

**A school-based violence prevention programme for high school
learners in Tshwane South District - Gauteng Province**

by

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ABSTRACT

A SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE PREVENTION PROGRAMME FOR HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS IN TSHWANE SOUTH DISTRICT - GAUTENG PROVINCE

by

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Degree: Doctor of Philosophiae (Social Work)

A report released by the South African Council of Educators (SACE) (2011:12) reveals a grim picture on school safety and the shocking results showing that 1.8 million learners experienced violence at school. Eight years after the Human Rights Watch World Report (2008:164), sexual violence, corporal punishment; bullying, gang-related activities, and occasional murder continue to plague some South African schools. Violence against children and youth has reached endemic proportions in South Africa (Huisman, 2014:10).

The goal of the study was to develop, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme with high school learners in Tshwane South District. The bio-ecological systems theory and a combination of practice approaches, namely: the developmental social work approach, the social and emotional learning (SEL) approach, character education (CE) and social cognitive and social competence perspective were utilised as theoretical frameworks for the study.

The study was embedded within the pragmatic and critical research paradigms. The Intervention Research, Design and Development (D&D) model which is a sub-type of applied research, was utilised for the study. The exploratory convergent design was used, starting with the exploratory design and followed by the descriptive design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:59). For the qualitative phase, the collective case study method was

used to solicit in-depth views of learners on the school violence problem and interventions to address the problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:59). During the quantitative phase, the descriptive survey research design was employed to identify and describe the nature and aetiology of the phenomena of school violence (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006:474) and to obtain quantitative data about the learners' opinions, attitudes, and experiences of school-based violence (Engel & Schutt, 2013:18).

Concurrent multilevel sampling was employed (Sharp, Mobley, Hammond, Withington, Drew, Stringfield & Stipanovic, 2012:35), including both purposive and random sampling techniques (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:85). In developing the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme in collaboration with learners as service users, Lipsey's Theory-Based Programme Development and Evaluation Model was utilised (Lipsey, 1993:33). Mixed methods, namely a One-Group Pretest-Posttest design in combination with a focus group interview was used to evaluate the programme.

The Triple T programme was effective in enhancing learners' knowledge of the nature, causes and impact of violence; their knowledge of moral values and ethical principles; their understanding that violence is a violation of human rights; the importance of caring, compassionate and supportive interpersonal relationships that are based on respect and UBUNTU principles; and increased their knowledge of conflict resolution and anger control strategies. Although some skills in problem-solving and decision-making were learnt, time constraints did not allow in-depth skills development. Furthermore, the use of ICT and role play was unproductive and there was a lack of preference for homework exercises. It cannot be confirmed that the programme has been effective in changing learners' attitudes and behaviours because change is a process and happens over time. Based on the study's findings, it is recommended that the programme be modified, improved, and then implemented and evaluated pertaining to the promotion of an anti-violence school culture and the prevention of violence.

The key concepts

High school learner

School-based violence

Prevention

Programme

High school learner

Tshwane South District

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my beloved mummy, Elizabeth Sitoto Mashile-Mona and my loving and dependable sister, Doreen Mantefe Mashego.

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CHAPTER 1:

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The phenomenon of school-based violence is a global issue. Against this background, South Africa has high levels of violence which cannot be ignored any longer. As in other parts of the world today, the recent spate of school-based violence involving learners in South Africa is a cause of great concern to educational authorities and society in general who are concerned about the frequency and intensity with which this form of violence continues to manifest itself on the playgrounds of many schools (Phyfer & Wakefield, 2015:23).

The occurrence of school-based violence is however not a phenomenon that is completely unique to South African schools, although the country is ranked 136 among 162 countries in terms of violence (Smillie, 2015:6). A report released by the South African Council of Educators (SACE) (2011:12) revealed a grim picture about school safety and shocking results that showed in 2011 that 1.8 million learners had experienced violence at school. These and other statistics regarding the incidence of school-based violence are a great cause for concern. The Human Rights Watch World Report (2008:164) corroborates the evidence that sexual violence, corporal punishment, bullying, gang-related activities, and occasional murder continue to plague some South African schools.

In addition, Small (2009) reported on the extremely unruly conduct of learners as a cause for concern, considering the range of dangerous weapons used by such learners. Some acts of ill-discipline perpetrated against educators and fellow learners are known to have occurred in the past and continue to overshadow the media landscape. The following media excerpts are indicative of the alarming nature of these violent attacks perpetrated by learners against their peers and educators in many schools across the country:

- “Bullying, theft, gangsterism, corporal punishment, drug abuse and the possession of weapons continue to plague Gauteng schools“ (Louw, 2015a:2).
- “Jail term of teen, 17, who raped girl, 5, halved” (Venter, 2015:6).
- “School of hard knocks: ‘Blind eye’ teacher in bully video previously suspended for assaulting pupils” (Louw, 2015b:2).
- “Classroom bully outrage: Pupils’ assault in front of teacher angers officials” (Molosankwe, 2015:1).
- “Lesbian fears school after attack” (Masombuka, 2014:50).
- “Pupils face rapist teachers every day” (Narsee, 2014:1).
- “SAHRC to probe teacher assaults” (Skelton, 2014:2).
- “Teen kills herself after pic of ‘gang-rape’ goes viral” (The Daily Telegraph, 2013:5).
- “Teachers to call for armed guards: Demand for drastic action against violent pupils” (Govender, 2013:10).
- “School boy murder video-taped: Family in shock as clip surfaces” (Masombuka, 2012:6).

From the above it is evident that rates of violence in schools are not declining. The frequency of violent incidences is also illustrative of the extent to which South African schools could be facing a national crisis. Inevitably, such aggressive use of weapons result in unnecessary and unfortunate fatalities. There is therefore an urgent need to address school-based violence in the context of a culture of those very rights which all South Africans are guaranteed in the South African Constitution and Bill of Rights Act No. 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1996a). The right to safety strengthens the need to create safe and healthy teaching and learning environments for all - environments that are free from intimidation and any form of violence. This ambitious ideal cannot be realised without scientific and research-based action plans.

Accordingly, this calls for urgent efforts to ensure that schools have the resources and the capacity to develop and implement programmes that empower learners with information and knowledge about the causes and effects of violence and capacitate them with skills to avoid getting involved in violent and aggressive behaviours. Additionally, programmes need to be implemented to capacitate parents or caregivers and educators to maintain discipline without resorting to corporal punishment. Curbing school violence, like curbing other social ills such as crime and substance abuse, does not only require financial resources. There is also the need to obtain the commitment and participation of all relevant stakeholders such as learners themselves, parents/caregivers, school administrators and educators, mental health care providers, police, civil society organisations, the religious and business sectors, other government departments, and non-governmental organisations and community-based organisations. Combating violence requires interventions and programmes that seek to change social norms, prevent exposure to violence as well as provide a range of services that enhance the capacity of current services and policies (Phyfer & Wakefield, 2015:23). Within this context, it was the intention of this study to develop a school-based violence prevention programme that would achieve these outcomes.

The **key concepts** relevant in this study are:

School-based violence

There are many definitions conceptualised by different authors to describe school-based violence. The difference in these descriptions lies in the objectives of the study. Greene (2005:237) describes school-based violence as institutional violence brought about by institutional policies and practices that are influenced by structural inequities at neighbourhood, regional and national levels. Thus, school violence is a form of systemic violence that occurs within social, legal and physical parameters of the school environment.

DeVoe, Peter, Kaufman, Miller, Noonan, Snyder and Baum (2005:26) describe school violence as any intentional behaviour that is meant to cause physical or

emotional harm to persons or property within the school environment, which may be in a form of threats with or without a weapon, fights, theft, bullying, gender-based violence and damage to property. Reininghaus, Castro and Frisancho (2013:220) agree and say it is the harmful acts committed by a member of the school community against another member within the school system. As Prinsloo and Nesor (2007:47) point out, such acts are intended to inflict physical or non-physical pain on the recipient whilst under the school's supervision. Nickerson and Spears (2007:5) add that such acts may constitute a range of undesirable actions that include physical, psychological and even developmental harm. According to Zulu, Urbani, van der Merwe and van der Walt (2004:70), these behaviours may be committed by learners, educators, administrators or non-school persons, to purposefully inflict pain and injury on other persons or cause damage to school property.

A rather more comprehensive definition is presented by Miller and Krause (2008:15) who describe school violence as behaviour such as child and teacher victimisation, child and/or teacher perpetration, physical or psychological exploitation, cyber victimisation, threats, bullying, fights, classroom disorder, cult-related activities, sexual and other boundary violations and use of weapons in the school environment.

In this study, it is argued that school-based violence refers to threats or actual acts to inflict physical harm or emotional pain on a learner, educator or any school staff member or property by another person, by any means within the confines of the school premises. Given the above definitions, the terms "violence", "school-based violence" and "school violence" or "violence at school" are used interchangeably within the context of this study.

Prevention

Pierson and Thomas (2010:410) defines prevention as any work that seeks to stop a potential social problem from emerging or existing problem from becoming severe. Barker (2014:334) describes prevention as "actions taken to minimize and eliminate social, psychological, or other conditions known to cause or contribute to physical or emotional illness and sometimes socio-economic problems." Furthermore,

prevention includes establishing those conditions in society that enhance the opportunities for individuals, families, groups, and communities to achieve positive fulfilment” (Barker, 2014:334).

Several researchers (Harris & White, 2013:363; Pierson & Thomas, 2010:410) concur that prevention seeks to identify and avert a potential problem and involves actions that are aimed at directing resources such as time, money and energy toward early signs of social problems before they intensify into crises. As a result, prevention is often used along with “early intervention” to respond to difficulties that may have already occurred (Harris & White, 2013:363). As Barker (2014:334) states, the aim of prevention is to minimise or eliminate identified social, psychological, or economic problems and other conditions that can cause physical or emotional ill-health, through enhancing opportunities for individuals, families and communities to promote human development and well-being.

Barker (2014:437) and Small and Memmo (2004:4) make a distinction between primary, secondary and tertiary prevention. According to these authors, primary prevention is aimed at stopping problems or conditions from occurring. Secondary prevention, argue Barker (2014:437) and Small and Memmo (2004:4), limits the severity of the problem from escalating and attempts to minimise the impact thereof on people or situations. Tertiary prevention on the other hand, is about putting efforts in place to reduce already existing problems (Barker, 2014:437) or to help individuals who are already affected by the problem to recover from its effects (Small & Memmo, 2004:4) and to develop the strengths and capacity to prevent its reoccurrence (Barker, 2014:437).

In this study, prevention is defined as efforts, strategies or programmes developed to help individuals, families, groups and communities who are at risk of or are already affected by social problems, to prevent their occurrence or mitigate the impact thereof, and to enhance their social functioning and well-being.

Programme

Saunders (2016:4) describes a programme as a set of external activities, curricula, or other stand-alone entities that will be introduced into an organisational setting like a school in this context. In short, a programme is a plan with procedures designed to address the identified needs of a target group. Netting and O'Connor (2013:758) argue that a programme is a set of activities designed to fulfil a social purpose such as addressing school violence by providing direct services to the target group. Van Baalen and de Conning (2011:171) add that these different activities are implemented in a coordinated manner, in order to produce the desired outcomes (Young, 2007:13). Royce, Thyer and Padgett (2010:5) and Netting, Kettner and McMurtry (2004:327) agree that the ultimate aim of a programme is to produce positive impacts on the participants. Thus, a programme consists of planned activities that are designed to address a social problem such as school-based violence that affects a specific target group with the intention to bring about positive outcomes.

High school learner

High school is described as a secondary education institution for children and youth (Chrosniak, 2003) that provides generalised instruction in the humanities (Sullivan, 2009:235). In South Africa the concept "learner" denotes any individual who is obligated to receive educational instruction in line with the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1996b).

For the purpose of this study, the focus was on learners in high school that incorporates grades 8 to 12. Therefore, within the context of this study, a "high school learner" refers to an individual who is enrolled in grades 8 to 12 in an institution that is registered with the Department of Education (DoE) in terms of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996. Furthermore, a "learner" is someone who is registered at and attends a particular school that falls within the Tshwane South District in Gauteng Province where he/she is engaged in the pursuit of learning and is being educated or taught by an educator or educators.

Tshwane South District

Small (2009) indicated that Tshwane South District falls under the Gauteng Department of Education (DoE) and covers areas such as Centurion, Wierda Park, Hatfield, Garsfontein, Menlo Park, Lyttelton, Sunnyside, Mamelodi, Atteridgeville, Eesterust, Laudium; Silverton, Monument Park and Lynnwood Ridge. All these areas are located in Pretoria (See Figure 1.1 below). Pretoria is contained in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. It is a city located in the northern part of Gauteng Province, South Africa. It is one of the country's three capital cities, serving as the executive (administrative) and de facto national capital; the others being Cape Town (legislative) and Bloemfontein (judicial). In this study, Tshwane South District entails those high schools registered with the Gauteng Department of Education that are located in the suburbs and townships as listed above and depicted in Figure 1.1 below.¹

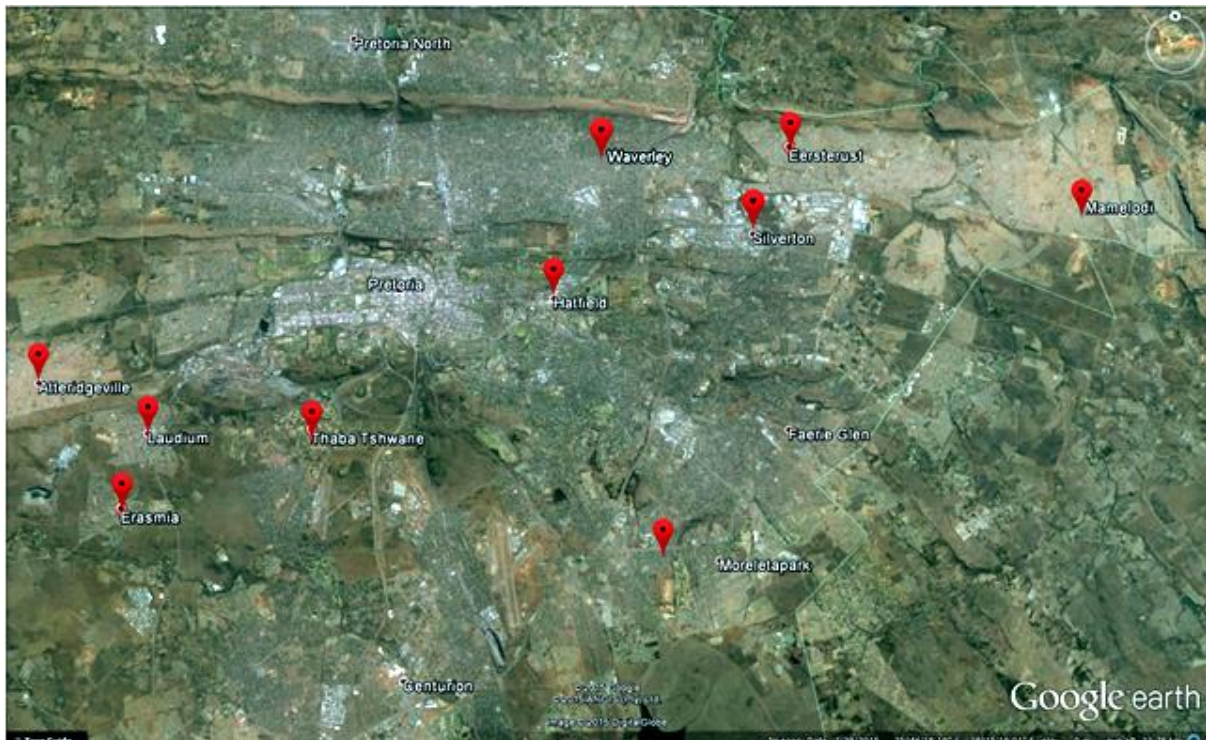


Figure 1.1: Map compiled from <http://maps.google.co.za> as on 20 October 2015.

¹ There is still no official conclusion made by National Government on the use of the name "Tshwane" versus Pretoria

1.2 Problem statement and rationale

The researcher has been following with interest the reports in the media on violence in schools involving young people. The general state of ill-discipline and violence in schools and its continuing deleterious effects on the personal safety of both learners and educators, and on teaching and learning, was of great concern to her. South Africa has been described as a country with the highest rates of violence in the world (Proudlock, Mathews & Jamieson, 2014:168). With such high rates of violence in society, it is no surprise that violence in schools is also high because schools are a representation and a microcosm of society (Zastrow, 2010:349; Filion & Dolabela, 2007:23).

Furthermore, the researcher has observed that there seems to be a lack of co-ordinated, evidence-based and effective intervention strategies and programmes from government departments, non-governmental organisations, business sector and community-based service providers to address the problem of school-based violence in a sustainable manner. Where it is addressed, school-based violence seem to be regarded mostly as an accumulation of isolated crime related cases, rather than a pattern emerging from the larger society. The seriousness and extent of the problem of violence occurring in South African schools was presented in findings of a study by Burton (2012:12), according to which only 22.2% of learners felt safe at school. When compared to other countries like US and Brazil, the levels of violence were found to be significantly higher. This observation is supported by other researchers such as Huisman (2014:10) and Diale (2014:1), who state that violence against children and youth has reached endemic proportions in South Africa as 15.5 million children in this country suffer from some form of violence.

Authors such as Khan (2008:2) and Burton (2008a:2) assert that the problem of school-based violence is further aggravated by the fact that educators are also identified as being perpetrators of violence. According to the authors, seven out of ten primary school learners and almost half of secondary school learners reported that they were physically beaten, spanked or caned when they had done something wrong at school (Khan, 2008:2; Burton, 2008a:2). This is despite the fact that

corporal punishment is illegal in South Africa (Burton, 2008a:2). Continued exposure to violence in schools exerts a negative impact on learners' and educators' functioning and well-being. According to UNICEF (2012a:118), the effects not only result in short-term consequences, but also culminate in a range of physical, health and social problems which persist across a person's lifespan, ultimately leading to significant economic costs to society.

The researcher also observed the lack of theory-driven, evidence-based and comprehensive intervention strategies and programmes to diminish the effects of violence on learners, educators and teaching and learning. This observation is confirmed by van der Merwe, Dawes and Ward (2012:403) who identified that most programmes are not based on theory or evidence, are not evaluated and do not link the goal and objectives of the programme to the designed activities and desired outcomes. Hence, the existing programmes have been unsuccessful in addressing the school-based violence problem in South African schools.

Against this background, the researcher wanted to investigate the phenomenon of school-based violence with the view to develop a school-based violence prevention programme. The establishment of a safe school environment for learners and educators is critical for ensuring effective teaching and learning. Safety and security is a human rights issue, enshrined in the Bill of Rights in the South African Constitution (RSA, Act 108 of 1996a).

It was envisaged that the study would contribute to the knowledge base of violence prevention, particularly in schools and generally in society as a whole, and as a result, foster safer schools and communities where people's rights to protection and education would be upheld. Furthermore, the significance of this study lies in its potential to influence social policy towards school-based prevention programmes and implementation by professionals such as social workers that would facilitate the positive growth and development of children and the youth.

