education. These two structures should have a relationship characterised by mutual trust and respect so they can work together as a solid team that is ready to jointly attack whatever challenge may come their way.

The SGB and the SMT should be characterised by a shared vision, shared decision-making, shared goals and values, open communication, mutual trust and respect, good team work and respect for the roles of different partners.

It is important that all SGB and SMT members bring their skills and experiences to the table in order to achieve the common goal of the school. The representative structure that is in the SGB shows that the interests of all parties involved should be served and this calls for representatives of all parties to work co-operatively. There is obvious interdependence between school governance and school management.

In line with the Constitution of the country, the SASA (RSA:1996) also takes a more democratic approach to managing schools. Its aim is to change the manner in which schools are run and to encourage schools to take
responsibility for their own matters. Schools are given the responsibility of identifying and implementing alternative disciplinary practices and procedures. The SASA (RSA 1996:10) clearly states that no person can administer corporal punishment to a learner at a school. Likewise Section 12 of the Constitution states that everyone has the right not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhumane or degrading manner.

Section 3(n) of the National Education Policy Act No. 27 of 1996 (hereafter the NEPA) states that the Minister of Education must determine the national right of learners and educators.

In terms of Section 9, of the SASA the governing body can suspend a learner for a maximum period of one week after a fair hearing. The governing body can also consult with the Department of Education head and recommend that the learner be expelled from school. It is however, only the Head of Department that can expel the learner. The Minister of Education is mandated by law to outline in the Provincial Gazette the offences that constitute serious misconduct and the disciplinary proceedings to be followed (KZNDEC, 1999:27).

In managing a safe school environment, a system of proactive and constructive discipline should be implemented. In such a system, learners experience an educative, corrective approach in which they learn to exercise self-control, respect others and accept the consequences of their actions (Department of Education 2000:9). Hence in Section 11 the SASA, provides for greater participation by learners in the democratic functioning of schools. (RSA, 1996). The fundamental constitutional principles of “co-operative governance and participative management” are underlined in this section. The RCL is responsible to a certain extent for the maintenance of order and discipline in public schools. This means that learners are now placed in leadership positions and are given the task of helping to maintain and improve school discipline.
Section 61 of SASA, gives the Minister the right to make regulations, subsequently ‘Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools’ (RSA, 2001) and ‘Guidelines on adopting a Code of Conduct’ (RSA, 1998) was promulgated. In the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education further directives were given regarding DSS issues. KZN (Circular No 3 of 2002) gives guidelines regarding the process of consultation-the role of the SGB, action plans, awareness campaigns, awareness and control of dangerous objects.

By combining discipline, safety and security, the KZN DoE establishes and confirms the nature of the relationship that exists between them. This combination however, does not indicate the limitation since some safety and security situations may not be as a result of poor internal discipline. Schools are the microcosms of their communities. A number of criminal incidents in school premises have prompted the DoE to present programmes of action towards dealing with the DSS issues.

The following structures exist at different levels of the KZN Department of Education.

3.3 Discipline, Safety and Security Structures in KZN

The establishment of DSS committees at all levels is in line with Section 30 of SASA and section 29 of the KZN Schools Education Act 3 of 1996. The DSS committee is a sub-committee of the SGB and involves all stakeholders on matters of discipline, safety and security. It is important to note that the legal framework observes a hierarchy. Every law or regulation passed cannot conflict with the supreme law of the country i.e. the Constitution of South Africa. The SGB policies should not conflict with the Bill of Rights as entrenched in the Constitution.

3.3.1 School Discipline, Safety and Security Committee
In terms of KZN Provincial circular No. 55 of 2001 schools have to establish School Discipline, Safety and Security Committees (DSSC). Such a committee is established in terms of Section 30 of the South African schools Act. As a sub-committee of the SGB it should deal with specific school DSS issues and should report to the SGB. This committee must be representative of the school community and should be a results-orientated, efficient group with a clear action plan (KZNDEC, 2003:18).

The school DSSC’s duties are inter alia to:

- identify the school’s particular DSS problems,
- draw up an action plan,
- have regular meetings,
- ensure that, where feasible, the school has sufficient and adequate burglar bars, fences and alarms,
- ensure that first aid equipment is available and accessible,
- monitor and record all DSS problems that have occurred so that causes, patterns and responses can be established,
- keep the circuit and district offices informed at all times of incidents and of action plans aimed at ensuring good discipline, safety and security (KZNDEC, 2003:19).

This committee has to at times to work with a higher structure in the area, known as the Cluster DSSC, which is discussed in the next paragraph.

3.3.2 Cluster Discipline, Safety and Security Committee

According to KZNDEC (2003:17), this committee would be composed of representatives from all schools in the cluster and would deal with issues common to all schools in the cluster. The size of the committee should be determined by the cluster members, taking into consideration their common DSS issues. The school DSSCs report to this structure any common issues that seem to plague the area or cluster.
The cluster DSSC also has to work with a higher structure known as the District DSSC on DSS matters common to the schools in the same district.

3.3.3 District Discipline, Safety and Security Committee

In this committee there must be representation from each circuit and from the district forum, South African Police Services, local iNkosi and councillors, local religious leaders and any person of influence who may make the DSSC more effective (KZNDEC, 2003:17).

The highest school DSSC is the Provincial structure which will now be discussed.

3.3.4 Provincial Discipline, Safety and Security Committee

Due to increasing incidents of violence, drug abuse, the bearing of weapons and incidence vandalism, the Provincial School DSSC was launched by the then Minister of Education and Culture, Narend Singh and Minister of Safety and Security, INkosi Nyanga Ngubane on 13 February 2004. Other government departments included in this initiative are Social Welfare, Health, Local government and Traditional Affairs.

The main aims of the committee were listed as follows:

- to undertake major interventions in KZN schools on issues of DSS,
- to eliminate and combat the use of drugs, use of firearms and other dangerous weapons in schools,
- to actively involve other role-players on issue of DSS, namely, local councillors, religious leaders, educators, SAPS and learners and
- to establish an active, effective and progressive partnership with these role-players (www.info.gov.za/speeches) (Msibi, 2004:7; Mthethwa, 2004:1).
These DSS structures are diagrammatically presented as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRUCTURE</th>
<th>DUTIES</th>
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| Provincial discipline, safety and security committee  
  (PDSSC)                                      | • to undertake major interventions on DSS issues at Provincial level   |
| District Discipline, Safety and Security Committee  
  (DDSS)                                       | • to eliminate and combat the spread of DSS issues at district level   |
| Circuit Discipline, Safety and Security committee  
  (CDSSC)                                       | • to eliminate and combat DSS challenges of schools in the circuit.    |
| Ward/Cluster Discipline, Safety and Security committee  
  • to fight the increase of DSS issues of schools in the cluster |
| School Discipline, Safety and Security committee  
  (DSSC)                                        | • to deal with DSS issues affecting their school.                      |
3.4 DISCIPLINE, SAFETY AND SECURITY COMMITTEE ACTION PLANS

Planning is crucial for the success of any project. In line with the strategic plan of the school, the DSSC is required to plan its activities. After identifying the specific challenges, this committee has to plan how they are going to deal with the problems. School planning demands answers to five basic questions, which are, Where are we now? Where would we like to be?, What must be done and How should we get there and How will we monitor and evaluate our progress? Detailed answers to these questions constitute the planning process (Naicker & Waddy, 2002:32).

3.4.1 Objectives

Setting objectives forms an integral part of planning. Glueck (1991:90) defines planning as a process of setting objectives and deciding how to accomplish them. Objectives are the specific results one wishes to achieve (Schemerhorn, 1993:192). The committee should formulate objectives for their plan. These would clarify what the committee wants to achieve. The DSS committee would for instance, aim to achieve discipline and safety. It is important to formulate SMART objectives - Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time phased.

3.4.2 Priorities

It is important to prioritise objectives as not all the activities can be tackled simultaneously. The committee will have to decide which ones deserve precedence. Urgent needs should be considered as top priority. It is advisable for the committee to opt for tasks that are easy to manage and achieve. Early successes are a powerful motivator for further activities (KZNDEC, 2003:14).
3.4.3 SWOT Analysis on Discipline, Safety and Security

A SWOT analysis is an analysis of internal and external conditions that affect the school. SWOT is an acronym for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. Kruger (1996:11) states that this is a very useful instrument for establishing the current position of the school with regard to internal sources and the external world. The committees’ initial task is to identify existing conditions regarding DSS issues. Strengths and weaknesses are internal positive and negative factors about the school respectively. Examples of a school’s strengths could be: an existing effective communication system and proper fencing and gates. Examples of a school’s weaknesses could be: inadequate fencing and no clear discipline policy. What is important is that these can be changed since they are internal and all the stakeholders are aware of.

Opportunities and Threats are positive and negative external factors reflecting on the effectiveness of the school respectively. Opportunities are external factors that have a positive impact on the school. Examples could be: the willingness of local community leaders to become involved and financial help from the NGO. Threats are external factors impacting negatively on the school. Examples could be: closure of the nearby factory where most of the parents are employed and long distances to police stations and hospitals (Naicker & Waddy, 2002:42).

3.4.4 The Strategic/Action Plan

The action plan gives clarity as to how the committee wants to achieve the set objectives. It would do so by specifying activities to be engaged in, budget and resources needed, responsibilities given to specific people and setting time frames for activities. Performance indicators to indicate whether the plan is a success or failure are very important (Naicker & Waddy, 2002:64).
3.4.5 Monitoring and evaluation

Weller and Weller (2000:26) maintain that through analysis and objective review of results, reflective practitioners improve performance. Reflective practice includes looking back at the earlier actions in order to reinforce effectiveness and where appropriate to prompt change. More importantly, reflective practice enables alternatives to be evaluated and future plans to be made (Law & Glover, 2000:249).

A practical monitoring and evaluation for the DSSC plan would include regular reporting on whether there is progress or not. It includes examples such as there is a 5% decline in late-coming which was perhaps the first activity of the committee. If there are setbacks the committee should not be discouraged, but it must be prepared to review, reflect and modify the original plan (KZNDEC, 2003:15).

3.5 POSSIBLE INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

Having discussed the nature and extent of DSS challenges facing schools, it is important to discuss possible intervention strategies that can be helpful to combat these problems. The discussion of intervention strategies will follow the sequence of the challenges as discussed above.

3.5.1 Dealing with bullying in schools

Intervention programmes are helpful and can yield positive results. It is notable though that each situation is unique and needs its own specific intervention. The following will reduce bullying in schools: policy developed and specific rules set around bullying, involving learners; monitors can be appointed to watch out for bullying and reporting it must be mandatory. Stopping bullying should be everyone’s concern, not only the victims. Group
counselling sessions to address issues of self-esteem, assertiveness and conflict management (DoE, 2002:15) should be instituted.

In addition, Whitted and Dupper (2005:167) argue that successful school-based programmes must change the culture and climate of the school. It involves a comprehensive, multilevel strategy that must be carefully designed. Classroom-level intervention includes encouraging educators to integrate bullying prevention material into their curriculum. The class can be involved in establishing and enforcing class rules against bullying. Learners’ knowledge of how to intervene, build empathy and encourage pro-social norms and behaviour can be increased through meetings. Learners need to be taught that they have a responsibility to report to the educators if they see someone being bullied. Programmes are likely to be successful if the entire school community is engaged, committed and involved.

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:38) extend the idea of involving the school community in the establishment of an anti-bullying committee consisting of learners, educators and parents. This committee’s role is to plan awareness and prevention activities, identify different forms of bullying, determine the extent of bullying and formulate an anti-bullying policy.

A special programme has been implemented in a few catholic schools in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, which according to the Catholic based Centre for School Quality and Improvement in Johannesburg, is proving effective. The programme is called "Growing up Safe: Creating hurt-free schools". Learners are asked to draw pictures of their experiences with bullying. This is a simple learner-friendly programme to support children by teaching them life-skills that consider the “non-negotiable” right of every child for emotional safety (Southern Cross, 2002:3).

Manning and Bucher (2003:275) assert that intervention strategies for bullying and school violence can take different forms, including increasing civility, using new technologies, imposing zero-tolerance policies and involving learners in developing intervention plans.
In addition to the above, Lemlech (1999:27) suggests the following to alleviate the problem of bullying: the learner should be helped to face the motivation for his/her bullying actions, the learner should be helped to understand the causes of these angry feelings and ways to deal with them and a system to be put in place where the bully can become composed.

Closely related to bullying is the problem of violence which will now be discussed.

### 3.5.2 Dealing with violence in schools

The problem of school violence results from the learners’ lack of respect for fellow human beings and insufficient conflict management skills. Learners’ lack of respect for themselves, their peers, their parents, school property and authorities is symptomatic of a lack of sense of *ubuntu*. *Ubuntu* depends on the cultural continuum between the parental home and the school. Hence the saying goes, *Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu*, meaning, “We need one another and we need to re-instil those human values that make us human”. It instils a sense of belonging and respect in learners. *Ubuntu* entails equipping learners with loyalty and honesty, respect for others and property, tolerance of differences and sensitivity towards the needs of others. Furthermore, schools riddled by violence and the lack of a culture of teaching and learning require the intervention of psychological services to cope (Zulu et al., 2004:170). Cirillo et al., (1998:) propose that an intervention model should be an integrated community and school effort. This includes teaching learners problem solving, anger management and communication life-skills.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993: 46) speak of schools as a community of place, but most importantly as a “community of mind”. Classrooms should resemble small family groups that are connected to clusters that create neighbourhoods of classrooms. He explains that the key to stopping violence is to restore “community of mind”. Cohesive communities are the best intervention to help learners feel connected. Shared values are essential
elements for schools. Without this sense of community, connection is either distorted or absent and violence occurs (Forcey & Harris, 1999:205).

Janine Shamos (in McGregor, 2006:3), a senior school counsellor involved with the South African Depression and Anxiety Group, suggests that during tragedies in schools learners appreciate the support of teachers and staff members. Just being available and approachable prevents learners from sinking into deep depression. Further, the following could give vital support to both learners and educators affected by violence: an opportunity for people to express how they feel. The emotions they are experiencing is crucial. Allowing people to cry or express their emotions and fears in a safe, contained environment, discuss the issue of guilt, fear and anger. Focus on the positive memories and experiences with the person who has died. Holding a memorial service together at school and attending a funeral is also important to gain closure and to start the healing process.

In addition, there is a need for interventions to eliminate corporal punishment. Parents and schools need time to integrate the change which has been introduced by the South African Constitution. For change at the level of the school to be sustainable, change is needed in the broader community. To be most effective, interventions should be aimed at four levels: the individual (learner and educator), classroom, school and education system. These interventions should also aim to forge links (which is contrary to fragmentation) and to empower (which is the opposite of disempowerment) between and within these levels. Schools could lead in building links between themselves and parents and between structures in the community.

At an individual level, Parker-Jenkins (1999) recommends a pastoral care model, consisting of positive reinforcement, support and counselling aimed at increasing desired behaviour. At classroom level, punishment needs to be considered under the broader category of classroom management. Classroom management includes all activities that provide structure and order to classroom activities, including use of registers, checking homework,
planning and organisation of desks and learners. The more consistent and structured these are, the more ordered the system will be.

The education system has to support educators in their endeavour to adhere to the constitutional prohibition on corporal punishment. Educators need formal in-service training on school discipline. It is important to mention that these interventions involve a paradigm shift and embrace a democratic approach to classroom management.

3.5.3 Dealing with substance abuse in schools

Cherry et al., (2002:222) suggest the following programmes to assist schools: parental involvement and intervention should promote opportunities for family discussion, family focussed prevention efforts, adolescents programmes to include peer group discussions, the programmes should address specific substance prevalent in the specific community and the programme should be age-specific and culturally sensitive.

Fraser (2004:191) adds to the above when he maintains that environmental, interpersonal and social protective factors are attributes that buffer community, neighbourhood, family, school and peer risk factors. These factors are: strong attachment to parents and to educators, commitment to the school, involvement in pro-social activities such as church or community organizations and belief in the generalised norms and values of society.

When educators identify drastic change in behaviour, withdrawal or difficulty with concentration they can intervene by providing support, showing patience and giving reassurance to the substance abusers. Support systems can also be strengthened in schools by providing learners with a safe environment. Substance abusers need to be referred to a counsellor or therapist for sustained care (Kottler & Kottler, 2000:33).

3.5.4 Dealing with guns and weapons in schools
In an attempt to reduce gun-related violence in schools the South African government established firearm-free zones by signing the Firearms Control Act 60 of 2000. Provision is made in this Act for schools and other public places as declared by the MEC to be gun-free zones (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:35).

The following are possible intervention strategies to deal with the problem of weapons on school premises:

- the learners’ Code of Conduct should clearly cover the consequences of being found in possession of or using weapons,
- educational campaigns to show learners the dangers of carrying guns and weapons to schools,
- anonymous hotlines to give information about learners carrying guns and weapons,
- learners to sign a pledge that they will act against guns and weapons,
- schools to display signs at entrances that the school is a gun-free zone as regulated by the Department.

Searches can be conducted if there is reasonable suspicion that a weapon may be present on public school premises. If a weapon is found it may be seized in accordance with (RSA, 2001; DoE, 2002:29; KZNDEC, 2001:31).

3.5.5 Dealing with gangsterism in schools

Bender (1992:175) suggests the following strategies to reduce gangsterism. These are:

- **Community organisation**
  This is a term used to describe an effort to bring about change among groups in regard to community problems. A key dimension of community organisation is inter-organisation which focuses on
inter-group or inter-organisational relationships to cope with community problems. Through networking and, mobilisation of local communities, building community trust, involving parent groups in community programmes the gangs in the community can be educated and eventually change.

- **Social intervention**
  This is an outreach to the youth through recreational and sport activities, counselling and informational guidance to alter the values of the youth in such a way that gang involvement becomes less likely. The key indicators of social intervention are group counselling, providing role models, community service activities such as cleaning up graffiti, inter-gang mediation, all of which are psychological approaches and examples of crisis intervention (Bender, 1992:176).

- **Providing opportunities**
  Further, Bender (1992:177) purports that opportunities provision emphasises large scale resource infusion and efforts to change institutional structures which involve job opportunities, political participation and the development of a relationship between local government structures and local community in the solution not only of gangsterism, but also of poverty. In an effort to eradicate the spill of gangsterism into schools, schools should be involved in the community by providing special training and job programmes for the youth.

- **Suppression**
  This involves arrests, prosecution or removal of gangs from the community, supported by patrols and intensive supervision by police gang units.

3.5.6 **Dealing with HIV/AIDS in schools**
Due to the prevalence of HIV/AIDS in schools, it is imperative that each school have a planned strategy to cope with the epidemic. The risk of transmission of HIV in the day-to-day school environment in the context of physical injuries, can be effectively eliminated by following precautionary measures and good hygiene practices under all circumstances. Besides sexuality education, morality and life skills education being provided by educators, parents should provide their children with healthy morals, sexuality education and guidance regarding sexual abstinence until marriage and faithfulness to their partners (DoE, 2003:26 and Van Dyk, 2001:193).

