Workplace violence against educators in private and public secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng: a comparative investigation

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Workplace violence against educators in private and public secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng: a comparative investigation

by

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DECLARATION

I, Annika Coetzee, hereby declare that the thesis '*Workplace violence against educators in private and public secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng: a comparative investigation*' submitted in fulfilment of the degree MA (Criminology) at the University of Pretoria is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted for a degree at another university. In addition, I declare that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged.

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Annika Coetzee   Date

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ABSTRACT

Violence in South Africa is not only prevalent in society and the home environment, but is also present in the workplace. Although substantial research has been conducted into school violence and learner-focused, school-based violence, the study set out to determine the nature and extent of workplace violence that educators face; identify the effects and consequences of workplace violence on victims; profile educators as victims of workplace violence with specific reference to gender, age and occupational level; and determine the presence and role of policies and educator participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence. The comparative investigation further established difference in such experiences between private and public secondary schools.

In pursuit of the objectives of the study, 274 self-administered questionnaires were delivered to three public and three private secondary schools in Gauteng after both probability and non-probability sampling methods were employed. A total of 122 completed questionnaires were returned. Using descriptive and inferential data analysis, by means of the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis H test, relationships, differences and similarities were determined. Both univariate and bivariate data are displayed in multiple formats. Evident from the results and corroborating existing literature, educators in the study reported having experienced both physical and non-physical (verbal and social) violence, although the survey findings indicate the latter to be dominant. Notably, educators are victimised by various perpetrators and the opportunity to become victimised is greatest during classes, especially in public schools.

Educator-targeted violence appears to be the result of multiple interrelated contextual factors that result in a fear for personal safety and far-reaching personal and professional consequences for educators. The profile of educators as victims verified and further exposed various risk factors in terms of demographics and background. Female educators, unmarried educators, public school educators, educators working for long periods of time and educators with lower educational achievements presented greater risk of victimisation. Similarly, female educators and public school educators experienced deficits in power and control. In terms of the public and private divide, significant associations indicated that educators in public schools were more likely to experience physical violence, verbal violence, bullying and vandalism by learners thus justifying their increased likelihood of feeling threatened in the workplace, considering their school at high risk of violence, and viewing workplace violence as a serious problem. Furthermore, with a higher chance of victimisation by not being heard, favouritism and overcrowding, public school respondents were more likely to report lower levels of involvement in decision-making regarding school

issues, which consequently affected their sense of power and control in the workplace and increased their risk of victimisation. The majority of respondents indicated having neither been provided with material(s) related to workplace violence nor having received training with regards to the phenomenon (in particular female respondents) therefore the researcher recommends, amongst others, an increase in training and the dissemination of information regarding workplace violence against educators, both in the school setting and among the community.

Keywords: violence, workplace violence, workplace bullying, school violence, public school, private school, secondary school, educator-targeted violence, control

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Chapter 1: Introduction and purpose

"A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops."

~Henry Brooks Adams

1.1. Introduction

South Africa is known as one of the most violent countries in the world (Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation, 2010:2). Violence in South Africa is not only prevalent in society and the home environment, but is also present in the workplace. Due to, in part, the desensitisation effect of exposure to violence (*cf.* Fanti, Vanman, Henrich & Avraamides, 2009), workplace violence is sometimes considered trivial in comparison to other forms of violence. However, the impact of violence in the work environment is significant and its far-reaching effects should not be underestimated. The present study focuses on the workplace violence educators face from various sources, and establishes whether or not there is a difference in such experiences between private and public secondary schools. Although substantial research has been conducted into school violence, comparative research regarding violence against educators is severely limited in South Africa. Educators play an extremely important role in the development of our future generations and in the effective everyday running of our country. However, for some educators, teaching has changed from being a fulfilling and exciting career to one of fear and doubt. It is important to pay attention to educators in order to broaden our view of them, not merely as perpetrators of violence against learners, but as victims themselves.

1.2. Origin of the study

The study was initiated in order to gain insight into workplace violence in general and delve deeper into workplace violence against educators, with a comparative focus on educators in private and public secondary schools. Interest in the phenomenon was sparked by multiple newspaper articles and media reports of incidents related to violence in schools and violence against educators. Examples of such incidents include the assault on a pregnant female educator in 2008 (Prince, 2008); the stabbing of another female educator in Soweto in 2011 (Soweto boy allegedly stabs teacher, 2011); an article published in The Star on October 25, 2012, in which a pupil fought with and continually threatened the life of a teacher with no remorse, enlisting the help of his friends who were not students at the school (Madiba, 2012); and a grade eight learner who set the hair of an educator on fire, resulting in the educator receiving psychiatric treatment (Claassen, 2013:6). These incidents indicate that educators do not only face violence from learners, but from outside school as well. As

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explained below, the greater part of studies on school violence focuses on learners and not educators as victims of school violence, hence the origin of the present study.

1.3. Rationale for the study

Even though workplace violence has been researched internationally in, inter alia, European countries, Scandinavia, Finland, Bulgaria and the United States, (*cf.* Younghusband, 2010; Ervasti, Kivimaki, Pentti, Salmi, Suominen, Vahtera & Vistanen, 2012), there is a general lack of research on the phenomenon in South Africa. According to the South African Council for Educators (South African Council for Educators [SACE], 2011:30), there is sufficient research on the impact of school violence on learners, but little on the impact of such violence on educators and the coping mechanisms they utilise (Du Plessis, 2008:31). Academics who have conducted research on workplace violence in South Africa have focused mainly on workplace violence in 'high risk' occupations such as the health sector (Chapman, Styles, Perry & Combs, 2010a), the correctional and police services (Dussich, 2003; Prinsloo & Ladikos, 2003), social services (Respass & Payne, 2008; Ringstad, 2005), and have explored violence against domestic workers and farm workers (Kgosimore, 2004).

After an initial review of the literature (among others, Benbenishty & Astor, 2008; De Vos, 2013; De Wet, 2003, 2007, 2010, 2011; Fox & Stallworth, 2010; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013; Steffgen & Ewen, 2007; Wilson, Douglas & Lyon, 2011), it became clear that while evidence is available regarding violence against educators in terms of prevalence, nature and extent, contributing factors, impact, and possible prevention and intervention methods, some questions about the phenomenon remain unanswered. Comparative research is particularly lacking with regards to workplace violence experienced by South African educators working across public and private divides.

As with many other phenomena, research on educator-directed violence is presented and argued from multiple perspectives. Certain commonalities have however been found within both South African and non-South African research. For example, agreement has been reached in terms of the nature of violence against educators (prominence of non-physical violence over physical violence) by various South African (De Wet, 2007b:27; Burton & Leoschut, 2013:27) and non-South African (Chen & Astor, 2008:5; Ozdemir, 2012:51) researchers. With regards to the victimisation of educators, some researchers concede that educators are not only perpetrators of school-based violence (Leoschut, 2008:5) but victims as well (De Vos, 2013:10; De Wet, 2007b:10). In addition, debates on gender as a risk factor with regards to violence and bullying, continue. Researchers such as De Vos (2013:33) found women to be at greater risk of victimisation, whereas Cunniff and Mostert (2012:10)

found men to be at higher risk. Continued research, which the present study forms part of, is needed to identify how these and other variables play out and interact across different South African settings and contexts.

Even though the present study focuses primarily on the workplace violence that educators face, it does take a deeper look into workplace violence as a phenomenon, and policies and prevention strategies in this regard. Educators are not only at risk of physical violence, but also of non-physical violence and violence perpetrated by the organisation itself. Violence can come from multiple sources such as learners, co-workers, principals, vice principals, parents, strangers and victims' previous or current partners (De Wet, 2007b:15, 29-30). The study is pertinent as it examines the phenomenon and all its facets, and strives to enlighten readers about workplace violence in general, the workplace violence faced by educators, and possible differences in the phenomenon between private and public secondary schools.

The study addresses certain shortcomings pertaining to research topics, as pointed out in previous research. The study also delves deeper into different forms of violence in relation to victimisation from the perspective of educators, and provides reasons for such violence – a much needed research endeavour, as pointed out by Wilson et al. (2011:2367). The study fills an information void as it provides an examination of educator-targeted violence, workplace bullying, vulnerability and impact within the milieu of gender, age and power. It has been pointed out that this approach was restricted in previous research, and is necessary to future academic ventures (Fox & Stallworth, 2010:949; Kruger, 2011:133). Regardless of the amount of research that has already been conducted on violence in the workplace and even violence in schools, more extensive research is still required; hence, the present study was conducted in order to enhance awareness of this topic. Awareness of the phenomenon of workplace violence is vital in order for individuals to recognise, report, and deal with various forms of workplace violence they may experience.

1.4. Aim and objectives

The aim of the study is to determine and compare educators' experiences of violence in public and private secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng. In pursuit of the aim, the objectives are to:

- Determine the nature and extent of workplace violence that educators face.

- Identify the effects and consequences of workplace violence on victims.

- Profile educators as victims of workplace violence with specific reference to gender, age and occupational level.

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- Determine the presence and role of policies and educator-participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence.

1.5. Value of the research

Educators are vital in the development of our future generations. They are the academic legs we stand on and influence the successes or failures of our children. The study aims to expand and build on existing findings and to further enrich and add to the meagre body of knowledge regarding violence in schools, and more specifically violence against educators. Due to the limited amount of knowledge available on workplace violence against educators, the study aims to fill the knowledge gap between the extensive amount of learner-focused, school-based violence research presently available, and the much needed research regarding such violence against educators in the school setting. The study is also of value as it examines differences between public and private secondary schools. The study thus develops specific insights into public and private divides, and has the potential to develop a better understanding of variations in workplace violence against educators, based on such divides.

The findings of the study will be disseminated to both the University of Pretoria and the Gauteng Department of Education, where it can be used to inform policy. The research study at hand can also be beneficial in future research, providing other researchers with basic knowledge and a point of reference. Furthermore, making it available to the Department of Education and other University of Pretoria platforms will be of benefit to other academics and researchers. The researcher will, in addition, write an article(s) on the report at hand which will be submitted to peer-reviewed journals.

1.6. Summary of the research methods

The research design and methods used in the present study will be discussed fully in Chapter 4 of the dissertation. A summary of the design and methods is, nevertheless, warranted as part of the introductory chapter. The paradigm and frame of reference followed is the positivist paradigm, based on explanation, numbers, facts and objective observation (Neuman, 2011:95). The means of enquiry and approach were quantitative, using numerical values, quantification and statistical procedures (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013:16). With a descriptive purpose, the researcher is able to systematically define and describe the nature, extent, types of violence, contributing factors, effects and attitudes regarding workplace violence in schools (Punch, 2005:15). The research was basic in nature, hence, it aimed to build on existing knowledge and provide part of a foundation for future research (Neuman, 2014:26). A cross-sectional survey was used, where the purpose was not to

measure change over time but to procure data to allow for comparative investigation at one point in time (Neuman, 2011:44). Survey research additionally allowed for the procurement of a large volume of information involving multiple variables.

Probability and nonprobability sampling was utilised in the study. Probability sampling was used in the selection of schools, hence stratified random sampling was opted for in order to promote generalisation of the results (Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:142). Stratified random sampling took place in the selection of public and private secondary schools, as established lists of provincial and independent secondary schools in Gauteng were available. Following the stratified random sampling, each school was approached independently, and non-probability sampling took place in the form of availability/convenience sampling from the educators within each randomly selected school (Neuman, 2014:167). Data were collected via self-administered questionnaires in order to obtain maximum data in a short period of time. The questionnaire was divided into five sections, with each section covering a different theme.

Data analysis involved quantitative measures, using descriptive and inferential data analysis to determine whether relationships, differences and similarities exist. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were utilised to determine distribution, and statistical tests used in the study were the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis H test (Bless et al., 2013:301-303). Univariate and bivariate data are displayed using frequency distributions and various graphical formats and tables (Neuman, 2014:285). Measures of central tendency and variation utilised were mean and standard deviation. The measurement quality involved face validity, content validity and criterion-related validity, ensuring the instrument measures what it is meant to measure with consistency (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:95-96). A pilot study was conducted to ensure reliability of the research instrument. Ethical considerations vital to the present study were: no harm to the respondents, avoidance of deception and the right to discontinuation, voluntary participation and informed consent and privacy of respondents (Neuman, 2014:72, 74-75, 78).

1.7. Definition of concepts

The key concepts used in the study are defined below. The definitions are developed from the sources indicated in brackets.

- Violence: The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002:5; De Wet, 2003:90).

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- Workplace: Any premises or place where a person performs work in the course of his employment (Occupational Health and Safety Amendment Act No. 181 of 1993).

- Workplace violence: The intentional use of power, threatened or actual, against another person, group or organisation in which a person is assaulted, threatened, harmed physically or psychologically, injured in the course of, or as a direct result of, his or her work. Such action, incident or behaviour departs from reasonable conduct in work-related circumstances and can result in death (International Labour Office, 2004:4; Kgosimore, 2005:210; Corporate Governance Framework Research Institute, 2010:1).

- Workplace bullying: Hurtful and repeated mistreatment of a targeted employee; for example, unwarranted and unwanted offensive behaviour that intends to harm the target, impair physical and psychological health and affect the target's work performance, self-esteem, reputation and competence. The target is pushed into an inferior position and removes the target's perception of power (Hoel, Glaso, Hetland, Cooper & Einarsen, 2010:453; Oade, 2009:2; Rayner & Cooper, 2006:124).

- School violence: Any intentional physical or non-physical harm inflicted on another person or property whilst under the school's supervision or associated with school, causing disorder and disturbance. Aggressive behaviour may be abusive on a physical, emotional, relational and sexual level, violating the school's intention to educate, learn and be free of violence, aggression and criminal acts (De Wet, 2007a:60-61; De Wet, 2007b:12-13; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:2).

- Violence against school employees: The physical harm, or threats of harm, towards employees of schools (Kondrasuk, Greene, Waggoner, Edwards & Nayak-Rhodes, 2005:639).

- Public school: A school managed directly or indirectly by a public education authority, government agency, or governing board appointed by government or elected by public franchise, defined in section 1 of the SASA[1] (Department of Basic Education, 2015:44; Organisation for Economic Co-operation & Development [OECD], 2012:18).

- Private school: A school managed directly or indirectly by a non-government organisation, e.g. a church, trade union, business, or other private institution, registered or deemed to be registered under section 46 of the SASA (Department of Basic Education, 2015:43; OECD, 2012:18).

- Secondary school: An ordinary school offering at least one grade in the range Grades 8 to 12, and no grades in the range Grades 1 to 7 (Department of Basic Education, 2015:44).

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[1] South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (Published in the *Government Gazette,* (17579) Cape Town: Government Printer).

- Educator: Any person, excluding a person who is appointed to exclusively perform extracurricular duties, who teaches, educates or trains other persons at an education institution or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and educational psychological services, at an institution (Department of Basic Education, 2015:42; National Education Policy Act No. 27 of 1996; SASA No. 84 of 1996; South African Council for Educators Act No. 31 of 2000).
- Learner: Any person receiving education or obliged to receive education in terms of the SASA (Department of Basic Education, 2015:43; SASA No. 84 of 1996).
- Principal: An educator appointed or acting as the head of a school (SASA No. 84 of 1996).
- Power: The potential (influence) of a person/organisation (agent) to influence the behaviour, opinions, views, attitude and/or goals of another (target) (Peiró & Meliá, 2003:15; Truter, 2008:50).

1.8. Structure and layout of the report

The introductory chapter introduces readers to the study and its purpose. It provides an overview and scope of the problem studied. Chapter 1 provides the origin, rationale, aim and objectives, and value of the research. In addition, it provides a brief summary of the research design and methods and provides clarification on certain concepts. The second chapter is the literature review chapter; it provides an overview of the inquiry field. The chapter highlights the importance of education and educators and provides evidence of South African and non-South African research on violence against educators. Evidence is compared, and the main authors are indicated. Although the primary focus of the study is workplace violence against educators in private and public secondary schools, the researcher refers to workplace violence in addition to two other phenomena, namely workplace bullying and school violence, throughout the study, especially in Chapter 2. The above is done as the researcher feels that the three phenomena intersect, and various facets of each play a role in the victimisation of educators in the workplace. After the discussion of all three phenomena, risk factors, impact and consequences, and prevention and intervention methods are discussed. The chapter is concluded with a section on school safety.

Chapter 3 presents various victimisation and criminological theories to better understand the victimisation of educators. The theories were used to develop an integrated theoretical model which could be used to better understand workplace violence against educators in private and public secondary schools. The chapter thus presents an explanation of the integrated model. Chapter 4 contains the research methods section, in which the research

design and methods are presented. The empirical results section follows in Chapter 5. The results are presented in various formats such as graphs and tables. The results in the chapter are not interpreted, but attention is drawn to key aspects, and significant associations are pointed out. A discussion of the literature, theory and findings follow in Chapter 6. Results are interpreted and compared to the available evidence previously provided by the literature review. Anomalies are noted, connections are drawn and an application of the integrated theoretical model is provided. Recommendations are made for future research. The report ends with the relevant reference list and appendixes.

1.9. Summary

Research is limited with regard to educators as victims of violence in schools and the different types of workplace violence they face, presenting a large information gap that needs to be filled. Clarity is needed on the profiles of educators as victims of violence, and whether there are differences in violence against educators who work in public and private secondary schools. There are many different reasons, explanations and elements at play when looking at violence against educators, all of which must be investigated and compared. Anomalies and deviations must be discussed and debated. The perspectives of authors of previous studies must be taken into account, as these perspectives aid in better understanding the phenomenon. Investigation of the incidence, scope and impact of workplace violence on educators is done in the present study, comparing the phenomenon in both private and public secondary schools. The study then focuses on providing an overview of available literature regarding the importance of education and educators, and the existing South African and non-South African literature on violence against educators. Workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence are discussed in detail in addition to an exploration of risk factors and the impact of such violence, followed by a focus on prevention and intervention strategies, and school safety.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1. Introduction

In accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 Section 12, "Everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person, which includes the right to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources, not to be tortured in any way and, not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way" (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996). Although contact crimes have decreased in South Africa since 2005, they remain extremely high, with 616 973 cases reported in the year 2014/2015 (SAPS, 2015). Violence occurs not only in the privacy of one's own home but in community and social life and the workplace. Data on workplace violence in South Africa are lacking, but statistics presented by the USA indicate that, in 2012, 11% of fatal occupational injuries were attributed to homicide (U.S Department of Labour, 2013:3).

In the present chapter a review of available literature on workplace violence, workplace bullying, school violence and, more specifically, violence against educators is provided. A brief explanation of the importance of education and educators accompanies the examination of literature from South Africa and abroad regarding violence against educators. Workplace violence, workplace bullying and violence in schools will be dealt with separately, followed by an in-depth discussion of the risk factors and the impact of such violence. The researcher separated workplace violence and workplace bullying due to the power disparity that is present in workplace bullying, but not necessarily present in workplace violence. Prevention, intervention and school safety will also be discussed. The information primarily focuses on educator-related violence, thus violence directed at learners is beyond the scope of the study and will not be discussed.

2.2. The importance of education and educators

The aim of the discussion below is to provide the reader with some background on the South African education system. By briefly addressing the development and progression of education in South Africa over the years, the researcher is able to draw readers' attention to challenges in terms of governance, whilst simultaneously shedding some light on the benefits of education and the challenges that have been encountered. The researcher highlights these aspects to stress the purpose and importance of education and the inextricably linked matter of educators' safety; not only in the interest of educators themselves, but in the interest of society as a whole.

To better understand education in the context of South African history one has to start by looking at the ideal: "people's education for people's power", as set out in the Freedom

Charter. This clause was adopted by the National Education Co-ordinating Committee (NECC) in 1986 and advocated a partnership between parents, learners and educators in terms of educational demands and needs. This principle, although well-intentioned, was lost in the transition to a democratic South Africa, despite the fact that broad participation is fundamental to democracy, as is educational democracy (Mathebula, 2013:1, 4, 5, 7).

These democratic ideals were revisited in the first White Paper on Education and Training. It aimed to leave behind inequality and class distinctions, and move towards utilising education as human capital and a form of human resource development training. It acknowledged the need for education to provide young South Africans with flexibility, skills, a sense of responsibility and a positive societal influence to enable them to participate in the global market (Harber & Mncube, 2011:234). The first White Paper envisaged that the introduction of staff meetings, student representative councils and School Governing Bodies (SGBs) would facilitate democratic governance in schools and increase involvement in school management. However, the democratic governance approach contained in the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996, was inefficient, as it still used a top-down approach; i.e., transmitting authorised decisions downwards (Mathebula, 2013:7-9). These continuous struggles around school governance point to the difficulties faced, not only by the educational system as a whole, but also by educators.

The later established National Curriculum Statement (NCS) emphasised the creation of an education system built on professionalism, efficiency and proper management. The newer curriculum aimed to facilitate a democratic, participative school environment with decision-making processes involving all parties (Harber & Mncube, 2011:235). Schools should provide a safe environment for teaching and learning, equipping individuals with the knowledge they need to enter the job market, and introducing them to societal values (Christie, Butler & Potterton, 2007:210). Education is fundamental to society and a safe educational environment (for educators and learners alike) is vital in order for meaningful education to take place (Masitsa, 2011:163).

Quality education is economically, socially and politically beneficial to society. Economically, education enhances employment skills, production and power. Socially, education aids in the formation of 'modern' attitudes towards the sciences, and issues such as gender equality, and improves determination to achieve in life. Politically, education shapes behaviours and values in support of a democratic culture. It is important to note that an inferior education that inadequately equips learners for formal employment, damages society. Violence in schools can also weaken society as it impacts on the quality of education and constrains prospects of a healthy future (Harber & Mncube, 2011:233-234). The success of an

education system rests heavily on the shoulders of educators. It is for this reason that the researcher is emphasising the safety of educators, their importance in society, and the detrimental influence of violence in schools in this literature study.

2.3. Evidence of violence against educators

As mentioned, sufficient research has been conducted regarding the impact of school violence on learners, yet the understanding of the effects of such violence on educators is severely limited (Du Plessis, 2008:31). The present study thus focuses on educator-targeted violence. Before discussing existing research regarding workplace violence against educators, the researcher deems it worthwhile to reflect on some of the methodological challenges encountered in investigating the phenomenon. Such a discussion will familiarise the reader with the limitations of existing evidence and facilitate better insight into what could possibly be done in future research to counteract these challenges.

2.3.1. Methodological challenges in research on violence against educators

A challenge often encountered in researching violence against educators relates to the selection of a research design. A cross-sectional research design, although beneficial in various ways, may also present challenges in terms of the inability to make causal inferences and the use of results to establish developmental progression of violent behaviour. Such challenges were, for example, encountered by Chen and Astor (2008:14), DeSouza (2011:181), and Steffgen and Ewen (2007:89).

Furthermore, the selection of a sample from large study populations can present certain difficulties in terms of generalisation. Research utilises both random and non-random sampling procedures. Generalisability was hindered by, among others, the absence of racial/ethnic breakdown in certain samples (DeSouza, 2011:81); over-representation (e.g., primarily female) (Bushnell, 2003:257-258; Fox & Stallworth, 2010:948); sampling of individuals in one province (Wilson et al., 2011:2367); small sample sizes (Bushnell, 2003:257-258; De Wet, 2010a:1452; Kruger, 2011:131; Maguire, 2001:106-107); cases including small numbers of variables (De Wet, 2007a:78); and the use of snowballing as a sampling technique (Bushnell, 2003:257-258). Findings applicable in one context would therefore not necessarily apply in another (Bender & Emslie, 2010:197; De Wet, 2007a:78; De Wet, 2010b:200).

The methods and instruments of data gathering can present limitations. Researchers must be cautious in the selection of methods and instruments, as the narrow focus of some methods may be limiting (Kruger, 2011:131). The use of questionnaires in self-report

surveys presents limitations such as bias, decreased reliability and validity, and concentration difficulties in terms of questionnaire length (Burton, 2008b:10). Attempts have been made to decrease bias, including limiting recall or distributing follow-up or reminder mail (Chen & Astor, 2008:14; Ervasti et al., 2012:341; Feda, Gerberich, Ryan, Nachreiner & McGovern, 2010:473). Additional limitations relate to the use of semi-structured interviews (De Vos, 2013:199) or the one-sided notion of findings (findings based solely on educators' perspectives) (De Wet, 2010b:200; De Wet, 2010a:1452; Kruger, 2011:131; Wilson et al., 2011:2367).

In addition to the methods used for data collection, the time in which data are collected may present certain challenges, as delays might occur. Such delays may be due to time availability (Burton, 2008a:12), willingness to participate (De Vos, 2013:199), awareness of the phenomenon (De Vos, 2013:199), and comprehension and understanding (Chen & Astor, 2008:14). As the reader has now been familiarised with some of the difficulties encountered in conducting research on violence against educators, evidence of the phenomenon will be presented, commencing with evidence from South Africa.

2.3.2. South African research on violence against educators

The following section reflects on evidence regarding the nature and extent of educator-targeted violence, contributing factors and the impact and effects of such violence on victims. South African research has addressed educators' perceptions of the causes and scope of school violence and, more specifically, learner-on-learner, educator-on-learner, learner-on-educator and principal-on-educator violence. The bulk of South African research on school-based violence has, however, primarily focused on learner-related violence. Research, although limited, has looked at educators not only as perpetrators (Leoschut, 2008:5) of violence but also as victims (Burton, 2008b:2; De Vos, 2013:10; De Wet, 2003, 2007a, 2007b, 2010a, 2010b; SACE, 2011:19). Research confirms that educator victimisation is problematic (De Wet, 2010b:195). The prevalence of violence against educators, the consequences of such violence and methods of prevention have also been researched and thus inform the present study (De Vos, 2013; De Wet, 2011). National studies that have been conducted include the National School Violence Study of 2012 (Burton & Leoschut, 2013), the Victims of Crime Survey (Statistics South Africa, 2015b), and the school-based violence report published by the South African Council for Educators (2011).

2.3.2.1. Nature and extent of violence against educators

In terms of the nature of violence in schools, as expressed by the South African Council for Educators in their school-based violence report, school-based violence can be both non-physical and physical (SACE, 2011:6). In a 2010 qualitative study with seven participants (De Wet, 2010b:195), educators were found to be targeted not only at their workplace, but after school as well. In 2007, in an exploratory study, De Wet (2007a:75) found that 16% of the 801 respondents (Free State educators) had been verbally abused by learners, corroborating the findings of De Wet and Jacobs (2006:62) one year earlier. In Burton's analysis of the 2007 National School Violence Study he confirmed that learner-on-educator violence is both physical and verbal in nature (Burton, 2008b:2). The South African Council for Educators (2011:19) further corroborated these findings, as learner-on-educator verbal abuse was reported by three in five secondary schools and physical violence by one in four secondary schools.

De Wet (2007b:27) further verified the findings above quantitatively and qualitatively in her research on educators as perpetrators and victims of school violence. Her results indicated that educators are more often victims of non-physical violence than physical violence. Such results were further substantiated by Burton and Leoschut in the 2012 National School Violence Study (comprised of 5 939 learners, 121 principals and 239 educators), as respondents reported that more than half the educators were victims of verbal violence, 12% were victims of physical violence, and 3% were victims of sexual abuse by learners in the past year (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:27). Hence, educators suffer both verbal and non-verbal abuse, which affects them physically, non-physically, personally and professionally (De Vos, 2013:4; De Wet, 2010b:196-199; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:2). This will be discussed in section 3.2.3. Burton (2008a:4) further pointed out that violence in private schools involved less obvious forms of violence (e.g. hazing[2]), compared to more blatant forms of violence in township schools.

Common acts of violence reported in previous research (De Wet, 2007b:27; Kruger, 2011:92) regarding learner-on-educator violence and bullying include threats with a weapon, stabbing, vandalism of property, disruption of lessons, ridicule, noisiness, throwing objects at educators, and holding educators hostage. Such forms of violence were later corroborated in De Wet's 'Victims of educator-targeted bullying: a qualitative study', based on in-depth interviews with seven respondents who reported threats of violence, objects thrown at them, vandalism, slapping, being chased around and being held captive (De Wet, 2010b:195). Further forms of violence in schools have been reported by the South African Council for

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[2] Activities (norm-violating) in which members must engage (suggested/ordered by a high-status member) that humbles a newcomer. The activity can be criminal or non-criminal (Nuwer, 2001:xxv).

Educators and include hazing, assault, robbery, rape, murder, sexual harassment, intimidation, bullying, shootings, stabbings, gangsterism, drug trafficking, theft, vandalism, race-related violence and violent student protests (SACE, 2011:6). The qualitative data reported by Ncontsa and Shumba (2013:10) verify such forms of violence in the form of bullying, vandalism and use of weapons. Perpetrators of educator-targeted violence may be learners, colleagues, principals, parents and even community members, as confirmed in the qualitative and quantitative data of previous research (De Wet, 2007b:10, 18, 21-24).

2.3.2.2. Factors fuelling violence against educators

Various factors can contribute to violence against educators. De Wet (2007b:18-24) indicates that learner-on-educator violence and educator-on-learner violence can occur when educators are seen as too strict, when there is a dereliction of duty, or when educators' behaviour causes violence. Learners may use violence to force educators to adhere to their demands. Educator-on-educator violence may occur as a result of professional misconduct, corruption, misuse of power, loss of trust, and leadership style. In addition, collegial violence, community-on-educator and parent-on-educator violence may include attacks on educators and abuse by parents of neighbouring schools.

In a qualitative study on bullying in secondary schools seen from teachers' perspectives, Kruger (2011:94) confirmed that educator-on-educator bullying, involving misuse of power, threats, demands, manipulation and coercion; and principal-on-educator bullying, involving unreasonable work expectations or demands and favouritism; do occur within the school context. The role of principals and colleagues as perpetrators of workplace bullying was further affirmed by De Vos (2013:88-90), as many educators experienced verbal abuse at the hands of principals, in addition to being publicly humiliated by persons intent on causing damage to their reputation and social standing. In addition, Kruger's findings also situate bullying primarily outside the classroom; it only occurs inside the classroom if learners view the educator as ineffective (Kruger, 2011:95-96).

South African research thus indicates that the causes of school-related violence are due to internal and external factors. Qualitative and quantitative results (De Vos, 2013:32-40; De Wet, 2007b:32-34; De Wet, 2010a:1453) indicate that certain characteristics can contribute to an individual being a perpetrator (personality characteristics such as the need for power, lack of empathy, manipulation, narcissism, envy, psychological disorders) and/or a victim (personal characteristics such as gender, age, race, submissiveness, low self-esteem, talent) of workplace violence or bullying in the school environment. In 2007, De Wet (2007b:26, 32-33) reported that females and educators 30 years and younger were more likely to experience violence at school. The study also indicated that male educators were

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more likely to experience verbal abuse from learners. Gender, age, race, experience, health and even temperament are factors that impact on the likelihood of violence, types of violence, perpetrators, and the probability of victims reporting violent incidents. De Vos (2013:33) verified these results in that gender (female educators are at higher risk) and race (minority groups are at higher risk) were risk factors for victimisation.

Violence against educators may extend beyond demographic and personality characteristics to management, leadership, organisational and societal causes (De Vos, 2013:40-43; De Wet 2003:95-96; De Wet, 2007b:22; De Wet, 2010a:1453). In a 2003 study of 215 Eastern Cape educators' perceptions of the causes and scope of school violence, De Wet (2003:96-97) reported that internal causes include learner-related causes (low self-esteem, frustration etc.), a negative school climate, leadership style, school organisation and gangs. External causes include socio-economic conditions (poverty and unemployment), poor parental involvement, availability of firearms, alcohol and drugs, political and juridical causes and media violence. Similar findings were revealed by Ncontsa and Shumba (2013:12) in their study on the nature, causes and effects of school violence in South African high schools, comprising five principals, 20 educators and 80 learners. Their mixed methods approach identified unemployment, poverty, crime, poor discipline, intolerance and overcrowding as causes of school violence (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:12).

Burton and Leoschut (2013:54) corroborated the above findings in the 2012 National School Violence Survey. The survey pointed out the impact of community and family level risk factors as causes of school violence. Poverty and unemployment, crime, gangs, alcohol and drug availability, poor housing, and accessibility to recreational facilities and low job opportunities contribute to school violence. Additional contributing factors include family risk factors such as abuse, neglect, lack of parental involvement, single parent families, parental criminality and erratic disciplinary practices (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:57, 64). The 2012 survey bears many similarities to Burton's analysis of the 2007 National School Violence Survey (2008b:4): the influence of community factors (urban location, poverty, socio-economic conditions, crime) and school factors (discipline management, number of students, co-ordination of resources), as well as the availability of drugs and weapons. Leoschut's 2008 publication confirmed learner victimisation, the role of exposure to violence, accessibility to drugs, alcohol and firearms, and family members' involvement in crime as risk factors in educator-targeted violence (Leoschut, 2008:10). These results thus support the findings of De Wet (2007a:76), which stress the impact of drugs and alcohol in addition to school size and location. Respondents indicated that school size affects school violence and that school violence mostly took place in rural areas.

In her mixed method study, De Wet (2007b:22) emphasised autocratic leadership as a cause of educator-on-educator violence, as well as mistrust between educators and leaders. In another study, De Wet's interpretive research conducted in 2010 (2010a:1450) highlighted that monitoring by principals and efficient management are vital in combatting educator-targeted violence. De Wet (2010a:1453) confirmed that poor support structures contribute to educator-targeted violence, as manifested in abuse, ridicule, poor working situations, dissatisfaction with management, role conflict, poor mutual encouragement and unfounded criticism; in addition to isolation, favouritism and threat of dismissal. De Vos (2013:40-43) similarly found that, in the context of workplace bullying, contributing factors include organisational characteristics (such as a stressed work environment), the type of organisation (diversity of school community), leadership (laissez-faire or autocratic), organisational culture and climate, and organisational support. A large number of learners (more than 500) and school location (schools located in rural areas are at greater risk) influence the risk of educator-targeted violence (De Wet, 2007a:59). A 2011 SACE study highlighted that 58% of educators in secondary schools feel unsafe at their place of work (SACE, 2011:19), while Burton and Leoschut (2013:102) found that one in three educators felt unsafe at school.

2.3.2.3. Impact and effects of violence against educators

Workplace violence has a physical and emotional impact. Effects reported by respondents in De Wet's study (2010b:196) included varying symptoms of psychological distress, headaches, sleep deprivation, eating disorders, stress, shame, anger, powerlessness and withdrawal. Qualitative data from De Wet's study (2010a:1456) with regard to "the reasons for and the impact of principal-on-teacher bullying on the victims' private and professional lives" affirmed earlier findings that bullying impacted on respondents' personal (physical and emotional well-being) and professional lives. The 2011 SACE study indicated similar effects of school-based violence, including depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, withdrawal and anger (SACE, 2011:30). Similar physical and emotional effects were reported in the De Vos qualitative study (2013:98, 103), comprising 27 respondents: sleeping problems, stress, fatigue, and tension headaches. Effects on psychological health included depression, crying/tearfulness, anger, and personality changes.

In addition, educator-related violence impacts on the institution (teaching and learning) and society (relationship between school and home/community), resulting in a disintegration of teaching, a lack of enthusiasm, ridicule, questioning of professional abilities, poor collegiality and adverse parental attitudes (De Wet, 2010b:196-198). The mixed methods study of Ncontsa and Shumba (2013:10) confirm earlier findings that when learners are ill-disciplined,

educators become demoralised, they lose respect and even struggle to complete the syllabus. The 2012 National School Violence Study (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:46-47), exposes various reasons why learners do not report violence at school; these could equally be applied to educators and include fear of reprisal, shame, embarrassment, fear of not being believed and not wanting to worry their family members. De Wet, in an earlier study (2003:90), pointed out another reason for victims not reporting violence, namely educators' and principals' reluctance to admit to violence in their schools.

2.3.3. International research on violence against educators

Violence against educators in the workplace and the associated feelings of unsafety and fear (Wilson et al., 2011:2355) are not exclusively a South African phenomenon and have been researched in the USA, France, Germany, South Korea and Scotland (De Wet, 2011:2; Feda et al., 2010:462; Djurkovic, McCormack & Casimir, 2008:407). South African evidence is lacking and further confounded by varying typologies of school violence (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008:73). It is for this reason that the researcher would like to familiarise the reader with research that has been conducted on an international level regarding the phenomenon. The aim of the discussion is to identify similarities between local and international research, and also to point to important correlates regarding educator-directed violence. Specific reference is made to the nature and extent of violence, factors contributing to violence, and the impact and effect of violence against educators.

2.3.3.1. Nature and extent of violence towards educators

Similar to findings in the South African research discussed above, Chen and Astor's report (2008:12) on student violence against Taiwanese teachers, based on a national survey of 14 022 learners, indicated that teachers in Taiwan experience more non-physical violence than physical violence. Tiesman, Konda, Hendricks, Mercer and Amandus (2013:67), who conducted a study on workplace violence among 2 514 education workers in Pennsylvania, reached a similar conclusion, as did Gerberich, Nachreiner, Ryan, Church, McGovern, Geisser, Mongin, Watt, Feda, Sage and Pinder (2011:297), and Steffgen and Ewen (2007:87).

In a Canadian study conducted by Wilson et al. (2011:2354) among 731 educators, research showed that violence affects educators across school types and locations. In a cross-cultural and ecological analysis of 16 604 Israeli learners, one in five admitted to committing a violent act against an educator (Khoury-Kassabri, Astor & Benbenishty, 2009:159). In terms of the nature of violence, a study of 902 Turkish educators showed that 24.1% of respondents

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experienced emotional violence, 14.7% verbal, 6.3% physical and 4.6% sexual violence (Ozdemir, 2012:51).

Findings by Ozdemir (2012:59) further pointed out that the most common acts of violence include verbal abuse (swearing and/or insults), damage to property, threats, physical assaults and disrupting lessons. Comparable results were presented by Chen and Astor (2008:9), including aggressive acts such as insults, teasing, playing harmful tricks, disruption, blackmail, humiliation and physical assault (beating, kicking, hurting with instruments), which confirm the South African results discussed above. Benbenishty and Astor (2008:72) further highlighted the prevalence of verbal, social, indirect (using media), physical (pushing, shoving), property related (vandalism, theft), sexual, and weapon-related violence in schools.

In the study by Gerberich et al. (2011:298), learners were exposed as the primary perpetrators of physical and non-physical violence against educators. Such findings were corroborated by Tiesman et al. (2013:68), as learners in their study were perpetrators in 95% of assaults; and also by Ervasti et al. (2012:336, 340), as learners were reported as the perpetrators in 90% of school violence in their sample of 5 760 general and special educators in Finland. Contrary to the above findings, however, Fox and Stallworth (2010:940), in their application of the stressor-emotion-control/support theory to 779 educators in the USA, indicated that the majority of perpetrators of both bullying and pervasive bullying were supervisors. The majority of respondents additionally reported being dissatisfied with the handling of violent incidents, which adversely influenced job satisfaction (Fox & Stallworth, 2010:940). In terms of gender, prior studies (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008:68; Chen & Astor, 2008:12) have found that male learners are more often perpetrators of violence in schools than are female learners.

2.3.3.2. Factors fuelling violence against educators

The influence of demographic characteristics on educator-targeted violence was corroborated in international research. Both the 2011 quantitative study by Gerberich et al. (2011:299-300), based on 6 469 respondents, and the 2013 multivariable analysis of Wei, Gerberich, Alexander, Ryan, Nachreiner and Mongin (2013:75), based on 4 731 respondents in Minnesota, found that female educators and younger educators are more at risk of physical and non-physical violence. Turkish research (Ozdemir, 2012:51), however, shows that male educators are more at risk of physical violence and female educators of non-physical violence. In the 2016 'Indicators of school crime and safety report' created for the National Center for Education Statistics it was reported that female educators were physically attacked more frequently than were male educators (Zhang, Musu-Gilette &

Oudekerk, 2016:38). Further research indicates that higher rates of physical assault were linked to educators with high levels of education and substitute, unmarried, and public school educators, as well as those with smaller class sizes (<10 learners) (Wei et al., 2013:75-76,81). Similar results are indicated by Khoury-Kassabri et al. (2009:177-178) in terms of school size, as larger schools reported less violence. These results contradict the findings of De Wet (2007a:77) in the Free State, South Africa, namely that smaller sized schools and classes experienced less violence.

In addition, the risk of non-physical victimisation increased for part-time, public school, unmarried educators, those between the ages 30-39 and 50-59, and those with small class sizes (<10 learners) (Wei et al., 2013:76). These risk factors reiterated results found two years earlier by Gerberich et al. (2011:294). The increased risk for educators at public schools over private schools has also been illustrated by Zhang et al. (2016:38). Age and experience as risk factors were also investigated in London, in a case study on trainee teachers: 27% experienced adult-on-adult bullying in the workplace, 45% of the young female respondents (<28 years) reported bullying relating to school placement, and generally the younger cohort reported higher rates of bullying (Maguire, 2001:101). In alignment with the above results, risk factors can thus include gender, marital status, age, grade level and school type (Chen & Astor, 2008:4). Research (Gerberich et al., 2011:297) further unveils that there are certain times when educators are most at risk of violence, namely when they are in the classroom (65%) and in the hallway or stairway (25.7%). Educators working in secondary schools are, according to research (Chen & Astor, 2008:5; Ozdemir, 2012:59), also more prone to experiencing violence than elementary school educators.

In a discussion on school violence in an international context, findings by Benbenishty and Astor (2007:65) indicate that violence in schools is triggered by personal influences, combined with multiple contextual factors that include larger society (culture e.g. ethnic/religious beliefs), neighbourhoods (poverty, crime, social organisation), family (socio-economic status, family structure), school (structural characteristics, climate and anti-violence policies), and the victim. Although the above study is based more on learner victimisation, the researcher believes that such risk factors also play a role in educator-related violence. This is reiterated in local research (Burton, 2008b:4, Burton & Leoschut, 2013:54; De Wet, 2003:96-97; Leoschut, 2008:10; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:12).

The socio-ecological predictive value of violence against educators is pointed out in a 2007 nationwide study (399 educators) in Luxembourg (Steffgen & Ewen, 2007:89), as both individual (class-oriented strain) and organisational (socio-ecological school environment)

factors influence educator victimisation. Furthermore, Turkish research highlighted the importance of socio-economic status, as learners from low socio-economic status families displayed higher levels of violence (Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2009:173). Based on data from 335 school teachers, Djurkovic et al. (2008:408) pointed out the pressures educators may encounter, such as excessive workloads and work hours, work intensification, increased responsibilities, accountability and limited staff consultation in terms of decision making.

Bushnell (2003) examined educators within the context of a schoolhouse panopticon. Data indicated that educators' performance is monitored by educational administrations as well as parents. Such monitoring often leads to over-surveillance, limiting the autonomy and decision-making abilities of educators. However, educators were found to be partly responsible for their own subordination (Bushnell, 2003:251). Another study in the USA concluded that increased awareness of how to report incidents, confidentiality and zero tolerance decreased the risk of physical assault (Feda et al., 2010:461). Increased awareness amongst educators and administrators with regard to risk factors is emphasised by Gerberich et al. (2011:301), as they highlight the importance of such knowledge in the creation of a safe work environment.

2.3.3.3. Impact and effects of violence against educators

Adverse effects of violence against educators are both personal and professional (Gerberich et al., 2011:299; Wilson et al., 2011:2355). The most prominent personal symptoms reported by Gerberich et al. (2011:99) include frustration, anger, fear, anxiety, stress, sadness, fatigue, irritability, difficulty sleeping, stress-related symptoms (headaches) and depression. Professional outcomes involved resignation from the job, voluntary or involuntary transfers, leave of absence and the restriction or modification of work activities. Wilson et al. (2011:2355) reported similar findings in a quantitative Canadian study of 731 educators, where symptoms ranged from PTSD, increased levels of stress and fear, to negative affect and life dissatisfaction. In a qualitative case study on moral harassment of public school teachers, Campos, Da Cruz Serafim and Custódio (2012:2006) further emphasised that effects can be physical or psychological. It is evident from the above that noteworthy South African and non-South African research regarding violence against educators has been conducted with specific reference to the nature and extent thereof, risk factors of violence against educators, and the consequences of such violence. As the research topic addresses workplace violence against educators, the researcher finds it pertinent to familiarise the reader with workplace violence in general in order to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon, as well as vulnerabilities that could relate to the victimisation of educators.

2.4. Workplace violence

At this point the researcher would like to remind the reader that three phenomena (workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence) are discussed separately but in depth, as it is the researcher's opinion that all three phenomena intersect and contribute to educator-targeted violence, as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Intersection between key phenomena driving educator-targeted violence
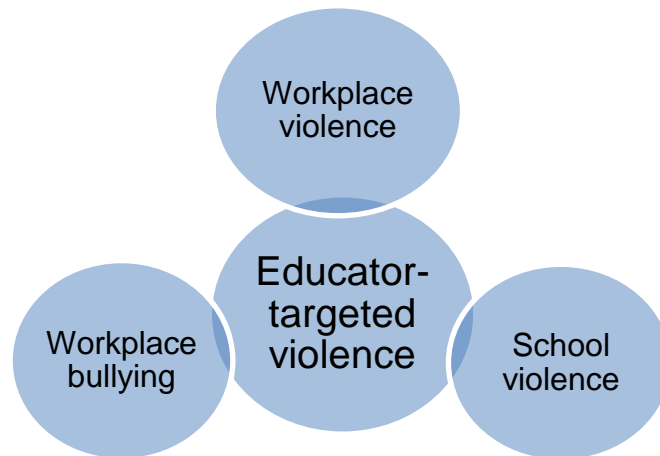
The following discussion provides a brief overview of workplace violence with regards to relevant concepts, typologies of workplace violence, and some of the occupations that are vulnerable to workplace violence.

