

**THE ROLE OF SCHOOL MANAGERS IN MANAGING VIOLENCE IN HIGH
SCHOOLS: A SWAZILAND CASE STUDY.**

BY

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my late father (RIP) for his enthusiasm for life-long education and my loving, no-nonsense, supportive and hard working mother who instilled in me the quest to seek for education, knowledge and the passion for hard work. I will always cherish their love and support.

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SUMMARY.

Children are guaranteed the right to education by various domestic, regional and international laws. Basing on the daily media reports and the violence witnessed by the investigator during his teaching career, the researcher set out to investigate the role played by the school senior managers – hereafter School Management Team (SMT) in managing violence in Swaziland schools.

A qualitative multiple case study design was chosen to gather information pertaining to the perceptions on management of school violence by interviewing a principal, a deputy principal and a senior teacher in three schools. The legal obligation of educators' duty of care was used as a conceptual framework to guide the study. Document analysis was used to triangulate the interview findings. The data gathered was analysed in line with the accepted procedures for processing qualitative data.

The data revealed that 70% of the respondents indicated witnessing various forms of learner-directed violence in schools. All respondents cited corporal punishment as the most frequently observed form of punishment in addition to sexual harassment, bullying, gender-based violence (GBV), and fighting. Educators supervised learners in class and during school excursions. Basing on the study findings, the investigator concludes by suggesting possible recommendations.

Key Words: School violence, educators' duty of care, supervision of learners, laws safeguarding children rights, school safety, school rules and regulations, managing school violence, learners' rights, causes of school violence, manifestation of school violence.

Acronyms.

ACPF	African Child Policy Forum
CDC	Centre for Disease Control and Prevention
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child.
EDSEC	Education Sector
EFA	Education For All
FLAS	Family Life Association of Swaziland.
GBV	Gender-Based Violence.
ICCPR	International Convention on Civil and Political Rights
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoET	Ministry of Education and Training
NCIPC	National Centre for Injury and Control
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPA	National Plan Action
OBPP	Olweus Bullying Prevention Program
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PISSA	Programme for International Student Assessment
RSP	Royal Swaziland Police
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality
SADC	South African Development Community
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SASA	South African Schools Act
SMT	School Management Team
SNAT	Swaziland National Association of Teachers
SRSG	Special Representative of the Secretary General

SVAC	Swaziland Response to Violence Against Children
SWAGAA	Swaziland Action Group Against Abuse
TIMSS	Trends in Mathematics and Science Study
TSC	Teaching Service Commission
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation.
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WFCD	World Fit for Children
WHO	World Health Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1. OVERVIEW

This chapter gives an exegesis of the rationale, problem statement and the purpose of the study. It also elaborates on how the investigator went about collecting and analysing data. The researcher's point of departure is that no school is immune from violence since violence is a multifaceted societal phenomenon that affects both developed and developing countries. For the purposes of this research, school violence will be confined to; hidden, physical, psychological, and emotional violence that exists within the school environment.

1.2. BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

In addition to harming and traumatizing children, violence directed at learners violates their right to education. Without education, these children are, in future, likely to earn less or contribute less to the nation building. As Kassam and Bazam (2010: 5) have posited in their study based on 13 countries, "the total cost of violence in terms of foregone social benefits including productivity and tax revenues lost to government as a result of children not finishing their education, approximated to US \$ 60 billion in 2010". Instead of teaching learners a culture of "tolerance and respect", schools have become a place where learners are "exposed to violence or worse still a place where they are taught violence" (UNICEF, 2012: 4).

The Kingdom of Swaziland is a small land-locked country with an area of 17200 square kilometres and a total population of 1.231 million. Of the total population, 548 000 are children aged 0 to 18 years (UN Department for Economic and Social Affairs, 2012). There are 203 senior and 250 lower secondary schools with a total enrolment of 29142 learners in senior secondary schools and 5260 educators (Swaziland Government, 2011: 52, 74 & 92). Children (0–18 years) account for 54 percent of the total population while those aged(0–15 years) account for 44 percent. Of these numbers, 66 percent of the learners live below the poverty line which may put them at the risk of being sexually and/or physically abused ("National Policy on Children Including Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Swaziland", 2003). Having worked as

an educator in the Kingdom for a period of twenty years, the researcher has noted some violence related incidents in schools during that time.

Although educational institutions cannot solely be responsible for managing school violence, the school management team (SMT) under the guidance of the principal should take a leading role in championing a violent-free learning environment. This is contained in the “Swaziland Education and Training Policy Sector” (2011: 26), which states that “everyone in the Education Sector (EDSEC) has a responsibility to protect each other and particularly children including those with special educational needs and challenges from all forms of sexual abuse including harassment, sexual molestation, sexual exploitation and rape”. The EDSEC further acknowledges that “education is the panacea to most economic and social ills the world over”. School violence violates children’s the basic fundamental human right of education and attainment of “Education For All” (EFA); a global initiative set by the world conference on “Education For All” in 1990 in Jontein, Thailand, that tasked governments to “ensure that by 2015 all children should have access to free and compulsory good quality education” (“Dakar Framework for Action”, 2000: 2).

Consequently, if school violence is not properly managed, it may cost children their future by “keeping them poor and eventually preventing countries from developing” (“Learn without Fear”, 2010: 16). Since children and the youth under the age of 19 years make up 52 percent of the Swaziland population (Kingdom of Swaziland, 2012: 09), guaranteeing them education will not only empower them later in their lives but also will pave way to economic development of the country. While the UNICEF (2012: 01) recognises that Swaziland has made remarkable progress towards addressing issues of children violence, there are still some challenges in creating safer schools. As the world advances technologically, an educator is under severe public scrutiny and faces a mammoth task of making sure that children’ right to education and safe environment is guaranteed. This expectation disregards the fact that schools are faced with increasing external pressures including but not limited to drugs and gangsterism both of which encourage violent behaviour.

The right to education is a universal human right as underpinned in the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights article 26(1) (1948) and is also clearly provided for in the Constitution of the Kingdom of Swaziland Constitution (2005) (hereafter, the Constitution), in

subsection 29(6) which states that “Every Swazi child shall within three years of commencement of this Constitution have the right to free education in a public school at least up to the end of primary school, beginning with first grade”. In addition, for the right of education to be attained, the learning environment must be free from violence. The Constitution guards against school violence in subsection 18(1) and (2) where it states: “The dignity of every person is inviolable and that a person shall not be subjected to torture or to inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment and that the use of corporal punishment is prohibited”; and subsection 29(2) under the Rights of the Child, which states: “a child shall not be subjected to abuse or torture or other cruel, inhuman and degrading punishment subject to lawful and moderate chastisement for the purpose of correction”.

The right to education is also guaranteed by African Union and International charters and declarations. According to “UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, General comment No 1 (2001) article 29(1) on the aims of education, the education to which every child has a right to is designed to provide the child with life skills, to strengthen the child’s capacity to enjoy the full range of human rights and to promote a culture which is infused by appropriate human right values. The goal being to empower the child by developing his/her skills, learning and other capacities, human dignity, self-esteem and self-confidence”. The research recognizes that for the SMT to succeed in their role to manage school violence, they have to partner with every one that interacts with the child right from home, on their way to school and at school.

The following media reports give a picture about the situation of violence in Swaziland schools.

The sports educator at Malamlela High School in Northern Swaziland broke a child’s arm through severe physically assaulting (Ndlovu, Times of Swaziland, 05 March 2011).

In an incident that happened at Edoropeni High School in Southern Swaziland in 2011, an educator was viciously attacked by one of the victims while administering corporal punishment to a group of male students. (Maziya, Times of Swaziland, 25th March 2011).

At Mhlatane High School in Northern Swaziland, corporal punishment is institutionalized; educators administer as many strokes of the cane as they desire, in addition to kicking, slapping with open hands and fists (Dlamini, Times of Swaziland, 26th September 2011).

Two school girls aged 15 and 16 years fell pregnant and dropped out of school and the 15-year-old conceded that her boyfriend had been violent to her. In addition to missing their education, they were ostracized by the community and eventually ran away from home for fear of rebuke and punishment as they had been blamed for bunking school (Moahloli, Swazi News, and 24th August 2013).

At Ncabaneni High School, “Sicelo Dlamini a 22-year-old male marijuana addict, stormed into one of the classrooms wielding a spear and stabbed 13 learners. A 13-year-old girl died on the spot and the other children stoned Sicelo to death” (Times of Swaziland, 16th July 2009, in Agence France-Presse).

Girls at Mpopfu High School were flogged by educators on their bare flesh and when they resisted, they were chained down as the physical abuse continued. The Deputy Principal admitted to the abuse but argued “*we only administer the lawful three strokes but the only difference is that we use a pipe instead of a prescribed cane*” (Times of Swaziland, 22nd September 2011, in Agence France-Presse).

At Oslo High School, 35 children were viciously whipped after a cell-phone rang in class during a lesson. A group of educators took turns to physically assault each member of the class (Times of Swaziland, October, 2008, in Agence France-Presse).

A megalomaniac school principal in Swaziland was giving out public flogging to adult males who date girls from his school. The men were forced to line in front of the entire school, lie down on a bench and flogged together with their girl-friends (Weekend Observer, 19th February 2011, in Agence France-Presse).

A learner at Phonjwane High School stabbed an educator during a cultural dance excursion at Simunye. According Dlamini (Times of Swaziland, 30th June 2014), the learner who was not part of the performing group forcefully entered a bus that was hired for the participating learners and when requested to come out, he retaliated by stabbing an educator above the right eye.

However, as Jones (1994: 3) argues, school violence is neither an urban nor an exclusively public school problem. According to a recent study by “Swaziland Response to Violence Against

Children (hereafter SVAC) sponsored by UNICEF” (2012:2), approximately one in three females experiences some form of sexual violence as a child, one in four females experiences some form of physical violence as a child and nearly three in ten females experience emotional abuse as a child. The common forms of violence cited by SVAC were physical, sexual assault, psychological or emotional abuse, deprivation and neglect (UNICEF, 2012: 2). The study further states that this violence extends to young-adulthood particularly among 18 to 24 years old females (UNICEF, 2012: 2) and may occur at home, in schools, and on the way to and from school. A report on a nationally representative study in Swaziland based on 1292 young women, found that 17.4 percent of girls aged 13-17 were pulled out of school because of pregnancy, with 10.6 percent of the same age group having been forced to have sex or raped and 19.5 percent taking place at or on the way to school (Pereznieto, Harper, Clench and Coarasa, 2010: 10). While passing the bill on Sexual Offences and Domestic Violence (2009), the chairman of the Parliamentary Portfolio Committee on Justice and Member of Parliament Bheki Mkhonta conceded that “in a country with a high rate of abuse against women and children, members of parliament had every reason to pass the bill” (UNICEF Swaziland, 2011).

In another global report on Swaziland compiled by “Save the Children Sweden” (2005), it is indicated that 28 percent of children were hit with hand, and 59 percent physically assaulted with an object, an indication that school violence still exists in Swaziland schools. Surely, like the Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 1, 2001 in the Association for Protection of All Children (2011: 7) state, children do not lose their human rights by virtue of passing through the school gates. The Association for Protection of All Children (2011: 7) further states that corporal punishment breaches children’s right to protection, equality under the law, human dignity and physical integrity, and education. The SACMEQ (2012: 2) research evidence on school violence also confirms that: “sexual harassment between learners, bullying, fighting, classroom disturbance, and the use of abusive language by the pupils” are very common in SACMEQ countries of which Swaziland is a member. According to the report, both girls and boys have lower achievement levels in schools with high occurrence of school violence (SACMEQ, 2012: 2).

In a report by IRIN (2008: 1) “Swaziland Action Group Against Abuse” (SWAGAA), a NGO that provides assistance to abuse survivors in Swaziland estimates that 38 percent of children

might be abuse victims. It is quite disturbing that the report concluded that “violence and sexual assault against girls primarily took place at home and 75 percent of the perpetrators were known to the victim”. The report also further refers to sexual abuse of children by educators. From the nine-year-old Kunene’s illustration in UNICEF (2011: 1), the perils children face in order to be educated is disturbing as many are assaulted, robbed or raped on the long walk to and from school; and when at school attacks take place in toilets, empty classrooms and other isolated areas. These ground-breaking studies on the prevalence of child abuse paint a disturbing portrait of the state of Swaziland schools.

The preceding discussion illustrates that no school is safe and that violence affects youth between three and twenty two years in both urban and rural public schools. In addition, school violence is a global challenge. The incidences at Columbine High School in Colorado, USA in 1999 where two children went on a shooting rampage on school premises, killing 25 people (Arman, 2000: 220) and the recent cyber-bullying (violence via cell-phones and computer websites and other social networks) in USA that resulted in the death of a 12-year-old Florida girl Rebecca Ann Sedwick by committing suicide after being bullied online by more than a dozen girls (Pearce, 2013: 1) are testimony to the fact that school violence is a global problem.

In addition, United Nations Children’s Education Fund (UNICEF), Centre for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and Swaziland Action Group Against Abuse (SWAGAA) partners in a 2007 survey, reported that one-third of girls in Swaziland had experienced sexual violence prior to the age of 18 years (Together for Girls, 2013: 1). Considering that education is a fundamental human right in Swaziland, it is hard to imagine that teaching and learning can take place in such an environment full of intimidation and torture. However, the problem of violence against children is not unique to Swaziland alone. On the international scene, Pereznieto, Harper, Clench and Coarasa (2010: 11) posit that school violence continues to subject children to a painful and humiliating school life. Pereznieto *et al* (2010: 11) “estimate that globally each year, 150 girls and 73 million boys under the age of 18 are subjected to forced sexual intercourse or other forms of sexual violence and that between 20 and 60 percent of learners are verbally or physically bullied”. Furthermore, and more alarming is the fact that 90 countries have not yet abolished corporal punishment in schools despite that UN Committee of Human Rights having called for a universal ban (Pereznieto *et al*, page 11). Recent studies in “Swaziland Response to Violence

Against Children also indicate that violence against children and especially the girl-child is a significant public health and social problem” (Gulaid, 2012: 02). The studies state that one in three females experience some form of physical violence as a child, and nearly three in ten females experience emotional abuse as children. The studies further state that violence extends to young-adulthood; among 18 to 24 year old female girls, nearly two out of three had experienced some form of violence in their life time.

The reported incidents may only account for a small number of similar incidences of violence that take place in Swaziland high schools. The researcher is cognizant of the fact that adolescence is the most dangerous stage of life. During this stage, human beings try out all sorts of things of which some constitute violent behaviour (Quarles, 1993: 1). Quarles qualifies this by referring to the USA where juveniles/learners constitute approximately one third of all uniform index crimes against fellow learners (burglary, laceration, theft, motor-vehicle theft, arson, murder, manslaughter, rape, robbery and aggravated assault). This demands educators to act as *diligens paterfamilia* (like a reasonable, prudent and caring father) in guaranteeing children safety while at school or during school excursions.

The concept of school safety is very broad. For the purpose of this study, the researcher focused on the educators’ duty of care which according to Oosthuizen and Rossouw (2008: 81) is: “the civil legal liability of an educator, or a school, for patrimonial loss or the personal injury of children while at school”. This civil legal liability emanates from the fact that parents and guardians of children entrust their children to the care of educators during school hours not only for curricular purposes but also for taking care of their physical and mental well-being. Prinsloo (2005:9) posits that all educators under the supervision of the principal should ensure that cases of school violence are minimized. According to EDSEC policy (2011: 28), the Swaziland “Ministry of Education and Training” (MoET) acknowledges that “discipline has to be an important component of school life and advocates for positive discipline that helps children to take responsibility for good decisions and the understanding of why those decisions are in their best interest”. The policy further posits that the MoET advocates for a learner’s code of conduct with clear guidelines and rules for acceptable behaviour and support their adherence to these guidelines and rules. The mandate to enact a learners’ Code of Conduct sometimes referred to school rules and regulations is contained in The National Policy Statement on Education (1999)

section 12(3) which empowers schools to discipline children at school level in accordance with school regulations and existing laws of the country. The Code of Conduct for learners, which contains school rules, regulations, sanctions and disciplinary procedures (the rules of nature justice) should be enacted by representative of all stake holders (children, educators, SMT, and the parents' school committee) and clearly communicated to all children and consistently reinforced in an effort to eradicate violence in schools. The code of conduct should clearly state the different forms of school violence together with the disciplinary steps that will be taken against a child who is found to have committed such an act of violence.

While there is a lot of scholarly articles that show that the understanding of the burden of violence and its relationship with effective teaching and learning has increased globally, the literature has scanty evidence on how Swaziland high schools manage school violence. Although Swaziland has made remarkable progress towards addressing child violence by enacting laws that guard against perpetrators of child violence, a lot remains to be done to promote a violence-free-school society. In 2004, the MoET developed a hotline that allows children, parents and educators to report cases of violence in schools (Swaziland's Response to Violence Against Children (2012: 12). The Teaching Service Commission (TSC) set up an investigative department where such cases are reported. Per the TSC guidelines, case investigation is done in collaboration with Regional Education Offices and the Royal Swaziland Police (RSP).

Referring to the National Education Association in USA, Jones (1994: 12) states that 160 000 children skipped classes because they feared harm, aggressive and disruptive classroom behaviour which resulted in poor school achievement and peer relations. Then, when a child fails to achieve in school, he/she takes on antisocial behaviour. According to Jones (1994: 9), having few opportunities for upward mobility, and/or opportunities of earning a decent living, victims of violence turn to illegal activities like drug marketing and gang activities to mention a few. De Wet (2007: 673) also argues that "schools with high rates of crime and violence are less effective in educating children". In particular, these schools have lower levels of child achievement, higher rates of absenteeism, and more drop outs. De Wet (2007: 673) further warns, "Children who are picked on, made fun of, ostracized, harassed, generally shamed, humiliated and targeted by fellow children over a period of years may build up anger and hatred that finally explodes into physical violence".

1.3. Problem statement.

The preceding discussion convincingly points to the fact that the failure to take precautionary measures to protect children and/or lack of proper supervision of children is an important cause of violence in schools. The media reports and assertions by different NGOs confirm that Swaziland schools are unsafe and that violence directed at school-going children is rampant. Considering the impact of violence on children and educators as discussed above, no effective teaching and learning may take place in such a violence-ridden environment. The study views the school as a place where both the employees and children should work, teach and learn without ridicule, harassment, humiliation and violence. Apart from immediate physical danger, research has shown that exposure to violence, whether as a victim or witness of the violence, has a negative impact on the child's emotional, social and educational development. Moreover, this puts the child at risk of developing serious psychological syndromes such as chronic fear, trauma, and pain in addition to social dysfunction and health problems (Stevens *et al.*, 2001: 147 in Oosthuizen, 2008: 8; UNICEF, 2012: 04). The report further suggests that the academic performance of the affected students usually declines, their general well-being is affected, and that their confidence and capacity to develop open trusting relationships with others is compromised. Cox, Bynun & Davidson (2004: 134) in De Wet (2007: 673) and Stevens *et al* (2001: 148) in Oosthuizen (2008: 8) further posit that teaching and learning in an environment where violence occurs regularly leaves children and educators feeling distressed and anxious, with affected children experiencing a sense of impotence, helplessness, and constant threat to personal safety. Other consequences of school violence include trauma that over time changes a child's brain function thus leading to more complications like concentration and attention deficits, sleeping disorders, aggression and chronic fear.

According to Thro (2006: 66), the opportunity to pursue quality education is meaningless unless the child is able to do so in an environment that is both safe and secure. Thro (2006: 66) further contends that it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if he/she is denied the opportunity of an education. Therefore, the SMT has to take a leading role in championing the establishment of a violence-free environment. In their "*in loco parentis*" capacity and with the legal obligation of "*the duty of care towards children*" upon them,

educators are expected to protect children from all forms of violence in order for them to attain their educational full potential.