Schools have a responsibility of providing a safe and supportive environment in which learners can grow. The rights of the child as enshrined in Section 28 (1) (d) of the Constitution (RSA, 1996:13) states that: every child has the right to be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation. Learners must receive education about the pandemic and life-skills education on an ongoing basis. Van Dyk (2001:192) writes that when providing the educational programmes on the disease the focus should be on healthy behaviour. Learners should be taught that they have a right to abstain from sexual intercourse or to postpone becoming sexually active. They should be helped to develop the skills they need to assert these rights. Teaching about HIV/AIDS can be enhanced by movies and other visual aids, role play and involvement of learners in planning. The Code of Conduct adopted for learners should include provisions regarding the unacceptability of behaviour that may create the risk of HIV transmission. Furthermore, the SGB could consider establishing a sub-committee (Health Advisory Committee) consisting of educators, learners, parents and health care professionals. This committee should preferably be chaired by a person with knowledge in the field of health care. It should advise the SGB on all health matters, including HIV/AIDS and develop and promote a plan of implementation (RSA, 1999:26).

Morena (2004:17) recommends a continuous Life Skills programme to be implemented by schools. The programme should be age appropriate for primary and secondary school learners. The programme should include the following:
providing information and developing the life skills necessary for the prevention of HIV transmission, including basic First Aid principles from an early age, including how to deal with bleeding and taking the necessary precautions,

• empowering the learners on the role of drug abuse, violence, and sexually transmitted diseases in the transmission of HIV,

• encouraging learners to make use of health care, counselling and support services,

• teaching learners on how to behave towards people with HIV/AIDS,

• raising awareness on prejudice and stereotypes around HIV/AIDS and

• cultivating an enabling environment and a culture of non-discrimination towards people with HIV/AIDS.

The school can also exert influence in the local community by promoting education and health within the community. The National policy on HIV/AIDS mandates the SGB to establish the Health Advisory Committee as its sub-committee. This committee should elect its own chairperson who should preferably be from the health field. The functions of this committee should include the following: to advise the SGB on all health matters, including HIV/AIDS; to develop and promote a school plan of implementation on HIV/AIDS; to be consulted on the provisions relating to the prevention of HIV transmission in the Code of Conduct (RSA, 1999:26; www.ovesupport.net/sw).

3.5.7 Dealing with child-headed families in schools

An analysis of the General Household Survey (GHS) 2005 indicates that there were about 118,500 children living in a total of 66,500 child-headed households across South Africa at the time of the survey. This is equal to roughly 0.7% of all children (0 – 17-year olds) and to 0.6% of all households in the country. The proportion of children living in child-headed households relative to those living in households where adults are resident is therefore small.
While it is not ideal for any child to live without a resident adult, it is positive that more than two-thirds (68%) of children living in child-headed households are 12 years and older. Five percent of children living in child-headed households in South Africa are five years old or younger. Three-quarters (75%) of all children living in child-headed households were located in only three provinces at the time of the GHS 2005: Limpopo (39%), the Eastern Cape (23%) and KwaZulu-Natal (13%) www.childrencount.ci.org.za Retrieved on 10 December 2007).

As a result of the number of families and parents being affected by HIV/AIDS, a growing number of children in South Africa are orphaned. As Moletsane (2004:169) states, this situation is becoming common in Africa, resulting in “child-headed families” as another type of institution.

Once the school is aware of the situation, the school can assist the child by inter alia: providing moral and emotional support, making contact with appropriate family or relatives, approaching the Department of welfare to solicit appropriate assistance such as how they can access sustainable food security that the government allocates to child-headed households. The school can also liaise with local churches; women’s groups for community based support programmes (to support children from these families).

In addition, schools can provide a safe and supportive environment in which children and young people can grow and develop. In particular, schools have been identified as key places where children and young people can develop resiliency. Schools can also be places which can identify and meet children's psychosocial needs. For example, these include grief and the results of sexual abuse. In order to do this, teachers need training in how to identify the needs of children and young people. Schools can also promote and model a supportive and caring environment for orphans and other vulnerable children. This involves, in particular, tackling stigma and discrimination and ensuring that schools have policies and systems in place which prevent teachers and other staff from abusing children and young people in schools.
Schools can also provide practical support to orphans and other vulnerable children. This may include activities which promote health and nutrition, such as school-based feeding programs. However, they are unlikely to be able to meet the physical and psychosocial needs of all the children and young people who attend the school. Teachers and other school staff need to be aware of sources of further support for children and young people.

Sources of further support that educators can use could be to refer such children to National Government Organizations (NGO) such as The Mandela Children’s Fund which focuses on children orphaned as a result of AIDS. This organization, among other things, empowers local community-based organizations to provide programmes to aid child-headed families. This Fund runs programmes such as child care and development in the context of HIV/AIDS, specific programmes for the well-being of these children and the youth and providing housing as units of care and nurturing (Garson, 2003:1). KwaZulu-Natal has NGOs that assist child-headed families access government foster grants and provide ongoing psychosocial support through social workers and trained coordinators.

3.5.8 Dealing with Child Abuse in schools

Educators need to be aware of the role they are expected to play in the reduction of child abuse. They need to take a pro-active role in identifying victims and in assisting them to deal with abuse. Not only are educators the ones who see learners every day, they themselves are not exempt from being perpetrators of violence. This places an even more difficult task on other educators to expose guilty colleagues. Educators have departmental procedures in place on how to report the abuse. Schools should have intervention strategies in place that will prevent further abuse from taking place. Learners must be educated about what abuse is, which places to avoid, what to do if they are abused and where to go for help (DoE, 2002: 50). The Employment of Educators Act as amended requires the Provincial Departments to dismiss any educator found guilty of having a sexual relationship with a learner. Cooperation and partnership between various
professions and agencies is crucial (Parton & Wattam, 1999: 225; ELRC, 2003: C-9).

Professor Noguera (in Forcey & Harris, 1999:208) sums this up in a nutshell when he says: “The urban schools that I know that feel safe to those who spend their time there don’t have metal detectors or armed security guards, and their principals don’t carry baseball bats”. What these schools do have are a strong sense of community and collective responsibility. Such schools are seen by learners as sacred territory, too special to be spoiled by crime and violence and too important to risk one being excluded. Such schools are few, but their existence serves as tangible proof that there are alternatives to chaotic schools plagued by violence (Forcey & Harris 1999: 208).

What should be the characteristics of a well-disciplined, safe and therefore secure school?

3.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF A DISCIPLINED, SAFE AND SECURE SCHOOL

Not all schools have internal disciplinary problems that make educators and learners feel unsafe and insecure. It is important, however to indicate that safety and security problems are not limited to internal factors. The extent of non-safety in schools is not the same in all schools. It is however, notable that some schools do not experience problems to the extent that educators and learners feel threatened. The following diagrammatically presented are notable aspects of a well-disciplined school. These are learners’ code of conduct, effective leadership, school culture, school climate, school-community partnerships and communication.
3.6.1 A functional Code of Conduct for learners

Subject to SASA s20, the SGB must adopt a code of conduct for the learners at the school. The school governing body has a legal obligation to manage discipline so that teaching and learning can take place in a safe and secure environment. The governing body stands in a position of trust (*fidei commissum*) which Davies (1999:60) simplifies as meaning that a relationship of trust exists between the school and its governing body. Furthermore, the governing body always acts on behalf of the school, with the best interest of the school at heart.
A code of conduct for learners is a written statement that sets rules and principles concerning discipline in a school. It clearly stipulates the kind of behaviour that educators expect from the learners and the standards of behaviour the school seeks to maintain (KZNDEC, 1999:6) (DoE, 1997:59). According to the Guidelines for SGBs in adopting a Code of Conduct (RSA, 1998:1) the Code of Conduct must inform the learners of the way in which they should conduct themselves at school in preparation for their conduct and safety in civil society. It must equip them with the expertise, knowledge and skills they would be expected to demonstrate as worthy and responsible citizens.

The purpose of a Code of Conduct is to articulate acceptable behaviour in the school, promote positive- and self-discipline, establish a disciplined and purposeful school environment, create a well organised school for effective teaching and learning to take place, outline how transgression from the code of conduct will be dealt with and include due process (Van Wijk, 2004:52) (RSA, 1998).

The Guidelines for School governing bodies in adopting a Code of Conduct for learners (RSA, 1998) stipulates that the code must reflect the constitutional democracy, human rights and transparent communication which underpins South African society. The code is seen as an instrument of change and the SGB should check that it reflects the new democratic order in South Africa.

The Code of Conduct must be drawn in consultation with the learners, parents and educators at the school. It must be a consensus document for the above stakeholders. It is important that the SGB uses the following checklist to adopt its school’s code of conduct: all role players were consulted and their views taken into account, local custom and tradition were considered, the code suits the development of the learners, the language used is easily understandable, the format is user-friendly, the spirit and the requirements of the Constitution and Bill of Rights are reflected and there is no conflict between the code and the national and provincial legislation (KZNDEC, 1999:9).
Every Code of Conduct will be unique, but the following components should be contained in the codes: preamble to a code, principles and values, rights and responsibilities of learners, responsibilities of parents, disciplinary measures, punishment, dispute resolution, prevention, proactive advice and corrective measures, dealing with misconduct, suspension and expulsion, due process; and the scope of application (RSA, 1998).

After the consultation process characterised by participation and consensus by stakeholders, the SGB should adopt the Code of Conduct in terms of section 8(i) and 20(d). All members of the school community should after this process feel that they have ownership of the code and will thus support it. Each stakeholder must receive a copy of the code and should also be consulted for the annual review of the Code of Conduct (RSA, 1998; KZNDEC, 1999:10).

It is crucial that the code be well-known to the school community. Every learner and parent should sign and be given a copy of the document. The Code of Conduct is a legal document that is binding on every learner at the school. Sadker and Sadker (1997:191) maintains that a school with a clearly articulated Code of Conduct that is enforced consistently and fairly, is a safe school.

In Section 6.1 of the Regulations to prohibit initiation practices in schools (RSA, 2002:3), it is stipulated that: every educator is responsible to assist the school governing body with discipline at the school. Educators must protect, promote and respect the rights of the learners. Every educator has a duty to control the actions of learners where such actions may inflict harm to others. An educator at the school has the same rights and obligations as a parent to discipline, and protect the learner according to the Code of Conduct during the time the learner is at school. Such schools have established cultures with specific values that are upheld by all in the school.

The Code of Conduct is the crucial instrument for the department’s co-operative discipline that has been recommended for schools to deal with DSS
issues. The Department of Education’s stance is that the solution should come from school communities and effective school leadership.

3.6.2 Effective leadership

One of the important factors contributing to safe schools is good school leadership and management. Leadership has been described as influence, or the art, skill or process of influencing people to work towards the achievement of a group, or larger organisational goals. Leadership is a force that can initiate action among people, guide activities in a given direction, maintain such activities and unify efforts towards common goals. There can be no leaders without followers and such followers need to be influenced, persuaded or inspired to follow the leader. (Evans, 1995:207 and Loock, 1998:1). Schools with clear norms and expectations, fair procedures and schools that involve all members of the community are less likely to experience high levels of violence than schools where these systems and relationships are not in place (DoE, 2002:9).

Weller and Weller (2000:26) assert that educational leaders need both a firm knowledge base and a command of psychological and human relations skills. Effective principals are innovative and calculated ‘risk takers’ who draw on a wide array of theory, research and practical experience to meet the daily demands of school leadership. These principals blend theory with practice. Research suggests that the way in which the school is managed and the extent to which it runs effectively as place of learning and nurturing is directly linked to the level of stability or chaos in the school (DoE, 2002:9). Central to effective leadership is visionary leadership.

Visionary leaders are leaders who think about their decisions before they act and anticipate the responses of others. They reflect on the possible long-range outcomes and effect on both people and programmes. Creating a vision requires proactive leadership, an optimistic view of the future and a determination that a better future is possible and attainable. Developing a vision and mission is a joint endeavour that the leader undertakes with
educators, parents and non-educator staff members. This becomes a ‘shared’ vision. This shared vision provides a school with direction, focus and an ‘agenda’ for daily work. It is a ‘dream’, a mental image of a possible, desirable and attainable future. The critical point is that a vision articulates a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organisation (Weller & Weller, 2000:30).

Effective school leaders create order and discipline, for they believe that teaching is impossible in a chaotic atmosphere. The type of leadership displayed by schools with stability and order requires “professional artistry”. Principals of these schools are able to move educators along the visionary continuum from abstract concept to a shared vision, to the transformation of the vision to action (Weller & Weller, 2000:49).

Educators also have to develop preventative strategies to disciplinary problems. The following are suggested: the educator’s style of leadership impacts on the attitude of the learners and their willingness to co-operate with the educator. This includes the establishment of rules, assertiveness, respect shown to learners and consistency in the treatment of learners, efficient and productive use of time, keeping learners so busy that they don’t have time to misbehave. Educators should eliminate “dead space’. The creation of a behavioural setting which includes the physical environment and physical attractiveness of the school, classroom arrangement of physical properties, lesson management and learner motivation has great influence on. A motivated learner seldom creates problems (Savage, 1991:9).

School leaders have to be more than competent managers. They must link staff improvement to instructional improvement and vice versa. As school leaders they must be “teachers of teachers”, constantly diagnosing educational problems. Educators like to work with principals who are considerate, supportive and fair in their treatment of others. The school principal should seek a balance between good interpersonal relationships with staff, learners and the parent community. Team work among educators should be encouraged. The staff should be helped to solve their work-related
problems and opportunities for staff development should be created (van der Westhuizen, 1996:235) Leadership is therefore, multidimensional, involving managerial, human and educational skills (Wiles & Bond, 2000:240).

3.6.3 A positive school culture

The culture of a school has been described as "the way we do things around here". It is a historically transmitted pattern of meaning that includes the norms, values, beliefs traditions and myths understood by members of the school community. It is the collective beliefs, values, norms and attitudes that bind all people in the organisation. Van der Westhuizen et al., (1996:105) compare culture to the magnet that draws the individuals within the organisation closer together. It is the central factor when considering whole school development interventions (Law & Glover, 2000:261; Snowden & Gorton, 1998:107; Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997:20). It is a particular dimension of an organisation whose interaction with other aspects of education contributes to the uniqueness, effectiveness and excellence of the organisation.

These premises, meanings and values form the background against which any action within the organisation takes place and directly or indirectly, they have an influence on the people in the organisation. Further, culture has the following identifiable characteristics: symbols, language, rituals, ceremonies, ideologies and heroes (Van de Venter et al., 2003:14; Kruger, 1987:80).

The culture of a school “diffuses its particular qualities and characteristics into every corner of school life”. It lives, influences and affects the life of the school in ways that people are barely aware of. External and internal forces are determinant of the school’s culture. Its pervasive nature invades all other aspects of the school. Schools are therefore microcosms of their local communities (Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997:41). Weller and Weller (2000:10) put it clearly when they say culture leads one to say “This is a nice place to work” or “Gee, there is no way I would work here".
Davidoff and Lazarus (1997:20) give the following as examples of aspects of school life that reflect its overall culture: the extent to which educators and learners are motivated, the way in which learners and parents are involved in the life of the school, and the approach to discipline and interpersonal relationships. Culture is therefore both the determiner and the result of actions in the school. Schools should strive to be healthy organisations that counter disruptive factors from outside the organisations and direct the organisations in the attainment of their goals (van der Westhuizen et al., 1996:106).

The school culture is closely related to the school climate. While culture is rooted in history, climate is rooted in psychology. This will now be discussed.

3.6.4 A positive school climate

The school climate is the perceivable influence of all aspects of the school: the nature of work, the people, the architecture of its buildings and environment, the organisational structure and its history and culture (Badenhorst et al., 1987:79; Kruger, 1996:15).

“Some schools are cheerful and hum with excitement and purpose. Others seem to lack enthusiasm. Some classrooms are alive with expectancy. Others appear moribund. Some people who work and study in schools see each new day and each new person as opportunities for improving their understanding of the world around them. Others fear that today will be worse than yesterday. These feelings of satisfaction and productivity constitute such climate”.

The school climate stresses the point that the relevant, desired characteristics, such as high expectations, basic skills, discipline and order and a secure setting should have a broad support within a school culture (Scheerens, 1992:91). The school climate describes a school’s shared perceptions of its inhabitants, its ‘morale’. It is the environmental quality within the organisation which may be referred to as open, warm, easy-going, cold, hostile or rigid. It is a part of the school culture, but does not describe culture.
Climate is rooted in psychology while culture has its roots in history and sociology.

Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore and Ousten, (1994: 55), use the term “ethos” in reference to a climate of expectations or modes of behaving suggesting that in many cases individual actions are less important in their own right than in the accumulated impact they have on what it feels like to be a member of the school organisation.

Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1993:104) contend that the school climate needs to be positive. A positive school climate influences both educator and learner behaviour. A positive classroom climate makes a positive whole school climate. Weller and Weller (2000:10) assert that school climate describes a school’s shared perceptions of its inhabitants, its ‘morale’. It is the environmental quality within the organisation which may be referred as open, warm, easy going, cold, hostile or rigid. It is a part of the school’s culture but does not describe culture.

The following are climate dimensions representing aspects of how learners feel in the classroom: self-image, initiative and creativity, motivation, attitude towards learning, safety and security, fairness, interesting comfortable and attractive environment (Van de Venter & Kruger, 2003:18; Badenhorst et al., 1987:84).

Further, a positive school climate will yield the following effects on educators: motivation, job satisfaction, identifying with the mission of the school, a spirit of co-operation and collegiality, healthy interpersonal relationships and productivity (van de Venter & Kruger, 2003:23; Badenhorst et al., 1987:84).

Leithwood, et al., (in Malgas, 2003:133) identified the following characteristics in schools with a positive climate: schools are safe and orderly, schools are free of discipline and vandalism problems, educators understand learners and are not threatened by adolescence, schools refuse to condone or conceal indiscipline. There is less emphasis on punishment, more attention is given to
praise and learner reward, both learners and educators take school seriously, and learner self-control is encouraged.

A warm school climate characterised by a concern for learners as individuals is typical of well disciplined schools. Learners feel safe and supported and become interested in the school and motivated to participate. A positive school climate will reduce DSS challenges and learners will enjoy being at school and be motivated to learn rather than misbehave.

3.6.5 Partnerships, parental and community involvement

Wolfendale (1992:14) defines partnership as a working relationship that is characterised by a shared sense of purpose, mutual respect and the willingness to negotiate. The implication is that of sharing of information, responsibility, skills, decision-making and accountability. This partnership is characterised by parents being: active and central in decision making and its implementation, able to contribute as well as to receive service, able to share responsibility so that they and the professionals are mutually accountable and perceived as having equal strengths and equivalent expertise.

The parental role in the education of their children is crucial for the success of the learners. Research done by Vassallo (2000:1) and Wolfendale (1992:127) point out that parental involvement in a child’s education is a strong predictor of effectiveness of the school and a reflector of the ethos of the school. It is disappointing though that research shows that the extent of parental involvement in the education of their children is insufficient (Singh, et al., 2004:303).