2.4.1. Conceptual understanding of workplace violence

In order to better understand workplace violence, it is important to first understand the concepts of 'violence' and 'aggression'. The study of violence is a well-established, globally conducted field. However, the concept of violence and what it entails is vigorously debated. Aggression is often a precursor to violence; it occurs more often and involves acts such as intimidation, bullying, incivility, isolation and harassment (Dillon, 2012:15; Tucker & Loughlin, 2006:418). Aggression involves verbal and non-verbal adverse behaviour, whereas violence involves physical force or the threat of physical force (Felson, 2006:11; Tucker & Loughlin, 2006:418). Three dimensions of aggression exist (Neuman, 2004:65; Baron, 2004:29), namely:

- Physical-verbal aggression (using physical actions or words to inflict harm).
- Active-passive aggression (inflicting harm by acting or failing to act (e.g. withholding something).

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- Direct-indirect aggression (harming the target directly or harming something the target values).

Aggression can be hostile (the goal is to harm) or instrumental (harm with the intent of accomplishing a different goal) (Baron, 2004:26; Botha, Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2013:2; Neuman, 2004:65). Aggression can also be proactive (overt use of physical violence to dominate another) or reactive (using aggression as a form of defence) (Botha et al., 2013:3).

Even though the meaning of workplace violence is still debated, recent definitions include both physical and non-physical violence (Kgosimore, 2005:210). For the purpose of the current study, the term workplace violence includes violence and aggression. The definition of workplace violence used is as defined in the introductory chapter. In order to better understand what qualifies as workplace violence, the different typologies are explained.

2.4.2. Typologies of workplace violence

As the study focuses on workplace violence it is important to distinguish between the typologies of workplace violence. Workplace violence can be divided into five types in accordance with the relationship the perpetrator has to the workplace. Types I, II and III were developed by the Californian Occupational Safety and Health Administration (Cal/OSHA) in 1995. Type IV was later developed by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration in the US, and Type V was introduced by Kgosimore (Kgosimore, 2004:63, 64; Kgosimore, 2005:210).

In Type I workplace violence (stranger workplace violence), criminal intent is attributed to a stranger with no legitimate relationship with the workplace (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011:295). Such violence can occur on the premises or during off-site execution of work duties. The motive is merely to commit a crime (e.g. robbery or terrorism) but commonly results in serious injury or homicide (Kgosimore, 2005:212; Neuman, 2012:347; Wilkinson, 2001:156). At-risk occupations include taxi drivers, all night convenience store clerks, bank employees, night traders, liquor store staff and gas station attendants; due to the dangers inherent in face-to-face exchanges with customers, certain locations and low levels of protection (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002:444; Wilkinson, 2001:158). To reduce these risks, target hardening (e.g. better lighting) should be considered (Wilkinson, 2001:158).

In Type II workplace violence (customer/client workplace violence), violence is committed by a customer, client, patient, student or inmate during the exchange of goods or services (Neuman, 2012:347). The perpetrator is the receiver of services and thus has a legitimate relationship with the workplace. Act(s) of violence occur whilst the business transaction is in

progress (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011:295; Kgosimore, 2004:63; Kgosimore, 2005:212; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002:444; Wilkinson, 2001:156); can occur once or over a period of time (e.g. harassment); and are mostly non-fatal (e.g. violence in the healthcare profession). (Wilkinson, 2001:15) At-risk occupations include healthcare and social service professionals, and security personnel (Kgosimore, 2005:213; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002:444).

Type III workplace violence (employee-on-employee workplace violence) is committed by a current or prior employee(s) on another employee or former employee with a current or former relationship with the workplace (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011:295). The 'disgruntled employee' (perhaps someone who has been suspended or fired) may hold a grudge against other employees, or against the organisation (Kgosimore, 2005:213; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002:444). Violence can occur vertically and horizontally in the organisation's ranks, resulting in serious harm. Type III workplace violence may also be referred to as organisational workplace violence when an organisation knowingly places employees in harmful situations and allows violence to occur (Kgosimore, 2005:213). In such instances violence is motivated by organisational factors (Neuman, 2012:348).

In Type IV workplace violence (relationship workplace violence), the assailant is not an employee and has never been employed by the organisation, but has a personal relationship with the victim, who is an employee (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011:295; Neuman, 2012:348). Type IV is also known as a spillover of domestic violence. The assailant is often a current or former partner or spouse of the victim, and engages in personal disputes in the workplace or at home, negatively influencing the victim's performance at work (Kgosimore, 2005:213; Wilkinson, 2001:155,159). Thus the victim, assailant, co-workers and organisation are affected (e.g. in the form of leave of absence or job losses) (Reeves, 2004:114).

Type V workplace violence (employer-on-employee workplace violence) occurs when the assailant is the employer and the victim is the employee. Reasons for Type V workplace violence are rooted in social, economic and political factors. Even though apartheid officially ended in 1994, South Africa's history of inequality, hatred, exploitation and segregation still persists. Power imbalances motivate Type V workplace violence (Kgosimore, 2004:65). Largely overlooked in certain occupations (e.g. domestic and farm work), such violence ranges from serious acts to softer forms of violence, resulting in physical and psychological harm (Kgosimore, 2004:65; Kgosimore, 2005:213). As evident from the above, some typologies have associations with certain occupations.

2.4.3. Occupations vulnerable to workplace violence

Although violence can occur in any workplace, it is worthwhile to reflect on the following vulnerable occupations, as they provide the reader with an overview of the typologies of workplace violence associated with each of these occupations, and the contributing factors and consequences in each occupation. Occupations vulnerable to workplace violence are domestic and farm work. Reasons for such vulnerability are hugely imbalanced power relationships and the historical subordination and racial domination inherited from the apartheid era. Due to the isolated nature of these occupations, and the privacy of the home domain, violence in these places of work is often overlooked. Both occupations are exposed to Type V workplace violence. Violent acts are easily concealed and there is little chance of intervention or sanction. Violence in domestic work includes physical and psychological violence (Kgosimore, 2004:66, 67), ranging from rape and sexual harassment to verbal abuse (e.g. ridicule, derogatory terms), exacerbated in certain cultures by existing patriarchal structures (Kgosimore, 2005:215).

Health care professionals, especially nurses in mental and surgical wards, are also vulnerable to workplace violence. Perpetrators include co-workers, employers, patients, or family and friends of patients (Wilkinson, 2001:158). To curb such violence, prevention strategies need to be implemented, for instance using metal detectors, and utilising support services (e.g. debriefing) that reduce the mentality that 'it's part of the job' (Chapman et al., 2010a:479-480,485-486). In order to maintain their psychological well-being, nurses might resort to certain cognitive adaptations such as finding meaning, gaining mastery of the situation and self-enhancement (Chapman, Styles, Perry & Combs, 2010b:186-187; 191-193).

Social workers can be victims or perpetrators of violence (Ringstad, 2005:306, 310-311). Workplace violence against social workers is highly underreported due to the 'part of the job' mentality, concerns about being blamed, and administrative reprisal (Respass & Payne, 2008:133). Violence can be physical, sexual and psychological. High risk institutional settings include prisons, mental health facilities, schools and residences. Workers operating in the field and supervisors are at greater risk (Ringstad, 2005:306, 311). Factors provoking violence include mental health conditions, physical pain, emotional distress, alcoholism and drug use (Neuman, 2012:347). Age is an additional risk factor, with younger social workers being at greater risk. Violence prevention measures include developing increased awareness and heightened reactions, debriefing, support, self-awareness, preparation, and training (Ringstad, 2005:312).

Police officers who experience workplace violence can be passively vulnerable (exploitation due to status) or actively vulnerable (exploitation due to behaviour). Five categories of police victimisation exist, namely direct death or injury on duty, witnessing the death or injury of a co-worker or individual, being exposed to fear or extreme stressors whilst on duty, and the suffering of a police officers' families upon their death or injury (Dussich, 2003:1, 2-3). Consequences of violence include PTSD, shock, amplified emotions, fear, depression, substance abuse and aggression. Police officers may also suffer organisational workplace violence (Kgosimore, 2005:214). A code of silence often prevents police officers from seeking help, thus support services, resources and awareness campaigns are needed (Dussich, 2003:4-6).

Correctional service officers are primarily exposed to Type II workplace violence (committed by prisoners) and Type III workplace violence. They are often victimised by the organisation and unsatisfactory work conditions, which negatively impact relationships within the organisation with colleagues, supervisors and offenders. It is thus important for occupational satisfaction to be enhanced in order for officers' own values to be assimilated into that of the organisation (Kgosimore, 2005:214-215; Prinsloo & Ladikos, 2003:4, 6-8).

From the above it is evident that different occupations and work settings present unique vulnerabilities and typologies of workplace violence. The remainder of the chapter will delve deeper into the phenomenon of workplace bullying and violence in schools, in addition to looking at the risk factors and impact of workplace violence, workplace bullying and violence in schools.

2.5. Workplace bullying and incivility

In the following section the researcher provides insight into workplace bullying by familiarising the reader with the origin of workplace bullying, the concept and characteristics of workplace bullying, categories and types of bullying, perpetrators and types of bullies, and victims of workplace bullying.

2.5.1. Origin and developments in research

The study of bullying originated in 1970s Scandinavia, where the Olweus Bullying Prevention Programme, focusing on bullying among children, was developed (Fisher-Blando, 2010:22). The phenomenon was further deconstructed by Heinz Leymann in Sweden in 1996, introducing the Leymann Inventory of Personal Terror (Rayner & Cooper, 2006:122). Leymann recorded the resulting traumatisation of 'psychological terrorization' in the workplace (Namie, 2003:1). Workplace (adult) bullying was explored by Andrea Adams in

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the United Kingdom in 1992 (Fisher-Blando, 2010:23) when she first coined the term 'workplace bullying', applying it to adult misery (Namie, 2003:1). Global research on workplace bullying has escalated since the 1990s (Rayner & Cooper, 2006:122). Research on the phenomenon conducted by Rayner, Hoel and Cooper in the United Kingdom in 2002 highlighted its occurrence, more so than research in the USA (Fisher-Blando, 2010:22-23). Although research evolved, a full examination into the extent of the phenomenon was lacking (Rayner & Cooper, 2006:123).

However, the international origins of research on bullying does not mean that workplace bullying is a novelty in South Africa. Research on workplace bullying in South Africa has been done by researchers such as Steinman (2003) and Pietersen (2007), who focused particularly on the health sector and academic sectors (exploring interpersonal bullying behaviours in the workplace), and Cunniff and Mostert (2012) who evaluated the prevalence of workplace bullying among South African employees. Although increased levels of workplace bullying can be found in the health and public sectors, more research with regards to workplace bullying in other industries is needed (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012:2). De Wet (2010b) additionally provides insight into bullying experienced by educators in the workplace, but much more research is required in this field. To better understand workplace bullying it is important to look at the concept and characteristics of workplace bullying, which will be discussed below.

2.5.2. Concepts and characteristics of workplace bullying

Bullying has become increasingly prevalent globally, and has seeped into home and work life. Multiple converging definitions of bullying with common characteristics have been introduced. Bullying behaviour involves repeated aggressive behaviour tolerated to an adverse point (De Wet, 2010a:1451; Djurkovic et al., 2008:405; Hauge, Skogstad & Einarsen, 2007:221); the victim must be unable to defend him/herself; the victim's perception that it is oppressive or unfair behaviour (Djurkovic et al., 2008:405; Hauge et al., 2007:221); the behaviour must be directed at one or more workers by another worker (Hauge et al., 2007:221); and the bullying behaviour must adversely affect the victim (De Wet, 2010a:1451; Hauge et al., 2007:221).

Bullying operates on three levels, namely pre-bullying (low levels of bullying that can be overcome), bullying on a more frequent and intense level (severe abuse requiring intervention), and bullying on the most severe level (victims left severely scarred and traumatised), resulting in psychological, physical and social illnesses (De Vos, 2013:22). For the purpose of the present study, a combined definition of workplace bullying is used, as defined in the introductory chapter. The term includes workplace incivility (deviant behaviour

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of lower intensity with an ambiguous intent that still violates workplace norms) and mobbing (bullying by more than one person) (Leung & Snape, 2012:379). However, the term does not cover harassment. Harassment is different to bullying, as behaviours constituting harassment must be based on the target's characteristics, and be a once-off incident, thus not requiring repeated behaviour (a characteristic necessary for bullying), as described below (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:24).

Table 1: Characteristics of workplace bullying

Repetitiveness, persistence and duration

- Bullying is used to control the victim, thereby corroding his/her health.
- Differentiation is needed between bullying that is a long-term conflict, and everyday conflicts.
- General duration of bullying is more than one year.
- If an isolated incident is serious enough it can qualify as bullying.

Long-term behaviour

- Non-intervention causes escalation.
- Bullying depends on subjective assessment.

Power disparity

- Victim is pushed into an inferior position and the two parties are no longer/nor ever of equal 'strength'.
- Mobbing can increase the power imbalance.

Negative impact on the health of the victim/organisation

- Violation of human/labour rights has physical, psychological and professional consequences.
- South African victims can take legal action in terms of the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 and the Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995, section 186(2), under the term 'occupational detriments'.

Compiled from: De Vos, 2013:22-24, 25; Hauge et al., 2007:222; Hauge, Skogstad & Einarsen, 2011:611; Rayner & Cooper, 2006:126-127, 131; Zapf, Escartin, Einarsen, Hoel & Vartia, 2011:76, 78.

2.5.3. Categories and types of bullying

Determining behaviours that constitute bullying is challenging. Unreasonable behaviours include intimidation, unrealistic work expectations, shouting, gossiping, withholding

information and social exclusion (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:3, 16). Bullying can be direct (direct contact with the victim, e.g. verbal abuse) or indirect (behaviours on an emotional level, e.g. exclusion) (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:74; Cunniff & Mostert, 2012:3; Dhar, 2012:81). Personal bullying involves violence such as yelling, verbal threats, criticising, humiliation, emotional abuse and exclusion. Work-related bullying involves abuse of the flow of information, changing work tasks, unrealistic work expectations (Zapf et al., 2011:87-88; Einarsen, 1999:18) and organisational bullying, used to control workers through structural violence. Four types of organisational bullying can be identified (De Vos, 2013:18-19):

- (Negative) culture of an organisation (beliefs/suppositions)
- External pressures that create distress or increase pressure
- Victimisation by organisational processes
- Senior team tactics (one employee is used by a superior to conduct uncaring acts)

Bullying can also be predatory (the victim does not actively provoke bullying behaviour) or dispute-related (bully and victim actively provoke bullying behaviour). Reasons for predatory bullying include victim personality, profile and power imbalance (De Vos, 2013:21; Einarsen, 1999:22; Rayner & Cooper, 2006:133), and a hostile-condoning workplace (Einarsen, 1999:23). Displaced bullying (e.g. scapegoating), authoritative bullying (e.g. abuse of power) and discriminatory bullying (e.g. prejudice) form part of predatory bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, Namie & Namie, 2009:32). Dispute-related bullying does not necessarily involve a power imbalance and the dispute is primarily work-related (De Vos, 2013:21; Einarsen, 1999:23; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:32; Rayner & Cooper, 2006:134). Bullying can further be broken down into different types (De Vos, 2013:27; Kruger, 2011:33-34; Oade, 2009:4, 33):

- Verbal (most prevalent type of bullying, including teasing or threatening an individual, insulting name calling, verbally abusive comments and verbal aggression).
- Physical (direct form of bullying, includes hitting, kicking, slapping, physically injuring another individual intentionally or threatening an individual's personal standing).
- Relational bullying (psychological types of bullying such as social ostracism, withholding information, isolation, mocking and spreading rumours, cyber bullying).
- Sexual/homophobic bullying (sexual comments and unwanted verbal, physical or psychological sexual advances, or bullying based on the victim's sexual orientation).

As the reader has now been familiarised with the concept of workplace bullying and its characteristics, it is time to provide a short description of the individuals who commit workplace bullying, and those who fall prey to workplace bullies.

2.5.4. Perpetrators and typical workplace bullies

Profiling individuals who use bullying behaviour is complex, as most information stems from the perspective of victims. In addition, categorisations have been criticised for stigmatising such individuals (Caponnecchia & Wyatt, 2011:53-54). Bullies can be categorised into less insidious bullies and insidious bullies. There are four types of less insidious bullies (Fisher-Blando, 2010:32):

- Know-it-all (believes s/he is the expert and argues with others who have a different opinion).
- Interrupter (interrupts anyone who is talking).
- Bulldozer (fears change and will do anything to hinder change).
- Promotion seeker (appears normal but becomes power crazed after assuming any form of authority).
- Pressurised bully (bullies due to increased stress and pressure).

Insidious bullies are the more threatening group, and will be discussed below. The constant critic (negative and pessimistic as they always find fault and complain) is useful to upper management as they increase work production using tactics such as accusations, insults and degrading the work of others. They set unreachable demands for others, appear overly confident and degrade others by multi-tasking (Fisher-Blando, 2010:33). Chronic bullies are habitual. Reasons for their bullying include childhood upbringing, personality disturbances or antisocial personality disorder. Their bullying behaviour becomes intrinsic and is self-reinforced. They are domineering, malicious, sadistic, irrational, irresponsible and non-responsive to the effects of their behaviour on others. Once adults, their behaviour is unchangeable (De Vos, 2013:34-35; Fisher-Blando, 2010:38-39).

The two-headed snake bully is passive-aggressive and creates a pretence of honesty, trust and kindness whilst sabotaging the careers of others. Tactics used involve playing favourite, creating insignificant punishments, making insulting remarks, breaking confidentiality and taking credit for the work of others. There are three types of snake bully (Fisher-Blando, 2010:34-35):

- Backstabber snake (achieves upward mobility by selling others out).
- Jekyll and Hyde snake (friendly at one point in time and malicious the next).
- No problem, don't bother snake (unethical and reassures the target that it is not a problem to overlook unethical acts).

Opportunistic bullies are able to refrain from bullying in the home environment, and are driven by ambition. They can be friendly and label their wrongful behaviour as a survival tactic. Due to their alliance with those in power the opportunistic bully is perceived as unable to do anything wrong. Thus, when incidents are reported, the victim is rarely believed (De Vos, 2013:35; Fisher-Blando, 2010:39).

The screaming Mimi exerts control by screaming, shouting and instilling fear through intimidation. The bully is aggressive, out of control emotionally and uncaring towards others. The controller bully is obsessed with controlling others, uses his/her power for intimidation and may resort to indirect aggressive behaviour. This bully always believes his/her way is the only correct way. Similarly, the gatekeeper bully wants to control everyone and everything including resources using tactics such as withholding information, giving someone the silent treatment and creating new rules whilst ignoring company policy (Fisher-Blando, 2010:35-37). The accidental or situational bully is not always aware of his/her bullying behaviour and uses aspects of the organisational structure to target others, using insults and derogatory remarks. When confronted, the bully will apologise, yet continue bullying (De Vos, 2013:35-36; Fisher-Blando, 2010:37). Serial bullies engage in bullying behaviour from a young age with victims across their working history. They may have well established procedural skills but lack leadership skills.

Narcissistic bullies share characteristics with serial bullies. They are self-involved and believe in their superiority yet are insecure and fixated on gaining authority. Such bullies have abusive relationships, lack empathy, have a sense of grandeur and invincibility (Fisher-Blando, 2010:40-42). Substance abusing bullies become intoxicated and out of control, trying to hide their addiction while becoming violent and verbally abusive (De Vos, 2013:35; Fisher-Blando, 2010:41). Lastly, cyber bullies use online methods to bully, e.g. abusive emails and instant messaging (Fisher-Blando, 2010:42). Having knowledge of what type of bully an individual is, can aid in intervention and prevention.

2.5.5. Victims of workplace bullying

The literature on workplace bullying and the perpetrator(s) of bullying has been discussed above, but as the present study aims to focus on the victims of violence against educators, the researcher finds it pertinent at this point to focus on victims of bullying before proceeding with the discussion on violence in schools. Before delving deeper into evidence on workplace bullying and victimisation, the researcher would like to once again remind the reader that one of the key characteristics of workplace bullying as mentioned in Table 1 is power disparity.

Contrary evidence has been found when looking at victims in terms of gender differences. In research by De Vos (2013:33), women were found to experience more workplace bullying, whereas Steinman (2003:28) and Pietersen (2007:63) found no statistical difference between men and women. Cunniff and Mostert (2012:10), on the other hand, indicated that men experience higher levels of workplace bullying. These contradictions in findings may be related to the stigma attached to displays of 'weakness' in men, where men might be less likely to report workplace bullying (De Vos, 2013:33). The majority of male victims are targeted by male bullies, whereas female victims are targeted by both genders (Apel, 2006:7). Male bullies also appear to use more direct forms of bullying (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012:10). Many bullying behaviours go unnoticed and unreported as subtle bullying behaviours are difficult to identify and easily explained away. Non-reporting can be attributed to embarrassment, fear of retaliation or of being fired, doubt that one would be taken seriously, and procedural confusion. In reporting bullying, a conflict of interest also arises when the perpetrator is a superior. The nature of the organisation (e.g. hierarchical) can additionally impact on willingness to report bullying (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:34-38). The proper implementation of procedures and open communication channels are thus fundamental.

Noteworthy from the above evidence is the distinguishable yet complex nature of workplace bullying in its presentation, as there are various categories and types of bullying, as well as numerous types of bullies. It is for this reason that awareness of workplace bullying and its presentation to all parties is vital in order for any form of prevention or intervention to be effective, as ignorance can often lead to non-reporting and overlooking damaging aggressive workplace behaviours.

2.6. Violence in schools

Broadly discussed in the section below is the origin of and developments in research regarding violence in schools, in addition to the concept, characteristics and forms of school violence. Although the focus of the present study is more specifically inclined to violence directed at educators, such violence occurs within the school setting and can occur in collaboration with other forms of school violence. The researcher thus finds it relevant to familiarise the reader with generalised violence in schools.

2.6.1. Origins of and developments in research

School violence can be traced back to 17th century France, where the possession of weapons (e.g. swords) in schools and violence were widespread. The phenomenon gained academic attention in the 1960s and 1970s in Europe and the USA, and since then has

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become prominent in multiple countries and escalated globally (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008:59; De Wet, 2003:89; De Wet, 2007c:78). Research indicates that violence has drifted from the home and social environments into the workplace and educational environment (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008:59-60; Feda et al., 2010:462). To facilitate culturally suited policies and contextualisation on a global scale, comparative data of a cross-cultural nature are required. International comparison aids in theory development, identification of patterns, and appropriate intervention strategies (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008:62-63).

Worldwide media attention and the 'globalisation' of the phenomenon have highlighted the need for prevention strategies and further academic attention (Van der Westhuizen & Maree, 2010:3). Strategies that have been implemented internationally include the 2003 'stop bullying now' website in the USA, a governmental anti-violence campaign in the Netherlands, anti-bullying legislation in Ireland and Wales, and various studies on school safety measures and school violence in countries such as Norway, New Zealand, and Australia (Van der Westhuizen & Maree, 2010:3-4). School violence in South Africa has received increased academic attention in the past ten years (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:1). In many South African schools, internal and external threats cause learners and educators to fear for their safety. School-based violence disrupts the academic purpose of schooling, as the focus shifts from teaching to dealing with violence. Regardless of the measures taken by the Department of Education, and various policies and legislation (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013), violence still affects many learners and educators. School-based violence is a global phenomenon that requires increased attention and awareness, not only in schools, but also in the public domain.

2.6.2. Concepts, characteristics and forms of school violence

For the purpose of the study, school violence includes violence that occurs in the school setting or environment, in the course of school events, when journeying to and from school, and school-related acts that occur outside school grounds (e.g. cyber bullying) (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:3; De Wet, 2007b:12). The definition of school violence used is as defined in the introductory chapter.

School violence has three characteristics. It occurs within the broader culture of violence in the country, it has cultural and structural dimensions, and it is a product of and contributor to violence (Burton, 2008b:2). Violence in schools takes on various forms (Bender & Emslie, 2010:189; De Wet, 2007b:12-13):

- Physical (pushing, shoving, shaking, punching, kicking, squeezing, burning, slapping, hitting, grabbing, damage to property, killing, stabbing, shooting).

- Emotional (verbal attacks, threats, taunts, mocking, yelling, malicious rumours, degradation, humiliation, emotional blackmail, intimidation).
- Sexual (sexual assault, sexual harassment, rape).
- Social (exclusion, being ignored, marginalisation).
- Bullying (physical, verbal, social, cyber, deliberate denial of information).

School violence can further be divided into learner-on-learner violence, parent-educator violence, educator-learner violence, learner-educator violence, and educator-targeted violence. It can also take the form of theft, vandalism, carrying weapons, gender-based violence, gangsterism, racially motivated violence, and drug-related violence (Bender & Emslie, 2010:189; De Wet, 2003:9; SACE, 2011:6). As evident in the above literature, school violence is not a novelty nor a trivial form of violence. School violence encompasses various forms of violence, both severe and less obvious, and should not be considered insignificant in society. The risk factors and far-reaching consequences of such violence can be identified, and will be discussed in the following sections.

2.7. Risk factors to violence in schools

The ecological model is used to explain the causes and impact of workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence, and how these intersect. First introduced in the late 1970s, the model investigates the relationship between individual and contextual factors (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002:12). As no single factor can explain school violence and, more specifically, violence against educators, the risk factors associated with school violence are discussed against the backdrop of the levels within the ecological model, namely, individual, relationship, community and societal levels. A brief explanation of how each level works within the model will be provided under each respective heading.

Figure 2: The ecological model
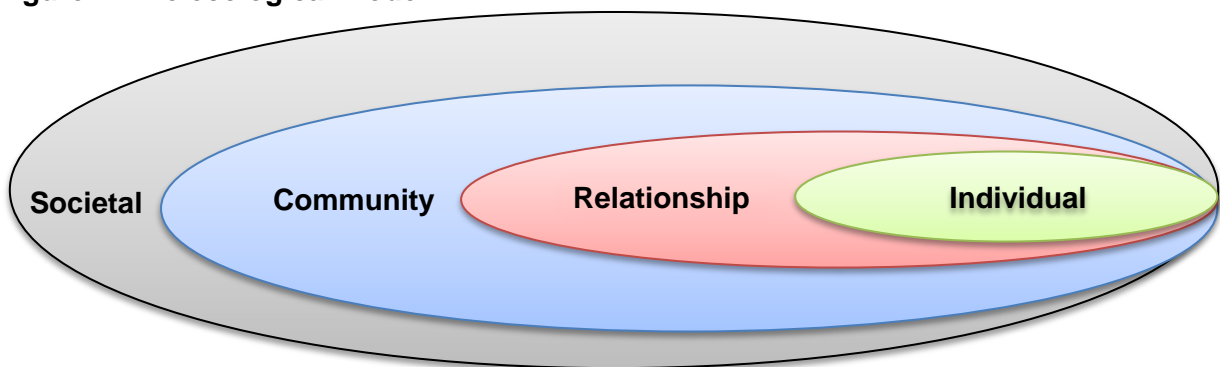
2.7.1. Individual level

The individual level of the ecological model deals with the identification of personal, biological and demographic factors that the individual brings to his/her behaviour, in addition to characteristics of the individual that may enhance his/her chances of becoming a victim or perpetrator (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002:12). It is for this reason that the researcher feels it is important to discuss both the contributing and risk factors (on the individual level) of both the perpetrator and the victim. Before discussing the contributing factors of each (perpetrator and victim) separately, the researcher would like to familiarise the reader with some relevant findings regarding demographic characteristics contributing to both the risk of perpetration and victimisation, namely gender, age and marital status.

Before discussing gender as a contributing factor it is important to note that increasing numbers of females have been entering the workplace. The Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 4, 2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2015a:2) indicated a labour force participation rate year-on-year change of 1.8 % for females in the years 2014/2015 alone. It must also be taken into account that 294 144 of a total of 425 167 educators in South Africa in 2012 were female (Department of Basic Education, 2015:20). Previous research on gender indicates that women are faced with isolation more than men as they struggle to infiltrate informal work networks (Sias, 2009:150). Occupation type and social pressures faced (e.g. gender role socialisation) impact on gender victimisation and the violence typology. Research shows that male employees are more at risk of perpetration and victimisation (Brough, O'Driscoll, Kalliath, Cooper & Poelmas, 2009:81, 109). De Wet (2007b:33) also indicated that female educators are victimised more by authority figures, colleagues and parents, and male educators by learners. Gender-based violence is prevalent in the school environment due to the prominence of male domination and power.

Age is another risk factor for workplace violence and bullying. Young workers (younger than 24) are at risk of victimisation and perpetration (Brough et al., 2009:110; Tucker & Loughlin, 2006:419). Age can impact on the type of aggression; young workers often reciprocate with violence. Employment status and inexperience can additionally impact on aggression, as young workers are more likely to work part time jobs and experience bullying because of a relational power imbalance (Tucker & Loughlin, 2006:426, 428).

Although demographic factors are not said to primarily impact on sexual harassment vulnerability, younger individuals and women entering a 'masculine' occupation are theorised to be more at risk (Nelson & Carroll, 2012:403-405). Sexual harassment contributes to, and can occur with, other forms of violence in the workplace (Bates, Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2006:381). It involves unwanted sexual advances (physical and/or verbal) that alter

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the work environment (Paetzold, 2004:161). Some perpetrators have a low regard for and commitment to their workplace (O'Leary-Kelly & Griffin, 2004:477-478). Sexual relations between learners and educators are characterised by violence and intimidation, especially towards girls; however, educators may be falsely accused (Gerberich et al., 2011:299; Harber & Mncube, 2011:240-241).

In the remainder of the section on the individual level of the ecological model the researcher will discuss the perpetrator and individual separately. Profile development of employees who may be potentially dangerous is much debated (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:610). Research suggests that individual personality traits can impact the exposure of employees to violent situations in organisations (Brough et al., 2009:101). Characteristics of a potentially troublesome individual include substance abuse, negative affectivity,[3] attribution style, trait anger (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:610; Keashly & Harvey, 2006:102-103), and neuroticism and depression (Keashly & Harvey, 2006:102). However, employing or not employing an individual based on a profile is problematic, as it does not prove that an individual with those characteristics will be violent, besides being a violation of privacy rights. Nonetheless, awareness of such precursors can be beneficial in managing the individual once employed (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:611). Research has been conducted with regard to certain characteristics of both perpetrators and victims as it pertains to workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence, and will be discussed below.

2.7.1.1. Perpetrator characteristics

Control is one of the common personality traits and characteristics found in workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence. Low self-control can be linked to impulsivity, lack of persistence, risk-taking behaviour, self-centeredness and violent temper (Leung & Snape, 2012:383). Bullies have a need for control, but lack self-control (De Vos, 2013:36). Further contributing characteristics are narcissism (the individual devalues others when his/her ego or status is threatened) (Baron, 2004:47; De Wet, 2010a:1455), jealousy (the individual perceives his/her role as threatened and becomes jealous, resulting in unrealistic justifications for his/her actions) (Oade, 2009:31), professional jealousy between co-workers (De Wet, 2007b:31), substance abuse (De Wet, 2003:92; Keashly & Harvey, 2006:103), and exposure to former aggressive acts (Keashly & Harvey, 2006:103).

Negative emotional states (e.g. anger or frustration) can influence the manner in which individuals convey their dissatisfaction and result in disruptive work behaviour. Two types of anger that can lead to aggressive behaviour are state anger (emotional reaction to a

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[3] A tendency to experience negative (aversive) emotional states (e.g. anxiety, low self-concept) (Watson & Clark, 1984:465).

particular event), and trait anger (state anger in multiple situations); in addition to an individual's response to frustration (e.g. how s/he interprets a work reprimand) (Schat & Kelloway, 2006:588). Causes of behaviours can be classified into three dimensions: internal/external, stable/unstable and controllable/uncontrollable. A hostile attribution style, that attributes unfavourable events to external, stable and controllable causes, and perceives the behaviour/motive of others as harmful intent, can cause such behaviour (Baron, 2004:46; Leung & Snape, 2012:383; Schat & Kelloway, 2006:588-589;). Individuals with Type A behaviour (competitive, irritable and always in a rush) are more prone to become aggressive (Baron, 2004:45). Individuals at different levels of the workplace hierarchy can also act out in different aggressive manners (Keashly & Harvey, 2006:102). Individuals less likely to engage in problematic behaviour have characteristics such as high self-monitoring, ambiguity, frustration tolerance, diligence and dedication.

In the workplace, bullying behaviour can occur to protect self-esteem, when there is an imbalance between the internal and external evaluation of self. High self-esteem can result in egotism, which is problematic when the perpetrator's high self-esteem is challenged (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:62; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:33; Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:181-182). Unstable high self-esteem is often accompanied by narcissism and envy. Bullies become threatened by the achievements and work ethic of others and become envious, provoking hostility or aggression (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:62; De Vos, 2013:37; De Wet, 2010:1454; Oade, 2009:31; Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:182).

Bullying behaviour may also be a result of trying to compensate for deficiencies and feelings of inadequacy; when the bullies lack the competence, skills and intelligence of their targets it often results in deflection and scapegoating (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:62; De Vos, 2013:36; Oade, 2009:31). A lack of social competence, a deficiency in empathy and a need for control and manipulation are additional triggers of bullying behaviours (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:183). Workplace bullies are often impervious to the needs of others and the effect of their bullying. Due to a fear of inferiority and losing control, they overexert their power and become 'control freaks'. They also fear public failure and humiliation (De Vos, 2013:36-37; De Wet, 2010a:1455). Further characteristics of bullies include being hypocritical (pretending to be sympathetic whilst using subtle forms of bullying), persistent, and often gifted or skilled. In the case of educator-on-educator violence, factors such as abusive behaviour, lack of commitment and dereliction of duty can contribute to violence in the school setting (De Wet, 2010a:1455). Victimisation by learners may also be biological or psychological in nature due to temperament, negative self-image, low self-esteem, low frustration tolerance, inability to handle conflict, and learning and emotional problems that cause frustration, truancy and low academic success (De Wet, 2003:91)

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2.7.1.2. Victim characteristics

Victims contribute to bullying, whether by their social or demographic characteristics, personality, behaviour or psychological factors (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:187). The way in which victims engage with others in the workplace can initiate or fuel violent incidents, whether they are provocative victims (aggressive, offensive, unpleasant) or submissive victims (nervous, fearful, unsocial). Their response to the aggressor and their style (conflictual or competitive) can either escalate or de-escalate a situation (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:43; Keashly & Harvey, 2006:104). Personality traits also influence employees' feelings of isolation, and employees who are anxious about communication are likely to suffer in the workplace (Sias, 2009:151).

Victims previously exposed to, or suffering from, psychological problems are believed to invite aggressive behaviour, as such problems are often accompanied by high levels of anxiety and neuroticism that enhance their sensitivity to aggressive workplace behaviours (De Vos, 2013:30-31; Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:189). Victims of workplace violence are often unassertive (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:33) and submissive with low levels of self-confidence, making them conflict-averse and easy targets (De Wet, 2010a:1456; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:33). Victims' work ethic, achievement orientation (i.e. high achievers) (De Wet, 2010a:1456; Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:192; Fisher-Blando, 2010:44), moral standards, high emotional intelligence (sensitivity/empathy) (De Vos, 2013:32; Fisher-Blando, 2010:44) and conscientiousness can result in frustration and displaced aggression in the perpetrator (De Vos, 2013:32; De Wet, 2010a:1456; Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:192). A victim who is an 'outsider' may also fuel aggressive behaviour (e.g. scapegoating), resulting in a loss of social support. Provocative victims can additionally elicit aggressive responses, and the label 'victim' can be used to manipulate and achieve goals (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:193-194).

2.7.2. Relationship level

The relationship level within the ecological model relates to the relationship between the individual and his/her family members, peers or partners, and how such relationships increase the risk of victimisation (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002:13). Employee well-being and relationships are influenced by job satisfaction. Factors that help one obtain job satisfaction are autonomy (ability to make decisions), opportunity to use skills, clarity about expectations, proper financial resources, safety, support and interpersonal contact (Sirgy, 2012:50-54). In order to have maximum job satisfaction it is vital to have a good work-family balance. Necessary for a healthy work-family balance are adequate resources. An individual has a certain amount to give of him/herself in each domain (work and family). Each domain has its

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own demands (e.g. availability of dependants), which can increase strain. When the roles in each domain clash, stress occurs (Brough et al., 2009:75-76).

Educators have various relationships with family, friends, colleagues, learners and authority individuals (e.g. principals) that are multifaceted and can cause violence in the workplace. Educator victimisation comes from multiple sources (De Wet, 2007b:15, 29-30). Family-related matters have been identified as a contributing factor to school-based violence and include poor familial structures, large family size, low maternal age and levels of education, familial involvement in drug-related activities (SACE, 2011:25-26), family criminality, violence and crime at home, inadequate bonding, and inadequate implementation of discipline (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:64; SACE, 2011:25-26). Parents who are afraid of their own children tend to be uninvolved and do not support educators or the school (Harber & Mncube, 2011:237). Although the above studies explored school-based violence and not educator victimisation specifically, the researcher still finds the results pertinent, as a large portion of educator victimisation is committed by learners.

Socialisation with negative or delinquent peers can also increase learner-on-educator violence (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:66). Low job satisfaction, a lack of involvement by the educator, and insensitivity towards learners can contribute to educator-on-learner violence (De Wet, 2003:92), whereas corruption, dereliction of duty, professional jealousy and behaviour that is abusive in nature can contribute to educator-on-educator violence (De Wet, 2007b:31-32). Although principal-on-educator violence might be considered by some to fall within the relationship level, in the present study it was decided to place principal-on-educator violence within the context of leadership. Leadership is an integral part of how the organisation (i.e. the school) functions in terms of power, control, autonomy, participation in decision-making, and the enforcement of policies that govern educational activities. Leadership as it relates to how an organisation operates can therefore be integrated with work-related contributing factors (e.g. role stressors). Leadership emerges from personal characteristics and situational elements and affects organisational control and co-operation, thus extending beyond the relationship between leader and subordinate. It is therefore discussed in the community (organisational) level) below.

2.7.3. Community (organisational) level

The community level of the ecological model involves schools, workplace, neighbourhood and larger community. It involves the opportunities such structures provide (e.g. leadership, institutional support and autonomy). It is important to note that the community level of the ecological model looks at the context within which social relationships exist, whilst recognising the characteristics of the settings that are associated with increased or

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decreased risk of victimisation or perpetration. High residential mobility, population density, unemployment and social isolation are characteristics to be considered (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002:13). Due to the complex nature of the community level of the ecological model, the researcher will divide the level into work-related and school/community-related contributing factors, to facilitate easier reading and understanding

2.7.3.1. Work-related contributing factors

An organisation itself can act as a contributing factor to workplace violence (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:34). At the community level, similar to previous levels, workplace violence and workplace bullying share common contributing factors, such as workplace change (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:63) and, in particular, job insecurity, which can exacerbate hostile work environments (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006: 615; Notelaers, De Witte & Einarsen, 2010:491). Poor communication and management of organisational change can also contribute to workplace violence (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:619).

Further contributing factors include high job demand and low support (Brough et al, 2009:146). Adequate supervisory and co-worker support is vital in an organisation as it can decrease burnout, increase job satisfaction, maintain good interpersonal relations and prevent psychological strain (Brough et al, 2009:146-148). Power also contributes to aggressive behaviour in the workplace. Power within organisations can be destructive, as it can increase aggression when challenged (Fast & Chen, 2009:1407). The definition of power used is as defined in the introductory chapter. Power requires a perception of dependence (Truter, 2008:50) and control (Peiró & Meliá, 2003:15). When the target complies with the demands of the agent because the agent exerts effective power, the agent has a degree of control over the target (Peiró & Meliá, 2003:15). A lack of control is thus a contributing factor to violence in the workplace (Brough et al, 2009:146; Notelaers et al., 2010:499). It is important to keep in mind at this point that two aspects vital to opportunities for control are task autonomy and participation in decision-making, as pointed out by Notelaers et al. (2010:489). A lack of decision-making authority increases frustration and can thus lead to conflict, resulting in aggressive behaviour in the workplace (Notelaers et al., 2010:499).

Work hours (Kisselburgh & Dutta, 2009:121), accompanied by excessive workload, work intensification (Djurkovic et al., 2008:408) and uncertainty, may cause distress and aggressive behaviour in the workplace, especially if leadership is poor and manifests in abusive supervision (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:619), and minimal or no autonomy and decision-making (Djurkovic et al., 2008:408). When employees are faced with conflicting job demands and roles, it may result in burnout and anxiety (Brough et al., 2009:147). The

duties of each member within the organisation must thus be clearly defined and explained. Three role stressors can result in aggression in the workplace, namely:

- Role ambiguity (specific instructions or requirements to complete the task are absent), resulting in uncertainty in terms of responsibilities (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:56; Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:615; Salin & Hoel, 2011:228).
- Role conflict (multiple incompatible instructions are given) (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:56; Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:615; Notelaers et al., 2010:490-491).
- Role overload (inability to complete tasks in the time allocated) (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:56; Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:615).

Contributing factors to workplace violence, workplace bullying and violence in schools may also differ. In the context of workplace violence, certain situational factors can contribute to violence (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:611). Such factors can range from abuse of alcohol to overcrowding and unpleasant environments, such as the absence of air conditioning (Baron, 2004:41, 44). Organisational injustice can adversely affect employees' view of the organisation's morale and values, which can in turn affect job satisfaction and attitudes (Keashly & Harvey, 2006:106). Three types of organisational injustice exist. Distributive justice (absence of fairness in results, interactions and procedures) is closely related to co-worker workplace violence. Procedural justice (perception of the process determining allocation of outcomes as fair or unfair) can act as a predictor of aggression, as can interactional justice (standard, value and quality of treatment received during execution of tasks) (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:613; Leung & Snape, 2012:380; Rousseau, 2004:276-279).

Organisational culture is "a basic set of assumptions that defines for us what to pay attention to, what things mean, how to react emotionally to what is going on, and what actions to take in various kinds of situations". It has two elements, namely employees and performance (Leung & Snape, 2012:376). An organisation's culture and climate can contribute to aggressive behaviour, as social norms such as tolerance can encourage deviant behaviour (Keashly & Harvey, 2006:105). The different forms of organisational culture are apathetic culture (employees' self-interest, callous supervision and unclear policies) and exacting culture (performance outweighs concern for employees). Aggressive or bullying behaviour may be 'permitted' and ignored because of an organisation's informal atmosphere, or its inability to rectify such behaviours (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:55; Salin & Hoel, 2011:230-132).

Within an organisation there are 'bottom line' objectives (e.g. monetary performance and profit), and objectives related to a psychological contract (e.g. employee expectation and ethical components of leadership). When an organisation focuses only on the bottom line objectives, employee well-being and job satisfaction decrease (Piccolo, Greenbaum & Eissa, 2012:291-292). Leadership is thus vital in any workplace. Ethical (honest, fair and responsible) leadership has the potential to prevent deviant behaviour, as it rewards employees appropriately and increases employee well-being (Piccolo et al., 2012:291-292, 294). Various theories of leadership exist. Firstly, the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory involves a reciprocal relationship between leaders and subordinates, which impacts on subordinates' behavioural responses (e.g. loyalty, respect and affection towards the leader). Secondly, transformational leadership (leader must manage appropriate organisational changes) comprises inspirational motivation, ethical leadership, challenging employees intellectually, and providing them with the support needed (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:619-621). The form of leadership that is used in an organisation may determine whether the work environment is hostile or not.

Leadership styles can be supportive, passive and avoidant, or destructive (Hauge et al., 2007:239, 236). Various different leadership styles exist:

- Participative leadership style (involves criticism, involvement, a degree of autonomy and supportive behaviour) (Hauge et al., 2007:236; Hoel et al., 2010:456).
- Authoritarian leadership (can be destructive, tyrannical, and deficient in communication and autonomy, resulting in distress) (Salin & Hoel, 2011:232).
- Autocratic leadership (a coercive style of leadership often accompanied by abusive supervision, tyranny and unrealistic job delegation, which increases frustration and derogative criticism, resulting in forceful compliance) (Hoel et al., 2010:456-457).
- Laissez-faire leadership (can be destructive as there is a void in official leadership and leadership duties resulting in role conflict, role ambiguity, stress, disorganisation and negligence) (Hoel et al., 2010:457).
- Non-contingent punishment (NCP) leadership (involves arbitrary punishment, force, abusive supervision and the use of resources to benefit the leader, often resulting in vindictive actions, despondency and attempts by leaders to gain control in self-interest) (Hoel et al., 2010:456).

Destructive leadership may be due to personal characteristics (e.g. a desire for power and control, narcissistic personality and poor self-control) and situational elements (job and life stressors, excessive competition, lack of support, hostility and dissension) (Harvey, Buckley, Heames, Zinko, Brouer & Ferris, 2007:118). Proper leadership can, however, decrease risks

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of violence and change employees' perception of managerial concerns (Kelley & Mullen, 2006:498-499).