In this regard, the SMT as the top management body in the school has to play a supervisory role in making sure that educators carry out their duty in line with managing violence in the school by preventing it from happening and/or stopping the violence that already exists. The study recognises educators as the most important party in the quest to eradicate violence, hence without their full cooperation, all the mechanism put in place to manage this violence will be in vain. While educators have such an important role of minimizing and eradicating violence in schools, the media reports above indicate that in case of Swaziland, the same educators are often part of the problem – i.e. they are often the perpetrators of the violence (corporal punishment, sexual assault/harassment of young girls).

1.4. Rationale

According to Vithal and Jansen (2002) in Maree (2005: 15), the rationale serves as a statement of how the researcher developed an interest in a particular topic, and exactly why he/she believes his/her research is worth conducting.

Over the period of twenty years, the researcher has worked as an educator at different high schools in the country while at the same time also been a parent with school going children in Swaziland. During this time, he has witnessed, heard and read numerous media reports documenting violence directed at school-going children. This concern was corroborated by numerous media reports which indicate that incidents of corporal punishment, physical violence and sexual-based violence do exist in schools.

“Schools have two main goals, firstly to create an environment conducive to learning, and secondly, to ensure the safety of children and educators” (Gaustad, 1992: 1). “Legally it is a child’s right to study in a safe conducive environment so that learning and growth can take place. In addition, it is an educator’s responsibility to act in *in loco parentis* where it concerns the safety of children placed in their care by the parents”. As such, this requires schools to put measures in place to protect children from harm. Moreover, the law also expects educators to act as “*dilligens paterfamilae*” and “*reasonable persons*” while executing their day to day duties as educators. This is crucial because dealing with children requires a high degree of care and their

conduct as professional persons will be subject to more stringent tests (Beckman and Russo, 1998: 53). Therefore, the SMT must be abreast with all the expectations of educators regarding their duty of care obligation. The role of the SMT is to make sure that learners achieve their full inherent right of dignity and being educated in violence-free environment.

1.5. The purpose statement.

Since the research aims at exploring the roles SMT play in creating a violence-free school environment for children to attain their maximum learning capacities, the purpose of this research is to obtain an insight of the problem of school violence in Swaziland, analyse and describe the role of the SMT in managing high school violence in the country. The study will attempt to explore typical manifestations of school violence in Swaziland, its management by the SMT and how the latter espouses the exercising of the educators' duty of care towards children.

The schools are expected to serve the best interests of the children attending their institutions. Although, the mammoth task of eradicating violence from schools is a collective responsibility of all stake holders (the principal and the SMT, school governing body, teaching and non-teaching staff, children, the community, legislators, NGOs, Churches, media and the five ministries: Education and Training, Regional Development and Youth, Health and Social Welfare, Royal Swaziland Police Services, and Justice and Constitutional Affairs), as trained and experienced professionals under the commandant of the principal, the SMT members must be at the forefront of championing this goal. The educators' duty of care will be the underlying principle in this study. After exploring ways of managing school violence, the study will suggest guidelines and recommendations pertaining to the effective involvement of educators by SMT in exploring different roles the SMT plays in managing school violence.

1.6. Research questions.

Since this study explores the role of the school management team (SMT) in managing school-based violence, it begs a primary guiding question:

What is the role of the school management team in managing violence in Swaziland high schools?

From this question the following secondary research questions are derived:

- How does the SMT perceive their roles in managing violence in schools?

- How does the SMT empower educators in their roles of exercising the educators' duty of care towards children in schools?
- How do the prevailing laws impact on the SMT's roles of managing violence in schools?

1.7. Significance of the study.

As various media reports have confirmed, children are tortured and sexually harassed by their peers and on some occasions by educators. This is despite the fact that the latter are supposed to educate and protect the learners from harm. It is the function of the school to ensure maximum safety of the children in order to maintain a culture of teaching and learning. As a report by SACMEQ (2011: 02) warns, the recent dismal performance of African countries in child achievement tests like PISSA, TIMSS, PIRLS and SACMEQ has led many critics to argue that schooling which fails to produce learning is of limited value. While a number of researchers have studied school violence, there are no studies that specifically focus on the management of school violence in Swaziland high schools. Findings from this research will add to the existing understanding and management of violence in Swaziland high schools. As such, the research data will be of great interest to all stake-holders that on daily basis have to deal with school violence-related issues. The study will further explore the SMT's views on how the prevailing laws impact on their role of managing violence in schools and get their recommendations on managing this violence.

1.8. Conceptual framework.

As cited in Smyth (2004), Reichel & Ramey (1987) state that "a conceptual framework is a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of enquiry and used to structure a subsequent presentation, besides forming part of the agenda for negotiation to be scrutinized, tested, reviewed and reformed as a result of investigation" (Guba and Lincoln, 1989) in Smyth (2004). The principle of "*educator's duty of care towards learners*" will serve as a conceptual framework for this study. The common law principle of '*in loco parentis*' translated as "in place of the parent" obliges educators to act within the law to protect children as if they were their own (Smit, 2010: 6). Maithufi (1997:260-261) in Prinsloo (2005:9) refers to "two coextensive pillars to the '*in loco parentis*' role that educators play: the duty of care (which implies looking after the physical and mental wellbeing of children) and the duty to maintain order at a school" - which

implies educator's duty to discipline children. Educators are deemed to have failed in their role of duty of care for their students when there is a negligent conduct (Oosthuizen and Rossouw, 2008:84).

In terms of their duty of care, an educator is expected to act as "*diligens paterfamilia*" translated as "*like a reasonable, caring father*". Oosthuizen and Rossouw (2008: 85) further state that in addition to his didactic skills, the educator should act like a diligent father who is able to foresee danger and act pro-actively to prevent it. Consequently, educators who reasonably function within the ambits of law are able to avoid unnecessary law suits hence saving the state and themselves a lot of money in damages. Oosthuizen and Rossouw (2008: 97) further affirm that, basing on educators' professional training and experience on typical child behaviour, a high standard of care is expected of them since they are not subjected to the ordinary reasonable person test. They are better placed to know that due to the physical and mental immaturity of children, their lack of experience and typical childhood behaviour like impulsiveness should always be kept in mind.

Neethling, Potgieter and Visser (1992: 140) argue that the duty of care "does not refer to a general obligation: it is an obligation towards specific people or groups of people in the care of a specific educator". Thus, this study holds a view that all educators have a duty to protect children from any form of violence since the duty of care is a legal and moral obligation. As Oosthuizen and Rossouw (2008: 86) caution, an educator may through his/her unlawful conduct or wrongfully cause another person, such as a child, to suffer damages to his/her person (for example, his/her physical-mental integrity, honour, reputation, identity emotional feelings or privacy). When at fault by intent or negligence, the educator is held delictually liable and is dealt with in terms of the principles of the "*law of delict*", also known as the "*law of tort*". The educator may be charged for defamation, insult, invasion of privacy and negligence.

The educators' duty of care towards children became a focal point for understanding the art of managing school violence. The researcher used the concept to gather the perceptions of the SMTs on their role in guaranteeing children their right to education by making sure that educators perform as expected by law.

1.9. Research Design and Methodology

1.9.1. Research approach.

Since the study focused on the SMT's roles with regard to student-directed violence in Swaziland high schools, the study used a qualitative research approach. The latter is the type of educational research, in which "the investigator relies on the views of participants; asks broad, general questions; collects data consisting largely of words or texts from participants; describes and analyses these words or themes and conducts the inquiry in a subjective, biased manner, Creswell" (2008:46). This approach was the most appropriate for this study because the investigator needed to uncover, explore and describe the participants' perspectives on school violence in a subjective and contextualised manner.

1.9.2. Research paradigm.

The study used an interpretivist research paradigm to bring about awareness and understanding of the educators' duty of care towards children and how this is managed by the SMT. Unlike the positivist approach which leaves little room for interpretation, the interpretivist approach focuses on people's subjective experiences. The study will then make a meaning of data gathered by analysing their perceptions, attitudes, understanding, knowledge, values feelings and experiences in relation to educators' duty of care in managing high school violence.

The interpretive paradigm also helped the researcher recognize and interpret the nature of violence in schools without predicting or controlling the reality. It also enabled the researcher to get the views of the SMT concerning their roles in managing violence in schools. Since the SMT have a long experience in schools as teachers and managers, they were able to use their past experiences in explaining their roles as managers, and how educators view their management roles in schools. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 21), "an interpretive paradigm has a concern for the individual, and is used to understand the subjective world of human experience". The study intended to retain integrity of the phenomenon being investigated by getting inside the SMT and understanding from within through semi-structured interviews and document analysis. The researcher begun with individuals and during data analysis, set out to understand their interpretations of their roles in managing school violence. Therefore, theory emerged from the meanings that the researcher attached to the SMT views.

1.9.3. Research design.

The study took a qualitative approach and a case study design which according to (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 253) is a study of a single instance of a bounded system in action. The case study design was assisted by a desk-top research on materials available regarding managing violence in those schools. A case study design provided an in-depth exploration of a problem at hand and as Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 319) in Cohen *et al* (2007: 253) assert, it can be set in “a temporal, geographical, organizational, institutional and other contexts that enable boundaries to be drawn around the case and can be defined by participants’ roles and functions in the case”. Specifically, a multiple case study was used because it served to illuminate a particular issue or theme of each school (Creswell, 2008:476). The “case” here was the process of managing violence in each of the three selected high schools which formed a sequence of activities.

1.10. Participants and data collection.

Since the focus of the research was the role of the senior managers in managing violence in the three selected schools; an urban public school, a missionary-founded public school and a rural community public school. Three participants per school consisting of the principal, deputy principal and a senior educator were selected for this study.

Data was collected by conducting semi-structured interviews and documents analysis. According to Creswell (2008: 641), “in semi-structured interviews as opposed to the standardized open-ended interview format, the researcher asks one or more participants general, open-ended questions and record their answers using an interview protocol (a form designed by the researcher that contains instructions for the process of the interview, the questions to be asked, and the space to take notes on responses from the interviewee)” (see appendix A). The open-ended questions were flexible and allowed the researcher to probe and go into depth or clear up any misunderstandings; test the limits of the respondent’s knowledge; encourage cooperation; helped the researcher to establish rapport and to easily access what the respondent believed and this resulted in unexpected answers that assisted the researcher (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 357).

The interviews collected the views of the SMT on their understanding of educators’ duty of care as a legal imperative towards children’ safety, and their perceptions on successful approaches to

supervise educators in their role of managing violence in schools. Purposive sampling was used to select three schools with schools selected on the basis of their geographic proximity both to one another and to the locale of the researcher. The study schools are all located the city of Manzini – the hub of Swaziland. In addition the schools command a large population of learners. Falling under the same region gave the research a greater degree of comparison and generalization during data analysis.

The primary data collected through interviews was triangulated by reviewing existing secondary data which came from document analysis. Documents are public and private records that a qualitative researcher can obtain about a site or participants in a study (Creswell, 2008: 639).

Document used included:

- Learners' code of conduct and other policies on school violence.
- Minutes of previous disciplinary hearing meetings.
- An incident book or file where learners who commit offences are recorded– where they were available,
- Official memoranda to learners, staff members and parents on school violence.

1.11. Data analysis

This was done by analysing the detailed views of participants in the form of words and identifying emerging themes and patterns throughout the data. Creswell (2008: 244-246) suggests that the collected data should be transcribed by converting fieldnotes into text data, followed by organizing and categorizing. The data was then read several times in order to obtain sense of the material through identifying themes and patterns. Text segments were located and a code label assigned to them. The identified categories were then compared with existing knowledge on school violence from the literature. The process was iterative (cycling back and forth) between data collection and analysis.

The data analysis was organized by “analysis by individuals”. According to Cohen *et al* (2007: 467), this analysis “presents the total responses of a single participant and then the analysis moves on to the next individual”. Cohen *et al* (2007: 467) argues that this method of analysis preserves the “coherence and integrity of the individual’s response and enables the whole picture of that person to be presented”.

By using documents to triangulate the data, the researcher understood the nature of policies availed to educators, the nature of violence that exists, and the extent to which the SMT championed the legal obligation of “educators’ duty of care” – bearing in mind that every person in a school has a duty of care towards children. The documents further guided the study through corroborating the data collected through interviews.

1.12. Limitations.

The study of the role played by SMT in managing high school violence concentrated on only three schools around the city of Manzini. In each of these institutions, the principal, one deputy and one senior educator were interviewed. The choice of the schools and the use of purposive sampling of schools are discussed in detail in Chapter four. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to the whole Swaziland as it concentrated on one region around Manzini city. The study also does not take into account the effects of the social-economic conditions of the surrounding communities. However, the findings may be of significance to the existing problem of high school violence and the role schools’ SMT may play in ensuring that educators fulfil their legal obligation of educators’ duty of care towards children.

1.13. Conclusion.

This chapter briefly clarified the background of the study by discussing the methodology employed in this research. It directed the investigations by identifying the problem together with stating the rationale and purpose of the study. The principle of “educators’ duty of care towards children” as the conceptual framework was explored as guiding factor throughout the whole study. The research takes the form of an instrumental qualitative case study with the researcher employing an interpretive paradigm to analyse the data gathered through semi-structured interviews and relevant documents. In the following chapter on literature review, both domestic and international laws that impact on school violence will be examined together with the existing violence in Swaziland high schools and the various management ways available to SMT in their quest to guarantee children safety through the educators’ duty of care. The following chapter deals with the presentation of the literature review relevant to the study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF EXISTING DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE REGARDING SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND ITS MANAGEMENT.

2.1. Introduction.

This literature review addressed the role school senior management play in mitigation of violence in schools and focused on domestic, sub-regional (SADC), regional (Africa), and international legal instruments pertinent to the issue of violence in schools. Reference is made of both regional and international scenarios including the management of high school violence. According to Mouton (2006: 86), literature review is “the body of scholarship pertaining to a specific topic or field of interest” including a body of scholarship of all the research work that other scholars have written. Mouton (2006: 87) further posits that “by reviewing the existing literature, duplication of academic work is avoided”. Literature review provides the researcher an opportunity to synthesise the most widely accepted definitions and terms in the field undertaken.

2.2. What is school violence?

Although the study focuses on high school violence, the literature review delves into the subject of school violence as whole. The word violence derives from the Latin word “*vio*”, which means “*force*”. It is used interchangeably with aggression; while aggression is largely unprovoked, violence usually has a reason, for example to bring about harm or death (Anderson and Bushman, 2002: 29) in Crawage (2005:11). According to Miller (2003) cited in “Institute of Education Sciences” (2011: 2), “school violence encompasses events that occur on or near school property, on school buses, and at school-sponsored events”.

While school violence may be lethal, popular discourse on school violence includes all nature of intentional harm or discomfort inflicted on children, including incidents such as, school yard fights, bullying, physical attacks, verbal threats and drug abuse as well as less overt forms of violence against girls and women. For the purpose of this study, school violence is when an educator and/or learners intentionally/unintentionally harm learners (Van Der Westhuizen 2009: 46, De Wet, 2007: 677) or an exercise of power over others in school-related setting by some individual, agency, or social process (Hagan, 200: 5) in Crawage (2005).

According to Van Der Westhuizen's (2009: 46) study on violence in South Africa, children sometimes regard violence as the only way to solve issues and often model it on what they learn at home in this regard. Sometimes, this violence is perpetrated by educators who are unable to discipline children timely and effectively.

Van der Westhuizen (2009: 47) further posits that school violence is a global problem. He notes that in addition to the Columbine and Virginia Teknikom incidences in United States of America, school violence exists in other countries. In South Africa, the National School Violence Study of 2012 reported that in 2008, 22 percent of secondary school children surveyed had succumbed to some form of violence in 12 months preceding the study and in 2012 the number had slightly increase to 22.2 percent showing that the problem of school violence had not been addressed (Burton & Leoschut, 2013: xi). Despite all the awareness and effort that put in curbing school violence, it continued to increase. The SMT have to be aware that dealing with violence is an uphill task.

De Wet's (2007: 683) research on violence in Lesotho schools found out that some educators verbally, physically and sexually abused their children. The severity, with which educators administered corporal punishment emerged. However, educators were not the only perpetrators of violence. They were also sometimes victims; some of them were recipients of verbal and physical abuse from their learners. Gangsterism, drugs and alcohol among learners contribute to school violence by influencing learners to become violent. In a study of ten secondary schools in Durban, 90 percent of participating schools that suffered from severe violence acts , drugs and alcohol trade was often associated with gangs; hence, pervasive illegal drug and gang activities were closely related to school violence (Morrel, 1998: 220-222; SAHRC, 2007: 46) in Oosthuizen (2008: 27-28). SAHRC (2007: 47) defines "an illegal drug as any unlawful or stupefying substance". The availability of drugs in communities around the schools makes the fight against illegal drug abuse and violence in schools very difficult.

2.3. Manifestation of school violence.

The UN Study on Violence against Children (2001) in schools identified four main forms of school violence namely: "Bullying, sexual and gender-based violence, physical and psychological violence and violence that includes a dimension external to schools, including violence associated with gang culture, weapons and fighting". The expert meeting on stopping

violence in schools by UNESCO (2007: 12) observed that lack of statistics on school violence was a major obstacle when solving issues of violence in schools. The meeting further indicated that available statistics simply indicate that school violence does not exist, but the reality points to the contrary. The United States Department of State's Human Rights Report on Swaziland (2010: 1) reported that child abuse, including rape of children and incest, was a serious problem, but the crime was rarely reported; and when reported, the government rarely punished perpetrators of abuse; and when punished, the penalties seldom matched the crime. The report stated that many children became HIV positive as a result of rape, and that one in four children in the country experienced physical violence; approximately three in ten children had survived emotional abuse (2010: 1). The following section will give a brief literature review on each form of violence and how other countries have attempted to manage it.

2.3.1. Physical violence and injury.

The CRC (General Comment No. 8) refers "to physical violence as any punishment in which physical force is used with an intention to cause some degree of pain or discomfort" (CRC, 1991). This usually takes place when one or more individuals use physical means (bodily force or weapons) to cause intentional harm, or threaten such harm to the other side. The harm may range from a slap in the face or punch, broken bones, life-threatening injuries and even death. According UNICEF's SRSR Report on Violence against Children (2012: 10), "violence may be caused by fighting, physical assault and gang violence which may emerge within schools or represent the incursion of external violence into the school environment". The report further suggests that "gang violence in schools appears most prevalent in places where violence in the whole of the society is common and where gangs' availability of arms and drugs are part of the local culture". The literature indicates that there is a spill over of violence from the community to schools; hence, in solving the problem of school violence, the SMT has to go beyond the school gates.

The use of both weapons and drugs often plays a big role in violent behaviour and often leads to serious injuries or death. Borrowing from the South African Department of Education (1998), public schools should be dangerous object-free zones. It goes on to define a dangerous object as; "any explosive material or de vice or firearm or gas weapon or article, object or instrument which may be employed to cause bodily harm to a person, or render a person temporarily

paralysed or unconscious or cause damage to property”. The South African Schools Act (SASA) (1996) section 8A specifically states that no “person may bring a dangerous object or illegal drug into the school premises or have such object or drug in his /her possession on school premises or during any school activity”. The SASA further recommends that the principal or his/her delegate may at random search any group of children, or property of children, for dangerous object or illegal drug, if a fair and reasonable suspicion has been established. These articles empower the School Governing Bodies in South Africa to manage school violence by specifically guiding them on how to deal with illegal objects. The absence of any instrument in Swaziland to allow educators to search learners when suspected to be in dangerous weapon or illegal drugs makes it difficult to stop these unwanted substances from entering schools.