The following research question guided the study:

What constitutes a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners?

The research question was informed by the following research sub- questions:

- What are the nature, extent, causes and impact of school-based violence among high school learners?
- What school-based violence prevention and intervention strategies are available internationally and nationally?
- What core elements should be included in a school-based violence prevention programme for learners?

The following hypothesis was formulated for the study:

If high school learners participate in a school-based violence prevention programme, then their knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour with regard to preventing violence will be enhanced.

The following sub-hypotheses underpin the hypothesis:

- If school learners participate in a school-based violence prevention programme, then their knowledge about the causes and effects of violence on themselves, their peers, educators and teaching and learning in general, will increase.
- If school learners participate in a school-based violence prevention programme, then their skills in resolving conflict, solving problems, making rational decisions, and managing anger will be improved.
- If school learners participate in a school-based violence prevention programme, then their attitudes and behaviour will improve toward a culture of peace and non-violence.

1.3 Goal and objectives of the research study

1.3.1 Goal

To develop, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme with high school learners in Tshwane South District - Gauteng Province.

1.3.2 Objectives

The objectives of the study were as follows:

- To provide a conceptual framework for school-based violence, and violence prevention and intervention strategies;
- To describe the nature, extent, causes and impact of school-based violence;
- To identify specific knowledge and skills required in changing learners' attitudes and behaviour;
- To review school-based violence prevention and intervention programmes and strategies targeting high school learners internationally and nationally;
- To develop and pilot test a school-based violence prevention programme with high school learners; and
- Based on the research findings, to draw conclusions and make recommendations for further implementation and refinement of the proposed school-based violence prevention programme.

1.4 Research methodology

The current study was embedded within the pragmatic and critical research paradigms. Pragmatism was seen to be a practical approach to finding solutions to a problem such as school violence (Cameron, 2011:101) whilst the critical perspective advocates for social change (Iatridis, 2009:224), especially in troublesome situations that involve violence and human rights abuse. The intention was to ensure democratic participation of learners in school-related matters that affect them and to ensure that their views are incorporated in efforts to address school violence (Myers, 2014:303).

The research design adopted in this study was the mixed concurrent design, specifically the equal status type, whereby the quantitative and qualitative approaches were implemented approximately at the same time (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009:268). The study aimed to offer practical solutions to the problem of school-based violence and the results were intended to be used to advocate for policy change (Neuman, 2006:25), and to implement prevention programmes to address the school violence phenomenon. Particularly, the Intervention Research - Design and Development (D&D) model (Rothman & Thomas, 1994) was chosen as the most appropriate type of applied research. Due to the intensive nature of intervention research, the process of intervention research was however not implemented entirely, but was only followed up to phase 4, which entails the early development and pilot testing phase.

The exploratory convergent design was utilised whereby the exploratory and descriptive designs were followed (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:59). For the qualitative phase, the collective case study design was used as it provided an in-depth view about an individual such as a learner, a situation such as the school violence problem or an intervention to address the school violence problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:59). During the quantitative phase, the descriptive survey research design was employed to explore and fully describe the phenomenon of school-based violence, with the view to develop an appropriate prevention programme.

The population in the study comprised of all learners and educators of Tshwane South District High Schools in Gauteng Province. In order to conduct the sampling procedure, a sampling frame consisting of a list of all registered schools in Tshwane South District (Rubin & Babbie, 2013:162) was obtained from the Gauteng Provincial Department of Education District Offices in Pretoria, Gauteng Province. Non-probability and probability sampling schemes were used in both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study respectively (Braun & Clark, 2013:56; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:285). A mixed methods sampling design was employed, whereby the samples for each strand of the study were drawn separately and these two strands

did not inform one another (Hesse-Biber, 2010:52). More specifically, concurrent multilevel sampling was employed to select samples that were suitable to answer the research questions and hypotheses (Sharp et al., 2012:35). In this context, both purposive and random sampling techniques were used (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:85).

The concurrent or triangulated mixed methods data collection approach (Creswell, Fetters & Ivankova, 2004:11) was applied to collect both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time, giving equal weight to the two strands. As this was a mixed method research study, data analysis was also mixed. The two strands of data were analysed separately and only combined and integrated in the interpretation stage. The two independent sets of results were then compared and contrasted to lead to key findings that informed the design of the school-based violence prevention programme. As phase 4 of the intervention research process entails pilot testing the programme, a quasi-experimental study was conducted, using the one group pretest-posttest design (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:233). A detailed discussion of the research methodology incorporating trustworthiness, validity, reliability, pilot studies, ethical issues and limitations of the study is presented in Chapter 2.

1.5 Contents of the research report

This thesis is divided into eight chapters and these are arranged according to the following format:

Chapter 1 outlines the general introduction and orientation of the study. It starts with a broad introduction of the topic and definition of relevant key concepts for the study. This is followed by a discussion of the rationale and problem statement, the research questions and hypotheses, and the goal and objectives of the study. It concludes with a brief outline of the research methodology.

Chapter 2 describes the research methodology, including the research paradigm, research approach, intervention research as a sub-type of applied research, research design, population, sampling, data collection and analysis, trustworthiness,

validity and reliability, pilot study, and ethical issues. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the study.

Chapter 3 summarises relevant policies, theoretical framework and practice approaches for the study. Included in this chapter is a discussion of international, regional and national policies; the bio-ecological system theory; the developmental approach to social welfare and social work; the social and emotional learning; character education and the social-cognitive and social competence practice approaches.

Chapter 4 reviews relevant literature with reference to adolescence as a developmental phase. In addition, the nature, extent, and causes of the problem of school-based violence within the bio-ecological systems theory framework are discussed. The impact of school violence on the victim, the perpetrator and the teaching and learning environment is discussed. Finally, existing international and national interventions and prevention programmes are reviewed.

Chapter 5 outlines the integrated research findings utilising a thematic framework to outline the key findings of the first phase of the study.

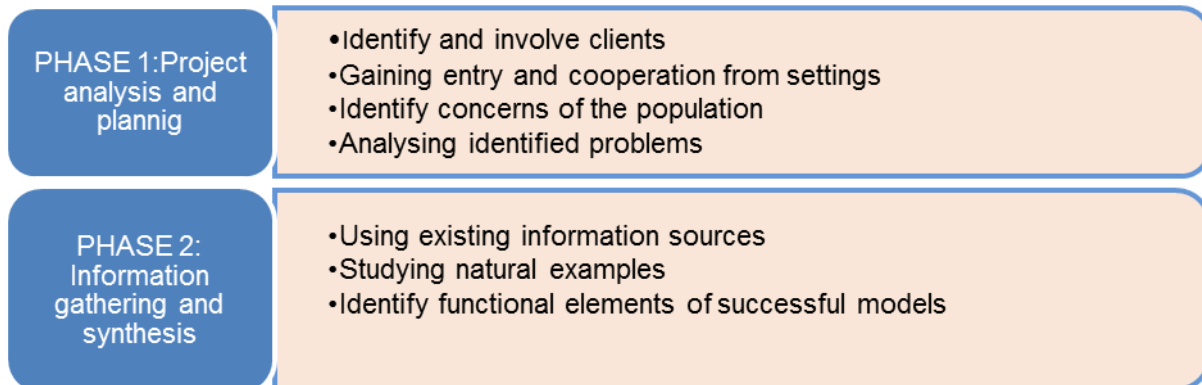
Chapter 6 presents a description of the co-designed school-based violence prevention programme.

Chapter 7 presents the pilot study, the evaluation process and the empirical results.

Chapter 8 highlights the key research findings, draws conclusions and outlines the recommendations made on the basis of the research findings.

The ensuing chapters will respectively start with a visual overview of the relevant phase(s) of the intervention research.

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY



(Rothman & Thomas, 1994)

2.1 Introduction

This chapter forms part of phase 1 and 2 of Intervention Research (D & D) Model and presents a description of the research methodology used for the empirical study in line with standards for reporting on empirical research (American Educational Research Association, 2006:33). The study was guided by the research questions and research hypotheses.

For the qualitative phase, the following research question guided the study:

What constitutes a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners?

The research question was informed by the following research sub-questions:

- What are the nature, extent, causes and impact of school-based violence among high school learners?
- What school-based violence prevention and intervention strategies are available internationally and nationally?
- What core elements should be included in a school-based violence prevention programme for learners?

The following hypothesis was formulated for the study:

If high school learners participate in a school-based violence prevention programme, then their knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour with regard to preventing violence will be enhanced.

The following sub-hypotheses underpin the hypothesis:

- If school learners participate in a school-based violence prevention programme, then their knowledge about the causes and effects of violence on themselves, their peers, educators and teaching and learning in general, will increase.
- If school learners participate in a school-based violence prevention programme, then their skills in resolving conflict, solving problems, making rational decisions and managing anger will be improved.
- If school learners participate in a school-based violence prevention programme, then their attitudes and behaviour will improve toward a culture of peace and non-violence.

The chapter proceeds with a discussion of the research paradigm, followed by research approach, intervention research as a sub-type of applied research, research design and methods, study population and sampling. The discussion continues with data collection and analyses, issues of trustworthiness and credibility, validity and reliability, and pilot study. The chapter concludes with a discussion of relevant ethical aspects and limitations of the study.

2.2 Research paradigm

A paradigm is a way of looking at the world and shapes the research approach (Creswell, 2014:6; Babbie, 2008:35). This worldview is influenced by the researcher's beliefs and feelings about the world and these in turn influence how the world should be studied and understood (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008:22). Thus, a paradigm speaks to a set of cultural beliefs, values, and assumptions regarding the nature and causes of school-based violence (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner,

2007:129-130). Neuman (2006:81) asserts the researcher's beliefs influence the kinds of research techniques that are used to obtain answers to the research questions. In summary, the researcher views a paradigm as a philosophical orientation that is based on one's set of values and beliefs that influences one's view of the world and in turn, dictates which research approach is to be adopted in order to answer the research questions.

The current study was embedded within the pragmatic and critical paradigms. Pragmatism is the foundation for mixed methods studies whereby multiple data collection and analyses methods are utilised (Creswell, 2014:11). Pragmatic research begins with research questions and guides the choice of methods for answering them (Punch, 2013:31). Pragmatism was a practical approach to a problem such as school violence (Cameron, 2011:101), in that it guided the researcher to ask precise questions (Biesta, 2010:114) in an effort to resolve the problem of school violence and reach evidence-based research outcomes (Greene & Hall, 2010:131).

Pragmatism views knowledge as both a function and an outcome of transactions between an individual and their environment (Ivankova, 2015:53) and places emphasis on the commitment to values such as democracy, freedom, equality and progress (Greene & Hall, 2010:131). The pragmatic worldview is in line with the bio-ecological systems and developmental approaches, the theoretical and practice frameworks which influenced and guided the research study (See Chapter 3: sections 3.3.1 and 3.4.1). Pragmatism was thus the most useful and appropriate philosophy because behaviour is an outcome of person and environment interaction. The pragmatic paradigm supports the integration of the perspectives of learners and educators in decision-making processes and endorses moral and democratic values and principles (Johnson et al., 2007:125).

In addition, the researcher approached the research study from the critical paradigm because power struggles are at the root cause of societal problems such as violence and it contributes to individuals' antisocial behaviour (Myers, 2014:303). The

researcher followed the critical perspective by giving learners and educators a voice (Iatridis, 2009:224). This was done because school violence directly affects them and participation gave them the opportunity to examine how societal structures and their own values and beliefs could contribute to school violence.

The goal of critical theory was to create democratic schools that are free from domination, where learners have opportunities to contribute to the development of policies and systems that promote the development of all its members (Lewis, Packard, & Lewis, 2012:93). Strega (2005:208) adds another goal of the critical paradigm, which is to empower the oppressed and promote social justice. As is the case with this study, the goal was to give victims or potential victims of violence a voice in their right to be safe and protected.

The critical perspective was applicable because like pragmatism, the paradigm advocates for social change and strives for freedom, equality and democracy (Myers, 2014:303). This perspective is in line with the developmental social work approach as will be discussed in Chapter 3 (See section 3.4.1). The researcher involved learners and educators as active participants to “uncover unseen forces and hidden structures with the view to challenge the existing power structures” (Strega, 2005:207; Myers, 2014:303). Myers (2014:303) argue that participation promotes human rights, justice, participatory democracy and partnership; and brings about sustainable change in society. In developing the school-based violence prevention programme, it was important to uncover the extent of violence; to identify systemic and structural issues that contribute to the scourge; and to investigate how the problem is addressed or could be addressed in a way that would promote violence-free school environments where human rights, participatory democracy and social justice could prevail.

In summary, the two paradigms influenced how the researcher views and interprets school violence. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:17) recommend the integration of paradigms that examine phenomena from different worldviews and suggest adopting

such a strategy by selecting the most efficient and effective means to conduct a research study.

2.3 Research approach

Mixed methods research was developed in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Creswell, 2014:217; Testa, Livingston & VanZile-Tamsen, 2011:238) and has become popular with researchers in many fields (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009:266). As such, it has evolved as a distinct research approach that involves collecting, analysing and integrating both qualitative and quantitative data sets (Creswell, 2014:217).

Its basic premise is based on the belief that combining the qualitative and quantitative approaches yields better understanding of the research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:5). In support, Rubin and Babbie (2013:43) define mixed methods as “a type of research design in which not only does the researcher collect both qualitative and quantitative data, but also integrates both sources of data at one or more stages of the research process so as to improve understanding of the phenomenon being studied”. From another viewpoint which links with the pragmatic philosophical stance (See section 2.2), Johnson et al. (2007:129) argue that the mixed methods research approach integrates theoretical and practical efforts; taking into consideration the local and broader socio-political contexts, resources and the needs of individuals, families, groups, communities and society in order to gain knowledge and better understanding through multiple viewpoints, perspectives, positions and standpoints, from multiple sources such as learners and educators (Myers, 2014:297; Johnson et al., 2007:113).

Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2010:62) mention four major rationales for mixing methods. These include: *participant enrichment*, *instrument fidelity*, *treatment integrity*, and *significance enhancement*. Within the context of this study, the researcher wanted to increase the number of participants and strengthen the sample size (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2010:62) by combining the participants from the qualitative samples with the respondents from the quantitative research. The

researcher combined the approaches to maximise and strengthen the utility of the research instruments (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2010:62) and to obtain multiple perspectives about the problem (Creswell, 2015:15) in order to enhance the interpretation of the findings (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2010:63).

Mixing approaches is recommended because neither qualitative nor quantitative approaches in themselves can adequately capture the trends and details of a complex situation such as school violence (Ivankova, Creswell & Stick, 2006:3) and mixing approaches is generally accepted as good practice for tackling complex and multifaceted problems (Guest, 2013:143). According to the authors, this strategy could enhance the fidelity of the school violence prevention programme (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2010:63). Moreover, Myers (2014:299) argues that using one approach only may yield “more confusion” than help. Rather, mixing approaches could create synergy between all the research questions, could lead to the discovery of social “facts”, and add more insight into the school violence issue than could be possible if one approach was used (Fielding, 2012:125; Testa et al., 2011:246; Johnson et al., 2007:123). Furthermore, researchers show that mixing methods provides more rigorous evaluation of intervention programmes (Ivankova, 2015:60), advances knowledge and innovation (Testa et al., 2011:236) and contributes to theory and practice that is relevant to the field of violence prevention (Venkatesh, Brown & Bala, 2012-2013:4).

Within the context of the study, the mixed methods research approach was utilised to investigate the nature, causes, extent and impact of school-based violence and to also investigate how it is currently addressed in practice. The mixed methods approach enabled the researcher to obtain multiple views from learners and educators in understanding the school violence phenomenon and to obtain suggestions from a preventative perspective. The researcher reasoned that by mixing the approaches, the school-based violence prevention programme would not only be able to reduce the levels of violence in practice, but the strategy would also advance knowledge and accelerate the development of innovative and responsive school-based violence prevention strategies and programmes in South Africa.

2.4 Type of research

The study did not only seek to add to the understanding of the complex phenomenon of school-based violence, but also to propose a prevention programme that could address the problem from a prevention perspective (Neuman, 2006:25). Therefore, this study was applied in nature because it sought to offer practical solutions to the ongoing school-based violence problem (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:27) with the ultimate intention to bring about sustained change (Marlow, 2011:34).

Therefore, Intervention Research, the Design and Development (D&D) model (Rothman & Thomas, 1994), which is a sub-type of applied research was undertaken. As Fraser, Richman, Galinsky and Day (2009:4-6) describe this type of research, it is a systematic and purposive research process undertaken with the aim of alleviating social problems such as school violence by developing new strategies or improving existing ones, with the ultimate goal of bringing about sustained change. Melnyk and Morrison-Beedy (2012:1) add that through intervention research, lessons are learned about strategies that work best to achieve positive outcomes and make a difference in people's lives.

Furthermore, through intervention research, existing interventions can be adapted to create and test new strategies (Fraser et al., 2009:11) in an effort to use knowledge that has been acquired to take action (Neuman, 2012:49) in order to bring about social change. This type of research enabled the researcher to use the information gained from the literature review on existing evidence-based international and national strategies and interventions as well as the empirical evidence to inform the design of a national school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District- Gauteng Province.

As a systematic process, the Intervention Research (D&D) model is characterised by six phases as outlined by Rothman and Thomas (1994) which is presented diagrammatically in Figure 2.1 below.