2.7.3.2. School/community-related contributing factors

Due to limited research on educator-targeted violence, literature on learner-related violence is used to gain insight into community and school risk factors. The Department of Education and trade unions can foster workplace bullying by instituting hierarchical complaints procedures, as complaints must first be processed by the school principal. This is problematic in cases where the school principal is the bully. Personal relationships may also exist between principals and union representatives (De Wet, 2010a:1453-1454). Further contributing factors to violence in schools include the organisation's setting, and permeability of boundaries. Where there is insufficient school security the boundary becomes porous, and both external (e.g. communal factors) and internal influences can impact on workplace and school violence (De Wet, 2003:91; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:12). The attractiveness of organisations (e.g. school) to perpetrators is therefore increased by physical proximity (Sias, 2009:151), easy accessibility, boundary permeability, low protection and face-to-face communication (majority incidents of non-physical violence occur during face-to-face interactions) (Dietz & Gill, 2006:342-343, 150). The community within which the school is situated also plays a contributing role.

Community-level risk factors such as unemployment, poverty, violence and crime in the community, community disorganisation (providing accessibility to firearms, drugs and alcohol) (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:57; De Wet, 2003:93; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:12), lack of access to recreational facilities (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:57; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:12), and the presence of gangs can increase learner-on-educator violence (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:57; De Wet, 2003:92). Desensitisation to crime creates community disempowerment and a lack of communal pride (SACE, 2011:27). Neighbourhoods may suffer severe abandonment, degradation, high residential mobility, high turnover, high heterogeneity, racial conflict and deficient medical services, all factors that may contribute to violence in schools (De Wet, 2003:93).

2.7.4. Societal level

The societal level of the ecological model is the final level, and involves the examination of societal factors that have an impact on rates of violence, for instance those that create a climate conducive to violence, decrease inhibitions against violence, and maintain gaps or distinctions between societal groups. The societal level includes cultural, economic, social, political, juridical, historical and socio-economic factors (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002:12). South

Africa's normalisation of violence has desensitised individuals to violence. Politics, political isolation, the criminal justice system and social acceptance of a culture of violence have contributed to violence in schools (De Wet, 2003:93-94). Due to inadequate socialisation, some individuals consider violence as an acceptable way of solving conflict, which creates problems in the school environment (Bender & Emslie, 2010:192-193).

Belief systems that value power, status and revenue, destructive reciprocity and perceptions of injustice increase workplace violence (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:35-36; Neuman & Baron, 2011:204-206). Norms emphasising survival at all cost and the rationale of the effect/danger ratio (decreasing risks and increasing benefits), influence workplace bullying (Neuman & Baron, 2011:204-206, 216-219). As evident from the above, there is no single cause for workplace violence, workplace bullying or school violence. The phenomenon must therefore be considered in the context within which it occurs. The complex linkages of multiple levels of risk factors within the lives of both the perpetrator and the victim must be considered, as well as contributing factors at relationship, community and societal levels.

2.8. Impact and consequences of educator-targeted violence

In the following section the researcher delves deeper into the consequences and effects of workplace violence, not only on the individual educator but on witnesses, family members and the organisation. It must be kept in mind that such effects are direct and indirect in nature, and have the potential of being both physical and psychological (Swanberg, Logan & Macke, 2006:361).

2.8.1. Individual consequences

Workplace violence shares certain traits with workplace bullying and school violence, as the effects can be psychological and physical. Common psychological effects on the individual include humiliation, impatience (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:77), frustration (Gerberich et al., 2011:299), nightmares, self-hatred (Dhar, 2012:92), poor concentration, low self-confidence (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:77; Dhar, 2012:92), and poor self-esteem (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:41; Dhar, 2012:92). Further psychological effects include anxiety, suicidal ideation (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:41; SACE, 2011:30), depression, stress (De Wet, 2010a:1456), anger, fear, powerlessness (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:77) and sleep disturbances (Dhar, 2012:92; De Wet, 2010a:1456).

PTSD often results from violence in the workplace. PTSD has a physical and psychological effect on directly or vicariously exposed individuals (Tucker & Loughlin, 2006:433). Characteristic symptoms involve flashbacks, disturbing memories and nightmares,

depression and insomnia (Bartol & Bartol, 2011:225-226). It is caused by an external event or individual (Brough et al, 2009:30; Rose, Wallace & Piccard, 2011:192). Psychological effects on educators who have experienced violence in schools include guilt, negative feelings towards learners, withdrawal, negative social behaviour and coping methods, disappointment, and 'battered teachers' syndrome' (SACE, 201:30). This syndrome is characterised by anxiety, stress, sleep disturbances, avoidance and physiological symptoms such as high blood pressure, headaches and disturbed eating patterns (Steffgen & Ewen, 2007:82). Confusion, indecisiveness, feelings of incompetence and stress disorders amongst educators may also stem from violence in the workplace (Fox & Stallworth, 2010:928; Gerberich et al., 2013:81; Wilson et al., 2011:2355).

Even the process of becoming an educator can have adverse effects on prospective educators as it can be influenced by individual and contextual variables that impact on personal, social and professional identities. Ultimately, however, prospective educators' primary concern is their own survival in the classroom (Schoeman & Mabunda, 2012:241, 243). When testing prospective educators on the impact of teaching practice on self-esteem, sleep patterns, appetite and capabilities, scores were relatively low, raising concerns about their socio-emotional readiness for the classroom environment (Schoeman & Mabunda, 2012:241, 245).

Workplace violence, bullying and violence in schools have common physical effects on the target, such as gastro-intestinal problems, nausea (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:42; De Vos, 2013:52), chronic fatigue, musculoskeletal problems (Vie, Glaso & Einarsen, 2011:37; De Vos, 2013:52) and high blood pressure (Steffgen & Ewen, 2007:82). Further physical (stress-related) effects of workplace violence include substance abuse, cardio-vascular problems (Brough et al, 2009: 25, 28; Fisher-Blando, 2010:49; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:36), obesity (Brough et al, 2009:27), a weakened immune system (Moayed, Daraiseh, Shell & Salem, 2006:324), headaches (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:42; Steffgen & Ewen, 2007:82), endocrine, respiratory and reproductive problems (De Vos, 2013:52), and certain forms of cancer (Fisher-Blando, 2010:49).

2.8.2. Consequences for witnesses and family members

Witnesses and family members can also be affected by violence that occurs in the workplace. Witnesses to bullying can be considered 'secondary targets', and even though they are not directly violated, they are vicariously exposed to the violent incident and may suffer consequences as a result. Witnesses to workplace bullying often report an increase in workload and excessive role stressors. This reported increase is attributed to the disruption in the balance within the workplace due to violence (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:37).

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Collegial violence can result in a disintegration of collegiality. Because individuals who are exposed to violence are inclined to seek support, it is not uncommon for a third party to become exposed to the difficult situation, increasing his or her levels of stress. This can also happen when the people concerned are required to work in teams, thus increasing the third party's exposure to incidents of violence and bullying (Hoel, Sheehan, Cooper & Einarsen, 2011:136-137).

In terms of family life, consequences of violence in the workplace and workplace bullying often include loss of income, stress, irritation, negativity, matrimonial problems, parenting problems and communication difficulties (Duffy & Sperry, 2007:401). Long-term consequences of bullying are reported to have negative effects on victims' relationships with their families (Fox & Stallworth, 2010:929). Research indicates that educators who have been exposed to school violence experience less supportive interpersonal relationships (Steffgen & Ewen, 2007:82).

2.8.3. Organisation (workplace) consequences

Similar to the individual and witnesses or family members, the organisation (workplace) itself can be severely affected by violence. In terms of productivity, outcomes such as high staff turnover, absenteeism (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:76; Fisher-Blando, 2010:48), job neglect, poor job performance (Schat & Kelloway, 2003:111), transfers, time lost, and quitting or leaving, impact on the organisation (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:39). Further outcomes entail loss of creativity, missed deadlines (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:76), disengagement (Rayner & Cooper, 2006:137), role stressors (Hauge et al., 2011:622), poor leadership (Hauge et al., 2007:237), and a weakened workforce (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:37).

An organisation may also suffer in terms of costs, such as operational or legal costs, or pertaining to recruitment and training (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:37-38). Legal costs involve expenses such as fines (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:40) and settlement costs (Fisher-Blando, 2010:48). Further costs include those associated with investigations, implementation of recommendations, costs of supporting witnesses, overhead costs, insurance premiums, health-related costs (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:40), counselling costs (Gerberich et al., 2011:301), and costs related to retaliation against the organisation. Violence in the workplace can additionally impact on the culture of an organisation as it can create an ineffective work climate (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:76; Fox & Stallworth, 2010:930). It can also adversely affect organisational culture and reputation (loss of employer reputation) in the form of deficient teamwork, low commitment or motivation (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:76), a decrease in morale (Fisher-Blando, 2010:48), detachment (Rayner &

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Cooper, 2006:137), apathy, (De Wet, 2010a:1456) strained loyalty, sabotage and poor communication (Fox & Stallworth, 2010:930).

School violence also affects the organisation when it leads to the disintegration of teaching and learning (De Wet, 2010a:1456). As learners become uncontrollable, undisciplined and disrespectful, and educators are faced with poor class attendance and struggle to complete the syllabus, teaching becomes increasingly ineffective. This is often exacerbated by theft of textbooks, destruction of property, and school buildings falling into disrepair. Educators are demotivated, scared, demoralised, disillusioned, unprepared and uncertain of what to expect. Educators cannot take purposeful action against learners as they fear for their own safety, which leads them to question their own professional capabilities (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:10). Noticeable from the above discussion is that workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence intersect, and that there are commonalities in how they affect not only the individual, but third parties and the organisation itself, highlighting the complex interrelated nature of violence in the workplace.

2.9. Prevention of violence in the workplace

Prior to discussing various possible means of preventing violence in the workplace, the researcher would like to draw the reader's attention to the generalised demarcation of prevention, as it will aid in understanding the following section. Prevention can be demarcated into three groups: primary prevention (preventing the phenomenon from occurring), secondary prevention (decreasing the occurrence of the phenomenon), and tertiary prevention (healing after the phenomenon has taken place) (Brough et al., 2009:68-69; Vartia & Leka, 2011:360). In accordance with the Occupational Safety and Health Administration initiatives, the six elements in prevention programmes include management commitment, employee involvement, hazard assessment, prevention and control, training in safety and health, and post-incidence responses (Respass & Payne, 2008:135, 138-140). Means of prevention will be discussed within each of the three groups of prevention to optimise understanding.

2.9.1. Primary prevention

A means of prevention that falls into the category of primary prevention is personnel screening and the introduction of strategies (e.g. rewards, support and group cohesion) to create a positive working environment. For instance, when new personnel are appointed, prior to selection, they are screened for indications of aggressive or violent tendencies, dispositional factors and attitudinal variables, and undergo structured employment interviews (Kelley & Mullen, 2006:501). This involves background screening, demographics, history of

aggression, and alcohol and drug use. Screening consists of psychological testing, involving personality characteristics, integrity and personality testing, clinical and nonclinical assessment, actuarial methods and profiling (Day & Catano, 2006:553-562). Screening is thus used to prevent counterproductive work behaviours and to assist in creating a positive work environment (Neuman, 2012:359-360). Negative behaviour can be prevented or restricted by promoting positive behaviour (Mazzola & Kessler, 2012:160).

Organisations that support their employees facilitate productive work behaviour and increase organisational commitment, job satisfaction, production and health (Neuman, 2012:361). Support can be formal or informal. Formal support would include Employee Assistance Programmes (EAPs), which provide counselling for all employees (Brough et al., 2009:152). Various forms of social support are useful in counteracting stress. Instrumental support (support provided after an incident to help solve practical problems) depends on the nature of the incident. Emotional support (providing care, empathy and understanding) helps decrease burnout, whereas informational support (providing beneficial information to an individual) provides comfort and control. Support can come from various sources (Brough et al., 2009:53-55; Hurrell, 2006:542-543; Tracy, 2009:88). Social support can further provide coping mechanisms to deal with stress or violence at work, increase network integration and group cohesion, and decrease isolation and burnout (Inness & Barling, 2006:319; Mickel & Dallimore, 2012:74; Tracy, 2009:89). Stress and burnout management initiatives can also promote effective time management and training (Brough et al., 2009:152-153).

A risk management approach provides a reference point for continuous assessment and progress evaluation. It aims to provide a safe work environment (Brough et al., 2009:68-69). The five steps involved include research and planning, identifying the phenomenon in given situations, assessing consequences, controlling the situations, and evaluating the efficiency of the programme by supervising the control strategies. Control strategies that may be used include prevention strategies (e.g. training in policies, procedures, awareness, how to react and report bullying), management strategies that control or defuse harmful situations (e.g. supporting individuals, providing counselling and EAPs, and investigating incidents) and lastly recovery and learning strategies that deal with the aftermath in terms of restoration and re-establishing order (e.g. executive coaching, rehabilitation and planning for better policies) (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:87-91).

2.9.2. Secondary prevention

Secondary prevention deals with stress management and awareness, using training and educational activities. Training can have a beneficial impact on an individual's perception of control, especially if they experience violence in the workplace (Kelley & Mullen, 2006:502).

When starting work at an organisation, new employees should participate in an orientation programme that introduces them to the values of the organisation, policies, methods of reporting and dealing with workplace issues. This should be followed by ongoing training, informing employees of changes and ensuring continuous awareness of policies related to aggressive workplace behaviour (Dillon, 2012:19; Kelley & Mullen, 2006:502). Self-efficacy training (e.g. guidance and skill mastery, modelling, social persuasion, and physiological methods facilitating stress reduction methods) can aid in preventing career stagnation. Structured and monitored mentoring can enhance commitment to an organisation, whether formal (mentor is assigned to a mentee) or informal (supervisor provides guidance occasionally). Further means to increase employee well-being is by accommodating dual-career couples with child support, flexible working hours and diversity management, thus preventing work-family conflict (Abele, Volmer & Spurk, 2012:119, 121-123). A proper reward system and involvement of employees, whether participative, representative or financial, can increase employee well-being, high performance continuity and organisational commitment. Participation is key to making employees feel involved (Brough et al., 2009:83, 150-151).

Conflict management training can provide employees with the techniques to respond and de-escalate violent situations (e.g. methods to physically restrain, and self-defence). Employees need training in emotional, physical and verbal skills such as emotion regulation (Schat & Kelloway, 2006:589-594). Conflict management strategies can prevent workplace bullying if the appropriate intervention strategies are employed at each stage of conflict escalation and violence is gradually de-escalated stage by stage. Each stage of conflict escalation (i.e. discussion, polarisation, segregation and destruction) can be associated with an appropriate intervention sequence as set out in the four-stage model developed by Fisher and Keashly in 1990. In the discussion stage, strategies to promote communication and negotiations can be introduced. In the polarisation stage, where relationships are threatened, mediation is advised. The segregation stage involves domination, competitiveness and hostility, thus forceful intervention is recommended. In the destruction stage the use of peacekeepers who conduct conflict analysis is proposed (Keashly & Nowell, 2011:428, 434-436).

Furthermore, stress training and management, and coping strategies can enhance employees' well-being and productivity. Stress training involves three phases: providing information, acquiring skills and applying skills to the situation (Schat & Kelloway, 2006:589-594, 598). Training on its own is not sufficient, thus other programmes need to be implemented. Exposure to stress can increase victimisation and perpetration of workplace violence, hence, stress management interventions (SMIs) provide a framework for the

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prevention and management of work-related stress (Brough et al., 2009:68). Stressors can originate from internal or external sources. Internal factors influencing the success or failure of stress management include beliefs about self (e.g. skills), fatigue (capabilities are undermined), mood (affective states impact coping mechanisms and decision-making capacities), and age (coping with stress improves with age) (Brough et al., 2009:56, Mickel & Dallimore, 2012:68-70).

To deal with these internal factors, training in coping strategies may be useful. Coping can be problem-focused (deals directly with a problem) or emotion-focused (regulates feelings or affective states) and works on a cognitive and behavioural level with different psychological results (Inness & Barling, 2006:320). Self-efficacy can enhance coping by using several tactics. Tactics are behavioural (allowing others to facilitate work), communicative (handling of those who violate boundaries), temporal (having control over work hours), and physical (modifying work-family life boundaries) (Mickel & Dallimore, 2012:71-72). Attempts to cope are influenced by self-evaluation of the seriousness of the situation, its characteristics, and the power dynamics between the target and perpetrator (Cortina & Magley, 2001:274-276). The extent of time during which the target is bullied also influences which coping strategies are used (Hogh, Mikkelsen & Hansen, 2011:117-118). In the event of a stressful situation, two different strategies can be employed, namely an approach strategy (attempt to change a negative situation), using problem solving skills, or an avoidance strategy (no attempt to change the situation), using denial and avoidance (Pakenham, Chiu, Bursnall & Cannon, 2007:91).

Furthermore, when an incident of workplace bullying occurs it is vital that the incident is observable (transparency), the perpetrator is held accountable (accountability) and the organisation is able to deal with and control it by implementing proper policies and procedures (capacity) (Hodson, Roscigno & Lopez, 2006:385-388). In order to ensure transparency, accountability and capacity, certain foundations must be laid, including increasing workplace respect and courtesy, implementing bureaucratic procedures (this will elevate managerial competence) and forming team-based organisations that will increase employees' motivation to co-operate (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:57; Hauge et al., 2007:236-237; Hodson et al., 2006:388-390; Hoel et al., 2010:457; Salin, 2003:1220; Salin & Hoel, 2011:233).

2.9.3. Tertiary prevention

Tertiary prevention involves treating employees who have been affected by violent or stressful workplace incidents, and aids in their recovery and rehabilitation. Counselling involves rectifying relationships between co-workers and supplying therapeutic support. A

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counsellor works with those involved to investigate challenges and allows for facilitation, openness, acceptance and compromise. Counsellors pay attention to the initiation and maintenance of disruptive behaviour, displacement of aggression, and responsibility. The integrated model of counselling provides assessment, education, symptom diminution, integration and returning to the workplace (Tehrani, 2011:382, 386, 391-394). Victims of bullying can also be referred for inpatient treatment, involving cognitive behavioural therapy. This process of therapy involves various phases. The phases are distancing (removing the victim from the stressful environment and stabilising him/her), understanding (looking at the contributions of all parties to the result), deciding (victim decides on his/her future and professional career) and taking action (victim turns his/her decisions into action and learns distancing and coping strategies) (Schwickerath & Zapf, 2011:400-403). Evident from the above discussion is that prevention can occur at all levels within a chain of events (before, during and after an event has occurred) in order to prevent the initial event from taking place, de-escalate a potential event, and aid recovery in the post-event stage. As prevention methods alone are not always effective in deterring all workplace violence incidents, collaboration in terms of intervention methods is required and will be discussed in the following section.

2.10. Intervening in violence experienced by educators

The following section looks at various facets of intervention by referring specifically to the effective establishment and execution of investigation processes and complaint procedures. It is important to keep in mind that interventions can occur at individual level (altering characteristics, perspectives and attitudes in the workplace), organisational level (influencing behaviour to create a more efficient workplace culture), job level (impacting teamwork, workplace roles and the workplace environment) and policy level (prevention through implementation of regulations or legislation) (Vartia & Leka, 2011:364).

Certain principles guide intervention planning and implementation. For interventions to work, risks need to be evaluated and interventions should be moulded to the needs of the workplace. Interventions need to be theory based, systematic, carefully and continuously managed, and supervisors must actively participate (Vartia & Leka, 2011:370-373). Bullying in the workplace is often accompanied by discrimination, thus interventions may require recourse to existing and new legislation. Integrating organisational components such as understanding and interconnectedness into policy may improve policy monitoring and execution. Senior staff must have knowledge of the constructs within relevant policies (Lewis, Giga & Hoel, 2011:274-278).

Unfortunately, workplace violence can go unreported due to no policy being in place, embarrassment, or a lack of awareness. Victims can however be proactive by being aware of their rights and responsibilities and seeking out information (e.g. on bullying behaviour and methods of reporting) when faced with an incident. Prior to reporting, evidence (e.g. dates, times and places) must be collected. Victims can request assistance (aid in the form of coping strategies and stress relief), confront the perpetrator and decide whether to remain or leave the workplace (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:127-130; Oade, 2009:154). Victims must follow the procedures implemented when laying a formal complaint, and procure legal representation if needed (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:131-135). The investigation process is discussed below.

2.10.1. Investigation processes

The investigation process is governed by various principles. The manner in which a complaint will be dealt with must be decided prior to disputes, and must be governed by local policy. Principles guiding policies should therefore focus on rights, zero tolerance, proper time frames, procedural awareness for laying a complaint, systematic monitoring and fair justice, and enforce obedience and establish set behavioural conduct. The process must be objective, systematic, based on legislation, root out false or malicious complaints, and involve comprehensive actions carried out by trained individuals within a stipulated time frame (Hoel & Einarsen, 2011:343-346).

The investigation process involves four stages. During the preparation stage, investigators are assigned and provided with a proper mandate, time frame and responsibilities, and tasks are allocated. Secondly, factual evidence substantiating complaints must be gathered. Adequate preparation is required for interviewing complainants, perpetrators and, if necessary, third parties. Thirdly, conclusions are drawn based on the principle of probability, facts and assessment, followed by a written report providing employers with a detailed account of the process and its findings (Hoel & Einarsen, 2011:348-353). In the event of a violent incident, supervisors can also use the A-B-C analysis, in which the antecedent(s) (stimulus that caused the aggression), behaviour and consequences are examined, to respond appropriately. In order to assess imminent dangers in an organisation a Behavioural Observation Plan and Dangerousness Assessment can be used. A Behavioural Observation Plan involves a supervisor making notes of any noticeable behaviour changes in an employee and sending these to an outside organisation for analysis, possibly resulting in a referral to an Employee Assistance Programme. A Dangerous Assessment, on the other hand, entails formal evaluations conducted by a licensed psychologist or psychiatrist,

involving all staff members. When utilising either of the two tools, legal and privacy concerns must be taken into account (Dillon, 2012:18).

2.10.2. Complaints procedure

An optimal complaints procedure requires relevant information as well as a system that is fair, unbiased, up to date, focused, and tailored to the specific organisation. It also needs systematic documentation, an understandable procedure, accessible reporting, submitted in writing, and objective record keeping. Appeals should be a possibility and the complaints procedure should be continually monitored and reviewed. To ensure appropriate implementation, certain factors must be considered. Early identification and reporting assist in early intervention and diffusion. Organising incidents in terms of seriousness ensures that the most acute incidents are dealt with first. Additionally, there must be complete awareness of the procedure, and conflicts of interest must be removed (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:101-115).

Further important considerations in implementation are timeliness (fast execution of the complaints procedure), confidentiality (agreed upon at the beginning of the process by all parties) and proper training of all staff (to enhance competency and awareness). Staff working with the complaints system must be continuously evaluated, screened, and allowed a certain level of decision-making (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:110-122). In order for a complaints system to work, team performance is required. Goal interdependence can have resulting effects on positive team performance through cooperative group interdependence (believing the attainment of one's owns goals can help in achieving others' goals), and competitive group interdependence (competing against each other in order to win) (Leung & Snape, 2012:381-382).

Noticeable from the above, sufficient investigation and complaints procedures can be beneficial if governed by appropriate principles, and executed efficiently. The key, however, is awareness. If employees are not aware of policies and the relevant processes and procedures, they will not be able to rely on such policies for effective procedural outcomes beneficial to all parties. The reader has now been familiarised with workplace violence, workplace bullying, violence in schools, risk factors and methods of prevention and intervention. The researcher will provide an overview of school safety to conclude the chapter, in order to present the reader with an indication and overview of a safe school.

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2.11. School safety

School safety is vital for the positive development of educators and learners. The following section will explore the definitions of a safe school, risk factors and forms of safety, strategies and suggestions to promote safety in schools, and rights to a safe school.

2.11.1. Definition and characteristics of a safe school

For the purpose of the present study, a safe school is a place where education takes place in a secure and pleasant environment free from possible harm, violence, bullying, fear, terrorisation, ridicule and coercion. It is a place where all parties can interact constructively in a positive school climate that mirrors the schools' mission and vision and enhances positive relationships, childcare, growth, acceptance and communication (Bucher & Manning, 2005:56-57; Mabie, 2003:157; Prinsloo, 2005:5). Characteristics of a safe school include commitment, efficient leadership, a positive school climate that respects the rights of learners and educators, effective discipline, efficient administration of authority and control, collaboration between local community leaders, and the absence of violence (Barnes, Brynard & De Wet, 2012:72; Mabie, 2005:157-158).

2.11.2. Risk factors and forms of safety

In unsafe schools, there is a shift from a focus on education (quality academics) to a focus on safety. Perpetrators of violence in schools can be internal or external, and victims may be learners, parents, security personnel, administration and educators (Masitsa, 2011:164). Violence in schools is affected by certain risk factors such as school size (e.g. larger schools are more at risk[4]), poverty (inner city and township schools are more at risk) and level of schooling (secondary schools are more at risk) (Masitsa, 2011:164-165). Further risk factors may also include a negative school climate, accompanied by violation of basic human rights and needs, dehumanisation (De Wet, 2007a:63) and repeated school transitions which can hinder school connectedness and bonding to school values (SACE, 2011:29).

Arbitrary or inconsistent application of discipline and school infrastructure (e.g. overcrowding) may also contribute to violence in schools (De Wet, 2003:92). Although the number of learners in the ordinary school sector increased between the years 2009 and 2012, the number of schools decreased, thus elevating the weight of overcrowding as a contributing factor (Department of Basic Education, 2015:14). Poorly trained educators and

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[4] Contradictory South African and non-South African evidence has been recorded regarding the influence of school size and class size. Agreement has been reached that both variables do act as risk factors, however arguments continue whether violence in school positively correlates with school and/or class size (De Wet, 2007a:77; Masitsa, 2011:164) or negatively (Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2009:178; Wei et al., 2013:81). Further investigation is needed on the weight of each variable separately as a risk factor.

erratic authoritarian practices (De Wet, 2003:92), low academic success (SACE, 2011:29; De Wet, 2003:92), corporal punishment, gender violence and unprofessional, non-dedicated educators can also foster school-related violence, decreasing safety within schools (Harber & Mncube, 2011: 240-241). Risk factors may also include the economic situation and culture of violence beyond school, as hatred and violence often spill over into schools (Masitsa, 2011:165). Safety provided must therefore be physical, emotional and intellectual.

In order to provide intellectual safety (a judgement-free environment where learners can think freely and ask for assistance), educators are required to use strategies that involve all learners and create a positive classroom environment with set regulations. Emotional safety is often hindered by pressure on learners to perform well and on educators to have students ready for high-stakes tests, as a result of which learners' problems (personal or academic) may be overlooked (Bucher & Manning, 2005:57). Indicators of safety include adequate punishment, an environment promoting education and learning, good leadership, management strategies, and professional educator conduct. The importance of safe schools is emphasised because the developmental needs of learners, such as self-esteem, cannot be attained in the absence of safety and security (Masitsa, 2011:165-166).

2.11.3. Strategies and suggestions to promote safety in schools

Although preventions and interventions have been discussed earlier in the chapter, the following section is solely focused on ways to promote safety in schools. A positive, process-based approach is needed in order to create a safe school. Such an approach focuses on prevention and proactive elements within a school, thus creating a supportive school climate that builds positive relations based on trust, and sensible, compatible policies (Bucher & Manning, 2005:58). A school climate that is democratic in nature can address the problem of violence in schools (De Wet, 2007a:80). In order to establish a positive school climate, warmth, co-operation, school connectedness, acceptance (individuality and diversity), positive role models and promotion of positive behaviour are required (Bucher & Manning, 55:58-59).

Technological measures such as video surveillance and telecommunications can also be used to enhance school safety (Bucher & Manning, 2005:58). Supervision should be in place for preventative and safety purposes but the 'big brother mentality' should be avoided (Mabie, 2003:160). It has been suggested that, to promote school safety, appropriate personnel be appointed to monitor violence in schools and fulfil the constitutional values stressed by the Department of Education (De Wet, 2007a:80). Safe schools assimilate prevention and intervention processes in their programmes (e.g. mediation and conflict

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resolution) to decrease violence and increase a positive school climate. In order to prevent severe forms of violence, it is necessary to prevent the escalation of less severe violence (e.g. harassment and low-level bullying). Such interventions, together with taking threats seriously, help to promote safe schools (Bucher & Manning, 2005:58). A threat-assessment protocol, outlining the responsibilities of all parties (e.g. educators, learners, parents), can be valuable (Mabie, 2003:160-161). School safety can further be promoted by proper communication systems between classrooms and the principal's office, and routinely tested safety and evacuation procedures (Mabie, 2003:162). Furthermore, dependable school safety indicators and the evaluation of safety initiatives are necessary to ensure school safety (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:104-105), in addition to visitor screening, an efficient disciplinary code, and the proper training of educators (De Wet, 2007b:34-35).

The distribution of materials on violence and repercussions, the promotion of awareness regarding violence towards educators, effective reporting and debriefing mechanisms, and educators' involvement in decision-making can lower the risk of violence in schools (Kajs, Schumacher & Vital, 2014:94-95). Constant revision of staff codes of ethics and leadership styles has also been recommended (De Wet, 2010a:1458). Strong school management and leadership are crucial to decreasing role stressors, managing transition, and implementing policies. Work design and employees' control over their own work is also important. Proper procedures must be followed when conducting lay-offs, in addition to a reasonable explanation and severance package (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:622-624). As leaders are responsible for pre- and post-incident risks and outcomes, collaborative school management is needed for the optimal running of schools (SACE, 2011:34). Additional policies include compensation for victims (supporting medical or leave requests), and district-established intervention and prevention techniques (Kajs et al., 2014:94-95).

The implementation of outreach programmes to raise awareness of school codes of conduct for all parties is also suggested (De Wet, 2007a:80; SACE, 2011:34). Due to the abuse of substances and accessibility to weapons at some schools, random drug testing, the introduction of metal detectors and educating learners regarding drugs and drug testing have been suggested (De Wet, 2003:93; De Wet, 2007a:77, 80; Leoschut, 2008:9). Co-operation and co-ordinated efforts between various parties such as community leaders, government, law enforcement (De Wet, 2003:97), NGOs, schools, families and the media (Ozdemir, 2012:60) are needed. A sustained commitment from all parties to address the phenomenon, in addition to partnerships at community and national level, could aid the implementation of district policies (De Wet, 2007a:80). A qualified national resource centre could also provide information and assistance to district schools. Parental involvement in supervision of

learners and school grounds, and in the planning and execution of a safe school, is vital (Mabie, 2003:158, 162).

At a community level, youth need to be positively involved in the community. Communities require strengthening in terms of employment programmes, parent training and community growth and development (Espelage, Anderman, Brown, Jones, Lane, McMahon, Reddy & Reynolds, 2013:81). Increasing collaboration between schools and community structures is very important (SACE, 2011:34), as it can foster commitment and responsibility. As violence against educators is often seen as 'part of the job' and collaboration is needed on multiple contextual levels, a whole school anti-bullying policy has been recommended, supporting victims of such violence to seek support, and promoting safety in schools (De Wet, 2011:7). However, a whole school approach has to be adapted to the needs of specific schools (De Wet, 2007b:35). A whole school approach such as the Department of Basic Education School Safety Framework can provide a framework that includes all the inter-related levels within schools (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:xiii-xiv; Kruger, 2011:50). Involvement, awareness, participation and execution are contained in the multi-level, whole school approach, as all parties (educators, learners, staff, parents and community) are involved in prevention, reporting and intervention at individual, institutional and community levels (De Wet, 2011:15-16; Kruger, 2011:50).

Stability and unity are needed in terms of implementing policies and procedures throughout different school districts (Espelage et al., 2013:81), and school personnel must receive the appropriate preparation and training (SACE, 2011:34). Furthermore, certain educator resources that can aid in the development of safety, such as various classroom management skills that have been created by the American Psychological Association, are available at no cost online (Espelage et al., 2013:79-80; Ozdemir, 2012:60). Other resources, such as effective instructional practices and safe learning environment programme designs (created by The Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning) can also be obtained (Espelage et al., 2013:80). Prevention and interventions need to be executed throughout all grades and classes, and educators must be aware of their own rights, educational statutes and vulnerability (De Wet, 2007b:35).

Courses for educators on intervention strategies include child development, classroom management strategies, prevention methods and community psychology (Espelage et al., 2013:82). The need for educator training to deal with violence has to be stressed (De Wet, 2007a:79; Ervasti et al., 2012:342), in addition to the more efficient regulation of members' behaviour by professional bodies such as SACE (De Wet, 2011:7). A call has also been made for a national registry of violent incidents towards educators, which will aid in

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identifying the best prevention methods for the phenomenon and help establish better safety in schools (Espelage et al., 2013:83). Finally, suggestions, including the expansion and use of EAPs at provincial levels and the more proficient monitoring of High Risk Zones, have been made to sustain safety in schools (SACE, 2011:32-33).

2.11.4. Rights to a safe school

Learners and educators have the right to a safe school environment. Educators have the right and the duty to exercise authority, provide supervision and maintain order by enforcing a safe school environment. In accordance with sections 12(1) and 24(a) of the Constitution, everyone has the right to security and freedom and the right to a safe environment in which they can receive an education. Section 28(2) and section 29(1) of the Constitution stipulate that the well-being of the child is primary and that all learners have the right to obtain an education (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996). Because educators provide a service in the same environment where learners receive an education, similar rights apply to them. The Occupational Health and Safety Amendment Act (181 of 1993) provides for the health and safety of educators and pertains to individuals at work reporting unsafe work environments. In terms of section 10 of the Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996), everyone has the right to being respected and their dignity unchallenged. Feelings of insecurity at school undermine the ability of educators to provide a safe school environment and execute their academic duties (Masitsa, 2011:166-167).

2.12. Summary

It is evident from the chapter that quality education is fundamental to a constantly growing and developing society. As the education system rests heavily on the shoulders of educators, their personal safety and security and the efficient governance of the school setting within which they work, are vital for effective teaching and learning purposes. Research on violence in schools has however been primarily learner focused, South African research particularly so.

However, noteworthy research (South African and non-South African) on violence against educators has been conducted, and has been presented and argued from multiple perspectives. Certain commonalities have been found within both South African and non-South African research regarding the nature of violence against educators and the fact that educators are victims of violence in the school setting. Nevertheless, debates regarding the phenomenon continue, and additional research is required. As the research topic addresses workplace violence against educators, the reader was also familiarised with workplace violence in general. Workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence were

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discussed separately but it is believed that all three phenomena intersect and play a role in educator-targeted violence. It is evident that certain typologies of workplace violence can be associated with certain vulnerable occupations, and each presents its various risk factors and consequences.

Due to the presence of power disparity in workplace bullying but not necessarily in workplace violence, workplace bullying was discussed separately. Workplace bullying can present in various categories and forms, and can be perpetrated by different types of bullies with specific profiles. Ongoing debates regarding victims of bullying and the complex nature of the phenomenon highlight the importance of raising awareness and efficient reporting mechanisms. As aggressive behaviours have seeped into the work environment, an overview of violence in schools was presented, highlighting the global scale of the phenomenon and the need for an increased focus on, and public education regarding violence in schools. Violence in schools can take on various forms and occurs within the broader culture of violence in the country, with numerous risk factors and potentially damaging consequences.

There is no single cause for workplace violence, workplace bullying or school violence, therefore the phenomenon must be considered within the context in which it occurs. Commonalities in risk factors can however be identified at different levels: individual, relationship, community or societal. Each level entails an interaction between various parties. A complex linkage of multiple levels of risk factors can thus lead to violence, and, specifically, workplace violence against educators. Similarly, commonalities in the effects of workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence can be found in the individual, but also in third parties and the organisation itself, highlighting the complex interrelated nature of violence in the workplace.

Due to the far-reaching consequences of such violence, prevention and intervention methods were reviewed. Noticeable in the three demarcated groups of prevention is prevention as a chain of events, not only before an event occurs but also during the occurrence and after the event has occurred. Training in stress management and coping strategies is vital, as it can have both personal benefits and help in de-escalating potentially violent incidents. As prevention alone is not always sufficient, effective intervention strategies such as investigation processes and complaints procedures are fundamental in successfully intervening in violence against educators and essentially creating a safe work environment. Various strategies and suggestions have also been presented to promote safety in schools, highlighting the involvement of all parties at individual, classroom, school

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and community levels. It is important to keep in mind that the right to a safe school environment is not only that of the learner, but the right of the educator as well.

Workplace violence experienced by educators in South Africa should not simply be endured, as the effects on all parties involved are paralysing, not only for the educators experiencing the violence but for bystanders, perpetrators, the organisation, and teaching and learning in general. The next chapter will provide an overview of theories that are applicable to the present study, in addition to an explanation of an integrated theoretical model, which could be used to better understand workplace violence against educators in private and public secondary schools.

Chapter 3: Theoretical perspectives

3.1. Introduction

The following chapter presents various victimological and criminological theories to better understand workplace violence against educators. To better understand theory, a short explanation of the purpose of theories and what constitutes a sound theory are presented, followed by the theoretical framework used in the present study. Finally, an integrated model is provided which could be used to better understand workplace violence against educators in private and public secondary schools. An explanation of the integrated model will be provided. The chapter thus provides information regarding relevant theories, and theoretical application will follow in Chapter 6.

3.2. The purpose of theory

Theories are a product of scientific inquiry (Williams & McShane, 2010:1-2) and help us understand the world around us. Theories can be simple or complex, however, criminological theories tend to lean more towards the latter (Burke, 2014:8). They are ordered statements of logically consistent and related assumptions about a phenomenon, based on empirically supported systematic observations by which they can be accepted or refuted (Burke, 2014:8; Williams & McShane, 2010:3; Winfree & Abadinsky, 2003:3). Furthermore, it is important to note that all theories are based on untestable (scientifically and empirically) philosophical assumptions, whether ethical (thoughts on what is 'good' and 'bad'), epistemological (knowledge can be obtained through science), or metaphysical (Bohm & Vogel, 2011:3-4). Regardless, theories involve statements on the relations between actual events, and inform policies or actions taken. Criminological theories can be broken down into two major types, namely theories of law and criminal justice, and theories of criminal and deviant behaviour (Akers, 2012:2).

Theories are vital, as they contribute to understanding the reasons behind criminal behaviour and the criminal justice system (Akers, 2012:1; Bohm & Vogel, 2011:10). Theories provide a framework within which we are able to explain interrelated concepts (propositions) and the relationships between them, for example criminal behaviour and biological factors. Additionally, they are used to explain whether observed patterns are meaningful or not (Bohm & Vogel, 2011:2; Burke, 2014:8). Relationships between concepts may be linear or curvilinear, or no relationship may exist (Bohm & Vogel, 2011:1-2). Theories aim to correctly describe and explain phenomena, make predictions, and determine conditions necessary for the phenomena to occur, whilst controlling the outcome of a phenomenon by applying the knowledge discovered (Winfree & Abadinsky, 2003:6).

3.3. Characteristics of a good theory

The discussion below provides an exploration into what can be considered a sound or 'good' theory and the criteria utilised to determine the quality of such theories. Determining whether one theory is better than another depends partly on its explanatory power (ability to explain and predict crime in terms of typology, spatial-temporal factors and different levels of analysis) and the integration of dispositional/ situational/ systematic factors or biological/ psychological/ sociological factors. Furthermore, evaluation of theories should be based on their breadth (ability to explain different criminal behaviours), comprehensiveness (taking account of all variables), precision (ability to specify all-encompassing factors of the causal relationships), and depth (ability to clarify the linkage of causal variables in creating a systematic whole) (Bohm & Vogel, 2011:6). Theories are thus required to meet certain scientific criteria in order to be considered a sound theory (Akers, 2012:6; Tibbetts, 2012:6). The scientific criteria met in the present study are as follows:

- Logical consistency, scope and parsimony: This requires a theory to be logical and internally consistent in the definition, clarification and focus of key concepts or propositions, and in its proposal of logical relationships. A theory that is broad in scope and uses a few, simple propositions to explain phenomena is more sought after than one that is narrow in focus and relies on multiple propositions and statements (Akers, 2012:6-7; Tibbetts, 2012:7; Williams & McShane, 2010:5).
- Testability: This requires a theory to be testable against tangible, observable, and measurable empirical findings. It involves the verification or refutation of the theory by using empirical evidence through quantitative validation. Concepts must be clearly defined, non-tautological and more closed ended (Akers, 2012:7-8; Tibbetts, 2012:8). Hence, theories must be able to withstand verification through observation and validation of foretold relationships, and falsification, thus disproving a proposition (Bohm & Vogel, 2011:7).
- Empirical validity: The theory must be supported by scientific, experiential proof. Probability of causality is often used, with the validity of the theory being greater when the strength of associations and correlations increase (Akers, 2012:9-10).
- Usefulness and policy implications: These are necessary for a theory to provide principles or recommendations to solve a problem and effectively address a criminal justice or social policy issue. It is vital in the evaluation of the theory and the development of further criminological theories (Akers, 2012:11; Tibbetts, 2012:8).

Evidently, theories are required to meet certain criteria in order to be considered sound theories, not only in terms of internal consistency and usefulness but also with regards to

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testability and validity, as they need to be supported and based on experiential proof. Quality theories are therefore high in explanatory power, precise, and able to clarify causal linkages.

3.4. Theoretical framework

A combination of various sound theories is utilised in the present study to inform an integrated model that can be used to better understand workplace violence against educators. The theoretical framework draws primarily on theories of victimisation, as the focus of the study is on victims of the phenomenon.

Table 2: Theories used to understand workplace violence against educators

Victimological theories	Authors
Differential risk model • Lifestyle/exposure theory • Routine activities theory • Opportunity model	Fattah (1991) Hindelang, Gottfredson & Garofalo (1978) Cohen & Felson (1979) Cohen, Kleugel & Land (1981)
Extended control balance theory • Control balance theory	Piquero & Hickman (2003) Tittle (1995)

Although the integrated model primarily draws on the differential risk model (Fattah, 1991) and the extended control balance theory (Piquero & Hickman, 2003), the researcher feels it is important to explain how these theories came about. The differential risk model is seen as an extension and combination of the lifestyle/exposure model (Hindelang, Gottfredson & Garofalo, 1978), the routine activities theory (Cohen & Felson, 1979), and the opportunity model (Cohen, Kleugal & Land, 1981). The extended control balance theory (Piquero & Hickman, 2003) is an extension of the control balance theory (Tittle, 1995). Each will be discussed below to fully understand the ten categories that, according to the differential risk model, increase risk of victimisation.

3.4.1. Lifestyle/exposure model of personal victimisation

The lifestyle/exposure model of personal victimisation was introduced in 1978 by Hindelang, Gottfredson and Garofalo. This prominent theory of victimisation formed the basis of, and influenced further theoretical developments in victimology. The theory aimed to investigate why certain individuals were more at risk of suffering personal victimisation. Evidence showed that risk of victimisation is a result of lifestyle, as certain antecedents of a lifestyle (routine daily activities, e.g. vocational or leisure activities) influence differential victimisation (Fattah, 2000:29; Nofziger & Kurtz, 2005:6).

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The theory suggested that any alteration or variation in the routine activities of the victim or offender can alter the risk of victimisation, as it changes exposure to risk and opportunities available or unavailable to the potential offender (Saponaro, 2013:15). Lifestyle is most often determined by demographic characteristics (age, race and gender), and influenced by certain elements (role expectations and structural constraints) (Hindelang et al., 1978:242). Lifestyle thus affects personal victimisation through two interceding variables, namely prevalence of association and amount of exposure (Fattah, 1991:322).

The lifestyle/exposure model consists of various important elements, namely, role expectations, social structure, adaptations, exposure and associations. With regards to role expectations, demographic characteristics determine the social role of an individual according to cultural norms such as role expectations based on sex and age. Roles assigned prescribe certain appropriate or inappropriate behaviours and determine the adoption of certain lifestyles. Thus individuals behave according to others' expectations. Over the years the social roles of men and women have changed as more and more women enter the workforce. Women no longer stay at home, thus their risk of exposure to victimisation has supposedly increased (Hindelang et al., 1978:242; Mesch, 2000:50; Nofziger & Kurtz, 2005:6; Saponaro, 2013:16; Williams & McShane, 2010:181).

The second element is structural constraints. Role expectations are accompanied by structural constraints that limit choices between lifestyles and behavioural options. For example, economic deprivation may limit choices regarding location of residence, educational opportunities and the nature of leisure activities. Structural constraints can therefore fall into the following interdependent institutional orders: economic, familial, educational and/or legal. An individual can be constrained by a combination of orders at different times. It is important to note the possible reciprocal nature between role expectations and structural constraints, as a change in role expectations can result in a related change in social structure (Hindelang et al., 1978:242-244; Nofziger & Kurtz, 2005:6; Saponaro, 2013:16). Social structure has an additional effect on risk of victimisation as individuals with a higher position in social structures engage in high risk activities less frequently (Williams & McShane, 2010:181).

In terms of adaptations, due to role expectations and structural constraints, individuals adapt at individual and subcultural levels, resulting in specific daily activities and predictable patterns of behaviour (i.e. routine activities). Activities may be safe in nature, or high risk. Such adaptations may enhance or diminish risk of victimisation and involve the acquisition of skills and attitudes in order to function and adapt to the first two elements, role expectations and structural constraints. Skills and attitudes adopted may include beliefs about crime and

safety, and restrict the behaviour of individuals (Hindelang et al., 1978:244; Saponaro, 2013:16). Young individuals often increase their chance of victimisation as they decide to engage in high risk activities in terms of time and space (Williams & McShane, 2010:181).