The UNESCO (2007: 12) handbook on stopping violence in schools notes that “physical violence, and corporal punishment in particular, neglects to teach children how to think critically, make sound moral judgments, cultivate inner control, and respond to life’s circumstances and frustrations in a non-violent way but instead teaches them to work as robots who have to submit to whatever they are told to do without questioning”. The handbook further alludes that such punishment shows children that “the use of force – be it verbal, physical or emotional is acceptable, especially when it is directed at younger, weaker individuals”. This lesson, perpetrates incidents of bullying and an overall culture of violence in schools as children who experience violence when young become violent later in their life time. That said, learners are not aware of the fact that rights come with responsibilities and that to behave in unexpected manner may cause a limitation to their inherent rights.

2.3.2. Verbal aggression and psychological violence.

Verbal aggression in school takes the form of “insults, humiliation or emotional blackmail while psychological violence is an umbrella term that encompasses bullying, harassment, victimization, abusive threats and intimidation” (SAHRC, 2008: 9). Psychological violence involves forms of cruel and degrading punishment that are not physical in nature (Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 8). SAHRC (2008: 10) further states that the “presence of psychological violence in schools is underestimated and receives less attention. Profiles of American children who were involved in gun violence at school had one thing in

common – a lack of belonging”. They were all intensely isolated and alienated (White *et al.*, 2001: 197 in Oosthuizen and De Waal (2008: 54). White *et al* (2001: 177) further argue that “the feeling of alienation, caused by rejection, humiliation, and a sense of hopelessness, motivates some children and youth to act out in revenge and to hurt others. By belonging, children need to connect with fellow children and educators and feel capable in some or other area, and be encouraged to develop the particular skill. Lack of belonging may lead to creation of “invisible kids”, and such children show a tendency of social withdrawal, a low interest in school and schoolwork, rejection and being pecked, intolerance to differences, uncontrolled anger, affiliation with gangs, serious threats of violence and expressions of violent feelings in their drawings and writings (Bucher, 2003: 162 in Oosthuizen and De Waal 2008: 55).

2.3.3. School bullying and peer victimisation.

School bullying and victimisation comprise of both physical and mental components and it takes different forms: student-to-student bullying, educator-to-student bullying and student-to-educator bullying. Bullying is “categorised as either sadistic or bully-victim, whereas a sadistic bully is a person with stable self-esteem and little anxiety who bullies with pleasure”, a bully-victim is a person who provokes bullying and then acts in a victimized way if he/she is attacked (Twemlow *et al*, 2004: 2). The different types of bullying common in schools include: physical, verbal, relational, emotional, psychological, sexual and gender related, racial and electronic bullying (Oosthuizen, 2008: 12).

Olweus (1994:9) defines bullying in a general way “as repeated negative, ill-intentioned behaviour by one or more children directed against a child who has difficulty defending himself/herself” and further argues that most bullying occurs “without any apparent provocation on the part of bullied child”. Maree (2005: 16) refers to bullying as “when someone keeps doing or saying things to have power over another person”. Whichever the form of manifestation, bullying compromises teaching.

Bullying constitutes violence because it is an aggressive behaviour or intentional “harm doing”, and it leaves the child feeling helpless and defenceless, leading to depression and anxiety; damages his/her self-esteem and may in severe cases may lead to suicide (Behr, 2000: 46, Du Plessis & Conley, 2007: 48-49) in Oosthuizen (2008: 10). De Wet (2007: 194) research on

bullying indicates that it can be either direct (e.g. verbal and physical aggression) or indirect (e.g. threats, insults, name-calling, spreading rumours, writing hurtful graffiti or encouraging others not to play with a particular child). According to The UN Study on Violence against Children (2006: 15), “the most common form of bullying is verbal which if left unchecked, often progresses to physical violence. The UN study (2006: 29) further states that bullying of sexual or gender-based nature is common in many schools and it is aimed at putting pressure on children to conform to cultural values and social attitudes, especially those that define perceived masculine or feminine roles”. The study further suggests that boys are more likely to engage in physical bullying while girls most often engage in verbal forms of harassment of their peers.

The UN Study (2006: 15) suggests that around half of all children involved in bullying are both victims and perpetrators. Consequently, educators, who experienced bullying when young, are more likely to bully learners and experience bullying by children both in and outside the classroom (Twemlow *et al*, 2004: 2, Olweus, 1992, UN, 2001). Researchers further argue that these educators carry on the cycle of bullying.

According to a research done in Lesotho, De Wet (2007: 193) found out that bullying appears to be less wide spread amongst old children and the form of bullying changed as age increased. While physical bullying was common amongst young children, verbal and psychological bullying became more common amongst older ones. Although bullying is blamed on “large class sizes, low ability children, behavioural problem children and minority youngsters”, the way educators act towards this violence is crucial. Twemlow *et al* (2004: 8) conclude that ‘when an educator is a bully, the entire work environment is needlessly made hostile and vulnerable children usually suffer significant trauma. In extreme situations, truancy among adolescents in Swaziland schools was attributed to bullying in addition to low grades and drug use (Siziya, Mulila and Rudatsikiri, 2007: 1).

Cyber bullying and sexting.

Cyber bullying is a special type of bullying that refers to “any behaviour performed through electronic or digital media by individuals or groups that repeatedly communicate hostile or aggressive messages intended to inflict harm or discomfort on others” (Tokunaga, 2010: 278). It takes place through emails, online chat lines, personal web pages, text messages and

transmission of images. The identity of the bully may or may not be known and this takes place at school or outside school mainly in areas that do not come under adult supervision. The SRSG report (2012: 6) notes that children around the world have embraced the new forms of technologies that offer opportunities to create new spaces for interaction and to develop new forms of socialization but unfortunately, “these technologies make children vulnerable to harassment and bullying in ways that are often difficult for adults” – educators, parents, caregivers and others to detect and respond to. Since cyber bullying can follow the child at home, it has far reaching effects. The safety of children is compromised by causing low self-esteem and high levels of depression and sometimes may lead to death like the story of a 13-year-old Megan Meier from Dardenne Prairie, Missouri, USA who committed suicide after being harassed by a mother of her former friend through social networking site (ABC News, 2007) in Tokunaga (2010: 277). The cyber-bully, a mother of the Megan’s former friend, created a false identity to correspond with and gain information about Morgan, which she later used to humiliate her for spreading rumours about her daughter. The other incidence involves Hannah Smith, a 14-year old Leicestershire girl in US who killed herself after enduring months of online bullying messages from her peers telling her to die (Jones, 19 August 2013). The sad part of this type of bullying is that it allows perpetrators to remain anonymous.

Sexting or ‘outing’ is a new form of cyber violence that involves the sending and receiving of nude or pornographic images via internet (Burton & Leoschut, 2013: 85). Burton and Leoschut (2013: 85) state that sexting becomes bullying when the consequences of failing to comply with requests for photos are used to torture the victims or when the photos are sent against the receiver’s wish. The photos may be used maliciously to hurt or sometimes to ‘get even’ with the victim following a relationship breakdown (Bronkhorst, 2014: 1). The results of the 2012 National School Violence Study in South Africa indicate that in total, 20.9 percent of the children in the country experienced online violence and the aggressors were, by large, friends of the victims who perpetrated the violence through “means of pictures or video clips, instant messaging platforms such as Mxit, BBM, WhatsApp or MSN/Yahoo and simple text messages” (Burton & Leoschut, 2013: 69).

2.3.4. Sexual violence and Gender-Based Violence (GBV).

Sexual violence.

The World Report on Violence and Health in UNICEF (2007: 7) defines sexual violence as “any sexual act, attempt to obtain sexual acts, unwanted comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work”. According to the CDC, sexual violence takes different forms, including sexual abuse, harassment, rape or exploitation and cuts across the whole world (CDC, 2011: 1). Child and Law Foundation (2001: 11) in Mitchell and Mathobi-Tapela (2004: 15) elaborates that “sexual abuse is committed if the child is not developed to fully comprehend sex matters or that violates the laws or social taboos of society”. The Child and Law Foundation (2007: 15) further states that the abuse may be explicit - when a person is touched, fondled, or looked at in a suggesting manner using body language or implicit – when the child is physically assaulted. According to the UNICEF report (2007: 7), “violence against female children is highly prevalent in Swaziland”. The report approximated one in three female children to have experienced some form of sexual violence as a child, one in four females (physical) and three in ten emotional.

As a UNICEF (2012: 64) states, children do not usually want to speak out and parents (most especially mothers) are often hesitant to report or to lay charges for fear of reprisals from neighbours and relatives. The UNICEF (2007: 64) further states that boyfriends and educators were cited as major offenders while female children indicated that “they never reported sexual violence because they were not aware that what they had experienced was tantamount to abuse”.

Unfortunately, the CDC publication (2011: 1) also showed that reporting of sexual violence incidents in school setting was also limited due to fear of being shamed, stigmatized, discriminated against or because they felt that they would not be believed or would face retaliation from their aggressors. In Swaziland, this used to be compounded by the culture that considered any post-pubescent girl eligible for marriage even if the girl is below the stipulated national legal age of sexual consent of as 18 years and above (the Children’s Protection Act was signed into law in 2012 to counteract this custom even though there is no current evidence showing that the culture has since stopped). In addition, the tendency of victims not-reporting

sexual violence and lack of knowledge of what is acceptable behaviour are additional challenges (IRIN, 2008: 1) for any intervention strategies.

“The global school-based child health survey in Swaziland showed that 33.2 percent of the respondents reported an incident of sexual violence before they reached 18 years of age; of these, 9.8 percent of girls aged 13 – 15 years and 21.1 percent for girls aged 16 years and older reported having been physically forced into sexual intercourse and 13 percent of secondary school children described their first sexual experience as involuntary” (Gulaid & Mthethwa, 2009: 1966). The survey (2009: 1966) further indicated that sexual violence not only traumatizes the victims, but it may also be associated with sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS, in addition to the risk of teenage pregnancies. The consequences of all these may prompt children to drop out of school.

Gender-Based Violence (GBV)

Gender-Based Violence refers to a concept that “involves a violation of human rights that result in all forms of violence based on gender relations” (Commonwealth secretariat, 2002: 44) in Dunne, Humphrey and Leach (2006: 80). It is a special type of sex violence that involves men and women, in which the female is usually the victim. GBV is derived from unequal relationships between men and women, stereotypes and society imposed roles (SRSG Report on Violence against Children, 2012: 7). The SRSG Report (2012: 7) noted that boys and girls are subjected to this violence differently: “Boys are generally more likely to be subjected to corporal punishment than girls, while the girls are harassed, taunted or even punished if they are seen to be behaving in an inappropriate manner that is perceived to be inconsistent with their assigned role in society”. The report laments that these harmful stereotypes that demean children because of their gender or their known or “suspected sexuality create environments in which children can be abused with impunity, including by adults in positions of trust and authority”.

Gender based violence is one of the most common forms of sexual violence in high schools which is more often than not directed at girls and is “motivated by the desire to intimidate, punish or humiliate them”, or by “sexual interest and bravado on the part of boys and men” (SRSG Report on Violence against Children, 2012: 7). The report paints a gloomy picture over sub-Saharan Africa where educators are also common perpetrators of GBV. These educators

promise higher grades or reduced fees or supplies in exchange for sex with girls. A study by SWAGAA, one of the organisations concerned with eradicating GBV and promoting human rights for all Swazi citizens found that out of 1200 girls and women aged 13 to 24 years experienced sexual violence as children (Gardsbane and Hlasthwayo, 2012: 4). The same authors report that more than half of these incidents were not reported because most of the victims did not know that sex violence was wrong. According to data available from a SWAGAA press release (March, 2014), 67 percent of sex abuse survivors were female and 71 percent of the perpetrators were male and mainly in relationship with the victims as fathers, boyfriend, ex-boyfriend, and uncles or men from neighbourhood (Bhembe: 2014)

Similar to the situation in Swaziland, the incidence of GBV in other Sub-Sahara African and Latin America countries is alarming and in particular cases of educators that abuse learners. In a UNICEF report by Laetitia (2010: 28), poorly paid educators in West and Central Africa sometimes see sexual favours as a form of compensation. In Uganda, on the other hand, studies by “Young People's Voices on HIV/AIDS Prevention Programmes in Schools - The Uganda HIV/AIDS Control Project” show that 8 percent of 16 and 17-year-old boys and girls had had sex with their educator and 12 percent with ancillary staff (Blaya and Debarbieux, 2008: 10). The UNICEF (2004: 44) states that some male teachers and older men in the community (often called ‘sugar daddies’) propose to girls for sex in exchange for money or gifts and in some instances educators give higher examination grades, extra tuition and other preferential treatments. Blaya and Debarbieux (2008: 10) further report that “high levels of sexual aggression from boys and teachers towards school girls are common in Ghana, Malawi and Zimbabwe and generally in sub-Saharan countries”. In Kenya, the report states that “71 teenage girls were raped by their classmates and 19 others were killed at a boarding school”. In Latin America, “the World Bank (2000) as cited in Blaya and Debarbieux (2008: 10)reports that in Ecuador, 22% of adolescent girls had been victims of sexual abuse within the school environment” Furthermore, a 1998 report by the South African Medical Research Council found that when rape victims named their attackers, 37 percent identified either a school educator or principal (Haber, 2007) in UNESCO (2007: 11).

Consequent to GBV, some girls fall pregnant and drop out of schools. As the Swaziland Ministry of Education and Training Annual Education Census Statistics (2011: 64 -87) indicates,

pregnancy is one of the major causes of school dropout along with absconding and lack of school fees. Notably, the report shows that both girls and boys are affected by pregnancy as some schools expel boy children who impregnate school girls. Further, “out of 2707 students who dropped out in Grade 8 to 10 in 2011, 496 girls and 142 boys were due to pregnancy” while in “Grade 11 to Grade 12, a total of 1039 dropped out of school and 260 girls and 68 boys were due to pregnancy”.

To exacerbate the situation, the CDC report (2011: 2) estimates that girls who are victims of sexual violence are “three times more likely to have an unwanted pregnancy, and that those under 15 years of age that are pregnant are five times more likely to die in childbirth than women aged 20 to 24 years of age”. The CDC report further states that most children who are victims of sexual violence are also at a risk of contracting HIV/AIDS and other sexual transmitted infections. The same report laments that even if these children do not immediately contract the sexually transmitted diseases, they are later on likely to contract infectious and chronic conditions since sexual violence alters their life paths, leading them down the road of depression, substance abuse and other high risky behaviours. Consequently, they lose out on their education prospects.

2.3.5. Corporal punishment.

Corporal or physical punishment is “any punishment in which physical force is used by someone in a position of authority against another person in his or her care with intention to cause some degree of pain or discomfort, however light” (Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 8, para. 11 and Plan, 2008: 14 hereafter referred to as “Committee”). In a school situation, corporal punishment involves the infliction of pain by the educator upon the body of the learner as penalty for doing something that has been disapproved of by the former (Marce (1995: 68) in Morrell (2001: 293). The Committee lists hitting (“smacking, slapping, and spanking) with the hand or with an implement – a whip, stick, belt, shoe, and wooden spoon as different forms of corporal punishment”. The Committee further states that corporal punishment may also involve kicking, shaking, or throwing children, scratching, pinching, biting, pulling hair or punching ears, forcing children to stay in “uncomfortable positions, burning, scalding, or forced ingestion (for example washing children’s mouth with soap or forcing them to swallow

hot spices”). The non-physical forms of corporal punishment include belittling, humiliating, denigrating, scapegoating, threatening, scaring, or ridiculing the child (Plan: 2008: 14).

Although the UN Secretary-General’s Study on Violence against Children (UNVAC) (2006) sections 26 and 50 has called on all countries to ban corporal punishment by 2009, 90 out of 197 countries legally permit educators to physically punish children in their care. Worse still most countries like China where corporal punishment is banned, the law is often not effectively enforced (Plan, 2008: 14). Holdstock (1990: 342) in Morrell warns that “hitting another human being, and especially someone younger, or smaller and utterly defenceless, constitutes a violent act. Some educators, parents, and children believe that “corporal punishment that is administered justly (with love)” is necessary and right (Morrell, 1990:293; Deacon, Morrell and Prinsloo, 1990 & Mkhize, 2000). However, an equally large number of parents condemn uncontrolled corporal punishment.

The CRC and the ACRWC (articles 11 and 20) confirm that human rights belong to children as they do to all people. These organisations denounce the “continuous assault of children in homes and schools. The Global Report by the Association for the Protection of All Children (2011: 02) cautions that “hitting children teaches them violence not peace, disrespect not respect, and conflict not resolution”.

However, the situation in Swaziland is unique; article 29(2) of the Constitution of Swaziland and the Swaziland Education Act (Swaziland Government, 1982) and the Education Rules (Swaziland Government, 1977) allow for lawful and moderate chastisement of children for purposes of correction at schools. Ironically, such “moderate” chastisement constitutes corporal punishment and contradicts existing international laws on children’ rights in schools. The Children’s Protection and Welfare Act (Swaziland, 2012) also does not prohibit the use of corporal punishment in Schools, but rather provides for “justifiable” discipline.

The controversy of banning corporal punishment in schools exists elsewhere. A classic example is in South Africa where in the 1980’s, a group of educators, parents and children created an organization, “Education Without Fear” to campaign for the end of corporal punishment in schools (Morrel 2002:294). When corporal punishment was eventually outlawed, another group of parents and educators, majority of them members of the organization called “Christian

Education South Africa (CESA)” challenged the new legislation in the court (Christian Education South Africa V Minister of Education, 2000) citing biblical verses of “spare the rod spoil the child” on the use of corporal punishment to discipline their children.

According to “The Global initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children (2011: 02)”, a 2005 nationwide survey of 2 366 Swazi children aged between 6-18 years revealed “high levels of corporal punishment in the home and school: 28 percent of the children reported having been hit by the hand, and 59 percent of the children indicated they had been hit with objects including sticks, canes, belts, “sjamboks”, and chalkboard dusters”. Other forms of punishment sited included physical labour or physical (and often humiliating) activities causing pain and discomfort. The SRSR Report on Violence against Children (2012: 9) notes that while there is clear trend to banning corporal punishment in schools, there is a fear that educators have not receive training in positive discipline strategies will resort to non-physical or psychological punishment.

2.3.6. Hidden and unreported forms of violence.

The UN Secretary General’s study on Violence against Children (2006: 9) suggests that a lot of children-directed violence remains unreported because many children are afraid to report violence while others fear to be blamed for the violence. Sercombe (2003: 28) in De Wet (2007: 676) also refers to “sarcasm in classrooms, ignoring children, getting rid of children, hounding a children until he/she is suspended, insulting, put-downs or spite and classifying a young person as a trouble maker or a no-hoper”, as all forms of hidden violence mostly committed by educators in their line of duty.

2.4. Conditions that contribute to school violence.

Although violent incidences may have their root causes outside the institutions of learning, the school principals together with their staff members must take all necessary precautions to prevent it. Schools can contribute to violence by reproducing existing external violence and/or actively perpetuating it themselves (UNESCO, 2007:10). Jones (1994: 04) suggests four broad causes of school violence namely: family-related issues, the media, hatred and phobia and poverty. According to Curcio and First (1993) as cited in Dean (1995: 2), when violence occurs in a school, the questions asked should border on whether: the school owns a policy on managing

weapons and aggressive behaviour, and children being aware of these policies; the school climate favours a non-violent environment; children are taught non-violent-conflict resolution strategies or whether educators have fulfilled their legal obligation relating to the duty of care for their learners.