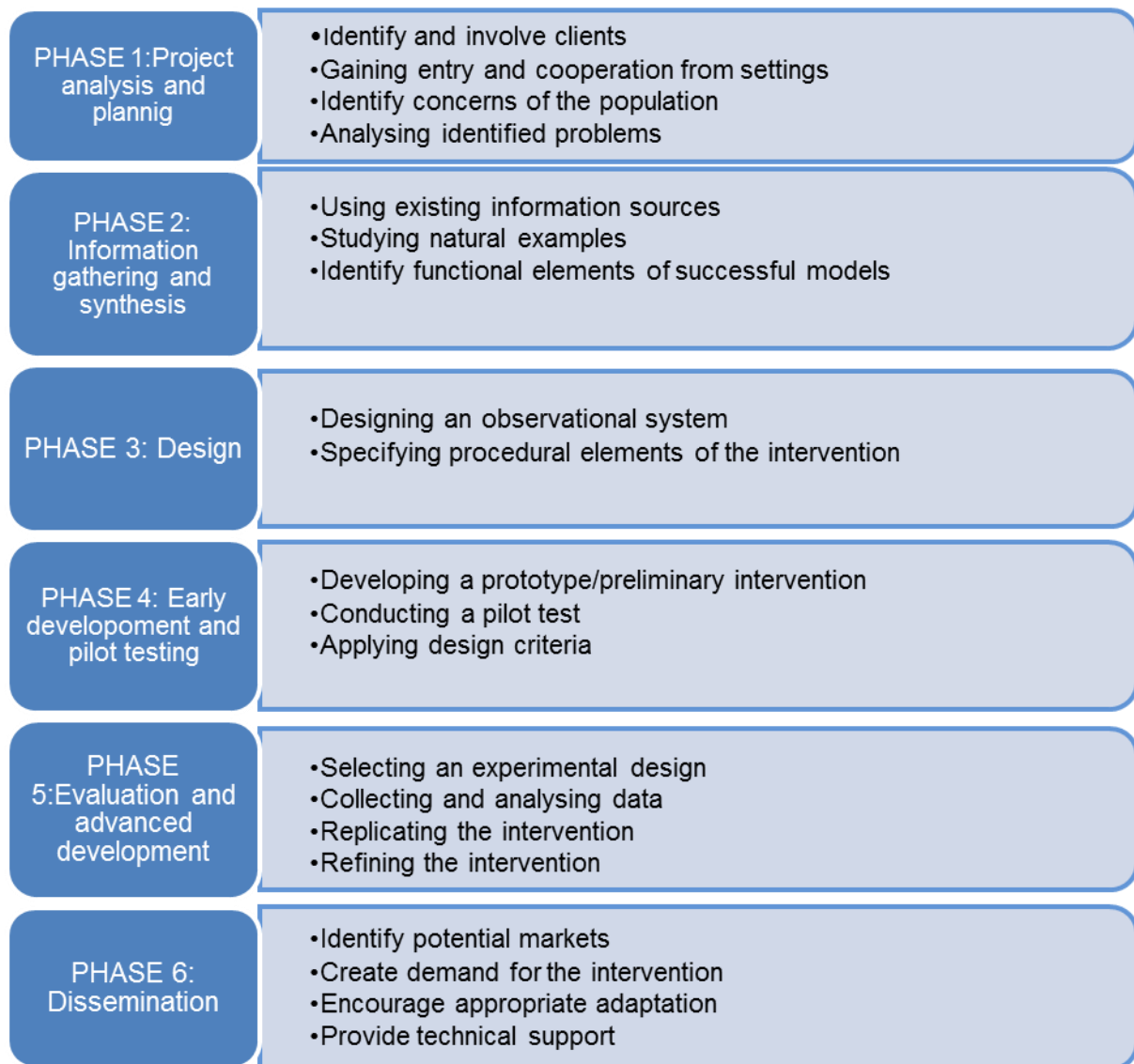


Figure 2.1 Intervention Research (D & D) Model (Source: Rothman & Thomas, 1994)

In this study, the Intervention Research (D & D) Model was implemented up till phase four and the researcher made recommendations for further refinement and implementation (See Chapter 8). In phase one, the researcher conducted problem identification and project planning. This step entailed obtaining approval from University of Pretoria's Faculty of Humanities Research Ethics Committee (See Appendix A); Gauteng DoE (See Appendix B); Tshwane South District (See Appendix C); and School Principals (See Appendix D).

In phase two, the researcher undertook information gathering and synthesis, which entailed interviewing experts in the field; reviewing existing literature on international and national strategies and interventions; identifying core elements of successful interventions and obtaining input from participants to be incorporated in the school-based violence prevention programme (See Chapters 3-5). In phase three, the researcher developed the school-based violence prevention programme (See Chapter 6). Finally, in phase four, the researcher conducted an early development and pilot testing of the programme (See Chapter 7). This entailed developing a monitoring and evaluation system and conducting a pilot evaluation of the school-based violence prevention programme (See Appendices E-H). Detailed information on the practical implementation of the research process is depicted in Table 2-1 below:

Table 2-1 Practical implementation of Intervention Research (D&D) Model

Phase	Step	Operational Steps	Chapters in thesis
PHASE 1: Problem analysis and project planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Identifying and involving respondents -Gaining entry and cooperation from settings -Identifying concerns of the population -Analysing identified problems -Setting goals and objectives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Obtained approval from University of Pretoria's Faculty of Humanities Research Ethics Committee -Obtained permission from Department of Education authorities -Identified schools and obtained permission from school principals -Briefed the principals about the purpose of the study and obtained consensus on the need for the study -Identified educators and learners -Obtained consent from educators -Obtained consent from parents or guardians of learners -Obtained assent from the learners -Jointly planning with high school principals on data collection. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Chapter 1 Chapter 2 Chapter 3
PHASE 2: Information gathering and synthesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Using existing information sources -Studying natural examples -Identifying functional elements of successful models of intervention 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Interviewed experts in the field -Reviewed existing literature on international and national strategies and models of intervention -Learn lessons from existing sources on how to address the problem of school violence -Identified critical elements of successful interventions to be incorporated in the envisaged programme -Obtained input from the respondents to be incorporated in envisaged programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Chapter 1 Chapter 2 Chapter 3 Chapter 4 Chapter 5
PHASE 3: Design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Designing an observational system -Specifying procedural elements of the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Utilised Lipsey's theoretical framework to develop the programme incorporating participants' input and literature sources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Chapter 3 Chapter 4 Chapter 5

	intervention	-Developed monitoring and evaluation tools -Formulated a hybrid model of teaching and learning	Chapter 6
PHASE 4: Early development and pilot testing	-Developing a prototype/ preliminary intervention -Conducting a pilot test -Applying design criteria	-Developed the Triple T programme -Implemented the programme at a high school in Tshwane South District- Gauteng Province -Conducted a pilot test of the programme and data analysis	Chapter 6 Chapter 7

Based on the outcomes of phase two of the Intervention Research (D & D) Model that entailed collecting data from the research participants, preliminary findings revealed the need to expand the study outcomes and develop a school-based violence prevention programme that targets not only learners as initially planned, but also parents or caregivers and educators. The researcher observed similar findings from the extensive literature review that she undertook for the study (See Chapter 4: sections 4.4, 4.7 and 4.10). However, expanding the study to include parents or caregivers and educators was beyond the scope of the study. As indicated, the process of developing the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in itself was a challenge due to time constraints posed by the intervention research method. Thus, the study only proceeded as far as developing a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners which was pilot tested (See Chapter 7).

The need for a research plan modification is not unique to this study. Guest (2013:147) and Myers (2014:311) confirm that research is not solid. The authors substantiate the fact that even the most carefully designed studies are sometimes not completed as planned due to limited time or financial and human resource constraints. Weaver-Hightower (2014:133) confirm by stating that researchers should realise the implications of resource requirements that can be considerable because mixed methods studies take long to complete. To guard against this occurrence and to minimise the impact of such limitations, Schilling (2010:552) suggests building-in a stopping point early in the study to prevent undue compromise to the planned study. Therefore, the decision to end the process at phase 4 was taken.

2.5 Research design

The appropriate type of mixed methods research design adopted in this study was the mixed concurrent design, the equal status type, whereby the qualitative and quantitative phases occurred approximately at the same point in time (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009:268). The researcher applied the triangulated design, a variant and sub-type of mixed methods research design, also called concurrent triangulated design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:64) or triangulation design model (Creswell et al., 2004:11).

The mixed methods design was an appropriate fit given the research questions and hypotheses already discussed in section 2.1 above. Jeanty and Hibel (2011:636) confirm that research questions or hypotheses have originally dictated whether the qualitative or quantitative method would be the best option. The nature of the research design employed in this study was both exploratory and descriptive and encompassed the case study and the survey (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2013:47) which are described in the following sub-sections.

2.5.1 Qualitative research design

During the qualitative phase, exploratory research was undertaken because the researcher knew little about the topic of school violence and wanted to generate initial insights into this complex issue (Marlow, 2011:38). The researcher investigated the circumstances at schools, learnt more about what is going on in and around schools, how learners interact with their peers, how educators engage and interact with learners, and to learn more about their concerns and needs.

To employ the exploratory phase of the study, a case study design, specifically the collective case study design was utilised. Several researchers agree that a collective case study design is used when a number of different cases such as those of learners and educators are studied to investigate some phenomena such as school-based violence, can be compared with one another to make suggestions (Silverman, 2013:143; Fouché & Schurink, 2011:322). With the use of a collective case study

design, a particular individual, programme, or event is studied in-depth for a defined period of time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:95). Hence, the school violence issue was explored and described by a thorough in-depth data collection process consisting of multiple sources which are rich in context (Fouché & Schurink, 2011:321).

Using a collective case study design offered multiple perspectives about the issue of school-based violence and the effects of lack of prevention services, wherein the researcher not only considered the voices and experiences of learners only, but the views of the educators as well (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:75). It was important for the researcher to study and understand their interactions and relationships and how these contributed to the school violence problem. With the case study as a bounded system (Kumar, 2011:126), the researcher systematically conducted the enquiry with the aim of describing and explaining the school violence phenomenon; by gaining a holistic understanding of the nature, prevalence, and causes of school-based violence; and by identifying its effects on learners, educators and the teaching environment (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:75), and by way of exploring the availability of intervention and prevention strategies (Fouché & Schurink, 2011:320). Adler and Clark (2015:13) add that by studying multiple cases of learners and educators, the researcher would be able to develop tentative ideas on how to address the problem.

On the contrary, case studies are criticised for being incapable of providing generalised conclusions (Babbie, 2013:340; Denscombe, 2010:62). Notwithstanding these constraints, this study aimed at generating relevant and comprehensive knowledge about school violence from learners and teachers from a few schools and limited the generalisations of the findings only to those cases of schools with similar demographics (Widmer, Hirschi, Serdúlt, & Vögeli, 2008:152). The advantages of using the collective case study design enabled the researcher to obtain answers to the research questions from the learners' and educators' perspectives (Neuman, 2012:16). Furthermore it provided in-depth, rich and detailed data to enable the researcher to develop the school-based violence prevention programme (Braun & Clark, 2013:21).

2.5.2 Quantitative research design

During the quantitative phase of the study, the descriptive survey research design was employed, focusing on the “how” and “who” questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:184), to describe the situation of school-based violence. The survey enabled the researcher to identify and describe the nature and aetiology of the phenomenon (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006:474) and to obtain learners’ and educators’ opinions, attitudes, and experiences of school-based violence (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:184;189; Engel & Schutt, 2013:18). Furthermore, the researcher sought to obtain a precise picture about how violence is managed in schools, what strategies are in place, how effective these interventions are, how much knowledge and skills the learners and educators have relating to school violence, and what strategies, measures or services need to be put in place to address the problem (Adler & Clark, 2015:14; Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:206; Neuman, 2012:16-17).

A criticism levelled against survey research is that researchers draw conclusions and make generalisations relying on the participants’ self-reports which may sometimes be a misrepresentation of facts (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:190). Therefore, survey research results should be interpreted with caution. Despite these limitations, Durrheim (2006:44) states that descriptive research describes phenomena accurately.

In sum, mixed methods research has pros and cons. De Lisle (2011:109) and Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:66) confirm that triangulated research designs have both challenges and advantages. Several researchers (cf: Delport & Fouché, 2011:436; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:80; Myers, 2014:311) corroborate the fact that mixing methods is not easy and requires sufficient resources and expert knowledge and skills in quantitative and qualitative research. Several researchers (Testa et al., 2011:243; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:66; Myers, 2014:311) confirm that researchers need to consult established methodological literature resources and collaborate with research teams comprising of qualitative and quantitative experts or consult experts before embarking on any mixed methods research.

The researcher has undergone training in both qualitative and quantitative research methods and has been working under the supervision of her study leader. In addition, the researcher was supported by three experts in quantitative research methods who assisted her with the refinement of the questionnaire, sampling techniques and quantitative data analysis. The researcher worked with an ATLAS.ti expert to ensure acceptable levels of inter-coder agreement with regard to the coding of the qualitative data.

The concurrent mixed methods research design is symbolised as QUAL + QUANT (Johnson et al., 2007:123) as depicted below in Figure 2.2

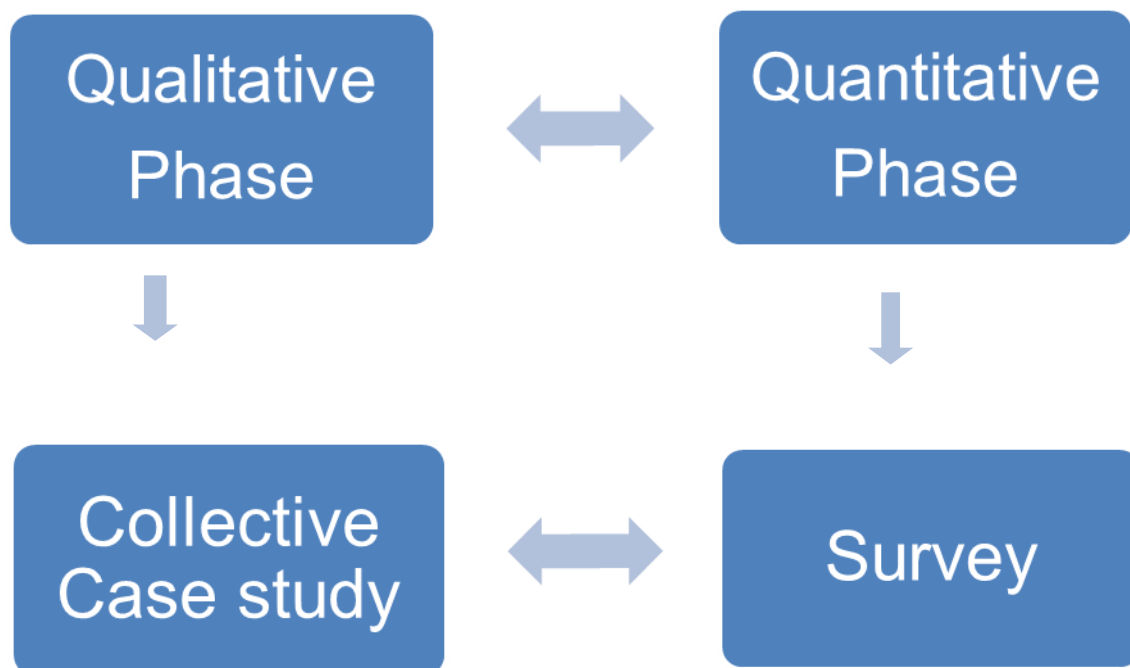


Figure 2.2 Concurrent Mixed Methods Research Design

Despite the challenges discussed above, there are several advantages to applying triangulated research designs as postulated by several researchers (cf: Ivankova, 2015:58; Myers, 2014:314; Testa et al., 2011:246). According to De Lisle (2011:89), triangulated research methods are suitable for addressing “complex and multiplex social phenomena that are not easily amenable to single frame probing”. Hence the triangulated design was appropriate for addressing school-based violence.

To confirm, Testa et al. (2011:237) conducted a mixed methods study on violence against women involving a sample of 1,014 female participants. The authors argue that such a mixed methods research study was particularly appropriate for studying physical and sexual violence against women. The authors further state that violence takes place in social contexts in which it is influenced by gender norms, interpersonal relationships, and sexual scripts. Therefore, the triangulated design was appropriate within the context of this study as violence is caused by multiple factors.

The exploratory and descriptive strands of the research enabled the researcher to obtain in-depth, factual and accurate information from the participating learners and educators that empowered her to develop the school-based violence prevention programme (See Chapters 6-7) and address the lack of evidence-based prevention and intervention strategies. This has been the case in this study as Venkatesh et al. (2012-2013:4) indicate that mixing approaches has the ability to address both exploratory and confirmatory questions within the same study to investigate complex and sensitive issues such as school violence.

2.6 Research methods

The choice of research methods does not happen in a vacuum but is influenced by philosophical worldviews (Cameron, 2011:99). In this study, the pragmatic and critical paradigms (See Chapter 2: section 2.2) influenced the methods for seeking answers to the research questions and hypotheses. Thus, the research methods section will address the procedures for implementing the research design. Included in this discussion will be the population of the study. This is followed by a discussion of the sampling methods, the purpose of and guidelines for mixing samples and the advantages of implementing mixed sampling methods. In addition, data collection and data analysis methods are presented and described. Lastly, data quality and legitimation, pilot studies, ethical aspects and limitations of the study are discussed.

2.6.1 Study population

The population in this study comprised of all learners and educators of Tshwane South District High Schools because these schools were essential data collection sites from which the sample was selected (Babbie, 2011:186). These populations helped to set boundaries on the study units and only constituted certain characteristics required to explore the nature, extent, causes and impact of school-based violence (Durrheim & Painter, 2006:133). In view of the fact that obtaining information from all learners and educators is impractical, the option was to draw a sample from these populations (Strydom, 2011a: 223).

2.6.2 Sample and sampling methods

In order to conduct the sampling procedure, a sampling frame comprising of a list of all registered schools in Tshwane South District was obtained from the Gauteng Provincial Department of Education District Offices in Pretoria from which the sample of schools was drawn for inclusion in the study (Rubin & Babbie, 2013:162). In this context, the group of high schools in the Tshwane South District and their learners and educators formed the unit of analysis for investigating the problem of school-based violence (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:169).

Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:283) argue that researchers have to consider two major components, the sampling scheme and the sample size, prior to embarking on the mixed methods research. According to these researchers, sampling schemes are the specific strategies used to select study units such as people, groups, events or settings (Collins, Onwuegbuzie & Jiao, 2007:271), whilst the sample size is the number of participants selected for the study (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:288). Collins et al. (2007:271) indicate that these components are determined by the research objectives, research questions and research design. These were considered and factored into the planning process prior to embarking on the study. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:119) urge researchers to select the same individuals to participate in both qualitative and quantitative phases of the study in order to make data integration simple and comparable. Therefore, the researcher selected grades 9

and 10 learners and educators from one population of nine high schools within the Tshwane South District to participate in both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study.

Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:287) advise researchers to determine appropriate sample sizes for each phase of the study because size determines the extent to which one can make generalisations and inferences. The researcher opted for unequal sample sizes between the qualitative and quantitative strands of the study. As suggested by Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:289), sample sizes should not be so small as to make it difficult to achieve data saturation and should also not be so large as to make it difficult to conduct deep case analysis. In the context of this study, the quantitative sample was larger, comprising a total of 679 learners as compared to the smaller qualitative sample of 47 learners and 30 educators. The researcher used both non-probability and probability sampling schemes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:207) as will next be discussed.

2.6.3 Mixed methods sampling techniques

Given the fact that the study was influenced by pragmatic and critical worldviews and utilised the concurrent triangulated research design, a mixed methods sampling method was employed, whereby the samples for each strand of the study were drawn separately and did not inform one another (Hesse-Biber, 2010:52). In this study, both probability and non-probability sampling strategies were implemented to select cases of schools, grades, educators and learners because they illustrate the features or process in which the researcher was interested (Silverman, 2013:148).

Non-probability samples were used to provide “information rich” data and obtain diverse perspectives from various learners and educators (Braun & Clark, 2013:56). Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:287) add that non-random samples do not seek to generalise findings to the population, but to obtain insights into a phenomenon such as school violence or individuals such as learners or educators. Probability or random samples on the other hand, are primarily used in quantitative studies to

achieve representativeness (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:77; 87) and to allow for the generalisation of findings (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:285).