Differences in lifestyle can be linked to differences in exposure (the fourth element). Hence, lifestyle can increase the level of exposure to high risk situations in terms of space and time. In other words, lifestyle influences the probability of being in certain places at certain times and coming into contact with individuals with certain characteristics, thus increasing or decreasing the risk of victimisation (Hindelang et al., 1978:245; Saponaro, 2013:17). Vocational and leisure activities comprise routine daily activities and bring individuals into regular contact with other individuals with similar lifestyles. These activities are thus carried out within certain institutions and become daily routines, which increases the degree of predictability in terms of interactions with others (Hindelang et al., 1978:245).

The fifth element is associations. Lifestyle can be indirectly linked to exposure to risk of victimisation through associations. Individuals with similar lifestyles are more likely to come into contact and build relationships with each other. If an individual shares some of the characteristics found in particular offenders, his or her chance of victimisation increases (Hindelang et al., 1978:245; Saponaro, 2013:17). In order for personal victimisation to occur, several prerequisites need to be met (Davis, 2005:36; Hindelang et al., 1978:250; Saponaro, 2013:16):

- The offender and victim must convene at a specific time and place.
- A dispute must develop between the victim and offender, during which the offender perceives the victim to be a suitable target to victimise.
- The offender must be willing to use violence or the threat of violence to achieve the desired effect.
- The offender sees the circumstances of the situation as advantageous to achieve the desired effect with the use of violence or threat of violence.

Hindelang et al. (1978) also suggested eight propositions regarding exposure to victimisation and the implications of certain lifestyles (Hindelang et al., 1978:251-264; Saponaro, 2013:17-18):

- The probability of personal victimisation is linked to the amount of time spent in a public place.
- The probability of being in a public place at night varies according to lifestyle.
- Social contact or interaction occurs more often among individuals with similar lifestyles.

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- The likelihood of victimisation depends on the victim sharing similar demographic features with the perpetrator.
- The amount of time spent with non-family members is a function of lifestyle.
- The probability of victimisation increases as time spent with non-family members increases.
- Variations in lifestyle are linked to the ability of individuals to isolate themselves from individuals with criminal characteristics.
- Variations in lifestyle are linked to the variations in convenience, desirability and vulnerability of the individual as a target for personal victimisation.

The lifestyle/exposure model of personal victimisation has certain limitations. Personal victimisation in the domestic environment, incidents void of direct contact, and factors within the psychological or biological domain are not explained by the model, such as different crime levels among men and women with similar lifestyles. The theory additionally assumes a definite level of offender motivation and does not account for daily activities embedded so routinely that individuals do not even know of their occurrence. Due to the aforementioned shortcomings, Garofalo (Garofalo, 1987 in Saponaro, 2013:18) feels that non-sociological levels of explanation (i.e. biological and psychological variables) must be considered in addition to target attractiveness, individual differences and perceptions about and reactions to crime (Saponaro, 2013:18). Furthermore, the absence of direct measures for important lifestyle variables (e.g. the extent of out-of-home leisure activities for different demographic groups) proves another limitation in addition to the vagueness of the lifestyle concept, passivity and simplicity of the model, under-development as a theory of victimisation, and reliance on single indicators of key concepts. In terms of how temporal and spatial features of activities increase vulnerability, a more detailed analysis is needed (Fattah, 1991:339-340).

Regardless of the limitations, the model's significance lies in its universal applicability, wide scope of the term lifestyle, and ability to explain variations in street crimes (Saponaro, 2013:18). In summary, lifestyle determines the probability that an individual will be in a specific place at a specific time, interacting or associating with a specific type of individual under specific conditions. Hence, lifestyle affects exposure to violence and creates opportunities that affect risk of victimisation (Hindelang et al., 1978:251; Nofzinger & Kurtz, 2005:6, 19). Victimisation is therefore disproportionately distributed. A similar argument is made by the routine activities approach, as routine daily activities affect exposure and risk of personal victimisation (Mesch, 2000:50). Similar to the lifestyle/exposure model, the routine activities theory also presents an explanation of the association between lifestyle and

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personal victimisation (Zhang, Welte & Wieczorek, 2001:133). Relevant aspects of the theory will be incorporated into the integrated model.

3.4.2. Routine activities theory

Cohen and Felson introduced the routine activities theory in 1979, which explains the influence of routine daily activities (and their structure) on criminal opportunity (Cohen & Felson, 1979:589). Similar to the lifestyle theory, routine activities explain victimisation by exploring the social processes that increase risk of victimisation (Gover, 2004:173). Routine activities theory suggests that victimisation risk is influenced by lifestyle patterns (Brown, Esbensen & Geis, 2010:174). Cohen and Felson define routine activities as "any recurrent and prevalent activities which provide for basic population and individual needs, whatever their biological or cultural origins" (Cohen & Felson, 1979:593).

Cohen and Felson's study (1979) concluded that when three elements converge in time and space the likelihood of a crime increases. Moreover, a change in the structure (spatial and temporal) of an individual's (offender or victim) routine activities or lifestyle can affect the rate of victimisation, thus emphasising the spatial and temporal interdependence of criminal acts (Cohen & Felson, 1979:589, 593-594; Gover, 2004:173; Mesch, 2000:50). The three elements are a motivated offender, a suitable target and the absence of a capable guardian (the 'chemistry for crime') (Felson, 1998:52). According to the theorists, the absence of any of the three elements can hinder the successful execution of a contact predatory crime (Cohen & Felson, 1979:589; Felson, 2002:298; Newburn, 2013:293; Saponaro, 2013:19; Tibbetts, 2012:58; Wilcox, 2010:341).

Central concepts within the approach are opportunity, proximity or exposure, and facilitating factors (e.g. absence of a capable guardian) (Fattah, 1991:325; Fattah, 2000:30). Cohen and Felson (1979) further point out that social structure and trends in social conditions can influence the convergence of elements, and that, unfortunately, an improved quality of life can increase risk of victimisation (Cohen & Felson, 1979:590; Wilcox, 2010:341). Felson (1998) later introduced a fourth element, namely the absence of an intimate handler (a person capable of persuading an offender against committing a crime and applying informal social control due to an emotional or legal attachment). In his extension of the routine activities theory, Felson applies the approach not only to exploitative offenses but also to mutualistic, competitive and individualistic offenses (Felson, 2002:299; Saponaro, 2013:19).

In terms of the motivated offender element, the routine activities theory assumes a certain presence of offender motivation or criminal inclination and the offender's ability to act on such inclinations (Cohen & Felson, 1979:589-590; Tibbets, 2012:58). Cohen and Felson's

primary focus on understanding crime in terms of variations in elements such as a suitable target and absence of a capable guardian, is backed up by their assumption that motivated offenders are key (Wilcox, 2010:341). In accordance with the theory, offender(s) are reasoned criminals who make the choice to victimise the victim when the opportunity presents itself (humans' hedonistic nature). The crime thus requires both the victim and offender to play a role (Brown et al., 2010:173; Tibbetts, 2012:58).

Target suitability is the second element within the 'chemistry for crime' and involves the availability of something a potential offender evaluates as valuable, whether it is valuable property, the opportunity for excitement, or the possibility of executing an act that may be emotionally gratifying, appealing to an individual's hedonistic nature (Brown et al., 2010:173). A target's suitability, such as his or her temporal and spatial characteristics, can be affected by routine production and daily activities (e.g. spatial/temporal features of school, work and leisure activities) (Cohen & Felson, 1979:591). A suitable target is determined by four factors (Burke, 2009:53; Cohen & Felson, 1979:591; Newburn, 2013:295; Saponaro, 2013:19):

- Value (the symbolic/material worth of the target, whether personal or property, subjectively perceived by a rational potential offender).
- Physical visibility (the opportunity for potential offenders to watch/view and identify the target).
- Accessibility/attainability (the ability of the potential offender to approach/gain access to the target with ease and without drawing unwanted attention, increasing the risk of attack).
- Inertia/effortlessness (the simplicity by which the potential offender can obtain the target, taking into account the mass/size of the target and the target's physical ability to oppose or remove the offender).

With regards to the third element, absence of a capable guardian, the form of a 'guardian' depends on the context. A capable guardian can be any spatial-temporal form of oversight that offers deterrence against criminal violations (Brown et al., 2010:173; Saponaro, 2013:20). Absence of a capable guardian thus refers to the absence of a person or other agent that can protect the target against an offender, or deter a criminal event. A capable guardian can be a person, animal or object, security measures or safeguards, technological aids, and even programmes or policies implemented to prevent and deter violence (Brown et al, 2010:173; Newburn, 2013:295; Saponaro, 2013:20; Tibbetts, 2012:58). Furthermore, the situations and locations in which targets place themselves have an impact on the risk of victimisation (Burke, 2009:54).

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Routine activities can occur both within and outside the home environment (e.g. vocational or leisure activities). The theory itself was tested in its application to the household activity ratio and variations in predatory crime rates. Results indicated that activities occurring outside the household (non-household, non-family activities) are at higher risk of criminal victimisation (Cohen & Felson, 1979:593-594). Additionally, Cohen and Felson (1979) applied the theory to changing crime patterns in the United States, finding that the increase in crime rates could be attributed to an absence of guardianship at home, as women have increasingly entered the labour market since 1960. Results thus pointed out that crime rates were influenced by changes in the social structure of society (Saponaro, 2013:20).

The contribution made by the routine activities theory was its explanation of the manner in which situational and environmental factors in combination with routine activities could influence proneness to victimisation and, in turn, explain variations in crime rates. Further contributions of the theory include providing a framework against which crime patterns can be examined, an emphasis on the roles all actors play in the execution of a criminal event, and its crime prevention potential in situational alterations and precautions (Saponaro, 2013:20). The approach has additionally been utilised in studies on victimisation vulnerability of certain groups in the United States, victimisation risk factors in child abduction and child homicide, and victimisation risk of clergy members (Burke, 2009:55). The approach has also had modern applications, such as its use in geographic profiling (Tibbets, 2012:59). Recent studies have further applied the approach in examining deviance and how it relates to poor oversight of young adults' socialisation, as well as further exploring the part extra-curricular activities, substances and sororities play in deviance (Gilbertson, 2006:75; Jackson, Gilliland & Veneziano, 2006:450).

Certain limitations have been pointed out. The theory assumes a certain level of offender motivation and fails to further explore factors that motivate offenders to commit criminal acts (Burke, 2009:55; Saponaro, 2013:20). It also fails to explain white-collar crime and places misconstrued expectations on victims to alter their lifestyle, shifting blame from the offender onto the victim and his/her lifestyle (Saponaro, 2013:21). Further limitations include the passivity and simplicity of the theory, the broad scope of 'routine activity', single measures of key concepts, and inconsistency between the nature of violent crimes and 'rational behaviour', as stipulated in the abovementioned theory (Fattah, 1991:339-340). Both of the abovementioned theories (lifestyle/exposure model and routine activities theory) focus on the affiliation between lifestyle and routine activities, their rate of victimisation, and the most likely avenues through which such victimisation could take place. The next theory discussed focuses on the way in which routine activities and lifestyle create opportunities for criminal acts (Gover, 2004:173; Zhang et al., 2001:133).

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3.4.3. The opportunity model

In 1981, a more fortified version of the routine activities theory and lifestyle/exposure model was introduced (Cohen, Kleugel & Land, 1981), named the opportunity theory (Burke, 2009:54). Cohen et al. (1981) point out that although the lifestyle/exposure theory provided good foundations for victimisation theory, it lacked preciseness in terms of its propositions, and placed too much emphasis on lifestyle as a mediating factor in terms of the relation between inequality and risk of victimisation (Cohen et al., 1981:507). The opportunity model is an integration of both the lifestyle/exposure model and the routine activities theory, and postulates that risk of predatory victimisation is largely influenced by the opportunity created when people's lifestyle and routine activities bring them or their property into contact with motivated offenders in the absence of guardianship (Cohen et al., 1981:507; Fattah, 1991:326; Fattah, 2000:30; Saponaro, 2013:21; Zhang et al., 2001:133).

Cohen et al. (1981:506) explored the relation between social stratification (income, race and age) and risk of predatory criminal victimisation, and the mediating role played by five factors related to risk. The five factors contributing to the risk of criminal victimisation are exposure, proximity, guardianship, attractiveness, and definitional properties of crime (Cohen et al., 1981:507; Fattah, 1991:326). Their results indicated little relation between race and risk of victimisation, and an inverse relation between age and risk of victimisation, whilst those with lower socio-economic status were less at risk than their higher socio-economic counterparts (Cohen et al., 1981:507). The definitions of and assumptions contained in the five factors will be discussed below.

In terms of the first factor, exposure, for an act of victimisation to occur, there must be contact between the motivated offender and the potential victim or his/her property at any point in time/place. Exposure signifies visibility, contact and accessibility of the potential victim. An increase in contact (exposure) increases the risk of criminal victimisation (Cohen et al., 1981:507-508; Fattah, 1991:326; Saponaro, 2013:21). Proximity refers to the physical distance between areas where potential victims live, and locations where large numbers of offenders can be found. As the residential proximity between the primary and the latter increases, so does the risk of criminal victimisation (Cohen et al., 1981:507-508; Fattah, 1991:326; Saponaro, 2013:21). Close residential proximity allows for better observation of potential victims by offenders and determination of vulnerability (Saponaro, 2013:21).

Guardianship refers to both the effectiveness of persons (neighbours, police, security officials, bystanders or pedestrians) and objects (alarms, locks, CCTV surveillance, burglar bars) in preventing criminal victimisation, whether merely by their presence or by direct or indirect actions. The more the potential targets are guarded, the less likely the chance of

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criminal victimisation (Cohen et al., 1981:508; Saponaro, 2013:21). There is a preference amongst offenders for unguarded or poorly guarded targets (Fattah, 1991:326).

Target attractiveness is the material or symbolic desirability of targets, whether in the form of persons or their property, including their supposed inertia and ability to offer resistance. If the motivation is instrumental, an increase in the attractiveness of the target will increase the risk of criminal victimisation (Cohen et al., 1981:508; Fattah, 1991:326; Saponaro, 2013:21). Target attractiveness thus needs to be differentiated in terms of instrumental means (committing an act in order to gain something one desires) or expressive means (committing an act because the act itself is the reward) (Cohen et al., 1981:508).

With regards to the definitional properties of crimes factor, different crimes have different effects of exposure, proximity, guardianship and attractiveness; consequently, some are easier to transgress than others, affecting the risk of victimisation (Cohen et al., 1981:508). Each type of crime has certain properties that place constraints on the instrumental actions of potential offenders. The strength of the exposure, guardianship and proximity factors on the risk of victimisation thus depends on the extent to which properties of crime constrain instrumental action. Hence, the ease with which the crime can be committed can increase or decrease the probability that it will occur (Cohen et al., 1981:508-509; Fattah, 1991:326; Saponaro, 2013:21-22). The findings of Cohen et al. (1981:521) confirm all five assumptions mentioned above.

Evaluation of the opportunity model unveiled similar flaws to those of the lifestyle and routine activities models. It is a simplistic, passive theory that assumes offender motivation, ignores individual characteristics and factors that may precipitate violence, and fails to sufficiently address gender differences (Fattah, 1991:338-339; Saponaro, 2013:22). Furthermore, the theory does not offer an explanation for crimes committed in the home environment, nor addresses structural variables that may act as contributing factors (Fattah, 1991:340).

3.4.4. Differential risk model of criminal victimisation

To address the limitations of the abovementioned theories, Fattah (1991) developed the differential risk model. This model incorporates the lifestyle, routine activities and opportunity models whilst introducing a system of ten categories that influence the risk of criminal victimisation (Fattah, 1991:341; Fattah, 2000:30; Saponaro, 2013:22). Prior to the discussion of the differential risk model, the researcher feels it pertinent to mention the limitations of the lifestyle, routine activities and opportunity models as pointed out by Fattah (1991:329). Such limitations include the exclusion of a possible association between delinquent activities and risk of victimisation, and the poor explanation of violent victimisation and basic, singular

indicators of central theoretical concepts. There is also no explanation of why some individuals in close proximity to potential offenders and who spend a lot of time engaging in non-household, non-family activities outside the home, are not at greater risk of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:339-340). The differential risk model forms part of the primary theoretical framework of this research. The ten broad categories influencing risk of victimisation will be discussed below.

A variation in available opportunities (temporal increase or decrease) can moderately explain the distributional variations in the risks and rates of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:341; Saponaro, 2013:22). Temporal and spatial clustering of opportunities must be taken into account, as it results in certain days, times, areas and places being at higher risk (Fattah, 1991:341). A close linkage can also be found between opportunities for criminal victimisation and a potential target's characteristics, activities and behaviours, in addition to a lack of sufficient guardianship (Fattah, 1991:341; Fattah, 2000:30; Saponaro, 2013:22).

Risk factors impact on the probability of victimisation. Risk factors include attractiveness, suitability, vulnerability and accessibility. Convergence of the risk elements in time and space can account for victimisation (Fattah, 1991:342; Saponaro, 2013:22). Socio-demographic characteristics, guardianship (or lack thereof), residential area ('hot spots') and consumption of alcohol can additionally influence the risk of victimisation. In terms of socio-demographic factors, the difference in risk can be attributed to differences in structural proneness and variations in routine activities and lifestyle. Stability can be found with regards to location (region, area city) and time; however, the close proximity of the residential area of a target to that of an offender population or high crime area does increase the probability of victimisation. The absence of guardianship (no-one being home) also affects or increases the chance of victimisation, in addition to the use of alcohol (patterns of alcohol use and location) (Fattah, 1991:342; Fattah, 2000:31; Saponaro, 2013:22).

Variations in the number of motivated offenders create variations in the risks and rates of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:342; Saponaro, 2013:22). Target selection varies as it depends on criteria such as attractiveness, physical visibility, accessibility, availability and proximity (Fattah, 1991:3423; Fattah, 2000:31). Individuals who reside in densely populated, poorly integrated, high quota male (ages 12-20) environments are at greater risk. The shorter the distance between potential victims and motivated offenders, the greater the risk and rate of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:343; Saponaro, 2013:22).

With regards to the exposure category, contact with potential offenders affects the risk and rate of victimisation. As exposure to potential offenders and high risk situations or environments increases, the risk of differential victimisation increases (Fattah, 1991:343;

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Fattah, 2000:31; Saponaro, 2013:22-23). Variations in exposure, and in turn differential risk, correlate with variations in socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, marital status and income). In addition, levels of exposure increase due to certain social activities such as alcohol use in public areas, as they enhance probable contact with unidentified potential offenders and increase the risk of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:343; Saponaro, 2013:23).

Fattah (1991) postulates that differential associations, whether personal, social or professional, can impact on criminal victimisation, as an increase in association with potential offenders elevates the risk of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:343; Fattah, 2000:31; Saponaro, 2013:23). Commonality in socio-demographic factors between potential targets and offenders also increases the probability of victimisation, as interaction is more likely (Fattah, 1991:343; Fattah, 2000:31).

In terms of dangerous times or places, the probability of victimisation is unevenly distributed in time and space. Violent victimisations occur more frequently at night and on weekends in public places. Non-household activities also impact on the probability of being victimised. An increase in time spent in public areas such as entertainment locations, in the street at night, or using public transport, increases the chance of personal victimisation. However, individuals using private vehicles are at higher risk of theft. Personal activity patterns of individuals affect the differential risk of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:344; Fattah, 2000:31; Saponaro, 2013:23).

Dangerous behaviours refer to situational variables that influence the types of criminal victimisation. Behaviours such as negligence, carelessness, and, in some instances, provocation (e.g. when aggressive behaviour provokes a violent response), lead to a higher risk of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:344; Fattah, 2000:31; Saponaro, 2013:23). Moreover, behaviours placing individuals in dangerous situations (i.e. without the ability to defend themselves) increase their chances of being victimised (Fattah, 1991:344; Fattah, 2000:31).

Certain high-risk activities (certain occupations, unlawful activities and high-risk lifestyles) place individuals at higher risk of criminal victimisation, as they often end up in dangerous times, places and situations. Generally, activities involving the pursuit of fun by both parties place individuals at higher risk than activities passively placing them at risk. Youth offenders and adult offenders are also at a greater risk of victimisation than law-abiding citizens (Fattah, 1991:344-345; Fattah, 2000:31; Saponaro, 2013:23).

Concerning the defensive/avoidance behaviours category, an individual's awareness of and attitude to such risks influence his or her chances of victimisation. Certain behaviours can be adopted in order to avoid the risks of criminal victimisation (e.g. risk management activities).

Levels of opportunity for victimisation are influenced by recognition of (decreased risk) or ignorance of (increased risk) victimisation risks. Such recognition or ignorance can be seen in the structuring of daily activities. Perceptions of vulnerability and fear of victimisation may result in potential victims taking more precautionary measures and in so doing decreasing their exposure to risk of victimisation. Attitudes to, and fear of, the possibility of victimisation are also affected by socio-demographic factors and socio-economic status, thus a variation in defensive or avoidance behaviours may be noted (Fattah, 1991:344-347; Fattah, 2000:31-32; Saponaro, 2013:23).

In the final category, structural/cultural proneness, Fattah (1991:346) points out how power relations impact on victimisation. Individuals who are deprived, powerless, low on the power hierarchy, culturally stigmatised and marginalised (minorities or deviant groups) are considered as 'fair game' and are at greater risk of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:346; Fattah, 2000:32; Saponaro, 2013:22-23). Victimisation is further associated with 'in situ deprivation', as individuals who are considered wealthy within a deprived community are also vulnerable. In addition, a correlation can be found between those structurally prone to criminal victimisation and those prone to other calamities or misfortunes (Fattah, 1991:346). The differential risk model is lauded for its incorporation of the important elements of previous theories and the fact that it does not solely focus on lifestyle or victims' demographic characteristics. However, the model remains primarily focused on the victim and pays little attention to the role of the offender (Saponaro, 2013:23).

3.4.5. Extended control balance theory

In order to better understand the application of the extended control balance theory, the researcher will first discuss the control balance theory on which it is based. Tittle (1995) proposed the control balance theory as an integrated criminological theory drawing on previous theories (e.g. rational choice, differential association and routine activities theories) (Cullen & Wilcox, 2010:957; Newburn, 2013:244). The theory aimed to explain deviant and conforming behaviour. At the heart of the theory lies the concept of control (Cullen & Wilcox, 2010:957). Individuals can be both agents and objects of social control, and both an excess of and a deficit in control can lead to deviant behaviour (Newburn, 2013:244). In addition, the probability and type of deviance is influenced by an imbalance in the 'control ratio' (the extent to which an individual can exercise control relative to the control the individual is subject to by external forces) (Braithwaite, 2009:246; Newburn, 2013:245; Tibbetts, 2012:165; Tittle, 1995:142). An imbalance in control increases the chance of deviant behaviour; however, a provocation, motivating such behaviour, is required for the criminal

event to take place (Newburn, 2013:245; Saponaro, 2013:26; Williams & McShane, 2010:20).

Control can be in deficit or surplus, each determining the type of deviant behaviour most likely to occur. In accordance with the control balance theory, certain causal elements or conditions are necessary in order for deviance to take place: a control imbalance, a predisposition to be a motivated offender, situational provocation, recognition that deviance could have an impact on the control imbalance, seriousness, opportunity to commit the deviant act, and the ability to overcome any and all constraints (Newburn, 2013:245; Tittle, 2009:213). Tittle further points out the importance of autonomy and the fact that every person strives for it, yet is restricted by various constraints (Brown et al., 2010:368; Williams, 2008:146). Six forms of deviance have been proposed by Tittle (1995:137-140) and will be discussed below. The first three are more probable when there is a control deficit, whereas the last three are more probable when there is a control surplus (Delisi & Hochstetler, 2002:261; Newburn, 2013:245).

The first form of deviance is predation, which aims to benefit the perpetrator and disregards any effect on the victim. Acts of predation involve direct acts of physical violence such as rape, homicide and assault, theft of property (robbery, burglary), fraud, manipulation and sexual assault. Deviance involves acts committed when a perpetrator is indifferent to certain norms, values, groups or individuals. With defiance, control is challenged, but the perpetrator does not resort to violence. Submission includes submissive obedience of others and meeting their expectations, commands or desires. Submission involves acceptance of control, and compliance with demands (Braithwaite, 2009:249-250; Brown et al., 2010:368-369; Cullen & Wilcox, 2010:957-958; Delisi & Hochstetler, 2002:261-262; Newburn, 2013:245; Piquero & Hickman, 1999:322; Saponaro, 2013:26).

Indirect predation falls into the category of exploitation, as it includes coercion and manipulation for the benefit of the exploiter, involving acts such as corporate price-fixing and the endangerment of employees. It further involves getting others to contravene laws on one's own behalf. The fifth form of deviance, plunder, concerns the pursuit of personal goals, with a disregard for the well-being of others or any potential consequences. It entails a poorly developed conscience and an abuse of power. The final form, decadence, constitutes behaviour that is characterised as unpredictable, impulsive, erratic and reckless, with no rational motivation, such as engaging in irrational pleasure (Braithwaite, 2009:249-250; Brown et al., 2010:368-369; Cullen & Wilcox 2010:957-958; Delisi & Hochstetler, 2002:261-262; Newburn, 2013:245; Piquero & Hickman, 1999:322; Saponaro, 2013:26).

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The control balance theory indicates that a control deficit is most likely to result in 'repressive' forms of deviance such as predation, defiance or submission, whereas a control surplus leads to 'autonomous' forms of deviance, namely, exploitation, plunder and decadence. Deviance results when there is a control imbalance in the relationship between two parties (Newburn, 2013:245; Piquero & Hickman, 1999:322). Tittle's theory includes, among others, the suggestion that both a surplus and deficit in control can cause deviance; an explanation for both elite and non-elite criminal behaviours; an explanation of gender differentials in terms of the types and frequency of crimes committed; and a motivation for why criminal acts are committed (Braithwaite, 2009:246-247; Tittle, 2009:212).

Limitations of the control balance theory include the problematic prediction that control deficits result in predatory acts more frequently than do control surpluses, and the belief that deviance takes place in order to decrease control deficits and increase control surplus. Further limitations include the distinction between autonomous and repressive deviance, and the notion that variations in types of deviance are associated with variations in control imbalance (Piquero & Hickman, 1999:336-337). The researcher would like to clarify that even though Tittle has refined his control balance theory (Tittle, 2009), this research predominantly draws on the original control balance theory, as it forms the basis of the extended control balance theory discussed below.

In Piquero and Hickman's (1999) evaluation of the control balance theory, they found that a control imbalance (control deficit/control surplus) can be extended to account for the probability of victimisation (Piquero & Hickman, 2003:285; 295). Individuals who suffer from a deficit of control are more likely to emit a certain 'weakness', as they are likely to become passive or submissive and sensitive to environmental reminders of their control imbalance. Such individuals lack confidence and the necessary skills required to engage in defensive behaviour to protect themselves, and therefore struggle to overcome persons with a surplus of control. They are easily exposed to manipulation and victimisation. Individuals who experience a surplus of control are also predisposed to victimisation. A surplus of control in individuals creates a sense of invincibility and false impunity. As they experience little fear, they engage in risky behaviour to further their control, easily placing themselves at risk (Piquero & Hickman, 2003:285-287; Saponaro, 2013:26).

In conclusion, the extended control balance theory acknowledges that control imbalance predisposes an individual to deviant behaviour, but also recognises that an interaction between various situational variables and causal elements is required (e.g. motivation, constraint and opportunity), similar to the routine activities approach (Piquero & Hickman, 2003:284; Saponaro, 2013:26). Hence the causal factors of victimisation (extended control

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balance theory) are similar to those of deviance (control balance theory). An excess and surplus of control can result in victimisation parallel to deviance. However, it is important to note that the extended control balance theory does not postulate that individuals with a deficit in control are more vulnerable (Saponaro, 2013:27). Limitations of the theory include complications with the measurement of theft and the inability to properly measure guardianship (Piquero & Hickman, 2003:296).

3.5. Integrated model

The abovementioned theories, primarily the differential risk model and the extended control balance theory, have been incorporated by the researcher into an integrated theoretical model as illustrated in Figure 3. The reader must bear in mind that the theory has not yet been tested. In the discussion that follows, the researcher provides an explanation of the internal operations of the integrated model. In accordance with the model, demographic characteristics (e.g. gender, income, marital status, education and occupation) determine an individual's social role and power. That role creates certain expectations in terms of appropriate or inappropriate behaviour; however, demographic characteristics can also determine the structural constraints faced by an individual that result in the presence or absence of a sense of power. Constraints can be economic, familial, educational and/or legal, and can limit life choices. Role expectations and structural constraints often influence each other and can be reciprocal in nature, affecting risk of victimisation, as both have an influence on adaptations individuals make in their lives that result in routine activities.

Before discussing routine activities, the researcher would like to draw the reader's attention back to role expectations and structural constraints. As mentioned, they are reciprocal in nature. Constraints may create opportunities or restrictions in terms of autonomy and participation in decision-making, in addition to the power one is afforded (or not) which could result in a control imbalance in an individual (control deficit or control surplus). An imbalance in control has the potential to cause a shift in terms of adaptations, social structure and routine activities. A control imbalance may lead an individual to experience a presence or absence of fear, which could in turn influence his or her perceptions or attitudes towards risk of victimisation. An alteration in people's perception and ability (skill) to engage in defensive or avoidance behaviours (risk management behaviours and/or conflict resolution) has the potential to influence their routine daily activities (engagement in high or low risk activities) and the lifestyle that they follow.

As individuals engage in routine daily activities they may form certain associations. Differential associations (personal, social and/or professional) can impact on risk of victimisation, as they are often influenced by socio-demographic factors. Routine activities

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may also bring individuals into close contact with or proximity to potential offenders (e.g. physical proximity between potential victims and offenders), thus increasing their level of exposure to dangerous times and places (e.g. non-household or public activities). Exposure requires spatial-temporal contact between the motivated offender and potential victim or his/her property. An increase in exposure to motivated offenders and/or dangerous times and places may well have the potential to increase the risk of victimisation. Once exposed to motivated offenders, the opportunity for victimisation is created when the following elements coincide in space and time:

- Provocation
- Absence of a guardian
- Absence of a handler
- When the motivated offender is able to overcome all constraints.

Starting with demographic characteristics, all the abovementioned factors may act as contributing factors leading to violence and victimisation, in addition to the offender's perception of target suitability (value of the target, physical visibility, accessibility and effortlessness of obtaining the target). With regards to workplace violence against educators in private and public secondary schools, factors such as exposure, proximity, guardianship and attractiveness may be taken into account by the potential perpetrator (thus influencing the typology of workplace violence) and contribute to the form of violence used, whilst increasing the risk of victimisation.

Figure 3: Integrated model
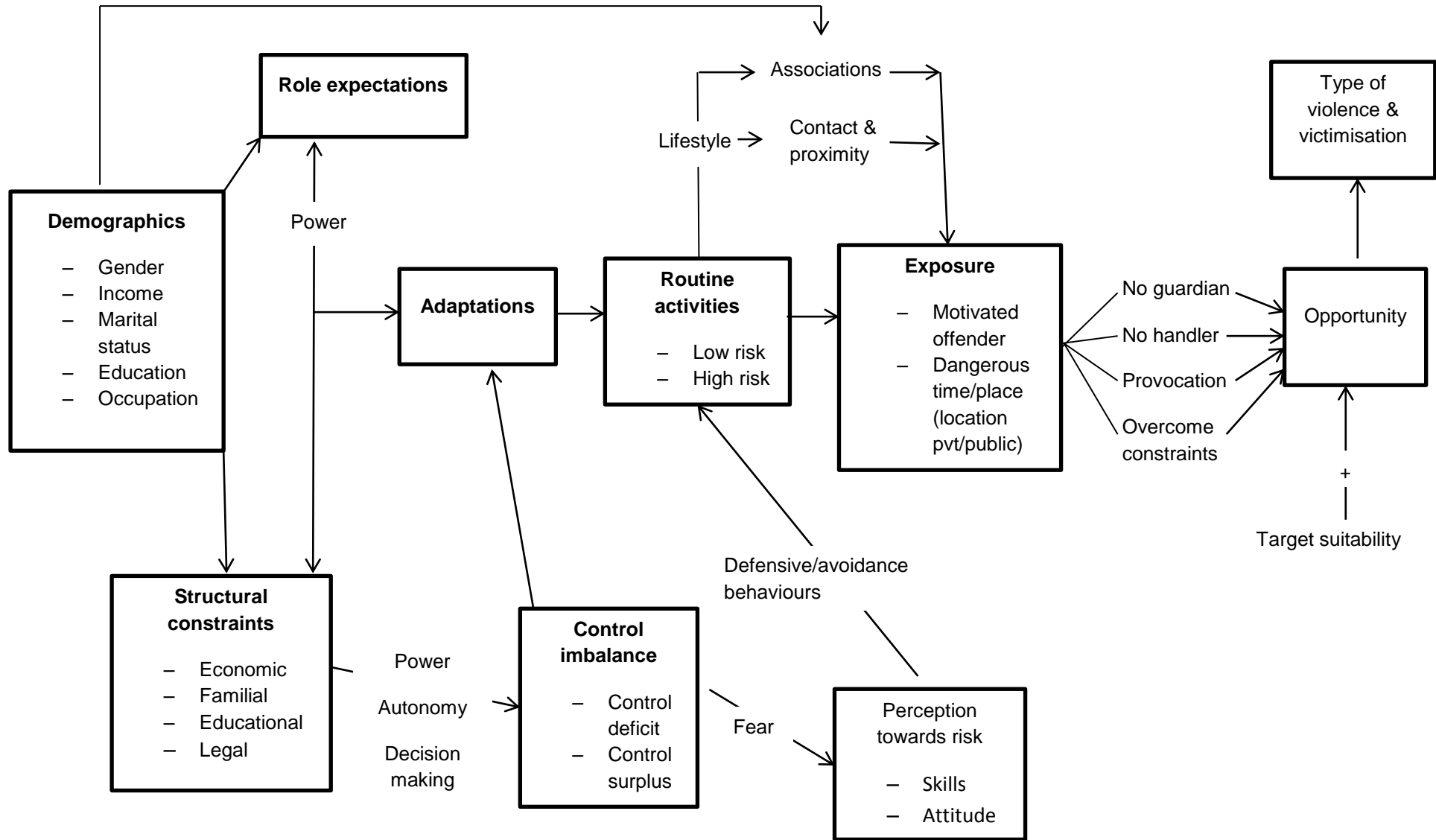
3.6. Summary

The applicable theoretical framework consists of Fattah's differential risk model of criminal victimisation and Piquero and Hickman's extended control balance theory. The differential risk model explains workplace violence against educators as it draws on elements of the lifestyle/exposure, routine activities and opportunity models. It differentiates the categories influencing risk of criminal victimisation and indicates which elements expose educators to the risk of victimisation, which can inform safety procedures and policies. The extended control balance theory explains the role of the control 'dynamic' within the school environment or workplace, exposing educators to the probability of both deviance and victimisation. It also unveils the influence of a control imbalance between different parties (e.g. educators, learners, management and external actors) in fuelling workplace violence. A connection can be made between the two abovementioned theories. The convergence of the situational variables of the differential risk model creates the opportunity necessary for the causal elements of the extended control balance theory to turn the predisposition towards deviance and victimisation into an actual event. Those elements within the abovementioned theories thus inform the integrated model, which will be applied in the understanding of workplace violence against educators in more detail in the final chapter of the study. The next chapter focuses on the methodology employed in the execution of the study, which will be discussed in detail.

Chapter 4: Research methods

4.1. Introduction

There are various ways in which to investigate workplace violence against educators. The most appropriate research methods must be carefully selected prior to data collection, in order to optimally gather and analyse data pertaining to the experiences of educators with regard to workplace violence. Each methodological decision has implications, especially in terms of the strategy's advantages and disadvantages, which must be considered when deciding on the most appropriate manner in which to conduct one's study. In the following chapter the methods used to investigate the phenomenon will be explained with reference to the research approach, purpose and type of research, research design, sampling, data collection methods and analysis, steps in ensuring data quality, ethical considerations and the limitations and challenges encountered. The researcher would like to point out prior to commencement of the chapter that both probability and non-probability sampling strategies were used in the selection of respondents.

4.2. Research paradigm and approach

Reality is organised in the form of paradigms to provide structure and a framework from which to approach a study. After considering all three paradigms (frames of reference that include assumptions, research methods and techniques for data gathering and analysis), the positivist paradigm was decided upon (Neuman, 2014:60). The positivist approach ensures an appropriate structure for the present study. The structure encompasses assumptions, issues, the relevant structured research methods (a quantitative approach that is basic in nature type, descriptive, cross-sectional and self-administered) and sufficient ethical considerations (Neuman, 2011:94; Neuman, 2014:61).

Positivism allows for social sciences to be studied in a similar manner to the physical sciences, by applying methods of natural sciences (scientific investigations, e.g. analysis of relationships and/or tests of causality) to social reality (Bryman, 2012:28; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013:6; Hagan, 2005:10, 19; Neuman, 2014:61). Positivism can therefore be used to verify scientific truths in the form of numbers by utilising empirical observations (Babbie, 2014:34). Thus, in the context of the present study, the positivist paradigm facilitates viewing the phenomenon in an organised frame of reference, characterised by value-free science (objective), conducted objectively, utilising numerical data. The data were collected via empirically-based, self-administered questionnaires distributed to educators, who provided predetermined factual responses (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:20-38; Neuman, 2011:95, 99; Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002:44).

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In addition to the above, positivism facilitates various other aims of the study, including obtaining and advancing scientific knowledge (through the gathering of data/facts), gaining validity and providing conclusions (Bryman, 2012:28; Neuman, 2014:61). Further aims of the positivist paradigm include description development, explanation of the phenomenon, interpretation of results, and comparison and identification of similarities, differences and shortfalls in the research (Bellamy & Bellamy, 2012:33; Hagan, 2005:19).

The majority of positivist studies are quantitative in nature (Neuman, 2014:62). A quantitative research approach was opted for as the study is situated within the positivist paradigm. Additionally, responses were recorded and quantified using a pre-structured measuring instrument where numerical values were assigned to responses, confirming their quantitative suitability (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:35; Punch, 2005:55). Due to the study's reliance on numerical data, deduction, objective observation and measurements, quantification and scales, the researcher found a quantitative research approach most appropriate (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013:16; Bryman, 2012:35-36).

Similar to the benefits of the positivist paradigm, a quantitative approach optimises the advantages of objectivity and scientific value. The researcher attempts to describe in detail workplace violence against educators by means of a numerical system (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:68). Quantitative research requires focusing attention and being more specific in terms of meaning. It is beneficial to the present study as it clarifies observations and allows for unambiguous data summarisation, analysis and descriptions. It facilitates better understanding and simplicity of results and interpretations (Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:23). The researcher is able to investigate the phenomenon without being mutually influenced or affected by it, thus strengthening the objectivity of the results (Sale et al., 2002:44).

Furthermore, the structured nature of the quantitative approach creates the opportunity for the researcher to predetermine the objectives and design of, and samples and questions within the questionnaires. It allows for the measurement of the phenomenon's extent and for the quantification of extent of variation in terms of the phenomenon (Kumar, 2014:14). Even though the perspectives and experiences of various educators are examined, the structured nature of the approach is still most suitable to the present study, as the aim is to establish the prevalence of such perspectives and experiences (Kumar, 2011:11).

Quantitative research allows the researcher to link concepts (people, places, events, feelings, emotions etc.) to data, as variables and abstract ideas are converted into actions and numerical information prior to data collection and analysis. It further permits the investigation of possible causation and/or comparison, using measurement, counting and scaling. Measurement techniques are planned ahead in order for conversion (linking ideas to

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measure) to happen, primarily following a deductive way of reasoning and ending with empirical data (Neuman, 2014:135). Numbers have the advantage of being exact and analysable, both descriptively and inferentially, and using a quantitative approach creates the opportunity to subject the data to rigorous scientific testing, as will be done in this study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kajee, 2006:43-44; Kothari & Garg, 2012; Punch, 2005:59).

In the context of the present study the quantitative approach paves the way for systematic gathering of empirical information, using variable-orientated research and analysis, involving comparison and the extent of difference between private and public secondary schools whilst remaining objective (Bellamy & Bellamy, 2012:81; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:69; Kumar, 2011:11, 13). As mentioned, the quantitative approach is accompanied by the use of statistics, thus allowing for tests of confirmation or contradiction between the findings of the present study and that of previous studies. Quantification of associations and effects are thus possible (Kumar, 2011:13; Maree & Pietersen, 2007a:145). Since the study is descriptive in nature, the sample size is relatively large, and the researcher utilised a partly randomly selected sample, a quantitative approach, in which the phenomenon can be expressed numerically, seems most suitable (Ivankova, Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:263; Kothari & Garg, 2012:3).

4.3. Type of research

The present research is a descriptive, scientific inquiry based on acquisition, expansion and advancement of fundamental knowledge about workplace violence against educators, and does not provide specific application. The study is therefore basic in nature (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:49; Neuman, 2014:26). It is vital to remember, however, that without the expansion and filling of gaps of knowledge, practical application cannot be achieved. Basic research is thus a well-founded and a vital part of social research (Babbie, 2011:27; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:10; Durrheim, 2006b:45; Hagan, 2005:13; Ivankova et al., 2007:262). The primary function of basic social research is enhancing understanding of a social phenomenon or aspect of society, gathering data that may contradict existing theories, and development of new theories (Bless et al., 2006:43-44; Bless et al., 2013:56, 59; Hagan, 2005:13). The study is pure in nature as it aims to develop, test, support, explain and describe social relations and how they may associate with each other (Neuman, 2014:26).

The study focuses on the domain of educator-targeted violence in a manner suitable to better understand and describe the phenomenon and form part of a foundation that is indispensable for new scientific ideas. Such basic research can aid in subsequent applied research, which may enforce change and form policies or processes that benefit the health

and well-being of educators (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:10; Neuman, 2014:26). Previous research has primarily focused on learners as victims of violence in schools, learner-on-learner violence, or educator-on-learner violence. Limited research has investigated violence against educators from various sources (learners, parents, co-workers, principals or vice principals, or outsiders). The study thus aims to provide the knowledge necessary in addressing future research questions (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:50).

Due to its previously under-researched comparative nature (private vs. public), the study strengthens and builds on the foundation of existing knowledge. It replicates and compares knowledge whilst expanding our understanding of workplace violence in general, creating a greater chance of generalisation (Ivankova et al., 2007:262; Kothari & Garg, 2012:3; Kumar, 2014:18). Development of the scholarly field, expanding theoretical claims concerning workplace violence experienced in schools, and explaining possible relationships between such violence and the type of school (private or public) are vital in the study. It is important to note that the standard of basic social research is raised as it facilitates a large amount of freedom in respondent selection but is judged with great scientific precision, both internally and externally (Neuman, 2014:27).

4.4. Research purpose

When selecting a research type, one has to take into account the object and aim of the research and the nature of the data to be collected (Bless et al., 2013:63). After consideration regarding the present study, a descriptive research purpose was decided upon. Primary questions that require answering in descriptive research are as follows: What is the phenomenon? (the nature and extent of workplace violence educators face), How does it work? (profile educators as victims of workplace violence, determine the presence and role of policies and educator participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence), and What does it do? (effects and consequences of workplace violence on educators) (Babbie, 2011:68-69; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:34).

The study aims at answering the 'what' aspect of the phenomenon, understanding the very essence of the phenomenon (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:11); thus a descriptive purpose was opted for. Central to the study is not to find reason and explain why workplace violence occurs in the school context, but rather to describe the situation, thus focusing on *what, how, who* – not *why*. The value of descriptive research must not be underplayed, as explanation cannot occur without description (Punch, 2005:15). Descriptive research also portrays a percentage of a particular belief or view with regards to a phenomenon (Neuman, 2014:31), here referring primarily to violence against educators.

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Hence, the aim of the study is to more accurately and systematically define and describe the nature, extent, violence typology, effects and attitudes regarding the workplace violence educators face. Its primary focus is educator-targeted violence, and providing more accurate detail on the phenomenon. It compares and documents differences in the impact of such violence in private and public secondary schools, classifying the frequency and types of violence experienced and/or perpetrated by specific parties, and identifying the relationship between certain variables (Bless et al., 2013:57; Durrheim, 2006b:44; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:34; Kumar, 2014:18; Neuman, 2014:30). Descriptive research uses surveys as a data gathering technique, as in the present study (Neuman, 2014:31). The study's scientific inquiry is both meticulous and methodical (Babbie, 2011:68). The study's descriptive purpose helps to identify which factors to focus on in future, more explorative-based research, and later explanatory studies on the subject (Punch, 2005:15).

Descriptive research tends to be more accurate than causal observations as it is grounded in the social sciences. Similar to the functions of basic research, descriptive research is optimal for current use as the study involves counting and documenting responses to pre-set questionnaires, which upon completion may inform applied research, as it adds to the foundation of knowledge needed (Babbie, 2011:67; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:19). Research with a descriptive purpose focuses on facts and characteristics within a phenomenon, systematically, accurately and precisely (Babbie, 2014:95). Information obtained can be utilised descriptively, but evolution into an inferential study is still possible. Furthermore, descriptive research is also cost-effective and easier to conduct, as it represents a certain situation by means of numbers (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:84; Locke, Silverman & Spirduso, 2010:96).