Jones (1994: 12) identified “several major causes of increasing school violent behaviour”. He argues that attempting to address one while ignoring another is to risk failure altogether. He categorises school characteristics that may contribute to violence as “large classes, the design of the school buildings providing for hidden unsupervised places, forms of discipline that lead to behavioural routines and conformity rather than correction, rejection, resentment and inconsistencies in managing child discipline”.

In addition, research done by the CDC (2010: 3), indicated that individual, relationship, and community or societal risk factors play a role in increasing the risk of youth engaging in violence acts at school. The individual risk factors cited in the report include all those factors that hinge on a learner like “History of violence victimization; hyperactivity or learning disorders: undiagnosed Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD); association with delinquent peers; involvement in gangs; low IQ and poor academic performance; antisocial beliefs and attitudes; social resentment and rejection by peers and exposure to violence and conflict in family” (CDC, 2013: 3). The relationship risk factors include “Harsh, lax, or inconstant disciplinary practices; low parental involvement or neglect; parents’ abuse of alcohol and other drugs often resulting in physical abuse, sexual abuse, or neglect of children, which exposes them to abuse by others; low emotional attachment to parents or care givers; low parental education and income; poor family functioning (e.g. communication)” (CDC, 2010: 3).

According to Jones (1994: 10-13), Dean (1995: 1-2) and Van der Westhuizen (2009: 48), the Community/societal factors include: “Poverty, lack of jobs, perennial or permanent employment, lack or absence of adequate social services, and increased rich/poor divide”. Many countries have created a large and ever increasing underclass in society. With no hope of upward mobility and opportunity to earn a decent living, members of underclass have no option but to turn to illegal means of surviving. According to the Boston-based Child Witness to Violence Project of 1993 in Jones (1994: 13), children who witness violence “are likely to be developmentally

damaged – they cannot concentrate in school, they experience flashbacks in form of dreams and nightmares, they become more dependent on people around them”.

Jones (1994: 10), Dean (1995: 1-2) and Van der Westhuizen (2009: 48) argue that the hate motivated violence in our society which includes: racism, homophobia, anti-Semitism and sexism spill off to schools thereby fuelling school violence. Other community risk factors listed by CDC (2010: 3) include: “Sexist behaviour like rape, easy access to weapons, hatred, high level of transiency, high level of family disruption, low levels of community participation and socially disorganized neighbourhoods”.

2.5. The impact of violence on children.

According to CDC (2010: 1), “not all the adverse effects of violence are visible; the exposure of youth to school and other forms of violence can lead to a wide array of negative health outcomes including but not limited to depression, anxiety, and many other psychological problems like fear”. In addition, UNICEF (2001) argues that “beyond violating their fundamental rights, hitting a child causes pain, injury, humiliation, anxiety, anger and vindictiveness all which reinforce rebellion, resistance, revenge, resentment and long-term psychological effects”. The paper warns that corporal punishment should not be justified as a necessary strategy to create classroom discipline as it may cause children to dislike school because of fear. The aggressive and disruptive behaviour may also lead to poor performance and antisocial behaviour. Jones (1994: 11) also posits that “children do not need to be physically hurt to be victims of violence. Witnessing violence can also be devastating”. Children may “develop mental damage, experience flashbacks in form of dreams and nightmares, fail to concentrate at school, and show increase tendency to commit crimes” (Jones, 1994: 13). Like children, educators that frequently witness violence among children also feel isolated (UNESCO, 2007: 12). In the case of GBV, not only do the male educators’ sexual advances towards female bleach the trust learners entrust in educators but also makes the educators bad role model to the male learners” UNICEF report (2002: 44). Other consequences of violence in school children include: “psychosomatic symptoms like stomach ache or headache, feelings isolation, reluctance to attend school, feelings of depression including suicidal tendencies, and impaired relationships with their parents”. (De Wet, 2005; Prinsloo and Naser, 2007a) in Van der Westhuizen (2009: 48).

In some extreme cases, families do not send their daughters to school for fear of being sexually abused, but even those who do attend do not perform to their full capacity. Without education, the CDC report (2013: 02) argues that those children's prospects of earning a sustainable income are hindered, perpetuating and deepening the cycle of vulnerability. Studies reported by Antonowicz (2010: 5) showed that "the governments of Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo and Nigeria annually lose US \$ 974 million, US \$ 30 million and US \$ 662 million respectively by failing to educate girls to same standards as boys". In the end, societies pay a heavy price for these outcomes. Plan (2010: 9) affirms that "children who experience violence at school are likely to earn less, be in greater need for health care and other services, and contribute less to their countries' economies" (Plan, 2010: 9). The report further states that "the economic cost of 65 low-income, middle-income and transition countries failing to educate girls to the same level as boys is US \$ 92 billion per year".

2.6.School violence as an obstacle to teaching and learning.

School violence forms a big part of youth violence. It is worth noting that violence outside the school (community and domestic) spills over to the school consequently affecting learners. Different definitions on school violence suffice. World Health Organisation (WHO) (1996: 3-4) defines violence as; "the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has the likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maladjustment, or deprivation". Rabrenovic *et al* (2004) as cited in Saito (2011: 7), defines violence as "a multifaceted construct that involves both criminal acts and aggression in schools, which inhibits development and learning, as well as harming the school's climate". For Reardon (2007) in UNESCO (2007: 14), "violence is avoidable harm perpetuated usually for a purpose – either to release internal feelings or to achieve an external objective and sometimes may be a result of frustration, or not being able to articulate or express an argument". School violence exacerbates feelings of insecurity and fear among children and educators, who sometimes stay away from or even leave their schools because of their exposure to it.

2.7. International, Regional and Domestic legal framework on violence.

According to ACPF (2010), “physical, emotional and sexual abuse and exploitation have become a common phenomenon in the life of millions of children worldwide”. Since the educators’ duty of care towards children is a legal obligation, this legal framework informed the research on the available domestic, regional and international laws that compel educators to take necessary measures in guaranteeing children their right to education. The understanding of these laws helps educators to deepen their understanding of the nature of school violence that exist world over with a view to grasp how it’s managed in other countries. The study first reviewed international laws to which Swaziland is affiliated to, then regional laws and lastly domestic laws on school violence. These laws commit Swaziland to reinforce national efforts to provide full protection of children against all forms of abuse, neglect, exploitation and harmful practices. Most of these laws aim at achieving MDGs in particular the achievement of primary education; hence they oblige member states to protect children from any act that may interfere with their right to education.

2.7.1. International Legal Framework on School Violence.

The “World Education Forum” (2000), a UN affiliate in its meeting on collective commitment to **EFA** in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000 , article 6 emphasizes the importance of education as a fundamental human right by stating that: “Education is the key to sustainable development and peace and stability within and among countries, and thus an indispensable means for effective participation in the societies and economies of twenty-first century which are affected by rapid globalization” (UN Documents, 2000). This means that any obstacle to a child’s education attainment is in breach of this collective agreement to which Swaziland is a signatory.

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (1989).

The UN Committee on the Rights of the child (CRC) (1991) is one body that implements the decisions of the UNCRC. Ratified by Swaziland in 1995, this convention specifies civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights in relation to children under the age of 18 years to which most high school children belong. According to UNCRC (1989), “the CRC is a body of independent experts that monitor and report on implementation of the UNCRC by 193

governments that ratified the recommendation”. The two adopted general comments that address the children right to education are:

The Adopted General Comment No.1 (2001) which states that Education offered by any member state should aim at: “The education to which every child has a right is one designed to provide the child with life skills, to strengthen the child’s capacity to enjoy the full range of human rights and to promote a culture which is infused by appropriate human rights. The goal is to empower the child by developing his or her skills, learning and other capacities, human dignity, self-esteem and self-confidence”, and The Adopted General Comment No. 8 (2006) on “The right of the child to protection from corporal punishment and other cruel or degrading forms of punishment”, which emphasises the immediate obligation on states to prohibit all corporal punishment of children, be it in schools or within the home.

The CRC compels Governments to apply the “best interest of the child” principle which states “that in each and every decision affecting the child, various possible solutions must be considered” and due weight given to the child’s best interest.

Article 28 of the CRC advocates for the “Right to Education on the basis of equal opportunities by advocating for the development” of:

- “the child’s personality, talents, mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential.
- Respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and for the principles enshrined in the charter of the UN”.

The above article upholds “the dignity innate in every child and his or her equal and inalienable rights”. The child’s human dignity and rights are realized, taking into account the child’s special development needs and evolving capacities. These objectives cannot be realized in a school environment riddled by violence.

Article 19 of the CRC seeks to protect children from all forms of physical and psychological violence. The article requires all states to: “take all necessary legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or any other person who has the care of the child”

Article 37a further provides that: “No child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. Neither capital punishment nor life imprisonment without possibility of release shall be imposed for offences committed by persons below the age of 18 years”.

The above two articles specifically seek to protect the child from humiliating and degrading punishment including corporal punishment.

Article 2 warns against discrimination on the basis of race, gender, HIV and disabilities; that whether overt or hidden, discrimination offends human dignity of the child and is capable of undermining or even destroying the capacity of the child to benefit from educational opportunities.

Article 3 states that: “the best interest of the child shall be a primary consideration in all actions concerning children”. According to CRC (1991) the term “best interest” broadly describes the well-being of a child. Such well-being is determined by a variety of factors such as the age, the level of maturity of the child, the presence or absence of parents, the child’s environment and experiences. Consequently, the SMT is expected to put children rights first in whatever decision they make concerning children at school. Ignoring a child constitutes a hidden form of violence.

Article 28 (2) requires member states to “take appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child’s human dignity and in conformity with the present convention”. The article argues that children do not lose their human rights “by virtue of passing through school gates and urges schools to respect the inherent human dignity of the child and allow the child to express his or her views freely and to participate in school life”. Lastly, the article states that education must be provided in a way that “respects the strict limits of discipline and promotes a non-violent school”. The committee observes that corporal punishment does not respect the inherent human dignity of the child or the strict limits of school discipline.

The ICCPR(1966), a multilateral treaty adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1966 and ratified by Swaziland in 2004 outlaws corporal punishment. Under the Right to Physical Integrity, Article 7 prohibits “torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading punishment”.

The WFCD (2001), a UN document drafted at the world summit for children is a universal appeal by world leaders aiming at giving every child a better future. Article 4 obliges each state to take action to promote and protect the rights of each child – to protect their dignity and secure their well-being. Article 7(7) specifically urges states to protect children against any acts of violence, abuse exploitation and discrimination.

The UDHR (1948) articles 5 and 26 also warn against human torture and reaffirm the right to education respectively.

Article 5 states that: “No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment” and Article 26 (1) and (2) state that: “everyone has a right to education and this education should be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms”.

The preceding international instruments and legal documents are relevant for protection of children rights. They acknowledge the existence of child violence globally and give a comprehensive set of standards for the protection and well-being of children. The SMT should realize that a school being an organ of government is expected to uphold these legal provisions and use them as a bench marks in the process of managing school violence.

2.7.2. Regional legal instruments on school violence.

The ACRWC (1999) is an African Union charter that obliges all African member states to “observe the all the children rights” by the United Nations CRC.

Article 11 of the ACRWC: Right to Education stated as: “This charter views education as a fundamental right of children with immense implication on their development and life chances”.

Article 16 requires member states to: “take specific legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of torture, inhuman or degrading treatment and especially physical or mental injury, abuse, neglect or maltreatment including sexual abuse while in the care of the child”.

Article 16 of the ACRWC further states that protective measures should include effective procedures for the establishment of specific monitoring units to provide necessary support for the

child and for those who are in care of the child (e.g. the school), as well as other forms of prevention.

Other articles in the ACRWC that reaffirm protection of children are

- Article 14 (1): “right to enjoy the best attainable state of physical, mental and spiritual health”.
- Article 4: “Best interest of the Child”.

In line with the CRC, ACRWC advocates for “the best interests of the child”. It requires member states to “undertake active measures throughout their legislative, administrative and judicial systems that would systematically apply the principle by considering the implication of their decisions and actions on children’s rights”.

Part VI of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, urges member states in pursuit of the MDGs to address the disparities in gender and education to enact a law by 2015 that prohibits all forms of gender-based violence (GBV) and to prosecute perpetrators of this form of crimes.

The above sub-regional legal instrument further stresses the seriousness of violence against children which includes school violence. They confirm the need for the SMT to put measures in place to combat school violence so that children may achieve their dignity and fundamental rights to freedom and education. In ratifying these conventions, the government of Swaziland took on a collective responsibility to respect, protect and promote the rights of children regardless of their gender.

2.7.3. Domestic Legal Instruments on school violence.

The Constitution of the Kingdom of Swaziland Act (Swaziland Government, 2005).

The Constitution of the Kingdom of Swaziland (2005) (hereafter the Constitution) is the supreme law of the country. In subsections:

- 14(1) (e) under the fundamental rights and freedoms of an individual, it guarantees protection from “inhuman or degrading treatment, slavery and forced labour, arbitrary search and entry”.
- 18(1) and (2) state: “the dignity of every person is inviolable and that a person shall not be subjected to torture or to inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment and that the

use of corporal punishment is prohibited”; and subsection 29(2) under the Bill of Rights, the children rights are protected by the clause that states: “A child shall not be subjected to abuse or torture or other cruel, inhuman and degrading punishment subject to lawful and moderate chastisement for the purpose of correction”.

The “National Policy on Children, Including Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Swaziland” (Swaziland Government, 2003).

This policy seeks to protect the welfare and well-being of vulnerable children. It encourages the enhancement of some of the good traditional practices that already exist at the community level and the revival of those that have ceased to exist. Communities are encouraged to offer protection, security and support to vulnerable children. However, there are some practices which the policy seeks to eliminate because they discriminate against women and the girl-child. These include restrictions to inheritance, early and forced marriages as well as certain sexual attitudes towards the girl-child

The National Children’s Policy (Swaziland Government, 2008).

The policy’s overarching goal is: “to promote, protect and fulfil the rights of all children and ensure their full development and long-term welfare including their physical and psychological development”: Section 1, under education, requires the State to “ensure that schools provide a secure and child-friendly environment; Section 4, under care and support, requires the State to ensure that the “psychosocial environment (internal and external) is conducive for the growth and development of all children”; Section 8, under child protection and legal support, compels the State to “develop and strengthen child focused and adequate rights based protection”. This section goes further to affirm that the need for the State to “respect, promote, protect and fulfil all national, sub-regional, regional and international human rights obligations aimed at protecting children rights”.

The National Policy Statement on Education (Swaziland Government, 1999).

This policy pledges that Government will continue to develop the intellectual, moral, aesthetic, emotional, physical, psychological, spiritual development and practical capabilities that are needed by the child in order to adapt to the ever-changing complex and uncertain socio-

economic environment. Section 7, advocates for guidance and counselling services at all levels of education and training to be an integral part of the education process in order to add value and quality to the whole person i.e. the child. This will help violence victims and provide for and enhance positive discipline. Subsection 12(3) (2), states that disciplining of children at school level must be in accordance with school regulations and the existing laws of the country.

The Girls and Women’s Protection Act No. 39 of 1920.

This act prohibits any form of sexual intercourse, immoral or indecent dealings by a male with girls that are under the age of 16 years. However, this legislation covers only girls and women as sexual penetration of an underage male is considered an indecent assault which carries a lesser charge. Non-Governmental Organisations like SWAGAA are advocating for amendment of this act to equally punish male offenders. These organisations strive to eradicate Gender-Based Violence (GBV) and promote human rights for all people. They use advocacy services and activities to improve GBV policy, prevent violence, provide care, support, and justice to survivors (Gardsbane and Hlatshwayo, 2012: 4). Other laws governing sexual offences include: common law; Criminal Procedure and Evidence Act 67 of 1930; and Crimes Act of 1889. These laws are very old and need to be revised to cover issues of retribution, rehabilitation and deterrence.

The National Population Policy Framework for Swaziland (Swaziland Government, 2002).

The policy refers to children and young people as “special groups” requiring specific targeting in issues of abuse. The policy advocates for strengthening the structures that are responsible for HIV and AIDS especially children who are orphaned by this epidemic. These children need care and support to stop them from taking desperate channels that end up making them vulnerable to abuse.

The Swaziland Teaching Service Act No.1 of 1982.

The Act compels all educators to recognise that they have a duty of care that is a legal responsibility towards the children under their care (duty of care), the community in which they live and their employers. The Teaching Service Act (1982) prescribes regulations and guarantees rights and responsibilities to children through the Teaching service Commission (the body that

employs and monitors the functioning of the teaching force), the Ministry of Education and Training, school managers, Head of schools and educators. Section 15(1) (f-g) states that: “a teacher who is guilty of an immoral conduct or does/attempts to do anything which is likely to bring the service into disrepute commits a misconduct and after a due process, such a teacher may be given a written reprimand or dismissed or suspended from service for a period not exceeding two years, be demoted, have his allowances withdrawn or have his increment stopped”.

The National Plan of Action (NPA) for Children (Swaziland Government, 2011).

Strategy 8 guides the NPA by stating that: “There must be a conducive environment for child protection, legal support and access to basic rights in the Kingdom”. Under current programmes by NPA, The Ministry of Education has established a help line to enable vulnerable children, their caregivers and community members to respond immediately to circumstances and conditions that result in gross violation of children rights subjecting them to serious risks and hazards.

The Swaziland Education and Training Sector Policy (Swaziland Government, 2011)

Article 7.2 on protection from violence, abuse and exploitation states: “Any form of violence and/or abuse in schools, regardless of whether this is committed and perpetuated by children, educators, MoET officers or any other person, is considered a criminal offence and is subject to disciplinary measures under the laws of Swaziland”. The article further states: educator/child relationships are considered a serious abuse of power over minors and, in addition to action in terms of criminal law will be subjected to disciplinary measures in accordance to section 15(f) of the Teaching Service Commission Act (Swaziland Government, 1982).

Article 7.5 acknowledges that discipline plays an important component of school life. The MoET aims at promoting a culture of positive discipline that helps children take responsibility for making good decisions and understanding why these decisions are in their best interests. The article further stresses that positive discipline aims at helping children learn self-discipline and respect for others without fear. Positive discipline should be the remedy to corporal punishment since it does not reward children for poor behaviour but provides an opportunity for them to

grow as individuals, help them understand their mistakes and appreciate how positive behaviour can provide positive experiences and opportunities.

The Sexual offences and Domestic Violence Act (Swaziland Government, 2013).

This Act has a progressive approach in tackling sexual abuse against children and women and falls under the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs. It brings national law into line with the country's obligation under human rights treaties and to promote and protect rights of women. The Act addresses issues of social and family acceptance of violence as illegal practices and endeavours to make schools and communities safe places for children by opening offices at every Royal Swaziland Police (RSP) station with a police officer in charge of this type of violence.

The Children's Protection and Welfare I (Swaziland Government, 2012).

The law guards against the marring of underage (children under 18 years) girls although this is a Swazi custom called "Kwendzisa". Under this custom, a parent or guardian marries off a girl child to an adult male without the young girl's consent. The law gives the girl-children the right to refuse to be compelled to marry a man against their will. The law further denounces all practices that are likely to deny children their fundamental rights to life, health, welfare, dignity, emotional, psychological, mental and physical development.

The Education Rules (Swaziland Government, 1977).

This law provides guidance for administering corporal punishment in school. The legislation is still in force even though human right bodies and some government bodies advocate for abolition of corporal punishment in Swaziland schools – in line with international legislations. Section 11 of the Education Rules provides for administration of corporal punishment in schools as follows:

- "Corporal punishment shall be administered to boys by the headmaster or by a member of the staff specifically so authorized by such headmaster or by a house master for offences committed within a boarding establishment.
- Corporal punishment shall be administered to girls only by a female educator in the presence of a head teacher.