The concept of partnership between all people who have an interest in education is regulated in SASA (RSA, 1996). The joint effort of parents, educators, members of the local communities and various departments will improve DSS in schools. In a summit on the impact of Customs, Religion and HIV/AIDS called by KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (31 March 2007) the Zulu king, King Zwelithini was invited to address close to 5000 people at
the Obonjeni district. The King’s opinion was “Parents, you are the professors……the first school begins at home.” In the same summit the MEC emphasised the importance of teaching children the right values.

Communication competence (effective communication skills) are the building blocks to productive dialogue with parents. Undoubtedly, the development of sound and constructive relationships between the school and the community is a necessary and natural function of a public school in a democratic society (Kindred et al., 1984:9). The school cannot adapt itself to change nor make the necessary improvements in its programme without involving citizens in its affairs. As pointed out by Kindred et al., (1984:12).

“There must be a structured, systematic and active participation on the part of the people of the community in the educational planning, policy making, problem solving and evaluation of the school”.

It is through such involvement that the community comes to know the school first hand. This ensures a better understanding of what the community wants for its children now and in the future. It likewise provides better opportunities for closer cooperation with local governmental agencies and common organisation with an interest in education. (DoE, 2002:9) advise that effective partnerships need to be developed within schools, and between schools, communities, law enforcements agents, parents and social services.

Michel (1997:24) argues that parents are important and very influential partners in the school. Surely, they influence the behaviour of their sons and daughters by their own social patterns and behaviours. The critical value of parental involvement is that of improved learner behaviour, achievement and discipline.

Community ‘ownership’ of the school is the crucial factor that affects issues of discipline, safety and security in schools. This lack of ownership could develop as a result of the fact that the community is not informed about many positive activities in school or it has not been involved in much interaction with
school personnel. These attitudes can be resolved by improving the contacts between the school and the community.

The following principles can be useful in establishing effective community involvement:

- **Uniqueness**: Each community has to bear knowledge of their unique combination of resources, facilities, needs, attitudes and limitations.
- **Ownership**: People should understand that the programmes and plans of the school belong to them as members of the community. In this way they will come to recognise the legitimacy of their involvement. This notion of ownership should be maintained at all times.
- **Representation**: Development programmes to involve all subgroups in the community. The more representation there is, the greater the possibility of discovering the needs, resources and eventually the chances of success of the programmes.
- **Leadership**: Effective leadership is crucial. It is the principle that allows others to exist and determines in what form they exist.
- **Skill training**: Participation will be effective if people involved in the decision making are given the necessary skills (Townsend, 1994:160).

In addition to the above, Kindred et al., (1984:12) point out that:

……“there must be a structured, systematic and active participation on the part of the people of the community in the educational planning, policy making, problem solving and evaluation of the school”.

It is through such involvement that the community come to know the school first hand. This ensures a better understanding of what the community wants for its children. It likewise provides better opportunities for closer co-operation with local governmental agencies and community organisation with an interest in education.
The DSS committee is required to publicise its DSS policy and activities (KZNDEC, 2003:76). Furthermore, to deal with the DSS challenges it is vital that the Department of Education and schools work together with other departments, hence the partnership that exist between the departments of Education and Safety and Security.

More important, co-operative discipline which has a participative approach among the school governors and managers, forms the bedrock of the management of DSS challenges in schools.

### 3.6.6 Communication

Communication is the life-blood of every organisation. For an organisation to function efficiently, it must have an effective communication system. This is an important skill that should be transferred to learners.

Communication is the successful transmission of information through a common system of symbols, signs, behaviour, speech, writing or signals. It is the exchange of ideas, opinions and information through written or spoken words, symbols or actions. It is also a fundamental component of social behaviour; the transmission of information between a sender and a receiver using any of the five senses [www.google.com](http://www.google.com).

Communication should have one goal; improving relationships and performance. “If communication changes behaviour, it is good communication; if it doesn’t it’s bad communication” [www.simplerwork.com](http://www.simplerwork.com).

Communication skills help to build resilience in the following ways:

- Communication skills reduce the chance of interpersonal conflict turning into violent conflict; and
• Good communicators are able to express their needs and feelings (DoE, 2002: 55).

Having discussed the characteristics, suggested strategies to manage DSS will now be discussed.

3.7 STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING DISCIPLINE, SAFETY AND SECURITY IN SCHOOLS

3.7.1 Instituting co-operative discipline

Co-operative discipline is the combination of intervention strategies to deal with the moment of misbehaviour. Furthermore, it should be the encouragement of strategies to build self-esteem and collaboration strategies that involve learners as partners which enable teachers to reach the goal of influencing positive behaviour in learners (Charles, 1999:127). He also argues that with co-operative understanding between educators, learners and parents, schools can be transformed into safe, orderly, inviting places for teaching and learning. Charles (1999:126).

The concept of co-operative discipline stems from co-operative governance as it is enshrined in Chapter 3 of the Constitution of South Africa. Education in South Africa is organised at national, provincial and local level. These spheres of government are distinctive, but also interdependent and interrelated. The relationship of co-operative government binds all spheres of government together. Section 41 provides the principles of intergovernmental relations which are also applicable to school governing bodies at school level. (Davies, 1999:8; Potgieter, et al., 1997:18).

The SASA (RSA, 1996) provides for the inclusion of all stakeholders in the governance of the school. School governors, parents and educators need to form a relationship of mutual trust and understanding so that they can work as partners to the benefit of the school and the learners (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:101).
Hence the SGBs in their activities are expected to preserve the peace, national unity and indivisibility (which means there must be harmony and stability), secure the well being of all stakeholders in education; and provide effective, transparent accountable governance for their schools.

They should co-operate with one another in a relationship of mutual trust by encouraging friendly relations, helping and supporting one another, informing one another of, and consulting one another on matters of common interest, co-ordinating their actions, keeping to agreed procedures and avoiding legal actions against one another (Potgieter, et al., 1997:19; Davies, 1999:8).

The need for co-operation at school level is reflected in the partnership principle set out in the preamble of the Schools Act. Not only must the school and education authorities work together, but parents, learners and educators must all accept and share responsibility for the governance of the school. Representation of various stakeholders on the governing body and in its sub committees such as the DSSC, is a positive effort to achieve this principle (Potgieter et al., 1997:19).

Co-operative discipline aims to translate the argument initiated in Alternatives for Corporal Punishment. Parents, Learners, Educators and School Management form the school community. The school community is represented by these structures: the RCL for learners, the school management team (SMT) and the SGB. The following diagram better explains the concept of co-operative discipline:
Figure 3.4: Roles and responsibilities of members of school community

The SGB mobilises opportunities to build a strong and effective school
- adopts school constitution
- develops school mission statement
- adopts a code of conduct

Co-Operative Discipline

RCL fulfils a role of liaison among peer-learners
- engages in formulation of Codes of Conduct
- sells it to peer-learners
- creates a culture of learning and teaching

The SMT supports the initiatives of the SGB
- engages in formulation and implementation of Code of Conduct
- planning, teaching, learning and assessment
- monitors use of co-operative discipline

The community supports the school initiatives
- buy-in by parents, learners and community on agreed Code of Conduct
- agreement on constitutional principles

Adapted from Co-operative Discipline: An alternative to Corporal Punishment Facilitator’s Guide (2003: Department of Education)
Co-operative discipline is a strategy that involves the whole school community to co-operate on DSS matters. It encourages the whole school approach which promotes good leadership, values, healthy school culture and climate (DoE, 2003:15). When educators emphasise pro-social values, elicit learner ideas and encourage co-operation, there is a higher learner engagement and positive behaviour (Watkins & Wagner, 2000:86).

Another important pro-active measure that can be inculcated to young children by the home and the school are life skills that build resilience. The following is a discussion of such skills.

3.7.2 General behaviour management

Savage (1991:9) advises that discipline should be managed and this is about managing the environment so that discipline problems are prevented. The objective of preventive education is to negate, counteract or delay the likelihood of experimentation with DSS challenges such as drugs by providing information about the dangers of their use. The introduction of the Learning Area of Life Orientation in the Revised National Curriculum Statements (RNCS) for Grades R to 9 and the National Curriculum for FET is intended to ensure that learners acquire appropriate knowledge and skills to protect them from DSS challenges such as drug abuse and general misbehaviour. Educators have to develop acceptable responses to misbehaviour. A professionally satisfying work environment can be created by applying the following principles:

There are various techniques that can be employed to manage DSS challenges in schools. One of the skills a good classroom manager should have is the ability to decide which form of DSS management technique will be effective in curbing a particular form of learner misconduct. Triegaardt (2006:33) came up with the following techniques for whole school development:
Verbal behaviour management which is reprimanding the learner for minor learner misconduct can be used in classrooms. When used properly, verbal behaviour management can be a very effective deterrent for a number of learner misbehaviours. Clark and Starr (1981:72) write that a quiet but firm reprimand, which also describes the fault, is usually effective and has no detrimental side-effects.

Exclusion from the group refers to a learner being excluded from the rest of the class as a form of deprivation and may serve as a behaviour management technique. A disruptive learner can be made to sit in isolation where he or she will not disturb others. Triegaardt (2006:33), however, warns that the effectiveness of exclusion can only be assured if the learner misses being in the group. If the learner seems to be reclusive, behaviour management by exclusion from the group may fail to bring about desired results. The educator should know the learner’s personality before choosing exclusion as behaviour management. Most learners who engage in disruptive behaviour in the classroom enjoy the sensation they cause among their peers and may discard such behaviour where there is no audience. For such learners temporary exclusion from the rest of the class may serve as an effective deterrent of unacceptable behaviour (Good & Brophy, 1991:242).

Withholding of privileges is about denying misbehaving learners privileges that they enjoy in schools. The prospect of being cut from participating in some of the privileges may make learners think twice before placing themselves in a position that might risk the loss of the privilege. Educators can add positive elements to this type of technique by combining it with a system that rewards good behaviour with special privileges (Clark & Starr, 1981).

3.7.3 Developing resilience skills in learners

Resiliency is the ability to spring back from and successfully adapt to adversity. An increasing body of research from the fields of psychology, psychiatry, and sociology is showing that most people – including young
people – can bounce back from risks, stress, crises and trauma and enjoy successful lives. A 15-year-old high school student who, after receiving a semester of resiliency training, described resiliency as: "Bouncing back from problems and stuff with more power and more smarts."


Wolin and Wolin (1993: 8) define resiliency as the "capacity to rise above adversity and forge lasting strengths in the struggle." They have compiled a list of seven resiliencies that are typical of the survivors. These attributes are listed, below:

- **Insight**: the mental habit of asking searching questions and giving honest answers. The development of insight begins with sensing or an intuition that family life is strange and untrustworthy.
- **Independence**: a delicate negotiation. It is the best possible bargain you can drive among competing needs: your conscience, and your longing for family ties.
- **Relationships**: the search for love, intimate and fulfilling ties to other people. Proof that you can love and be loved, relationships are a direct compensation for the affirmation that troubled families deny their children.
- **Initiative**: the pleasure of problems. This is the determination to assert yourself and master your environment.
- **Sense of humour**: finding the comic in the tragic.
- **Creativity**: expressing and resolving inner conflict in symbolic form.
- **Morality**: adhering to standards of decency.

The South African Police Services and the DoE jointly state that there are many children in South Africa and worldwide who face difficult and uncomfortable situations on a daily basis, who do not follow a path of violence or crime. Research shows that children who do not choose a path of violence or crime, even if they are exposed to violence regularly, have particular “tools” that help them to choose a non-violent pathway. These are in this particular
study, called resilience factors that help the youth resist a violent course and choose a non-violent one.

Resilience skills help learners who are at risk of embarking on violent and criminal behaviour cope better in life, by enabling a learner to say NO when he/she doesn’t want to do something, instilling a sense of pride from doing things for themselves, helping learners make good decisions, making learners discover themselves and inspiring a sense of self-respect and self-esteem (DoE, 2002:54).

These skills include the ability to communicate effectively, having a strong sense of self-esteem, having values and problem solving skills.

3.7.4 Developing self-esteem in learners

Self-esteem is how we feel about ourselves, and our behaviour clearly reflects those feelings. A learner with high self-esteem will be able to act independently, assume responsibility, take pride in his accomplishment, tolerate frustration and handle positive and negative emotions. If learners could be encouraged to feel good about who they are, a number of behavioural problems could be eliminated. Self-esteem is a by-product of successfully measuring up to personal aspirations and to culturally mandated norms. Self-esteem is closely related to the self-concept which is very important to be developed at a young age (Reeve, 2001: 276).

The self-concept is broader than the self-esteem in that it is a collection of domain-specific self-schemas. In childhood, for instance, cognitive competence, peer acceptance and behavioural conduct constitute major life domains. In adolescence, the major life domains include scholastic competence, physical appearance, peer acceptance, close friendship and behavioural conduct. These age-specific life domains create a self-concept which is important to the development of the child.
Parents as well as educators have a huge burden in creating a positive self-esteem in children.

3.7.5 Establishing a process for conflict resolution

This is a process of resolving a dispute or conflict. It is an important feature of both personal and interpersonal relations. Conflict resolution ends conflict before it leads to physical fighting. The most common type of conflict amongst learners is interpersonal, which is conflict between two or more people. Learners should be taught ways of conflict resolution. They should be taught compromise and collaboration. These skills will help learners to develop into well-balanced human beings who can resolve conflict without resorting to violent actions.

In America, some schools have turned to school-based conflict resolution strategies to manage DSS challenges. There are various programmes which seek to empower learners by teaching them the skills to resolve their conflicts non-violently through a problem-solving approach. The basic idea is to convey that conflict is not bad; rather, it is a natural occurrence that may be addressed in non-violent ways. These programmes include issues such as critical thinking, diversity appreciation, tolerance, communication and listening skills. These programmes follow three formats namely, educator training, peer mediation and curriculum incorporation. Educator training is about training educators in conflict resolution techniques. Peer mediation is training a selection of learners in conflict resolution techniques. Having learnt the conflict resolution techniques, these learners come back to school and help to mediate conflicts between their peers. Curriculum incorporation is including conflict resolution as a separate subject or integrating it with another subject for classroom instruction (Forcey & Harris 1999: 39).

In addition to the above another effective approach is that of cooperative learning, which will now be discussed.
3.7.6 Instituting a cooperative learning strategy

Cooperative learning is defined as small group instruction in which children learn together to maximise their own learning and that of their peers. In contrast to traditional, competitive classrooms, children work together to accomplish shared goals. The educator designs and assigns learning tasks, manages time and resources and monitors students’ learning, checking to see that students are on task and that the group process is working well. The goal of cooperative learning is to work together in harmony and mutual support to find solutions. Both social and academic skills are learned through cooperative learning (Barkley, et al., 2005:5; Miller-Lachmann & Taylor, 1995:188).

The following are principles of cooperative learning: Leadership is distributed in the group- all members of the group take turns to perform a leadership task, positive interdependence is learned and valued, members of the group share ideas and materials, members of the group receive a reward, social skills are taught and learnt, development of teamwork skills and promotion of positive interpersonal, interracial relationships (Barkley et al., 2005:9; Miller-Lachmann & Taylor, 1995:188).

In the following table a comparison of the traditional learning and cooperative learning approach will be given to indicate the effectiveness of this classroom approach and its effect on the entire school discipline.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional</th>
<th>Cooperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learners compete with each other.</td>
<td>Learners cooperate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus is on the individual.</td>
<td>Focus is on the group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who always gain recognition are disliked by others.</td>
<td>All learners achieve and are recognised</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some learners win and others lose
Learners try to do better than anyone else.
Cooperative social skills are not learnt.
The teacher is the only leader.

All learners “win”.
Learners help one another for the success of all group members.
Cooperative social skills are learnt.
All learners share leadership turns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3.1: A comparison of traditional learning and cooperative learning approaches</th>
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3.7.7 Physical environment

Classroom management includes arranging the room in a way that is conducive to effective management. This arrangement creates in a learner and educator the seriousness of the task to be performed in this room, which is teaching and learning. This includes physical properties, arrangement of desks, as well as the physical attractiveness of the space. A well-maintained, bright, sparkling and flexible physical facility creates a climate that supports effective teaching and learning in schools.Whilst educational colourful wall displays add to the sense of a good, positive classroom environment, they are also effective teaching tools.

Moreover, according to Doveton et. al., (1991:95):
“the choice and presentation of materials and the physical arrangement of furniture, not only contribute to the overall environment, but reflects the educators belief about how children learn” … The setting of the classroom has an influence on the educator and learner behaviour.
Doveton, et al., (1991:96) warn that educators should bear in mind that learners are more content in a well-organised environment. Here they know what to do and when to do it. In this they become self-directed, which develops self-discipline. In such an environment learners learn courtesy, respect for others, neatness and time management which are all important aspects for a well-disciplined, safe and secure school.

The educational utilization of physical facilities by learners and educators is an important management task of the principal (Trigaardt, 2006:46). School physical resources that are not well-maintained can be a health hazard to the educators and learners. The SGB should have a Physical Resources Maintenance sub-committee. Regular inspections of buildings and grounds should be done. Moreover, preventative maintenance should include the following steps: repainting external and internal surfaces; the servicing and upgrading of water pipes and taps; site works, such as covered passages, boundary gates, playing fields and paved areas; inspection and servicing of fire-fighting equipment and replacing of cracked and broken windows, doors and locks.

In the national policy by the education MEC, schools have to provide a safe environment. The following are universal precautionary measures to ensure safety of all within the school environment: all schools to have available and maintain at least two first aid kits; each classroom to have a pair of latex rubber gloves; all learners and educators to be given appropriate training on HIV transmission and the use of a first aid kit; blood spills such as from nose bleeding or injuries to be handled with extreme caution; disposable bags and incinerators to be made available to dispose of sanitary wear. No learner must be allowed to participate in contact sport with open sores or broken skin (RSA, 1999:8).
3.7.8 Time management

Another key management in preventing problems is efficient and productive use of time. Keeping learners busy will ensure that they see their lessons as serious business and there will be no time to misbehave. Savage (1991:10) refers to this as eliminating “dead space” (DoE, 2000:12). Wilen (1992:78) agrees with the above statement and argue that many behavioural problems in schools are due to learner boredom. Time should therefore be used effectively and teaching and learning activities should be challenging for learners.

In addition to the above principles the following will put more emphasis on educator discipline, which will prevent the need for disciplinary measures: thorough preparation for lessons; building positive relationships with learners; involving learners in the establishment of classroom rules and involving the Representative Council for Learners (RCL) in the drawing of the Code of Conduct for learners (DoE, 2000:20; Schulze & Dzivhani, 2002:118).

In addition, Triegaardt (2006:40) emphasises the importance of proper planning as a measure to avoid disruptions and delays. Lessons must be well planned and be full of activities and sufficient learning materials for individual learners should be handed out. The Provincial Education Minister has on a number of occasions in her speeches to educators emphasised the value of the” time on task”.