4.5. Research design

The research design used acted as a blue-print or road map, providing guidance in the execution and decision-making of the study. It outlined the most appropriate operations, such as the selection of respondents, data gathering and analysis techniques (Bless et al., 2013:130; Kumar, 2011:95; Punch, 2005:62-64). Certain data collection methods are more suited for specific questions and topics (Neuman, 2014:35). The function of the research design is to identify procedures needed to undertake the study that meet the requirements of validity and accuracy whilst maintaining value-free (objective) knowledge (Kumar, 2011:94). Two vital components in research design are, firstly, observation in terms of observing and recording different variables, and secondly, the analysis of relationships between variables. The research design best tailored to the study at hand is survey research (Bless et al., 2013:136).

Survey research has evolved within positivism and is vastly used in social science. It produces data of a primarily statistical nature that are accurate, valid and reliable. Such a form of research involves simply asking respondents a number of questions in a questionnaire (Neuman, 2014:36). Survey research is most advantageous as it accompanies descriptive research, and involves a set questionnaire (asking standardised questions to all respondents). In addition, it has the ability to gather a wide range of information (sampling a large number of respondents), involving more than one case that measures multiple variables (asking all respondents the same questions: background information, personal experience, reactions to violence, involvement in decision-making, etc.). Descriptive statements can thus be deduced (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:36; Babbie, 2011:264; Bryman, 2012:60; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:74).

Survey research is optimal for learning more about self-reported beliefs, opinions, attitudes, perceptions and experiences, thus making it ideal for the present study. It provides a description of workplace violence from the perspective of the respondent(s), thus enhancing the value of the data (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:15, 72; Neuman, 2011:308-309, 311; Punch, 2005:99). Moreover, a survey design is efficient, with minimal monetary cost, and allows for brief answers containing reliable information and an adequate response rate. Lastly, the use of a survey authorises the manner in which the data can be used (Vogt, Gardner & Haeffele, 2012:16). It facilitates the combination and comparison of previous research findings whilst addressing the current study's research objectives (Neuman, 2014:36).

Time features differently in different studies (Neuman, 2014:32). The primary survey method utilised is a cross-sectional, self-administered questionnaire. A cross-sectional survey (one shot/status study) is most often used with explorative or descriptive research (Babbie, 2014:110; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:85; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:66; Neuman, 2014:32). Such a study is cross-sectional both in sample and in time frame (Kumar, 2014:139). It captures a single entity of quantifiable data (phenomenon) at one point in time by collecting data on more than one case concerning more than one variable (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:227; Bless et al., 2013:135; Bryman, 2012:59; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:85). The cross-sectional survey was optimal for the present study, as it was necessary to get a cross-section of the phenomenon of workplace violence against educators in a single time frame, and distribute questionnaires during one contact session. In a cross-sectional survey, data collected are tested and associations and relationships are identified (Bryman, 2012:59). Hence, it was not possible, nor the aim of the study, to demonstrate causality (although the relationships between variables were determined) (Bless et al., 2013:135). Although it does not capture change, a cross-sectional survey allows for the examination of information of

multiple cases at one point (Kumar, 2011:107; Neuman, 2011:44), and provides for easy data collection and analysis (Bless et al., 2006:74; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:85).

In the context of the present study, the use of a cross-sectional design paved the way to obtaining a sample of workplace violence, beliefs and behaviours that aided in identifying patterns and associations (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:227-228; Neuman, 2011:44). Administration of the survey to a group of people was enhanced and posed limited challenges in terms of access to certain geographic areas. Furthermore, the use of a cross-sectional design allowed for an easily achievable large sample, and both cost and time efficiency (one week to complete the questionnaire at home). It is for the above-mentioned reasons that this design proved the best choice for the present study. Additionally, the researcher does not need to know the identity of each of the respondents, thereby increasing ethical privacy (Vogt et al., 2012:20, 29).

4.6. Methods

The discussion below provides an overview of the methods utilised in the study, with specific reference to sampling and study population, and methods used in data gathering, data analysis and the reporting and presentation of results.

4.6.1. Study population and sampling

Due to the nature of the study and the use of a cross-sectional survey, a combination of both probability and non-probability sampling strategies were opted for in the selection of respondents (Durrheim, 2006b:49-50; Durrheim & Painter, 2006:133). Sampling involves the selection of a sample (sub-group) from a study population, which has the advantage of saving time and resources (Kumar, 2011:193). First, probability procedures were followed in the selection of schools (thus facilitating representation), and second, non-probability procedures were followed in identifying respondents. Probability sampling allows for each school in the study to have an equal chance of being selected, thus increasing the possibility of generalisation (Kumar, 2011:199; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:142). A well-defined, large population was available, thus an appropriately selected sample followed (Bless et al., 2006:98-99; Bless et al., 2013:163). Using already-known lists (sampling frame) of provincial and independent secondary schools in Gauteng, obtained from the Gauteng Department of Education's website, schools were already divided and stratified into mutually exclusive homogenous subgroups/strata (that do not overlap), namely private and public secondary schools (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:112; Maree & Pietersen, 2007b:175; Strydom, 2011:230).

The final districts covered were as follows: Tshwane North, Tshwane South, Tshwane West and Gauteng North, hence a wide geographic area. Schools that fell within other districts, primary schools, schools not open at the time of selection, Special Education Needs Schools (LSEN), special schools and single sex schools were filtered out. Random sampling took place until one English, one Afrikaans and one English-Afrikaans (dual) medium school was selected within each of the strata. Hence, stratification occurred in terms of type of school, language medium and gender of learners. The stratification of the population into strata consisting of more homogenous characteristics reduced the size of the sample population, whilst maintaining the quality of the sample (Kumar, 2011:203). In addition, stratified random sampling produces more representative samples than simple random sampling. After mutually exclusive strata were established, schools were randomly selected (Bless et al., 2013:168; Strydom, 2011:230; Neuman, 2014:179). Random sampling allowed for all schools within the strata to have an equal chance of being selected, enhancing generalisability and representation, and reduced the probability of sampling error (Babbie, 2011:203; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:112, 125). The sampling method was effective, as the randomly selected schools followed similar parameters to that of the population under study (Durrheim & Painter, 2006:134).

Of the 101 private schools covered in the selected geographic area three were chosen, representing 2.9% of the sampled schools. Similarly, of the 226 public schools, three were selected, thus representing 1.3% of the sampled schools. In total, six schools were selected, three of which fell within the Tshwane North district, two within the Gauteng North district and one in the Tshwane West district. The availability of a list of secondary schools in Gauteng allowed for sampling without hampering the quality of the sample, as accuracy was enhanced (Bless et al., 2006:103-104).

After the stratified random selection of schools, the researcher approached each school independently. Each principal was contacted and they provided the researcher with the number of educators at their respective schools. The complete study population (i.e. potential respondents at these schools) stood at 274 educators. The researcher relied on non-probability availability or convenience sampling from the educators within each randomly selected school. Table 3 provides the nature of each school, the number of questionnaires delivered and collected, and the resulting response rates from each school. As evident, there was an adequate response rate, as the public school response rate was 39.1% and the private school response rate 57.3%; thus the overall response rate for the present study stood at 44.5%. According to literature, a 50% response rate is acceptable for analysis and reporting in self-administered questionnaires (Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:183); however, Dantzker and Hunter (2012:124) point out that suggested response rates for survey research

(e.g. mail surveys) are 40% within two weeks. As the questionnaires in the present study were collected one week after delivery, an average overall response rate is evident.

Table 3: Response rates at participating schools

Nature of school:	Questionnaires delivered	Questionnaires completed	%
Public English medium	47	24	51.1
Public Afrikaans medium	90	26	28.9
Public dual medium	55	25	45.5
Private English medium	28	18	64.3
Private Afrikaans medium	18	11	61.1
Private dual medium	36	18	50.0
Total	274	122	44.5
Total number of schools	6		
Public school response rate	39.1%		
Private school response rate	57.3%		
Total response rate	44.5%		

In the second half of the study's sampling strategy the researcher made use of non-probability sampling, in particular availability or convenience sampling. In this form of sampling, all available educators in the randomly selected schools were asked to participate. The researcher therefore had to rely on the availability of subjects. Educators' participation was based primarily on convenience, their availability, and their willingness to participate. Availability sampling has the advantage of being fast and less costly (Babbie, 2014:199; Bless et al., 2013:166; Maree & Pietersen, 2007b:177; Neuman, 2014:167).

4.6.2. Data gathering instrument and method

The data gathering instrument utilised was a self-administered questionnaire (a list of questions to which respondents respond after reading and comprehending the questions) (Kumar, 2011:145). For optimal data, appropriate questionnaire construction was paid attention to. Questionnaires are considered less expensive and allow for greater privacy and anonymity (Kumar, 2011:148). As a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data, questions were constructed carefully to avoid any confusion, misunderstanding and misinterpretation, and to allow for equally clear and relevant questions (Neuman, 2011:314).

Both open and closed-ended questions were included in the questionnaire to allow for even and consistent responses, in addition to personal responses where needed.

The coding of questions took place prior to data collection, as non-numerical variables were given numerical values to assist in data analysis and comprehension. The few open-ended questions presented allowed for honest responses, tapping into the respondents' true knowledge of the topic. The majority closed-ended questions allowed for easy recording, processing and analysis, increasing uniformity of responses and allowing clarification and greater comparison (Babbie, 2014:263; Bless et al., 2013:212; Bryman, 2012:247, 249-250; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:173; Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:161). Closed-ended questions facilitate an increased willingness to answer questions of a sensitive nature and easier and faster responses. The drawback of closed-ended questions, namely that they restrict richness of detail and lead to possible bias if important categories are excluded, was balanced out by the open-ended questions included in the questionnaire, allowing for increased creativity and detailed answers to multifaceted questions (Bless et al., 2013:211; Kumar, 2011:153-154; Neuman, 2011:325).

Questions were both clear and unambiguous. Questions asked were personal and informant factual questions, factual questions about others, questions about attitudes, beliefs, normative standards and values, and knowledge questions (Bryman, 2012:253). Double-barrelled questions, long questions, slang, leading questions, technical questions, emotional language, double negative, hypothetical, overlapping and biased items were avoided to allow for easy and simple answers. To focus the questions in terms of their scope, they were precise and kept short (Babbie, 2014:263-267; Bryman, 2012:255, 257-258; Hagan, 2005:148; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:174-175; Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:160; Neuman, 2011:315-317).

In addition, the researcher avoided questions that exceeded respondents' capabilities, and questions related to future intentions and false premises (Neuman, 2011:316-317). Closed questions were also well-balanced and symmetrical in nature (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:219; Bryman, 2012:258). Questions were formulated using extensive literature research. The questionnaire firstly presented a table providing an explanation of key concepts, followed by 48 questions broken down into multiple sections, namely sections A to F, starting with background information, as indicated in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Sections, themes and type of questions in data collection instrument

Section	Themes	Type of questions
A	Background information	Gender, age, population group, marital status, duration of current work, work hours, nature of employment, occupational post, highest qualification, status of current school, language medium of current school, quality of health
B	Workplace violence against educators at your school	Co-workers experience of violence while at school (duration, nature, perpetrator), reporting of incidents, risk of violence, safety, power balance
C	Personal experiences of violence directed at you in your current school	Personal experience of violence while at school (duration, nature, perpetrators)
D	Reaction and consequences	Personal reaction, influence of violence, reporting of violence
E	Decision-making and supervision	Autonomy, involvement in decision-making, mutual inspiration
F	Policy and prevention	Awareness of procedures, materials, policies, training, personal opinions

In order to maximise the quality and precision of responses, questions were not only dichotomous but other forms of questions were also included. Questions such as grid questions (allowing respondents to respond to two questions at the same time), contingency questions (requesting respondents to answer a second question when relevant) and class intervals (in the case of large data) were utilised (Babbie, 2014:269; Bless et al., 2013:248; Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:163; Neuman, 2011:323). In addition, scales such as the Likert scale format were utilised, which provided several more complex statements to which respondents had to give responses involving feelings, opinions and attitudes. Such questions included, for example, one's opinion about workplace violence as a serious problem, which was measured using the categories strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree (Babbie, 2014:185; Bryman, 2012:166; Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:163, 167).

Unlike an interview, the use of a questionnaire allowed the researcher to increase the length and complexity of the questionnaire, as reading comprehension rather than aural

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comprehension was required (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:210). Data were collected using a self-administered survey questionnaire, which was delivered to each of the selected schools. By using a self-administered questionnaire, the researcher made sure that all respondents were asked the same questions. The researcher was given a few minutes during a morning staff meeting to address the staff, explain the study and request participation to increase the response rate. Sealed questionnaires for participation were left in a box during the staff meeting. A sealed box was also left in the administration office for delivery of completed questionnaires. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires one week after delivery, which allowed the respondents adequate time to complete the questionnaires 'on site' or at home and return them, placing them in the secured box, thereby enhancing the privacy of respondents (Babbie, 2011:258).

There are various methods of data collection, each with their own advantages and disadvantages. As stated above, questionnaires were distributed and self-administered, thus the researcher had no personal contact with the respondents. Questionnaires were completed by the respondents in their own time without any aid provided by the researcher (Bless et al., 2006:117; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:124). By using this data gathering instrument, the researcher optimised and increased the sample population over a short period of time with little cost (beneficial economically and efficiently). Data were also gathered by a single researcher (Bless et al., 2013:216; Neuman, 2011:337).

Several challenges were encountered due to using a self-administered questionnaire. As the researcher was not present during the completion of the questionnaire, she could not clarify concepts or answer questions respondents might have had. Ensuring that the intended respondents answered the questions, and not another individual (which occurred in two questionnaires that had to be eliminated), was impossible. Also, the various conditions under which the questionnaires were completed could not be controlled. However, some challenges, including a possible low response rate, were addressed by attaching an informed consent letter to the questionnaire, explaining the details and purpose of the study and providing the contact details of the researcher in the event of questions or confusion. In addition, the researcher was given time to explain the study during a morning staff meeting. Each questionnaire was assigned a number to help in determining the response rate. These numbers were not attached to any particular school or the names or positions of respondents. (Bless et al., 2006:120-121; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:126; Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:157; Neuman, 2011:337).

Further challenges included respondents potentially consulting with others whilst completing the questionnaire, and, given the nature of a questionnaire, unlike an interview, information

could not be supplemented nor could questions be spontaneous. The possibility that responses could be influenced by other responses and lastly that responses could not be supplemented by other information was addressed by including several open-ended questions in the questionnaire (Kumar, 2011:149).

4.6.3. Data analysis and reporting

Data analysis is the means by which the researcher systematically converted the raw data into numerical format and applied statistical analysis to deliver reports that were coherent and significant (Babbie, 2014:437; Fouché & Bartley, 2011:249; Neuman, 2011:383). Prior to the analysis of quantitative data, data were coded by applying a set of rules and assigning numerical values to non-numerical variables, transforming information from one format into another, made usable by computer software (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:140; Durrheim, 2006a:189; Kumar, 2011:257; Neuman, 2014:282).

As stated earlier, each questionnaire and each question were issued a number to optimise coding. In addition, a coding sheet (codebook) was developed and kept on hand, listing the assignment of codes, thus increasing the consistency in coding. (Babbie, 2014:440; Fouché & Bartley, 2011:253; Hagan, 2005:322). During the development of certain coding categories, in particular for open-ended questions, categories became too large and had to be amalgamated. After the collection of the data, the raw numerical codes (data) were entered in a logical format into an Excel spread sheet with rows comprising of each respondent's code and columns consisting of numerical scores on each variable (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:343; Babbie, 2014:441; Durrheim, 2006a:191; Neuman, 2014:282-283).

When data were entered into the spread sheet some data entry errors occurred, which were detected and eliminated during the cleaning of the dataset. Frequency tables were firstly constructed to organise and better understand the data. All rows and columns were double checked to identify any unfeasible codes and enhance accuracy, as possible code cleaning and contingency cleaning took place (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:144; Durrheim, 2006a:192; Fouché & Bartley, 2011:254; Neuman, 2014:283). Missing data (cases in which the respondent(s) fail to answer a question or withdraw from taking part in the study) were also taken into account (Osborne, 2013:105).

After the electronic database was cleaned, both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis took place. As the aim was to describe the data, descriptive statistics are presented in the study. Such statistics summarise and emphasise understanding by analysing each variable's numerical values and gaining an overall sense of the data (including knowledge of certain characteristics) (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:364-365; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:147, 158;

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Durrheim, 2006a:193; Neuman, 2014:285). Descriptive statistics allowed the researcher to better summarise, organise and describe the data and present them in a controllable format that increased the overall comprehension of the data's properties (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:365; Maxfield &Babbie, 2009:288; Pietersen & Maree, 2007b:183). The use of inferential statistics allowed the researcher to use the already utilised descriptive statistical techniques of analysis to make forecasts about the data and draw conclusions (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:158; Punch, 2005:128).

Data analysis further consists of two different types, namely, univariate and bivariate data analysis. Due to the presence of the two independent variables, namely public and private secondary schools, and the classification of respondents according to these two variables, bivariate data analysis took place. As the aim of the study was to explore the degree of association and possible empirical relationship between the bivariable data, cross-tabulation and bivariate data analysis was necessary (Babbie, 2014:450; Fouché & Bartley, 2011:266; Neuman, 2014:290-291). Covariation (association) and independence (non-association) as the bases of statistical relationships were explored (Neuman, 2014:291). Bivariate data analysis further allowed for the simultaneous analysis of both variables and the determination of statistical significance (Babbie, 2011:435; Neuman, 2011:393). Furthermore, it allowed the researcher to focus her attention not merely on describing the data but on the relationship between variables (Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:296).

In the analysis phase of the study, inspection of histograms with normality curves revealed that the data were not normally distributed. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests confirmed that the data were not normally distributed (where p was smaller than 0.05). The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (IBM Corp, 2016), where various statistical tests of significance were conducted. The primary test of significance was the Mann-Whitney U Test, in addition to the Kruskal-Wallis H test. The Mann-Whitney U Test was applied to two separate independent groups, and with the use of an ordinal scale, it compared the data in the two groups, thus assessing whether chance could explain any differences. The Kruskal-Wallis H test, an extension of the Mann-Whitney U Test, was applied and provided the Mean Rank in cases where more than two groups were affected (Bless et al., 2013:301-303). The researcher in addition reported on the effect sizes in order to display the standardised measure of degree of the observed effect. Effect sizes can thus be compared to other studies. The effect sizes were calculated by means of the following formula (Field, 2009:550, 785):

$$r = \frac{z}{\sqrt{n}}$$

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where *r*=-0.1 entails a small effect size, *r*=-0.3 a medium effect size and *r*=-0.5 a large effect size.

Data (univariate and bivariate) were presented in various formats within the study. Statistics were displayed using frequency distributions and various graphical presentations (Neuman, 2014:285). The method of tabular and graphic display allowed for easy, ideal and quick reading and interpretation, an understanding of the data/main characteristics, and comparison of results (Bless et al., 2013:249; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:149, 161; Hagan, 2005:331; Neuman, 2011:396-397). Graphical presentations included pie charts (increased simplicity of presentation), bar charts and numerous tables (summary of multiple results) (Hagan, 2005:332, 338). Contingency tables, which consist of a set of interconnected cells, were particularly utilised to allow for cross-tabulation if necessary. The utilisation of multiple bar charts allowed for the simultaneous representation of multiple variables and the presentation of many relationships, where relevant.

4.7. Measures of central tendency and variation

There are three measures of central tendency, namely, mean, median and mode. These measures indicate the centre of the frequency distribution (location where the majority of the scores lie) and aid in data summarisation. The mean indicates the arithmetic average and is most frequently utilised. The mean is calculated by adding up all the scores and dividing the total by the number of scores, thus comparing it to one value representative of all the values (Bless et al, 2013:256; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:151; Neuman, 2014:287). The present study opted to use the mean as a measure of central tendency, as it utilises all scores in the distribution, it is most accurate, and can be used for interval and ratio level data. It is important to take into account, however, that the mean is susceptible to extreme values that can impact the results (Bless et al., 2013:257-258). In order to indicate the spread of the distribution, standard deviation as a measure of variation is indicated wherever appropriate. Standard deviation indicates the distance between the score and the mean (scores varying most from the mean have the largest effect) and can be used for comparative reasons. It is calculated using the z-score (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:153; Neuman, 2014:290).

4.8. Measurement quality

Measurement quality is determined by two vital standards, namely, validity and reliability. Validity refers to whether the measuring techniques are measuring what they intend to measure, whether measures are in fact valid, and whether they reflect the real meaning of the phenomenon (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:81; Babbie, 2014:154; Bless et al., 2013:229; Hagan, 2005:274; Kumar, 2011:178; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:94-95). Types of validity that

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were pertinent in the study were face validity, content validity, and, lastly, criterion-related validity. Face validity (whether the instrument 'looks' valid and seems to measure what it is intended to measure) (Babbie, 2014:155; Pietersen & Maree, 2007a:217) was ensured, as the questionnaire did appear to measure what it intended to and the instrument was tailored to the needs of the educators (Bless et al., 2013:234).

All questions asked within the research instrument were related to, and measured, all meaning included in the construct under investigation (workplace violence in general and more specifically in schools). A clear definition of the concept of workplace violence was provided (Babbie, 2014:156; Bless et al., 2013:231). In addition, there were various related items used to measure the construct of workplace violence that were included in the questionnaire, such as school violence and workplace bullying, both facets that intersect with workplace violence. In addition, data were found to reflect the workplace violence that educators face in schools. During the construction of the questionnaire, the researcher referred to previous questionnaires used to measure workplace violence and school violence. In this way the requirements for both content validity (the extent to which the entire concept is covered in the research instrument) and criterion-related validity were ensured (Bless et al., 2013:231, 233; Hagan, 2005:275; Pietersen & Maree, 2007a:217).

A pilot study was conducted (not including schools utilised in the main study) in order to optimise the reliability of the research instrument and to allow the researcher to identify any potential flaws in the questionnaire (Bless et al., 2013:212). Obtaining respondents for the pilot study proved challenging, but was accomplished. After the piloting of the questionnaire, challenges and limitations were noted. Repetition of certain questions was noted by two respondents and in two cases respondents did not follow instructions regarding contingency questions. Furthermore, upon analysing the pilot questionnaire, the researcher also noted that the presence of a specific contingency question caused respondents to skip a question which should have been completed by all respondents, and as a result important information was missed. The problem was rectified. There was also confusion with regards to the question of the main causes of violence educators face, as respondents misunderstood the concept 'cause' for 'types' of violence.

The researcher found the pilot study very beneficial, as important challenges in the questionnaire became evident and the researcher was able to make the necessary alterations and ensure greater consistency (ensuring that items used to measure the construct are related), stability (whether if asked the same question, the respondents will respond in the same way) and accuracy of the research instrument. By executing the pilot study, the researcher was able to increase the ease of answering the questionnaire and

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ensure maximum comprehension and response of the official questionnaire (Bellamy & Bellamy, 2012:94; Bless et al., 2006:150; Hagan, 2005:280; Kumar, 2011:181; Pietersen & Maree, 2007a:215). The internal reliability of the questionnaire was measured as the researcher calculated the Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient for three scales. Results were as follows:

Table 5: Cronbach's alpha coefficients

	No. of questionnaires	No. of items	α
35. I feel victimised by…	97	11	0.927
36. I have sufficient say in…	116	6	0.935
47. What is your opinion about the following…	99	10	0.503

The internal reliability of scales used in questions 35 and 36 were high whereas the scale in question 47 had a lower than acceptable alpha score of 0.7 (Field, 2009:673).

4.9. Ethical considerations

Prior to embarking on the scientific inquiry at hand, the health and safety of future respondents were carefully considered. In any research inquiry, ethical considerations, morality and proper conduct of the study are vital (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:22; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:27). The importance of balance between the value of the study and possible interference in people's lives must be emphasised (Neuman, 2014:71). The basic principles of non-maleficence and beneficence were vital. The researcher respected the respondents' rights and dignity, and conducted the research with justice and fidelity in mind. Access to research participants was also achieved via the appropriate channels and gatekeepers, as the Gauteng Department of Education was contacted, in addition to multiple school principals (Bless et al., 2013:29, 30-31, 35).

- No harm to respondents

Research can cause physical, psychological and legal harm to respondent(s). Harm to their careers, reputations and income must also be considered. Possible effects of the study on respondents were carefully considered and minimised. Risks of harm were considered before commencement of the study (Neuman, 2014:72). The benefits of conducting the study were cautiously weighed against the possibility of harm (Babbie, 2014:65; Bryman, 2012:136).

Although no harm was expected, recall of unpleasant incidents can cause stress. A letter of informed consent and a letter containing the contact information of the researcher, and additional contact information of various organisations such as the South African Depression and Anxiety Group, the South African Police Service, the South African Council for Educators and the Gauteng Department of Education were therefore provided. The contact information of the Gauteng Department of Education 24-hour helpline for employees and the Gauteng Department of Education Health and Wellness Unit were also provided, thus ensuring appropriate referral where necessary (Bless et al., 2013:33; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:27; Neuman, 2014:74). Harm was further avoided by assuring anonymity, as records would be maintained and kept confidential. In addition, the publication of findings would not identify any respondents specifically, thus privacy was ensured (Bryman, 2012:136; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:22). As evident, the researcher carefully considered any possible ethical ramifications, and provisions were made to ensure the optimal safety of respondents. One of the precautions undertaken to protect respondents was obtaining written informed consent (Neuman, 2014:72).

- Deception and discontinuation

No deception (misrepresentation of intentions for methodological reasons) of any form was necessary in the study, thus prospective respondents were completely informed regarding all elements of the study in the letter of informed consent. No respondent was forced (overtly or covertly) to participate in the study, maintaining their autonomy. As the questionnaire required revelation of personal information and experiences that may have been traumatic in nature, the researcher felt that the option of completing the questionnaire or not should be clarified and this was done in the informed consent letter (Babbie, 2014:64; Bryman, 2012:138). The right to withdraw from answering the questionnaire at any point was made clear to the respondents. There were no negative consequences or repercussions if discontinuation occurred, thus the respondents' right to participate or not was guaranteed (Bless et al., 2013:30; Neuman, 2014:74). Discontinuation did not require any explanation (Bless et al., 2013:33). A limitation that had to be noted was the possibility that respondents might not have the capacity to understand the factors presented in the informed consent letter, thus the contact information of the researcher was provided (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:25; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:39).

- Voluntary participation and informed consent

The questionnaire was accompanied by a letter of informed consent and an A5 letter clearly informing prospective respondents of the voluntary nature of participation. Non-participation,

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however, presents various disadvantages, as it decreases representativeness and hampers generalisation, which had to be taken into account (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:23; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:31). The letter of informed consent clearly indicated the purpose, procedures, risks and benefits, participants' rights, confidentiality, right of access to the researcher and storage of research data of the study (Bless et al., 2013:32; Neuman, 2014:75). Participants' rights and confidentiality were outlined, as well as the right of access to the researcher and the storage of research data. This letter had to be signed by the respondent or the questionnaire was discarded (Bless et al., 2006:142; Bless et al., 2013:32; Bryman, 2012:140; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:23). By supplying their informed consent, respondents acknowledged full understanding of the study and their voluntary participation (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:57; Babbie, 2014:66).

- Privacy concerns

The study considered both anonymity (the researcher being unaware of respondents' identity) and confidentiality (the researcher being aware of respondents' identity but not making it public) with the highest regard (Vogt et al., 2012:247). Anonymity and privacy of respondents were ensured, as respondents were not required to provide any identification information on the questionnaire. The researcher is thus unable to identify and disclose any response with reference to a specific respondent (Babbie, 2014:68; Bless et al., 2013:33; Neuman, 2014:78). After the completion of the questionnaires, respondents were instructed to place the questionnaire in a sealed envelope provided by the researcher and return it to the reception desk of the school, where the respondent had to place the envelope in a sealed box, also provided by the researcher. The researcher personally collected the boxes and handled the data, taking all secure measures (Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:22).

The researcher furthermore provided codes for each questionnaire, protecting the respondents' privacy (Neuman, 2014:78). The measures presented above ensured maximum confidentiality. Due to the nature of the research the researcher did not need to be provided with respondents' names or any identifying information (Bless et al., 2006:143; Maxfield & Babbie, 2009:32). Access to data is additionally only available to the researcher and her supervisor and after the completion of the study the data will be stored in accordance with the University of Pretoria's procedures. Data will be archived and stored in the Department of Social Work and Criminology for 15 years but will not be used for any future research (Abbott & McKinney, 2013:58).

4.10. Limitations and challenges

In any research study it is important to acknowledge the limitations of the research methods used. Even though the use of a quantitative research approach provided multiple advantages, a prominent limitation was the lack of in-depth data. Due to the use of primarily numerical values, a sense of personal, in-depth information regarding feelings, emotions and personal experiences of respondents was not available (Ivankova et al., 2007:265). As the present research study was basic in nature, the findings cannot be used in an applicable manner. It cannot be used in problem-solving or policy formation, although it can serve as a groundwork for knowledge that can be utilised in policy development (Babbie, 2011:27; Bless et al., 2013:59; Hagan, 2005:13; Neuman, 2014:26). As the purpose of the study was descriptive, it does not explain why workplace violence against educators occurs, but merely describes the phenomenon, thus limiting explanatory capacity of the research (Babbie, 2011:69; Neuman, 2014:31). Its descriptive nature aids in establishing association, but cannot determine causality, thus it is impossible to derive from the study's results whether certain contributing factors cause victimisation (Bless et al., 2013:62; Ivankova et al., 2007:263).

The present study was also cross-sectional, thus could not and cannot be used in future to measure change or trends. It was conducted at one point in time, hence the research is unable to explain changes which may occur, for example, over a period of time, such as the frequency or intensity of certain forms of workplace violence against educators (Bless et al., 2013:135; Dantzker & Hunter, 2012:85; Neuman, 2014:32). The geographic location of the present study was in Tshwane, Gauteng. Extending the research study to other geographic locations would allow for better comparison and increase the richness of the data.

Using self-administered questionnaires presents various challenges, such as comprehension and misunderstanding by respondents, as is the present case. Although the researcher did provide her contact information if further clarification was needed, no-one reached out for such clarification or explanation. Some confusion in terms of who was required to complete the questionnaire did occur at one school. A low response rate and recall bias were additional challenges faced (Bless et al., 2013:216; Dantzker, 2012:126), as was the possibility of social desirability bias (respondents misrepresent answers in order to conform to popular norms) (Neuman, 2011:321-322). Sampling was also problematic, as the researcher had to make use of non-probability sampling techniques in addition to probability sampling, thus affecting representation and generalisation. All limitations and challenges were taken into account during the execution of the research study.

4.11. Summary

The aim of the chapter was to present the research methods utilised in the research study. The study was conducted within a positivist paradigm using a quantitative research approach. The research was basic as it built on existing knowledge with a descriptive purpose. The research design was a cross-sectional survey and data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire, which was distributed to various prospective respondents by the researcher and collected one week after delivery. The educators participating in the study were selected using both probability and non-probability sampling procedures. Data were coded, entered, cleaned and descriptively and inferentially analysed as various tests were conducted. Furthermore, the results were presented in both a tabular and graphical format. Validity and reliability were accounted for and ethical considerations such as no harm, deception and discontinuation, voluntary participation, informed consent and privacy concerns were taken into account and provided for. In addition, the chapter also outlined the various limitations and challenges of the research methods used. In the chapter to follow, the findings of the research study will be displayed in tabular and graphical format to optimise understanding and allow for interpretation.

Chapter 5: Empirical results

5.1. Introduction

Chapter 5 presents the empirical findings of the study. The results include respondents' background information, personal and co-workers' experiences of workplace violence, and their reaction to and the consequences of violent incidents. Further results relate to decision-making, supervision and matters related to policies and prevention of violence against educators. The results are presented in tables and figures. Significant associations, where pertinent, are presented directly after the respective tables and figures. In other words, descriptive results are presented first, followed by the results of the bivariate analysis. It must be mentioned that bivariate analyses are limited to public/private and gender divides.

5.2. Background information of respondents

The following section provides the demographic and biographic background of respondents, including their time spent in the workplace, the nature of their employment, occupational post, highest qualification, status and language medium of their respective schools, and their quality of health. The majority of the respondents (n=88; 72.1%) were female and less than a third of respondents (n=34; 27.9%) were male. The majority of respondents (n=74; 60.7%) worked at public schools (Figure 4). Furthermore, results indicate that a slightly greater number of respondents (n=43; 35.2%) were from English language medium schools (Figure 5).

Figure 4: Status of school
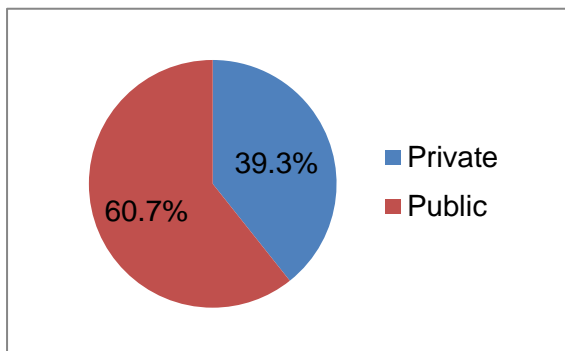
Figure 5: Language medium of schools
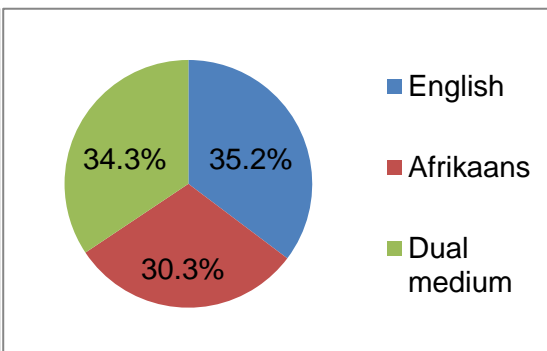
The age of respondents ranged between 20 and 69 (Table 6) with a mean of 39.99 years and a standard deviation of 11.65 years. The bulk of respondents (n=94; 77%) were under the age of 50, while 28 respondents (n=28; 22.9%) were over the age of 50. The majority of respondents (n=104; 87.4%) were white (n=104; 87.4%) and were married (n=74; 60.7%).

Table 6: Background information of respondents

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Age (years):						
20-29	30	24.6	9	18.8	21	28.4
30-39	33	27.0	14	29.2	19	25.7
40-49	31	25.4	13	27.1	18	24.3
50-59	22	18.0	10	20.8	12	16.2
60-69	6	4.9	2	4.2	4	5.4
Population group:						
White	104	87.4	44	95.7	60	82.2
Black/African	10	8.4	-	-	10	13.7
Coloured	2	1.7	-	-	2	2.7
Indian	2	1.7	1	2.2	1	1.4
Other	1	0.8	1	2.2	-	-
Marital status:						
Married	74	60.7	31	64.6	43	58.1
Single	27	22.1	7	14.6	20	27.0
Divorced	10	8.2	4	8.3	6	8.1
Engaged	4	3.3	2	4.2	2	2.7
Partnered	3	2.5	-	-	3	4.1
Widowed	2	1.6	2	4.2	-	-
Domestic partnership	2	1.6	2	4.2	-	-

Respondents working in public schools were more likely to be single (MR=56.59; n=20; 27.0%), whereas respondents working in private schools were more likely to be married (MR=48; n=31; 64.6%) (p=0.029; r=-0.19).

Responses obtained from respondents in terms of time spent in the workplace indicated that the vast majority (n=114; 95.8%) spend between 6 and 10 hours at school per day. Nearly three in four respondents (n=88; 73.9%) spend an average of 6 to 10 hours in class and nearly all respondents (n=105; 89.7%) spend an average of 1 to 5 hours on extra-curricular activities per day.

Table 7: Time respondents spent on work activities at school

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Time spent at school per day (hours):						
1-5	4	3.4	4	8.5	-	3.4
6-10	114	95.8	42	89.4	72	95.8
11-15	1	0.8	1	2.1	-	0.8

Table 7 continued

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Average hours spent in class per day:						
1-5	30	25.2	18	37.5	12	16.9
6-10	88	73.9	30	62.5	58	81.7
≥11	1	0.8	-	-	1	1.4
Average hours spent on extra-curricular activities per day:						
1-5	105	89.7	40	87.0	65	91.5
6-10	2	1.7	1	2.2	1	1.4
≥11	10	8.5	5	10.9	5	7.0

The number of years that respondents have been working as educators ranged between less than a year to 50 years, with nearly one in four respondents (n=27; 22.7%) having been educators for between six and ten years (Table 8).

Table 8: Time respondents spend as educators

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Number of years as an educator:						
<1	2	1.7	2	4.3	-	-
1-5	26	21.8	8	17.0	18	25.0
6-10	27	22.7	10	21.3	17	23.6
11-15	16	13.4	8	17.0	8	11.1
16-20	10	8.4	5	10.6	5	6.9
21-25	17	14.3	5	10.6	12	16.7
26-30	11	9.2	3	6.4	8	11.1
31-35	7	5.9	4	8.5	3	4.2
36-40	-	-	-	-	-	-
41-50	3	2.5	2	4.3	1	1.4
Number of years working at current school:						
<1	10	8.2	10	20.8	-	-
1-5	50	41.0	21	43.8	29	39.2
6-10	33	27.0	13	27.1	20	27.0
11-15	12	9.8	2	4.2	10	13.5
16-20	8	6.6	0	0.0	8	10.8
21-25	4	3.3	1	2.1	3	4.1
26-30	3	2.5	-	-	3	4.1

There was a significant association between the number of years that respondents have been working in their current school and the status of that school ($p<0.001$; $r=-0.35$). One fifth of private school respondents were more likely to have been working in their current schools for less than one year (MR=46.61; n=10; 20.8%) than their public school counterparts (MR=71.16; n=0; 0.0%). Public school respondents were more likely to have been working at their current school for 11 to 15 years (MR=71.16; n=10; 13.5%) than private school respondents (MR=46.61; n=2; 4.2%).

The vast majority of respondents (n=105; 86.1%) were permanent employees, while only two respondents (1.6%) worked as substitute educators. More than half the respondents (n=78; 65%) were subject teachers.

Table 9: Employment status of respondents

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Nature of employment:						
Permanent	105	86.1	43	89.6	62	83.8
SGB	8	6.6	0	0.0	8	10.8
Part-time	7	5.7	5	10.4	2	2.7
Substitute	2	1.6	0	0.0	2	2.7
Occupational post:						
Principal	2	1.7	1	2.1	1	1.4
Vice principal	11	9.2	4	8.3	7	9.7
HoD	17	14.2	7	14.6	10	13.9
Co-HoD	10	8.3	3	6.3	7	9.7
Subject educator	78	65.0	33	68.8	45	62.5
Assistant educator	2	1.7	0	0.0	2	2.8

A significant association prevailed between gender and occupational posts (p=0.009; $r=-0.23$). Subject educators were mainly female (MR=64.84; n=61; n=70.1%), compared to male respondents (MR=49.06; n=17; 51.5%). Male respondents (MR=49.06; n=16; 48.6%) were more likely to occupy managerial positions.

Figure 6: Respondents' highest qualification
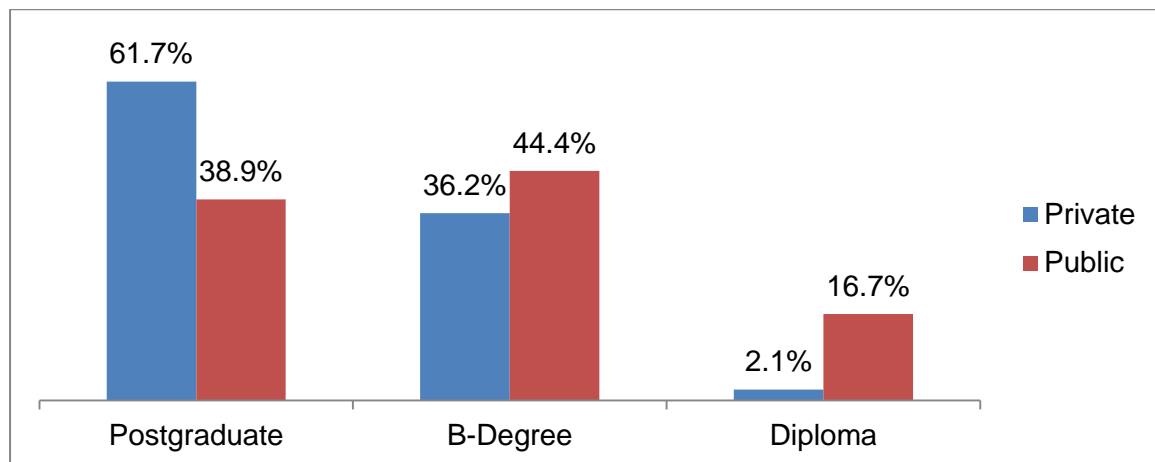
Private school educators were significantly more likely to have obtained a postgraduate qualification (MR=70.04; n=29; 61.7%), compared to public school educators (MR=53.44; n=28; 38.9%) (p=0.005; r=-0.25).

The bulk of respondents (n=110; 90.2%) felt their quality of health fell within the range of very good and good, while nine respondents (n=9; 7.4%) reported it as fair, one (n=1; 0.8%) as poor, and two respondents (n=2; 1.6%) as very poor.

5.3. Awareness of workplace violence against co-workers

In this section, respondents' experiences of violence against co-worker(s) at the current schools are explored, including the frequency, nature and perpetrator(s) of such acts. Personal views of safety and risk are also discussed. The bulk of respondents (n=22; 40.0%) reported that incidents of violence against a co-worker seldom occur, followed by eighteen respondents (n=18; 32.7%) who indicated that such incidents sometimes occur (Table 10).

Table 10: Incidents of workplace violence against co-workers

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Co-worker experienced personal violence:						
Yes	50	41.3	7	14.9	43	58.1
No	71	58.7	40	85.1	31	41.9
Frequency of incidents:						
Very often	5	9.1	1	11.1	4	8.7
Often	10	18.2	0	0.0	10	21.7
Sometimes	18	32.7	2	22.2	16	34.8
Seldom	22	40.0	6	66.7	16	34.8

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Significantly, more respondents in public schools (MR=50.84; n=43; 58.1%) reported that they were aware of a co-worker in their current school having experienced violence directed towards him/her than respondents in private schools (MR=76.99; n=7; 14.9%) ($p<0.001$; $r=-0.42$). Also, female respondents (MR=25.42; n=12; 30.8%) were more likely to categorise such incidents as occurring very often or often than were their male counterparts (MR= 34.28; n=3; 18.8%) (p=0.049; r= -0.26).

The bulk of respondents (n=81; 55.1%) indicated that violence against a co-worker was more likely committed by a learner, be it physical (n=26; 53.1%), non-physical (n=31; 63.3%) or bullying (n=24; 49.0%) (Table 11). Violence committed by co-worker(s) scored second highest, as 22 respondents (n=22; 14.9%) reported being aware of such violence.

Table 11: Nature and perpetrators of workplace violence against co-workers

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Violence by learner(s):						
Non-physical	31	63.3	3	37.5	28	68.3
Physical	26	53.1	4	50.0	22	53.7
Bullying	24	49.0	5	62.5	19	46.3
Violence by co-worker(s):						
Non-physical	12	24.5	1	12.5	11	26.8
Physical	4	8.2	2	25.0	2	4.9
Bullying	6	12.2	2	25.0	4	9.8
Violence by (vice) principal:						
Non-physical	5	10.2	-	-	5	12.2
Physical	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bullying	2	4.1	-	-	2	4.9
Violence by parent(s):						
Non-physical	13	26.5	1	12.5	12	29.3
Physical	1	2.0	-	-	1	2.4
Bullying	6	12.2	2	25.0	4	9.8
Violence by stranger(s):						
Non-physical	1	2.0	-	-	1	2.4
Physical	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bullying	-	-	-	-	-	-
Violence by victim's partner:						
Non-physical	2	4.1	-	-	2	4.9
Physical	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bullying	-	-	-	-	-	-

Female respondents (MR=21.87; n=21; 61.8%) were significantly more likely to be aware of a co-worker who experienced bullying by a learner, compared to male respondents (MR=32.10; n=3; 20.0%) (*p*=0.008; *r*=-0.38).

The majority of respondents working in both public (n=35; 81.4%) and private schools (n=6; 85.7%) revealed that incidents of workplace violence against co-workers were reported (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Reporting of workplace violence against a co-worker
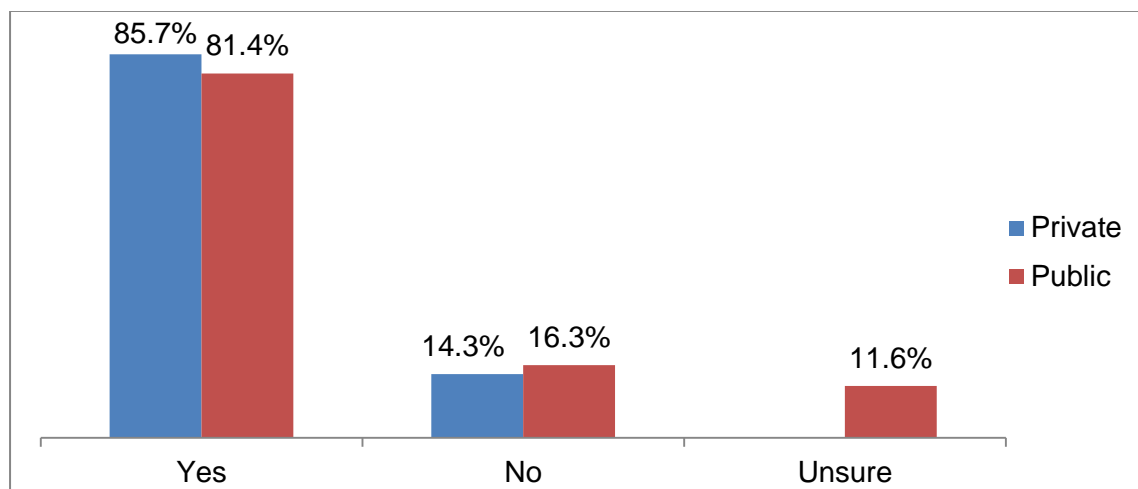
The greater number of respondents (n=34; 94.4%) stated that incidences of violence were reported to the principal or vice-principal (Table 12). According to all private school respondents (n=5; 100.0%) who answered the question at hand, workplace violence against a co-worker was reported to the principal or vice-principal, whereas a few respondents (n=19; 61.4%) from public schools said that incidents were reported to various other role players.