- Corporal punishment shall not be given in public.
- No cane or stick exceeding 0.83 metres (two and half feet) in length, and 1.5 centimetres (half an inch) in diameter, shall be used for infliction of corporal punishment.
- All corporal punishment shall be administered at the buttocks and not on other parts of the body.
- Headmasters and House masters shall ensure that pupils are in a physically fit condition to receive corporal punishment before resorting thereto.
- Punishment shall not exceed four strokes in the case of boys and girls under 16 years of age and six strokes in case of boys and girls 16 years of age and over.
- Every instance of corporal punishment shall be recorded forthwith in a punishment book, the entry specifying the name, the date and nature of offence and number of strokes administered”.

In the preceding literature on the international, regional (African), sub-regional (SADC) and domestic legal instruments, an attempt has been made to site the legal measures that have been put in place to deal with violence against children and the controversies that still exist in the domestic legislations that impact on violence in schools. All the above laws have clearly laid down how children rights should be upheld in pursuit of a school environment that is free of violence. The overarching concern in the study is for children to achieve their full education potential as guaranteed by the Constitution. The SMT as the custodian of the legal obligation of the “educators’ duty of care towards learners” have to base their day-to-day management of violence on the principle of the “best interest of the child”. In other words, a question should always be asked: What value does the action being taken add value to the child’s development?

The SMT must guard against torture, corporal punishment, verbal abuse, bullying, sexual-based violence and any other forms of violence that are not in the best interest of the child. The welfare of children should at all times be taken into consideration by employing positive discipline, guidance and counselling. The domestic laws also indicate that Swaziland government has taken necessary steps to protect the girl-child from extreme cultural practices by putting measures in place to guard against domestic and sexual offences as well as curbing the marrying of underage

girls. Therefore, the school as a microcosm of society and an organ of the state and being in constant touch with children have to act as the whistle blower to alert the relevant departments put in place to guard against these cruel acts of violence.. It is also incumbent on the SMT together with all the school stakeholders to make sure that violence perpetuated by school agents without the approval of MoET is brought to a halt.

2.8.Ways of managing school violence.

Since violence at school is a reality, the SMT has a mammoth task to not only intervene and stop the existing violence but to also prevent other forms of violence from permeating the school. The Institute of Education Services (IES) (2011: 2) within the USA Department of Education suggests two broad types of school violence strategies namely curriculum-based programmes and whole-school (environmental) strategies. The Institute explains that “the curriculum-based programs are implemented in a classroom setting with the aim of improving children’ social and problem-solving skills for dealing and managing aggression” while the “whole-school methods” seek to influence the school environment through a variety of strategies, such as increasing supervision of school grounds, clarifying rules and consequences for child behaviour, establishing reward systems to encourage positive behaviour, and training staff in classroom management”. The whole school approach by SMT takes a view that the school is a micro-society comprising of different stakeholders namely children, educators, principals, school management teams, parents’ school committees and parents or care givers. These stakeholders should endeavour to combine their effort and act as a coherent unit in order to fight and eradicate violence at schools.

According to IES (2011: 3), the most common curricular approach in violence prevention is called “Responding in Peaceful and Positive ways” (RiPP) while the most common whole-school based program is “Positive Behaviour Support” (PBS) approach. PSB is a “school-wide intervention that teaches school staff to recognise, monitor, and reward good school behaviour and to provide consistent sanctions for rule violations” (IES, 2011: 3). In a study involving randomized elementary schools, “schools which received RiPP and PBS intervention programs had few violent offences” (Meyer et al. 2003) in IES (2011: 3).

However, Dean (1995: 2) argues “that any approach to solve violence should focus on how the peaceful interaction of individuals and groups is facilitated by programmes, policies, and processes in the classroom, in the school building and grounds”. In the classrooms, it is achieved by “encouraging academic goals, modelling respectful behaviour and quick nonintrusive intervention in misbehaviour and discouraging disorder that can escalate into violence”. Dean (1995: 2) argues that “the positive school climate where nurturance, inclusiveness, and community feeling are needed leads to low levels of violent behaviour”. The children should feel recognised and appreciated by the staff. Children’ and educators’ discipline is one of the components that help to foster a peaceful environment where teaching and learning can effectively take place. The school should be able to “teach and reinforce children that exhibit basic pro-social behaviour and consistently and fairly hold children accountable for misbehaviour” (Walker, Calvin, and Ramsey, 1995) in Dean (1995: 2). The expert meeting on stopping violence in schools noted that “schools that reflect a democratic model rather than an authoritarian model have relatively few cases of school violence” (UNESCO, 2007: 11). The meeting warned that “authoritarianism in schools neglects to teach children how to access values and make responsible decisions”. The school should involve all stake holders in society; schools, communities organisations and government. This is in line with an old African adage: “It takes a whole village to raise one child”. O’Moore (xxx: 1) also argues that “school violence is an international problem and in view of the complex and multi-faceted nature of violence, it is unlikely that individual efforts from schools alone will not be sufficient to counteract these negative forces”. Instead commitment will be required of government and stake holders at all levels of decision making, local and international.

In addition to the application of violence prevention strategies, CDC (2010: 4) and Day and Golench (1995: 1) suggest that “school-based violence prevention policies and programs should; firstly make sure that violence policies are internally consistent in that all the policies are comprehensive, multifaceted and logically related”, are coherent to policies in other related schools and that the policies have a community focus to enhance the development and maintain a partnership for a comprehensive violence prevention to occur; secondly, the policies should have “supplemental programs for students who are aggressive and violent” as these programs should aim at supporting and correcting deviant learners rather than being “punitive, demoralizing, and

inflexible”. Thirdly, “the root causes of violence must be established and addressed – these may include biological, environmental, social, familial, and academic factors which may put the child at risk”.

According to Meador (2012: 1), principals as part of the SMT and instructional leaders should make learners know how they handle learner discipline by following standards and procedures that should be clearly laid down in the school rules and regulations. Astor, Benbenishjtry and Estrada (2009: 443-4) posit that the principal of atypical peaceful schools should set a tone for the educators and children in atypically peaceful school by promenading the halls using the “Management By Wondering Around(MBWA)” style and engaging in positive physical and verbal exchange with children. Astor *et al* (2009: 443-4) also found that high violence schools had many observable and reported instances of principals and educators yelling, reprimanding, and unfairly punishing, lecturing, or ignoring children. They suggest that principals impose limits, regulations, and discipline and at the same time make children feel the warmth and care emanated by them.

Furthermore, SMT should empower educators with necessary information on learner discipline. In line with the Learners’ Code of Conduct, the school should create a safety committee that should be responsible for ensuring a safe environment through emphasising prevention rather than punishment. The SMT should opt for a curriculum RiPP program that promotes effective social-cognitive problem-solving skills; school norms that produce the desired attitudes and skills while reducing the appeal and perceived utility of violent behaviours and related attitudes (IES, 2011: 06). By targeting these attitudes and skills, the program increases competence and thereby reducing violent behaviour.

Likewise, Oosthuizen (2008: 58) argues that the feeling of alienation, caused by rejection, humiliation, and a sense of hopelessness, motivates some children and youth to act out in revenge and to hurt others the same way they have been hurt. He castigates that one of the strongest desires a child has to belong. He qualifies this by Maslow’s motivation theory which states that until such a time as the fundamental need for belonging is met in human beings, all other needs go unsatisfied (Schlebusch, 2000: 113). According to White *et al* (2001: 199) in Oosthuizen (2008: 54), the sense of belonging in the classroom is connected to the child’s expectations of success and their interest in schoolwork. He further argues that even if a child is

not successful in academics or in sport, he/she may be good at drawing or writing, may have a dry wit, or see things creatively. Educators should be reminded to positively reward learners whenever they do good as all children deserve to be appreciated.

Usually, the removal of the offenders by suspension or placement outside of the mainstream classroom does not solve the problem. The prevention suggested by Astor et al (2009: 445) includes: “child supervision, working with social agencies, attending conflict resolution, use of surf dogs, metal detectors and closed circuit cameras”. Astor et al (2009: 445) further notes that disorganized and neglected buildings, plants and artistic value of the physical ground were features of violence riddled schools while in low violence schools, the staff reclaimed responsibility for supervising places that are violence-prone and undefined. The care and ownership of school grounds communicates a feeling of safety. The staff collectively works together when fighting violence and procedures are followed consistently and associated with a clear violence eradication policy.

In South Africa, the practice of male educators demanding sex from schoolgirls was addressed by the South African EEA, Act No. 76 of 1998 in the EEA(Republic of South Africa, 2000). Section 17 (c) of the EEA requires Provincial Departments of Education to “dismiss any educator found guilty of having a sexual relationship with a child studying in the school where he or she is employed”. In Swaziland, educator/child relationships are considered a “serious abuse of power over minors and, in addition to action in terms of criminal law”; educators are subjected to disciplinary measures according to the Swaziland Teaching Service Regulations (Kingdom of Swaziland, 1984: xx).

Day, Golench, MacDougall and Beals-Gonzalez (1995: iii), posit that educators must take a pro-active role against media violence, involve parents when dealing with violence related cases at school, expose children to higher spiritual and ethical values through religious and community institutions, establish hotlines for children and others to call and report drug and gun activity on school grounds, hire former gang members to address and discourage children from joining gangs, fence the school and have an adult to man as a way to minimize violence incidences in schools.

The “invisible kids” must be identified and given a special attention. According to Oosthuizen (2008: 55), invisible kids are quite often withdrawn or rejected, quiet and shy which makes them difficult to identify. Research on violence in the USA found that the invisible kids are often prone to commit serious violent acts; as in 1999 when two learners at Columbine High School in Columbia went on a shooting rampage on the school premises, killing 25 people (Arman, 2000: 220) and one child at Virginia Polytechnic in 2007 in Virginia USA, who shot and killed 33 people including himself and wounded 17 others (Van der Westhuizen, 2009: 47). Both Arman and Van der Westhuizen argue that both of these learners felt persecuted, bullied, threatened, attacked or injured.

The initial training curriculum of teachers should include a module on school bullying and violence to improve their level of competence and intervention strategies (O’Moore, xxxx: 7). Educators in the field should be given an in-service training on violence prevention as a critical component of their professional development. Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP) suggested by CDC, NCIPC (2010: 01) may also be consulted when designing the programs on in-service courses on violence prevention. The OBPP aims at reducing and preventing bullying problems among school children and improving peer relations at school by operating on three levels – school, classroom and community.

That said, there is an unwillingness to promptly attend to cases of violence especially in situations of GBV where according to UNICEF (2004: 44), some educators who exploit their authority by having sexual relations with learners are rarely expelled from the profession but simply transferred to another school. Usually, the principals of those schools are reluctant to report the matter due to the bureaucratic investigations rendering violence victims to bear the trauma of being abused throughout their lives.

According to Crawage (2005: 12), “violence denies the victims their humanity to make a difference, either by reducing them from what they are or by limiting them from becoming what they might be” through disrupting the safe learning environment. Irrespective of where it occurs, child violence compromises learners’ concentration capacity. Although the literature suggests different measures to remedy the situation of child violence, in sub-Saharan Africa, there is still a lot to be done as the commitment to succeed is flimsy.

Swaziland Schools' Rules and Regulations for learners.

The schools rules and regulations is a document that should be present in every Swaziland school, and spells out how learners in Swaziland are expected to behave and the consequences for not abiding to the stipulated behaviour. It is synonymous to the Learners' Code of Conduct in South Africa which according to Mestry and Khumalo (2012: 98) is a form of subordinate law that reflects the democratic principles of the Constitution. It spells out rules regarding child behaviour and describes the disciplinary process to be implemented when school children commit transgressions(South Africa Department of Education, 2008:1). Like in South Africa, in Swaziland, this is a consensus document that is drafted in consultation with parents, children, educators and non-teaching staff at the school. Mestry and Khumalo (2012: 99) further posit that the code of conduct for learners in South Africa must include appropriate disciplinary actions for correcting children and measures that should be followed in all disciplinary processes. During the formulation of the code of conduct, the development level of the children should be kept in mind and the language must be easily comprehensible to make the content accessible to all stakeholders. This means that the code of conduct must be made in fair and just manner and take a three-dimensional approach that hinges on prevention, action, and resolution (Curwin and Mendler, 1980: 33). The Ministry of Education & Training should encourage educators to put much attention on prevention, self-discipline and positive discipline rather than punishment and the moral values, norms and principles in accordance with the ethos of the school and that of the wider society must be addressed (Joubert and Bray, 2007: 80) in Mestry Khumalo (2012: 99).

Basing on the laws addressing the problem of violence in Swaziland, it is evident that the government of Swaziland has made progress in fighting school violence. The government has further established the Domestic Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences Units (DCS) at every RSP station that interrogate and investigate violence against children cases. According to Kingdom of Swaziland (2012: 10), the government has strengthened the legal protection of children by introducing Child-Friendly Unit, situated within the Probate Courts in Mbabane to respond to violence against children; and The Royal Swaziland Police in consultation with SWAGAA developed a training module on domestic and sexual violence which is part of Royal Swazi Police College curriculum.

2.9.Conclusion.

This chapter mainly dealt with the literature on typical manifestations of violence in schools, the agony the trauma this violence causes to learners and the mechanisms put in place for the way forward. The literature acknowledges that child violence exists both on local and international level and further indicates that a concerted effort has been put in place by promulgating laws and conventions to help those in care of children to use in their quest to eradicate the violence. The expectation from the SMT is to serve the “*best interest*” of the children which impinges not only on education attainment but also on the protection of their inherent human rights. Educators are mature professional-trained personnel, and in their “*in loco parentis*” capacity, they should be able to foresee danger and act proactively to stop it. The literature suggests that schools should work together with everyone in the community to whom children interact with, as child violence at home and on the way to school affects the child’s performance at school. The following chapter will give a detailed elaboration on the methodology employed to carry out this research.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.

3.1. Introduction

This chapter details and justifies the research methodology adopted in this study and it outlines the appropriateness of the qualitative research that was conducted at the three high schools in attempt to explore how SMT members manage high school violence. In addition, issues of research design, data collection methods their limitations as well as the ethical considerations taken during the study are also presented. The study also elaborates measures taken to ensure validity and reliability in order to guarantee research quality.

3.2. Research paradigm

The researcher opted for “an anti-positivist or subjectivist interpretive paradigm as opposed to a positivist or objectivist normative approach since the understanding of the subjective world of experiences of participants was paramount” (Cohen et al, 2007: 08). The study relied on the subjective experience of individuals in the creation of the social world. Cohen et al (2007: 09) also posit that “the interpretive paradigm has the concern for the individual to understand the integrity” of the role that SMT members play in managing school violence. The researcher had to explore the participants and understand from within and attempt to extract their shared experiences. Furthermore, the researcher was cognizant of the fact that the “ontology and epistemology” underlying the research was that there are multiple realities. Each individual perceived the reality as it is played out in society where it is socially constructed. Furthermore, the researcher had to engage individual study subjects and gain access to their reality. After that, the investigator then employed a subjective interpretation to each individual’s reality. According to Bush (2003: 113), “a subjective model focuses on individuals within an organization rather than the whole organization”. Members in each school shared their experiences on how differently school violence is managed. By engaging the SMT members from the three high schools, the researcher had to be sensitive to multiple interpretations of managing school violence as the SMT was presumed to have the longest experience and to be having a central management role.

3.3. Research Approach.

Since the research objective was to gain an understanding and explore the perceptions of the study participants, a qualitative research approach was deemed appropriate. According to Creswell (2008: 46), “a qualitative research approach involves relatively small-scale studies for in-depth investigations with the aim of understanding social phenomenon from the participants’ perceptions and is based on asking broad, general questions; collection of data consisting largely of words from participants; description and analysis of these words for themes; and conduction of inquiry in a subjective, biased manner”. The qualitative research approach was suitable for this study as the researcher’s aim was to gather “true feelings, beliefs and ideals, experiences, thoughts and actions of participants” (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006: 373). In addition, Maree (2007: 50) suggests that qualitative research design “is suitable and useful during data analysis thus devising inference on how study subjects view and understand the world, how they construct the meaning out of their experiences, and how the information gained can be applied” in the process of managing school violence. This approach suited the researcher as she has been a high school teacher for over 20 years. He effectively used his vast experience as an educator to interact and relate with the participants.

3.4. Research Design.

The researcher opted for a case study as a method to investigate how SMT manage school violence by the SMT. According to Nisbet and Watt cited in Cohen et al (2007: 253), a “case study is a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle”. Cohen et al (2007: 253) further state that “a case study is a form of investigative efforts directed at an instance in action where the single instance is of a bounded system”; for example a child, a class, a school or community. In this study, the bounded system was the school and the case was managing school violence. Furthermore, a case study allowed the researcher to have a multiple perspective analysis in which the researcher considered not just the voices and perspectives of one or two participants in a situation, but the views of other groups or actors and interaction between them. The researcher had to rely on analytical rather than statistical data, this according to Cohen et al (2007: 253), allowed the researcher to use “theories of other researchers to understand the phenomenon of managing school violence”.

Since each of the three schools presented a different research site, the researcher opted for a “multiple instrumental” (also called a collective) case study which Creswell (2008: 477) describes as a “study in which multiple cases are described and compared to provide insight into an issue”. The strengths of a case study according to Alderman et al (1980) in (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 256) are: “being strong in reality because it is of down-to-earth nature, recognises the existence and divergence of social truth within each situation, yields data rich enough to assist the researcher during data interpretation, and may sometimes serve as a “step-in-action” for policy makers.

The strengths of the case study assisted the researcher during the data collection and interpretation stages. The findings generated from this study may be used as a “step-to-action” by policy makers in drafting education legislation.

However, in carrying out the research, the investigator was aware of the weaknesses exhibited by case studies as: “case studies being prone to research bias and not being open to cross-checking, which might lead to being selective, personal and subjective” (Nisbet and Watts (1984) in Cohen *et al*, 2007: 256). They further warn that case studies consume a lot of time and yield large volumes of data that may confuse the researcher during data analysis stage. The difficulty of accessing research sites and setting the boundaries of those sites may also jeopardise the collection of data (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 256). Lastly, Cohen *et al* (2007: 256) argue that the researcher may alter or change the research site to better suit the stated aims of the research or the participants may do “special preparation” or “window dressing” to impress the researcher. Eventually, this compromises research quality as situations are not investigated as they occur.

The researcher alleviated the above weaknesses by carrying out the three case studies in three different but similar high schools in the same region and the interview schedule was designed in advance to allow for validation and standardization by the research supervisor. The engagement of three participants in each setting minimized the problem of “special preparation”, or “window dressing”. All individual interviews were held at school to enable the researcher to gather as much of the true feelings, beliefs and ideals, experiences, thoughts and actions of the participants. It also helped the researcher to confirm the data by triangulation using relevant documents analysed on the site.

3.5. Selecting participants.

As the aim of the study was to investigate how SMT members manage high school violence, the researcher used purposive sampling in order to guarantee that crucial participants were selected based on their managerial positions and experiences in the phenomenon being investigated. As the research centred on management, all the participants were highly experienced and in management positions that included one of the following for each school:

- the principal,
- the deputy principal and
- a Senior teacher.

In “purposive sampling, researchers hand-pick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics” (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 114). Purposive sampling allowed the researcher to choose a case because it “illustrated some feature in which the researcher was interested, and in terms of its relevance to the study” (Creswell, 2008: 214). The “homogeneous sampling strategy” was used in order to have participants or sites based on membership in a subgroup that had defining characteristics. The three studied schools were all day, mixed high schools in the same geographical location. Since the study had phenomenological characteristics, the researcher attempted to understand participants’ perceptions, perspectives, and understanding of managing high school violence.