The mixed methods sampling design departs from the understanding that mixed methods research represents a unique way of investigating and seeing the world (De Lisle, 2011:94). The fact that school violence is complex and is caused by multiple social factors called for the use of complex, mixed and multiple samples (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:80). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:180) identified characteristics that define mixed methods sampling, namely: (a) They combine quantitative and qualitative traits of sampling; (b) they use both formal and informal sampling frames; (c) they generate representative samples that yield rich information; (d) they produce valid and credible data; (e) they include multiple samples of varying sizes; (f) they generate both numeric and narrative data; and (g) they start before the study starts. However, the authors say that in some studies qualitative questions may lead to other samples (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:180).

The researcher used both random and non-random sampling techniques to generate representative samples that yielded rich and in-depth information about the school violence phenomenon (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:85). The mixed samples of learners and educators, comprising both small and large sample sizes were able to produce valid and credible numeric and narrative data (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:180). As a result, the researcher used a formal sampling frame in the form of an official list of all registered schools obtained from the Tshwane South District Offices in Gauteng Province.

The researcher implemented concurrent multilevel sampling, also called multi-stage sampling (Sharp et al., 2012:35) to select samples that were suitable to answer the research questions and hypotheses, and these samples were more likely to be representative of the high school population. Hesser-Biber (2010:55) and Sharp et al. (2012:39) describe concurrent multilevel sampling as instances where samples for both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study are drawn randomly from the same population using purposive and random sampling techniques. As it was the

case in the context of this study, high school learners and educators were selected within the Tshwane South District of the Department of Education using mixed sampling techniques.

In addition, schools are complex and hierarchical in nature (Sharp et al., 2012:48) and have multiple interrelated levels that include districts, regions, schools, classrooms, grades, principals, educators and learners. Thus, multilevel mixed methods sampling techniques were appropriate as such methods are common in such educational systems and other organisations where different units of analysis are nested with one another (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:190). As a result, multilevel mixed methods sampling techniques were implemented in the Tshwane South District education system, whereby the qualitative and quantitative sampling techniques were used according the following six levels (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:190; Teddlie & Yu, 2007:77): Tshwane South district office, Tshwane South high schools, grades, classrooms, educators and learners.

The purposive sampling technique was used because the researcher was interested in selecting samples of participants that exhibited a variety of relevant variables that are critical to the purpose of the study (Babbie, 2013:128). For example, the researcher was interested in samples of high school learners and educators who have experienced school violence either as victims, perpetrators or bystanders. Using the probability sampling technique, the researcher chose participants from the overall population by using random selection so that every member of the population could have an equal opportunity to be selected (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:207). When concurrent sampling techniques are used, Collins et al. (2007:276) warn researchers to ensure that data obtained from the qualitative samples does not inform or influence the data coming from the sample selected for the quantitative phase. This was a critical point to take into consideration in the context of studying school violence.

According to Hesse-Biber (2010:67), combining two sampling strategies should allow the researcher to explore divergent views to gain more robust understanding of the

school violence phenomenon. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:180) add that mixing sampling techniques should generate complementary data that has both depth and breadth. Collins et al. (2007:276) highlight the fact that the relationship of the qualitative and quantitative samples can either be identical, parallel, nested, or multilevel. In this current study, the relationship between the samples was multilevel because many sets of samples were obtained from different populations such as different schools and different classes (Collins et al., 2007:277).

Similarly to other research sites, schools, are often complex social systems with their own norms, expectations, interpersonal dynamics and insider-outsider boundaries (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:202). The researcher needed to gain entry into the schools by first going through gatekeepers and thereafter establish rapport with them in order to gain the trust of the research participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:143). In order to gain access to school management, educators and learners, the following procedures were followed:

- From the Tshwane South District office, the researcher obtained the 2011 school contact list containing 255 public and independent; ordinary and special; high, secondary and primary schools that are registered under the Gauteng Department of Education.
- The researcher removed all the primary and higher primary schools from the register as they were not the focus of the study and hence restricted the sampling frame to secondary and high schools that accommodate Grades 8 through 12 learners.
- From this adapted list, another list of 103 public and independent; ordinary high and secondary schools was compiled into a sampling frame which was used to select the participants for the current study.
- For the purposes of the study, the sampling frame was limited to ordinary schools. Special schools were excluded due to the fact that the researcher anticipated that the decision-making capacities of learners from ordinary schools would be significantly different from those of learners with special needs. As a result of the diversity, she anticipated finding difficulties in engaging learners with learning disabilities in the research study. The

researcher was conscious of and sensitive to the principles of non-discrimination and inclusion. Therefore, only learners and educators from the mainstream education sector were included and given opportunities to participate in the designing of the programme.

- After the exclusion of primary schools and special schools for learners with intellectual disabilities, a final sample of 51 high schools formed the population from which samples that characterise the population of interest were drawn.
- Letters for permission to conduct the study were sent to all school principals of the 51 remaining high schools (See Appendix I). The researcher conducted telephone follow-ups with the school principals of the sampled schools to facilitate positive response. Only 20 school principals replied to the application for permission to conduct the study. The researcher then conducted telephone follow-ups with the school principals of the schools that responded positively to request their assistance in selecting grade 9 and 10 classes to participate in the study.
- Nine principals responded to the request and granted the researcher permission to conduct the research study. However, the principals requested personal interviews with the researcher, to further explain the purpose of the study and clarify the processes and procedures that duly took place at the respective schools.
- After the personal interviews, the nine high schools granted the researcher permission to conduct the study.

2.6.3.1 Qualitative sampling method

In implementing the multilevel sampling procedures, Level 1 to 5 will be discussed in the qualitative sampling phase and level six in the quantitative sampling phase of the study. The researcher implemented basic sampling techniques in sequence to select the participants for the qualitative strand as follows:

Level 1: A stratified purposive sampling technique was utilised to divide the population into desired homogeneous groups or strata. Stratified purposive sampling is a well-known mixed method sampling technique whereby the researcher selects

subgroups of the population and then selects cases from each subgroup in a purposive manner (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:186). The researcher used stratified purposive sampling because she was interested in drawing a random sample that would be representative of the population on some characteristics such as being a high school (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:79; Rubin & Babbie, 2013:167; Hesse-Biber, 2010:50). Additionally, the researcher wanted to ensure that the list is well organised and the schools are grouped according to public and independent; township, town and suburb locations; and English and Afrikaans medium strata. In total, the sample consisted of seven public and two independent schools from four townships and five suburbs.

Rubin and Babbie (2013:167) and Leedy and Ormrod (2013:211) claim that stratified purposive sampling is advantageous in that equal representation of each stratum is guaranteed and sampling error is reduced. The sampling criteria enabled the researcher to select a diverse group of high schools in terms of racial, socio-economic, political, cultural, spiritual and religious backgrounds and contexts in order to fully understand the school violence problem. In total a sample size of 51 diverse high schools was selected from the sampling frame of registered schools in the Tshwane South District as the strata sample.

Level 2: Systematic sampling was employed in the second stage of the multilevel concurrent sampling process whereby study units were selected from the list of 51 schools (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:111). In order to avoid any bias, the first school was selected randomly from a randomly generated list of schools that represented the target population (Rubin & Babbie, 2013:167; Cohen et al., 2007:111). Thereafter, every 4th element in the list was systematically selected for inclusion in the study sample (Rubin & Babbie, 2013:166; Hesse-Biber, 2010:50). This second stage of sampling continued until the desired sample size of 20 schools was reached. From this list only nine schools granted the researcher permission to conduct the study.

Level 3: To select the grade 9 and 10 classes, the researcher requested the help of the school principals of the nine selected schools to supply the researcher with a list of all the grade 9 and 10 classes. Access was a key factor that was addressed earlier during the initial stages of the research process by seeking approval of gatekeepers (Cohen et al., 2007:109). Cohen et al. (2007:109) state that access may be denied by these gatekeepers. In the context of this study these gatekeepers consisted of school management teams who comprised of school principals and school governing boards (SGBs). After access was granted (See Appendix D), the researcher used stratified sampling whereby the classes were grouped into two strata (grades 9 and 10) which were unequal in size because each grade level had different numbers of learners (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:211). To ensure equal samples from each of the two grades, the researcher took every second class on the lists until a total of 18 grade 9 and 10 classes were sampled from the compiled lists of grades 9 and 10 classes.

Level 4: In this level purposive sampling was utilised to select samples of grades 9 and 10 educators from the lists of grades 9 and 10 classes. The design phase relied on non-probability, purposive sampling methods to select a subset of the population, because the researcher was not interested in the representativeness of the sample (Neuman, 2006:220), but more interested in cases that could clarify and deepen her understanding about the school violence phenomenon. Purposive samples are usually non-random (Hesse-Biber, 2010:51) because the researcher was only looking for the most typical cases of grade 9 and 10 educators that would answer the research question.

One of the strengths of non-probability sampling is that small sample sizes are usually involved, which are flexible and data is collected until saturation is reached. That is when no new themes emerge and/or when the information being collected becomes repetitive (Maree, 2007:7). Using the purposive sampling method, a total of 30 grade 9 and 10 educators were deliberately selected from the nine sampled schools to represent that particular group of educators in Tshwane South District.

The educators granted the researcher permission to conduct the study by completing the informed consent form (See Appendix J).

The selection criteria prescribed that educators had to be:

- Qualified professional educators;
- Teaching in a public or independent high school;
- Teaching either a grade 9 or 10 class; and
- Teaching either in a town, township or suburban high school.

The educators granted the researcher permission to conduct the study by completing the informed consent form (See Appendix J). Before embarking on the next level of selecting the learners, the researcher enlisted the help of school principals and classroom educators to give her an opportunity to address the learners and explain the purpose of the research and to request their participation in the study. The researcher made her presentation and explained that the study had two phases and that each phase would take approximately an hour to conduct and that there would be questionnaires to be completed in a group format in the classrooms. Additionally, she informed the learners that an unlimited number of participants were required for the quantitative phase of the study whilst for the qualitative phase, between 8 to 12 learners per school were needed to participate in focus group discussions. They were informed about the consent and assent forms that needed to be completed prior to participating in the study (See Appendices K & L).

Learners were also given an opportunity to ask clarifying questions. Learners wanted to know about payment for participating in the study and transport costs. The researcher informed participants that no payment would be offered for participating in the study but assured the learners that their transport costs would be covered if they missed their school transport or taxis.

Level 5: To select learner participants at this stage, purposive sampling was implemented to select learners from the grade 9 and 10 class registers that were

supplied by the sampled school principals. The researcher chose these grade 9 and 10 learners because they illustrated features that were of interest for this particular study (Strydom & Delport, 2011:392). The criteria for inclusion required that learners had to be:

- Attending a public or independent high school;
- Either in grade 9 or 10;
- Either in a town or township or suburban school;
- Able to speak English fluently; and
- Of any nationality or racial group.

The technique of purposive sampling was based on the researcher making an informed decision on whom to best include in the sample (Strydom, 2011a:233). Purposive sampling was deemed appropriate because the researcher used her own judgement to choose grade 9 and 10 learners that could provide the best information to achieve the goal of the study (Kumar, 2011:207) since random sampling would fail to yield the most informative human participants (Mabry, 2008:223). The researcher enlisted the help of educators in recruiting the participants from the larger classes. The first 47 learners who responded were invited to attend the focus group interviews. The distribution of learner participants between the schools were as follows: School 1 (8 learners); School 2 (11 learners); School 3 (6 learners); School 4 (10 learners) School 5 (12 learners). For educators, the distribution was as follows: School 1 (6 educators); School 2 (9 educators); School 3 (9 educators) and School 4 (6 educators). The multi-level sampling procedure that was followed to select research participants is displayed in Figure 2.3.

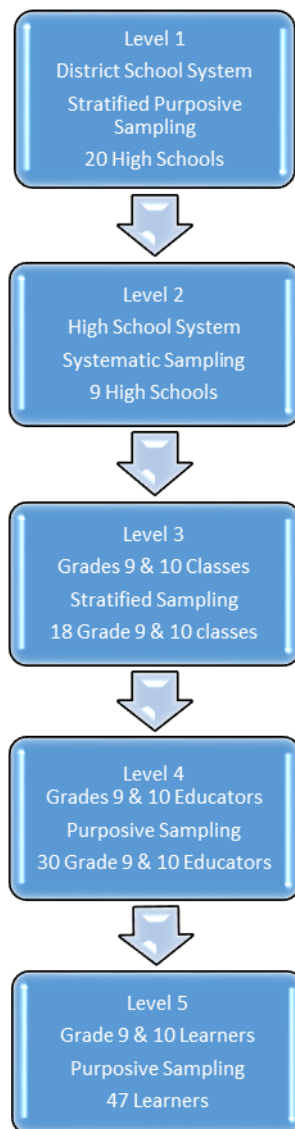


Figure 2.3 Multi-level sampling as applied to the Tshwane South District High Schools (Source: Teddlie & Yu, 2007:94)

2.6.3.2 Quantitative sampling method

In stage three sampling, the researcher used stratified sampling whereby grade 9 and 10 classes were grouped into two strata to implement level 6 as described below.

Level 6: To implement the quantitative strand of the study, the researcher used the procedure described above in level 3 and approached the principals of the 9 schools and asked them to randomly select grade 9 and 10 classes. Although the selection

process was very deliberate and specific in terms of the schools, the selection of learners from the respective schools remained open, in that all learners in grade 9 and 10 who were available and willing to participate in the study were included in the survey research. The researcher could not specify exact numbers to the principals because the schools and classrooms were not of the same size. The researcher asked the school principals to use the process as described by Cohen et al. (2007:113) which stipulates that one should go from general to specific, the wide to the focused, and the large to the small. The school principals invited all grade 9 and 10 learners in order to recruit as many respondents as possible from a large enough number of learners to undertake the survey and ensure sufficient data is collected for statistical data analysis procedures (see Appendix M). Selection was thus not a matter of pure chance as the participants were selected on the basis of the selection criteria as described in level five.

Due to practical reasons such as learners using common public transport to go home after school, many learners were unable to participate in the quantitative strand of the mixed methods study. Cohen et al. (2007:109) indicate that access can be denied by potential participants for very practical reasons such as availability and schedules of public transport. Subsequently, stage sampling was utilised at this level to select 679 learners who participated in the quantitative part of the study. Cohen et al. (2007:112) describe stage sampling as a process of selecting a sample from a sample. In this phase of the study, grade 9 and 10 learners were randomly selected from all the grade 9 and 10 classes that were selected from the nine sampled schools. This is a form of probability sampling technique, whereby the total number of 679 learners were selected in a random manner to achieve representativeness (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:170). The distribution of the sample between the nine schools was as follows: School 1 (62 learners); School 2 (46 learners); School 3 (36 learners); School 4 (88 learners); School 5 (61 learners); School 6 (84 learners); School 7 (106 learners); School 8 (95 learners); School 9 (99 learners). The process is displayed in Figure 2.4.

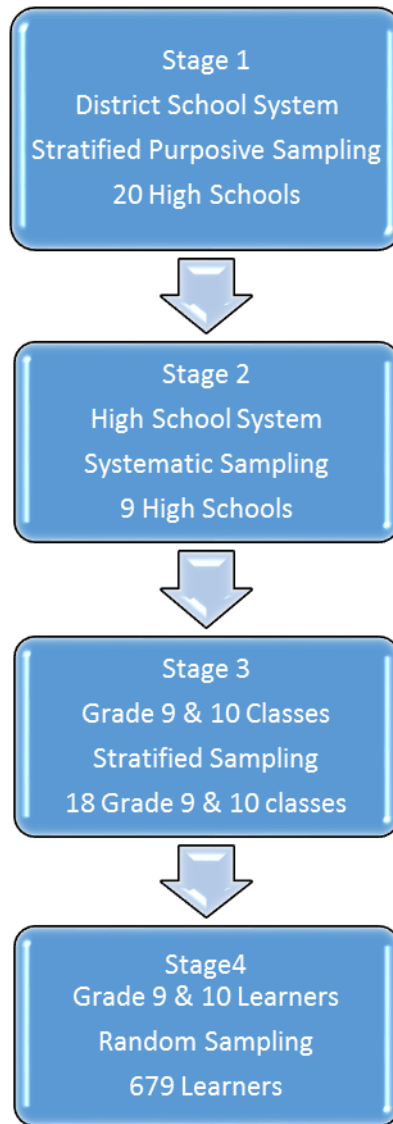


Figure 2.4 Stage Sampling as applied to the Tshwane South District High Schools (Source: Teddlie & Yu, 2007:94).

Quantitative investigations are primarily based on the principles of randomised sampling that ensures that the findings are representative of the general population (Hesse-Biber, 2010:49). The goal was to ascertain specific “truths” about the social world within which schools are located, with the ultimate goal of making generalisations (Hesse-Biber, 2010:49) about the issue of school violence from the perspective of learners and how to go about addressing the problem.

The original plan of the study was to include a sample of educators as participants in the quantitative strand of the study to represent a population of grade 9 and 10

educators. However, educators declined to participate. They cited work overload, time constraints, and personal reasons. Some stated that they are tired of participating in research studies which do not seem to help them directly. The researcher accepted this in line with the ethical principle of voluntary participation and did not attempt to persuade them and neither attempt to recruit other educators from other schools in Tshwane South District. Cohen et al. (2007:109) postulate that populations differ in their accessibility. The authors found student teachers and learners to be relatively accessible and easy to survey (Cohen et al., 2007:109). Additionally, the authors state that access might be denied by people who have something to protect (Cohen et al., 2007:109). Schilling (2010:552) posits that researchers encounter resistance when they attempt to conduct research in settings that do not welcome scrutiny. Whatever the reasons may have been, the educators' right to refuse to participate in the study was respected. Therefore, no survey was conducted with educators as initially planned.

The refusal by educators to participate did not affect the outcomes of this study because the purposive random sampling strategy that was employed to select a small number of educators from a larger population to participate in the focus group interviews added credibility to the results of this study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:187). Cohen et al. (2007:211) concur that researchers should try and collect information from smaller subgroups of the population in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the total population.

The advantage of implementing the concurrent multilevel sampling design was that the researcher could generate qualitative data using purposive sampling techniques and used probability sampling techniques to generate quantitative data whereby the samples were drawn independently from the same population (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:92). Moreover, the advantage of applying concurrent multilevel sampling is that the researcher was able to triangulate the data from the qualitative and quantitative strands of the research; to achieve agreement and identify contradictions between the qualitative findings and the quantitative results on certain issues relating to research questions; and explore the divergence and increase the validity and

credibility of the outcomes of the study (Hesse-Biber, 2010:52; 67). The aspect of triangulating findings is discussed in Chapter 5.

2.7 Mixed methods data collection

Firstly a mixed methods data collection approach is described, followed by a discussion on the rationale and purpose. Next, the qualitative and quantitative methods are described and this sub-section is accompanied by a discussion of the types of data collection instruments that were used in the study. Finally, the strengths and weaknesses of each of the data collection instruments are delineated.