It is interesting to note that discipline is a double-edged sword since self-disciplined educators will also contribute to an education climate that motivates learners to be self-disciplined. Lemlech (1999:144) confirms this idea in his statement that “Behaviour is contagious- both good and bad”. She further emphasises that there are various reasons why learners may have time on their hands, but most of the reasons have to do with poor planning of the educator. The successful classroom manager always has one or more alternative plans.
Another important driving force behind all the school activities and also a preventive measure is learner motivation, which will be discussed in the following paragraph.

3.7.9 Learner Motivation as a management strategy

Motivation is derived from the Latin word “movere” meaning ‘to move’ (Luthans, 1992:146). It is the drive within an individual that incites him or her to action (Donaldson & Scannel, 1986:109). It is further the inspiration, the enthusiasm or the “oomph” that stirs an individual to perform. Woodridge and Manamela (1992:115) describe inspiration as elevation, enthusiasm and encouragement. It is a primary requirement in any teaching and learning situation (Doveton, et. al., 1991:19). It is therefore a powerful force behind learning. Motivated learners will seldom create problems.

Doveton, et al., (1991:16) emphasise the importance of educator attitudes in triggering interest and motivation. It is essential for educators to develop sound and positive attitudes in learners. Educators should show interest and respect for learners, not necessarily on the basis of their achievement but on the basis of human dignity.

Learner motivation naturally has to do with the learners' desire to participate in the learning process. It also, however, concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement or non-involvement in academic activities. Although learners may be equally motivated to perform a task, the sources of their motivation may differ.

A learner who is intrinsically motivated undertakes an activity "for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, the learning it permits, or the feelings of accomplishment it evokes". An extrinsically motivated learner performs in order to “obtain some reward or avoid some punishment external to the activity itself," such as grades, stickers, or teacher approval.

The term 'motivation to learn' has a slightly different meaning. It is defined by one author as "the meaningfulness, value, and benefits of academic tasks to
the learner – regardless of whether or not they are intrinsically interesting" (Marshall, 1987). It is important to note that motivation to learn is characterized by long-term, quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning.

**Which Factors Influence The Development Of Students' Motivation?**

Learner motivation is influenced by a number of factors. According to Brophy (1987, 66), motivation to learn is a competence acquired "through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers)."

Children's home environment shapes the initial constellation of attitudes they develop toward learning. When parents nurture their children's natural curiosity about the world by welcoming their questions, encouraging exploration, and familiarizing them with resources that can enlarge their world, they are giving their children the message that learning is worthwhile and frequently fun and satisfying.

When children are raised in a home that nurtures a sense of self-worth, competence, autonomy, and self-efficacy, they will be better equipped to accept the risks inherent in learning. Conversely, when children do not view themselves as basically competent and able, their freedom to engage in academically challenging pursuits and capacity to tolerate and cope with failure are greatly diminished.

Once children start school, they begin forming beliefs about their school-related successes and failures. The sources to which children attribute their successes (commonly effort, ability, luck, or level of task difficulty) and failures (often lack of ability or lack of effort) have important implications for their approach to and coping with learning situations.

The beliefs educators themselves have about teaching and learning and the nature of the expectations they hold for students also exert a powerful
influence. As Stipek (1988:134) notes, "To a very large degree, students expect to learn if their teachers expect them to learn." Schoolwide goals, policies, and procedures also interact with classroom climate and practices to affirm or alter learners’ increasingly complex learning-related attitudes and beliefs.

Although motivational histories for learners accompany them into each new classroom setting, it is essential for educators to view themselves as "active socialization agents capable of stimulating...student motivation to learn" (Brophy, 1986:84).

Classroom climate is important. If learners experience the classroom as a caring, supportive place where there is a sense of belonging and everyone is valued and respected, they will tend to participate more fully in the process of learning. Various task dimensions can also foster motivation to learn. Ideally, tasks should be challenging, but achievable. Relevance also promotes motivation, as does "contextualizing" learning, that is, helping students to see how skills can be applied in the real world. Tasks that involve "a moderate amount of discrepancy or incongruity" are beneficial because they stimulate students' curiosity, an intrinsic motivator.

Extrinsic rewards, on the other hand, should be used with caution, for they have the potential for decreasing existing intrinsic motivation. What takes place in the classroom is critical, but "the classroom is not an island". Depending on their degree of congruence with classroom goals and practices, schoolwide goals either dilute or enhance classroom efforts. To support motivation to learn, school-level policies and practices should stress "learning, task mastery, and effort rather than relative performance and competition (Martin & Midgley, 1991:415).

In literature, numerous motivational theories and research findings attempt to explain the behaviour-outcome relationship. The following are some of the theories that are mostly cited and discussed in relation to motivational theory.
Maslow’s motivational theory

Maslow proposed a hierarchy of human needs consisting of five levels, namely, physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, ego needs and self-fulfilment needs or self-actualisation needs (Sergiovanni & Starratt 1988:136). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:140) maintain that though the Maslow hierarchy contains five need levels, it is important to understand needs as falling into two categories, namely; lower and higher order needs. What is important is that lower order needs are crucial and should be satisfied before the higher order needs. The DSS challenges seem to be falling in the category of lower order needs. It is therefore important for both educators and learners to have these needs met before schools can think of performance or productivity.

Theories

To know what the term “discipline problem” means one has to venture into the field of ethics, especially the ethics of “right action”. Deigh (2005:286) distinguishes several theories with respect to deciding about what is right and wrong, good and bad. The first is intuitionism: according to this criterion, the fundamental principles of right and wrong are authoritative in virtue of being self-evident truths. This theory has, however, been discredited by the twentieth century tide of scepticism about claims of self-evidence. There is a special relationship between education on the one hand, and theories about morally good conduct on the other. If education does not wish to see itself as merely the practical conduct for expressing theories or ideologies about morally good or acceptable conduct, educators and educationists have to take a stance based on their pedagogical insight, about what should be regarded as acceptable or desirable conduct or behaviour to be promoted by means of pedagogical interventions.
What Can Be Done To Help Unmotivated Learners?

A first step is for educators to recognize that even when learners use strategies that are ultimately self-defeating (such as withholding effort, cheating, procrastination), their goal is actually to protect their sense of self-worth.

A process called attribution retraining, which involves modeling, socialization, and practice exercises, sometimes works to motivate discouraged learners. The goals of attribution retraining are to help learners to (1) concentrate on the tasks rather than becoming distracted by fear of failure; (2) respond to frustration by retracing their steps to find mistakes or figuring out alternative ways of approaching a problem instead of giving up; and (3) attribute their failures to insufficient effort, lack of information, or reliance on ineffective strategies rather than to lack of ability (Brophy, 1986:70).

Schools can also invite their old successful learners from higher institutions of learning to address their ex-school mates on the courses they are registered in and progress they are making. Motivational speakers from the workplace can be invited to address learners on the careers they would like to pursue.

The practical conduct for expressing theories or ideologies about morally good or acceptable conduct, educators and educationists have to take a stance based on their pedagogical insight, about what should be regarded as acceptable or desirable conduct or behaviour to promote by means of pedagogical interventions.

3.8 THE GIRLS AND BOYS TOWN EDUCATIONAL MODEL: A CASE STUDY

3.8.1 Background

The Girls and Boys Town Model is named after Boys and Girls Town in Nebraska in USA. It was launched in South Africa by Bishop Reginald
Orsmond. In 1996 Girls and Boys Town in South Africa established a relationship with Girls and Boys USA which resulted in the introduction and adaptation of several programmes to South African conditions and cultures.

A holistic ecological continuum of service options which impact on the healthy development of girls, boys, parents, educators, professionals and care-givers are offered. The central focus is on creating opportunities for youth to succeed and is particularly sensitive to working with boys, girls, families, professionals and communities who are less advantaged and in greatest need. It is regarded as the leader in helping “youth at risk” and has a record of success in turning behaviours of young people around.

It is currently operating eight projects namely, four Youth Development Centres and four Family Homes throughout the country. The hallmarks of these residential care programmes include a sound, effective, measurable and researched approach to working with challenging youth. The unique feature of the Youth Development Centres is the Peer Group (self-government) system which significantly involves youth in decision-making concerning their own affairs. Youth govern themselves under the guidance of adults.

There is clearly a need to provide formal programmes to equip educators for the challenges posed by learner behaviours at school. The Girls and Boys Town would significantly improve learning environments for learners as well as empowering educators. The researcher agrees with Kimberley, Salim and Tamar (2001:23) in their affirmation of the need for programmes that offer effective solutions that will increase the influence of values and morals within schools.

3.8.2 What does the model offer?

The model offers a comprehensive social skills curriculum and systematic, sequential teaching techniques along with practical classroom management strategies. It is firmly rooted in the principles of an applied behaviour analysis
and social learning theory. Its underlying premise is that behaviour is learned through feedback on behaviour and its environmental consequences (Connolly et al., 1995: 5). The focus is on teaching skills to young people who have social skills deficiencies and teaches them how to interact with others in a socially appropriate way.

A range of opportunities are offered to meet the needs and challenges of schools. This comprehensive and effective continuum of services allow educational staff the opportunity to access and benefit from the full range of services and workshops or selected aspects, according to their needs. Educators spend less time on correcting behaviour and that allows more time for academic teaching.

In addition to the above opportunities, the model has the following benefits: better relationships among learners, educators and administrators; positive learning environments and decrease in problematic behaviour; increased time spent on tasks; resolution of problems at classroom level; a consistent system with clear expectations and fewer office referrals.

In classrooms life skills are taught across the academic curriculum which enables the learners to stay on task, act responsibly and acquire skills to become good self-managers. Its main features are: a pro-active plan to decrease disruptive behaviours in the classroom; a curriculum for teaching self-management and self-control to learners; practical strategies to increase the likelihood of appropriate learner behaviour, role-play and the practice of activities that would assist in the development of skills.

3.8.3 Four elements designed for use within a school context

The focus is on teaching. The four components are Social skills Curriculum, Teaching interaction, Motivation systems and Administrative intervention.
Social skills curriculum offers a manageable set of sixteen social behaviour encompassing adult relations, peer relations, school rules and classroom behaviour. Through this set of skills, educators are assisted to go beyond merely labelling problem behaviours, which often hinder identifying specific alternative behaviours that should be promoted, reinforced, strengthened and taught.

Motivation system

Educators face different learners in the classroom. Some learners are motivated to learn without extrinsic rewards. However, learners with significant social skills deficits often lack motivation to learn and alter behaviour. Educators have to assist these learners through external measures that hopefully will later lead to the development of an internal desire to learn.

Administrative Intervention

This approach assumes that discipline is a process of training for correction or teaching alternative ways. It allows school managers to function as effective change agents in response to more serious or continuing school discipline problems. It includes a sequential set of instruction components including procedures for: de-escalating disruptive behaviour, teaching self-control, teaching alternative behaviour and preparing learners for classroom re-entry.

3.8.4 Dealing with disruptive or aggressive behaviour

The goal of the Girls and Boys Town Education Model is to build on each learners strengths and on remedial programmes. Educators take the approach that learners need to learn a wide variety of skills rather than viewing a disruptive or aggressive learner as delinquent or ungovernable. Most learners learn societal norms and appropriate behaviour and skills by observing and emulating positive role models available to them. Because these learners have much to learn and ‘unlearn’ in a relatively short time,
frequent, direct and skilful teaching is the key to success. Educators help learners learn new skills that are alternatives to past problems and to promote his or her normal developmental progress through adolescence. Disruptive learners are actively taught new ways of behaving and eventually each learner adapts to societal norms.

**Behavioural modification strategies**

This school of thought is based on the premise that a human being learns best when his behaviour is reinforced, often by reward or recognition. The approach is based on the common sense ideas that emerge when we thoughtfully observe behaviour and the motivations underlying behaviour. The following serve as the cornerstone of the approach: clear and consistent high expectations, clear and consistent consequences, positive reinforcement and modelling of good behaviour.

**Clear and consistent expectations** include rules. The development of clear rules and ensuring that learners understand the reasons for these rules provides a cornerstone of the behavioural approach. The development of rules should directly link to maintaining high expectations to learners. High expectation should lead to both improved behaviour as well as academic excellence. Learners are more likely to strive to meet expectations and abide by rules when they sense that educators truly believe in their potential for excellence and set rules that are consistent with this belief.

**Positive reinforcement**

Praise is a powerful tool for changing and improving the behaviour of the learners. It is crucial to the development of positive relationships between the educator and the learners and it strengthens appropriate behaviour. Positive reinforcement is used in two ways, namely good behaviour is positively reinforced or recognised while bad behaviour is prevented. An educator carefully observes the life cycle of bad behaviour and identifies issues that
trigger this behaviour. In this way the educator diverts bad behaviour early in its life cycle (Kimberley et al., 2001:29).

Consistent consequences

Once expectations are clear, it is important that there are clear consequences for misbehaviour and the consistent application of these consequences. Consequences help learners learn that their actions lead to results, both positive and negative. Learners learn that life is full of choices that may greatly influence what happens to them. When educators give effective consequences, learners learn successful ways to behave. Positive consequences include rewards and privileges that are used to encourage good behaviour. Negative consequences include removing privileges. A consequence has to be clearly delivered so that the learner understands exactly what the consequence is and how he or she earned it.

Role modelling good behaviour

Oosthuizen (1994:92) emphasizes the fact that an educator is a role model for his learners thus “his conduct should reflect a professional and exemplary lifestyle”. It is imperative for educators to model good behaviour. The importance of modelling good behaviour is rooted in the fact that learners learn from the role models around them. If educators model violence, learners are likely to learn violence. If frustration and intolerance is modelled by educators, learners will learn to express themselves with frustration and intolerance. When educators model compassion, patience and values, learners are likely to copy these behaviours (Balazi & Araujo, 2006:14).

3.8.5 Conclusion

A number of lessons for the effective management of discipline, safety and security can be learnt from the above model. These include the importance of norms and values in the education system. Van der Westhuizen, et al. (1991: 23) postulate that educational management is norm and value determined.
Certain values direct educational management and necessitate certain deeds, attitudes and actions. The principal’s management actions are interwoven with the interests of the parents, the state and the organised profession. It is therefore important that the leader’s values should be the same as those of the community which he or she serves. In addition it should be taken into account that the generally accepted values will exert a unique influence on the various community relationships. Schools are therefore easier influenced by these values than by those of the state.

Furthermore, educational leaders are equipped with their own set of values, received and developed through educative teaching and through their own interpretation and judgement. The implication of this is that SGB’s should choose educational leaders carefully, giving attention to the leader’s values before a recommendation for appointment by the department can be made (Van der Westhuizen, et al., 1991:130).

In addition to the significance of the value system, lessons can be learnt about discipline. Van der Westhuizen et al., (1991:223) maintain that discipline is a positive management action aimed at influencing a person. Discipline entails influencing the person to behave differently. They further emphasize the following requirements for disciplinary action: a person should know that action will be taken against him if he contravenes control measures; the action should be aimed at the contravention and not the person; the action should follow on the contravention as soon as possible; action should always be consequent and more importantly, the manner of enforcing discipline to be described in the policy. The model also stresses the significance of educators being good role models for learners they are entrusted with.

**3.9 SUMMARY**

The researcher has in this chapter investigated discipline, safety and security issues that are a challenge to schools. The Legislative framework and KZN provincial structures were clearly defined and discussed. Guidelines on intervention strategies for school management were provided for each DSS
challenge. Essential features of well-disciplined, safe and secure schools were identified and discussed as schools with Codes of Conduct, effective leadership, positive school culture and climate, effective communication and strong parental and community partnership.

Strategies for the effective management of DSS challenges were discussed as co-operative discipline, general behaviour management, developing resiliency in learners, developing high self-esteem in learners, conflict resolution skills, co-operative learning physical environment, time management and learner motivation.

The Girls and Boys Town Education model was discussed as a case study to assist in the management of DSS challenges in schools. Modelling good behaviour and positive reinforcement stand out to be effective modification strategies. These projects and programmes can be applied in the South African schools’ context to address the DSS challenges.

The road to a healthy and safe school takes with it change and willingness to co-operate from all stakeholders.

In the next chapter a discussion of the research instrument and empirical investigation will be given.
CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapters information on the management of discipline, safety and security (DSS) in our schools was conveyed by means of available and relevant literature. In order to determine the extent to which these findings manifest themselves in schools in the KZN province an empirical survey was necessary.

The research design thus focused on the following aspects:

- the purpose of quantitative research;
- the questionnaire as a research instrument;
- the pilot study;
- the population and the sampling procedure;
- a discussion of the questionnaire used by the researcher; and
- a discussion of the selected questions used by the researcher.

A brief discussion of the research design will now follow.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

All research studies, whether historical, descriptive or experimental, need a plan or general design to direct the inquiry about a problem question. According to Hopkins and Antes (1990:12) it is the master plan of inquiry. It is the overall structure and includes:

- background information, presentation of the question and hypothesis;
- building a theoretical framework;
- selection of subjects or other sources of facts;
• explanation of how facts will be collected;
• explanation of how data will be reduced to results; and
• explanation of how the results will be interpreted into conclusions.

Mertens (1998:70) describes research design as answering the question, who gets what, when? It includes decisions about how many groups to have and how many times to administer the dependant variable with an eye to controlling threats to validity.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:74) a research design is a plan or blueprint of how the researcher intends conducting the study. De Vos et al., (2002:138) further argue that this includes all decisions made in planning the study - sampling, sources, procedures for collecting data, measurement issues and data analysis plans. It is the structure of the investigation used to obtain evidence to answer research questions (Schumacher & Mc Millan, 1993:31). Gay (1990:76) further asserts that it is a guide for conducting the study. The rationale for a research design is to structure the research project in such a way that the validity of the results is maximized (Mouton, 1996:108).

The design of a study is therefore as described by Erlandson, Harris, Skipper and Allen (1993:66) an attempt by a researcher to give order to some set of phenomena so that it will make sense to the researcher and enabling the researcher to make sense to others.

For the purpose of this research the **quantitative approach** was adopted. The researcher opted for this approach because of its suitability for gathering information from a large sample of educators, representative of the larger population of KwaZulu-Natal, in both primary and secondary schools.
4.3 THE QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

Quantitative refers to any approach to data collection where the aim is to gather information that can be counted or measured in some form or another (Verma & Mallick, 1999:26). Quantitative measures seek to reduce data to numbers that represent a single criterion (Erlandson et al., 1993:38). Verma and Mallick (1999:26) assert that quantitative research is concerned with the acquisition and interpretation of data which can be presented in the form of discrete units that can be compared with other units by using statistical techniques. Mertens (1998:3) further, defines the quantitative method of research as a research that measures variables in a quantifiable way.

Borg, Gall and Gall (1993:194) provide further clarification by indicating that the purpose of quantitative research is to make objective descriptions of a limited set of phenomena and also to determine whether the phenomena can be controlled through certain interventions.