The three schools were contacted and informed about the research project. The participants were advised of informed consent and were informed that the findings could help in improving school safety by helping school managers to deal with violence incidences in their schools.

3.6. Data collection

After gaining access to the research site, the researcher dully explained the entire research study to the participants by giving them the scope, purpose, and aims of the study and a detailed account of how the data would be collected and the significance of the study. The data collection methods were both “obtrusive” (using interviews) and “unobtrusive” (using documents). An interview schedule in Appendix A was used to guide the interview though some additional questions emerged during the interview process. They all agreed to be involved in the study by

signing letters of consent. Semi-structured interview protocol and document analysis was used as instruments for data collection in the following ways (a copy of the interview schedule is appended to this research report as appendix A).

3.6.1. Semi-structured interviews.

An “interview is different from an ordinary conversation in that it is an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest. As such an interview revolves around the centrality of human interaction for knowledge production and emphasises the social situatedness of research data”(Cohen *et al*, 2007: 249). The researcher bore in mind the intentions of the interview as suggested by Cohen et al as: having a specific purpose, being question-based where the interview questions are asked by the interviewer in anticipation of explicit detailed response. Specifically, semi-structured interviews were used as a means to collect data. According to Cohen et al (2007: 321), “semi-structured questionnaire sets the agenda but does not presuppose the nature of the response”. The “in-depth interviews in form of open-ended questions that demand response questions are asked to obtain data from participants’ meaning on how individuals conceive of their world and how they explain or make sense of the important events in their lives” (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006: 350). The open-ended questions allowed the participants to voice their experiences unconstrained by any perspectives of the researcher or past research findings (Creswell, 2008: 225). The use of semi-structured interviews helped the researcher to obtain information from a number of people while placing less emphasis on a standardized approach. The advantage of asking pre-determined questions, “allowed the researcher to set the line of inquiry while allowing the probing and clarification as it allowed the researcher to control the line of question” (Creswell, 2003: 187) thereby increased the comprehensiveness of the data.

However, the researcher was cognizant of the weaknesses of semi-structured interviews as suggested by Creswell (2008: 237) being that “the mutual trust, social distance and the control exerted by the interviewer; uneasiness felt by respondents who in turn may adopt avoidance tactics when the interviewer asks deeper questions”; the meanings of words or concepts, while clear to the interviewer not being understood by the interviewee and lack of control of the interviewee in cases where the interviewee goes irrelevant.

To minimize the above shortfalls, each participant was given a copy of the interview schedule well in advance and advised asked for clarification of a question or a word or a concept that they might fail to understand or were not familiar with.

Furthermore, the interview schedule was designed basing on the guidelines of and using the language of the Constitution and other relevant policies on education in the country. The bulk of the questions were based on issues of implementation, translation and management of school violence.

The interviews took place by appointment in the office of or any other convenient place provided by the respective interviewee and was recorded with permission of the participant. Rapport was established before the interview by having a brief introduction to ease the tension and questions were asked in an acceptable manner. With these in-depth interviews, the researcher could probe, clarify doubt, ensure that responses are clearly understood and sometimes repeat questions to confirm the answers.

In an attempt to control researcher bias, the researcher made the interviews a flexible tool for data collection by generating data together with interviewees and not simply capturing it. Since each participant defined the situation in a particular way, the researcher recognised a range of non-rational factors governing human behaviour suggested by Cohen et al (2007: 350), as “emotions, unconscious needs and interpersonal influences”. The researcher also developed trust between the interviewer and the interviewee; developed curiosity or the desire to know, learn participants’ views and perception of facts, hear their stories and discover their feelings. Lastly, naturalness was maintained at all times. This was done to secure what was in the minds of the participants “uncoloured and unaffected” by the interviewer.

The researcher also “enabled multi-sensory channels to be used to pick up non-verbal responses from participants through frowns, nervous tapping and other nervous body language that participants unconsciously exhibited”. Transcripts of each interview were kept by the researcher to provide an accurate record of the interview and to facilitate easy coding and analysis.

The conducted long-in-depth interviews broadened the researcher’s understanding of the participants’ perceptions and helped in discovering more information related to management of school violence.

3.6.2. Document analysis.

Documents consist of “public and private records that qualitative researchers obtain about a site or participants in a study” (Creswell, 2008: 230) and as such document analysis provides information from the distant or recent past. In addition, document analysis was used to triangulate and validate the data gathered through interviews. According to Cohen et al (2007: 194) documents are considered “as primary sources of data” and they are all intentionally or unintentionally capable of transmitting a first-hand account of an event. They took the form of policy documents (formulated at national, regional and school level), minutes of the disciplinary hearings, learners’ school code of conduct, and an incident book or a file where the learners who commit offences are recorded. Other relevant documents requested for analysis included: school newsletters and magazines if they existed, minutes of previous meetings, official memoranda to learners, parents, and staff members, school official letters and personal notes, emails and website data, maps and log books (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 194).

The advantage of using document analysis was that it could be accessed anytime convenient to the researcher and enabled the researcher to “obtain a language and word used when participants were answering interview questions” (Creswell, 2008: 231). Documents also brought together previously unrelated materials which illuminated a phenomenon of managing school violence and enabled the researcher to reach inaccessible persons or subjects since there was little or no reactivity on the part of the writer, particularly as the documents were not written with the intention of being research data (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 201).

However, the researcher was cognizant of the fact that documents may be highly biased and selective, as they were not intended to be regarded as research data but were written for a different purpose, audience and context in addition to attrition and selective survival (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 201), hence may be interpretations of events rather than objective accounts. All these problems may undermine validity. As Cohen *et al* (2007: 202) suggest, in order to minimise these problems, the researcher applied a comprehensive analysis when approaching documentary research by considering the context, the writer and the researcher of the document.

Document analysis gave the researcher an insight of how SMT managed school violence by providing a longitudinal analysis of how the management of violence has evolved over time.

They further provided personal details and feelings which would not have surfaced through interviews, hence, a foundation an audit trail after interview sessions.

3.7. Data implementation.

The data gathered from the three case studies were reported separately to avoid mixing up and to allow comparative analysis. The interview data was transcribed by “converting filed notes into text data, followed by organizing and categorizing” (Creswell, 2008: 244-246) after which they were then read several times in order to obtain sense of the material through delineation of themes and patterns. Text segments located were assigned a label. Data was analysed during and after the data collection process in line with Maree (2007: 195) who suggests that qualitative data “analysis tends to be an on-going iterative (non-linear) process, implying that data collection, analysis and reporting occurred simultaneously and not merely a number of successive steps”.

According to Miles and Huberman (1994) in Cohen *et al* (2007: 470), data analysis is a process of systematically searching and arranging the raw data, with the aim of increasing one’s understanding of it. Miles and Huberman’s process of data analysis involves “data collection, data reduction and selection, data display, conclusion and verifying the findings”. Although there are several approaches to analyse qualitative data, Cohen *et al* (2007: 461) argue that there is no single or correct way to analyse and present qualitative data, and that how one does it should abide by the issue of “*fitness to purpose*”. This requires the researcher to be clear of what he/she wants data analysed to do.

The researcher set out to explore, interpret, discover patterns, generate themes, commonalities, similarities and differences. The analysis started with data collection by compiling questions (Appendix A) that assisted the investigator to answer the research questions. Since qualitative research “amasses huge amounts of data” (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 462), the researcher practically reduced the data by selecting out significant features that fitted the aims of the research. The process of reduction and selection involved progressive focusing where the researcher gathered data, and then by “sifting, sorting, reviewing and reflecting on the data in order to have a salient feature of the situation emerge” (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 462).

Data was then displayed by tabulating the summaries in order to draw better conclusions. The data was organized according to each individual interviewed. According to Cohen *et al* (2007:

467), in organizing data analysis by individuals, the “total responses from open-needed questions of a single participant were presented and then the analysis moved on to the next individual”. This was important to the researcher as it presented the coherence and integrity of the individual’s response and enabled the researcher to present the findings from each participant at a time. The process of summarizing then followed where the researcher put together the issues arising across the participants in order to look for “themes, shared responses, patterns of response, agreements and disagreements, to compare participants and issues that each of them raised”. Consequently, this helped the researcher to draw conclusions. Throughout the implementation process, the researcher was conscious of not being “reflexive, reactive and to decontextualise data that already exist in society” (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 469).

Where discrepancies occurred, an audit trial was done and participants contacted to re-confirm the data. The categories identified from the three case studies were then related with existing theoretical frame works or models on school violence management in the literature. Furthermore, there was verification in form of validation of the processes taken in the entire research namely: “setting the conceptual framework and linking it to the research questions, having a sound research design, aiming at accurate data during translation and transcription stage, and making an accurate report”.

3.8. Research quality.

In an effort to present a worthwhile research, the investigator considered “trustworthiness, dependability and confirmability” of the data collected.

3.8.1. Trustworthiness.

Reliability is concerned with the “extent to which the research process is consistent and stable overtime across researchers and methods” (Creswell: 2008: 169) or “replicability” (Cohen *et al* 2007: 148). Brock-Utne (1996: 652) in Cohen *et al* (2007: 133) contends that reliability is a sole reserve of quantitative research while Lincoln and Guba (1985) in Cohen *et al* (2007: 148) prefer to replace reliability with terms like “credibility, neutrality, confirmability, dependability, consistency, applicability, trustworthiness and transferability”. Hence, the investigator’s choice for “trustworthiness, dependability and confirmability” of data was based on the nature of the research.

In addition, the researcher used a semi-structured, open-ended question technique to hear the views and perceptions of the study participants. Though semi-structured questions allowed each interviewer to understand the questions in the same way – thus controlling reliability, the use of open-ended interviews enabled respondents to demonstrate their unique world views.

3.8.1.1. Validity

Winter (2000) cited in Cohen *et al* (2007: 133), posit that in “qualitative data, validity may be addressed through honesty, in-depth, richness and scope of the data, the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the researcher”. In addition, Golafshani (2003: 599) argues that “validity determines whether the research measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the results are”. Validation was targeted at all the stages of the interview, and through ensuring the appropriateness and clarity of the interview questions. The interview schedule was presented to the participants well in advance and effort made to clarify any ambiguities. In addition, the semi-structured interview questions were reviewed by the project principal investigator from the University of Pretoria. All the interviews were transcribed as soon as possible and shown to the interviewees to cross-check and confirm the accuracy of what was recorded. During the interview process, the intensive prolonged personal involvement and the rich in-depth responses of participants also guaranteed a sufficient level of validity of the collected data.

3.8.1.2. Dependability

In line with Cohen *et al* (2007: 149), ensuring dependability involved “member checks (respondent validation) to assess intentionality, to correct factual errors, to add or delete some information and check the adequacy of the analysis, debriefing by peers, triangulation”, having short simple questions and allowing interviewee to give long answers. According to Creswell (2008: 266), “triangulation in qualitative research involves corroborating evidence from different individuals, types of data, or methods of data collection in descriptions and themes”. When different data collection methods lead to the same results, data confidence is enhanced and the report is accurate and credible. The researcher kept and submitted a record of the interview script notes and an audio recording on each case study and all different accounts that occurred during the interview processes.

According to Creswell (2008: 169) “dependability is achieved if the research study is repeated in the same context, with the same methods and with the same participants, and similar results are obtained”. In order to ensure dependability, a detailed report of the study was kept. The report included the research design, methodology, data collection methods and the nature of the participants.

3.9. Ethical Considerations.

By guaranteeing the study ethical standards, the researcher made sure that the collected data met ethical standards of individuals and study sites. Cohen *et al* (2007: 382) warns that interviews have an ethical dimension because they concern interpersonal interaction and produce information about the human condition. The main ethical issues were informed consent, confidentiality, and the consequences of the interviews on the participants.

To address the above ethical issues, letters requesting for permission to conduct the research were sent to the Director of Ministry of Education and Training in Swaziland and the three schools where the research study was carried out (Appendices B, C and E). An advance visit to the schools was made to create a relationship and explain to the participants the data collection protocols. Psychological and social risks were minimized by ensuring participants anonymity and confidentiality; and the prospects of benefits from the research were shared with the participants.

In addition, the dignity and autonomy of the participants was respected at all times. Voluntary participation was encouraged at all stages of the research and the right for participants to withdraw at any time was explained to the participants and guaranteed (Appendix D). Participants’ interest were protected, confidentiality maintained, their identity and that of their schools disclosure was prevented by using pseudonyms. The possible fear of divulgence of data that may cause them “embarrassment, anxiety or suffering was allayed with each participant signing a confidentiality agreement form that assured them that all their identities”, would remain anonymous during any stage of the study – from data gathering to the presentation of the final report. Care was taken to make sure that the research site was not disrupted by obtaining permission outside their busy times and clearly communicating the purpose of the study before the date of the interview.

3.10. Limitations.

As the study was of limited scope involving only three high schools, the research findings cannot be confidently generalized. In future, there will be need to include more schools in the same region and the whole country in order to achieve greater generalizability.

3.11. Conclusion.

This chapter explained in detail the rationale behind the research methodology including but not limited to the use of interpretive paradigm, the researcher's choice of sampling method, and the data collection instruments used. The chapter also discussed semi-structured interviews and documents analysis protocols as data collection tools. The strengths and weaknesses of each choice were explored and ways to address the weaknesses discussed. Lastly, ethical issues and limitations to the study were also scrutinized.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction.

This chapter deals with the presentation and discussion of the specific themes that emerged during the interview and document analysis phases of the research. The data gathered during document analysis helped to confirm the theory generated from the interviews. The study findings were deliberately linked to the relevant literature. The research involved three public high schools that together constituted a collective case study. According to Stake (1994) cited in Cohen *et al* (2007: 255), a “collective case study involves groups of individual studies undertaken to gain a fuller picture” of the problem under investigation. The case studies involved included an urban public high school, a church-founded public high school and a community public high school all geographically located in the same region. The data from each of the study schools was presented separately and thereafter all case studies discussed as a unit.

After reading through the interview transcriptions, categories or significant features from each research site was grouped together using codes for responses that were similar. From these categories, themes were developed. In line with Cohen *et al* (2007: 462), attempt was made to “report direct phrases to keep the flavour of the original data and to be faithful to the exact words used”. Great caution and awareness was exercised by the researcher in analysing the data, for the analysis and the findings not to say more about the researcher than about the data by acknowledging “reflexivity effect” i.e. “that researchers are part of the world they are researching”. Reflexivity demands that a “researchers acknowledges and disclose his/her own self in the research, seek to understand his/her part in, or influence on the research data” (Cohen *et al*, 2007: 171).

The profile of the schools in the study.

School	Number of educators	Number of learners	Experience of the principal	Learner to educator ratio	Class Average size.
A	35	831	28	24	50
B	30	720	27	24	50
C	11	132	12	12	30

The average classrooms are built to accommodate forty learners.

All the studied high schools are fully funded by the Government of Swaziland. Schools A and C are sub-urban schools approximately 20km from the city of Manzini. School B is partly boarding and was founded by missionaries. However, all the schools' learners' catchment area in the three schools is both urban and rural. Learners are free to join any public school of their choice with tuition fees subsidized by the Government of Swaziland and the balance of the fees to be paid by the parents decided by the State.

The different themes that emerged during the interview process included:

- Participants understanding of a safe school and the principle of “educators’ duty of care towards learners”,
- Forms of violence witnessed in the schools and perceptions on corporal punishment as a form of school violence,
- Causes of and mechanisms put in place to manage and prevent school violence,
- Legislation and policies available in schools to help the SMT in managing school violence and how they are interpreted by the SMT.

These themes were recorded separately in detail to give the overall picture in each school. Care was taken not to repeat what other participants in other schools had mentioned to avoid duplication and comparability so that the whole study would be presented as one unit.

4.2. Case study A

Theme 1: Participants understanding of a safe school and the principle of “educators’ duty of care towards learners”,

All the participants referred to a safe school as one which is fenced with a gate to stop intruders from entering the school. However the gate is always open and there is no gate keeper. All visitors are expected to ask for the reception where they will be assisted. One participant noted, “Everyone in the school is safe and no dangerous weapons are allowed in the school”. Another participant added that a safe school is: “a comfortable, conducive place where everyone’s security is guaranteed”. The principal acknowledged that the absence of a gate keeper and logbook to keep track of visitors to the school posed a danger to the school but was quick to add that the community in which the school exists had no indication of imminent danger.

The concept of “educators’ duty of care” towards learners and “in loco parentis” are not well understood by the participants but when probed further on their role as standing in the place of parents at school, they all agreed. One participant conceded that educators were not aware of the legal obligation attached to their duty of care towards learners such that in case of damages due to an educators’ negligence in his/her line of duty, they thought the school would pay. The educators supervised learners on all school excursions. During short breaks and lunch break, the participants liked to believe that the learners were safe.

When violence is suspected to come from outside the school, they involve the chairman of the School Committee (a statutory committee of eight members elected by the more than two-thirds of the parents in a general meeting that is held after every three years) and the parents of the learners affected by violence. The participants were not sure about how safe learners were in their homes and on their way to or from school partly because they did not feel their responsibility towards learners’ safety extends outside school.

Theme 2: Forms of violence witnessed in the school and perceptions on corporal punishment as a form of school violence,

The deputy principal mentioned that fighting occurred mainly between boys and on few occasions boys physically assault girls mainly for refusing to accept their sexual advances. Alcohol was common during the ‘Marula’ season. Marula is a traditional intoxicant beverage brewed locally in homes by indigenous Swazis mainly during January to March. It is a sacred drink usually blessed and commissioned by the King of the Swazi Nation. Most of this drink was abused during sporting excursions and sometimes led to fights. Some learners drank because of peer pressure and when drunk, some learners became violent.

With the introduction of free primary education, older learners are admitted in Grade 8 and they end up bullying the young ones. The principal mentioned that incidences of bullying, verbal abuse, alcohol/drug abuse, were rampant in junior classes (Grade 8-10) and that the senior classes largely behaved themselves except for some few cases of sexual harassment. All the study participants alluded that boys sexually harassed girls mainly by showing them their private parts, touching them inappropriately and sometimes kissing them against their will. This took place in classrooms during breaks. According to the senior teacher, there was only one known case of teacher-student relationship but when investigated was found to be untrue. The study participant added that most girl-learners are ashamed of reporting sexual advances from educators for fear of victimisation. The principal mentioned that the school relied on information from the community and prefects.

The deputy touched on subtle forms of violence like the case of one learner that was always irritated and aggressive. Upon carrying out some investigations, the school authority found out that the learner’s bitterness was related to the separation of his parents and him wanting to stay with his father and not the mother. An educator was mentioned for hounding a learner by telling her that she is pompous and that she thought she was more beautiful than the other girls. Incidences of teachers insulting, putting-down learners and referring to learners as no-hoper in class were also mentioned. Statements like “whom do you think you are” and “your age mates are at the university” were mentioned by reported by learners to their educators. Violence emanating outside the school was mentioned. An example was a female learner that broke up

with her boyfriend for a new lover. The jilted lover started spreading malicious propaganda about the ex-girlfriend until she reported it to the school authorities.