Two different data collection strategies were utilised as the study followed the mixed methods research approach guided by the pragmatic worldview (Creswell, 2014:219). The researcher used the concurrent mixed methods data collection approach whereby she collected both qualitative and quantitative data in parallel, at almost the same time, with respect to almost similar research questions (Creswell, 2014:219; Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:260) to look at multiple viewpoints, perspectives, and ideas from the learners and educators affected by school-based violence (See Appendices M & N). The same variables, similar constructs and parallel concepts (Creswell, 2014:222), such as the nature, extent and causes of violence, services to manage violence, and prevention strategies, were measured quantitatively and qualitatively.

The assumption is that by using the concurrent mixed methods data collection approach, the researcher is able to get two different types of information that yield similar findings from the different participants (Creswell, 2014:219). The researcher engaged two distinct groups of participants in order to compare the views and perspectives of learners against those of other learners to compare educators' responses against other educators' responses; and to compare educators' views with those of learners. Morse and Niehaus (2009:16) concur that these concurrent mixed methods designs are often used when a study involves multiple groups of participants as was the case in this study.

Almost similar questions were asked from the quantitative and qualitative standpoints to answer the research questions and hypotheses (see Appendices M & N). However, there are major differences between the two data collection methods. According to Rubin and Babbie (2013:40), qualitative data collection methods tap into the deeper meanings of people's experiences to generate deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study, whilst quantitative data collection methods seek to provide precise and generalisable findings.

There are advantages with the quantitative data collection method. Castro, Kellison, Boyd and Kopak (2010:342) identify the strengths of quantitative methods as the ability to provide (a) accurate operationalisation and measurement of specific constructs; (b) the capacity to conduct group comparison; and (c) the capacity for model specification and testing of research hypotheses. However, the quantitative methods have limitations too. The authors have identified that quantitative measuring instruments may depict distorted views or feelings and respondents are often not reporting on the real issues but may misrepresent information (Castro et al., 2010:342).

With regard to qualitative methods, Castro et al. (2010:343) state that qualitative methods are able to (a) generate rich detailed accounts of human experience; (b) provide narrative accounts that are examined within the original context in which observations occur; (c) provide in-depth analyses of complex human and family systems and cultural experiences, such as is the case with violence that affects learners, educators and teaching and learning. On the downside, Castro et al. (2010:343) argue that qualitative methods do not produce findings that can be generalised to a wider population.

The data collection methods in respect of the two approaches are discussed next.

2.7.1 Qualitative data collection method

The main data collection tool for the qualitative phase of the study was focus group interviewing. The goal of qualitative research was to rely as much as possible on the

participants' interaction within the group to discuss the topic of school violence, yielding collective rather than individual views about the situation of school violence prevalent in their different contexts (Creswell, 2014:8; Cohen et al., 2007:376).

Silverman (2013:212) and Cohen et al. (2007:376) describe a focus group interview as a planned session within a closed setting involving a small group of people often between 6 to 8 members who usually share particular characteristics such as being learners or educators, whereby they are brought together within a closed setting to discuss a particular theme, such as school violence, where the interactions within the group could lead to valuable data and research outcomes.

The researcher developed and used a semi-structured focus group interview schedule to ask questions and collect qualitative data (See Appendix N). In addition, the researcher designed an interview protocol for recording the responses and her observations. This interview protocol had columns that contained information such as date, place, the number of participants, interview questions and space for recording responses and other observations (Creswell, 2014:194). The researcher made hand-written field notes, reflecting on and describing her general observations, feelings about the course of the interviews and her interpretations of the discussions, impressions and problems immediately after the interviews (Creswell, 2014:193). The researcher ensured that her field notes were written on the same day as the interview because research has shown that field notes and interpretations of observations should be written down immediately to avoid forgetting, as such crucial information would be helpful during the interpretation of the participants' responses (Wayne, 2013:279-281).

The researcher conducted the focus group interviews that were guided by the semi-structured interview schedule using generally open-ended questions that were intended to elicit views and opinions about the nature, extent, causes, and impact of school-based violence and obtain suggestions on prevention strategies (Creswell, 2014:190). The researcher noted saturation of data as she could not get any fresh ideas or new insights (Creswell, 2014:189). Hence, she conducted five sessions with

47 learners and four sessions with 30 educators in five schools, culminating into nine focus group interview sessions.

Prior to the interviews, the researcher emphasised confidentiality and obtained the permission of the participants to use a digital audio recorder to record all the discussions. During the focus group interviews, the researcher played the role of a facilitator by leading the group discussion, asking questions and stimulating a sharing of ideas between the participants. The researcher tried to maintain a balanced conversation, not allowing any member of the group to dominate the discussion (Morse & Niehaus, 2009:91), but to allow all opinions to emerge and be heard.

The researcher was assisted by a social auxiliary worker who acted as a research assistant. The research assistant was provided with brief training on note taking, observation and operating the recording device and was required to sign the confidentiality agreement (See Appendix O). Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech and Zoran (2010:251) state that research assistants should create and use a seating chart to record the demographic information of the participants as well as the seating position of each member and their closeness to other group members. The research assistant used separate note books to record the demographic information of the participants, their seating numbers, their responses and non-verbal behaviours. The comments made by participants were written down in rows whereby the comments by each participant would reflect their pseudo identity number as per their seating position as well as indicating whether he or she was a learner or educator. Whilst the interviews were in progress, the research assistant observed and recorded all her observations and perceptions.

This system of recording the information was helpful during the transcription process as the researcher could easily link a sentence to a specific participant. After every session the researcher and research assistant met briefly to discuss and share ideas on their observations and perceptions. This information was useful during transcriptions and data analysis.

Several researchers are of the opinion that focus group interviewing is efficient in eliciting opinions, perceptions and attitudes, to develop a beginning understanding of an area of interest such as school violence prevention (Braun & Clarke, 2013:110; Morse & Niehaus, 2009:90). In addition, Braun and Clarke (2013:110) say focus groups are useful for generating data on attitudes, values and opinions quickly and cost-efficiently, and for evaluating data from different subgroups of a population or under-represented or marginalised groups. Within the context of the study such groups included high school educators and learners. This method provided open and supportive environments for participants to talk about sensitive issues such as violence (Braun & Clarke, 2013:110; Cohen et al., 2007:376-377). It enabled the learners and educators to openly discuss their experiences and observations.

Furthermore, Braun and Clarke (2013:111) state that this method is useful in engaging groups in protest-like activities where participants want some kind of social change like the protection of human rights. The authors believe engaging participants in a group discussion on a topic like school violence can have a “consciousness-raising” effect and can lead to some social change (Braun & Clarke, 2013:111). This was another envisaged outcome of the study, to create awareness about human rights violations and instigate some social change especially at school and policy level.

On the contrary, focus group interviewing has limitations. Focus groups are difficult and time-consuming to plan and run (Braun & Clarke, 2013:117). Similarly in this study, the researcher encountered difficulties in setting up appointments and starting the interviews on time. Cohen et al. (2007:377) add that focus group discussions do not yield numerical and generalisable data, because the numbers of participants are often small. In addition, Braun and Clarke (2013:117) state that focus group discussions are not ideal for discussing detailed personal and sensitive experiences such as sexual violence, especially in front of strangers. As a result, Jehn and Jonsen (2010:316) state that participants may be dishonest in their responses, especially when the issues such as school violence are sensitive and important to

them. Being aware of this possibility, the researcher opted for a mixed methods approach for this study. Cohen et al. (2007:376-377) add that focus groups are useful when mixed with other data collection methods like questionnaires, observations or one-on-one interviewing. In order to counteract misrepresentation of information, the researcher used a questionnaire to corroborate and confirm the qualitative findings as will be described in the next section.

2.7.2 Quantitative data collection method

As the study was identified as descriptive in nature, the data collection instrument needed to be a structured tool that would allow for the statistical analysis of the data set (Cohen et al., 2007:205). Therefore, a survey or questionnaire was administered to a group of 679 learners from nine different high schools within the Tshwane South District (See Appendix M). Researchers (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:189; Creswell, 2013:13) describe survey research as a form of descriptive, quantitative research that involves acquiring information from groups of people about their characteristics, opinions, attitudes, or previous experiences, by asking them questions and tabulating the responses. Babbie (2008:27) points out that survey research may be used for exploratory studies. On the other hand, Creswell (2014:155) argues that questionnaires are used to provide numeric description of the trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population such as high school learners.

The purpose of the survey was to learn from the sample of grade 9 and 10 learners in order to make generalisations and inferences about the nature, causes and impact of school violence, the services available within the Tshwane South District schools, and the knowledge, attitudes and behaviours of the high school population (Creswell, 2014:155; Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:189). The researcher developed a non-standardised self-administered twelve-page questionnaire based on information derived from an extensive literature review. The instrument included instructions on how to complete the questions and had five sections comprising a combination of scales, open-ended and closed-ended questions which provided diverse but detailed data (Creswell, 2014:161; Neuman 2014:335).

Section A provided for biographical information. Section B was about the types and the extent of school-based violence. Section C focused on how school-based violence is managed and addressed in schools. Section D was about the knowledge of the different causes and effects of violence as well as measures and services in place to address violence in schools. Section E was about prevention strategies that are used in schools to address violence. Incorporated in the questionnaire was a section of open-ended questions to solicit ideas and suggestions from the respondents about how to prevent school-based violence (See Appendix M). Gilgun (2013:287) affirms that surveys can provide useful information about the incidence, prevalence, and correlations of social problems and interventions.

The principals of three schools preferred and opted to administer the survey process themselves and arrangements were made for the delivery and collection of questionnaires when the data collection process was completed. Prior to delivering and administering the questionnaire, school principals and educators were briefed about ethical aspects and the questionnaire administration process to ensure that the procedures were standardised and to limit the chances of introducing any bias and threaten the validity and reliability of the instrument. The researcher wanted to ensure that the administration procedures were similar in all the participating schools and that there was little or no variation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:116).

The briefing sessions included ethical issues, the purpose, estimated time of completion, venues and administration dates. Questionnaires were packaged in envelopes with informed consent and assent forms and a cover letter indicating the purpose of the study, instructions on how to complete the questionnaire and the importance of completing the questions honestly and in full. The researcher personally delivered the packaged questionnaires to the above three school principals and made arrangements for collection after completion. The researcher is confident that the process was followed as discussed during the briefing sessions; and that the research participants were keen to participate as she received a 100% response rate from the respondents who agreed to participate.

The researcher administered and monitored the process of the six remaining schools, with the assistance of teachers from the respective schools and the research assistant. The researcher read through the instructions and allowed question time for clarification of questions before commencing with the process. After completion, all the questionnaires were collected, counted and safely placed in marked and sealed boxes for safe-keeping until the process of data analysis commenced. The once-off contact with the learner groups saved time and reduced travel costs that could have been incurred by the researcher as many grade 9 and 10 groups were involved in the study. The surveys were conducted in different days at different schools but all at the same time, which was after school in order to avoid disrupting the flow of classroom time-tables and lessons.

The advantages of using surveys were that they are more effective for sensitive issues like school violence and are cheaper, quicker and easy to administer with large samples it is also highly convenient as the respondents were all gathered in the same venue, that is in the school hall or classrooms (Babbie, 2008:302-303). In addition, group-administered questionnaires were advantageous because there was lack of discussion between learners prior to and whilst answering the questions which afforded the individuals privacy in case they had been victimised, and also increasing the likelihood of receiving honest responses. Moreover, the researcher did not need to concern herself with the added expense of mailing questionnaires and there was a higher rate of respondent turnover (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011:189).

The weaknesses of survey research are that respondents do not have time to think about their true thoughts and feelings because surveys are often completed on the spot. As a result, respondents may misrepresent facts to give the researcher a favourable impression or the respondents may misinterpret the questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:190). As a consequence, in this study two questionnaires were discarded because of learners' misinterpretation of the questions. On the other hand, the authors state that questionnaires are better because respondents may be more

truthful than they would be in a face-to-face interview (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:191) and surveys allow for collection of diverse information that enables the researcher to compare responses (Beins & McCarthy, 2012).

In summary, Figure 2.5 depicts the methods that were used to collect data in this study:

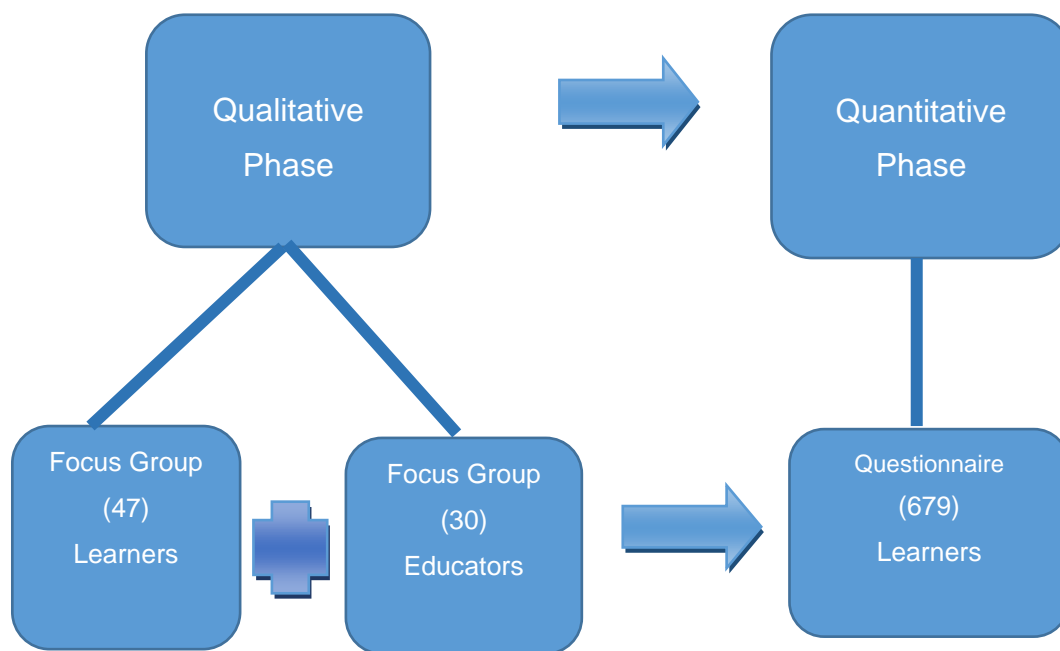


Figure 2.5 Mixed Data Collection Methods

2.8 Mixed methods data analysis

The researcher followed a set of steps that are recommended for both the qualitative and quantitative data analyses phases. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:204) these are: preparing for data analysis, exploring the data, analysing the data, representing the analysis, interpreting the analysis, and validating the data and interpretations. However, the process was not followed rigidly as it only served as a guideline. The data analysis processes in respect of the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study will next be discussed.

2.8.1 Qualitative data analysis methods

Leedy and Ormrod (2013:158) argue that there is no single “right” way that a researcher can use to analyse qualitative data, but rather multiple data analysis strategies and frameworks. As a consequence, the qualitative data analysis approach was utilised for its strengths in examining the “whole person” holistically, within that person’s natural environment (Gelo, Braakman, Gerhard & Benetka, 2008:267). The added benefits of the qualitative data analysis approach were the capacity to generate rich detailed accounts of the participants’ personal experiences, and the opportunity to provide narrative accounts that were examined within the contexts of the school environments wherein the violent behaviour occurred (Castro et al., 2010:343).

The qualitative data analysis approach has been criticised for lack of well-defined prescriptive procedures because it involves a number of different analytic processes which may be used simultaneously because the process moves backwards and forwards rather than sequentially (Punch, 2014:173; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008:4). A counter-argument is presented by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:251-252) who argue that qualitative data analysis is iterative and eclectic. As such, it is interactive and does not move in a linear hierarchical process (Creswell, 2014:196). Therefore, it became difficult to prescribe a single, particular data analysis procedure.

The researcher used various techniques and methods to analyse the data. For example, the interpretive philosophy was utilised for examining meaningful content in order to establish how the participants make meaning of their experiences of school-based violence (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:99). In addition, the researcher implemented constant comparison analysis, a strategic method to compare what the participants said in order to enable the researcher to verify the evidence and check if the facts presented were similar or different (Gibbs, 2007:81). Gibbs (2007:82) states that it is possible to make comparisons by participants and also by key events in order to look for differences and similarities between the cases and establish some patterns. The researcher constantly compared data that came from focus group interviews

comprising of learners only. Thereafter, she compared data from the interviews of educators with other educators. Finally, she compared findings from the learners with the educators' findings.

This method enabled the researcher to assess and compare data to determine whether findings that emerged from one group also emerged in the other groups or whether there were any differences between emerging categories (Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech & Zoran, 2009:6; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:254). This procedure also demonstrated that data saturation was reached (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009:6).

In addition, the researcher used thematic content analysis, a process of identifying emerging patterns and categories from an iterative review of the dataset (Mabry, 2008:218). The thematic analysis process is a strategy for reducing and managing large volumes of data and a way of making sense of the data, often used in case study research (Lapadat, 2010:926). This process is informed by the similarity and contrast principles, whereby the researcher was constantly searching for similarities and contrasts in the data set during the constant comparison process (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:253; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009:6).

In addition to the above data analysis methods, the researcher followed the spiral process as proposed by Creswell (2014:196-201) to search for themes and categories. The iterative process entailed the following steps:

- **Organising and preparing data for analysis**

Analysis was done in two folds. The researcher applied formal and informal strategies (Schurink, Fouché & De Vos, 2011:401) whereby data analysis started immediately after each focus group interview session to prevent the data from becoming overwhelming. The preliminary analysis focused on critical thinking and reflection about the research process, whereby the researcher jotted down all her observations of the day's events, her experiences, feelings and thoughts, in her research journal (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:206).

The researcher then organised and prepared for data analysis by properly sorting out the taped recordings; saving them in separate discs; and properly labelled them using pseudonyms to protect the identity of participants and to avoid mixing data and causing confusion (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:104). The saved data was marked with a date, time and place of interview in different file folders in order to facilitate easy analysis (Creswell, 2014:197; Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:158). The researcher used file folders and boxes to gather and keep together all the material dealing with each focus group interview. The recordings and typed field notes were kept in a safe place, properly marked, sorted and arranged into different schools and types of participants indicating whether they were learners or educators (Creswell, 2014:197). It was critical for the researcher to mask names of people, places and activities (Creswell, 2014:189) in order to conceal identifying particulars and maintain privacy and confidentiality.

The researcher listened to the audio recorded interview material several times and manually transcribed the data in sufficient detail into a Word document using the computer as soon as possible to ensure that data was not lost. Interview transcripts were read and reread to achieve comprehension (Schurink et al., 2011:409). Columns were added on the side of the transcripts to add the memos and recorded field notes. The researcher incorporated and described in brackets non-verbal behaviours that were observed during the focus group discussions through the assistance of the research assistant.

The researcher broke down the large dataset into smaller segments, arranged the data according to sentences made by learners versus responses made by educators or sentences relating to each dimension of the questions, for example, causes of violence or impact of violence (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:158), and she applied the constant comparison method and labelled similar clusters of data together. In this process, the researcher also scrutinised the large amounts of data (Creswell, 2014:195) and only focussed on the most crucial information that was relevant to the study.