Since research design is governed by a notion of “fitness of purpose”, the purpose of research determines the methodology and design of the research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:73). Quantitative research is used to gather information about people’s attitudes, opinions, beliefs, demographics and behaviour. Information gathered from a sample of respondents can be generalized to a population.

The goal of research is to collect information that will examine a research problem or question. This goal is attained only if the research is conceived and executed in such a manner that the data collected are accurate and directly relevant to the question posed. The quantitative research method involves choosing subjects, and data collection techniques such as a questionnaire and procedures for gathering data (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993:157). This data
collection, in turn, enables a researcher to generalize the findings from a sample of responses to a larger population (Babbie, 1989:237; Creswell, 1994:117).

Another purpose of quantitative research is to describe the frequency, incidence, the distribution of the characteristics of an identified population and to explore relationships between variables (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993:279; Creswell, 1994:118).

In quantitative research, the investigator's goal is objectivity. The researchers keep their personal values, beliefs and biases from influencing the data collection and analysis process. The researcher therefore administers tests and other paper and pencil measures that involve minimal personal interaction between them and the research sample (Borg, et al., 1993:196).

The advantage of quantitative research is that the researcher has to carefully construct questions to be asked as he or she will not be able to lead or probe for further responses. However, the major disadvantage of quantitative research is that the researcher cannot verify the responses of the respondents. The questions are usually close-ended, requiring only one possible answer without asking for further information. The reason the researcher opted for a quantitative approach as the aim of the data collection is to confirm attitudes, opinions of existing situations and satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the current reality in the school environment pertaining to DSS.

Having discussed the quantitative research method, the researcher will now explain the research population.
4.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

4.4.1 The population

De Vos et al., (2002:198) define a population as a set of entities in which all the measurements of interest to the researcher are represented. It is a total set of elements from which the individuals of the study are chosen. A population is the totality of persons, events or sampling units with which the problem is concerned. Mouton (1996:134) further clarifies that the target population is the population to which one wishes to generalize. In this research the population was the educators of all primary and secondary schools in Kwa-Zulu Natal there are 80 979 educators in the province, of which 56 645 (69,9%) female and 24 334 (30,1%) male (DoE, 2005:20). The ratio male – female is thus 2.3. The sample was drawn from this target population.

4.4.2 The sample

The purpose of sampling is to gain information about a population (Gay, 1990:101). Sampling is the process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals represent the larger group from which they were selected. It is a subset of a larger population (De Vos, 2002:1999; Le Compte & Preissle, 1993:60). The selected individuals comprise a sample and the larger group is referred to as a population.

Malgas (2003:166) asserts that when planning the study, researchers must select a sample which will be representative of the target population. Researchers are in most cases not able to select from the entire population group. The accessible population is the group from which the study participants are actually selected. The sample, strictly speaking, includes only those who provided the data on which the findings and conclusions in the study are based,
thus sampling means a sub-aggregate or part of the population (Eichelberger, 1989:166).

A sample that has the same characteristics as the population as a whole (a representative sample) is very important for generalization. Such a sample permits inferences and generalizations from the sample to be applied to the entire population. (Hopkins & Antes, 1990:120). A further clarification is given by Krathwohl (1993:127) where he explains that “all possible samples of a given size have an equal opportunity of being selected”.

Simple random sampling is the basic method on which all other methods of probability are built (Krathwohl, 1993:127). Borg, et al., (1993:97), believe that simple random sampling is effective because it yields research data that can be generalized to a larger population within margins of random error that can be determined statistically. Simple random sampling means that each member of the sample has an equal and independent chance of being selected. A random sample can be chosen by assigning a number to every member of the population, using a table of random numbers and randomly selecting a row in the table. Another sample strategy could be to put all the names in a hat and pull them out at random (Mertens, 1998:259).

Because of the large size of the population, which is all educators in primary and secondary schools in Kwa-Zulu Natal, the researcher opted for a random sample of 500 educators in both primary and secondary in Kwa-Zulu Natal schools. Although DSS challenges manifest themselves in both primary and secondary schools, the schools mostly affected are the secondary schools, hence the inclusion of more secondary schools in this sample.

The researcher will attempt to obtain answers to questions posed to the respondents featuring in the sample. This is called data collection.
4.5 DATA COLLECTION

Knowledge is obtained from many sources, personal experiences, intuition, tradition, authorities and science. Of these only science and the reasoning authority routinely seek and survive testing and challenge (Krathwohl, 1993:50). Information about people and things is acquired through data collection. According to Mertens (1998:285) data collection is a vehicle through which researchers collect information to answer their research question and defend their conclusions and recommendations based on the findings from the research. Through data collection researchers are able to anchor what they wish to discuss in the empirical world.

Erlandson et al., (1993:39) argue that the researcher becomes the most significant instrument for data collection and analysis. The human instrument allows data to be collected and analyzed in an interactive process. Nxumalo (2001:118) further asserts that the focus of the interaction should be to maximize validity and minimize inconvenience to the respondent before, during and after the process. The researcher, therefore, has to strike a balance between the requirements of the research and those of the respondents. As soon as data is obtained, tentative meaning is applied to it.

Schumacher and McMillan (1993:223) state that different techniques for gathering data are used in quantitative research. A particular technique or instrument is chosen to fit the research design. For this particular research, the researcher opted to use the structured questionnaire as an instrument for data collection.

What follows is a discussion of the structured questionnaire as a research instrument. The researcher will explore the purpose of the questionnaire, the advantages and the basic principles underpinning a good questionnaire.
4.5.1 The structured questionnaire

De Vos et al., (2002:172) define a questionnaire as “a set of questions on a form which is completed by the respondent in respect of a research project”. The questions can be open or closed. Questionnaires are the most commonly used instruments (Borg et al., 1993:112).

The questionnaire is an often-used observational device for collecting personal data and opinions (Hopkins & Antes, 1990:258). It provides a way to collect personal information from subjects that may not be readily obtainable using other methods. Questionnaires provide structured responses and must be carefully developed, pilot-tested and revised to obtain valid data (Krathwohl, 1993:387).

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998:103) state that questionnaires are mainly paper and pencil methods of data collection. De Vaus (1996:80) posits that when using questionnaires, it is difficult to go back to respondents to collect additional information that one may later discover is desperately needed. It is therefore crucial to think ahead and anticipate what information will be needed and ensure that relevant questions are asked. Clear, unambiguous and useful questions must be asked. The wording of questions is therefore fundamental (De Vaus, 1996:83).

The questionnaire has certain advantages that were taken into consideration when it was selected as research instrument for this study, namely:

- cost considerations. Questionnaires can be hand-delivered to respondents and collected.
- questionnaires produce quick results, when it is not difficult to contact respondents.
it is a convenient method of collecting data. Respondents can collect and complete it in their own time.
there is great assurance of anonymity.
the questionnaire is ideal for a stable, consistent and uniform measure without variation.
a wider coverage of issues is possible through the questionnaire (Maraj, 2000:192).

In addition the following basic principles were taken into consideration when formulating the questionnaire:

- every question must contain one thought;
- every question has to be relevant to the purpose of the questionnaire;
- questions should be easy to tabulate and interpret;
- questions should be objective, with no leading suggestions;
- questions have to be clear and brief and the vocabulary should be understandable to the respondent;
- it should be attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly duplicated (Malgas, 2003:173; De Vos, 2002:176).

For the purpose of this research, a structured questionnaire was used. The researcher compiled fifty (50) closed-ended questions.

Section A:
This section aimed to establish the background of each of the respondents. Issues such as gender, age, qualifications, experience as educator are perceived to be important independent variables in the context of hypothesis testing.

Section B:
In this section the researcher opted to identify the perceptions of respondents on specific themes that emerged from the literature survey.

Section C:
In this section the researcher opted to identify the perceptions of respondents on management strategies as they crystallized for DSS.

Questions were formulated into a statement format, which would require the respondent to indicate their responses on an equal interval scale, as indicated below:

1= strongly disagree
2= disagree
3= partially disagree
4= partially agree
5= agree
6= strongly agree

The following representation describes how the questions were to be answered in the structured questionnaire:

**Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the each of the following statements using the six-point scale.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

In order to test the feasibility of the study, a pilot study was conducted. The discussion of the pilot study conducted will now be briefly discussed.
4.6 THE PILOT STUDY

Piloting the questionnaire is an important and critical stage. The pilot study is a research study conducted in advance and on a smaller scale to test the feasibility of the larger study. According to De Vos et al. (2002:211), the concept ‘pilot study’ is the process whereby the research design for a prospective study is tested. It is a small-scale trial run of all the aspects planned for use in the main inquiry. The pilot study can be viewed as the dress rehearsal of the main investigation. Mitchell and Jolley (in De Vos et al., 2002:211) add that a pilot study helps the researcher fine-tune the study for the main inquiry.

Vockell and Asher (1995:31) contend that pilot studies often enable researchers to refine clarity and try out their variables, measurement processes and other research strategies. In addition Babbie (1998:159) argues that no matter how carefully designed the questionnaire is, there is always the possibility of errors uninvitingly creeping in.

A pilot study serves the following purposes:

- to increase the reliability, validity and practicality of the questionnaire;
- to check the clarity of the questionnaire items;
- to eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording;
- to gain feedback on the type of questions and their format;
- to check the time taken to complete the questionnaire;
- to identify redundant questions; and
- to identify the commonly misunderstood or non-completed items (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:260).

To ensure that the phrasing of questions was correct and not offensive to potential respondents this questionnaire was subjected to a pilot study: It was
administered to twelve educators. The purpose of the exercise was explained and their co-operation and honest responses requested.

Aspects that were revised after the questionnaires were returned were:

- **the wording of some of the questions.** Some questions needed to be rephrased in order to be more meaningful.
- **interpretation of questions.** Respondents were required to indicate which questions were difficult to understand and respond to. These questions were then rephrased.
- **the coding of the answers could be verified,** while the time it took to complete these questions was then rephrased.

In general, piloting the questionnaire leads to revision and modification in order to improve the research instrument. After the pilot study the questionnaire was submitted to the Statistical Consulting Service (STATKON) at the University of Johannesburg for further evaluation and refinement.

### 4.7 ADMINISTERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The researcher had to obtain written permission from the Kwa-Zulu Natal Department of Education. Questionnaires were hand delivered to principals of schools in the four regions of this Province. These are eThekwini (Durban), Umgungundlovu (Pietermaritzburg), uKhahlamba (Ladysmith) and Zululand. Of the 500 questionnaires delivered, 428 were returned of which 426 were useable. This represents a good return rate of 85.6% and a useable rate of 85.2%. The useable questionnaires were then submitted to the Statistical Consultation Services of the University of Johannesburg for statistical processing and analysis.
The questionnaire consisted of 50 items which were divided into Sections B (forty questions) and C (ten questions).

4.7.1 Biographical details of respondents

In order to determine the representivity of the sample the following biographical details were asked from the respondents. These were gender, age, language of teaching, position in the school, mother tongue, school type, qualifications, area of school and average number of learners per class. The researcher used these details as independent variables.

To indicate how representative of the population the sample was, the above listed items will now be given in table form.

Table 4.1 Gender of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Education statistics in South Africa (DoE, 2005), KwaZulu-Natal has a total of 80 979, educators. 56 645 are female educators and 24 334 males. The above table indicates the representativity of the gender ratio of the sample, which is two (1.8) females to one (1) male which is sufficiently close to be representative of the gender position in the province which is 2.33 females : 1 male.

Table 4.2 Age of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Bracket</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29 years</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>8,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39 years</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>39,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49 years</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>36,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59 years</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>13,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-65 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One would assume that the age bracket of educators would have an impact in their handling of discipline, safety and security issues. The data from the above table indicates that the majority of educators are in the age bracket of 30-49 years. These are middle-aged educators with experience (76.5% of the sample) who should be more experienced in their dealing with disciplinary issues.

**Table 4.3  Position in this school**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S M T</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>36,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educator</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>63,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of educators in each school is dependent on the Provincial Provisioning Norm (PPN) allocation which is calculated on the number of learners that the school has. The School Management Team (SMT) consists of the Principal, Deputy principal and Heads of Departments (HODs). The greater the number of learners, the more SMT members and more educators the school is allocated. The number of Level one educators is always larger than the SMT number. For instance, it is not all the schools that have deputy principals and HODs. This is illustrated in the following table 4.3, where 63,1% of the sample is Level one educators. These educators deal directly with the disciplinary problems in their classrooms.
Table 4.4  Language of teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>75.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IsiZulu</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual medium</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallel medium</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To establish whether the language of teaching has any bearing on DSS issues in schools the following data on the language of teaching that schools use will now be illustrated. From the data in the following table one assumes 75.8% represents that the majority of the schools use English as the language of teaching, while most learners have IsiZulu as a mother tongue, as indicated in the table below.

Table 4.5  Mother tongue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IsiZulu</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ndebele</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Sotho</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Sotho</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiSwati</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tswana</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xhosa</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table indicates the mother tongue of the learners enrolled in these schools. In comparison to the previous table with the language of teaching it is important to note that most of the learners that receive instruction in English are not First Language speakers which might exacerbate the frustrations they already have.

**Table 4.6 School type**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table illustrates the type of schools included in this sample. Although the number of primary schools is more than that of secondary schools in the province, more DSS challenges manifest themselves in the secondary schools. Primary schools enrol learners aged 6 to 12 years. These learners are still young and should cause relatively few disciplinary challenges for educators. This however, does not exclude this group of educators from safety and security challenges. Serious behavioural and disciplinary challenges manifest themselves in the secondary schools, hence the inclusion of more secondary schools educators than primary school educators.

The area where the school is situated has a significant impact on the DSS challenges. This will now be discussed.

**Table 4.7 Area of school**
The above table indicates the different areas or communities that the schools are in. Most of the schools in the sample are in the rural areas. The 31,7 % of the urban, suburban and township combined have different DSS experiences from schools in the rural areas. The schools in the rural areas are faced with more DSS challenges which include child-headed families (where secondary school learners have to shoulder parental roles while they are also learners). In addition to their disadvantaged socio-economic status, these learners have more frustrations which enhance the spill of DSS challenges into the schools.

Educator qualifications should also have an impact on how the educators managed DSS challenges. The impact of the educator qualifications will now be discussed.

**Table 4.8  Highest qualifications**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below Matric</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s diploma/ certificate</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>46,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors degree</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>22,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>16,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The indication from the above table is that the professionally qualified educators (certificate or teaching diploma) are represented by 46.5 percent of the respondents, while 39.9% are in the possession of either a degree or a postgraduate qualification. One would assume that teacher with professional qualifications would be better equipped to deal with DSS challenges than the other qualification categories, by virtue of their training.

Another important variable in the discussion of discipline, safety and security issues is that of the size of the class, which will be the next to be briefly explained.

Table 4.9   Average number of learners per class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 +</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table the indication of 48.6 percent is that the majority of schools have class sizes of 41-50+. This should impact on the way educators handle DSS issues. Assuming that class size of 30:1 then 81.7% (between 31 and 50+ learners) indicates that the learner teacher ration in Kwa-zulu Natal is too high. The class size does have a significant impact on the intensity of the problem and the ability to cope with it. The smaller the size of the class the fewer discipline infractions will occur and the more effectively they can be dealt with.
The distribution tables below give an itemised overview of the frequencies and percentages of responses to Sections B and C of the questionnaire.

4. 7.2 Distribution of responses and percentages: Section B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1: Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>2: Disagree</th>
<th>3: Partially Disagree</th>
<th>4: Partially Agree</th>
<th>5: Agree</th>
<th>6: Strongly Agree</th>
<th>% Total</th>
<th>5&amp;6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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4.7.3 Distribution of responses, Section C

TABLE 4.11 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES AND PERCENTAGES
SECTION C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1 To no extent</th>
<th>2 To a small extent</th>
<th>3 Moderate extent</th>
<th>4 To a large extent</th>
<th>5 To a very large extent</th>
<th>Total No selecting 4&amp;5</th>
<th>% selecting 4 &amp; 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>17 4,7</td>
<td>32 7,5</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16,9</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>36,0</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>26 6,1</td>
<td>46 10,8</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>19,3</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>27,6</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A discussion on some selected items in Section B will now follow.

4.8 DISCUSSION OF SOME SELECTED ITEMS IN SECTION B

In the table below, there is a list of items from Section B of the questionnaire according to descending mean scores. The researcher has selected certain items in Table 4.12 for discussion, in order to clarify the essential aspects for managing DSS challenges in schools, as revealed by the survey.
Table 4.12: SELECTED ITEMS ASSOCIATED WITH ESSENTIAL ASPECTS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF DSS CHALLENGES IN SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>Rank Order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Effective discipline is essential for the safety and security for all inside the school</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B38</td>
<td>Effective communication can change behaviour</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td>A positive school culture will enhance the success of any DSS measure.</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>The Code of Conduct reflects the Constitutional democracy and human rights.</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B31</td>
<td>The majority of learners in this school come from poor socio-economic conditions/backgrounds.</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Disciplinary problems escalated after the prohibition of corporal punishment.</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td>Community ownership of the school will solve safety problems.</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B39</td>
<td>The School management team (SMT) supports the initiatives of the SGB.</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td>Parental involvement is crucial in combating DSS problems.</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td>The school climate has an impact on discipline in the school.</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>The Code of Conduct was adopted after a consultative process.</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td>All educators are always prepared for their lessons.</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>There is a Code of Conduct for learners in this school that is consistently implemented.</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td>They follow the Code of Conduct when the learner transgresses any rule.</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B25</td>
<td>In cases of misconduct they know exactly what to do.</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>Poor leadership and management result in the breakdown of discipline.</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B29</td>
<td>Bullying can result in fatal forms of violence.</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>The number of learners who are orphans has increased</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>I understand the concept of Co-operative discipline</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B36</td>
<td>This school community is well informed about the school.</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td>Time is used efficiently by educators at this school.</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B32</td>
<td>There are external factors that impact negatively on their safety.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>In this school there is a functional DSS committee.</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Question B1: Effective discipline is essential for the safety and security for all inside the school.

Some statistical data relevant to the above question is as follows:

- Mean score: 5.37
- Rank order: 1
- % of respondents who selected 5 or 6: 84%

From the above information the researcher concludes that the majority (84%) of the respondents are of the opinion that effective discipline is essential for the safety and security for all inside the school premises. The rank order of this item is also an indication of how strongly they feel about the safety of everyone within the school premises (see par 3.6.1 page 73).

Question B 38: Effective communication can change behaviour.

Statistical data relevant to the above question is:

- Mean score: 5.13
- Rank order: 2
- % of respondents who selected 5 or 6: 80%

Townsend (1994:96) asserts that communication is a critical factor for the development of the school ethos. It is further, a “linking mechanism” between the school, parents and community.
From the above statistical data it can be inferred that the majority (80%) of the respondents believe that effective communication can change behaviour. The implication is that learner misbehaviour can be corrected through effective communication. Effective communication is an important skill that must be mastered by educators and school managers. Communication can be oral and written. The educators have to effectively use the opportunity that they get with learners to communicate important values that are crucial in building responsible learners/adolescents that can grow to be responsible adults. This can, for example, be done in the assemblies where learners can be addressed about good values that are expected of them.