Table 12: People to whom incidents were reported

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Reported to:						
Principal/Vice	34	94.4	5	100.0	29	93.5
Police	6	16.7	-	-	6	19.4
HoD/Deputy HoD	6	16.7	-	-	6	19.4
Head of discipline	3	8.3	-	-	3	9.7
GDE	3	8.3	-	-	3	9.7
Grade tutors	1	2.8	-	-	1	3.2

Four respondents (n=4; 100.0%) working in public schools provided reasons for not reporting incidents: embarrassment (n=1: 25.0%) (due to the sexual nature of the incident),

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intimidation (n=1: 25.0%), fear of further exposure (n=1: 25.0%) and irrelevance of reporting versus not reporting (n=1: 25.0%).

Respondents attributed violence experienced by educators primarily to ill-discipline (n=34; 14.6%), followed by absent or ineffective parenting and disturbed home life (n=28; 12.0%) (Table 13).

Table 13: Main cause of violence against co-workers*

	Total	
	n	**%**
Ill-discipline	34	14.6
Absent/ineffective parenting and disturbed home life	28	12.0
Lack of mutual respect	27	11.6
Uncontrolled emotions	22	9.4
Substance abuse and physical/psychological disorders	19	8.2
Ineffective management, communication and protection	17	7.3
Negative parental influence	16	6.9
Social and moral decay	14	6.0
Workplace stress and frustration	14	6.0
Ineffective disciplinary rules/system	10	4.3
Inadequate academic preparation and excessive pressure	10	4.3
Socio-economic conditions	10	4.3
Unprofessional conduct among educators/poor preparation	8	3.4
Other	4	1.7

* Note that the responses stem from an open-ended question, hence differentiation between public and private schools is not feasible since the researcher categorised all responses directly from the completed questionnaires. Also, the percentages reflect the total number of responses as opposed to the total number of respondents.

The majority of respondents (n=88; 79.3%) felt that educators are most at risk during classes (Table 14). Roughly one in five respondents (n=21; 18.9%) felt that educators are mostly at risk after school.

Table 14: Times at which educators are most at risk of violence*

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Educators are most at risk:						
During classes	88	79.3	25	59.5	63	91.3
After school	21	18.9	16	38.1	5	7.2
During breaks	13	11.7	2	4.8	11	15.9
Before school	8	7.2	4	9.5	4	5.8
Weekends	7	6.3	6	14.3	1	1.4

* Note that the questions were posed as individual "yes/no" responses hence the percentage columns do not add up to 100%.

Respondents in private schools (MR=45.36, n=16, 38.1%) felt that educators were most at risk after school, as opposed to public school respondents (MR=62.48; n=5; 7.2%) (*p*<0.001; *r*=-0.38). The majority of public school respondents (MR=62.48; n= 63; 91.3%) felt most at risk during classes, as opposed to respondents in private schools (MR=66.96; n=25; 59.5%) (*p*<0.001; *r*=-0.37). Respondents from private schools (MR= 45.36; n=6; 14.3%) were also more likely to feel that educators are most at risk over weekends, compared to public school respondents (MR=58.70; n=1; 1.4%) (*p*=0.007; *r*=-0.25).

Of the respondents who felt threatened at school (n=35; 28.7%), just over half in both public schools (n=22; 56.4%) and private schools (n=9; 64.3%) felt professionally threatened in terms of their career and integrity (Table 15).

Table 15: Risk and safety in the workplace

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Have you felt threatened:						
Yes	35	28.7	6	12.5	29	39.2
No	87	71.3	42	87.5	45	60.8
Frequency of perception of threat:						
Very often	3	8.6	-	-	3	10.3
Often	3	8.6	-	-	3	10.3
Sometimes	13	37.1	1	16.7	12	41.4
Seldom	16	45.7	5	83.3	11	37.9
Feel threatened:						
Professionally	31	58.5	9	64.3	22	56.4
Personally	19	35.8	4	28.6	15	38.5
Both	1	1.9	-	-	1	2.6
None	2	3.8	1	7.1	1	2.6
School's risk level:						
Low risk	105	86.1	46	95.8	59	79.7
High risk	17	13.9	2	4.2	15	20.3
School is safe:						
Yes	103	84.4	47	97.9	56	75.7
No	19	15.6	1	24.3	18	24.3
In your workplace, do you feel:						
Powerful	84	70.6	42	91.3	42	57.5
Powerless	33	27.7	4	8.7	29	39.7
Both	1	0.8	-	-	1	1.4
Neither	1	0.8	-	-	1	1.4

A significant association (p=0.002; r=-0.28) was found in that feeling threatened at school was more likely among respondents working in public schools (MR=55.09; n=29; 39.2%) than among private school respondents (MR=71.38; n=6; 12.5%). Respondents from public schools (MR=57.64; n=15; 20.3%) were significantly more likely to report their school as high risk than those from private schools (MR=67.46; n=2; 4.2%) (p=0.012; r=-0.22). More respondents from private schools (MR=53.27; n=47; 97.9%) felt that their workplace is safe than did respondents from public schools (MR=66.84; n=56; 75.7%) (p=0.001; r=-0.29). In terms of power, a significant association (p<0.001; r=-0.36) was shown, namely, that of 33 respondents who felt powerless in their workplace, the bulk of them (MR=67.82; n=29; 39.7%) worked in public schools. In terms of gender, female respondents (MR=57.51; n=31; 35.2%) felt threatened more often than male respondents (MR=71.82; n=4; 11.8%) (p=0.011; r=-0.23).

5.4. Respondents' experiences of workplace violence

The following section focuses on respondents' personal experiences of workplace violence, unpacking the frequency, nature and perpetrator(s) of such violence. More than half the respondents (n=69; 56.6%) personally experienced verbal violence directed at them in their current school (Figure 8).

Figure 8: Forms of violence experienced
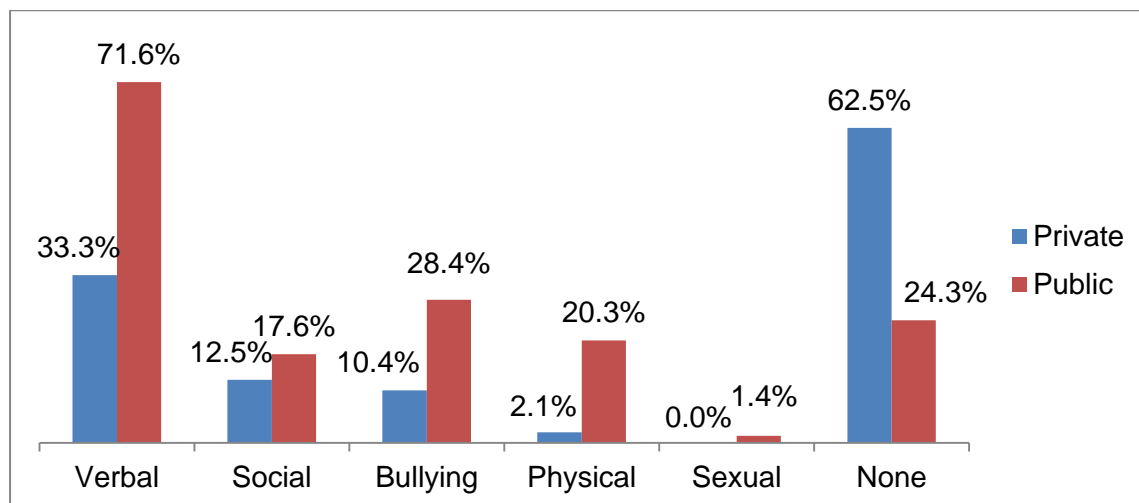
A significant association (p=0.004; r=-0.26) indicates that public school respondents (MR=57.14; n=15; 20.3%) were more likely to have experienced physical violence than their private school counterparts (MR=68.23; n=1; 2.1%). Respondents from public schools (MR=52.31; n=53; 71.6%) were more likely to have experienced verbal violence than those from private schools (MR=75.67; n=16; 33.3%) (p<0.001; r=-0.37). Public school respondents (MR=57.19; n=21; 28.4%) were also more likely to have experienced bullying

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than private school respondents (MR=68.15; n=5; 10.4%) (*p*=0.018; *r*=0.21). A significant association was made (*p*<0.001; r=-0.38) in that more than half of private school respondents (MR=68.15; n=30; 62.5%) experienced none of the forms of violence, compared to roughly two in eight public school respondents (MR=57.19; n=18; 24.3%). Female respondents (MR=58.56; n=23; 26.1%) experienced bullying more often than did male respondents (MR=69.12; n=3; 8.8%) (*p*=0.037; *r*=-0.18).

Table 16 presents victimisation rates at the hands of learners and parents. More than half the respondents (n=52; 69.3%) indicated that they had experienced verbal violence by learners. Further victimisation rates of learners against educators that were frequently reported by respondents included challenges to authority (n=40; 53.3%), vandalism (n=36; 48.0%) and bullying (n=25; 33.3%). The violence against educators by parents primarily involved verbal violence (n=35; 46.7%), followed by unfair blame (n=19; 25.3%), challenges to authority (n=17; 22.7%), humiliation (n=8; 10.7%) and unrealistic work expectations (n=8; 10.7%).

The bulk of respondents (n=18; 24.0%) who experienced victimisation by co-workers suffered verbal violence, followed by high rates of reported humiliation (n=16; 21.3%) and unfair blame (n=12; 16.0%). Violence by principals or vice-principals, on the other hand, primarily involved unrealistic work expectations (n=13; 17.3%), unfair blame (n=9; 12.0%), humiliation (n=8; 10.7%) and verbal violence (n=8; 10.7%) (Table 17).

Table 16: Victimisation by learner(s) and their parent(s)

	Learner(s)						Parent(s)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Physical	21	28.0	2	10.5	19	33.9	1	1.3	-	-	1	1.8
Verbal	52	69.3	12	63.2	40	71.4	35	46.7	9	47.4	26	26.4
Bullying	25	33.3	5	26.3	20	35.7	6	8.0	2	10.5	4	7.1
Cyber bullying	11	14.9	3	16.7	8	14.3	2	2.7	1	5.3	1	1.8
Challenges to authority	40	53.3	8	42.1	32	57.1	17	22.7	4	21.1	13	23.2
Vandalism	36	48.0	4	21.1	32	57.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sexual harassment	12	16.0	1	5.3	11	19.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
Social coercion	6	8.0	2	10.5	4	7.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denial of information and resources	7	9.3	1	5.3	6	10.7	3	4.0	1	5.3	2	3.6
Isolation and exclusion	4	5.3	2	10.5	2	3.6	1	1.3	1	5.3	-	-
Unfair blame	16	21.3	4	21.1	12	21.4	19	25.3	4	21.1	15	26.8
Unrealistic work expectations	5	6.7	2	10.5	3	5.4	8	10.7	2	10.5	6	10.7
Excessive monitoring	2	2.7	-	-	2	3.6	2	2.7	2	10.5	-	-
Denial of support	2	2.7	1	5.3	1	1.8	3	4.0	2	10.5	1	1.8
Humiliation	22	29.3	3	15.8	19	33.9	8	10.7	1	5.3	7	12.5

Table 17: Victimisation by co-worker(s) and principal(s) or vice-principal(s)

	Co-worker(s)						Principal(s)/Vice-principal(s)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Physical	2	2.7	1	5.3	1	1.8						
Verbal	18	24.0	4	21.1	14	25.0	8	10.7	2	10.5	6	10.7
Bullying	9	12.0	2	10.5	7	12.5	7	9.3	2	10.5	5	8.9
Cyber bullying	1	1.3	-	-	1	1.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
Challenges to authority	10	13.3	3	15.8	7	12.5	3	4.0	-	-	3	5.4
Vandalism	2	2.7	-	-	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sexual harassment	2	2.7	-	-	2	3.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
Social coercion	3	4.0	-	-	3	5.4	1	1.3	-	-	1	1.8
Denial of information and resources	6	8.0	1	5.3	5	8.9	6	8.0	2	10.5	4	7.1
Isolation and exclusion	11	14.7	2	10.5	9	16.1	7	9.3	2	10.5	5	8.9
Unfair blame	12	16.0	1	5.3	11	19.6	9	12.0	1	5.3	8	14.3
Unrealistic work expectations	10	13.3	1	5.3	9	16.1	13	17.3	3	15.8	10	17.9
Excessive monitoring	3	4.0	1	5.3	2	3.6	5	6.7	1	5.3	4	7.1
Denial of support	4	5.3	-	-	4	7.1	5	6.7	-	-	5	8.9
Humiliation	16	21.3	2	10.5	14	25.0	8	10.7	1	5.3	7	12.5

A significant association (p=0.007; r=-0.31) was noted where vandalism by learners in public schools (MR=34.57; n=32; 57.1%) was considered more problematic by educators than such vandalism in private schools (MR=48.11; n=4; 21.1%). Excessive monitoring by parents was reported more by educators from private schools (MR=35.05; n=2; 10.5%) than by their public school counterparts (p=0.015; r=-0.28). Female educators experienced more verbal violence by learners (MR=35.71; n=43; 75.4%) than the male respondents (MR=45.25; n=9; 50.0%) (p=0.043; r=-0.23). More female respondents experienced unrealistic work expectations set by principals or vice principals (MR=35.95; n=13; 22.8%) than did male educators (MR=44.50; n=0; 0.0%) (p=0.027; r=-0.25). Only male respondents (MR=34.83; n=2; 11.1%) reported experiencing vandalism by co-worker(s) (p=0.011; r=-0.29).

Due to the low n-values of responses regarding strangers, partners and the organisation as perpetrators of violence directed at educators, the researcher felt that data on violence by such perpetrators do not justify a table and will therefore be summarised as follows. The forms of violence committed by strangers toward respondents in public schools included verbal violence (n=3; 5.4%), cyber bullying (n=3; 5.4%), denial of information and resources (n=1; 1.8%), unfair blame (n=1; 1.8%) and humiliation (n=1; 1.8%). The only form of violence by stranger(s) committed in private schools was challenges to authority (n=1; 5.3%). Responses further revealed that violence committed by partner(s) was only indicated in public schools. Such forms of violence encompassed verbal violence (n=1; 1.8%), bullying (n=1; 1.8%), cyber bullying (n=1; 1.8%), denial of information and resources (n=1; 1.8%), isolation and exclusion (n=2; 3.6%), unfair blame (n=2; 3.6%) and humiliation (n=2; 3.6%). Similarly, violence by organisation(s) was only committed against educators in public schools and included unveiling denial of information and resources (n=1; 1.8%), isolation and exclusion (n=1; 1.8%), unrealistic work expectations (n=7; 12.5%), excessive monitoring (n=4; 7.1%) and denial of support (n=1; 1.8%).

5.5. Reaction and consequences to workplace violence

Section D of the questionnaire explored respondents' reaction(s) to and consequences of violent incidents. The bulk of respondents (n=40; 52.6%) reported the incident immediately and an equivalent number attempted to reprimand the perpetrator (n=40; 52.6%) (Figure 9).

Figure 9: Reaction(s) to violent incidents
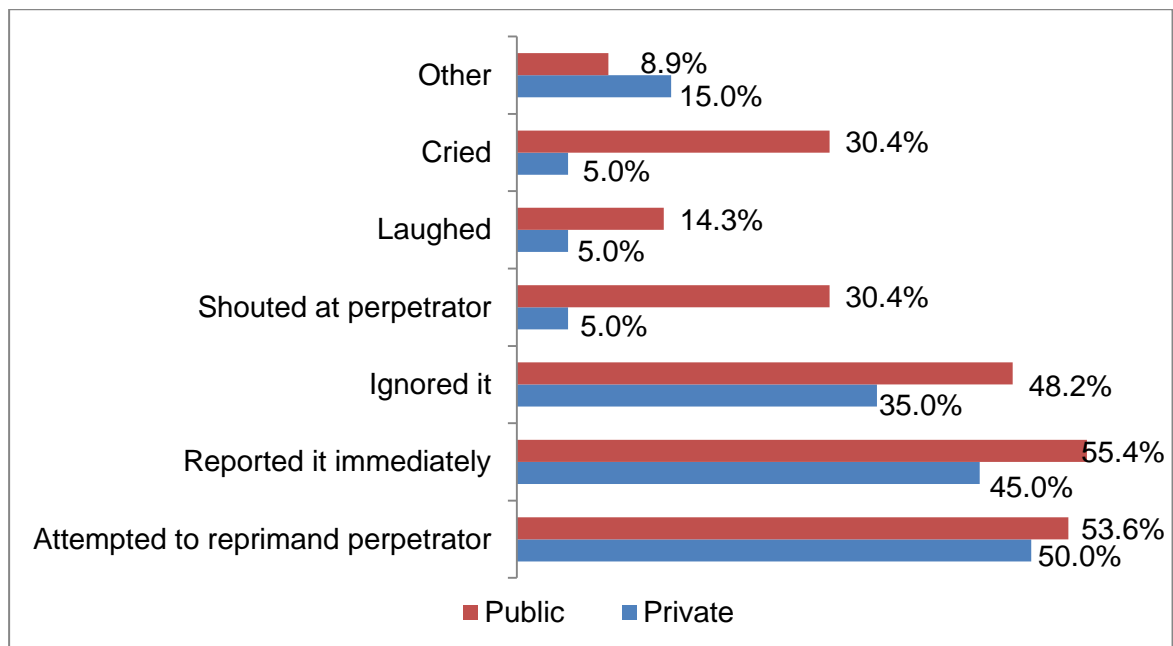
Respondents from public schools (MR=35.96; n=17; 30.4%) were more likely to shout at the perpetrator than respondents from private schools (MR=45.60; n=1; 5.0%) (*p*=0.023; *r*=-0.26). The chance of an educator crying in reaction to a violent incident was greater for respondents from public schools (MR=35.96; n=17; 30.4%) than for those from private schools (MR=45.60; n=1; 5.0%) (*p*=0.023; *r*=-0.26). All respondents who cried in response to violent incidents were female (MR=35.50; n=18; 31.6%) (*p*=0.005; *r*=-0.31).

Most respondents (n=58; 78.4%) felt the violent incident(s) increased their levels of frustration, followed closely by a change in stress levels (n=42; 56.8%). In addition, on a professional level, the majority of respondents (n=37; 50.7%) felt such incident(s) led to low job satisfaction. Violent incidents resulted in respondents taking leave of absence, or missing between one and five days of work.

Table 18: Influence of violent incident(s) on respondents

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Personal influence:						
Frustration	58	78.4	14	70.0	44	81.5
Stress	42	56.8	12	60.0	30	55.6
Sadness	30	40.5	2	10.0	28	51.9
Low self-confidence	25	33.8	5	25.0	20	37.0
Anxiety	24	32.4	5	25.0	19	35.2
Physical effects	20	27.0	2	10.0	18	66.7

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Table 18 continued

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Cynicism	13	17.6	1	5.0	12	22.2
Fear	12	16.2	2	10.0	10	18.5
Guilt	9	12.2	1	5.0	8	14.8
Apathy	9	12.2	2	10.0	7	13.0
Shame	6	8.1	1	5.0	5	9.3
Psychological problems	3	4.1	-	-	3	5.6
Other	4	5.4	-	-	4	7.4
Professional influence:						
Low job satisfaction	37	50.7	6	30.0	31	58.5
None	24	32.9	9	45.0	15	28.3
Withdrawal	22	30.1	2	10.0	20	37.7
Burnout	17	23.3	3	15.0	14	26.4
Poor concentration	16	21.9	2	10.0	14	26.4
Detachment/alienation	14	19.2	2	10.0	12	22.6
Low organisational commitment	11	15.1	1	5.0	10	18.9
Modified work	7	9.6	1	5.0	6	11.3
Leave of absence	5	6.8	-	-	5	9.4
Other	5	6.8	1	5.0	4	7.5
Transferred	1	1.4	-	-	1	1.9
Missed days at work	1	1.4	-	-	1	1.9

More respondents from public schools (MR=33.31; n=28; 51.9%) indicated feeling sad after a violent incident, compared to respondents from private schools (MR=48.80; n=2; 10.0%) (p=0.001; r=-0.37). Respondents from public schools (MR=35.17; n=18; 33.3%) were also more likely to report physical effects after a violent incident than were respondents from private schools (MR=43.80; n=2; 10.0%) (p=0.046; r=-0.23). At a professional level, withdrawal was significantly higher amongst respondents from public schools (MR=34.23; n=20; 37.7%) than those from private schools (MR=44.35; n=2; 10.0%) (p=0.022; r=-0.26). Public school respondents (MR=34.15; n=31; 58.5%) were also more likely to report low job satisfaction than respondents from private schools (MR=44.55; n=6; 30.0%) (p=0.031; r=-0.25). In terms of gender, female respondents (MR=35.25; n=13; 23.6%) were more likely to feel cynical after violent incident(s) than males (MR=44.00; n=0; 0.0%) (p=0.020; r=-0.26), and reported burnout as a professional effect (MR=34.88; n=16; 29.1%) more so than males (MR=43.47; n=1; 5.6%) (p=0.042; r=-0.23).

More than half of the respondents from private (n=10; 52.6%) and public schools (n=28; 54.9%) reported the violence directed at them. Of those who did not report it, nearly all (n=27; 81.8%) indicated that they handled it themselves (Table 19). The most common

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outcome of reporting violent incident(s) (n=28; 56.0%) was that the perpetrator was reprimanded.

Table 19: Reporting of violence directed at respondent(s)

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Reason for not reporting:						
Handled it myself	27	81.8	9	100.0	18	75.0
Didn't think anything would be done about it	10	30.3	-	-	10	41.7
Feared personal consequences	5	15.2	-	-	5	20.8
Felt uncomfortable	4	12.1	-	-	4	16.7
Distrust in system	3	9.1	-	-	3	12.5
Didn't know to whom to report it	2	6.1	-	-	2	8.3
Warned not to	1	3.0	-	-	1	4.2
Other	1	3.0	1	11.1	-	-
Outcome(s) of reporting:						
Perpetrator was reprimanded	28	56.0	8	57.1	20	55.6
Support was given to me	14	28.0	5	35.7	9	25.0
Complaint not taken further	13	26.0	2	14.3	11	30.6
Perpetrator was suspended	9	18.0	-	-	9	25.0
Perpetrator was reported to the police	7	14.0	-	-	7	19.4
Other	5	1.0	-	-	5	13.9
Perpetrator was asked to leave school grounds	4	8.0	-	-	4	11.1
Perpetrator was fired	-	-	-	-	-	-

A significant association (p=0.022; r=-0.39) featured where only respondents from public schools (MR=15.13; n=10; 41.7%) felt nothing would be done about the incident if they had reported it, while all responses indicating that a perpetrator was suspended after reporting a violent incident came from public school respondents (MR=23.75; n=9; 25.0%) and none from private school respondents (MR=30.00; n=0; 0.0%) (p=0.041; r=-0.28). Similar to public school respondents, only female respondents (MR=14.83; n=10; 43.5%) felt nothing would be done about the incident if they had reported it (p=0.014; r=-0.42). Male respondents (MR=20.00; n=7; 50.0%), however, were more likely to receive support after reporting such an incident than were female respondents (MR=27.64; n=7; 19.4%) (p=0.032; r=-0.30).

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5.6. Decision-making and supervision

The following section reports on the involvement of respondents in decision-making concerning school matters, their autonomy at work and in making decisions, and supervision. More than half of respondents (n=63; 51.6%) rated their ability to make decisions (without the influence of others) as 'good' on the scale provided (Figure 10). No data were obtained for categories 'poor' and 'severely restricted'.

Figure 10: Ability to make decisions without the influence of others
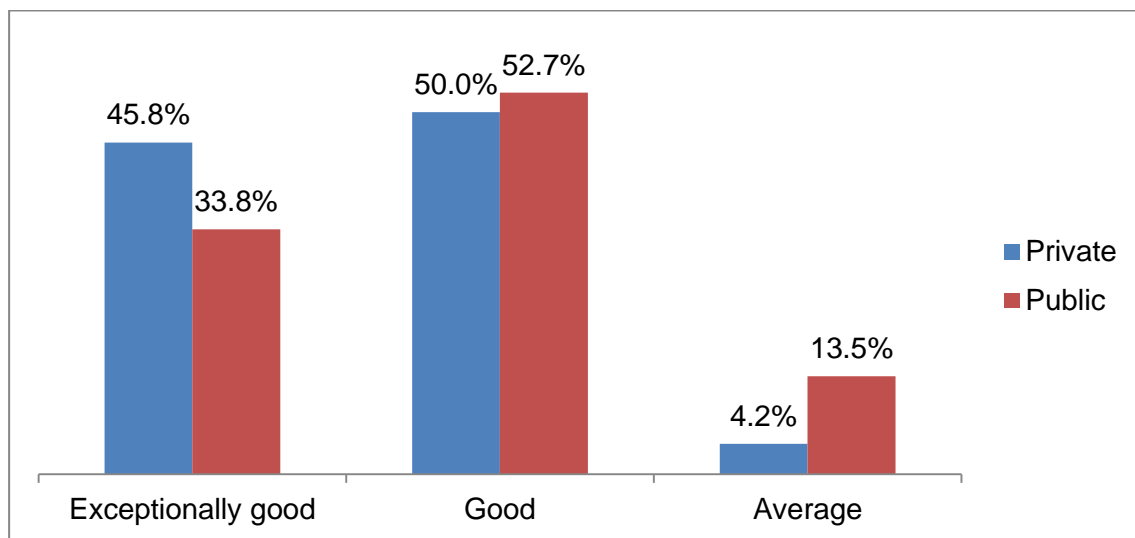
The bulk of respondents (n=47; 38.8%) rated their level of involvement in decision-making regarding school issues as 'good', followed closely by respondents (n=39; 32.2%) who felt their level of involvement was 'average' (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Level of involvement in decision-making regarding school issues
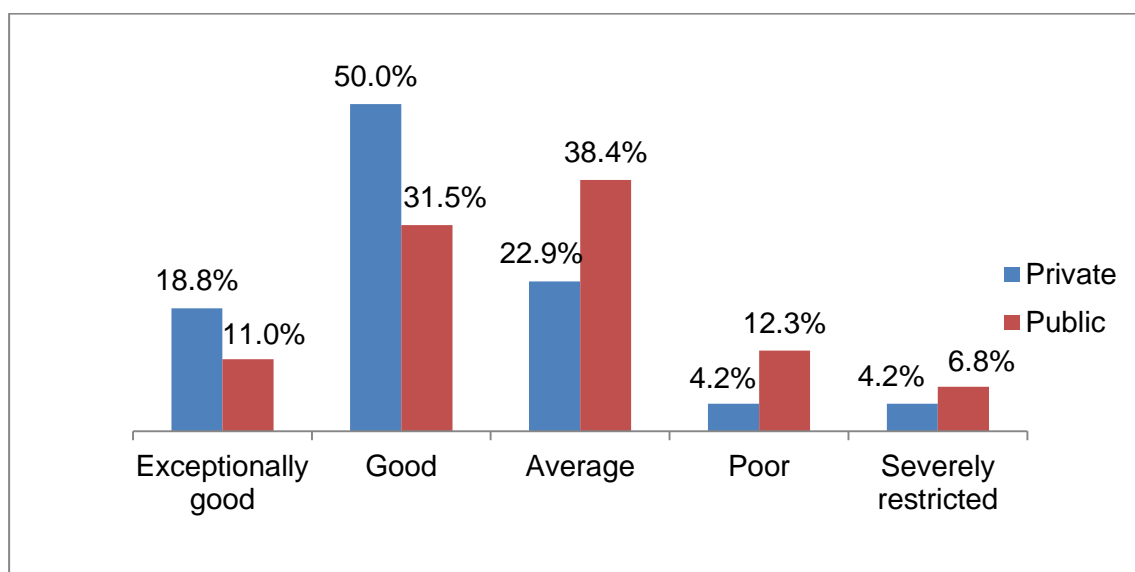
Respondents in private schools (MR=50.90; n=33; 68.8%) rated their level of involvement as 'exceptionally good/good', whereas respondents in public schools (MR=67.64; n=42; 57.5%) were more likely to have an 'average' to 'severely restricted' level of involvement (p=0.007; r=-0.24). Male respondents (MR=48.94; n=21; 63.7%) rated their level of involvement in decision-making regarding school issues as 'exceptionally good/good', compared to female respondents (MR=65.52; n=45; 51.1%), who had 'average' to 'severely restricted' involvement (p=0.015; r=-0.22).

Tables 20 to 25[5] indicate the types of victimisation respondents feel they are exposed to in terms of decision-making and supervision. The majority of respondents working in private and public schools (i.e. combined) (n=30; 26.5%) felt they are 'sometimes' victimised by insufficient communication, 'often' victimised by work overload (n=28; 23.7%) and 'sometimes' suffer because of favouritism (n=24; 21.4%). Furthermore, some respondents indicated that they felt they are 'sometimes' victimised by role conflict (n=26; 24.3%), inadequate implementation of routine procedures (n=20; 18.2%), and 'sometimes' suffer because they are not being heard (n=24; 21.2%). Although the majority of respondents in private and public schools combined (n=43; 39.8%) indicated 'never' feeling victimised by unequal opportunities, 31 respondents (n=31; 27.5%) rated victimisation by unequal treatment as 'very often or often'.

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[5] Note that the mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) in these tables relate to the values of the categories, where "very often" equates to "1" and "never" to "5".

Table 20: Feeling victimised by unequal opportunities and unequal treatment

	Unequal opportunities (M=3.73; SD=1.33)						Unequal treatment (M=3.55; SD= 1.336)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	9	8.3	4	9.1	5	7.8	8	7.1	1	2.2	7	10.3
Often	14	13.0	4	9.1	10	15.6	23	20.4	8	17.8	15	22.1
Sometimes	17	15.7	6	13.6	11	17.2	20	17.7	5	11.1	15	22.1
Seldom	25	23.1	9	20.5	16	25.0	23	20.4	9	20.0	14	20.6
Never	43	39.8	21	47.7	22	34.4	39	34.5	22	48.9	17	25.0

Table 21: Feeling victimised by inadequate implementation of routine procedures and role conflict

	Inadequate implementation of routine procedures (M=3.62; SD=1.306)						Role conflict (M=3.91; SD=1.086)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	8	7.3	4	9.1	4	6.1	4	3.7	3	6.7	1	1.6
Often	18	16.4	3	6.8	15	22.7	6	5.6	3	6.7	3	4.8
Sometimes	20	18.2	6	13.6	14	21.2	26	24.3	10	22.2	16	25.8
Seldom	26	23.6	13	29.5	13	19.7	31	29.0	13	28.9	18	29.0
Never	38	34.5	18	40.9	20	30.3	40	37.4	16	35.6	24	38.7

Table 22: Feeling victimised by vagueness about work roles and not being heard

	Vagueness about work roles (M=3.74; SD=1.218)						Not being heard (M=3.61; SD=1.305)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	5	4.6	3	6.5	2	3.2	8	7.1	1	2.3	7	10.1
Often	16	14.8	9	19.6	7	11.3	18	15.9	4	9.1	14	20.3
Sometimes	19	17.6	7	15.2	12	19.4	24	21.2	8	18.2	16	23.2
Seldom	30	27.8	13	28.3	17	27.4	23	20.4	12	27.3	11	15.9
Never	38	35.2	14	30.4	24	38.7	40	35.4	19	43.2	21	30.4

Table 23: Feeling victimised by insufficient communication and work overload

	Insufficient communication (M=3.26; SD=1.28)						Work overload (M=2.78; SD=1.353)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	12	10.6	2	4.3	10	15.2	26	22.0	8	17.0	18	25.4
Often	21	18.6	9	19.1	12	18.2	28	23.7	9	19.1	19	26.8
Sometimes	30	26.5	10	21.3	20	30.3	27	22.9	13	27.7	14	19.7
Seldom	26	23.0	15	31.9	11	16.7	20	16.9	10	21.3	10	14.1
Never	24	21.2	11	23.4	13	19.7	17	14.4	7	14.9	10	14.1

Table 24: Feeling victimised by overcrowding in the workplace and the area in which workplace is situated

| | Overcrowding in the workplace (M=4.21; SD=1.081) | | | | | | Area in which workplace is situated (M=4.75; SD=0.568) | | | | | |
| | Total | | Private | | Public | | Total | | Private | | Public | |
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	4	3.7	1	2.2	3	4.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
Often	4	3.7	-	-	4	6.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sometimes	18	16.5	5	10.9	13	20.6	7	6.5	3	6.7	4	6.5
Seldom	22	20.2	6	13.0	16	25.4	13	12.1	3	6.7	10	16.1
Never	61	56.0	34	73.9	27	42.9	87	81.3	39	86.7	48	77.4

Table 25: Feeling victimised by favouritism

| | Favouritism (M=3.63; SD=1.402) | | | | | |
| | Total | | Private | | Public | |
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	13	11.6	4	8.9	9	13.4
Often	12	10.7	3	6.7	9	13.4
Sometimes	24	21.4	7	15.6	17	25.4
Seldom	18	16.1	8	17.8	10	14.9
Never	45	40.2	23	51.1	22	32.8

Educators from private schools (MR=66.82; n=22; 48.9%) were more likely to report 'never' feeling victimised by unequal treatment than educators from public schools (MR=50.50; n=17; 25.0%) (p=0.007; r=-0.25). A statistical association (p=0.016; r=-0.22) was present as a larger proportion of respondents (MR=51.28; n=14; 20.3%) from public schools felt victimised 'often' by not being heard, compared to their private school counterparts (MR=65.98; n=4; 9.1%). Respondents from public schools (MR=47.52; n=13; 20.6%) also 'sometimes' felt victimised by overcrowding, more so than those from private schools (MR=65.24; n=5; 10.9%), whereas respondents from private schools (MR=65.24; n=34; 73.9%) were more likely to respond 'never' feeling victimised by overcrowding compared to their public school (MR=47.52; n=27; 42.9%) counterparts (p=0.001; r=-0.30). A significant association (p=0.001; r=-0.20) also featured where educators from public schools (MR=51.36; n=18; 26.8%) indicated feeling victimised by favouritism 'very often' or 'often', compared to educators from private schools (MR=64.16; n=7; 15.6%). With regard to gender differences, female respondents (MR=51.49; n=22; 27.9%) indicated feeling victimised by inadequate implementation of routine procedures 'very often' or 'often', more so than male respondents (MR=65.73; n=4; 12.9%) (p=0.029; r=-0.20). Female respondents (MR=54.52; n=24; 28.6%) additionally experienced victimisation by work overload 'very often' compared to male respondents (MR=71.81; n=2; 5.9%) (p=0.011; r=-0.23).

Tables 26 to 28 present the results regarding the 'voice' of educators; in other words, the degree to which they have a say in the daily practices of the school(s). Although the majority of respondents indicated 'often' having a say in the functioning and strategic planning of the school (n=30; 25.0%) and the supervision and control of the school (n=32; 26.9%), both categories were closely followed by respondents 'seldom' having a say in the former (n=28; 23.3%) and the latter (n=29; 24.4%). The majority of respondents (n=33; 27.7%) reported only 'sometimes' having a say in how to deal with workplace violence, while 23.5% 'never' (n=28; 23.5%) have a say in how to deal with information received regarding workplace violence.

Table 26: Having sufficient say in functioning and strategic planning of the school and supervision and control of the school

| | Functioning and strategic planning of the school (M=3.05; SD=1.327) | | | | | | Supervision and control of the school (M=3.08; SD=1.316) | | | | | |
| | Total | | Private | | Public | | Total | | Private | | Public | |
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	17	14.2	10	21.3	7	9.6	15	12.6	9	19.6	6	8.2
Often	30	25.0	14	29.8	16	21.9	32	26.9	13	28.3	19	26.0
Sometimes	24	20.0	13	27.7	11	15.1	22	18.5	10	21.7	12	16.4
Seldom	28	23.3	6	12.8	22	30.1	29	24.4	9	19.6	20	27.4
Never	21	17.5	4	8.5	17	23.3	21	17.6	5	10.9	16	21.9

Table 27: Having sufficient say in monitoring and evaluation practices and how to deal with workplace violence

| | Monitoring and evaluation practices (M=2.85; SD=1.233) | | | | | | How to deal with workplace violence (M=3.30; SD=1.305) | | | | | |
| | Total | | Private | | Public | | Total | | Private | | Public | |
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	17	14.3	9	19.1	8	11.1	11	9.2	7	14.9	4	5.6
Often	34	28.6	14	29.8	20	27.8	24	20.2	10	21.3	14	19.4
Sometimes	33	27.7	13	27.7	20	27.8	33	27.7	13	27.7	20	27.8
Seldom	20	16.8	7	14.9	13	18.1	20	16.8	6	12.8	14	19.4
Never	15	12.6	4	8.5	11	15.3	31	26.1	11	23.4	20	27.8

Table 28: Having sufficient say in the relationship between myself and upper management and how to deal with information received regarding workplace violence

	Relationship between myself and upper management (M=2.74; SD=1.279)						How to deal with information received regarding workplace violence (M=3.16; SD=1.334)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very often	20	16.8	12	25.5	8	11.1	12	10.1	8	17.0	4	5.6
Often	41	34.5	20	42.6	21	29.2	33	27.7	15	31.9	18	25.0
Sometimes	23	19.3	8	17.0	15	20.8	26	21.8	9	19.1	17	23.6
Seldom	20	16.8	4	8.5	16	22.2	20	16.8	5	10.6	15	20.8
Never	15	16.7	3	6.4	12	16.7	28	23.5	10	21.3	18	25.0

Private school respondents (MR=48.33; n=24; 51.1%) reported having a say in the functioning and strategic planning of the school as 'very often' or 'often', more so than public school respondents (MR=68.34; n=23; 31.5%) (p=0.002; r=-0.28). Respondents from private schools (MR=51.47; n=37; 69.6%) also reported having a say in the supervision and control of the school as 'very often', 'often' or 'sometimes', again more often than public school respondents (MR=65.38; n=32; 50.6%) (p=0.028; r=-0.20). Public school respondents (MR=68.00; n=28; 45.2%) were more likely to categorise their ability to have a say in the relationship between themselves and upper management as 'seldom' or 'never' than were private school respondents (MR=47.74; n=7; 14.9%) (p=0.001; r=-0.29).

More than half of male respondents (MR=44.76; n= 20; 58.8%) rated their ability to have a say in how to deal with information received regarding workplace violence as 'very often' or 'often', compared to only 29.4% of female respondents (MR=66.09; n=25; 29.4%) (p=0.002; r=-0.28). Upper management (principal(s) (MR=6.50; n=2) and vice-principal(s) (MR=23.77; n=11)) also reported having a say in how to deal with information received regarding workplace violence 'very often', whereas subject teachers (MR=66.09; n=76) and assistant teachers (MR=91.75; n=2) were more likely to respond 'never' (p<0.001), in accordance with the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

The bulk of respondents (n=44; 36.4%) revealed that mutual inspiration in terms of support and consideration occurs 'often' between educators and managers (Figure 12).

Figure 12: Extent of support and consideration among role players
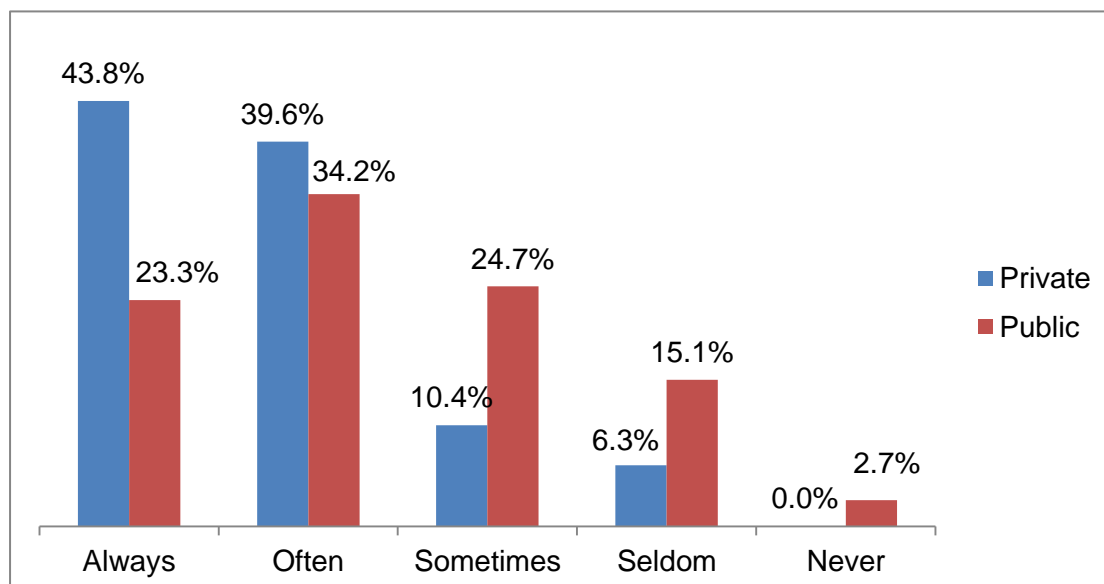
Male respondents (MR=48.97; n=29; 87.9%) categorised mutual inspiration as occurring 'always' or 'often', more so than female respondents (MR=65.51; n=53; 60.2%) (p=0.016; r=-0.21).

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5.7. Policy and prevention

The following section reports on responses related to policies and prevention within the workplace, focusing primarily on workplace violence against educators, and the awareness and procedures both present and absent in terms of such violence. Even though more than half of the respondent(s) (n=71; 58.7%) indicated that they are aware of procedures for reporting violence against educators, the majority (n=88; 72.1%) reported not having been provided with material(s) related to such violence (Table 29).

Table 29: Awareness of procedures and material about workplace violence

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Awareness:						
Yes	71	58.7	27	56.3	44	60.3
No	23	19.0	8	16.7	15	20.5
Don't know	27	22.3	13	27.1	14	19.2
Provision of material:						
Yes	34	27.9	11	22.9	23	31.1
No	88	72.1	37	77.1	51	68.9

Awareness of procedures for reporting violence against educators was found mostly amongst male respondents (MR=51.94; n=25; 75.8%) and less so amongst female respondents (MR=64.40; n=46; 52.3%) (p=0.049; r=-0.17).

More than half of respondents (n=66; 57.9%) were unaware of policies regarding workplace violence in their schools (Table 30). Respondents (n=46; 40.4%) who were aware of relevant policies primarily reported awareness of learner conduct and disciplinary policies (n=18; 50.0%), followed by an awareness (n=13; 36.1%) of safety and security policies. Less than half of the respondents (n=31; 47.0%) felt the policies were effective, and more than half (n=43; 66.2%) felt additional policies are essential.

Table 30: Policies regarding workplace violence and their perceived effectiveness

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Awareness of policies:						
Yes	46	40.4	19	42.2	27	39.1
No	66	57.9	26	57.8	40	58.0
Both	2	1.8	-	-	2	2.9
Policies you are aware of:						
Learner conduct and disciplinary policies	18	50.0	7	58.3	11	45.8

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Table 30 continued

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Safety and security	13	36.1	3	25.0	10	41.7
Staff policy	9	25.0	5	41.7	4	16.7
School policy	8	22.2	3	25.0	5	20.8
Constitution/Acts	5	13.9	-	-	5	20.8
Departmental policies	2	5.6	-	-	2	8.3
Effectiveness of policies:						
Yes	31	47.0	13	59.1	18	40.9
No	11	16.7	2	9.1	9	20.5
Don't know	24	36.4	7	31.8	17	38.6
Are (additional) policies needed:						
Yes	43	66.2	10	47.6	33	75.0
No	21	32.3	11	52.4	10	22.7
Don't know	1	1.5	-	-	1	2.3

The need for additional policies was more evident amongst respondents from public schools (MR=30.25; n=33; 75.0%) than those from private schools (MR=70.08; n=10; 47.6%) (p=0.039; r=-0.25). Male respondents (MR=24.94; n=12; 66.7%) felt policies were effective more than did female respondents (MR=36.71; n=19; 39.6%) (p=0.016; r=-0.29).

The greater number of respondents (n=70; 72.9%) felt that a policy highlighting procedure(s) on how to deal with parents' involvement in school violence is vital (Table 31). Further policies needed were a zero tolerance policy (n=69; 71.9%) regarding violence against educators, and a policy clearly delineating the consequences for perpetrators who commit such violence (n=69; 71.9%).