- **Perusal and immersion in the data**

As hand-written notes were made immediately following a focus group interview, the researcher perused and went over the material several times. Secondly, the researcher then repeatedly listened to the taped interviews to gain an understanding of the discussions and to familiarise herself with the content. The researcher read through the transcribed data several times and examined the data for broad trends, looking for patterns, making memos on the margins and developing preliminary thoughts and understanding (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:158). According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:207), making memos on the margins is the first step in forming categories.

- **Classification**

The next step was to classify the data and categorise it accordingly. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:207) state that the process of classifying data leads to the development of a codebook, which is a statement of the codes used in the dataset. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:208) describe coding as a strategy for reducing large amounts of data into small manageable piles of information. Neuman (2006:460) defines codes as tags or labels assigned to the units and thereafter the researcher would group and then code the data using different colours and classify them into broader categories or themes (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:208). The researcher read through the identified codes and placed them on the margins alongside the memo next to the text segments. The codes that were classified into broader categories and themes were checked across the transcripts (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:208; Neuman, 2006:460).

The researcher also engaged an independent coder who used the ATLAS. ti software to check through the transcripts and code the data and compare and check for accuracy and consistency between the researcher's codes and hers in order to assess whether there were any inconsistencies or discrepancies. Agreement was reached on the codes that were developed as there were no inconsistencies between the two coding systems and the accuracy level was acceptable.

- **Synthesis**

The researcher formed a broader opinion of what was going on with the data. She evaluated the data by challenging the understanding and searched for negative patterns. The themes and related sub-themes that emerged were the findings that provided answers to the research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:208). The researcher provided the evidence by discussing the themes and sub-themes, citing specific verbatim quotes and other relevant evidence from prior studies to show multiple perspectives and divergent views regarding an item under discussion. Once this analysis was done, the researcher compiled a report representing the results whereby a discussion of the evidence using tables and diagrams (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:209) is presented in Chapter 5.

2.8.2 Quantitative data analysis methods

Prior to performing any statistical calculation, the researcher organised and properly packaged the data into boxes and labelled them appropriately according to school and number of respondents who participated in order to facilitate entry into a computer programme for statistical analyses. The researcher took the packaged questionnaires to the Statistics Department of the University of Pretoria for coding. Neuman (2006:344) defines coding as a systematic method of arranging and reorganising the large number of questionnaires into a format that could be analysed using a computer programme such as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software computer programme. Bazeley (2004:6) adds that coding is undertaken to retrieve information easily for either qualitative or quantitative data analysis. Assistants were employed to enter the information into the computer system using a code sheet and optical scan by the Department of Statistics. Morse and Niehaus (2009:128) point out that when respondents skip over and do not answer some questions or answers incorrectly, the missing data renders that questionnaire useless. In the context of this study, two questionnaires were discarded.

There are many statistical techniques for quantitative data analysis and the choice is determined by the purpose of the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:276; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:266). Fouché and Bartley (2011:251) identified two general functions of statistics. Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to describe numerical data and help in organising and summarising the data in tables, graphs, or scores that were easy to interpret (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:251). The goal of using descriptive statistics was to be able to understand the data, detect patterns and relationships and better communicate the results by using graphs (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:258). Secondly, inferential statistics were used to test hypotheses and for testing whether the descriptive results were likely to be due to random factors or real relationships, thus allowing for inferences about a large population of high school learners (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:277; Fouché & Bartley, 2011:252). Additional methods such as association and causation were conducted to enable the researcher to draw conclusions about the population of high school learners (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:251). Below is a description of the actual data analysis steps that were taken.

Firstly, descriptive analysis calculations were performed on raw frequencies in relation to biographical information and the nature and extent of school-based violence, management of violent incidents, causes and effects of school-based violence, measures and services to address violence, and the availability of school-based violence prevention strategies.

Secondly, techniques of association were used to perform bivariate analysis in order to calculate relationships between biographical information (Section A of the questionnaire) with two variables, namely: with the nature and extent of school-based violence (Section B of the questionnaire); and the causes and effects of school based violence (Section D1 of the questionnaire), to test whether the two or more variables affected one another (Neuman, 2006:353).

Finally, the chi-square test for independence was used to explore the relationship between the independent variables (biographical information - Section A) with the

following dependent variables, namely: nature and extent of school-based violence (Section B); and causes of school-based violence (Section D1). According to Pallant (2010:217) the chi-square test for independence measures associations between the dependent and independent variables. Only the results that were statistically significant were presented in the data analysis section of the thesis because it would mean that the results were not due to chance factors but to real relationships in the population (Neuman, 2014:304).

Since most output tables were larger than the two-by-two tables (i.e. one variable has at least 3 categories), the researcher relied on the chi-square to interpret the analysis. In cases where the output had a two-by-two table (i.e. each had only two categories), the continuity correction test was used to interpret the data. Using Cohen's *d* (1988) criteria of 0.10 for small effect, 0.30 for medium effect, and 0.50 for large effect, the researcher used Cramer's *V* or Phi Coefficient to explain the effect size, depending on the type of test used to explain the relationship or strength of the association between the independent and dependent variables. Different statistical tests were used because the researcher wanted to firstly describe the sampled population and secondly to test relationships and strengths in the sampled population of high school learners (Field, 2009:695). Figure 2.6 displays how the data was concurrently analysed.

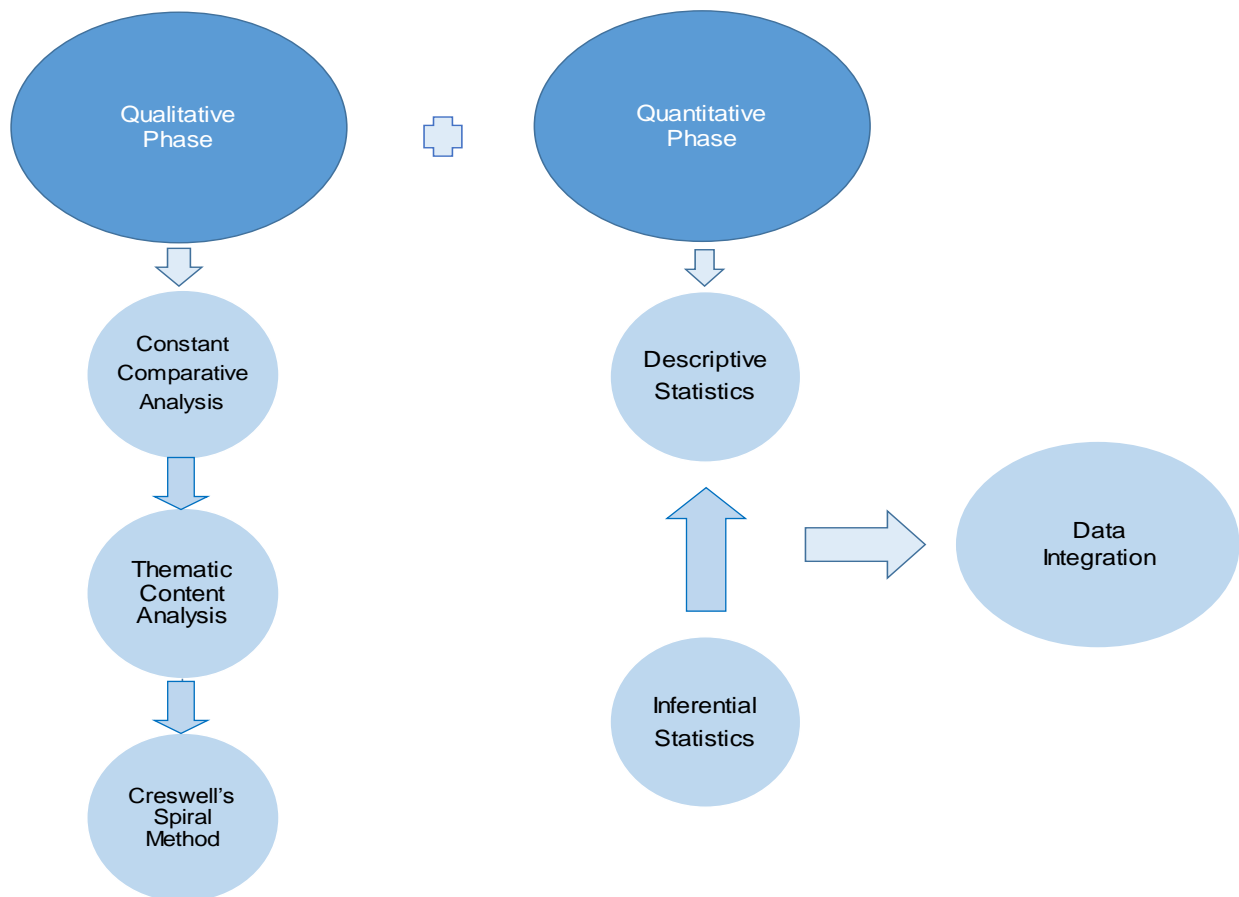


Figure 2.6 Concurrent Data Analysis (Source: Creswell, 2014:220)

In summary, as displayed above, the data analysis process ran in parallel but independently employing appropriate qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques grounded in the pragmatic worldview (Combs & Onwuegbuzie, 2010:5; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:266). During the qualitative phase (See section 2.8.1-2.8.2), constant comparative and thematic content analysis was used together with Creswell's spiral method, whilst during the quantitative phase descriptive and inferential statistics were combined.

2.9 Data quality and legitimation

In the sub-sections that follow, the researcher discusses trustworthiness, credibility, validity and reliability, in relation to how data quality and accuracy was ensured.

2.9.1 Trustworthiness and credibility of qualitative data

Trustworthiness, authenticity and credibility is established when the researcher presents the findings precisely as described by the participants and ensures they closely reflect the meanings of the participants to ensure accurate reporting of findings (Creswell, 2014:201). The researcher employed several strategies to manage threats to trustworthiness with the view to ensuring that the research process was rigorous, authentic and of high quality (Jeanty & Hibel, 2011:649). The strategies included the following:

- **Reflexivity**

Reflexivity is defined by Horsburgh (2003:308) as “active acknowledgement by the researcher that her own actions and decisions will inevitably impact upon the meaning and context of the experience under investigation.” The researcher engaged in reflexivity throughout the entire research process. It was important for the researcher to acknowledge that her personal background, values, assumptions, and perceptions could influence the manner in which she conducted the research study (Creswell, 2014:186). Thus, she had to reflect and openly acknowledge her own biases and subjectivity, and consciously act in such a manner that she circumvented any biases and subjectivity that could affect the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013).

The researcher constantly questioned her ethical and moral values and beliefs about violence because researchers cannot assume that their engagement in research is solely on behalf of clients and not only to their own benefit such as completing post graduate studies (D’Cruz & Jones, 2013:12). The researcher engaged in the research study to fulfil her moral and ethical responsibility to protect learners against violence as well as to achieve her dream of completing her post-graduate studies. Hence, she reflected on how her socio-cultural and religious contexts could influence the direction of the study and the data analysis process (Creswell, 2014:186; Lietz, Langer & Furman, 2006:448). The reflexivity strategy helped to keep the research process objective, and ensuring that the development of the programme was mainly informed by the empirical results of the study (Hesse-Biber 2010:84-85; Neuman, 2006:32).

- **The use of audit trail**

Jeanty and Hibel (2011:649) describes an audit trail as a log or diary used to keep track of research events in a chronological order to record the researcher's impressions, perceptions and experiences in order to manage threats to trustworthiness. The researcher kept a recording system (Silverman, 2013:171) where she recorded all the processes she followed, her decisions and actions taken during the process of data collection, including actual dates, venues and events (Schurink et al., 2011:422). She developed a consistent pattern of the procedures she followed during data collection and described in detail in the research diary all the functions she had performed including unexpected occurrences and how she had handled these (Lietz et al., 2006:450). This strategy was helpful in that other readers will be able to see how the study was conducted, how the findings emerged and how she arrived at the inferences or conclusions.

- **Member checking**

Lietz et al. (2006:453) describe member checking as a process of sharing findings with participants in order to allow them the opportunity to review the findings and confirm the aspects that best fit their perspectives or challenge the ones that are misinterpreted or misrepresented. Member checking is also used to check for accuracy of findings by taking parts of the semi-completed findings back to the participants for comments (Creswell, 2014:201-202). In order to check for accuracy of the findings, the researcher took the transcriptions back to some participants in two schools to allow them to review and determine whether they felt the findings were an accurate reflection of their perspectives and views. These follow-up discussions provided the educators and learners with an opportunity to comment on the transcripts (Creswell, 2014:202). There were no issues that the participants were concerned about. The participants felt that the findings were a true reflection of their views and opinions.

- **Peer debriefing**

The process of peer debriefing entails involving other researchers to enable them to audit the researcher's findings and to minimise the effects of bias and reactivity (Lietz et al., 2006:451) with the view to enhancing the accuracy of the research findings (Creswell, 2014:202). The researcher's supervisor was the only person that worked closely with the researcher by giving her continuous feedback. Considering that the researcher is working in an academic institution where research is part of the academic activities, she consulted colleagues in the department of Social Work and Criminology and in practice to obtain feedback on her study. Debriefing sessions were held between the researcher and the research assistant after every focus group interview session, to reflect and compare notes and observations.

- **Thick description**

Mabry (2008:218) describe rich, thick description as a procedure whereby the researcher describes in detail all the events relating to the study, the settings, the participants and the themes that are accompanied by verbatim statements of the participants, to provide understanding of social realities as subjectively perceived, experienced and created by the participants. Creswell (2014:202) adds that this strategy provides the reading public with an element of shared experience of the events described in the study. In this study, the researcher has described in detail the concept of school violence in the literature review chapter (See Chapter 1, 3 & 4), and the research designs were clearly described with accompanying reasons, purposes, and advantages and limitations in this chapter (See section 2.5). In addition, samples and sampling procedures were also clearly delineated in a chronological and logical order using flow charts (See section 2.6.2). The researcher will present the integrated findings and inferences in a clear and succinct manner, using a table to delineate the themes and sub-themes in the empirical findings (See Chapter 5 & 7).

- **Inter-coder agreement**

The researcher engaged an independent coder and expert on ATLAS. ti, to cross check the researcher's coding and determine level of consistency in the coding and see whether she would come up with similar codes or not (Creswell, 2014:203). A consensus discussion was held with her to determine agreement or disagreement and reach final findings (Litchman, 2006:167). There were no inconsistencies and acceptable levels of agreement were reached. Saks and Allsop (2007:83) state that using inter-judge or inter-rater techniques whereby another researcher is engaged to code the transcripts and thereafter compare the coding, contributes to increased credibility of the research findings.

In sum, the above-mentioned strategies were employed to ensure trustworthiness of the findings. For the quantitative phase, validity and reliability were ensured as will be described next.

2.9.2 Validity of quantitative data

Creswell (2014:201) states that researchers need to ensure the validity of not only the measurement techniques, but also the entire research process. Leedy and Ormrod (2013:89) define validity as the extent to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Mabry (2008:221) identify various strategies to establish validity and ensure that the measuring instruments provide accurate and warranted interpretations and can lead to valid inferences. In this context, content and construct validity were established. With reference to content validity, the researcher conducted an extensive literature review in search of techniques that other researchers have used to learn lessons that would guide her in the design of the data collection instruments. Additionally, she ensured that the data collection instruments include scale items that cover essential existing knowledge on the issue of school violence and all its dimensions (Rubin & Babbie, 2016:148; Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:92).

Furthermore, to ensure construct validity, the researcher consulted her supervisor for feedback on the relevance and usefulness of the questionnaires she developed. She also consulted and received guidance and suggestions from the statistician in the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria, to ensure the instruments are valid to facilitate statistical analysis. Furthermore, the focus group interviews with the participants helped to enrich the knowledge of the researcher to be able to develop information necessary to generate the questionnaire items (Neuman, 2014:143). The fact that the school violence prevention programme was designed in line with a theory-driven model ensured that the evaluation targeted the key outcomes. This is confirmed by Chen (2015:305) who states that theory-driven outcome evaluation has higher construct validity.

2.9.3 Reliability of quantitative data

Reliability refers to the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields consistent results when the entity being measured has not changed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:91). In addition, Creswell (2014:201) points out that reliability is achieved when the researcher's approach is consistent across the different stages of the research process. To enhance the reliability of the measuring instrument, the researcher conducted the data collection process in a consistent manner at all times ensuring there was standardisation in the way the instrument was administered in all the participating schools. Even in the three instances where the instrument was administered by the three school principals, briefing sessions were held with the respective schools' principals to ensure they administered the tool in a similar manner.

Although schools are complex and different, the researcher tried at all times to be consistent in terms of arrival times, following similar routine and procedures including reminding participants about ethical issues, and endeavoured to follow similar patterns of administering the research instruments. To avoid any discrepancies and disruptions of the routine and standard procedures, the researcher always arrived an hour before time in order to facilitate planning and arranging for a venue and organising seating arrangements. In sum, the researcher ensured that the research

data was of high quality and implemented the strategies discussed above to ensure that the research findings were valid, reliable and credible.

2.10 Pilot studies

Leedy and Ormrod (2013:112) define a pilot study as a small scale exploratory investigation to try out data collection techniques and procedures or methods of analysis, conducted to test the nature of the research questions and to see if the responses gained from the questions are sufficient (Strydom & Delpont, 2011:394). It is an excellent strategy to determine the feasibility of the study and the validity of the questionnaire (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:112). Informed consent was obtained before data could be collected from a small number of participants who did not form part of the actual study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:203). The processes of conducting the pilot studies for the respective research phases are described next.

2.10.1 Pilot study during the qualitative phase

A pilot test was undertaken by using the first focus group discussion as a trial run to test the procedures and identify possible problems (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:203). The pilot group consisted of 10 learners and this pilot study session assisted the researcher in assessing whether the questions were eliciting the kinds of information that were of sufficient quality to answer the research questions, to assess the time required to conduct the interviews and to test the recording instrument. There were no items on the interview schedule that needed to be modified. However, the time was short and the researcher needed to ensure that participants were ready at the venue on time to ensure there was enough time to cover all the questions. Secondly, some of the participants were not audible enough and the researcher needed to increase the volume of the recording device and to remind participants to speak more loudly and slowly. The data was included in the main study as pilot testing of first interviews is possible given the time and effort that goes into a focus group interview and analysis (Greef, 2011:370).

2.10.2 Pilot study during the quantitative phase

The researcher conducted a pilot study with 15 participants from the first school that gave permission to conduct the study to test the research procedures. The sampled learners gave informed assent and fully understood the nature of the research. The validity of the questionnaire was tested by asking the learners if the questions were clear, and what they thought of the questions as they were reading and responding to some items (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:199). The purpose was to improve the format of the questions and the scales (Creswell, 2014:161). The feedback received was minor and related to simplifying the language to be child-friendly and easy to understand. The comments were incorporated into the revised data collection instrument.