With such a large percentage of respondents agreeing, very strongly, the researcher concludes that effective communication can really mould learners to behave appropriately.

**Question B18:** A positive school culture will enhance the success of any DSS measure.

The following is the statistical data for the above statement:

- Mean score: 4.90
- Rank order: 4
- % of respondents who selected 5 or 6: 71.6%

The above statistical data indicates that a large number of respondents sampled in this study (71.6%), agree to strongly agree that a positive school culture is a strong factor that will enhance the success of any DSS measure. In a school with a negative school culture any DSS measure introduced will not be as effective as in a school with a positive school culture. The importance of a positive school culture, which binds members of the school together for a commonly shared
purpose, cannot be overemphasized. All the efforts towards the overall school performance can probably be met with great success where a positive school culture is present (see paragraph 3.6.2. p73).

Questions B4, B5 and B6 are interrelated and will therefore be discussed together.

Question B4: There is a Code of Conduct for learners in my school that is consistently implemented.

The following is a statistical data for the above question:

- Mean score: 4.72
- Rank order: 14
- % of respondents who selected 5 or 6: 67,1%

Question B4 had a mean score of 4.72 and was ranked 14 out of 24. It would appear that the respondents agree that there is a Code of Conduct in their schools and that the Code of Conduct is consistently implemented. With 67,1 percent of the respondents selecting 5 or 6 on the six-point scale, the responses reflect that most respondents confirm that the Code of Conduct is a useful and necessary policy document for dealing with issues of DSS in schools.

Question B5: The Code of Conduct was adopted after a consultative process.

The statistical data relevant to the question is as follows:

- Mean score: 4.73
- Rank order: 12
- % of respondents who selected 5 or 6: 69,9%
SASA (1996) maintains that the SGB must adopt the Code of Conduct after a consultative process. From the above statistical data it can be inferred that a high percentage of respondents agree (69.9%) that the Code of Conduct that exists in their schools was adopted after a consultative process. A consultative process includes the consultation of the learners (in Secondary schools) and parents. (see paragraph 3.2). It is about “ownership”, creating a common purpose and a positive school climate. It is, however, disturbing that 30.1% of the respondents indicate that the school did not make use of a consultative process in drafting the code of conduct. This could have implications for the DSS in the school.

**Question B6:** This Code of Conduct reflects the Constitutional democracy and human rights.

The following statistical data is relevant to Q B6:

- Mean score: 4.90
- Rank order: 4
- % of respondents who selected 5 or 6: 72.5%

The above mean score of 4.90 reflects that 72.5% of the respondents have the perception that the Learners’ Code of Conduct in their schools reflect the principles of democracy and respect for human rights as enshrined in the Constitution of South Africa.

**Question B31:** The majority of learners in our school come from poor socio-economic conditions.

The following statistical data is relevant to Q B31:

- Mean score: 4.89
This question had a mean score of 4.89 and a ranking order of 6 out of 24 on mean score. This indicates that a large percentage (72.8) of the respondents agree to strongly agree that the majority of the learners in these schools come from poor socio-economic backgrounds. As indicated in paragraph 2.4.8. p 46, learners often suffer from neglect and domestic violence.

**Question B 2:** Disciplinary problems escalated after the prohibition of corporal punishment.

The statistical data relevant to this question is as follows:

- Mean score: 4.84
- Rank order: 7
- % of respondents who selected 5 or 6: 68.0

A mean score of 4.84 and a ranking order of 7 out of 24 indicate a high percentage (68.0) of respondents agreeing with the statement. It would appear that most respondents believe that disciplinary problems escalated after the passing of the Schools Act which prohibited the use of corporal punishment in all South African public schools. In Bothlehadi Primary school in Evaton, this is how the Head of Department responded after twelve year old boys fought with a steel rod in a quarrel over money, “We notified the parents, but no one came. Educators are helpless when it comes to discipline. I do not think we should be using corporal punishment, but current methods are ineffective.” (McGregor, 2006:1) (see par. 2.4.2 p33).
Question B 22: Community ownership of the school will solve safety problems.

The statistical data relevant to this question is as follows:

- Mean score: 4.84
- Rank order: 7
- % of respondents who selected 5 or 6: 70, 0

A mean score of 4.84 was recorded while most respondents selecting 5 or 6 is an indication that the majority of respondents agree with the statement. From the above statement one can deduce that respondents feel strongly that the communities where schools are situated have a crucial role to play regarding discipline, safety and security.

Schools have to work hard to win the support of their communities. The school should be seen to be part of the community. Community members should feel welcome to contribute to school activities such as being involved in structures like the safety committees. The school could also make its facilities available to the community. For instance there is currently a campaign for a high level of literacy. In support of the campaign schools can become adult education centres to be used for adult literacy classes. In that way they can also feel ownership and a greater sense of caring for the school. The involvement of community members would ensure the safety of the resources of the school, whether physical or human. This would assist in inculcating a culture of ownership which could result in the minimisation of DSS challenges (See par.3.6.5 p79).

Question B 39: The School management team (SMT) supports the initiatives of the SGB
The statistical data of this question is as follows.

- Mean score: 4.83
- Rank order: 9
- % of respondents selecting 5 or 6: 70.2

The above information suggests that 70.2% of respondents selected 5 or 6 which means that there probably is good co-operation between the SMT and the SGB in their schools. With the mean score of 4.83, the same perception is emphasized. This augers well with the basic democratic principles, for the success of the schools depends on these two key bodies working co-operatively and in support of one another. While the SGB has to set policies, it relies on the SMT for the implementation of those policies. For instance, the Code of Conduct that the SGB has to draft must be managed and enforced by the SMT (see par. 3.7.1 p 83).

**Question B21: Parental involvement is crucial in combating DSS problems.**

The statistical data relevant to Q B 21:

- Mean score: 4.82
- Rank order: 10
- % of respondents selecting 5 or 6: 67.6

The data reveal that 67.6% of the respondents agree to strongly agree that the involvement of parents to be crucial in dealing with DSS in schools.

The role of parents in the management of DSS challenges is vital. The parent is the first teacher of discipline to the child even before the child goes to school. Educators expect that the learners they have in class have been taught the
basics of discipline, namely, rules, respect, values and general acceptable behaviour. The school has to add on to the value of the disciplinary foundation that has been laid by the parent. When the child goes to school, the involvement of the parent continues to be important. Through structures such as DSS committees the parents’ involvement can be utilized to combat DSS problems (See par.3.3 p 54).

**Question B19:** The school climate has an impact on discipline in the school.

The statistical data relevant to Q B19:

- Mean score: 4.81
- Rank order: 11
- % of respondents selecting 5 or 6: 67.8

The mean score of 4.81 reflects that respondents agree to strongly agree that the school climate is an important factor towards discipline in the school. Sixty-seven comma eight percent (67.8%) of respondents who selected 5 or 6 confirm the impact that the school climate has on the discipline of the school. From the above statistical data it could therefore be concluded that the respondents have the perception that the school climate directly impacts on the discipline of the school.

Leithwood, et al., (1992:39) identify *inter alia*, that a positive climate in schools is characterized by order and discipline and a feeling of safety among educators and learners. The school climate determines the atmosphere that prevails in the school (See par.3.6.3).
Question B 3: Poor leadership and management result in the breakdown of discipline.

The statistical data in respect of the above question is as follows:

- Mean score: 4.69
- Rank order: 17
- % of respondents selecting 5 or 6: 64.5

The above question had a mean score of 4.69 and was ranked 17 out of the 24 items. From the above responses it can be inferred that the respondents tend towards agreeing that leadership and management are crucial factors for good discipline in schools. If these are poor the result could be a breakdown in discipline. The SGB's and SMT's are responsible for good governance, leadership and management practices in schools. Discipline is one area that should be managed by these two structures. It therefore stands to reason that if the leadership and management practices are poor it can result in the breakdown of discipline. A high percentage (64.5), of respondents agree to strongly agree that poor leadership and management results in the breakdown in discipline (See par.3.6.1).

Having discussed selected items associated with essential aspects of DSS challenges, the next section will deal with the analysis of management strategies that can be implemented when dealing with DSS in schools.

4.9 DISCUSSION OF SOME SELECTED ITEMS IN SECTION C

Section C of the questionnaire consisted of ten (10) questions with the following five-point scale.
To what extent do you believe that the following DSS measures will succeed in maintaining discipline and safety in your school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To no extent</td>
<td>To a small extent</td>
<td>To a moderate extent</td>
<td>To a large extent</td>
<td>To a very large extent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was to investigate the extent to which certain management strategies pertaining to DSS are effective.

Table 4.13 gives an indication of the items associated with the management of DSS challenges in the school.

**Table 4.13: ITEMS ASSOCIATED WITH STRATEGIES TO MANAGE DSS CHALLENGES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>Rank order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>Effective leadership and management of schools.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>Instituting co-operative discipline.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10</td>
<td>Instilling conflict resolution skills in learners.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>Adoption of the learners’ Code of Conduct.</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>Equipping learners with skills that build resilience.</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Use of the school’s DSS committee action plans</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>Partnerships with other departments such as the SAPS</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8</td>
<td>Establishment of Cluster and District DSS</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9</td>
<td>Establishment of Provincial DSS committee.</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Question C6:** Effective leadership and management of schools.
The following is the statistical data relevant to Q C6:

- Mean score: 4.12
- Rank order: 1
- % of respondents selecting 4 or 5: 72.3

Effective leadership and management of schools appears to be a key factor in the perception of the stakeholders and also a crucial strategy in the management of the DSS challenges. The leadership and management of the school rests on the principal assisted by the SGB and the SMT. Nxumalo (2001:71) writes about the important skills that principals as leaders should have for the effective leadership of schools. These include skills to inspire, motivate, guide, influence and encourage both educators and learners.

The research confirms that strong leadership is an important contributing factor to the DSS challenges facing schools (See par. 3.6.2 p 74).

**Question C7: Instituting co-operative discipline.**

The statistical data relevant to Q C7 is as follows:

- Mean score: 4.10
- Rank order: 2
- % of respondents selecting 4 or 5: 73.9

From the above data it can be inferred that the majority (73.9%) respondents perceive cooperative discipline as the most powerful strategy to be implemented in order to curb DSS problems in schools. Ranked number two (2) out of ten items it also indicates that educators believe this strategy to be
a very important component of any strategy to manage DSS in schools. (See par 3. 7.1 p 83).

Question C10: Instilling conflict resolution skills in learners.

The above statement revealed the following statistical data:

- Mean score: 4.03
- Rank order: 3
- % of respondents selecting 4 or 5: 73.7

This particular item had a high percentage of respondents scoring a 4 or 5.

The majority of the respondents namely, seventy three comma seven (73, 7) are of the opinion that instilling conflict resolution skills in learners will help schools in managing the DSS challenges. The mean score of 4.03 also reflects this positive response. A number of DSS problems stem from the inability to control anger (See paragraph 3.7.5 p91).

Question C3: Equipping learners with skills that build resilience.

The statistical data of the above item is as follows:

- Mean score: 3.98
- Rank order: 5
- % of respondents who selected 4 or 5: 67.1

This item is ranked fifth with a mean score of 3.94. The majority namely, 67.1% of respondents who selected 4 or 5 believe to a large and very large extent that learners need to be equipped with skills that build resilience. In their journey to adulthood, learners need to be prepared to be strong and civil future citizens who
can live with other human beings harmoniously. Equipping the learners with skills that build resilience in such a manner could assist in curbing the DSS problems (See paragraph 3.7.3).

**Question C1: Use of the school’s DSS committee action plans.**

The statistical data of the above item is as follows:

- Mean score: 3.96
- Rank order: 6
- % of respondents who selected 4 or 5: 68.4

Strategic planning is an important skill for school management. If the DSS committees in different schools could sit down and plan for the specific DSS issues facing their schools and have specific actions to embark on, DSS problems can be “attacked head on”. What is important though is not to have beautiful plans on paper but to actually monitor and evaluate the plans (See paragraph 3.4).

**C5: Partnerships with other government departments such as the SAPS.**

The statistical data revealed the following:

- Mean score: 3.96
- Rank order: 7
- % of respondents who selected 4 or 5: 67.1

From the above data it can be inferred that respondents agree that the partnership with other departments is important and will assist in the management of DSS. The mean score of 3.91 and the percentage of respondents (67.1) who selected 4 and 5 on a five-point scale indicate that the
majority of respondents believe to a large extent that partnerships with other government departments could have an important contribution to the management of DSS in schools.

Although the Department of Education has this partnership on paper, the researcher’s observation is that the SAPS in other areas is not as co-operative with schools as they could be.

As C8 and C9 are related, they will be discussed together.

Question C8: Establishment of Cluster and District DSS committees.

The statistical data relevant to Q C8 is as follows:

- Mean score: 3.77
- Rank order: 8
- % of respondents who selected 4 or 5: 64.0

Question C9: Establishment of Provincial DSS committee.

The statistical data relevant to Q C9 is as follows:

- Mean score: 3.64
- Rank order: 9
- % of respondents selecting 4 or 5: 59.8

Question C8 had a mean score of 3.77 and a rank order of 8 out of 10 items. From this statistical data it appears that respondents do believe that the establishment of the DSS committees at these levels will have a contribution in the management of DSS in schools. 64% of respondents selected 4 and 5 which
is an indication that the majority of respondents are of the view that these committees will have a great contribution in the management of DSS in schools.

Question C9 had a mean score of 3.64 which means that respondents agree to a moderate extent that implementing this as a measure will assist in curbing the DSS challenges. From this data it can be inferred that the establishment of the DSS committee at the Provincial level will assist by attending to DSS issues that could not be solved at the lower levels of the DSS committees. However, the relatively low percentage of 59.8 percent suggest that there is still a lack of trust between schools and the provincial officials. The researcher is of the opinion that this suggests that every school is unique and the issues of DSS will differ between areas and communities.

4.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter a description of the empirical investigation which included the nature and purpose of quantitative research was provided. The pilot study and the research instrument, the questionnaire was discussed and the course of the research was briefly indicated.

The questionnaire was structured in such a way that respondents were expected to state the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements related to DSS challenges. The population and sampling procedure was discussed. Biographical information of respondents was provided in relevant Tables.

The challenges of DSS issues have been endorsed in this chapter, through the responses of the educators. Good leadership and management skills seem to be the required skills to meet the challenge. Principals and SGBs are required to put in place mechanisms and management strategies that can be used to improve the challenges of safety and security.
In the next chapter, which is Chapter 5, the following will be attended to:

- reliability and validity of the instrument:
- analysis and interpretation of data: and
- some aspects of the data from the statistical analysis will be examined and interpreted.
CHAPTER 5
THE ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF A SELECTED
SAMPLE OF EMPIRICAL DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter four the following aspects were discussed:

- the instrument of research which included the design of the questionnaire and a discussion of some of the items in the questionnaire related to the factors and;
- some of the data which entailed the respondents chosen, biographical data, the research group and the return of the questionnaire.

A copy of the questionnaire is contained in Appendix B of this thesis.

In this chapter the discussion will focus on the following:

- the validity and reliability of the research instrument;
- the comparison of two independent groups. This entails the formulation of hypotheses and analysis of data by means of univariate analysis and the use of Students’ t-test to indicate statistically significant differences between two independent groups;
- the comparison of three or more groups. This entails the formulation of hypotheses and analysis of data using multivariance analysis and a discussion of the significance of differences using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Scheffé or Dunnet T3 post-hoc tests; and
- a summary of the analysis.
5. 2 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The concepts of validity and reliability are multifaceted. There are many different types of reliability and validity. Threats to reliability and validity cannot be removed completely; rather, effects of these threats can be attenuated by attention to reliability and validity throughout the research. Reliability is a necessary but insufficient condition for validity in research, but it is important to note that it is a necessary pre-condition of validity (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:105).

5.2.1 Reliability

Reliability means dependability. It is a question of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same result each time (Gay, 1990:135; Babbie & Mouton 2001:119). Reliability refers to the consistency and accuracy with which a measuring instrument measures something - a reliable instrument will yield similar data from similar respondents over time. It further refers to the extent to which independent administration of the same instrument (or highly similar instrument) consistently yields the same (or similar) results under comparable conditions. More significant to reliability is how well the instrument measures (De Vos et al., 2002:168; Cohen et al., 2000:117).

Reliability is expressed numerically, usually as a coefficient. A high coefficient indicates high reliability. High reliability indicates minimum error variance (Gay, 1998:135). The more reliable a test is, the more confidence we can have that scores obtained from the administration of the test are essentially the same scores that would be obtained if the test was re-administered.

According to Mertens (1998:287) the extent to which measurement instruments are free from error indicates their reliability. The more reliable the measurement, the closer the researcher can arrive at a true estimate of the attribute addressed
by the measure. The purpose of the measurement is to get an accurate estimate of a particular attribute.

5.2.2 Validity

Validity is a requirement for both quantitative and qualitative research. For the purpose of this research validity will be perceived in a quantitative context.

According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2002:166), a valid measuring instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Although Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:105) agree with this explanation they go further and maintain that more recently validity has taken on more forms. Further, validity refers broadly to the degree to which an instrument "is doing what it is intended to do" (De Vos et al., 2002:166). This characteristic of a measurement process is not inherent in the process, as is reliability, but depends on the purpose the researcher has for the data and the way the data is used (Eilchelberger, 1989:117). Borg et al. (1993:120) believe that the validity of a test is of the utmost importance. A test is valid to the extent to which it lives up to the claims that the research has made for it.

An optimism of perfection would be to think that a research instrument is 100% valid. Quantitative research possesses a measure of standard error which is inbuilt and has to be acknowledged. Validity, therefore should be seen as a matter of degree rather than an absolute state (Van Zyl, 2000:54). The researcher therefore, at best, strives to minimise invalidity and maximise validity.

There are several kinds of validity, but for the purpose of this research only the following two types will be clarified:

5.2.2.1 Content validity: means a test that has content validity to the extent that its items represent the content that the test is designed to measure.
5.2.2.2 **Construct validity**: means a test has construct validity to the extent that it can be shown to measure a particular hypothetical construct (Borg et al, 1993:120). 

The construct validity of the measuring instrument used in this research was investigated by means of factor analytical procedures. Factor analysis is particularly useful as a tool to examine the validity of tests or to measure characteristics of attitude scales. Factor analysis is essentially a correlation technique that examines a large number of items and determines whether they cluster into smaller number of underlying factors. The principal objective of factor analysis is to construct a smaller number of variables (called factors) that do as good a job of conveying the information present in larger number of variables (Borg et al., 1993:269). Gall, Gall and Borg (1999:216) further clarify that factor analysis is used to reduce a large number of variables to a few factors by combining variables that are moderately or highly correlated with one another.