Table 31: Policies needed regarding workplace violence

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Policies needed: Dealing with parents' involvement in school violence	70	72.9	24	68.6	46	75.4
Zero tolerance	69	71.9	23	65.7	46	75.4
Consequences for perpetrators	69	71.9	27	77.1	42	68.9
Reporting workplace violence	64	66.7	27	77.1	37	60.7
Staff responsible in assisting victims	55	57.3	20	57.1	35	57.4

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Table 31 continued

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
School security policies	50	52.1	15	42.9	35	57.4

The majority of respondents (n=111; 91.0%) pointed out that they had not received any training on workplace violence and roughly half (n=59; 51.3%) revealed that they would like such training (Table 32). The type of training mostly requested was methods to defuse a violent incident (n=52; 86.7%).

Table 32: Training regarding workplace violence

	Total		Private		Public	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Received training						
Yes	11	9.0	4	8.3	7	9.5
No	111	91.0	44	91.7	67	90.5
Need training:						
Yes	59	51.3	19	42.2	40	57.1
No	56	48.7	26	57.8	30	42.9
Type(s) of training needed:						
Defusing a violent event	52	86.7	16	84.2	36	87.8
Prevention	51	85.0	17	89.5	34	82.9
Skills to cope with violence in school	45	75.0	14	73.7	31	75.6
Educator-learner relationships	42	71.2	13	68.4	29	72.5
Assertiveness	38	63.3	10	52.6	28	68.3
Consequences for perpetrators of workplace violence	36	60.0	12	63.2	24	58.5
Support services available	34	56.7	8	42.1	26	63.1
Violence-related class rules	33	55.0	9	47.4	24	58.5
Debriefing after a violent incident	31	51.7	8	42.1	23	56.1
Individual counselling	28	46.7	7	36.8	21	51.2

More than double the number of male respondents (MR=56.24; n=6; 17.6%) reported having received training on workplace violence than did their female counterparts (MR=56.24; n=5; 5.7%) (p=0.039; r=-0.18). Female respondents (MR=27.69; n=32; 72.7%) were more likely than male respondents (MR=38.25; n=6; 37.5%) to state that they require training in assertiveness (p=0.013; r=-0.32).

Tables 33 to 37[6] presents respondents' opinions about various elements of their work environment and workplace violence. Just over half the respondents (n=65; 55.6%) agreed that their respective schools are equipped to deal with workplace violence and 31.9% (n=37) agreed that workplace violence is a serious problem. The majority of respondents agreed that workplace violence is adequately recognised (n=57; 51.4) and sufficiently addressed (n=53; 48.2%). The bulk of respondents strongly disagreed with the statements "I fear going to work" (n=78; 69.6%) and "substance abuse is a serious problem by colleagues" (n=77; 65.3%). The majority of respondents are satisfied with their job (n=86; 74.8%), feel like valued educators (n=94; 79.7%) and feel that security measures at their workplace are adequate (n=84; 73%). However, more than half of respondents (n=69; 58.4%) feel that substance abuse by learners is a serious problem.

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[6] Note that the mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) in these tables relate to the values of the categories, where "strongly agree" equates to "1" and "strongly disagree" to "4".

Table 33: Opinion(s) about school's ability to deal with workplace violence and workplace violence as a serious problem

	School is equipped to deal with workplace violence (M=2.12; SD=0.733)						Workplace violence is a serious problem (M=2.65; SD=1.073)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Strongly agree	21	17.9	8	17.8	13	18.1	19	16.4	8	17.4	11	15.7
Agree	65	55.6	31	68.9	34	47.2	37	31.9	5	10.9	32	45.7
Disagree	27	23.1	6	13.3	21	29.2	26	22.4	11	23.9	15	21.4
Strongly disagree	4	3.4	-	-	4	5.6	34	17.1	22	47.8	12	17.1

Table 34: Opinion(s) about the recognition and addressing of workplace violence

	Workplace violence is adequately recognised (M=2.31; SD=0.748)						Workplace violence is sufficiently addressed (M=2.26; SD=0.786)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Strongly agree	13	11.7	8	18.2	5	7.5	17	15.5	8	19.0	9	13.2
Agree	57	51.4	25	56.8	32	47.8	53	48.2	24	57.1	29	42.6
Disagree	35	31.5	8	18.2	27	40.3	34	30.9	9	21.4	25	36.8
Strongly disagree	6	5.4	3	6.8	3	4.5	6	5.5	1	2.4	5	7.4

Table 35: Opinion(s) about job satisfaction and fear of going to work

| | I am fully satisfied with my job (M=1.93; SD=0.905) | | | | | | I fear going to work (M=3.63; SD=0.645) | | | | | |
| | Total | | Private | | Public | | Total | | Private | | Public | |
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Strongly agree	44	38.3	23	52.3	21	29.6	2	1.8	2	4.4	-	-
Agree	42	36.5	17	38.6	25	35.2	4	3.6	1	2.2	3	4.5
Disagree	22	19.1	2	4.5	20	28.2	28	25.0	8	17.8	20	29.9
Strongly disagree	7	6.1	2	4.5	5	7.0	78	69.6	34	75.6	44	65.7

Table 36: Opinion(s) about feeling like a valued educator and security measures at work

| | I feel like a valued educator (M=1.92; SD=0.808) | | | | | | Security measures at my workplace are adequate (M=2.08; SD=0.818) | | | | | |
| | Total | | Private | | Public | | Total | | Private | | Public | |
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Strongly agree	38	32.2	21	45.7	17	23.6	28	24.3	15	33.3	13	18.6
Agree	56	47.5	21	45.7	35	48.6	56	48.7	22	48.9	34	48.6
Disagree	19	16.1	3	6.5	16	22.2	25	21.7	7	15.6	18	21.7
Strongly disagree	5	4.2	1	2.2	4	5.6	6	5.2	1	2.2	6	5.2

Table 37: Opinion(s) about substance abuse by colleagues and learners

	Substance abuse by colleagues is a problem (M=3.48; 0.824)						Substance abuse by learners is a problem (M=2.36; SD=1.000)					
	Total		Private		Public		Total		Private		Public	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Strongly agree	5	4.2	2	4.3	3	4.2	26	22.0	4	8.7	22	30.6
Agree	10	8.5	4	8.7	6	8.3	43	36.4	9	19.6	34	47.2
Disagree	26	22.0	8	17.4	18	25.0	30	25.4	17	37.0	13	18.1
Strongly disagree	77	65.3	32	69.6	45	62.5	19	16.1	16	34.8	3	4.2

Respondents from public schools (MR=50.89; n=43; 61.4%) more frequently responded 'strongly agree' or 'agree' to the statement that workplace violence is a serious problem, than did respondents from private schools (MR=70.08; n=13; 28.3%) (p=0.002; r=-0.28). Respondents from public schools (MR=60.90; n=30; 44.8%) were more likely to report 'disagree' to whether workplace violence is adequately recognised, than were private school respondents (MR=48.53; n=8; 18.2%) (p=0.030; r=-0.20). A statistical difference (p=0.040; r=-0.19) revealed that respondents from public schools (MR=60.03; n=25; 36.8%) were more likely to disagree with the statement "workplace violence is sufficiently addressed" than were respondents from private schools (MR=48.17; n=9; 21.4%).

Respondents from public schools (MR=65.07; n=20; 28.2%) were less satisfied with their jobs when compared to respondents from private schools (MR=46.59; n=2; 4.5%) (p=0.002; r=-0.28). Public school respondents (MR=66.49; n=16; 22.2%) were more inclined to disagree with the statement "I feel like a valued educator" than were private school respondents (MR=48.57; n=3; 6.5%) (p=0.003; r=-0.27). Similarly, respondents from public schools (MR=63.11; n=18; 21.7%) were more likely to disagree with the statement "security measures at my workplace are adequate" than were respondents from private schools (MR=50.04; n=7; 15.6%) (p=-0.027; r=-0.20). Public school respondents (MR=46.59; n=56; 77.8%) were more likely to report 'strongly agree' or 'agree' to the statement "substance abuse by learners is a problem" than respondents from private schools (MR=79.71; n= 13; 28.3%) (p=0.000; r=-0.49).

5.8. Summary

The above results reveal that there is a significant difference in private and public schools with regard to workplace violence against colleagues, personal experience, ways in which educators react to such incidents, the consequences of workplace violence, involvement in decision-making and supervision, and awareness in terms of policy, training and prevention. The data in the chapter were presented both as text and graphically in order to optimise understanding and easily point out similarities and differences. In the next chapter, the results will be discussed in more detail against the backdrop of the literature, existing evidence and the theoretical model.

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Chapter 6: Discussion and recommendations

6.1. Introduction

The final chapter will discuss the findings presented in Chapter 5. Noteworthy similarities and differences to previous research studies will be pointed out and interpreted against the backdrop of literature available on educator-targeted violence. Attempts will be made to reconcile any anomalies between the survey findings and existing evidence. Theoretical applications will be illustrated in the chapter, and recommendations made. The structure of the present chapter will broadly follow the themes set out as objectives of the study, namely to:

- Determine the nature and extent of workplace violence that educators face.
- Identify the effects and consequences of workplace violence on victims.
- Profile educators as victims of workplace violence with specific reference to gender, age and occupational level.
- Determine the presence and role of policies and educator participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence.

These objectives were formulated in pursuit of the aim of the study, which was to determine and compare educators' experiences of violence in public and private secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng. The aim and objectives were informed by a research strategy that amounted to a self-administered survey among 122 educators working at six schools in the Tshwane North, Tshwane West and Gauteng North districts.

6.2. Nature and extent of workplace violence against educators

The section below aims to provide a more comprehensive picture of the nature and extent of workplace violence against educators by referring to the phenomenon's characteristics and aetiology. In order to do so, the discussion refers to the reasons for, types of violence and perpetrators of violence, all of which shape the nature of violence against educators and contribute to the aetiology of the phenomenon.

6.2.1. Characteristics of violence against educators

The phenomenon of workplace violence against educators is partially composed of the type(s) of violence used to victimise educators, and the perpetrators of such violence. To provide a more informative picture of the nature and extent of workplace violence, the researcher draws on both elements. Workplace violence is said to be both physical and non-physical in nature, as indicated in definitions of the phenomenon (Kgosimore, 2005:210). As

evidenced by the survey results, both physical (13.1%) and non-physical violence (verbal violence (56.6%) and social violence (15.6%)) were reported. Therefore, the findings corroborate local research, where more than half the educators were victims of verbal violence and 12.4% were victims of physical violence (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:xii), as well as research from abroad, backing the experience of both physical (6.3%) and non-physical violence (e.g. emotional violence at 24.1% and verbal violence at 14.7%) experienced by educators (Ozdemir, 2012:51).

There were further similarities between the survey findings and other research regarding the prominence of non-physical violence over physical violence. The data show that educator-targeted violence appears to be more non-physical in nature (verbal violence at 56.6% and social violence at 15.6%), compared to physical violence (13.1%). These observations are supported by several local studies:

- The South African Council for Educators (SACE, 2011:9), which reported cases of learner-to-educator verbal abuse exceeding those of physical violence by 35% in 2011.
- Results by De Wet in 2007 (2007b:27) indicated more than double the prevalence of non-physical violence, compared to physical violence.
- Findings by Burton and Leoschut (2013:27), where educator victimisation through non-physical (i.e. verbal) violence was reported by more than half of the respondents, while only 12% reported physical violence.

The prominence of non-physical violence over physical violence indicated in the survey also substantiates insights from abroad. Studies conducted in Turkey (Ozdemir, 2012:51), Taiwan (Chen & Astor, 2009:5), Pennsylvania (Tiesman et al., 2013:67), Minnesota (Gerberich et al., 2011:297) and Luxembourg (Steffgen & Ewen, 2007:87) echo the experience of higher rates of non-physical violence (e.g. emotional and verbal violence) against educators, compared to physical violence.

Further verification in the study of the higher rates of non-physical violence compared to physical violence is found in incidents of personal victimisation and workplace violence against a co-worker. Personal victimisation most frequently reported by respondents included non-physical verbal violence by learner(s) (69.3%), parent(s) (46.7%), co-worker(s) (24.0%), stranger(s) (5.4%) and partner(s) (1.8%). Similarly, the most frequently reported victimisation against a co-worker was non-physical violence by learner(s) (63.3%), co-worker(s) (24.5%), (vice)-principal(s) (10.2%), parent(s) (26.5%), stranger(s) (2.0%) and partner(s) (4.1%). The aforementioned findings are in line with existing evidence that verbal violence is a common type of educator-targeted violence (De Wet, 2007b:27, 29-30; Kruger,

2011:92; De Wet, 2010b:195; Ozdemir, 2012:59). Taking into account the abovementioned outcomes, the researcher believes that although educators may experience both physical and non-physical violence in the workplace, non-physical violence appears to be the most common form of violence endured.

Working towards creating a profile for perpetrators of workplace violence against educators, the literature (De Wet, 2007b:15, 29-30; De Vos, 2013:88-90) indicates that educator-targeted violence can be committed by various perpetrators. Such insights are corroborated by the survey, as perpetrators of educator-targeted violence primarily include learners (Type II), parents (Type II), co-workers (Type III), and principals or vice-principals (Type III). In addition, such violence can also be committed (although to a limited extent) by strangers (Type I), partners (Type IV) and the organisation itself (Type III) (Kgosimore, 2005:212-213; De Wet, 2007b:15, 29-30). To illustrate the above, the researcher provides the two most frequently reported forms of violence transgressed by each perpetrator category:

- Victimisation by learner(s): Verbal violence (69.3%) and challenges to authority (53.3%).
- Victimisation by parent(s): Verbal violence (46.7%) and unfair blame (25.3%).
- Victimisation by co-worker(s): Verbal violence (24.0%) and humiliation (21.3%).
- Victimisation by principal(s)/vice-principal(s): unrealistic work expectations (17.3%) and unfair blame (12.0%).
- Victimisation by stranger(s): Verbal violence (4.0%) and cyber bullying (4.0%).
- Victimisation by partner(s): Isolation and exclusion (2.7%) and unfair blame (2.7%).
- Victimisation by organisation: Unrealistic work expectations (9.3%), denial of information and resources (1.3%), isolation and exclusion (1.3%), and denial of support (1.3%).

Even though no association was found with regard to the status of a school and victimisation by the organisation and partner(s), victimisation by such perpetrators was only reported by educators in public schools, which adds to the differences in experiences of violence across public and private sector divides. It must be kept in mind that organisational workplace violence results when an organisation knowingly places employees in harmful situations and allows violence to occur, as happens in high risk occupations such as with police officers and correctional service officers (Kgosimore, 2005:213-214).

Certain commonalities prevail between the survey and current literature with regard to the type(s) of violence used and perpetrator category. The survey highlights victimisation by learner(s) as also including vandalism (48.0%) and humiliation (29.3%). The findings therefore mirror similar observations in existing research, that also highlights vandalism (De Wet, 2007b:27; De Wet, 2010b:195; Ozdemir, 2012:59; SACE, 2011:6; Ncontsa & Shumba,

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2013:10) and humiliation (Chen and Astor, 2009:9) as common types of learner-on-educator violence. Affirming local findings in the Free State province (De Wet, 2007b:29), the survey likewise emphasises the reality of humiliation as a type of co-worker victimisation (25.3%), and unfair blame (12.0%) as a common form of principal-on-educator violence. Furthermore, comparable to local insights generated by Kruger (2011:94), unrealistic work expectations (17.3%), as a form of principal-on-educator violence, is similarly validated.

With regard to the effect of status of school and gender on the nature and extent of workplace violence against educators it must be pointed out that certain degrees of observed effect sizes were evident. In terms of the public/private divide, public school respondents were more likely to report physical violence (r=-0.26), verbal violence (r=-0.37), bullying (r=-0.21) and vandalism by learners (r=-0.31), compared to their private school counterparts. On the other hand, more than half of the private school respondents (62.5%) reported having experienced 'none' of the types of violence (physical, verbal, social, bullying and/or sexual violence), as opposed to 24.3% of public school respondents. With regards to gender, female educators were more likely to report personal bullying (r=-0.18), bullying by a learner (r=-0.38), verbal violence by a learner (r=-0.23) and unrealistic work expectations by principal(s) or vice-principal(s) (r=-0.25). The researcher believes that, primarily, the status of a school (public/private) and, to a lesser degree, the gender of the victim has a large effect on the frequency and nature of violence against educators (physical/non-physical violence).

As mentioned, both the types of violence used and the perpetrators of violent acts contribute to the nature and extent of workplace violence against educators. Educators unfortunately suffer both physical and non-physical violence, although the experience of non-physical violence, in particular verbal violence, outweighs that of physical violence. Educator-targeted violence can be committed by various perpetrators, although primarily by learners, parents, co-workers and principals or vice-principals. It is also clear that perpetrator categories can be associated with certain forms of violence. For example, the most common forms of violence used by learners may be different to those employed by principals or vice-principals. However, regardless of the perpetrator category, most violence transgressed against educators appears to be non-physical in nature (e.g. verbal violence in the case of perpetration by learners, parents, co-workers and strangers; unrealistic work expectations by principals or vice-principals and organisations; and isolation and exclusion by partners). Thus the status of the school and the gender of the victim appear to influence the nature (physical/non-physical) and extent of violence more so than the type of perpetrator. The above views are supported by a roughly medium effect size of statistical significance, in terms of higher rates of verbal violence by learners against female educators and higher

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rates of verbal violence, bullying and vandalism by learners against public school respondents (all non-physical in nature).

Noticeably, private school educators are less at risk of victimisation than public school educators, as a medium effect size indicates that private school educators are more likely to experience none of the forms of violence (i.e. physical, verbal, social, bullying and/or sexual violence). Furthermore, perpetration by organisation and partner(s) was only found amongst educators in public schools, therefore they are more at risk of organisational workplace violence and relationship workplace violence. The above findings point at inefficiencies relating to the governance and security of the school/workplace, prevention and intervention in schools, and involvement in decision-making regarding school issues, especially in public schools, which will be addressed again later in the chapter.

6.2.2. Risk of exposure and reasons for violence against educators

In addition to types of violence and perpetrators of such violence, exposure with regards to high risk times and places, and the presence of multiple contextual factors (i.e. reasons for violence against educators) can contribute to the extent of violence faced by educators, and will be discussed below.

In terms of the differential risk model, an increase in exposure to potential offenders increases the risk of victimisation (Fattah, 1991:343). The survey indicates that the majority of educators spend on average six to ten hours at school per day (95.8%), of which the majority (on average six to ten hours) is spent in class (73.9%), and one to five hours on extra-curricular activities (89.7%). Hence, the length of exposure is substantial. Moreover, the majority of respondents indicated that educators are most at risk during classes (79.3%), thus reaching similar conclusions to research conducted in Minnesota (Gerberich et al., 2011:297). It must be kept in mind that, according to research conducted in the Western Cape, bullying taking place within the classroom occurs due to learners' perception that the educator is ineffective in classroom management (Kruger, 2011:95).

The opportunity to victimise educators is however not only limited to school hours, but can also occur after hours (De Wet, 2010b:195). Outcomes of the survey are in line with the above literature, as nearly one in five respondents indicated being at risk after school (18.9%). The survey further exposed an association along the public/private divide, as respondents in private schools felt educators are more at risk after school (r=-0.38) and over weekends (r=-0.25), whereas public school respondents felt educators are most at risk during classes (r=-0.37). The researcher feels that this may point to the security measures within school grounds (or lack thereof), which will be referred to later in the chapter.

Unfortunately, the level of exposure is not the sole contributing factor to violence against educators. Evidence from abroad (Benbenishty & Astor, 2007:65; Steffgen & Ewen, 2007:89) emphasises the interrelated role of multiple contextual factors (society, neighbourhood, family, school and individual) in school violence and violence against educators. The survey backs the above insights, as respondents viewed the main causes of educator-targeted violence as the following:

- Ill-discipline (14.6%) and ineffective disciplinary rules (4.3%).
- Familial factors such as poor parenting or the lack thereof (12.0%).
- Individual factors, involving uncontrolled emotions (9.4%), substance abuse and physical or psychological disorders (8.2%), and stress and frustration (6.0%),
- School factors such as inadequate academic preparation (4.3%) and unprofessional conduct (3.4%).
- Social factors, including socio-economic conditions (4.3%) and social and moral decay (6.0%).

Towards an aetiology of educator-targeted violence, local researchers (De Wet, 2003:96-97; Burton & Leoschut, 2013:54) likewise highlighted the importance of internal factors (frustration), familial factors (insufficient parental involvement) and external factors (poor socio-economic conditions). The survey results are furthermore in line with the literature presented by Burton (2008b:4), Leoschut (2008:10) and Ncontsa and Shumba (2013:12), that identifies the role of drug availability, the importance of discipline management, and socio-economic conditions in managing school violence. The emphasis in the survey on school factors such as unprofessional conduct also mirrors De Wet's earlier insights (2007b:31) highlighting professional misconduct, corruption and misuse of power as common causes for educator-on-educator violence amongst Free State educators.

Ill-discipline (14.6%) is not only a contributing factor to violence against educators, but is also a consequence of violence in schools (De Wet, 2010a:1456). Such violence results in ineffective teaching, which makes it difficult for teachers to enforce disciplinary codes, fuelling further educator-targeted violence. Therefore, in the researcher's opinion, a cycle of violence develops at school. The presence of educator-targeted violence validates respondents' fear for their own safety, as they feel threatened (28.7%) – especially female (r=-0.23) and public school respondents (r=-0.28). The high perceptions of threat and fear consequently hamper educators' ability to take purposeful action against perpetrators (learners) (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:10), perpetuating further violence due to the ineffective application of discipline. The experience of concern for safety in the workplace is reinforced by similar findings in previous studies:

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- The South African Council for Educators (SACE, 2011:19) reported in 2011 that 58% of educators in secondary schools felt unsafe at their place of work.
- Findings by Burton and Leoschut (2013:102) indicate that one in three educators felt unsafe at school.

Educators' concern about safety in the working environment is further highlighted in literature presented locally by De Wet (2011:2), and literature from abroad by Wilson et al., (2011:2355). The observation of the survey echoes concerns within the public/private divide, as public school respondents were less likely to rate their workplace as safe (r=-0.29), and more likely to consider their workplace as high risk (r=-0.22). The higher rate of concern about safety amongst public school respondents is understandable, as these respondents also reported higher rates of physical violence (r=-0.26), verbal violence (r=-0.37), bullying (r=-0.21), and vandalism by learners (r=-0.31), as indicated earlier in the chapter.

As mentioned above, substance abuse among learner populations has been indicated as another driver of school violence (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:54; De Wet, 2003:96-97). A similar problematic reality can be seen in the social work profession, as substance abuse provokes violence and increases the likelihood of social workers being victimised in the field (Neuman, 2012:347). The survey supports these sentiments, as the greater proportion of respondents (58.4%) indicated that substance abuse by learners is a problem. The observation was raised more so by public school respondents (77.8%) compared to those from private schools (28.3%), with a strong effect size (r=-0.49). The study therefore reinforces the need for increased awareness of and education on drug addiction and substance abuse among learners (De Wet, 2003:93).

What can be deduced from the above is educators' vulnerability to various typologies of workplace violence, committed by various perpetrators. The fact that educators are subject to such violence at various times due to multiple, interrelated contributing factors (i.e. exposure, ill-discipline, familial factors, individual factors, school factors and social factors), exacerbates their fear and inability to enforce disciplinary codes, which fuels further violence and hampers teaching and learning. The above is particularly evident amongst public school educators and female educators, as both groups are more likely to feel threatened and fear for their personal safety, as evidenced by a predominantly medium effect size of statistical significance.

Public school educators are also more likely to experience higher rates of physical violence, verbal violence, bullying, and vandalism by learners – a possible result of the perceived higher rates of substance abuse by learners in public schools. Findings can be taken further

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by attributing the problematic nature of substance abuse in public schools to poor security measures (this sentiment will be substantiated in the section on policy and prevention).

Although the nature and extent of workplace violence is important, educators' reactions and the consequences of violence on victims must also be considered in order to gain a better understanding of workplace violence against educators. The researcher would like to point out to the reader that although gender and status of school are referred to throughout the chapter, these two contributing factors will be discussed in more depth when addressing the profile of educators as victims.

6.3. Effects and consequences of workplace violence on victims

The following section reflects firstly on the manner in which individuals respond to violence against educators by addressing the reasons for not reporting such incidents, before discussing the impact of workplace violence on victims. Significant associations in terms of gender and status of schools are pointed out throughout the discussion.

6.3.1. Reactions to and reasons for not reporting violent incidents

In the event of a violent incident, people react to the aggressor in different ways, and their response (influenced by social, demographic, psychological and other factors) can escalate or de-escalate the situation (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:187). Victims can therefore also contribute to workplace violence by the manner in which they engage and/or respond to others. Both provocative and submissive victims can elicit an aggressive response (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:43; Keashly & Harvey, 2006:104). Provocative victims, for example, may elicit aggressive behaviour due to a surplus of control and a sense of invincibility, thus affecting the manner in which they engage with others (Saponaro, 2013:26). The role of submissive victims will be discussed further in section 3.2.

Insights from the survey reiterate the different reactions amongst respondents to incidents of violence against educators. The majority of respondents reacted by reporting the event immediately (52.6%) and/or attempting to reprimand the perpetrator (52.6%), while others ignored it (44.7%), shouted at the perpetrator (23.7%), cried (23.7%), and/or laughed (11.8%). Small to medium degrees of significant effect sizes were evident regarding status of school, gender and the reactions of respondents. Respondents in public schools were more likely to react by shouting at the perpetrator (r=-0.26) and crying (r=-0.26), compared to their private school counterparts. All respondents who reacted by crying were female (r=-0.31). Due to the medium effect size (r=-0.31) the researcher attributes the latter finding to the stigma of male masculinity (i.e. men who report violent incidents and/or respond by crying

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are perceived as 'weak') as pointed out by De Vos (2013:33) in local research into teachers' experiences of workplace bullying and the resulting effects on their health.

Although 54.3% of respondents reported the incident immediately, a significant 38.6% did not report the violence they experienced, therefore adding education to the occupations where workplace violence often goes unreported (e.g. social work and the health care profession) (Respass & Payne, 2008:133). The under-reporting amongst social workers and health care professionals is often due to incidents of violence being seen as merely "part of the job" (Respass & Payne, 2008:133). In truth, even though the subtle nature of some bullying behaviours and the stigma often attached to men who report such behaviours contribute to the predicament of under-reporting (De Vos, 2013:33), there are numerous other reasons for not reporting violence in the workplace. Some of the common reasons provided for not reporting incidents of workplace violence illustrated in the survey were as follows:

- Didn't think anything would be done about it (30.3%).
- Handled it myself (81.8%).
- Feared personal consequences of reporting it (15.2%).

Respondents' notion that nothing would be done about the incident(s) can be related to a lack of confidence and mistrust in complaints procedures and policies. Many respondents in the 2012 National School Violence Study did not recognise the importance of reporting violence in the case of threat, assault and sexual assault, or feel that reporting would be beneficial in the case of robbery and theft (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:47). Medium effect sizes featured with regards to status of school, gender and the lack of confidence that the report would be taken further, as public school respondents (r=-0.39) and female respondents (r=-0.42) felt that nothing would be done about the incident(s) if it were reported. This belief is possibly a result of the limited awareness of reporting procedures amongst female respondents, and highlights the need for additional policies in public schools, which will be discussed in detail in the section on policy and prevention.

As indicated above, 15.2% of respondents reported 'fear' as a reason for not reporting incidents. Fear has similarly been a reason for not reporting workplace bullying (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:35), school violence (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:47) and workplace violence experienced by social workers (Respass and Payne, 2008:133). Where the incident was reported, the majority of respondents indicated that the perpetrator was reprimanded (56.0%), but it was only in public schools that the perpetrator was suspended (25.0%) (r=-0.0.28), asked to leave school grounds (11.1%) and/or reported to the police

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(19.4%). The researcher feels that the aforesaid findings may be a possible indication of the seriousness and extent of violence that took place, and the lack of efficient security measures in public schools.

In summary, education as a profession, similar to other occupations, suffers high rates of under-reporting with regard to workplace violence due to a lack of confidence and mistrust in complaints procedures and relevant policies, and fear. The consequences for the perpetrator(s) of violence against educators in public schools appear more severe than in private schools. The severity of the consequences for such perpetrators may be the result of the perceived severity of the violation. The severity of violations is not only signified by the higher rate of violence (physical, verbal and bullying) experienced in public schools, but also by the increased intensity of public school educators' reactions to the violent incidents. Whilst acknowledging the fact that individuals respond to aggressors in different ways, public school educators were inclined to react to incidents of workplace violence with more intensity, responding by crying and shouting at the perpetrator (indicated by weak to medium effect sizes). Such responses may point to the severity of the transgressions and the resulting effects of the incidents. The researcher will shed further light on the above notion by addressing the consequences of violence against educators.

6.3.2. Impact of violence against educators

Violence against educators affects victims personally and professionally (Gerberich et al., 2011:299; Wilson et al., 2011:2355), and, in terms of impact, shares common traits with workplace violence, workplace bullying and school violence. Personal adverse psychological consequences portrayed in the existing literature commonly include frustration (Gerberich et al., 2011:299), low self-confidence (Dhar, 2012:92), anxiety, (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:41), depression, stress (De Wet, 2010a:1456), and fear (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:77). Common physical effects that are stressed in local studies and research abroad include gastro-intestinal problems, nausea (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:42; De Vos, 2013:52), chronic fatigue, and musculoskeletal problems (Vie et al., 2011:37; De Vos, 2013:52). There are similarities between existing literature and the survey with regards to both psychological and physical effects, as the survey observations indicate similar effects in the case of educator-targeted violence. Consequences reported in the survey are both psychological and physical in nature, as demonstrated below:

- Psychological effects reported include frustration (78.4%), stress (56.8%), sadness (40.5%), low self-confidence (33.8%), anxiety (32.4%), cynicism (17.6%), and fear (16.2%).

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- Physical effects of violence against educators stood at 27.0%.

Similarities further appear in terms of professional consequences, as the existing literature highlights low commitment and/or motivation (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:76), a decrease in morale (Fisher-Blando, 2010:48), detachment (Rayner & Cooper, 2006:137), high levels of turnover, absenteeism (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:76), and low job performance (Schat & Kelloway, 2003:111) as common professional consequences. Outcomes from the survey are in line with the above, as respondents reported the following professional consequences:

- Detachment/alienation (19.2%) and low organisational commitment (15.1%).
- Low job satisfaction (50.7%), withdrawal (30.1%), burnout (23.3%) and poor concentration (21.9%) exceeded the above outcomes.

Contrary to the above, however, the survey indicates that a fair number of respondents (32.9%) did not experience professional consequences in the event of a violent incident. Weak to medium effect sizes indicate that public school respondents were more likely to report certain personal effects (sadness (r=-0.37)), physical effects (r=-0.23), and professional effects (withdrawal (r=-0.26) and low job satisfaction (r=-0.25)), than their private school counterparts. Similar to the difference in status of school, gender differences prevailed, as female respondents were more likely to report feeling cynical (r=-0.26) and experiencing burnout (r=-0.23) than male respondents. The researcher attributes the higher rate of certain personal and professional consequences amongst public school respondents and female respondents to the fact that both groups were more likely to feel that no further action would be taken if the incident(s) were reported. Their diminished hope and confidence that the incident(s) would be constructively addressed therefore exacerbated the adverse effects experienced.

Roughly half of the respondents (50.7%) experienced low levels of job satisfaction as a professional consequence of violence in the workplace. The provision of adequate support could help improve job satisfaction, thereby decreasing the likelihood of aggressive behaviour and improving employee well-being and relationships (Brough, 2009:146). However, according to the survey, support provided to respondents was limited, as only 28.0% of the respondents indicated receiving support after reporting violent incidents. In addition, more support was given to male respondents (50.0%) than to female respondents (19.4%) (r=-0.30). In the researcher's opinion, the low levels of support given, especially to female respondents, thus account for the low levels of job satisfaction. As educators who are exposed to violence also experience less supportive interpersonal relationships (Steffgen & Ewen, 2007:82), violence leads to decreased support and in turn to decreased job

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satisfaction, affecting educators' well-being and relationships and thus leading to a further decrease in support. A cycle of victimisation is therefore noticeable.

Furthermore, adequate supervisory and co-worker support has the potential to prevent psychological strain (Brough et al., 2009:148). Local researchers and studies from abroad point out that victims who have been exposed to, or are suffering from, psychological problems, invite aggressive behaviour. Their anxious nature enhances their sensitivity to aggressive workplace behaviours, consequently resulting in additional psychological problems (De Vos, 2013:30-31; Zapf & Einarsen, 2011:189). Hence, the researcher feels that, as the consequence of workplace violence against educators is psychological in nature, a hypothesis can be made that the resulting psychological effects will fuel further violence against the educator (victim).

Victims of workplace violence are also described as unassertive, submissive, suffering low self-confidence and conflict averse (De Wet, 2010a:1456; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:33); confirming similar observations of the submissive nature of individuals with a control deficit (Saponaro, 2013:26). The researcher believes that, as insights from the survey highlight that low self-confidence is a common adverse personal effect (33.8%), and that respondents need assertiveness training (63.3%), the observation can be made that in some cases victims of workplace violence are submissive and unassertive, and thus suffer a control deficit and engage in conflict aversive behaviours. This may result in adaptations to victims' behaviours and activities, which affect their risk of victimisation.

Evidently the impact of violence against educators can be psychological and physical in nature, resulting in personal and professional consequences. The most common effects of workplace violence against educators include frustration (personal effect) and low job satisfaction (a professional consequence attributed to low levels of support). In terms of the public/private divide, noticeable in weak to medium effect sizes, public school educators are more likely to experience sadness (r=-0.37), physical effects (r=-0.23), withdrawal (r=-0.26) and low job satisfaction (r=-0.25). As explained in the section covering reactions to and reasons for not reporting violence in the workplace, public school educators sometimes react to violent incidents with greater intensity, perhaps due to the severity of the incidents. Also, the effects of violence experienced by public school educators in some cases exceed those experienced by private school educators.

Keeping in mind that support can decrease the chances of burnout and elevate job satisfaction (Neuman, 2012:3621), female educators experience high rates of cynicism and burnout – a consequence of the low levels of support they receive. Certain cycles of violence are triggered, as the impact of violence against educators (i.e. the psychological problems

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and submissive nature of victims, resulting from a control deficit) is often a contributor to further violence. As gender and the status of a school appear to influence the nature, extent, outcome and impact of violence against educators, deducible from the above, the researcher now draws attention to the profile of educators as victims of workplace violence.

6.4. Profile of educators as victims of workplace violence

In 2012, female educators in South Africa comprised 294 144 of a total of 425 167 educators in South Africa, thus 69.2% of the educator workforce (Department of Basic Education, 2015:20). The survey validates the above statistics, as the majority of respondents (72.1%) participating in the survey were female, indicative of the large number of females who have entered the education job market. Gender-based violence is prevalent in the school environment (De Wet, 2007b:33). Although significant gendered experiences are pointed out throughout the chapter, some of the results that further affirm the contributing role of gender in victimisation include the following:

Female respondents:

- Feel threatened in the workplace more often (r=-0.23),
- Are more aware of a co-worker who experienced bullying by a learner (r=-0.38),
- Experience more personal bullying (r=-0.18),
- Are more likely to experience verbal violence by a learner (r=-0.23), and
- Have a greater chance of experiencing unrealistic work expectations by principal(s) or vice-principal(s) (r=-0.25).

The results hence corroborate the outcomes of Gerberich et al. (2011:299-300), and Wei et al. (2013:81), who stated that female educators are at risk of both physical and non-physical violence, based on their work among educators in Minnesota. Similarly, the findings confirm insights abroad (Ozdemir, 2012:51; Maguire, 2001:101) that highlight the greater risk of non-physical violence against female educators. Local studies (De Vos, 2013:120) make similar observations with regards to workplace bullying. However, contradictions emerge between the survey results and several other studies:

- Cunniff and Mostert (2012:10) state that, in South Africa, men are at greater risk of workplace bullying.
- Steinman (2003:28) and Pietersen (2007:63) found no statistical difference in terms of gender related to workplace violence in the health sector and interpersonal bullying in the workplace.

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The contradictions in findings can be ascribed to various reasons: the reluctance of males to report bullying as a result of the stigma of male masculinity (De Vos, 2013:33), the subtle nature of bullying behaviour, and an unwillingness to report bullying due to the nature of the organisation and the position of the bully in the organisation (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:34, 36).

In addition to gender, research conducted on Minnesota educators in the USA (Wei et al., 2013:75-76; Gerberich et al., 2011:294) has demonstrated that the status of a school (i.e. private or public school) can also act as a possible risk factor for violence against educators. The notion that school status affects the risk of victimisation further appears in findings portrayed by Zhang et al. (2016:38), also in the USA, indicating that roughly double the number of public school respondents experienced threat of injury and physical assault, compared to private school respondents. The above views are backed by numerous outcomes in the survey:

- In terms of risk, public school respondents were more likely to experience their school as high risk (r=-0.22).
- Public school respondents were also more likely to report having felt threatened (r=-0.28) and powerless (r=-0.36), compared to their private school counterparts.
- As indicated earlier, public school respondents were more likely to report numerous forms of violence (physical (r=-0.26), verbal (r=-0.37), bullying (r=-0.21) and vandalism by learners (r=-0.31)), compared to private school respondents.
- Respondents in public schools (31.7%) categorised being victimised by overcrowding 'very often', 'often' or 'seldom', more so than private school respondents (13.1%) (r=-0.30).

The aforementioned insights not only highlight public school educators' higher risk of victimisation in the form of violent acts against educators, but also point to their higher risk of victimisation in the form of poor infrastructure (i.e. overcrowding), which is linked to the status of the school. The findings thus confirm other local research (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:12) and studies from abroad (Baron, 2004:41, 44) with regard to overcrowding and workplace aggression. Overcrowding is also highlighted as a critical issue in the public school sector due to an increase in the number of learners and educators in such schools between the years 2009 and 2012 against a decrease in the number of schools (Department of Basic Education, 2015:14).

Similar to status of school, marital status may also act as a risk factor. Findings from abroad (Wei et al., 2013:75-76; Gerberich et al., 2011:294) have indicated that unmarried educators

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are considered at greater risk of victimisation. Public school respondents in the survey were more likely to be single (r=-0.19) and more likely to report numerous forms of violence (physical, verbal, bullying and vandalism by learners). Inferences drawn from the survey therefore underscore marital status (i.e. being single) correlating with educators experiencing a higher rate of victimisation in the workplace.

In compiling a profile of educators as victims of workplace violence, the researcher draws attention to the fact that attractiveness of a target can be elevated by physical proximity (Sias, 2009:151) and face-to-face communication (Dietz & Gill, 2006:150). As mentioned, the average time spent at school by the majority of respondents (95.8%) was six to ten hours, a substantial exposure time that may have resulted in extensive contact and associations formed, consequently affecting (i.e. increasing) the rate of victimisation amongst respondents. The impact of exposure on the rate of victimisation will be further discussed in the theoretical application.

Educational achievements pose a further risk factor that appears to affect the rate of victimisation and contributes to educators as victims of workplace violence. Evidence from abroad indicates that a higher rate of physical assault is found amongst educators with higher levels of education (i.e. those who have obtained a doctorate degree) (Wei et al., 2013:75-76, 80). Similarly, Fisher-Blando (2010:44) portrays victims of workplace bullying as high achievers and emotionally intelligent. Contrary to the aforesaid findings, insights from the survey indicate that private school respondents – who were more likely to have obtained a postgraduate qualification (r=-0.25) – were more likely to have experienced none of the forms of violence (physical, verbal, social, bullying and/or sexual violence) (r=-0.26). The researcher attributes the contradictory evidence by referring to the fact that individuals higher up in social structures are less likely to engage in high risk activities, and are therefore at lower risk of victimisation (Williams & McShane, 2010:181). Private school educators' higher educational qualifications result in fewer structural constraints and their role expectations are therefore altered, increasing their position in social structures and consequently lowering their risk of victimisation.

Noticeable from the above are the numerous similarities and anomalies between existing literature and the present survey with regard to the profile of educators as victims of workplace violence. Evidently, certain risk factors (e.g. gender, status of school, marital status, time spent in the workplace and educational achievement) do exist and play an important role in relation to educator victimisation. Educators at higher risk of workplace violence appear to be female (who are at risk of both physical and non-physical violence), educators working in public schools, unmarried educators, educators who have spent an

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extensive period of time in the workplace, and those with lower educational achievements. Due to the contradictions concerning certain risk factors (i.e. level of education), the researcher feels that each of the risk factors carry a certain 'weight' that needs to be acknowledged and kept in mind. Risk factors such as gender and status of school further impact educator participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence, and will be discussed in more detail in the section below.

6.5. Policies and participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence

The following section looks at educator participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence within the context of decision-making and supervision. Educators' level of involvement and participation in school-related issues will be addressed, with specific reference to issues regarding workplace violence. In addition, outcomes regarding policy and prevention are also discussed and further interpreted.

6.5.1. Decision-making and supervision

Leadership draws on a combination of personal characteristics and situational elements. The reader must keep in mind that leadership and governance are integral to the organisation (i.e. the school), and facilitate how it functions in terms of power, control, autonomy, participation in decision-making, and the enforcement of policies. Power disparity, for example, features as one of the key characteristics of workplace bullying, for instance when a victim is pushed into an inferior position with limited or no power (Zapf et al., 2011:76). In the survey, various key findings point towards a disparity in power, in addition to differences in terms of control, autonomy, participation in decision-making and the enforcement of policies between respondents. Such disparity is influenced by both gender and status of school, as will be discussed below.

As mentioned in the literature review, a lack of control acts as a contributing factor to violence in the workplace (Brough et al., 2009:146; Notelaers et al., 2010:499). Factors that mediate an individual's sense of control are effective execution of power, autonomy and participation in decision-making (Notelaers et al., 2010:489; Peiró & Meliá, 2003:15). Therefore, as an individual's sense of power, autonomy and decision-making authority decreases, a resulting deficit in control can be expected, contributing to violence in the workplace. The following outcomes of the survey highlight the struggles of female respondents and public school respondents in particular with regards to power, control, autonomy and level of involvement/participation in decision-making.

In terms of gender:

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- As mentioned, female respondents (r=-0.25) were more likely to experience unrealistic work expectations by principal(s) or vice-principal(s) (i.e. power disparity in the form of bullying).
- 70.1% of respondents indicating that they were subject educators were female, whereas 48.6% of respondents occupying managerial positions were male, thus affording male respondents more power.
- Male respondents (63.7%) rated their level of involvement in decision-making regarding school issues as 'exceptionally good' or 'good', whereas female respondents had 'average' to 'severely restricted' involvement (51.5%) (r=-0.22).
- Additionally, male respondents (58.8%) reported having a say in how to deal with information received regarding workplace violence 'very often' or 'often' more frequently than did their female counterparts (29.4%) (r=-0.28).

In the researcher's opinion, male respondents have greater power, control, participation in decision-making and overall influence than female respondents. The researcher attributes the above outcomes to the fact that male respondents are more likely to occupy managerial positions (upper management), thus affording them more power and decision-making authority. Keeping in mind that employment status can impact aggression in the workplace, in particular bullying, due to the power imbalance present (Tucker & Loughlin, 2006:426, 428), the above sentiment is further backed by survey findings. For instance, upper management (principal(s) and vice principal(s)) were found to 'very often' have a say in how to deal with information received regarding workplace violence, whereas subject teachers and assistant teachers reported to 'never' (p<0.001) have a say in the matter. Survey observations thus indicate that the level of educator participation in managing and preventing violence against educators was higher amongst those individuals (predominantly male respondents) who held formal power.

Levels of involvement in decision-making can furthermore be related to leadership style, such as autocratic leadership (Hoel et al., 2010:456-45). It is important to note that existing literature points to autocratic leadership (abusive supervision) as a cause of violence against educators (De Wet, 2007b:22). Effective transformational leadership, on the other hand, requires inspirational motivation (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:620). The survey stresses the above notions within the context of gender difference. Although respondents cited mutual inspiration as occurring 'often' between educators and managers (36.4%), male respondents (87.9%) tended to report such inspiration more often than females (60.2%) (r=-0.21). The researcher attributes the above observation to male respondents being more likely to occupy managerial roles (i.e. leadership), therefore receiving more inspirational motivation.

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Furthermore, female respondents were more likely to report feeling victimised 'very often' as a result of inadequate implementation of routine procedures (*r*=-0.20) and work overload (r=-0.23). It should be kept in mind that excessive workload, work intensification (Djurkovic et al., 2008:408) and uncertainty may cause distress and aggressive behaviour in the workplace, especially if leadership is poor and manifests in abusive supervision (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006:619). The researcher believes that this situation might account for the higher feelings of threat (*r*=-0.23) and burnout (*r*=-0.23) amongst female respondents.

The reader is reminded at this point that, in addition to routine activities acting as a risk factor for victimisation, the inadequate implementation of routine procedures (higher amongst female respondents (*r*=-0.20)) could also contribute to a risk of victimisation. The absence of routine procedures can cause uncertainty, which can lead to conflict in the workplace, particularly when ineffective leadership is present (Notelaers et al., 2010:499). Taking into account that male respondents were more likely to occupy managerial positions (increasing their level of involvement and decision-making authority), the above outcomes of the survey indicate not only the struggles and inferior position of female educators in the workplace, affording them less power and control, but also the less effective leadership of predominantly male educators, who are more likely to occupy higher positions of authority.