2.11 Ethical Aspects

Strydom (2011b:113) explains that “the fact that human beings are the objects of study in the social sciences brings unique ethical problems to the fore which would never be relevant in the pure, clinical laboratory setting of the natural sciences”. On the basis of this assertion, the chief responsibility for any researcher is to protect the rights and interests of human participants, to ensure that the risks they face by participating in the study are minimal and justified by the expected benefits of the study (Rubin & Babbie, 2011:76). The researcher was alert to the ethical implications of the decisions she made during the course of the study (Punch, 2014:37). To ensure that the research participants did not suffer any harm, the following core ethical requirements were adhered to during the study.

- **Avoidance of harm**

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2013:105) harm to research participants can be done on a physical and emotional level. Therefore, researchers should not expose research participants to unnecessary harm. The researcher was aware of her responsibility to protect participants from physical and emotional harm and to minimise risk (Strydom, 2011b:115), and informed the participants of their right to withdraw from the study (Braun & Clark, 2013:63).

Emotional harm is more difficult to identify, thus great care was taken to inform the participants beforehand about the possible effects the study might have on their emotional well-being. Braun and Clark (2013:65) emphasise the responsibility of researchers to make prior arrangements for counselling services for the benefit of participants who might suffer emotional harm. The researcher enquired from school management about the availability of counselling services in their respective schools and informed the participants to utilise those where needed. Some schools did not have access to counselling services. Where there were none, the researcher identified social workers in neighbouring areas and made arrangements with them to be on stand-by in the event the need for counselling arose. Research participants were informed about the availability of these options. None of the participants needed any counselling service as a consequence of participating in the study.

The physical safety of the participants need to be taken into consideration as well, and to be weighed up carefully against the benefits of the study (Braun & Clark, 2013:65). In the context of the study, participants were not likely to be exposed to any physical harm.

- **Deception and voluntary participation**

Research ethics require that all participants are not deceived or forced to participate (Neuman, 2006:135). In addition, Rubin and Babbie (2011:77) state that participants should be informed about the option to withdraw their participation without suffering any negative consequences. Furthermore, Neuman (2006:135) highlights the need to refrain from deceiving participants by misrepresenting the true purpose of the study. All participants were aware of the purpose of the study and the consequences of their participation. As a result, they agreed to participate explicitly on a voluntary basis (Rubin & Babbie, 2011:77; Neuman, 2006:135).

The researcher did not lie to the participants or make any promises to pay them for participating in the study. The researcher reminded the participants about their

absolute right not to participate or to discontinue participating at any time during the process of the study. As a result, some participants withdrew their participation prior to participating in the study.

- **Informed consent**

Research participants were required to sign an informed consent letter which stated exactly what the study was all about, what was expected from them and what potential harm exists (Strydom, 2011b:117) (See Appndices J, K, & L). In asking for consent, the researcher did not use deceit, pressure or threats (Adler & Clarke, 2015:520). After the school principals granted access to settings (see Appendix D), data collection could not proceed without the explicit consent of the research participants or other legal representatives such as parents, caregivers or school principals (Punch, 2014:44). Getting consent forms returned can be quite difficult (Adler & Clarke, 2015:53). In the case of this study, direct consent for some learners could not be obtained from the parents or guardians of the participating learners from all the schools. Hence, consent was obtained from school principals who signed “*in loco parentis*” in line with the Schools Act of 1996 (RSA, 1996b). The researcher ensured that the ethical rule pertaining to obtaining prior consent is not violated.

Prior to the interviews, the researcher introduced herself, disclosing her identity and affiliation to the University of Pretoria, clarified the purpose of the study and explained potential risks. The participants understood what the study was all about, what their participation entailed, how the results were to be reported and that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time. By submitting signed informed consent forms and signing assent letters, the participants showed that they freely agree to participate. Some learners who had initially agreed to participate, upon realising that the interviews would take place after school, withdrew their participation fearing they would miss transport to go home.

- **Violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality**

Privacy refers to all identifying particulars and personal matters of the participants and their right to control the disclosure of what they deem to be personal and is not for public consumption (Punch, 2014:47). Confidentiality refers to the manner in which private information is shared (Strydom, 2011b:119-120). Anonymity is when it is impossible for anyone, including the researcher, to connect specific data to any particular participant (Adler & Clarke, 2015:55).

The researcher was aware of the possibility of invading participants' privacy and violating participants' right to confidentiality (Punch, 2014:47). Consequently, confidentiality was provided by number coding transcripts and replacing all names of schools with codes without destroying the integrity and usefulness of the data (Silverman, 2013:172). The researcher used numbers instead of actual names and stored the data, safely packed in boxes, in a secure room at home where access was restricted. The researcher ensured that all information disclosed by participants was securely kept away from school management, educators, other school staff, other learners and parents.

Braun and Clark (2013:64) state that anonymity is virtually impossible to completely guarantee. Therefore, anonymisation techniques were used to conceal personal and identifying information by deleting and replacing the names of schools, dates and places where the research took place with codes (Punch, 2013:48). Anonimisation ensured confidentiality and protected the participants from being easily traceable and identifiable (Punch, 2013:48). This aspect was also dealt with in the informed consent form.

Recording data raises ethical implications. Therefore, no use of concealed recording apparatus was allowed because it would have meant infringing on participants' right to privacy (Strydom, 2011b:119). Thus, consent to use the recording device was obtained from the participants prior to the commencement of the focus group interviews.

- **Action and competence of researcher**

In line with ethical guidelines, a researcher should have necessary skills and knowledge and should receive supervision to competently conduct a research study (Strydom, 2011b:123). The researcher conducted the research study under the supervision and guidance of her study promoter. The researcher also received training on qualitative and quantitative research from the Enterprises for University of Pretoria (formerly CE@UP) staff development programme.

In addition, Rubin and Babbie (2011:113) emphasise the importance of cultural competence. According to the authors, social work researchers should be culturally competent to understand that cultural factors and cultural differences may affect participation. The researcher was aware of and sensitive to cultural, religious and social-economic differences that existed between the participants and endeavoured to demonstrate respect and sensitivity at all times. Rubin and Babbie (2011:128) add that cultural incompetence and insensitive procedures could jeopardise research outcomes. As a result, the researcher was sensitive to diversity and ensured that no harm was caused to the participants.

- **Participant debriefing**

Leedy and Ormrod (2013:105) state that debriefing should be provided to participants immediately after their participation to circumvent any harm that could have been unintentionally caused. Debriefing can alert the researcher to any harm caused and the need for intervention. Additionally, it affords the researcher the opportunity to correct any misinformation and affords the participants the opportunity to make any necessary follow up and learn some more about the study in general. The researcher made prior arrangements for counselling for those participants who might need some intervention. However, after debriefing sessions, there were no individuals who indicated a need for counselling.

- **Cooperation with contributors and sponsors**

The researcher acknowledged all contributors and sponsors who assisted in various ways and positively contributed to the successful completion of the research study (Strydom, 2011b:124). (See Acknowledgements section on page v).

- **Dissemination of findings**

Research is not completed until findings are shared in the public domain. McDonald and McCuaig (2012:21-25) urge researchers to present the data objectively in line with what participants said and not to support the researcher's prior assumptions. The researcher ensured that the data and representation was authentic and original. She acknowledged sources consulted. Krysik and Finn (2013:30) add that social work research must be used not only to inform direct practice, but also to influence and change programmes, policies and laws, and inform the general public. Research findings will be made available to the University of Pretoria in this thesis. In addition, the research findings will be submitted for publication in scholarly journals and presented as conference papers.

2.12 Limitations

Firstly, the sample was too small to produce results that warrant generalisation to the entire South African population. In addition, white and coloured learners were not adequately represented in the study sample. Such small and unrepresentative samples do not represent a diverse and broad range of views, which could have been obtained if the samples had been larger and more racially diverse. As a result, this limitation calls for a replication of this study with a larger sample drawn from more schools that have a racially diverse population of learners and educators.

Secondly, the process of data collection was compromised as a result of delays in obtaining informed consent from the families or legal guardians of the participating learners and assent from the learners themselves.

Thirdly, the voice of educators was limited as some were not willing to participate in the study. This was a limitation because some educators are both victims and perpetrators of school-based violence and their experiences and opinions would have enriched the results.

Fourthly, some school settings were not easily accessible. The logistics of organising the learners and getting them ready and willing to participate at short notice compromised the research process. In some instances, the researcher made appointments and travelled to a school only to discover upon arrival that the learners had not been informed and were not ready to participate.

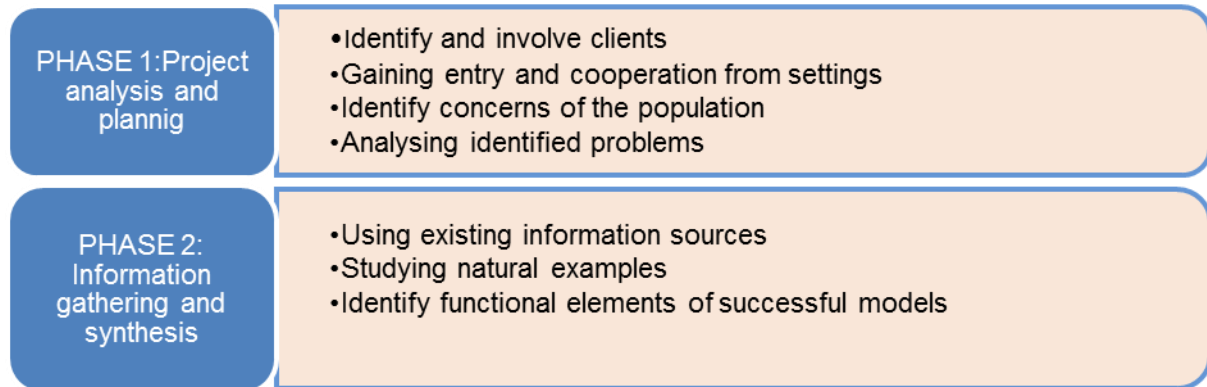
Finally, the time allocated to implement the pilot study was inadequate, as a result the process of implementing and evaluating the school-based violence prevention programme was compromised. According to the DoE policy, programmes should not interfere with the teaching programme. Hence the programme was implemented after school when all the learners were in a hurry to get home as some were relying on organised public transport that ran according to set schedules.

2.13 Summary

All matters pertaining to the research methodology aspects relating to the first phase have been presented in this chapter. The chapter contained discussions on the research paradigm with specific reference to pragmatic and critical worldviews. In addition, the research approach and type of research were discussed. Specific reference was made to the Intervention Research (D & D) model as a sub-type of applied research. Furthermore, mixed methods research designs were discussed, paying particular attention to the concurrent triangulated design. With regards to methodology, multi-level and stage sampling was conducted. Thereafter, parallel mixed data collection and analysis methods were outlined. Trustworthiness, validity, reliability, pilot studies and ethical aspects were explained. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the limitations of the study. The next chapter focuses on chapter 3 which forms part of phase 2 of Intervention Research (D & D) Model, which

pertains studying natural examples and identifying functional elements of successful models of school-based violence prevention.

CHAPTER 3: POLICY, THEORETICAL AND PRACTICE FRAMEWORKS FOR SCHOOL- BASED VIOLENCE PREVENTION



(Rothman & Thomas, 1994)

3.1 Introduction

Social workers are encouraged to incorporate critical thinking and uphold social values such as social justice and equality (Payne, 2005:160; Rothery, 2008:80). In dealing with the issue of societal dysfunction, particularly school violence, it is crucial to explore the influence of socio-economic, political factors and cultural systems. It is also crucial to interrogate such issues as violation of human rights, inequality, prejudice and stereotypes that perpetuate violence in society. Social workers are therefore expected to play a critical role in ensuring that such issues are addressed. Without the backing of legislation and policies, such an endeavour would be impossible to achieve.

The chapter focuses on phase 2 of Intervention Research (D & D) Model and begins with a discussion of covenants, treaties, legislation and policies designed to prevent school-based violence. The focus is on identifying existing legal mandates and policy guidelines that relate to dealing with violations of children's rights within the school context. The chapter proceeds with a discussion of relevant theoretical frameworks for explaining and understanding school-based violence. The chapter concludes with

a discussion of appropriate practice approaches for school-based violence prevention.

3.2 Policy frameworks for addressing violence in schools

Relevant international and regional covenants and declarations, national legislation and policy frameworks for enforcing laws and regulations to prevent and/or address social problems, include the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights; the United Nations' Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC); the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child; the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and the Bill of Rights, 1996; the South African Children's Rights Charter; the Children's Act 38 of 2005; the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996; The Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 and the South African Council for Educators Act 31 of 2000. These are elucidated in the next section.

3.2.1 International and regional covenants and declarations

South Africa is signatory to most of the international and regional covenants and protocols designed to uphold and protect human rights. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights stipulates that all people have the right to education, support and protection (United Nations [UN], 1948). One of the principles contained in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights stipulates that schools should promote tolerance and maintain peace. Therefore, school principals and educators have a duty and an obligation to ensure schools are violence-free and are peaceful centres of learning where learners can learn without any fear of harassment, exploitation, abuse or intimidation.

The United Nations' Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) adopted in 1989 is the most powerful commitment for promoting and protecting children's rights against maltreatment, neglect and all forms of violence and exploitation. Article 28(1) stipulates that all learners have a right to education and must be afforded equal opportunities (UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989).

Similarly, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child adopted by the Organisation for African Unity (OAU) in 1992, now called African Union (AU), is one such instrument designed to promote and protect children's rights. Article 11(5) stipulates that every child should have the right to an education and not be denied this right due to fear of violence and intimidation by peers and or educators. Article 16(1) stipulates that specific legislative, administrative, educational and social measures should be taken to protect children from all forms of abuse and maltreatment (African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, 1990).

3.2.2 National legal instruments

In line with the international community, the South African national government has in place several pieces of legislation to protect and uphold the rights of its citizens, such as the right to education. First and foremost, the South African Constitution of the Republic of South Africa [hereafter South African Constitution], the highest law in the country, contains several sections that pertain to the protection of human rights. Section 9(1) stipulates that every person is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law (RSA, 1996a). This means that no one should be discriminated against, including children in schools. Furthermore, in terms of gender equality, Section 9(3) stipulates that girl learners are entitled to equal opportunities and equal treatment and should not be discriminated against or taken advantage of (RSA, 1996a). In South Africa, violence at schools deprives learners of their constitutional rights to education as some children may be afraid to go to school or may drop out of school. Therefore, the South African Government has a duty and a responsibility to take action against perpetrators of violence and should protect victims against abuse and exploitation.

In addition, Section 10 of the South African Constitution stipulates that every person has a right to human dignity. Sexual harassment, sexual abuse, intimidation and victimisation of learners violate their rights to human dignity (RSA, 1996a). Section 12(1) (c) (d) (e) stipulates that "everyone has the right to freedom and security of person, which includes the right not to be deprived of freedom arbitrarily or without

just cause, not to be detained without trial, to be free from all forms of violence, not to be tortured, and not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhumane or degrading way” (RSA, 1996a). This legislation is intended to ensure that systems are put in place in all schools to protect the rights of all learners against perpetrators of violence and human rights abuse.

Furthermore, Section 12(2) stipulates that every person has the right to bodily and psychological integrity. Sexual harassment, sexual abuse, intimidation and victimisation of learners, is an infringement of their bodily and psychological integrity and as such, a breach of their right to freedom and security (RSA, 1996a). Moreover, learners have a right to a safe learning environment, where they are free from any violence or intimidation.

Section 24 of the South African Constitution guarantees all persons the right to a safe environment that is not harmful to their health and wellbeing (RSA, 1996a). Further, Section (28) (1) (d) stipulates that all children should be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation (RSA, 1996a). This places the obligation and responsibility on school principals and educators to ensure the safety and security of all learners. Section 29 recognises everyone’s right to basic education and places an obligation on the state to ensure that such education is provided and that no learner will be barred from accessing such education (RSA, 1996a). Therefore, when children fear to go to school or drop out of school as a result of violence and/or intimidation, their rights are infringed upon.

Over and above all these constitutional provisions, there are several other pieces of legislation that flow from the South African Constitution. For example, the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) Charter of Children’s Basic Education Rights (2012:12) stipulates that every child has a right to education, to be free from violence, discrimination and exploitation, and to learn in a safe school environment. To protect children’s rights, educators are obliged in terms of Section (110)(1) of the Children’s Act of 2005, to report any form of maltreatment, neglect, abuse, or degradation of children to social workers or the police (RSA, 2005). In addition, the

common law principle of *in loco parentis* compels educators to ensure the physical and psychological safety of all learners in their care (RSA, 2005). Therefore, they are expected to foresee potential dangers that learners may be exposed to at school and to act pro-actively and protect them from any harm. As testimony to Governments' commitment to the protection of human rights, especially children's rights, Lombard (2008:156) notes that South African policy makers have made several legal pronouncements to the benefit of social work and social welfare service users.

In accordance with the South African Schools Act of 1996, school governing bodies are expected to put in place and adopt a code of conduct for learners stipulating that all learners have a right to a clean and safe learning environment, free from harassment, and to an environment that is conducive to education and training (RSA, 1996b). Educators not only have an obligation to educate, but also to safeguard the physical as well as the psychological wellbeing of the learners in their care (RSA, 1996b). Furthermore, Section 8 of the South African Schools Act stipulates that learners should comply with the code of conduct, refrain from all sorts of ill-discipline, including perpetrating verbal, physical, emotional and sexual violence against their peers (RSA, 1996b). This will foster an environment that is free from violence and intimidation, thus ensuring an environment that is conducive to teaching and learning and allows learners the opportunity to maximise their potential (Prinsloo, 2006:309; Prinsloo, 2005:7).

In addition, Section 10(1) of the South African Schools Act of 1996 states that no person may administer corporal punishment to a learner at school (RSA, 1996b). Section 10(2) states that any person who contravenes subsection 10(1) is guilty of a criminal offence and if convicted may be sentenced for assault (RSA, 1996a). Although this is clearly stipulated and is enforced, many educators still administer corporal punishment (Prinsloo, 2006:311). Although corporal punishment is prohibited, the UN Report on Violence Against Children (2010:43) notes that this law is still not effectively enforced in many schools.

Educators are supposed to protect children, but they are sometimes the perpetrators of violence. Given the extent of sexual molestation and sexual abuse of learners by educators, two additional pieces of legislation were enacted. Section 17(c) of the Employment of Educators Act of 1998 (RSA, 1998a) and Section 23(c) of the South African Council for Educators Act of 2000 (SACE, 2000) stipulate that any educator found guilty of having sexual relations with learners should be dismissed, as this is a violation of the professional code of ethics and may result in the removal of that educator's name from the register. Legally, once deregistered, the said educator may never again practise as an educator (RSA, 1998a; SACE, 2000).

Additionally, there are several other South African laws, including the Domestic Violence Act of 1998 (RSA, 1998b); the Criminal Procedure Act of 1977 (RSA, 1977) and the Sexual Offences and Related Matters Act of 2007 (RSA, 2007) that can be used to strengthen the protection of learners against the violation of their rights and to hold transgressors to account. These national and education-specific institutional frameworks can mitigate the prevalence and effects of school-based violence, if they are effectively enforced (Antonowicz, 2010:40).