In the questionnaire eight (8) items were designed to elicit biographical information from the respondents. Ten (10) items were designed to extract school information. These eighteen (18) items formed Section A of the questionnaire. Section B of the questionnaire had forty (40) items to probe the perception of educators and those in the management positions (school based) as to the extent to which they agree or disagree with certain statements relative to the essential or key factors in the management of DSS challenges in schools. Section C of the questionnaire had ten (10) statements relative to the strategies to be implemented to manage DSS challenges.

The construct validity of the questionnaire was investigated by means of successive first and second order procedures. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity were used. The KMO measure is an index of comparing the magnitude of the
observed correlation coefficients to the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficients. A large KMO measure (>0.60) means that a factor analysis of the variables is a good idea, since correlation between pairs of variables can be explained by the other variables (Norusis, 2006:129). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.825 which is good. Bartlett’s test of sphericity (p = 0.000) was also significant. These procedures were performed using the SPSS 14.0 programme (Norusis, 2006).

Eleven first-order factors were produced explaining 60.34% of the variance. A second-order factor analytic procedure produced three factors that explained the same cumulative variance. The three factors, their names, their items and factor loadings are provided in Tables 5.1 to 5.3.

**TABLE 5.1: Factor FB1- Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools**

Factor FB1 had a Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient of 0.819 and contained 12 items.

**TABLE 5.2: Factor FB2- Fundamental structures to facilitate effective DSS management in schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description: The extent you agree or disagree</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b38</td>
<td>Effective communication can change behaviour</td>
<td>0.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parental involvement is crucial in combating discipline, safety and security problems</td>
<td>0.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b21</td>
<td>The school climate has an impact on discipline in the school</td>
<td>0.596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A positive school culture will enhance the success of any DSS measure</td>
<td>0.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b18</td>
<td>The SMT supports the initiative of the SGB</td>
<td>0.522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b22</td>
<td>Community ownership of the school will solve safety problems</td>
<td>0.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b40</td>
<td>The culture of teaching and learning exists in our school</td>
<td>0.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b29</td>
<td>Bullying can result in deadly forms of violence</td>
<td>0.489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effective discipline is essential for the safety and security for all inside the school</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b1</td>
<td>The Code of Conduct reflects the Constitutional democracy and Human Rights</td>
<td>0.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b6</td>
<td>Disciplinary problems escalated after the prohibition of corporal punishment</td>
<td>0.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b2</td>
<td>Poor leadership and management result in the breakdown in discipline</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Item | Description: The extent you agree or disagree | Loading
---|---|---
b28 | In our school parents cooperate very well with the school management | 0.614
b37 | There is cooperative understanding between educators, parents and learners | 0.612
b8 | Our school is well disciplined and safe | 0.59
b16 | All educators are always prepared for their lessons | 0.563
b36 | Our school community is well informed about the school | 0.56
b15 | Time is used efficiently by educators in our school | 0.499
b34 | The cooperation we receive from the SAPS makes us feel safe | 0.455
b5 | The Code of conduct was adopted after a consultative process | 0.448
b25 | In cases of serious misconduct we know exactly what to do | 0.442
b7 | In my school there is a functional DS &S committee | 0.424
b24 | We follow the Code of Conduct when the learners transgress any rule | 0.421
b4 | There is a Code of Conduct for learners in my school that is consistently implemented | 0.412
b17 | There is an HIV/AIDS policy in our school | 0.375
b26 | Suspension improves the conduct of the learner | 0.315
b23 | The RCL minimizes disciplinary problems | 0.281
b20 | I understand the concept of cooperative discipline | 0.228

Factor FB2 had a Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient of 0.811 and contained 16 items.

TABLE 5.3: Factor FB3- Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools

Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rb10</td>
<td>We do not have cases of learners found in possession of weapons or dangerous objects</td>
<td>0.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb11</td>
<td>We do not have cases of fighting in our school</td>
<td>0.662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb9</td>
<td>We do not have cases of substance abuse by learners while at school or on school trips</td>
<td>0.591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb13</td>
<td>There are no child-headed families in this community</td>
<td>0.586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb14</td>
<td>There are no cases of bullying in our school</td>
<td>0.527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b33</td>
<td>We have not had cases of break-ins of property in our school</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb35</td>
<td>I am not aware of cases of child abuse that have been reported in our school</td>
<td>0.417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb32</td>
<td>There are no external factors that impact negatively on our safety</td>
<td>0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb12</td>
<td>The number of learners who are orphans has not increased</td>
<td>0.367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb27</td>
<td>The regulation on learner expulsion does not help the school to maintain discipline</td>
<td>0.316</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of learners in our school do not come from poor socio-economic conditions. In our community parents do not believe in the use of corporal punishment.

Factor FB3 had a Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient of 0.766 and contained 12 items. It should be noted that the items in this factor all had to be reversed as they had negative factor loadings. They had a negative correlation with the other questions making up the factor. Hence a response of 5 or 6 (Agree or strongly agree) to these questions tend to be associated with a response of 1 or 2 (disagree strongly or disagree) on the other questions. These questions thus had to be rephrased to read the opposite of the original.

The data collected in Section C of the questionnaire was also subjected to two successive factor analytic procedures. The KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) of 0.868 and a Bartlett’s sphericity of 0.000 indicated that all items were suitable for the factor analytic procedure. Two first-order factors were produced explaining 54.84% of the variance. A second-order factor analytic procedure produced one factor that explained 73.10% of the variance. The name given, the items present in the factor and the factor loadings after reversal are provided in Table 4.4.

TABLE 5.4: Factor FC1 - Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description: To what extent do you believe that the following DSS measures will succeed in maintaining discipline and safety in your school?</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c4</td>
<td>Adoption of a learners' Code of Conduct</td>
<td>0.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c7</td>
<td>Cooperative discipline</td>
<td>0.698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c6</td>
<td>Effective leadership and management of school</td>
<td>0.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c5</td>
<td>Partnerships with other departments such as the SAPS</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c3</td>
<td>Equipping learners with skills that build resilience</td>
<td>0.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c10</td>
<td>Instilling conflict resolution skills in learners</td>
<td>0.633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c1</td>
<td>Use of the school's DSS Committee's plans</td>
<td>0.566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c9</td>
<td>Establishing of Provincial DSS committees</td>
<td>0.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c2</td>
<td>Display of safety signs in the school premises</td>
<td>0.464</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factor FC1 had a Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient of 0.850 and contained 10 items.

5.3 HYPOTHESES

A hypothesis is a supposition or a predicted relationship between variables. A procedure called hypothesis testing is used. Hypothesis testing follows a logical sequence of stages from proposing the hypothesis to deciding whether to accept or reject it. The statistical hypotheses evaluated in research are the null hypothesis (Ho) and the alternative hypothesis (Ha). A significance level is conventionally set at $p = 0.05$. If the probability is lower than the significance level the null hypothesis is not accepted and if higher, the null hypothesis is accepted (Hinton, 1995:38). Rejection of the null-hypothesis allows the researcher to evaluate the truth or falsity of the research hypothesis (Craft, 1990:102). This approach has an advantage in that it uses information in $p$-values within either the range of “significant” or non-significant results (Linn & Erickson, 1990:62).

Hypotheses based on the following independent variables were formulated:

- gender;
- age group;
- qualifications;
- class sizes;
- post levels.

Hypotheses for differences between two independent variables will now be discussed.
5.3.1 Comparison of two independent groups

To investigate possible significant differences in the factor mean scores of two independent groups we use Levene’s test for equality of variances. If the equality of variances has a p-value >0.05 then equal variances are assumed to identify the appropriate Student t-test p-value. If the equality of variance has p<0.05 then equal variance cannot be assumed when used to identify the appropriate Student t-test p-value (Grobler, 1992:111/112).

Possible differences between the groups with respect to gender will be the first to be discussed. To facilitate analysis of the data the hypotheses and significance of differences from Section B and C are provided in tables together.

5.3.1.1 The difference between the gender groups with respect to the dependent variable

TABLE 5.5: UNIVARIATE HYPOTHESES WITH GENDER AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Univariate</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Hot</td>
<td>There is statistically no significant difference between the factor mean score of male and female educators with respect to:</td>
<td>Student t-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differences</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.B1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.B2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.B3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HotC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There is a statistically significant difference between the factor mean scores of male and female educators with respect to:

**Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools**

**Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools**

**Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools**

**Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools**

### TABLE 5.6: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE GENDER GROUPS WITH RESPECT TO THE FOLLOWING FACTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean scores</th>
<th>Student t-test (p-value)</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FB1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5,0023</td>
<td>0,478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4,4030</td>
<td>0,160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,8900</td>
<td>0,637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3,9514</td>
<td>0,690</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FB1 Male (N=143)  Female (N=231)
The data from Table 5.6. indicates that there is statistically no significant difference between the factor mean scores of male and female educators with respect to the above factors. None of the null hypotheses (Ho) can therefore be rejected. This means that there is no significant difference at the univariate level between the perceptions of male and female educators regarding the following four factors, namely:

- Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools. Both male and female educators agree that this factor is essential for the management of DSS challenges.
- Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools. Both male and female educators agree that mechanisms are essential and should be put in place to combat DSS challenges.
- Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools. These are DSS issues that impact negatively on the schooling system.
- Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools. Both male and female educators agree that DSS strategies are essential to manage DSS challenges in schools.

Possible differences between the perceptions of educator age groups, regarding the four factors will now be discussed.
5.3.1.2 The difference between the age groups with regard to the dependent variables FB1 to FC1

**TABLE 5.7. UNIVARIATE HYPOTHESES WITH THE AGE GROUPS AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Univariate differences</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Hot</td>
<td>There is statistically no significant difference between the factor mean score of educators age with respect to:</td>
<td>Student t-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.FB1 Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.FB2 Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.FB3 Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hat</td>
<td>Hot.FC1 Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hat.B1 Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hat.B2 Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hat.B3 Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 5.8: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE AGE GROUPS WITH RESPECT TO THE FOLLOWING FACTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean scores</th>
<th>Student t-test (p-value)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FB1 Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>5,0119</td>
<td>0,232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>4,9235</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB2 Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>4,4801</td>
<td>0,672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>4,4494</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB3 Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2,8237</td>
<td>0,086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>2,9131</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FC1 Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3,9702</td>
<td>0,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>3,8889</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A = 20-39 years (N=189)  B = 40-69 years (N=184)

Table 5.8. indicates that there is statistically no significant difference between the factor mean scores of age with regard to the above three factors. Educators of ages 20 to 69 years all agree that the above four factors are essential for the combat of DSS challenges. The null hypothesis (Ho) can therefore not be rejected.
5.3.1.3  The difference between the educator post level groups with respect to dependent variable

TABLE 5.9: UNIVARIATE HYPOTHESES WITH POST LEVELS AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Univariate</td>
<td>Post level</td>
<td>Hot</td>
<td>There is statistically no significant difference between the factor mean scores of the educator post levels with respect to these factors:</td>
<td>Student t-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.B 1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot. B2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot. B3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot. C1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ha</td>
<td>There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the post levels of educators with respect to the following factors:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hat.B 1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hat. B2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hat. B3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 5.10: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EDUCATOR POST LEVEL GROUPS WITH RESPECT TO THE FOLLOWING FACTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>Student t-test (p-value)</th>
<th>n²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FB1 Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td>SMT</td>
<td>4.9063</td>
<td>0.231</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educator</td>
<td>5.0049</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB2 Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>SMT</td>
<td>4.2895</td>
<td>0.000 **</td>
<td>0.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educator</td>
<td>4.5665</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB3 Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>SMT</td>
<td>2.9626</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educator</td>
<td>2.8087</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FC1 Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td>SMT</td>
<td>3.9157</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educator</td>
<td>3.9407</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number for management (SMT) (N=136)
Number for educator (N=238)
* * statistically significant at 1% level (p<0.05)
From the above table 5.10, it can be seen that Hot.FB 1, Hot.FB 3 and Hot.FC1 can be accepted. Hot.FB2 cannot be accepted. It follows that there is a statistically significant difference between the perceptions of the educators and SMT members regarding the factor: Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools. However, it is small and explain only 3.6% of the variance. It is a point of interest to note that educators differed on their opinions regarding the same factor when age was used as an independent variable. This could be because the educators at management levels are generally of middle-age and older than the other educators.

**TABLE 5.11: UNIVARIATE HYPOTHESES WITH THE TWO SCHOOL TYPE GROUPS AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Univariate differences</td>
<td>School type</td>
<td>Ho</td>
<td>There is statistically no significant difference between the factor mean scores of the two school types with respect to these factors:</td>
<td>Student t-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.FB1: Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.FB2: Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.FB3: Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hot.FC1: Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ha</td>
<td>There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two school types with respect to the following factors:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 5.12: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TYPE OF SCHOOL GROUPS WITH RESPECT TO THE FOLLOWING FACTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>Student t-test (p-value)</th>
<th>n²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FB1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>5.0518</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>5.0603</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>4.5093</td>
<td>0.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>4.5188</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>2.6547</td>
<td>0.000 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>3.1330</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>4.0320</td>
<td>0.037 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>3.8542</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
** statistically significant at 1% level (p<0.05)
* statistically significant at 5% level (p>0.01 but p<0.05)

The data in table 5.12 indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the type of school groups with regard to factors FB1 and FB2. Irrespective of the type of school, both types agree to strongly agree that these factors are crucial in the management of DSS challenges in schools. Hot.FB1 and Hot.FB2 can therefore be accepted. Hot.FB3 and Hot.C1 cannot be accepted. There is a statistically significant difference between the two types of school groups regarding FB3 and FC1 (Environmental conditions that influences DSS and Effective DSS management strategies). Secondary school educators more than educators in the primary schools, believe to a large extent that the DSS management strategies when implemented will yield success. This could be attributed to the fact that the SASA (1996) provides for the inclusion of learner representatives in the governance of the school. School governors, including learners, parents and educators thus have the opportunity to form relationships of mutual trust and understanding so they can work as partners to the benefit of the school and learners (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:101)

In the next section the comparison of three or more independent groups will be discussed.

### 5.3.2 Comparisons of three or more independent groups

When three or more independent groups are compared then any differences at this univariate level can be contrasted by using ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to investigate which of the factors have a significant statistical difference with regard to their mean scores. Groups are then analysed pair-wise by means of either Scheffé or Dunnett T3 tests. If the homogeneity is more than 0.05 (p>0.05) then the Scheffé test is used to investigate possible differences between pairs. The Scheffé analysis is an additional analysis (a post-ANOVA) to determine the
correctness of the researcher’s prediction. Should the homogeneity be less than 0, 05 \((p<0, 05)\) then the Dunnett T3 test is used to investigate differences between the various pairs (Maleske, 1995:227).

Hypotheses will first be set for the three factors in Section B and the one in Section C. Then only possible statistically significant differences in the perceptions of the various independent groups will be provided.

**TABLE 5.13: UNIVARIATE HYPOTHESES WITH THE HIGHEST QUALIFICATION GROUPS AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Univariate</td>
<td>Highest educational qualifications</td>
<td>HoA</td>
<td>There is statistically no significant difference between the mean scores of the different qualification groups in respect of the four factors taken separately, namely:</td>
<td>ANOVA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HoA. FB1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td>Scheffé</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HoA. FB2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HoA. FB3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HoA. FC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HaA</td>
<td>There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the different qualification groups in respect of the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair-wise differences</td>
<td>Highest educational qualifications</td>
<td>Following factors taken separately:</td>
<td>Scheffé/Dunette T3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HaA.FB1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HaA. FB2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HaA.FB3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HaA.F C1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS</td>
<td>There is statistically no significant difference between mean scores of the highest qualification groups compared pair-wise in respect of the following factors:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS. FB1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS.FB2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS.FB3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS. FC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the different highest qualification groups compared pair-wise with respect to the following factors:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HaS. FB1</th>
<th>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HaS. FB2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HaS. B3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HaS. C1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3.2.1 Differences between the perceptions of respondents based on their highest educational qualifications regarding the four factors
TABLE 5.14: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS GROUP WITH RESPECT TO THE FOLLOWING FACTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Group mean score</th>
<th>Scheffé/Dunett T3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FB 1: Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>4.236</td>
<td>A ** **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>4.9469</td>
<td>B ** **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>5.2075</td>
<td>C ** **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB 2: Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>4.0534</td>
<td>A ** **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>4.5240</td>
<td>B ** **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>4.5119</td>
<td>C ** **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB 3: Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.1004</td>
<td>A * -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2.8029</td>
<td>B * -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2.8704</td>
<td>C - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FC 1: Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.4711</td>
<td>A ** **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>3.9038</td>
<td>B ** **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>4.1000</td>
<td>C ** **</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(TABLE 5.14: CONTINUED)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>n²</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FB1 Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td>0.071</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A = School type (N= 41)
B = Teachers’ Diploma (N= 198)
C = University Degree and post-graduate (N= 166)

* *statistically significant at 1% level (p<0,05)
* statistically significant at 5% level (p>0,01 but p<0,05)

Using table 5.14 the deduction can be made that there is a statistically significant difference between the three qualification groups A, B, and C in respect of all the four factors. The null-hypothesis HoA. FB1, HoA. FB2, HoA. FB3 and HoA. FC1 can therefore not be accepted and the alternative hypothesis HaA. FB1, HaA.FB2, HaA. FB3 and HaA. FC1 can be accepted.

Effect sizes:

The effect sizes for FB1 (15,2%) and FC1 (7,1%) are large in relation to the percentage of variance (Rosenthal et. al (2000:15), while for FB2 and FB3 the effect sizes are small to medium. The practical significance of the effect sizes for FB1 and FC1 clearly indicates a strong association between the factors pertaining to effective school management and the implementation of effective DSS strategies.
The next discussion will be an investigation of the effect of the class size groups in relation to the perception of educators with regard to the four factors explained.

### 5.3.2.2 Differences between the perceptions of respondents based on the class size regarding the following factors

#### TABLE 5.15: UNIVARIATE HYPOTHESES WITH THE FOUR CLASS SIZE GROUPS AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Univariate</td>
<td>Class size</td>
<td>HoA</td>
<td>There is statistically no significant difference between the mean scores of the different class sizes groups in respect of the four factors taken separately namely:</td>
<td>ANOVA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HoA.FB1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HoA.FB2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HoA.FB3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HoA.FC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HaA</td>
<td>There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the different class sizes in respect of the following factors taken separately:</td>
<td>Scheffé</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HaA.FB1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 5.16: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CLASS SIZE GROUPS WITH RESPECT TO THE FOLLOWING FACTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Group Mean score</th>
<th>ANOVA (p-value)</th>
<th>Scheffé / Dunett T3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HaA.FB 2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HaA.FB 3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HaA.FC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS</td>
<td>There is statistically no significant difference between the mean scores of the class sizes compared pair-wise in respect of the following factors:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS.FB1</td>
<td>Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS.FB2</td>
<td>Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS.FB3</td>
<td>Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoS.FC1</td>
<td>Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### FB1:
Aspects of effective DSS leadership and management in schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>4.8904</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>4.9438</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>5.1344</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>4.8361</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**A = 20 – 30 (N =54)**
**B = 31 - 40 (N = 120)**
**C = 41 – 50 (N =106)**
**D = 50+ (N = 89)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* statistically significant at 1% level (p<0,05)

From Table 5.12 it can be deduced from the average mean score of the class size groups that there is a statistically significant difference at the 5% level where p = 0.022 with respect to effective leadership and management skills. It is therefore statistically justified to reject HoA. FB1 and HoA. FC1 in favour of HaA FB1 and HaA. FC1. HoA.FB2 and HoA FB3 cannot be rejected since there are
significant differences with regard to class size group regarding the two factors. All groups regardless of the size of the class strongly agree that FB2, fundamental management structures to facilitate DSS in schools, should be generally applied if schools are to meet the challenges of DSS effectively.