All the study participants strongly supported the use of corporal punishment to discipline learners but nevertheless felt that most educators were not well versed with the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) regulation regarding the administration of this form of punishment. They all vehemently alluded to the fact that abolishing corporal punishment in schools would affect school discipline as some learners come from backgrounds where this form of punishment is the only means of correction. One participant referred to corporal punishment as a cultural practice; hence “abolishing it would tantamount to tampering and undermining the peoples’ culture”, he argued. The principal in question argued that there would be no problem with corporal punishment if care was taken to follow the relevant legislation as well as ensuring the canes used were only exclusively supplied by the school administration so as to maintain the stipulated measurement of the cane. The principal further elaborated that the canes are procured by the school in line with the required standards. Educators were continuously reminded on the procedure to administer corporal punishment though the number of whips was not monitored. As mature trained professionals, educators were expected to follow the legislation. However, the principal alluded to the fact that the stick brought about conformity by scaring the learner and this helped educators to teach effectively. “No wonder my school is always in the top five performing schools”, he boasted.

The participants mentioned digging pits and scrubbing corridors as an alternative form of punishment. However, this was in most cases supplementary to corporal punishment. One participant alluded: “Corporal punishment is the basic form of discipline. For big offences, a learner is subjected to corporal punishment first, and then given manual labour as an additional form of punishment”.

Theme 3: Causes of school violence and mechanisms put in place to manage and avoid school violence.

There are school rules and regulations which stipulate learners ‘dos and don’ts’. These are enacted by the SMT and educators and then tabled for review in the annual teacher-parents’ general meeting. As a normal protocol, both parents and learners are given a copy of the school rules and regulations at the beginning of each academic year. When transgression occurs on the part of learners, the principal decides on the disciplinary measures depending on the gravity of the offence. It is noteworthy that all the studied high schools did not have disciplinary committees and standards to provide guidance. The disciplinary procedure is: “when the violence offence is brought to the attention of the office either by the learner or student leaders, the deputy principal will assess the offence and if it calls for the invitation of the parent, the learner is referred to the principal’s office”, one participant stated. The process for disciplining learners is as follows:

- The suspect is referred to the school rules and regulation sheet for the specifics of the rule that has been violated.
- The suspect is then given an opportunity to plead guilty or not guilty,
- If the suspect disagrees, he/she has to prove himself/herself innocent by producing a credible witness. In other words the suspect is guilty until he proves himself innocent.
- Two student leadership bodies exist in the school. These are referred to as the ‘community police’ and the ‘ant-corruption body’. The two learner bodies are consulted when investigating violence incidences in the school.
- “What these student leaders say is taken as the truth” stated the principal. The offender may not reject their version.

Theme 4: Laws and policies available in schools to help the SMT in managing school violence.

The laws mentioned in the literature review were referred to in the interview by the participants without a clear distinction. The principal had copies of The Constitution (Swaziland, 2005), the “Swaziland Teaching Service Act” (Swaziland, 1982) and The “Swaziland Education Rules”

(Swaziland, 1977). There were neither written down policies nor workshops organized for educators or learners on violence management except for the curriculum development workshops organized by the MoET subject inspectorate and the University of Swaziland's Department of In-Service Training (INSERT). The principal also mentioned that "Swaziland National Association of Teachers" (SNAT) also conducts optional in-service seminars on school management. The school could not organize a workshop due to shortage of funds. The principal kept relevant copies of government legislation and availed them to educators at the beginning of each term. Educators were also encouraged to ask for the copies from the principal's office.

Documents availed to the researcher included letters inviting parents for disciplinary hearings, the log-book where violence cases are recorded, copies of the school rules and regulations and the principal's diary which consist appointments made with parents of learners affected by violence.

4.3.CASE STUDY B.

Theme 1: Participants understanding of a safe school and the principle of "educators' duty of care towards learners",

The safe school was seen as a free relaxed environment where learners are free from intimidation and violence. According to the principal, "school violence was partly attributed to lack of exposure to biblical teachings of loving one another by the church". The participants indicated that they know the application of the "educators' duty of care towards learners" legal principle. Educators are frequently reminded to supervise learners during sporting activities and on each student trip; they make sure that for every 30 learners they put one educator.

Theme 2: Forms of violence witnessed in the school and perceptions on corporal punishment as a form of school violence,

Bullying was common in the boys' hostel. One participant mentioned that boys who did not want to stay in the hostel misbehaved so that they may be sent home. Boys sexually assaulted girls by touching them inappropriately. Drugs and alcohol found their way into the school through some boys being used as drug mules or distributors.

Older boys do indulge in the consumption of alcohol and drugs during the sporting season and peer pressure was also given as a contributor to drug and alcohol abuse.

The principal alluded to the fact that corporal punishment was used as a “last resort in the school”. Educators were reminded to use other forms of disciplining learners and to not always rush to use the cane. The sticks for administering corporal punishment were provided by the office in case educators needed to use them. These sticks were usually wrapped with a sellotape to avoid splinters. Educators were not allowed to go with sticks to class but only to collect them from the office when needed after which they were expected to return them. The punishment was done in class in front of all learners to discourage them from engaging in the same acts. The principal mentioned that “learners are rarely physically hurt during the administration of corporal punishment but when it happens, they are treated and their parents accordingly informed”. Another participant mentioned, “the learners sometimes get blisters, swell and get back to normal”. All the participants concurred “corporal punishment is faster as other forms of punishment, like detention, “extends the punishment to the educator” by keeping him or her at school beyond the normal working hours”.

The principal recalled an incident when a bush knife at school. Luckily, other learners saw the weapon in time and informed the school administration. The perpetrator was counselled by the school and punished. The information leaked to the police who went to the school and requested for the learner and the school rejected to their request in order to protect the learner from his finger prints being taken. According to the principal, when finger prints of young learners are taken, they remain in the police crime records disadvantaging the young learners at a later date when they undergo police clearance. For these reasons, the principal does not inform the police of any act of violence taking place at school. The principal still believes in the notion of “kids will be kids”. Another aspect of violence cited related to one learner coming from a disadvantaged background that was always irritable and picking fights. When the school interrogated him closely, they discovered that he was going through hardships and studying on an empty stomach. Learner temperament whether biological or externally acquired, was then cited as a cause of school violence.

Theme 3: Causes of school violence and mechanisms put in place to manage and avoid school violence,

The participants explained that:

- The school identified all needy learners and provide for their needs e.g. the school provides hungry learners with one meal a day. This brought to an end the violent behaviour of the disadvantaged learner.
- The SMT advised educators to control their temper and not to attempt disciplining learners when angry.
- The school tried out detention of learners as an alternative form of punishment. This was communicated to parents and done after school for thirty minutes. The affected learners would be given novels to read in the school library under the supervision of the principal. However, some parents showed dissatisfaction and the school stopped it.
- The participants cited out that educator's unpreparedness may in the long run contribute to learners' violent behaviour inside the classroom. By way of showing their dissatisfaction, learners may rebel against the educator using violent means. Hence educators were reminded to prepare for their lessons.

Theme 4: Legislation and policies available in schools to help the SMT in managing school violence

School rules and regulations are revised annually and copies thereof provided to all new learners and some included in the annual school prospectus. Copies of the domestic laws pertaining to school violence are available in the principal's office. Policies drafted by the school include those on visitors, permission for learners to leave school before official closing time and how to deal with school fees defaulters as each school in Swaziland charges school fees. Learners who fail to pay school fees by a certain deadline are usually sent home. The process of sending home the fees defaulters is contained in a policy document.

Documents included a disciplinary book where learners with violence-related disciplinary cases are recorded. A file containing letters inviting parents to attend to cases of violence also existed.

On an ending note, the principal mentioned that the society expected schools to perform miracles in a society riddled by violence and drugs, and that the MoET's pace at empowering educators with different methods of positive discipline was too slow.

4.4.CASE STUDY C.

Theme 1: Participants understanding of a safe school and the principle of “educators’ duty of care towards learners”,

A safe school was described as a fenced institution with lockable classrooms and where rules and regulations were adhered to. In addition, it was referred to as an environment where the policies for managing human and physical resources are well laid down. As one participant emphasized, “the learners are made aware of what is expected of them and the consequences for transgression are well laid down”. Another participant indicated awareness of the educators’ duty of care as a legal obligation of care towards learners but was quick to add that they do not practice it. “They know that they are liable to pay for damages resulting from their negligence but they do not care. May be they assume that the school will pay for them” he noted.

Although some few cases cropped up in the past of learners being hurt, no one has ever been charged in court of law as the injuries were “minor”. In such incidences, the parents of the injured learner was called to the school and notified of the incidence and the learners then went to the community clinic for treatment. The principal understood the concept of liability as responsibility followed by accountability.

Theme 2: Forms of violence witnessed in the school and perceptions on corporal punishment as a form of school violence,

Fighting was common between boys. The principal argued that being a community rural school, the fighting was attributed to them coming mainly from the same community. “They transfer their conflict from outside the school into the school”, he stated. As boys were likely physically assault girls, the principal related this perhaps to the family structures where many of these learners came from. The principal further observed that boys grow up in their communities witnessing women being physically assaulted by their husbands and/or men physically assaulting women whom they claim to be disrespectful to them or who fail to accept their sexual advances.

Verbal abuse by some educators on learners was also mentioned. Educators took advantage of the unfortunate rural school's background and brag about their achievement. In one incidence, a teacher was locked out of the classroom by learners because of bragging and showing off. The principal lamented; "some educators opt for rural schools hoping that they will relax. They associate rural schools with being under no supervision and less work to do". Fortunately, learners are sensitized on such issues. "The school has relatively old strong boys who physically manhandle such educators when they are given a raw deal", the principal further stated. The administration had to intervene on some occasions.

The principal had on many occasions warned and discouraged his educators from administering corporal punishment to learners. However, he lamented, "when I walk around I see the sticks and some try to hide them from me, they know what they are doing is wrong and if anything happens, and they will be accountable". The principal noted that the school cannot afford workshops to train educators on alternative means of disciplining learners as the school operates on a very small budget.

However, the senior educator in the same school vehemently supported the use of corporal punishment. He commented that "the cane helped us while at school. It made me somebody". He further mentioned "we use corporal punishment because it is fast, and you do not have to waste other learners' time by disciplining one misbehaving learner"

Alcohol and drugs especially marijuana is common during the Marula season (January to March). "This alcohol is in most cases prepared in their homes. They simply pack it and come with it to school in their juice bottles" the principal noted. Drunken learners ended up being violent and challenging the authority of educators. Some community households grow marijuana on a commercial basis and rely on it as the only source of family income. In 2013, the school gardener found marijuana plants growing in the school flower gardens. The principal noted, "When you are advising them against using and growing marijuana, you can tell from their faces that they think you are not serious because without it, there would be no money to send them to school".

Theme 3: Causes of school violence and mechanisms put in place to manage and avoid school violence,

The participants cited the main causes of school violence as:

- Lack of proper supervision during school excursions. During these activities, learners indulge in drinking of alcohol and abuse drug related substances which increase their propensity to violence.
- The teacher-student relationship was also cited as a cause of school violence. The older boys become disobedient and eventually violent to a male educator when they discover that he was dating their girlfriends.
- Mismanagement of school funds. When the school is not transparent on how it uses the school funds, some parents and community members use students to make the school ungovernable. Learners are encouraged to rebel against the school authorities.

Theme 4: Legislation and policies available in schools to help the SMT in managing school violence.

The school had the Constitution (Swaziland, 2005) and The Swaziland “Education and Training Sector Policy” (Swaziland, 2011). In addition, the school had a disciplinary committee composed of a senior educator, and any other two educators chosen by the SMT from time to time. The disciplinary committee informed the principal of their findings and the nature of punishment. In severe violence cases, the principal involved the parents and “Royal Swaziland Police” (RSP). Accused learners in this school are given a chance to defend themselves or plead guilty and then their punishment read to them. Learners are allowed to appeal if they are not happy with the decision of the disciplinary committee; in that case, the principal takes over the process of investigations.

The gate was neither locked nor manned but the principal mentioned that his office was on the same side as the gate. “I see what comes in and goes out” he noted. The school acquired handcuffs to arrest strangers who trespass in their compound. Violent learners are also handcuffed as their parents and RSP are being notified. There was no mechanism to detect dangerous objects from entering the school but random searches were made on tip off.

Truancy and absenteeism incidences were very few as all learners were provided with one free meal a day. The government provides one free meal on school days to learners from economically disadvantaged communities.

The violence on sports trips was managed by increasing the number of educators that accompany the learners and by making sure that educators evenly spread themselves in the school bus. Some few incidences of violence that take place outside the school premises are mentioned to the parents or guardians and the traditional leaders of the area. The school also invited non-governmental and governmental organisations to talk to the learners about alcohol and drugs. The groups invited on yearly basis included SWAGAA, FLAS and RSP.

When an educator was away from school, the SMT supervised the learners in in his/her classes. School prefects were trained and empowered to be proactive and report violence acts as soon as they spotted them. Equipment like cell phones, laptops and other electronic gadgets are forbidden at school unless prior arrangements are made to carry them. Dangerous-weapons-offenders are reported to the police immediately and their parents also notified.

The policies the school included, school rules and regulations contained in the school prospectus. The documents that were analysed included the minute book for parents and the staff and disciplinary hearing meetings record books. In these record books, the problem of fighting amongst male learners was frequently mentioned.

4.5.Conclusion.

This chapter presented the responses obtained from each of the three study participants interviewed from the three high schools. Their perceptions on how the SMT manages violence in high school with the a special reference to educator's duty of care were noted and the following major findings emerged: educators regarded corporal punishment as an aid to teaching, fighting was common amongst boys, sexual violence was mainly perpetuated by boys towards girls, alcohol was common in schools during the 'Marula' season and marijuana did enter schools. It also emerged that educators were notorious for humiliating and belittling learners while in their care. An attempt was being made in all schools to supervise learners especially on school excursions while after school hours and on their way from school, schools relied on parents/guardians and the community around the school to manage whatever violence that would

take place. Documents commonly reviewed to in the data collection process included: the “School Rules and Regulations” which usually appears in the schools’ prospectus, the Swaziland “Teaching Service Act” of 1982 and the “Swaziland Education Rules” of 1977. Policies on managing violence were verbally mentioned with no clear written record present in all the three schools. The following chapter will provide an exegesis of the above emerging themes in relation to the relevant literature review.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1. Introduction.

This chapter concludes the study by discussing the researcher's findings and by providing the general conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study. The previous four chapters laid a foundation for this chapter. In Chapter One, the researcher stated the purpose of the study to explore the role the SMT plays in managing violence in schools. The researcher employed a qualitative multiple case studies together with the concepts generated from the relevant literature review. The "educators' duty of care towards learners" as a conceptual framework was used to guide the study. In Chapter Four, a detailed report of the research findings and the main themes accruing from the study was outlined. The researcher begun by highlighting the limitations of the study and then deliberately linked the literature review and the research findings in an attempt to answer the research questions stated in Chapter One. The researcher then suggested recommendations basing on the research findings.

5.2.Limitations of the study.

Since the present study was of limited scope, and only based on data collected from three high schools, a more representative sample of both primary and high schools randomly selected from regions of Swaziland should be used in future study. This will ensure that the inferences drawn from the data may be generalized. The participants for the study were selected using a purposive sampling method rather than a random sampling method in order for the researcher to capture the targeted data. As the participants included only three senior members of the SMT, the sample may be too small to enhance generalizability. Therefore, the researcher cautions that the findings of this study should be interpreted with care as all schools and educators in the country were not fully represented in the findings.

5.3.Discussing the research findings.

The researcher approached the discussion of the research findings by examining how far the findings answered the research question namely: "What is the role of the school senior managers in managing violence in Swaziland high schools?" This primary question led to three secondary

research questions namely: How does the SMT perceive their roles in managing violence in high schools? How does the SMT empower educators in their role of exercising the educators' duty of care towards children in schools? and how do the prevailing laws impact on the SMT's role of managing school violence? The researcher will unpack each question in the course of the discussion.

To answer the first question, the researcher begun by analysing the perceptions of the participants on "What is a safe school?" The response from all the participants indicated lack of proper understanding of a safe school. Squelch (2001:137-149) defines a safe school as: "one that is free of danger and where there is absence of possible harm; a place in which non-educators, educators and learners may work, teach and learn without fear of ridicule, intimidation, harassment, humiliation, or violence.

Squelch, (2001:137-149) also lists the indicators of safe schools to 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 (or low level) of crime and violence".

According to Netshitahame and Vollenhoven (2002: 313), "school safety is not a matter of rule and regulations", the educator in addition to his duty to teach and educate, is also required to provide educational, physical and mental safety to learners. However, as the participants in the three schools responded, their schools did not meet the standards of a safe school. All the three studied school had a problem of access control. The participants regarded fencing the school enough to guarantee school safety. Although all of them were fenced, the gates were unmanned with no record of who comes in and leaves the school. The schools minded only about the securing of school property by hiring only a night watchman and school violence was never mentioned as a factor in school safety.

In an attempt to further explore the participants' understanding of their role in managing violence in schools; they were interviewed on the nature of school violence and its cause. The main responses that emerged were: "fighting between older boys, older boys physically assaulting

and/or sexually harassing girls in what manifested as GBV, alcohol and drug abuse related violence, verbal assault by educators towards learners and use of corporal punishment”.

5.3.1. Sexual harassment and Gender-Based Violence (GBV).

Basing on the findings, both sexual harassment and GBV happened in the three high schools included in the study. According to Du Plessis *et al.* (1998:418)cited in Prinsloo (2006: 2) “sexual harassment is an unwanted conduct of a sexual nature and the conduct becomes sexual harassment if- the recipient has made it clear that the behaviour is offensive and unacceptable”. The boys touching girls and showing-off their private parts constitutes one form of sexual harassment.

However, the deputy principal of school A mentioned that most victimized girls do not report the offence for fear of being further targeted by the offenders and being blamed by the society. There is a misconception for girls to be blamed for “inviting” boys when they are sexually assaulted. This culture of girls not reporting cases of sexual harassment has also been cited by UNICEF (2012: 64) that “children who are sexually assaulted do not want to speak out and parents (most especially mothers) are hesitant to report or to lay charges for fear of reprisals from neighbours and relatives”.

Many authors agree that there is no standard definition but for this study, the researcher adopted Andersson, Cockcroft and Shea (2008: 73) view that GBV is “a complex phenomenon often including a combination of physical, sexual, emotional violence and deprivation or neglect”. This type of violence is usually directed to a person because of his/her gender- such that the physical assault subjected to girls by boys in this study constitutes GBV. The principal of School C attributed the boy’s aggressiveness towards girls to the culture of the communities in which they live. The principal mentioned that there exists a culture of men assaulting women amongst Swazis community. Therefore, “boys see nothing wrong with assaulting girls as most men in society assault women” he mentioned. This is also echoed in Haviland (1993: 30) definition of culture which is given as: “A set of rules and standards shared by members of society, which, when acted upon by the members, produce behaviour that falls within a range of variation the members consider proper and acceptable”.

Administration of corporal punishment.

All the participants except for the principal of school C strongly supported the use of corporal punishment in schools. They were all aware of the intentional ban of corporal punishment and its denouncement by various human rights organisations in Swaziland. In addition, all study participants were aware of some laws that support the use of corporal punishment in schools despite Swaziland being signatory to international treaties that denounce it. The three notable laws are The Constitution (Swaziland, 2005), Article 29 (2) which states: “a child shall not be subjected to abuse or torture or other cruel inhuman and degrading or punishment subject to lawful and moderate chastisement for purpose of correction” and article 14 of the “Children’s Protection and Welfare Act” (Swaziland, 2012) provides for “justifiable” discipline. Lamentably, the Act does not condemn the use of corporal punishment.