Similar to differences in terms of gender, significant associations were also found with regards to power, level of involvement in decision-making and victimisation within the public/private divide, as indicated by the following findings:

- Respondents in private schools (68.8%) rated their level of involvement in decision-making regarding school issues as 'exceptionally good' or 'good', whereas respondents in public schools (57.5%) were more likely to rate their level of involvement as 'average' to 'severely restricted' (*r*=-0.24).
- Private school respondents (51.1%) were found to have a say in the functioning and strategic planning of the school as 'very often' or 'often', more so than public school respondents (31.5%) (*r*=-0.28).
- Private school respondents (69.6%) categorised their say in supervision and control of the school as 'very often', 'often' or 'sometimes', more so than public school respondents (14.9%) (*r*=-0.29).
- Public school respondents felt victimised by unequal treatment more so than their private school counterparts (*r*=-0.25).
- Respondents in public schools were more likely to feel victimised 'very often' or 'often' by favouritism (*r*=-0.20).

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- Public school respondents (*r*=-0.22) were more likely to report feeling victimised 'often' by not being heard.
- Respondents in public schools were more likely to 'seldom' or 'never' have a say in the relationship between themselves and upper management (*r*=-0.29).
- Of the 33 respondents who felt powerless in the workplace, the bulk (39.7%) were from public schools (*r*=-0.36).

The above findings point to a greater level of involvement (i.e. a voice) and control amongst private school educators when compared to their public school counterparts. In the researcher's opinion, as public school respondents experienced lower levels of involvement and decision-making authority (i.e. deficiency in control), it is understandable that they are likely to perceive having limited power (*r*=-0.36) and that their schools are high risk (*r*=-0.22). Such perceptions are further justified by, and even account for, the higher rates of violence (physical violence (*r*=-0.26), verbal violence (*r*=-0.37), bullying (*r*=-0.21) and vandalism by learners (*r*=-0.31)) experienced by public school respondents. A cycle of victimisation is again noted in terms of participation in decision-making and workplace violence. A lack of decision-making authority can result in powerlessness and a control deficit, whilst increasing frustration and conflict in the workplace (Notelaers et al., 2010:499). Workplace conflict also has the adverse effect of powerlessness (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011:77), thus fuelling further violence in the workplace.

What can be understood from the above is that gender and school status play a mediating role in how much power, control, autonomy and level of involvement in decision-making an educator has. Female educators (especially subject educators) are placed in an inferior position and exposed to more bullying than male educators. In addition, female educators have a limited 'voice' in the daily operations of a school and the processing of information regarding workplace violence. Similarly, public school educators have a more constricted 'voice' with regards to decision-making, functioning and strategic planning, and supervision and control than do private school educators. More so, public school educators also suffer higher rates of victimisation in terms of unequal treatment and favouritism, contributing to lower levels of power, control and autonomy. In order to further discuss educator participation in the management and prevention of educator-targeted violence, the researcher refers to policies and prevention strategies, absent or present, as illustrated in the survey.

6.5.2. Policies and prevention of educator-targeted violence

It is expected that educators will participate at a certain level in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence, as this serves to decrease the risk of violence in schools. However, the availability of such strategies is in some instances hampered by a lack of awareness and optimal implementation, as will be pointed out in the discussion below. Evidently, the risk of violence in schools can be reduced in various ways, including the distribution of materials on violence, the promotion of awareness regarding violence against educators, effective reporting and debriefing mechanisms, involvement in decision-making (Kajs et al., 2014:94-95), and training. Nearly a third of respondents (31.9%) corroborated De Wet's (2010b:195) emphasis on the seriousness of workplace violence. Half of respondents (51.4%) reported that workplace violence is adequately recognised, and 48.2% felt that the phenomenon is sufficiently addressed. Discrepancies were however visible in terms of the public/private divide.

The opinions of public school respondents with regard to the workplace and workplace violence in their respective schools were more negative than those of their private school counterparts – and rightly so, as indicated by the following observations:

- Public school respondents' strength of agreement (61.4%) concerning the problematic nature of workplace violence exceeded that of private school respondents (28.3%) (r=-0.28).
- Respondents in public schools were more likely to answer 'disagree' when asked whether workplace violence is adequately recognised (r=-0.20).
- Public school respondents were more likely to disagree that workplace violence is sufficiently addressed (r=-0.19).

Keeping the abovementioned outcomes in mind, it is understandable that public school respondents' perceptions of threat at school (r=-0.28), high risk (r=-0.22) and powerlessness (r=-0.36) exceeded those of private school respondents. The researcher believes that the findings mentioned above can account for the higher occurrence of numerous forms of violence (physical violence (r=-0.26), verbal violence (r=-0.37), bullying (r=-0.21) and vandalism by learners (r=-0.31)) in public schools, as workplace violence was not recognised and addressed to the fullest extent.

As mentioned earlier, workplace violence often goes unreported. Reasons for underreporting include the subtle nature of certain aggressive behaviours, as well as a lack of policy, embarrassment, and/or a lack of awareness. Awareness of policies and rights in the workplace is essential in order for the victim to be proactive and participate in addressing a

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violent incident effectively, and follow the correct investigative and complaints procedures (Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011:126-127). In order for reporting to take place, accessible reporting mechanisms need to be in place, not only for learners, but also for educators (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:103). An increased awareness of how to report incidents has the potential to decrease the risk of violence (e.g. physical assault) (Feda et al., 2010:461), and increase an educator's ability to prevent further incidents.

Evident from the views above is the importance of awareness of policies, information and reporting procedures relating to workplace violence in order to address and prevent it. In some workplace settings, however, awareness of policies and information regarding workplace violence may be lacking, as is the case in some of the schools surveyed. Although roughly half of the respondents (58.7%) were aware of procedures for reporting violent incidents against educators, the following survey insights point to a limited awareness in terms of policies and information regarding workplace violence:

- The majority of respondents (72.1%) have not been provided with material(s) related to workplace violence against educators.
- More than half of the respondents (57.9%) were unaware of policies regarding workplace violence.
- Those who were aware of policies (40.4%) referred largely to learner conduct and disciplinary policies (50.0%), safety and security policies (36.1%), and staff policies (25.0%).

Awareness of procedures for reporting violence against educators (r=-0.17) was found mainly amongst male respondents, as was support of the effectiveness of policies regarding workplace violence (r=-0.29). The researcher is cautious to report the aforementioned findings as she contributes the correlation to the greater likelihood of male respondents occupying managerial positions, which may have elevated their awareness of procedures and policies and their perceived effectiveness. Even though a clearly enforced disciplinary code is vital (De Wet, 2007a:80), and the establishment of both proactive and reactive policies is key (Kajs et al., 2014:94), awareness of policies related to workplace violence and the provision of materials addressing workplace violence are essential, and should not be considered trivial when compared to other policies.

It is important to bear in mind that interventions and policies need to be moulded to the needs of each respective workplace (i.e. school), and be continuously evaluated and further developed (Vartia & Leka, 2011:372-373). In some instances, additional policies are required, as corroborated in the survey. Survey insights highlight that more than half the

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respondents (66.2%) expressed a need for further policies regarding workplace violence. Policies most frequently stressed as needed by public and private school respondents combined included policies dealing with parents' involvement in school violence (72.9%), zero tolerance policies (71.9%), and policies regarding consequences for perpetrators (71.9%). The need for additional policies was also emphasised within the public/private divide, as such a need was highlighted more by public school respondents (r=-0.25). These results could possibly be attributed to the higher rates of certain forms of violence (physical violence (r=-0.26), verbal violence (r=-0.37), bullying (r=-0.21) and vandalism by learners (r=-0.31)) experienced by public school respondents and as a result feeling greater threat (r=-0.28), as discussed earlier in the chapter.

Further methods of prevention, in addition to increasing awareness and the establishment of policy, include the provision of adequate and continuous training. In order to alleviate the occurrence of violence in the workplace and its resulting consequences, training and educational activities can be used to facilitate stress, conflict management, coping strategies and awareness. Training can also have a beneficial impact on an individual's perception of control, especially if s/he experiences violence in the workplace (Kelley & Mullen, 2006:502). Observations made in the survey regarding training give reason for concern, as 91.0% of respondents reported not having received any training in workplace violence, while more than half (51.3%) emphasised the need for additional training. Training most required, as reported in the survey, included:

- Defusing of a violent incident (86.7%).
- Prevention (85.0%).
- Coping skills (75.0%).
- Educator-learner relationships (71.2%).

In terms of gender, females were less likely to have received training (r=-0.18) and more likely to report a need for assertiveness training (r=-0.32), compared to their male counterparts. In the researcher's view, the abovementioned findings can again be ascribed to the higher managerial positions of male respondents (r=-0.23), and thus a greater likelihood that they received training. The researcher would also like to remind the reader that victims of workplace violence are often unassertive (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009:33), a trait common in individuals who have a deficit in control. Female respondents' need for assertiveness training accounts for their higher rates of feelings of threat (r=-0.23), and their experiences of various forms of violence (personal bullying (r=-0.18), verbal violence by a learner (r=-0.23), unrealistic work expectations by principal(s)/vice-principal(s) (r=-0.25)), as they are less equipped (in terms of training) to effectively deal with violence in the workplace.

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The risk of educator victimisation can furthermore be lowered by implementing adequate security features as a preventative measure. Security features at a school protect both learners and educators. A school's setting, and the permeability of its boundaries, can act as contributing factors to violence in that school. Inadequate school security can result in a porous boundary, increasing the possibility of both external (e.g. communal factors) and internal threats that might lead to violence in the school (De Wet, 2003:91; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013:12). Such inadequacies run the risk of making an organisation (e.g. school) more attractive to perpetrators by increased physical proximity (Sias, 2009:151), easy accessibility, boundary permeability, low protection and face-to-face communication (as the majority of non-physical violent incidents occur during face-to-face interactions) (Dietz & Gill, 2006:342-343, 150).

Keeping in mind that an employee's perception of personal safety is a contributing factor to job satisfaction (Sirgy, 2012:52), it is understandable that respondents in public schools who not only felt less valued as educators (r=-0.27) but were also more likely to disagree with the statement "security measures at my workplace are adequate" (r=-0.20), were in fact less satisfied with their jobs (r=-0.28). It is the researcher's opinion that the problems relating to effective security measures, as pointed out by respondents, offer further insight and explanation to a number of the aforementioned findings. A summary of these findings is warranted:

- The higher rates of numerous forms of violence (physical violence (r=-0.26), verbal violence (r=-0.37), bullying (r=-0.21) and vandalism by learners (r=-0.31)) reported in public schools.
- The greater severity in personal consequences (sadness $(r$=-0.37), physical effects (r=-0.23)) and professional consequences (withdrawal (r=-0.26), low job satisfaction (r=-0.25)) amongst public school respondents as a result of violence experienced, possibly due to inefficient security.
- The greater likelihood of private school respondents having experienced none of the forms of violence (physical, verbal, social, bullying and sexual violence) (r=-0.38), as their security measures were probably more effective.
- A higher likelihood that public school respondents feel threatened (r=-0.28), at high risk (r=-0.22) and powerless (r=-0.36), possibly due to inadequate security.
- The severity of the outcome when violent incidents are reported, as perpetrators were only suspended in public schools (r=-0.28). It was also only in public schools that the perpetrator was reported to the police and/or asked to leave the school grounds. The

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severity of the outcomes points to the possibility that the severity of offences was greater as a result of limited or inadequate security measures in public schools.

It would seem that even though educators acknowledge workplace violence as a serious problem, it is not always sufficiently recognised and adequately addressed, especially in public schools. The fact that the phenomenon is not efficiently addressed may be attributed to a reluctance to admit to violence in schools, as pointed out by De Wet (2003:90) in a local study, but this reluctance has adverse effects on educators' awareness of policies regarding workplace violence, making the need that was expressed for additional policies more understandable. More so, regardless of the prevention and intervention strategies available, optimal awareness and use of such strategies in the workplace (i.e. school) is limited. Educators, in particular public school educators, do not appear to be sufficiently protected in terms of security measures taken by the workplace. In addition, educators lack information regarding workplace violence, and female educators especially need training in and awareness about reporting procedures. The discrepancies in awareness, support of efficient policies and lack of training in terms of gender are attributed to the fact that male educators (who predominantly fill managerial positions) are more aware of policies regarding workplace violence and reporting procedures than are female educators (who are predominantly subject educators). Consequently, in the eyes of upper management, policy formation and training with regards to workplace violence is considered sufficient, even when it is not.

The lack of training leaves educators vulnerable, unassertive and submissive, thus affecting their perceptions of control, power, autonomy and decision-making ability, which will be further discussed in the theoretical application. Regardless of the fact that prevention and intervention strategies may be available, educators (in particular female educators and public school educators) are not adequately aware and fully resourced to employ such strategies and promote school safety, therefore their participation in managing and preventing workplace violence is restricted.

To conclude, it is understood from the above discussions that there are multiple similarities between the survey and observations in existing literature, both locally and from abroad. The survey, however, does point out certain anomalies, and delves deeper into the nature and extent of workplace violence faced by educators, the effects and consequences of workplace violence on victims, and the profile of educators as victims of workplace violence. Furthermore, the presence and role of policies and educator participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence, whilst addressing the differences in terms of status of school (private vs. public) and gender are also explored and discussed. In order to further

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provide a more comprehensive interpretation of the findings, the researcher draws on the integrated theoretical model presented in Chapter 3.

6.6. Theoretical application

According to the integrated model proposed in Chapter 3, demographic characteristics (e.g. gender, status of school) can influence role expectations and structural constraints, which in turn affect the adaptations made and the resulting routine activities that people engage in. Keeping in line with the model, insights from the survey indicate that certain demographic features (i.e. being female, working in a public school, being single and having lower educational achievements) can contribute to an individual being more likely to be victimised in the workplace, as those features affect other mediating factors (e.g. role expectations, structural constraints, routine activities, exposure etc.). The large number of female respondents (72.1%) can, for example, be explained by the increase in women entering the workforce as educators and in other professions, thus leading to a change in expectations of their role, and to a shift in structural constraints. As women are no longer staying at home, their risk of victimisation is said to have increased. The aforementioned sentiment provides a possible explanation for why women are so likely to experience multiple forms of violence (personal bullying (r=-0.38), verbal violence by learner(s) (r=-0.23) and unrealistic work expectations by principal(s) or vice-principal(s) (r=-0.25)). The ever-present impact of gender (female educators being at greater risk) and status of school (public school educators being at greater risk) as demographic factors on the risk of victimisation will become clear in the application below.

The integrated model suggests that an individual's role and the related structural constraints may also mediate the amount of power that an individual has. Just to remind the reader, effective execution of power, autonomy and participation in decision-making mediate an individual's sense of control (Notelaers et al., 2010:489; Peiró & Meliá, 2003:15); thus, a deficit in either can contribute to a deficit in control, and fuel violence in the workplace. According to the integrated model, the imbalance in control may well shift an individual's perception of his or her risk of victimisation, leading to the execution of certain defensive or avoidance behaviours while engaging in routine activities, causing a change in his or her level of exposure.

The fact that female (r=-0.22) and public school (r=-0.24) respondents reported 'average' to 'severely restricted' levels of involvement in decision-making regarding school issues, compared to 'exceptionally good' or 'good' levels reported by male and private school respondents, points to their deficit in control. Findings that further highlight their control deficit are the higher likelihood of female respondents being subject teachers and male

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respondents holding managerial positions (r=-0.23), thus affording male respondents more power; the fact that female respondents experience unrealistic work expectations by principal(s) or vice principal(s) (a form of bullying) more often; and their limited say in how to deal with information regarding workplace violence (r=-0.28). Similarly, public school respondents also felt more powerless in the workplace (r=-0.36); had a limited say in the functioning and strategic planning of the school (r=-0.28) and the supervision and control of the school (r=-0.29); and more often felt victimised by not being heard (r=-0.29).

In light of the above it is argued that female and public school respondents in particular suffer a control deficit (whether intentional or not) and emit a certain sense of 'weakness', which has the potential to increase their risk of victimisation. Due to their deficit in control they may be submissive – female respondents in particular highlighted a need for assertiveness training (r=-0.32) – and lack the skills necessary to successfully engage in defensive behaviours. They therefore struggle to stand up to those with a control surplus. Their control imbalance (i.e. a control deficit in the case of female and public school respondents) furthermore affects their routine activities and behaviour in the workplace, causing a shift in their level of exposure as it increases their vulnerability to victimisation.

Before further applying the integrated model in terms of exposure, the researcher would like to point out that an individual's perception of control and power can potentially be altered through training (Kelley & Mullen, 2006:502), thus preventing further risk of victimisation. Training can increase one's perception of control by preventing a control imbalance, or at least by sustaining a balance in the control ratio. More than half of the respondents (51.3%) indicated a need for training, thereby partially accounting for the sense of powerlessness amongst more than a quarter (27.2%) of the respondents, especially public school respondents (r=-0.36). An increase in training (e.g. on how to diffuse a violent incident) may therefore have a positive effect on an individual's control ratio. Training has the potential to provide educators with the necessary skills to engage in defensive or avoidance behaviours, react in a constructive manner, and ultimately lower their risk of victimisation.

Returning to exposure as a risk factor for violence against educators, it is evident from the model that exposure is also mediated by lifestyle, associations and contact with or proximity to motivated offenders. An individual's occupation as an educator is a vocational role that is a non-household, non-family activity, with the potential to increase exposure to victimisation. As an educator (victim), individuals are exposed to various (possibly high risk) situations, and to a large number of individuals (colleagues, learners, parents, strangers etc.) with whom they must interact in face-to-face communication, thus potentially increasing their risk of victimisation. The abovementioned interactions may influence the associations they make

and their contact with or proximity to motivated offenders. It must be kept in mind that the majority of respondents (95.8%) spent an average of six to ten hours at school per day, thus affording substantial opportunity for exposure. This vocational activity also comprises fairly routine schedules (i.e. class timetables), which may become predictable and result in routine activities that can increase victimisation risk.

The above is especially true for subject teachers, as they may be considered more exposed and in closer proximity to motivated offenders. It can be theorised that they are more likely to engage in face-to-face communication in terms of teaching hours, increasing their exposure to, and risk of victimisation by learners. Female respondents were more likely to be subject teachers, thus, when looking at their levels of exposure, their higher perception of threat (r=-0.23) and exposure to numerous forms of violence (personal bullying (r=-0.18), verbal violence by a learner (r=-0.23), unrealistic work expectations by principal(s) or vice-principal(s) (r=-0.25)), is justified. The belief that an increase in face-to-face communication may increase a target's attractiveness to potential offenders by elevating their level of exposure and creating greater opportunity for victimisation explains why the majority of respondents (79.8%) felt educators are most at risk during classes, especially public school respondents (r=-0.37).

It can therefore be said that an educator's length of exposure to a perpetrator, and the contact and associations formed, may increase his or her risk of victimisation. According to the model, exposure alone does not lead to victimisation, since a motivated offender and some form of provocation must be present; the offender must be able to overcome constraints; and a capable guardian or handler cannot be present. The presence of a suitable guardian (e.g. adequate security measures) is crucial in deterring an offence. By applying the integrated model, the high incidence of victimisation reported by public school respondents can be explained in terms of a lack of guardianship. The model postulates that a decrease in adequate guardianship has the potential to increase the risk of victimisation. Public school respondents especially were more likely to disagree with the statement "security measures at my workplace are adequate" (r=-0.20); thus they were at increased risk of victimisation.

Further increasing the level of exposure to victimisation amongst public school respondents was the high response to poor infrastructure (overcrowding) as a form of victimisation (r=-0.30). Overcrowding was seen to increase level of exposure, physical visibility, accessibility, ease of obtaining the target, and also to hamper effective guardianship. It could therefore be said that public school respondents' higher rate of exposure, contact with or proximity to motivated offenders, and target suitability, in addition to a lack of adequate guardianship,

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established opportunities for and escalated their risk of victimisation. It is therefore understandable, in terms of the integrated model, that public school respondents experienced higher rates of violence (physical violence (r=-0.26), verbal violence (r=-0.37), bullying (r=-0.21) and vandalism by learners (r=-0.31)), experienced threats in the workplace more often (r=-0.28), and considered their schools to be at high risk of violence (r=-0.22).

Similarly, the inverse of the above argument can be applied to private school respondents. Although private school respondents also experienced a substantial level of exposure in terms of time spent at school per day, they were more likely to consider the security measures at their workplace as adequate (i.e. guardianship) (r=-0.20), and less likely to feel victimised (r=-0.30). The above argument thus accounts for the higher likelihood amongst private school educators to have experienced none of the forms of violence (physical, verbal, social, bullying and/or sexual violence) (r=-0.38), their perception of safety (r=-0.29) in the workplace, and the feeling that their school is at less risk of violence (r=-0.22).

As evident from the above, various elements (i.e. demographics, role expectations, control imbalance, routine activities, associations, contact and proximity exposure, absence of a capable guardian/handler, provocation and a motivated offender's ability to overcome constraints) create opportunities for victimisation. The opportunity, together with the potential offender's perception of target suitability, affects an educator's risk of victimisation. It is for this reason that the researcher feels the temporal-spatial convergence of the elements mentioned in the model has the potential to influence not only the perpetrators and typology of violence but also the form of violence (physical/non-physical) utilised in the offence. Noticeable in the application of the model, and supported by empirical evidence, is the increased risk of victimisation amongst female and public school educators. The above sentiment is justified by the higher likelihood that female educators and public school educators will experience multiple forms of violence, as has been pointed out.

6.7. Future research and recommendations

The study delivered an overview of existing insights and presented new evidence regarding workplace violence against educators. However, the researcher does not deny that additional research is needed, and will provide recommendations in the discussion below.

In terms of research, although the study sheds light on educator-targeted violence from the perspective of the victims (educators), additional research, exploring the experiences and perspectives of all parties involved, is needed. Furthermore, research covering a larger geographical area, comprising more schools (private and public) and possibly involving different districts can also be beneficial, as it will allow for more extensive comparative

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investigations and insights into the public and private divide. Such research should also delve deeper into the impact of school status on the typologies of violence experienced, in particular organisational and relationship workplace violence, the severity of offences, and the outcomes of reporting. Such large-scale comparative investigations also need to further investigate the 'weight' of various risk factors for educator-targeted violence, including the impact of ethnicity, nationality and sexual orientation. Any research conducted on educator-targeted violence needs to take into account that the phenomenon is influenced by various contextual factors on an individual, relationship, community (organisation) and societal level.

Furthermore, the researcher also suggests a further exploration of workplace bullying with specific reference to the types or forms of bullying, power in the school setting and its effect, and autonomy at work with regard to work roles and the execution of tasks. Delving deeper into the forms of leadership in schools and their possible association with the perception of power is also suggested. As research has also indicated that certain predispositions to psychological problems may affect the risk of educator-targeted violence, future research may need to explore the association between the control ratio and psychological problems in the workplace. An evaluation and further investigation into the various forms of support and training available to educators, and insight into sources of training, and training required, may also be beneficial in the formation of future policies.

In terms of the nature and extent of violence against educators, increased awareness campaigns and the dissemination of information related to workplace violence are needed. Information that is distributed and policies that are implemented also need to clearly indicate to all parties that both physical and non-physical violence (whether transgressed by learner, parent, co-worker, stranger, principal or vice-principal, partner and/or organisation) against an educator qualifies as workplace violence. All parties need to be educated about the forms of educator-targeted violence, and the consequences of such violence must be visibly indicated and match the severity of the violation. Due to educators' levels of exposure in the workplace and the inefficiency of security measures, especially as portrayed by public school respondents, the researcher recommends on-going routine evaluations of safety measures in schools, in addition to routine inspections of physical infrastructure related to safety concerns such as overcrowding. Annual awareness programmes for learners and educators regarding substance abuse and its far-reaching consequences can additionally improve safety within the school setting.

With regard to the effects and consequences of workplace violence, the researcher feels that support is vital as a protective factor, as well as in increasing job satisfaction. The equal distribution and provision of interpersonal, co-worker and supervisory support that cuts

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across the hierarchy in schools is therefore advocated. To minimise the adverse effects of violent incidents, the researcher further recommends continuous monitoring and review of complaints procedures and reporting mechanisms so as to ensure efficiency and awareness amongst all staff members. The profile of educators as victims also indicates certain risk factors, and awareness of such risk factors is essential. The researcher therefore recommends that the safety and high risk of public school educators and female educators in particular be taken into consideration in future policy formation.

Annual awareness programmes for all staff members regarding leadership and management within the school setting, with specific reference to empowerment, trust, autonomy and participation in decision-making, may also assist educators' participation in managing and preventing educator-targeted violence. Such awareness may be particularly advantageous to public school educators and female educators, resulting in a more efficient flow of daily operations and the distribution of power and control. Finally, the researcher strongly advocates that all staff members be provided with on-going routine training regarding workplace violence, with specific reference to rights in terms of safety, policies and procedures, reporting mechanisms, prevention/intervention, coping mechanisms, diffusion of violent situations and optimising of learner-educator relationships.

6.8. Conclusion

Although substantial research has been conducted into school violence and, more specifically, learner-related violence, there has been a general void in research related to educator-targeted violence in South Africa. Research of a comparative nature, focusing on violence against educators within the public and private divides, has been particularly lacking, hence the study's aim to address this gap in the literature. The study followed a quantitative, descriptive survey research design in which both probability and non-probability sampling methods were employed. In pursuit of the objectives of the study, 122 self-administered questionnaires, completed by educators in six secondary schools in Gauteng, were used to obtain univariate and bivariate data. By means of the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis H test, various relationships, differences and similarities were determined.

In collaboration with existing evidence, the survey findings highlight the experience of both physical and non-physical violence (verbal and social) amongst educators, although the latter is noticeably predominant. Furthermore, educators face victimisation from multiple sources, some of which deploy numerous forms of violence. Unfortunately, this vocational activity also increases educators' level of exposure and their risk of victimisation, as educators are victimised both during and after class hours.

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Educator-targeted violence furthermore appears to be the result of multiple interrelated contextual factors that result not only in fear for personal safety, but have both personal and professional consequences. The profile of educators as victims verified and further exposed various risk factors in terms of demographics, as female educators, unmarried educators, educators working in public schools and educators with lower educational qualifications were at greater risk of victimisation. In terms of the public and private divide, public school educators were more likely to experience physical violence, verbal violence, bullying and vandalism by learners. In addition, public school respondents were also more likely to feel threatened at school, feel powerless in the workplace, and consider their school at high risk of violence. In addition to higher perceptions of victimisation as a result of not being heard, favouritism and overcrowding, public school respondents were also more likely to report lower levels of involvement in decision-making regarding school issues, which consequently affected their sense of power and control in the workplace, thus increasing their risk of victimisation. Although the majority of respondents reported that they would like training, many had not received training with regard to workplace violence.

Against the backdrop of the abovementioned findings, and those highlighted in the discussion, the researcher recommends increased awareness and dissemination of information related to workplace violence to all staff members, and ongoing routine training of staff members with regard to workplace violence, dealing with such violence, reporting procedures, and policies on workplace violence. The researcher also recommends that future research utilises present results and information as a foundation for further research.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire

Questionnaire on workplace violence toward educators

Thank you very much for participating in the research. Please answer each question as honestly as possible. Do not write your name or any information which could identify you on the questionnaire. All your answers will be treated confidentially. Indicate the answers that best fit your experience as clearly as possible.

Please take note of the following definitions because they are used throughout the questionnaire.

Physical violence (Bodily harm) Bodily harm such as hitting, kicking, shoving, pushing, damage to property and other physical contact.

Non-physical (Emotional harm) *Verbal violence* - teasing, insulting, ridicule, taunts and degrading gestures. *Social violence*- isolation/exclusion, denial of support, humiliation.

Bullying - The victim is pushed into an inferior position and the two parties are no longer/nor ever of equal 'strength', resulting in harm. Bullying includes personal and work-related bullying and intimidation. *Cyber bullying* involves bullying through technology and offensive texts and emails.

Section A: Background information

The following questions deal with your background information.

1.   Are you male or female? _____
2.   How old are you? _____ years
3.   With which population group do you identify?

African/Black	1	Coloured	2
Indian	3	Asian	4
White	5	Other	6

4.   What is your marital status

Single	1	Partnered	2	Engaged	3
Married	4	Divorced	5	Widowed	6
Civil union	7	Domestic partnership			8

5.   How many years have you been an educator? _____ years
6.   How many years have you been working at this school? _____ years
7.   How many hours do you spend at school per day? _____ hours
7.1. Of this time, how many hours do you on average spend in class? _____ hours
7.2. How many hours per day do you spend on average on extra-curricular activities? _____hours

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8. What is the nature of your employment?

Permanent	1	Part-time	2	SGB appointment	3
Substitute	4				

9. What is your occupational post?

Principal	1	Vice principal	2	Head of department	3
Co-head of department	4	Subject teacher	5	Assistant teacher	6

10. What is your highest qualification? _____

11. What is the status of your current school?

Private	1
Public	2

12. What is the language medium of your current school?

English medium	1	Dual medium	
Afrikaans medium	2		

13. How would you describe the quality of your health?

Very good	1	Good	2	Fair	3
Poor	4	Very poor	5		

Section B: Workplace violence toward educators at your school

14. Do you know of any co-worker from this school who experienced violence while at school?

Yes	1	*Go to Q15*
No	2	*Go to Q18*

15. If yes, how often do such incidents occur at your school?

Very often	1	Sometimes	2
Often	3	Seldom	4

16. What was the nature of the incident(s) and who was the perpetrator?

	Learner(s)	Co-worker(s)	(Vice) Principal	Parent(s)	Stranger(s)	Victim's partner
Physical						
Non-physical						

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Bullying							

17. Do you know whether the above incident(s) were reported?

Yes	1	If yes, to whom was it reported:
No	2	If no, why was it not reported:
Don't know	3	

18. In your view, what are the three main **causes** of violence which educators face?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

19. When are educators *most* at risk of violence?

Before school	1	After school	2	During classes	3
During breaks	4	Weekends	5		

20. Have you ever felt threatened at school?

Yes	1	If 'yes' how often?		Very often	1	Sometimes	2
No	2	*Go to Q22*		Often	3	Seldom	4

21. On which level do you feel more threatened?

Personally (your safety)	1	Professionally(career/integrity)	2

22. In terms of violence, in your opinion do you believe your school is at:

High risk	1	Low risk	2

23. Do you feel your workplace is safe?

Yes	1	No	2

24. In your workplace do you feel:

Powerful	1	Powerless	2

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Section C: Personal experiences of violence directed at you in your current school

25. Have you ever experienced the following forms of violence at your school? Can tick more than one

Physical	1	Verbal	2	Social	3
Bullying	4	None (Go to Q33)	5		

26. For the purpose of the next question please mark 'x' next to the types of violence committed by the relevant perpetrator(s) in terms of question 25. There can be more than one perpetrator

	Learner(s)	Parent(s)	Stranger(s)	Partner(s)	Co-worker(s)	Principal/ Vice	Organisation
Physical							▓
Verbal							▓
Bullying							
Cyber bullying							▓
Challenges to authority							▓
Vandalism							
Sexual Harassment							▓
Social coercion							▓
Denial of information and resources							
Isolation and exclusion							
Unfair blame							
Unrealistic work expectations							
Excessive monitoring							
Denial of support							
Humiliation							

Section D: Reaction and consequences

27. How did you react to the violent incident(s)? You can tick more than one.

Ignored it	1	Shouted at the perpetrator	2		
Reported it immediately	3	Laughed	4		
Attempted to reprimand the perpetrator	5	Cried	6		
Other, please describe:					

28. How did the violent incident(s) influence you? You can tick more than one.

Fear	1	Guilt	2	
Frustration	3	Low self-confidence	4	
Stress	5	Apathy	6	
Anxiety	7	Shame	8	
Sadness	9	Cynicism	10	
Psychological problems (PTSD etc)	11	Other please:		
Physical effects (disturbed sleep, headaches, irregular blood pressure	12			

29. How did the violent incident(s) influence you professionally? You can tick more than one.

Transferred	1		Poor concentration	2	
Modified work	3		Withdrawal	4	
Burnout	5		Low job satisfaction	6	
Low organisational commitment	7		Detachment/alienation	8	
None	9				
Leave of absence	10	→	How many days?		
Missing multiple days at work	11	→	How many days?		
Other, please describe:					

30. Did you report the violence directed at you?

Yes	1	*Go to Q32*	
No	2	*Go to Q31*	

31. Why did you not report it?

I handled it myself	1	I distrusted the system	2	
Didn't know to whom to report it	3	I was warned not to	4	
Didn't think anything would be done about it	5	I felt uncomfortable	6	
Fear personal consequences of reporting it	7			

Other, please describe:	

32. What was the outcome of reporting the violent incidents? You can tick more than one

The complaint was not taken further	1	Perpetrator was fired	2	
Perpetrator was reprimanded	3	Perpetrator was reported to the police	4	
Perpetrator was suspended	5	Support was given to me	6	
Perpetrator was asked to leave the school grounds	7	Other, please describe:	8	

Section E: Decision making and supervision

33. Rate your ability to make your own decisions without being influenced by others in the school?

Exceptionally good	1	Good	2	Average	3
Poor	4	Severely restricted	5		

34. Rate your level of involvement in decision-making regarding school issues?

Exceptionally good	1	Good	2	Average	3
Poor	4	Severely restricted	5		

35. Please indicate your response to the following statements

I feel victimised by ……	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Unequal opportunities					
Unequal treatment					
Inadequate implementation of routine procedures					
Role conflict					
Vagueness about work roles					
Not being heard					
Insufficient communication					
Work overload					
Overcrowding in my workplace					
The area in which my workplace is situated					

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Favouritism							

36. Please indicate your response to the following statements

I have sufficient say in ….	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	
Functioning and strategic planning of the school						
Supervision and control of the school						
Monitoring and evaluation practices						
How to deal with workplace violence						
The relationship between myself and upper management						
How to deal with information received regarding workplace violence						

37. To what extent do educators and managers inspire each other with support and consideration?

Always	1	Often	2	Sometimes	3
Seldom	4	Never	5		

Section F: Policy and prevention

38. Do you know of procedures for reporting violent incidents toward educators at your school?

Yes	1	No	2	Don't know	3

39. Have you been provided with material about workplace violence by your school, for example pamphlets, books, posters, etc?

Yes	1	No	2

40. Are you aware of policies regarding workplace violence in the school?

Yes	1	
No	2	*Go to Q43*

Indicate the policies you are aware of:
1.
2.
3.
4.

41. In your view, are these policies effective?

Yes	1	No	2	Don't know	3

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42. In your view, are (additional) policies needed to deal with workplace violence?

Yes	1	
No	2	*Go to Q44*

43. Which policies are needed?

A zero tolerance policy		
How to report workplace violence		
The consequences for those who commit violence		
Dealing with parents involvement in school violence		
Staff responsible in assisting victims of workplace violence		
School security policies		
Other, please describe:		

44. Have you received training on workplace violence?

Yes	1	No	2

45. Do you need training on workplace violence?

Yes	1	
No	2	*Go to Q47*

46. If yes, what training do you need regarding workplace violence? Can tick more than one

	Yes
Assertiveness	
Prevention	
How to defuse a violent event	
Skills to cope with violence in school	
Debriefing after a violent incident	
Individual counselling	
Support services available	
Violence-related class rules	
Educator-learner relationships	
Consequences for perpetrators of workplace violence	

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47. What is your opinion about the following?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
The school is equipped to deal with workplace violence					
Workplace violence is a serious problem					
Workplace violence is adequately recognised					
Workplace violence is sufficiently addressed					
I am fully satisfied with my job					
I fear going to work					
I feel like a valued educator					
Security measures at my workplace are adequate					
Substance abuse by colleagues is a problem					
Substance abuse by learners is a problem					

48. Is there anything else you would like to add/mention?

(Please return the survey and informed consent letter to your reception desk in the envelope provided and kindly place it in the box provided).

Thank you very much for your participation!

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Appendix B: Gauteng Department of Education approval letter

GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

For administrative use:
Reference no: D2014/336

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	**28 January 2014**
Validity of Research Approval:	**10 February to 3 October 2014**
Name of Researcher:	**Coetzee A.**
Address of Researcher:	**P.O. Box 586**
	Midstream Estate
	Midrand
	1692
Telephone Number:	**079 181 3868**
Email address:	**annikacoetzee@yahoo.com**
Research Topic:	**Workplace violence towards educators in private and public secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng: a comparative investigation**
Number and type of schools:	**SEVEN Secondary Schools**
District/s/HO	**Tshwane South and Tshwane North**

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

2014/01/28

1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research
9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David Makhado@gauteng.gov.za

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1. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
2. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.
3. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
4. A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
5. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
7. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year. If incomplete, an amended Research Approval letter may be requested to conduct research in the following year.
8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
9. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
11. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
12. On completion of the study the researcher/s must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.
13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

....

Dr David Makhado

Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management

DATE: ...2014/01/28...

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Appendix C: Gauteng Department of Education amended approval letter

GAUTENG PROVINCE

Department: Education

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

For administrative use:
Reference no. D2015 / 383 A

GDE AMENDED RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	**21 January 2015**
Validity of Research Approval:	**9 February 2015 to 2 October 2015**
Previous GDE Research Approval letter reference number	**D2015/314 A dated 2 October 2014 and D2014/336 dated 29 January 2014**
Name of Researcher:	**Coetzee A.**
Address of Researcher:	**P.O. Box 586; Midstream Estate; Midrand; 1692**
Telephone / Fax Number/s:	**079 181 3868**
Email address:	**annikacoetzee@yahoo.com**
Research Topic:	**Workplace violence towards educators in private and public secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng: a comparative investigation**
Number and type of schools:	**SEVEN Secondary Schools**
District/s/HO	**Tshwane South; Tshwane North; Tshwane West and Gauteng North.**

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to the Principal, SGB and the relevant District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted. However participation is VOLUNTARY.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher has agreed to and may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

Makado

2015/01/21

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Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

CONDITIONS FOR CONDUCTING RESEARCH IN GDE

1. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter;
2. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB.)
3. A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned;.
4. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Participation is voluntary and additional remuneration will not be paid;
5. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal and/or Director must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
6. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year. If incomplete, an amended Research Approval letter may be requested to conduct research in the following year.
7. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
8. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent and learner;
9. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
10. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
11. On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management with one Hard Cover, an electronic copy and a Research Summary of the completed Research Report;
12. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned;
13. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director and school concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

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....

Dr David Makhado

Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management

DATE: *2015/ 01/21* ....

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Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research
9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

Appendix D: Letter(s) of approval from each participating school

TYGER VALLEY
COLLEGE
Through Enjoyment to Excellence

4 August 2014

To whom it may concern,

This letter serves to confirm that Ms Annika Coetzee is granted permission to do research at Tyger Valley College on the topic of workplace violence toward educators.

Kind regards

Sim, G.P. (Mr)

Senior Headmaster

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Voortrekkersweg 1050
Wonderboom-Suid
Pretoria 0084
Tel: (012) 335-6806/7
Faks: (012) 335-6587
Webblad: www.wonnies.co.za
E-pos: hswb@wonnies.co.za

GROEI en DIEN

7 August 2014

Ms A Coetzee
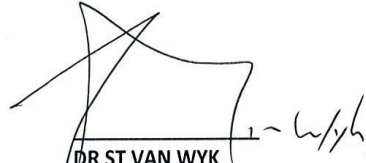P.O. Box 586
Midstream Estate
Midrand
1692

Email: **annikacoetzee@yahoo.com**

APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Herewith the above mentioned school gives permission to do research at this school on the topic: "Workplace violence towards educators in private and public secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng: A Comparative investigation".

We are awaiting your further communication with the school.

Regards

DR JA LAUBSCHER
CHAIRMAN: GOVERNING BODY

DR ST VAN WYK
PRINCIPAL

Integriteit   Respek   Verantwoordelikheid   Diensbaarheid   Erkenning

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To whom it may concern

Re: Annika Coetzee research request.

Annika Coetzee has approached our school regarding research on WORKPLACE VIOLENCE TOWARD EDUCATORS IN PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN PRETORIA, GAUTENG.

I hereby approve the above mentioned request regarding research at Curro College Hazeldean.

Kind regards

Mr Pierre le Roux

Executive Head

Tel ☎ : (012) 335-2271
Fax : (012) 335-6018

e-mail :
hillview@hillviewhigh.co.za

PRINCIPAL : MR JG HEPBURN

HILLVIEW HIGH SCHOOL
71 Franzina Street
ROSEVILLE
Pretoria
0084
⊠ P O Box 30156
WONDERBOOM POORT, 0033

19 May 2014

Dear Ms A Coetzee

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: WORKPLACE VIOLENCE TOWARD EDUCATORS IN PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOLS IN PRETORIA, GAUTENG: A COMPARATIVE INVESTIGATION.

I trust that you are well.

Thank you for taking a keen interest in conducting research at Hillview High School. On behalf of myself and my staff members, we will gladly participate in the research.

I hope this finds you well.

Kind Regards

JG HEPBURN (MR)

PRINCIPAL

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GEREFORMEERDE SKOOL DIRK POSTMA

LAERSKOOL		**HOËRSKOOL**	
T:	012-332-3222	T:	012-332-3222
E:	gsdp@gsdp.org.za	E:	hsadmin@gsdp.org.za
W:	www.gsdp.org.za	W:	www.gsdp.org.za
A:	Cunninghamlaan 1182	A:	Dickensonlaan 1174
	Waverley		Waverley

*Wees sterk en vol moed*

17 April 2014

Whom it may concern

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

We hereby give permission to Ms A. Coetzee, MA Criminology student at the University of Pretoria, to conduct her research at our school. It is accepted that she will arrange appropriate and relevant time schedules with us.

Yours sincerely.

Mrs. J.C. Terblanche

Vice Principal

DIE HOËRSKOOL HENDRIK VERWOERD

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
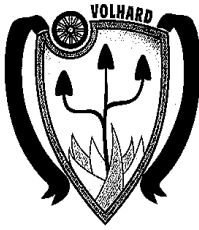
TEL: 012 329 0574/5/6
FAKS: 012 329 0534
E-POS: hshv@mweb.co.za

PRIVAATSAK X06
GEZINA
0031

10 April 2014

AAN WIE DIT MAG AANGAAN

Hiermee gee ek, die ondergetekende, toestemming dat Me A Coetzee haar navorsing by Die Hoërskool Hendrik Verwoerd kan doen.

H DU TOIT

HOOF

Appendix E: Full ethical clearance letter

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Research Ethics Committee

11 August 2014

Dear Prof Lombard

Project:	**Workplace violence toward educators in private and public secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng: A comprehensive investigation.**
Researcher:	**Ms A Coetzee**
Supervisor:	**Dr Francois Steyn**
Department:	**Social Work and Criminology**
Reference number:	**29417831**

Thank you for your response to the Committee's correspondence of 10 December 2013.

I have pleasure in informing you that the Research Ethics Committee formally **approved** the above study at an *ad hoc* meeting held on 11 August 2014. Data collection may therefore commence.

Please note that this approval is based on the assumption that the research will be carried out along the lines laid out in the proposal. Should your actual research depart significantly from the proposed research, it will be necessary to apply for a new research approval and ethical clearance.

The Committee requests you to convey this approval to the researcher.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely

Prof. Karen Harris
Acting Chair: Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of Humanities
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
e-mail: karen.harris@up.ac.za

Research Ethics Committee Members: Dr L Blokland; Prof M-H Coetzee; Dr JEH Grobler; Prof KL Harris(Acting Chair); Ms H Klopper; Dr C Panebianco-Warrens; Dr C Puttergill; Prof GM Spies; Dr Y Spies; Prof E Taljard; Dr P Wood

Appendix F: Letter of informed consent

Researcher: Annika Coetzee

Workplace violence toward educators in private and public secondary schools in Pretoria, Gauteng: a comparative investigation.

Dear respondent

Thank you for your participation in the study. In accordance with the University of Pretoria Research Proposal and Ethics Committee a letter of informed consent is required. The letter of informed consent provides the details of the research study which must be understood before the commencement of the study itself.

1. Purpose

The purpose of the study is to gain information and an understanding of the phenomenon of workplace violence experienced by educators in public and private secondary schools.

2. Procedures

Data will be gathered through completion of self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaires will be delivered at the randomly selected schools in the Pretoria area. Respondents may fill in the questionnaires 'on site' or at home without the presence of the researcher. Questionnaires will be collected by the researcher at the school one week after the day of delivery. A number at which to contact the researcher, if any confusion may arise, is provided on the cover of the questionnaire. The time to complete the questionnaire is approximately 15-20 minutes. The duration of the entire research study will take approximately 15 months.

3. Risks

There are no predetermined risks or discomfort associated with participation in the study. If by any chance respondents feel distress after completing the questionnaire, respondents can contact the Gauteng Department of Education's 24-hour help line at 0800611169 to be transferred to an Employee Assistance Programme and the appropriate support services available.

4. Benefits

Please understand that there are no benefits or gains associated with participation in the study.

5. Participants' rights

Participation in the study is voluntary thus a respondent may withdraw from answering the questionnaire at any point in time. Respondents will not face any negative consequences or repercussions if discontinuation occurs.

6. Confidentiality

Please note that information collected will be treated as confidential. Confidentiality and privacy is assured as no names will be included in the research report. Only the researcher and her supervisor will have access to the questionnaires.

7. Right of access to the researcher

If there are any queries the researcher can be contacted at 0791813868.

8. Storage of research data

In accordance with the University of Pretoria's procedures, for archiving purposes data will be stored in the Department of Social Work and Criminology for 15 years but will not be used for any future research.

Please indicate your consent by signing this letter.

I have read the above statements and understand what will be required and I agree to participate.

_____   _____

Signature   Date

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