With regard to pair-wise comparison it can be concluded that the educators in C (with a class size of 41 to 50) more than the other class size groups perceive fundamental aspects for effective leadership and management of DSS in schools (FB1), as crucial in the management of DSS challenges. This is similar for FC1, strategies to effectively facilitate the management of DSS in schools.

The question we now need to ask is, which of the variables will best predict the dependent variable.

### 5.4 MULTIPLE REGRESSION AS A MEANS OF INVESTIGATING THE BEST PREDICTORS OF DSS IN SCHOOLS

#### 5.4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this process one is attempting to determine which of the variables (predictors) are the best predictors of the dependent or outcome variable. The general equation can be presented in the form of:

\[ Y_i = (b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \ldots + b_nX_n) + \varepsilon_i \]

where \( Y \) is the outcome variable, \( b_1 \) is the coefficient of the first predictor \( (X_1) \), \( b_2 \) is the coefficient of the second predictor \( (X_2) \), \( b_n \) is the coefficient of the \( n^{th} \) predictor \( (X_n) \) and \( \varepsilon \) is the difference between the predicted and observed value of \( Y \) for the \( i^{th} \) participant (Field, 2005:157). In this particular case the researcher is investigating discipline, safety and security in schools. The factor analytic process of Section B that investigated the relevant aspects concerned with DSS revealed that three factors were latent and they were named:

- **Factor FB1.** Fundamental aspects of effective leadership and management of DSS in schools
- **Factor FB2.** Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools
• Factor FB3. Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools

Section C of the questionnaire asked questions about effective strategies related to DSS issues and a factor analytic procedure produced one factor that was named:

• Factor FC1. Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools

Using the fundamental aspects of management that encouraged effective DSS in schools (FB1) as outcome variable the researcher wanted to establish the best predictors. Thus FB2, FB3, FC1 and independent variables revealed by previous research, such as educational qualifications and teacher absenteeism were used as predictors.

5.4.2 Regression on fundamental aspects of management encouraging effective DSS in schools (FB1)

The stepwise multiple regression procedure (SPSS, 15.0) produced four viable models and the fourth had a R^2 value of 0.443 (r = 0.665); R^2 \bigtriangleup = 0.049; F (1,348) = 30.857; p=0.000; Durbin Watson = 1.77 (< 2 means that the errors are independent).

Furthermore the ANOVA for the fourth model produced was F (4,348) = 69.08; p=0.000. Substituting the appropriate values the multiple regression equation can be written as:

\[
\text{FB1} = \text{Constant} + b_1\text{FB2} + b_2\text{FB3} + b_3\text{FC1} + b_4 (A6)
\]

\[
\text{FB1} = 1.584 + 0.347 (\text{FB2}) - 0.027(\text{FB3}) + 0.339(\text{FC1}) + 0.251 (A16)
\]

Hence one can conclude that:

• there is a positive relationship between the predictors and the outcome (FB1) if the coefficients in the regression equation are positive (FB2, FC1 and A16)
there is a negative relationship between the predictors and the outcome (FB1) if the coefficients in the regression equation are negative (FB3).

Thus if the **management structures** that facilitate effective DSS management in schools (FB2) **improve** then the **fundamental aspects of DSS management (FB1)** will also increase. Also if the strategies to **successfully manage the DSS in schools (FC1)** increase so too will the outcome (FB1) increase. This makes practical sense because strategies are supposed to add to the fundamental management aspects to improve DSS in schools. The same is true of **educational qualifications**. Investigation of the post-hoc tests for the three highest educational qualification groups indicates a statistically significant difference between the respondents with a university degree and those with lower qualifications regarding FB1. Hence the presence of well qualified educators is an important aspect in the fundamental management aspects of effective DSS in schools.

However, as the **environmental conditions** that influence the management of effective DSS in schools (FB3) become larger so the **fundamental aspects that encourage effective management of DSS become smaller**. This finding is expected because the management of DSS in a school is related to the environmental conditions.

Investigation of the standardized Beta coefficients provides the following data:

- FB2 – β = 0.336; t (348) = 7.88; p = 0.000
- FB3 – β = -0.030; t (348) = 0.755; p = 0.451
- FC1 – β = 0.357; t (348) = 8.18; p = 0.000
- A6 – β = 0.230; t (348) = 5.56; p = 0.000

The larger the t-value and the smaller the p-value the **greater** is the contribution of that predictor for the model (Field, 2005: 193). For this model, strategies to successfully lead and manage DSS in schools (FC1), fundamental structure to
facilitate DSS (FB2) and educational qualifications (A6) are all significant predictors of fundamental aspects of management that encourage effective DSS in schools. Environmental conditions are not a significant predictor of the outcome FB1.

Regarding the standardized Beta-values, they indicate the number of standard deviations that the outcome will change as a result of one standard deviation change in the predictor (Field, 2005; 193). As the standardized Beta-values are all measured in standard deviation units they are directly comparable and thus they provide a better insight into the “importance” of the predictor in the model. From the beta values ($\beta$) listed above one can conclude that **the strategies to lead and manage DSS (FC1) are the most important factor in the management of DSS in schools (FB1), followed by fundamental management structures and educational qualifications. The environmental conditions are the least important and they have a negative impact on the management of DSS in schools.**

As the relationship between educational qualifications and the factors underlying DSS in schools appears to be important it would be helpful to display the various graphs of each factor versus the particular educational qualification group. These are displayed in figures 5.1 to 5.4.
Figure 5.1: Graph depicting the marginal means of FB1 versus educational qualifications
Figure 5.2:  Graph depicting the marginal means of FB2 versus educational qualifications

Figure 5.3:  Graph depicting the marginal means of FB3 versus educational qualifications
It appears that the graphs are revealing in the sense that regarding FB1, FB2 and FC there is an increase in factor means as the educational qualifications increase while the opposite is true concerning FB3. The well qualified teachers thus seem to have the perception that the environmental influences do not play such a dominant role in successfully managing the effectiveness of DSS as they believe that these measures influence this factor to a smaller extent than the less well qualified teachers believe this. The reasons for this are probably varied but it is possible that the well qualified teachers have a more "developed" locus of control and hence are not so inclined to search for factors outside themselves to ascertain blame to when it comes to the management discipline, safety and security in schools. This finding corroborates that of the multiple regression discussion.
5.5 SUMMARY
In this chapter analysis and interpretation of data was undertaken. The statistical analysis of the research was rationed to a comparison of two and three or more independent groups using Student t-test and ANOVA. The construct validity of Sections B and C of the structured questionnaire as a research instrument was investigated.

The factor analytic process of Section B that investigated the relevant aspects concerned with DSS revealed that three factors were latent and they were named:
- Factor FB1. Fundamental aspects of effective leadership and management of DSS in n schools
- Factor FB2. Fundamental management structures to facilitate effective DSS in schools
- Factor FB3. Environmental conditions that influence the management of effective DSS in schools

Section C of the questionnaire asked questions about effective strategies related to DSS issues and a factor analytic procedure produced one factor that was named:
- Factor FC1. Strategies to successfully manage DSS in schools

Using the fundamental aspects of management that encouraged effective DSS in schools (FB1) as outcome variable the researcher wanted to establish the best predictors. Thus FB2, FB3, FC1 and independent variables revealed by previous research, such as educational qualifications and teacher absenteeism were used as predictors.

5.6 SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS
Having analysed and interpreted the data in this chapter, in the next chapter a summary of the findings and recommendations of the research will be given.
CHAPTER 6
OVERVIEW, SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter five analysis and interpretation of the empirical data was done. The content and construct validity of the structured questionnaire as a research instrument was investigated.

Chapter six will provide an overview of information gathered in this research. On the basis of the data collected important findings will be presented, recommendations will be made and topics for further research will be suggested.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

Chapter one provided a general introduction and motivation for the study, and the challenges of discipline, safety and security were also introduced. A general background to DSS challenges was provided. The research problem and research aims were formulated and the research methodology was discussed. The focus of the research was clearly demarcated. The chapter was concluded by clarifying the concepts related to the research topic and outlining the division of chapters.

In Chapter two a literature review was undertaken in order to determine the essence of DSS challenges and the extent of the challenges. In an analysis of the global perspectives in South America, Australia, and Botswana it became clear that DSS was a worldwide phenomenon. The legislative framework and the constitutional background of school governance, the SGB as the statutory body and the importance of capacity building to ensure that this body functions effectively were important elements that were discussed. Further, KZN provincial
DSS structures and their roles were discussed. Specific DSS challenges such as bullying, violence, substance abuse, guns and weapons, gangsterism, child abuse, HIV/AIDS and child-headed families were discussed.

In Chapter three a discussion of possible intervention strategies which could be of assistance to the school management and the SGB in maintaining DSS in schools was done. General characteristics of well-disciplined and safe schools were discussed as functional Codes of Conduct for learners, effective leadership, a positive school culture and climate, strong parental and community partnerships and effective communication. The following were identified and discussed as strategies for managing DSS challenges in schools: co-operative discipline, behaviour management, developing resilience in learners, developing self-esteem in learners, establishing a process for conflict resolution, co-operative learning use of physical environment, time management and learner motivation. The Boys and Girls Town educational model was discussed and important discipline, safety and security lessons for all stakeholders were clearly identified.

In Chapter four a description of the empirical investigation which included the nature and purpose of quantitative research was provided. The pilot study and the research instrument, the questionnaire, were discussed and the course of the research was briefly indicated. The questionnaire was structured in such a way that respondents were expected to state the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements related to DSS challenges. The population and sampling procedure was discussed. Biographical information of respondents was provided in relevant tables. The construct validity of the questionnaire was investigated by means of successive first and second order procedures.

The first-order procedure performed for Section B resulted in eleven (11) first-order factors which were reduced to three using a second-order procedure, from which three factors were obtained namely, "Aspects of effective DSS leadership
and management in schools” with a Chronbach-Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.819, which consisted of twelve items; “Fundamental structures to facilitate effective DSS management in schools” with a Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.811 with sixteen items: “Environmental factors that influence the management of DSS in schools” with a Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.766 with twelve items. Section C consisting of ten (10) items was reduced to one factor that was named: “Strategies to effectively manage DSS in schools” with a Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.850.

In chapter five an analysis and interpretation of the empirical data as obtained from the questionnaire was provided. The validity and reliability of the structured questionnaire as research instrument used in this research was briefly discussed. Hypotheses were formulated. A comparison of two independent groups and three or more independents were done. The statistical significance of differences between all independent groups was tabulated and thereafter discussed in respect of the four factors involved Levene’s test for equality of variances was used to compare the mean scores of the factors involved in the management of DSS. The factor mean scores of the various independent groups were tabulated and the ANOVA for the analysis of variance was calculated and briefly discussed.

In chapter six an overview of the research will be provided. Important findings from both literature review and empirical investigation will be discussed. Recommendations will be made to improve the DSS situation in schools.
6.3 IMPORTANT FINDINGS

From the literature review, responses to the questionnaire and empirical analysis of data, the following findings were obtained.

FINDING 1

Discipline, safety and security in schools are a worldwide phenomenon, unrelated to the diversity of the population or historical background. Discipline in schools is a major challenge for school management. Since the banning of corporal punishment the problem has escalated in intensity and frequency. Effective discipline is essential for the restoration of order, safety and security in schools. No effective teaching and learning can take place without it.

FINDING 2

Schools with a positive school culture and climate are less challenged with regard to DSS issues. These schools are usually characterized by good disciplinary management strategies and have management teams that are well-versed in the techniques of resolving DSS issues.

FINDING 3

Societal factors have a negative influence on the discipline of the learners. DSS challenges mostly emanate from societal factors such as the changing family structures. The first disciplinarian in the life of the child should be the parent. As a result of societal factors some learners come from parentless homes. Children from these child-headed homes pose a problem to educators.
FINDING 4

There is a lack of maximal parental cooperation with the school with regard to
DSS issues. Parental involvement with a child and discipline are inseparable. A
healthy parental involvement includes the warmth and loving role of the parent as
a necessary first step in helping the child become more responsible to himself
and to others.

FINDING 5

Although DSS committees exist in schools, their functionality is questionable.
Respondents in this research strongly agreed that the existence of the structure
could be a powerful technique to manage DSS challenges, but there seems to be
a lack of trust in the provincial structures (Q.B9).

FINDING 6

There is an absence of skills, programmes and structures to empower educators
to teach learners appropriate skills and behaviours. The inclusion of the above
would improve learning and ensure the establishment of healthy and sound
educator-learner relationships which will inevitably decrease DSS problems.

FINDING 7

The fact that there are still traces of corporal punishment in some communities
and schools is an indication of the conflict in value systems and shows to a lack
of capacity on alternative methods of discipline. When schools implement
disciplinary programmes that are in conflict with the community values there is
bound to be frustrations.
FINDING 8

In secondary schools, participation of learners in the SGB is not carried out with efficiency. Although learners are elected, capacity building is not properly done. Their effective participation in decision making is therefore compromised. Through quality and relevant teaching learners’ rights can be secured by promoting effective approaches to their participation within the classroom, and by embedding citizenship in the learning environment and curriculum. This would make learners enjoy a positive environment which treats them with respect, and subsequently challenging behaviour can be significantly reduced.

FINDING 9

The empirical survey revealed that there are four important aspects or elements that must be prevalent in schools, if school governing bodies and school management teams are to deal effectively with the issues of DSS in schools, namely:

- Effective leadership and management of DSS in schools;
- Fundamental structures to facilitate the effective management of DSS in schools;
- Strategies to effectively manage DSS in schools; and
- Environmental conditions influencing the effective management of DSS in schools.

Using multiple regression as a means to investigate the best predictors of DSS in schools. It appears that regarding FB1, FB2 and FC there is an increase in factor means as the educational qualifications increase while the opposite is true concerning FB3. The well qualified teachers thus seem to have the perception that the environmental influences do not play such a dominant role in successfully managing the effectiveness of DSS. The reasons for this are...
probably varied but it is possible that the well qualified teachers have a more “developed” locus of control and hence are not so inclined to search for factors outside themselves to ascertain blame to when it comes to the management discipline, safety and security in schools.

The five (5) most significant aspects associated with the effective management of DSS challenges in the school, in rank order are listed in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects associated with the effective management of DSS in schools</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>% Resp</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effective discipline</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective communication</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A positive school culture</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>71.6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A code of conduct as the result of a consultative process</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The empirical survey also confirmed important findings from the literature review with regards to the implementation of specific DSS-strategies in order to meet DSS challenges in the school. The most important of these are:

- Instituting co-operative discipline as a strategy.
- Effective school management and leadership skills development.
- Instilling conflict resolution skills in learners.
- Equipping learners with skills that build resilience
- Partnerships with other government partners such as the SAPS.
- Effective use of DSS committees in school and district level.

Based on the outcomes of this research project the following recommendations are made to assist schools in meeting the challenges of DSS.
6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendation 1

Co-operative discipline is a powerful technique if well-understood and effectively implemented by the role players. Workshops on this DSS measure are what the schools need to understand and therefore effectively implement the measure.

Precautionary safety measures such as safe physical structures, fencing and security personnel are to be provided to all schools.

The RCL is an important structure which must be proactively engaged. To ensure its effectiveness, it therefore needs capacitating and involvement.

The Girls and Boys Town Model is recommended as a programme that would significantly empower educators and improve learning environments for learners.

Recommendation 2

The DSS committee should not only be in existence, but the functionality of the committee will make a difference. Its composition ensures the involvement of all the stakeholders which should assist the schools on DSS issues. Its proactive plans should prevent or minimize DSS issues. The functionality of this structure in schools should be monitored so that appropriate support can be given.

To ensure the restoration of order, safety and security for all, school management should have the relevant school policies in place and updated regularly.

Competency-based training must be provided for those communities which do not have the proven capacity to manage their schools effectively.
Recommendation 3

Parents should take their responsibility for the discipline of their children at home, as well as becoming involved in the activities of both the child and the school. This would help in inculcating correct family and societal values and thus enhance proper learner behaviour.

A healthy parental involvement with a child and discipline are inseparable. It includes parental warmth and love to the child and is a necessary first step in helping children become more responsible to themselves and to others.

Recommendation 4

Safety and security issues should be separated from internal disciplinary issues since they are not always related. The encroachment of external factors to schools need a wider societal approach.

A new spirit of mutual assistance must develop between schools in the same community. Schools must be willing to accept help from neighbouring schools and they should also ask for help. Successful strategies implemented regarding DSS to be shared among schools.

Community ownership of the school is a crucial factor regarding the safety for all in the school.

Recommendation 5

School management should ensure that there are formal mechanisms in place to allow learners to regularly share their views with class educators and other learners. The researcher is of the opinion that these mechanisms should allow
for consultation and participation on a range of issues, including the setting of priorities for the school development plan.

**Recommendation 6**

- The researcher is of the opinion that the DSS-management strategies and problem resolution techniques should be encapsulated in the relevant policies for effective school governance and behaviour management. The important aspects revealed by this study should be regarded as significant guidelines for the development of such policies.

**6.5 FURTHER RESEARCH**

From the analysis of data undertaken in this research, it appears that there is a need for further research on mechanisms to be adopted by school management in coping with DSS factors that affect schools negatively. Suggestions for further research are the following:

- Cooperative discipline as an alternative disciplinary strategy in the school
- The possible role of the RCL as a strategic partner in ethos building and school climate in the secondary school.
- A normative and values driven approach to the relationship between personal values and disciplinary strategies.

**6.6 CONCLUSION**

This research study has investigated the DSS issues affecting schools and management strategies to assist the school management and provincial departments of Education in dealing with the challenges. Discipline, safety and security in schools are a worldwide phenomenon, unrelated to the diversity of the
population or historical background. Discipline in schools is a major challenge for school management. The researcher is of the opinion that the DSS-management strategies and problem resolution techniques, revealed by the research project should be encapsulated in the relevant policies for effective school governance and behaviour management. The important aspects revealed by this study should be regarded as significant guidelines for the development of such policies.

This chapter has provided important findings from the data analysis undertaken for this research. Recommendations based on literature review and empirical investigation were given.

Although the research was conducted in a specifically demarcated area, the researcher is of the opinion that the management strategies for Discipline, Safety and Security (DSS), revealed by this study are universal in nature and globally applicable.

In the end effective DSS-measures are dependent on effective leadership and sound management structures, supported by clear directives and policy documents.

I believe that this study will serve to enhance the establishment and management of effective discipline, safety and security in schools.
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