In addition to the two laws above, the participants were all vividly aware of The “Swaziland Education Act” of 1982 and The “Swaziland Education Rules” of 1977 that specify the administration of corporal punishment. However, they could not clearly mention the contents of the above laws other than knowing that the laws in question allowed them to use corporal punishment. In school B, the school had taken precautions to sellotape all the sticks to avoid splinters that would cause physical damage to the corporal punishment recipients. The participant’s knowledge of corporal punishment boarded on causing physical pain in contrast to the definition given by Duhaime (2009: 1) as: “the direct infliction of pain on the physical body and can also involve emotional and psychological abuse including: verbal abuse, humiliating, physical activities and child’s deprivation of basic needs like food, water of toilet”

However, the interview findings from school A and B revealed- that in most cases, the duty of administering corporal punishment is delegated. The laws specifies that the principals should be the only personnel to administer corporal punishment but leaves some flexibility for them to delegate this responsibility. The educators in the three schools administer corporal punishment on the pretext that it is a delegated responsibility. The principal of school C dissuaded educators from using corporal punishment but failed. He lamented that the cane has almost become a teaching aid. “Some educators go with it each time they go to class to teach”, he mentioned.

The educators' fear was that the removal of the cane would compromise discipline in the schools and take away the power to control learners thus lead to impediment to teaching and learning.

5.3.2. Effects of alcohol and drugs.

Alcohol and drugs was another major factor that contributed to violence in all the three studied high schools. The common alcoholic product was 'amarula' a home-made brew harvested from the Marula trees. According to the principal of school C, alcohol is usually sold in homes and in illegal liquor drinking spots or outlets commonly referred to as 'Shebeens'. These outlets open as long as customers are available and can sell to any person regardless of age. The principal of school C mentioned that some learners buy and drink this brew outside the school premises or take it to school where other learners may try it out. When drunk, learners in addition to missing out on their studies, injure themselves, involve in sexual misconduct, and often become violent.

The problem of drugs was mostly mentioned by participants in school B and C. The common drug mentioned was marijuana – sometimes called “dagga”. This is a locally grown plant by local people in the rural areas and processed into “cakes”. The problem of this drug manifested in two forms: learners near the city centre were mainly used as couriers by the city drug lords while others abused it. According to the principal of school B, learners were also used by drug dealers as ‘look-outs’ for drug dealers; hoping that when these learners are arrested by police, they are subjected to a lenient criminal sentence. Some learners came from the community where the drug is produced. The principal of school C mentioned that the live hood of those communities, which includes education expenses for their children, depends on the growing and processing of marijuana. Unfortunately, the principal of school B mentioned that in both cases some learners ended up experimenting with the drug (user-dealers) at an early age. This is detrimental to their health, forcing them out of school and sometimes driving them into committing acts of violence in order to get money to buy drugs. This is in line with Gaustad (1991) cited in Day, Golench, MacDougall & Beals-Gonzalez (1995: 20) who posit that “apart from the harmful mental and psychological effects of narcotics on the individual user, the vast amounts of money that these drugs generate result in an increase in the influence of drugs”. While some learners who are user-dealers end up accumulating a lot of money at an early age others need the money to buy the drugs.

The SMT in the two schools mentioned that they were helpless as they have no control over the alcohol and drug sources. Schools put measures in place to prevent alcohol and drugs entering their institution but they are sometimes not lucky to catch the culprits. One of the measures employed by the schools was conducting searches when there was a reasonable suspicion or tip-off. These searches commonly involve searching learners' bags, lockers, pockets, jackets and shoes. However, the standards for searching learners are sometimes not followed. In one school, educators were allowed to search all learners regardless of their gender. One participant defended the procedure by arguing that educators act like parents to their students. Educators are not aware that while conducting searches, they have to balance a learner's constitutional right to privacy against the need of the school to maintain order and discipline and to protect the health and safety of all learners.

5.3.3. The exercising of the educators' duty of care towards learners.

Although the SMT in all the three schools were not familiar with the common law terminologies of; 'educators' duty of care', 'in loco parentis', and 'diligens paterfamilias', they all agreed that supervising learners at school is part of their responsibility. The respondents were also not well versed with the Swazi laws and policies that oblige schools to guarantee children their safety while at school. According to Duhaimé (2014: 1), the term "in loco parentis refers to a person who, though not the natural parent, has acted as a parent to a child and may thus be liable to legal obligations as if he/she was a natural parent". Educators always act in loco parentis by accepting responsibility for safety and well-being of learners under their care and that this duty is initially and delegated to provide a safe and secure environment. "Diligens paterfamilias", a concept from the "Roman-Dutch Law" that refers to a prudent head of the family is the standard of care/supervision expected from the educator or school and is the benchmark for determining a reasonable caring person. The researcher expected participants to be well acquainted with the above common laws like the Constitution of Swaziland (2005), Learners Code of Conduct – locally referred to as "School Rules and Regulations", "Swaziland Schools Act" of 1982 and "Swaziland Education Rules" of 1977. overall the participants only knew that there were laws that allowed them to use corporal punishment without mentioning them.

The above mentioned laws are mainly concerned with learners' right to education, human dignity, safety and security, protection from maltreatment, neglect, abuse and degradation.

It is noteworthy that educators interviewed during the study were not familiar with the laws that guided their profession. The Constitution, the supreme law of the country in section 18(1) and (2) coupled with section 29(2) under the Bill of Rights clearly outlines the non-negotiable inherent rights of all human beings, learners included. The “National Children’s Policy” (Swaziland, 2008) section (8) obliges the state organs of which schools are part “to respect, promote, protect and fulfil all national, regional, and international human rights obligations aiming at protecting children”. Surprisingly, this is in contradiction to the Constitution article 29(2) which allows the use of corporal punishment in schools that dehumanise and torture learners.

There was some ambiguity in the educators responses regarding liability to damages accruing from violence acts at school and/or during school excursions. In particular, the interviewed educators could not explain in detail the scenarios under which it is a legal imperative to take reasonable steps during the occurrence of the particular violence, determination of negligence on the side of the educator, and the consequences an educator would face because of failure to exercise his/her duty of care towards learners. According to Wentzel (2011: 5), “negligence takes place when an educator’s conduct falls short of the reasonable person who is supposed to see harm and act proactively to guard against the harm” and by “giving insufficient attention to his/her actions, an educator fails to adhere to the standard of care legally expected from a professional trained educator who is an expert in the field of education”.

It may be argued that if educators knew their obligation regarding the duty of care towards their students, all the above laws and the consequences of not following them, the educators’ supervision of learners against violence would be heightened. Wentzel (2011: 3) is of the opinion that a trained professional in child behaviour and child psychology, a greater degree of care should be expected from the educator than an ordinary person. He further argues that the educator should know that learners are impulsive, unpredictable and do not notice danger.

5.4.Recommendations of this study.

The aim of this research was to investigate the role played by the SMT in managing violence in schools. The study found that violence exists in schools and the SMT in the three studied schools had put measures in place to manage the violence. Considering the study findings and the relevant literature that was reviewed, the researcher believes that the study successfully filled the knowledge gap that has not been addressed by previous scholars in the same field namely: The management of violence in Swaziland high schools? The researcher has therefore made the following recommendations regarding the SMT's role in managing school violence.

- All schools should have on campus written effective policies on how to deal with specific violence incidences and the specific consequences for not adhering to such policies.
- The use of corporal punishment in schools should be completely abolished in line with international laws.
- The MoET should initiate educator professional development programs on school safety, conflict resolution, peer mediation and anger management strategies amongst learners. In particular, the MoET should avail educators with alternative methods of discipline. The fear that without a cane learners would be indisciplined and out of control should be allayed. Learners should also be frequently guided on conflict management, peer pressure; and made aware of the dangers of alcohol and drug abuse and other forms of violence.
- The MoET should create awareness amongst the teaching fraternity on domestic, regional and international laws that impact on children rights. Educators also have to realize that their profession demands a continuous development in order for them to keep abreast with the challenges of fast changing demands on the global arena.
- Schools must be fenced with a gate and a visitors' log book to control and monitor access. As the levels of violence in society increase, schools should act as prudent fathers who foresee danger and act proactively to prevent it.
- Schools must be more vigilant during "Marula" season to discourage learners from indulging in alcohol abuse.

- Cultural norms that consider women inferior at the community level should be addressed through traditional structures in order to address the GBV that infiltrate schools through boys emulating older men in the greater society where they live.
- Schools should be aware that violence may occur in homes, on their way to school or at school. When such violence is identified or suspected outside the institution of learning, schools should inform the relevant law enforcement agents to investigate the violence.
- Government must empower people from the marijuana producing areas with other forms of income generating ventures in order to stop them from producing of the narcotic because drug abuse and addiction have negative consequences for individuals and society.
- As the present study only involved interviewing SMTs, it is important that future studies interview student leaders and parents representatives.

5.5.Conclusion.

In this chapter, the overall research findings were discussed in relation to the relevant literature, the limitations of the study cited, and several recommendations made in respect to proper management of violence in Swaziland schools. The recommendations made in this chapter essentially focused on how to curb the problem of sexual harassment and GBV in schools, the rampant use of corporal punishment in schools, role of drugs and alcohol to school violence, and how to uphold the educators' duty of care towards their learners. It is hoped that if implemented, the various recommendations cited above will go a long way to improve the school environment and therefore enable educators to effectively teach the school children in violence-free environment as enshrined in the "World Declaration on Education For All" (EFA) (2000), "Universal Declaration of Human Rights" (1948) and the "Convention on the Rights of the Child" (1989).

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APPENDICES.

APPENDIX A:

“The role of school managers in managing violence in high schools: a Swaziland case study”

Semi-structured interview and document analysis protocol.

A. The Semi-Structured Interview Schedule.

Background information

1. Number learners at your school Boys: girls:
2. Size of your teaching staff. Males: Females:
3. Average size of your classes.
4. Teaching & managerial experience. Teaching..... Managerial:.....

Manifestation of school violence.

1. What is your understanding of a safe school?
2. Do you have learners who were recently involved in violent acts? E.g. bullying (both student to learner and teacher to learner), verbal aggression, sexual harassment, drug or alcohol abuse, corporal punishment, fighting causing physical injury. Can you tell me more about these incidences?
3. Give examples of the types of hidden forms of violence that exist in your school.
Examples of hidden violence include: sarcasm in classrooms, ignoring learners, getting rid of students, hounding a learner until he/she is suspended, insulting, put-downs or spite and classifying a learner as a “trouble maker” or a “no-hoper”?
4. Have you experienced any of the following forms of sexual harassment, and how have you handled the situation?
 - a. Sexual comments, jokes or gestures,
 - b. Being teased with sexually suggestive pictures,
 - c. Sending sexually offensive messages
 - d. Being forced to be kissed
 - e. Being teased about being gay/lesbian
 - f. Being pressured to have sex

- g. Being sexually assaulted
 - h. Spreading sexual rumours about someone.
5. What is your opinion on the banning of corporal punishment?

Dealing with school violence.

1. How do teachers effectively supervise learners while on school grounds, i.e. during breaks times, extramural times, before and after school?
2. Do you have copies of Learners' Code of Conduct, Manuals for Chairs and Members of Disciplinary Committees and Evidence-Leaders, Code of Professional Ethics for Swaziland Teachers, and Manuals for Misconduct of Learners and Disciplinary Proceedings to share with me? How do you make all stake-holders aware of these policies and how are they effectively applied?
3. Do you have policies on the following? Please share with me an incidence when it was applied?
 - a. Gaining access to the school by visitors
 - b. Dangerous objects and aggressive behaviour,
 - c. Illegal drugs and alcohol
 - d. Conducting searches and seizure of dangerous objects
 - e. Reporting incidences of violence
 - f. Early release of learners.
 - g. Supervision of learners on school trips and tours.
4. Which domestic, regional and international laws are you aware of that addresses the problem of violence in schools? Which ones do you have on school?
5. What happens to learners in class when a teacher is absent?

Educators' duty of care towards learners.

1. Has your staff been trained on how to spot the potential for violence incidences and defuse them?
2. What attempt has been made to teach students nonviolent conflict resolution?
3. When does your duty to look after learners begin and end? What consequences do teachers face when a learner is hurt or injured while under their care?

4. What measures have been put in place to enlighten educators on their legal obligation to ensure learners' safety while under their custody?

B. Document Analysis schedule.

The documents include both private and public. It includes policy documents formulated at national, regional and school level. I am aware some of the following documents may be too personal but I will appreciate it if you accord me access to them if they are available. The information obtained from these documents will be treated in strictest confidence.

1. Learners' code of conduct.
2. Minutes of previous disciplinary hearings.
3. An incident book or file where learners who commit offences are recorded.
4. Official memos to learners, staff members and parents on violence.

Thank you for your cooperation and participation in this interview.

APPENDIX B.

Letter to The Ministry of Education and Training seeking for permission to conduct research.



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

Department of Education management and Policy
Studies

11th February 2014.

The Director,
Ministry of Education and Training,
P. O. Box 39,
Mbabane, Swaziland.

Dear Madam,

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY.

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study at three high schools in the Kingdom. I am currently enrolled in the Faculty of Education at University of Pretoria in South Africa and am in the process of writing my Master's Thesis. The study is entitled "*The role of school managers in managing violence in high schools: a Swaziland case study*". This research provides a unique opportunity for me and the schools chosen to explore ways and means of minimising violence incidences in high schools.

I intend to conduct semi-structured interviews with the principal, one deputy and one senior teacher from each of the three schools in order to gain their perceptions of the current situation in their schools. The three schools have been conveniently chosen to give the research a broad view and the acceptable degree of diversity. The names of the participants and schools will be kept anonymous and their views will be kept confidential. The senior managers who volunteer to participate will be given consent forms to be signed and returned to the primary researcher (copy enclosed).

If permission is granted, the participants will be interviewed individually in their offices or other quiet setting on the school site. I have tentatively suggested that our interviews take place after 14:00 hours for a period not exceeding one hour but will accept any other recess time during school time. No costs will be incurred by the school or the individual participants.

The participants will be routinely offered the findings and feedback and allowed to delete data which they do not want to be used in the research. In addition, participants will be allowed to discontinue at any point. If in the course of my study I discover learners' maltreatment, I will make the school aware that I have an obligation to report such an act to the relevant departments.

A copy of the completed thesis will be availed to the Department of Education. I hope the findings of the research will provide guidelines and recommendations to all education practitioners in the Kingdom pertaining to the state of violence and how effective senior managers can deal with this violence. If you agree, kindly provide me with a signed letter of permission acknowledging your consent and permission for me to conduct this study at these schools. You may use my e-mail to reply me: bdtumwine@gmail.com

Thank you for assistance in this matter.

Faithfully yours,

Tumwine Baguma Deo.

Student Researcher

Prof. Rika Joubert.

Supervisor

APPENDIX C

Letter of consent to participating schools.



Department of Education management and Policy
Studies

11th February 2014

The Principal,

_____ High School

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY.

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study with you at your school. I am currently enrolled in the Faculty of Education at University of Pretoria in South Africa and am in the process of writing my Master's Thesis. The study is entitled "*The role of school managers in managing violence in high schools: a Swaziland case study*"

I hope you will avail me an opportunity to conduct a semi-structured interview with yourself. Your name will be kept anonymous and your views will be kept confidential. If permission is granted, you will be interviewed in your office or other quiet setting on the school site. I will be grateful if you indicate where and when the school takes recess during school time. Otherwise, I will tentatively suggest that our interview takes place after 14:00 hours for a period not exceeding one hour. No costs will be incurred by the school or the individual participants.

Your school has been conveniently selected so as to give the research study a broad view and to reflect the acceptable degree of diversity. Your answers to the questions will be treated in the strictest confidence, not even the Ministry of Education will have access to the notes.

You and your school will not be identified either by name or by implication by any reader or findings of this research. However, if in the course of my study I discover learners' maltreatment, I will make yourself and the school aware that I have an obligation to report such an act to the relevant departments. If you agree, permission from the Ministry of Education will be sought. You will be routinely offered the findings and feedback and allowed to delete data which you do not want to be used in the research. In addition, you will be allowed to discontinue at any point.

I hope the findings of the research will be of great help to you and your staff and together we might find solutions for school violence so that the teaching and learning process takes place in safe environment.

If you agree to participate in this research, kindly fill in and sign the consent form attached. I have attached an interview schedule for you beforehand. Should you have any difficulties or queries, feel free to contact me on 00268 7613 7222 or by email: bdtumwine@gmail.com

Your assistance by taking part in this research is highly appreciated.

Faithfully yours,

Tumwine Baguma Deo.
Research Student.

APPENDIX D

Letter of consent to the participants.



Department of Education management
and Policy Studies

CONSENT FORM.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH STUDY ENTITLED:

“The role of school managers in managing violence in high schools: a Swaziland case study”

I _____ the _____ of
_____ in _____ Region,

hereby voluntarily agree to participate as an individual and of my school in the above mentioned study. I declare that the following issues have been thoroughly explained to me by Mr. B D Tumwine currently a MEd student at the University of Pretoria.

- The aims, scope, purpose, possible consequences and benefits,
- The method of collecting data needed for the research,
- The means by which the research will attempt to ensure confidentiality, anonymity and integrity of the data collected,
- That I am at liberty to withdraw from the study at any time.

Principal/Deputy Principal/Senior Educator.

Date.

SCHOOL STAMP

APPENDIX E

Permission from the Director of The Ministry of Education and Training in Swaziland to conduct research.

The Government of the Kingdom of Swaziland



Ministry of Education & Training

Tel: (+268) 2 4042491/5
Fax: (+268) 2 404 3880

P. O. Box 39
Mbabane, SWAZILAND

7th March, 2014

Attention:
Head Teachers:

THROUGH
Manzini Regional Education Officer

Dear Colleague,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FOR UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA STUDENT – MR. TUMWINE BAGUMA DEO

1. Reference is made to the above mentioned subjects.
2. The Ministry of Education and Training has received a request from Mr. Tumwine Baguma Deo; a student at the University of Pretoria, that in order for him to fulfill his academic requirements at the University of Pretoria, he has to collect data (conduct research) and his study or research topic is: *The Role of School Senior Managers in Managing Violence In Swaziland High Schools*. The population for his study comprises of administrators (Principals and their Deputies) as well as Senior teachers from the above mentioned schools. All details concerning the study are stated in the participants' consent form which will have to be signed by all participants before Mr. Tumwine begins his data collection. Please ensure that parents sign the *Parent Consent form* for their children under the age of 18 years before they participate in this study.
3. The Ministry of Education and Training requests your offices to assist Mr. Tumwine by allowing him to use above mentioned schools in the Manzini region as his research sites as well as facilitate him by giving him all the support he needs in his data collection process. Data collection period is one month.

Regards,


DR. SIBONGILE M. MTSHALI-DLAMINI
DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

cc: Regional Education Officers –Manzini
Chief Inspector – Secondary
3 Head Teachers of the above mentioned schools
Prof. Rika Joubert.



APPENDIX F

Ethical Clearance Certificate



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

DEGREE AND PROJECT

INVESTIGATOR(S)

DEPARTMENT

DATE CONSIDERED

DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE

CLEARANCE NUMBER :

EM 13/06/02

MEd

The role of school managers in managing violence in high schools: a Swaziland case study

Baguma Deo Tumwine

Educational Management and Policy Studies

30 July 2014

APPROVED

Please note:

For Masters applications, ethical clearance is valid for 2 years

For PhD applications, ethical clearance is valid for 3 years.

**CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS
COMMITTEE**

Prof Liesel Ebersöhn

DATE

30 July 2014

CC

Jeannie Beukes
Liesel Ebersöhn
Prof HJ Joubert

This ethical clearance certificate is issued subject to the following condition:

1. It remains the students' responsibility to ensure that all the necessary forms for informed consent are kept for future queries.

Please quote the clearance number in all enquiries.