States and other stakeholders including international agencies, donors, national education and protection institutions and professionals such as educators and social workers, are the primary duty-bearers for respecting, protecting and fulfilling children's rights to education and protection. Antonowicz (2010:40) found that despite the involvement of so many role-players, violence against children in and around schools is not addressed holistically and systematically. This is confirmed by researchers (Prinsloo, 2006:312; Prinsloo, 2005:5) who found that learners are exposed to violence and abuse on a daily basis.

It is in this context that appropriate laws and regulations should be effectively utilised as guidelines and should be strictly enforced to effectively prevent school violence in an effort to protect the rights of learners and to contribute to a violence-free teaching and learning culture. Without effective implementation of policies and enforcement of laws that are designed to protect learners, these vulnerable learners are left without

any recourse, but to succumb to continuous violence and exploitation (Cary, 2010:3). Violence is not only a violation of human rights, but also an obstacle to achieving sustainable development goals and to promoting responsive social, economic, and political systems (Modisaotsile, 2012:1). Thus, effective implementation of policies and enforcement of laws is not only for humanitarian reasons but also for promoting socio-economic development (Cary, 2010:3). For school children, this implies a guarantee that their rights to safety and security will be protected.

Policies provide the mandate for protecting learners from school violence, theoretical frameworks contextualise the broader understanding of school-based violence.

3.3 Theoretical framework for understanding school-based violence

There is not one adequate theory to explain human or societal behaviour to account for the reasons why some learners engage in violent behaviour and others do not. For purposes of this study the bio-ecological systems theory was selected and utilised as the appropriate theoretical framework to explain school violence and to facilitate an understanding of why one learner may be at risk of perpetuating violence whilst another may be resilient and engage in pro-social activities and develop positively.

3.3.1 Bio-ecological Systems Theory

Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological model of human development provides a holistic view about how a developing individual interacts with the various environmental settings with which he or she engages with (Berns, 2013:6; Sigelman & Rider, 2009:7). This model also explains how the individual influences or is influenced by such mutual interactions within the environment that facilitates his or her growth and development (Berns, 2013:17; Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010:158; Sigelman & Rider, 2009:7). The ecological approach provides explanations on the reciprocal exchange processes whereby people influence or are influenced by their environments (Evans et al., 2010:159), while the bio-ecological systems theory provides multiple perspectives about the individual's situation and can be used as a

framework for holistic assessments to address risky behaviours such as school-based violence (Lewis & Greene, 2009:232; Edwards, Mumford & Serra-Roldan, 2007:32).

However, the theory does not provide for the outcomes of such interactions (Evans et al., 2010:159). In systems' thinking Howe (2009:114) postulates that "everyone and everything is connected; influences and is influenced by everyone and everything and as a result, all these influences affect the individual's life". As a result, one cannot conclusively ascribe behaviour to any one specific environmental factor. An argument can thus be made that behaviour develops as a result of the interplay between risk and protective factors within the various settings in which the individual finds himself or herself (Jack, 2012:130). Below is a diagram describing a multi-level model of risk and protective factors that influence behaviour as depicted by Ward, Dawes and Matzopoulos (2012:2)

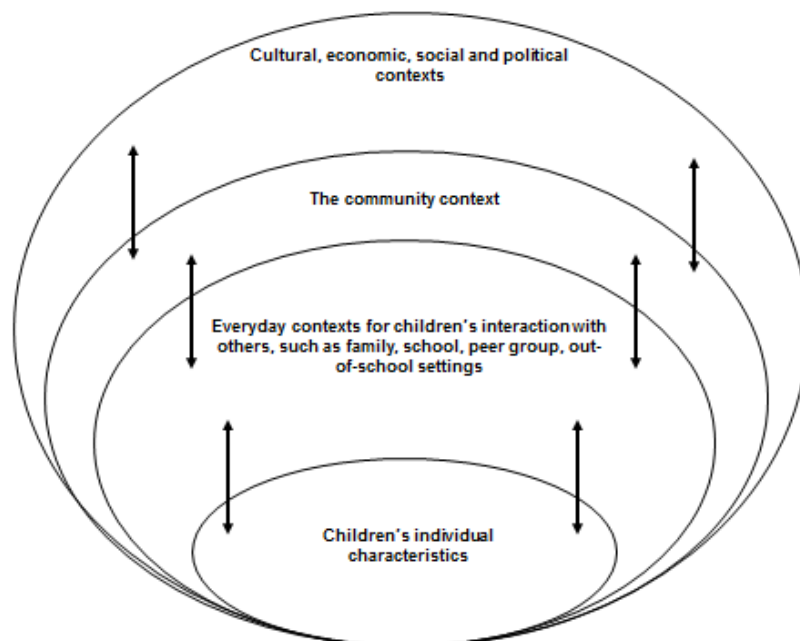


Figure 3.1 Multi-level model of risk and protective factors. Source: Ward et al. (2012:2)

Accordingly, the environment is viewed as 'nested structures' that go beyond the individual's immediate environment such as the family and incorporate other distant

systems such as the community, society and culture, with the individual located in the centre and surrounded by all the other systems (Jack, 2012:130). There is therefore mutual influencing between all these systems (Keenan & Evans, 2009:35).

Advocates of the bio-ecological systems approach believe the biological, psychological, social, economic, political, spiritual and cultural factors all contribute to the development and behaviour of human beings (Durlak, Taylor, Kawashima, Pachan, DuPre, Celio, Berger, Dymnicki & Weissberg, 2007:270). Therefore to understand why some learners engage in violent behaviour whilst others do not, it is crucial to consider how the biological, socio-economic, political, spiritual and cultural factors interact and contribute to such undesirable behaviour. Therefore, it is imperative to conduct a holistic assessment within the context of all the interconnected and interacting systems, to be able to understand the violent and aggressive behaviour of some learners as well as to understand how their behaviour affects other systems such as the family, peers or school, of which they are a part.

Swick and Williams (2006:371) assert that each of these systems depend on the nature of the person's life and presents both protective or risk factors that would result either in positive or negative behaviour. Therefore the learner is part of his or her family, peer group, the school and community and as a consequence there is interaction and mutual influencing. In Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological systems theory, the world of the learner consists of basic structures in which such mutual interactions and influences take place, which are called micro, meso, exo, macro and chrono systems (Berns, 2013:17). The respective systems are discussed next.

- **Microsystem**

The first basic innermost structure - the microsystem – is a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal face-to-face relations experienced by the developing person in the immediate setting with particular physical and material characteristics (Berns, 2013:18; Jack, 2012:130). Microsystems involve the individual's biological, physical, intellectual, psychological as well as emotional aspects and their life experiences

(Bronfenbrenner, 1979:22). School learners, like all living organisms, are interacting systems, comprising of subsystems, which are also a part of super-systems (Payne, 2005:143), with presumably semi-permeable boundaries that allow for reciprocal interaction and mutual influencing to take place (Moore, 2003:472). Thus the individual may interact with other systems such as the family, peers, the school, and the immediate neighbourhood. All these systems comprise the individual's most immediate learning environment (Durlak et al., 2007:271). Looking at such person and environment interaction and exchange may explain why some learners engage in violent behaviour whilst others do not (Sigelman & Rider, 2009:23; Rothery, 2008:91). Therefore, a dual focus on the reciprocal interaction and exchange between the person and their environment helps to understand how the person's behaviour continuously influences other systems and are simultaneously influenced or shaped by these environmental systems.

- **Mesosystem**

The second structure of the bio-ecological systems comprises the meso system. This level is comprised of a system of microsystems that are formed when the developing person moves into a new setting (Bronfenbrenner, 1979:25). Such a system is formed when two or more micro systems such as the family and the school connect and interact, ultimately influencing the behaviour of the individual members (Berns, 2013:20; Evans et al., 2010:163). Omar and Patel (2012:277) concur by stating that the frequency and quality of the interaction the learner has with his/her family, the peers, or school staff may influence his or her development. Berns (2013:20) further states that when the linkage between two systems is strong, then the effects will also be intense. Therefore, the learners will develop violent tendencies and behaviour due to the number and quality of the interactions involving violence which they have with other systems (Berns, 2013:20). With reference to youth violence, Phetlho-Thekisho, Ryke and Strydom (2012:335) assert that a young person that associates with friends who are involved in violent activities is at risk of being a perpetrator or victim of violence.

- **Exosystem**

The third basic structure is the exosystem. This level, according to Visser (2007:25), refers to the linkages or interconnections between the micro and meso systems. Several researchers refer to it as the psychological and distant settings rather than the physical settings that provide support for families (Keenan & Evans, 2009:37). These could be the parents' workplace or the extended family or other social support networks that do not directly involve the developing person as an active participant, but which can indirectly affect that individual's development and behaviour (Evans et al., 2010:164; Ambrosino, Heffernan, Shuttlesworth & Ambrosino, 2012:63). According to Jack (2012:130), these interacting factors could be the events or incidences that occur in those settings that indirectly affect or influences the behaviour of the developing person. Similarly, school violence could develop as a result of those distant but critical environmental factors within the home, peer group, school or community contexts that have an indirect but profound influence on the learners' behaviour (Ward, 2007:13). As an example, events that directly affect the parent such as losing one's job may have an indirect impact on the entire family system, especially the children. Such a parent may be affected by the sense of loss to an extent that the impact thereof may spill over and negatively influence the behaviour of the child at school or in the community.

- **Macrosystem**

Researchers describe macrosystems as those broad social and cultural issues, belief systems and ideologies that have a direct and powerful impact on people's lives (Lewis & Green, 2009:232; Ward, 2007:13). Omar and Patel (2012:277) concur by stating that a learner may also be affected by environments where no time is spent. Thus the learner could be influenced and affected by the political, economic or cultural influences to which he/she is a member but does not necessarily spend time in these contexts. Indeed, people's relationships and interactions with their systems are influenced by broad socio-political and cultural issues, such as political ideologies, values, belief systems, cultural customs and traditions, economic trends and resources, opportunities or deficiencies (Durlak et al., 2007:271). Children and

youth are part of the broader systems and therefore are not immune to socio-political, economic and cultural influences. As such, their behaviour and development are influenced by these macro level variables.

- **Chronosystem**

Finally, Bronfenbrenner introduced the fifth layer - the chronosystem. Keenan and Evans (2009:37) and Sigelman and Rider (2009:23) describe the chronosystem as the historical context, the life-time experiences and events or changes that a person has been through that influence their development and behaviour. Similarly children's behaviours are influenced by significant events or historical changes they are exposed to in their daily lives. For example, experiencing trauma as a result of losses suffered as a result of death in the family will have an impact on the individual's behaviour and development (Berns, 2013:26). Keenan and Evans (2009:37) assert that children and youth bring with them their life histories and experiences into the school environment, which according to Sigelman and Rider (2009:23) could have an ultimate bearing on their behaviour and development.

Based on the foregoing discussion, it is clear that the bio-ecological systems theory is useful for social work practice in that it reminds practitioners that social problems are not caused by single but many interacting factors. Practitioners who use the bio-ecological systems theory should hold a dual focus and pay attention to both personal and external environmental factors that influence behaviour. Jack (2012:130) argues for the importance of focusing on the reciprocal interaction between the person and their environment, rather than focusing on the one at the expense of the other.

Rothery (2008:91) also state that practitioners should avoid making inaccurate assessments by paying attention to the mutual interaction and exchange between the person and their environment. Sigelman and Rider (2009:23) support this view by stating that there is continuous influencing and shaping of one another's development in a dynamic, reciprocal and sustainable manner (Rothery, 2008:91).

Therefore, social workers who hold a narrow focus, who only pay exclusive attention to factors within families, run the risk of failing to challenge structural inequalities, lack of opportunities, oppression and the impact of disadvantage. According to Jack (2012:134), these multiple factors have an influence on the behaviour and total well-being of individuals.

Similarly, Rothery (2008:92) emphasises the need for practitioners to be critical and outspoken about such social issues as oppression and injustice which are part of the macro environment and have a profound impact on people's development and behaviour. In line with ecological systems thinking, practitioners should demonstrate a commitment to advancing social justice and equality (Rothery, 2008:92), thereby ensuring that the rights of learners are protected, and refrain from blaming the learners for the situation in which they find themselves. In addition, Sigelman and Rider (2009:23) caution practitioners to be culturally sensitive and to be conscious of their own biases and prejudices when trying to understand human development and behaviour.

Gray (2006:S63) challenges social workers to identify and address factors such as social, economic, political and cultural factors that are sources of violence, inequality, oppression and discrimination at all levels of intervention whether they are working with individuals, families, groups, communities or organisations. Thus, practitioners should endeavour to make schools violence-free spaces where learners are treated in an equal and just manner, where their rights are protected and where they have access to equal opportunities and needed resources.

Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological systems theory is credited for being open and holistic, as it provides multiple perspectives with regard to the individual's situation (Berns, 2013:17; Evans et al., 2010:158; Edwards et al., 2007:32). The approach allows for a broad understanding of the contextual issues that affect individuals. Lewis and Greene (2009:242) add that it is helpful in guiding practitioners to intervene at multiple levels. Although it provides a lens through which to view the multiple interactions, Evans et al. (2010:159) argue that it does not provide for the

outcomes of such interactions. Furthermore, Shaffer and Kipp (2010:67) see the bio-ecological systems theory as putting more emphasis on the interactions between the person and environment, not adequately recognising the contributions of the biological characteristics of the individual to their behaviour and development. Sigelman and Rider (2009:23) argue for multiple perspectives due to the fact that behaviour is dynamic. The authors state that some behaviour could be informed by culture and in other cases be informed by individuals' biases and prejudices.

The bio-ecological systems theory is also criticised for viewing all systems as interconnected and interdependent, disregarding the fact that some systems may be incompatible because they are constantly changing and developing, therefore they cannot be predicted or controlled (Kaakinen & Hanson, 2015:101). Furthermore, Janse Van Rensburg (2010:19) contends that the ecological systems theory does not clearly specify how the different levels interact and influence one another. According to Jack (2012:134), such an approach encourages practitioners to encourage service users to adapt and accommodate even oppressive circumstances in order to maintain a balance, instead of challenging these very oppressive systems, inequalities and disadvantages within societies (Rothery, 2008:92). It also does not prescribe how one can intervene to address practical problems such as school violence (Lewis & Greene, 2009:242; Rothery, 2008:91).

Another shortcoming of Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological systems theory is that it is seen as too complicated, too broad and over-inclusive as it incorporates all contextual factors, to a point of overlooking important aspects of each level or individual situation (Ambrosino et al., 2012:60; Payne, 2005:158). Rothery (2008:91) sees these as strengths as they provide a broad and holistic understanding of all issues that affect individuals, although this may be overwhelming. Clearly by categorising causal factors across the five ecological levels presents difficulties and could easily lead to confusion. The school context is either looked at as a micro level or as a meso level system (Ward 2007:13). Similarly, some risk factors could fit at multiple levels (Phetlho-Thekisho et al., 2012:335). Risk factors associated with alcohol-related violence may, for example, be individually as well as societally based

(Phetlho-Thekisho et al., 2012:335). Again, strong causes of violent behaviour in adolescents include an association with gang members, which is both a micro and macro level factor (Janse Van Rensburg, 2010:19). These examples demonstrate that the categorisation of causative factors in ecological levels is flawed and can create confusion (Phetlho-Thekisho et al., 2012:335; Ward, 2007:13).

Contrary to the above criticisms, Kaakinen and Hanson (2015:84) assert that the individual does not exist in isolation, but is part of a super-system that is comprised of five interconnected levels that include the family, home, school, community and broader society. Furthermore, the individual also encompasses distinguishable biological, psychological, sociological, spiritual, and cultural aspects that come together to shape the developing person and influence his or her behaviour (Kaakinen & Hanson, 2015:83).

Therefore, it helps to view the school violence situation from different perspectives and not from a linear cause and effect stand-point. It is also helpful to understand how reciprocal interactions between all the interconnected environmental systems influence behaviour. Thus the advantage of using the ecological approach is that practitioners avoid apportioning blame to any one part of the system and as such they can intervene at multiple levels or choose the target of intervention from these multiple systems (Ambrosino et al., 2012:65; Phetlho-Thekisho et al., 2012:335). Therefore, in addressing a social issue such as school violence, one has to view the situation holistically and from multiple perspectives, taking into account the various contextual factors.

In summary, the bio-ecological systems theory provides a meaningful perspective about human behaviour and school violence. This theoretical framework is helpful in elucidating factors that explain why some learners behave the way they do. Social ills such as school-based violence are seldom caused by any single factor. Rather, school violence is a process and an outcome of the reciprocal interaction between the learner and his or her environmental systems. As Lombard (2008:167) states, social work practitioners are challenged to refrain from apportioning blame to

individual and family factors, but rather to challenge structural sources of inequalities and cultural beliefs and ideologies that perpetuate violence.

As already stated, theoretical frameworks provide a context for explaining school violence and creating an understanding of why some learners engage in violence whilst others do not. Practice frameworks provide guidance on how to prevent school violence as will be discussed next.

3.4 Practice frameworks for school-based violence prevention

Practice frameworks are the beliefs and assumptions about how, when, and under what conditions people and systems change and what a social worker can do to facilitate desired and needed change (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2007:82). Trevithick (2008:1221) describes a practice theory as a useful guide on how to intervene to bring about desired change. In the same vein, Weyers (2011:21) defines a practice model as concepts and principles whilst Payne (2005:5) states that these practice models help to structure and organise how to approach a complicated situation such as school-based violence, and provide guidelines for developing interventions designed to bring about positive change. Practice frameworks, which are distinguished as practice theory and practice models, provide both an explanation and guiding principles for changing behaviour (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2007:51). As it is difficult to differentiate between practice theory, framework, model and perspective (Trevithick, 2008:1221), these concepts will be used interchangeably in this chapter. Payne (2005:5) says practice frameworks or perspectives should be used along with practice models to help view situations from different points of view. This will enable practitioners to target interventions at multiple levels.

In support, Sheafor and Horejsi (2007:86) suggest that practitioners should choose practice frameworks that address both personal and environmental issues, if they want their intervention to be successful and effective in bringing about the desired change. Thus, a combination of practice frameworks, approaches, models and perspectives such as the developmental social work approach, the social emotional learning (SEL) approach, character education (CE) and social cognitive and social

competence perspectives were utilised in this study. These approaches are discussed next.

3.4.1 The developmental social work approach

Developmental social work is defined as “the practical and appropriate application of knowledge, skills and values to enhance the well-being of individuals, families, groups, organizations and communities in their social context” (Patel, 2015:127). The aim of developmental social work is to bring about social change by focusing on the person and their environment and the interactions between the two (Patel, 2015:127). What set the developmental approach apart from the remedial approach are features such as rights, equality, social justice, strengths, empowerment, capacity building, democratic participation and social investment (Midgley, 2010:13).

Lombard and Wairire (2010:100) capture some of these features by defining developmental social work as “an integrated, holistic approach to social work that recognises and responds to the interconnections between the person and the environment; links micro and macro practice; and utilises strength-based and non-discriminatory models, approaches and interventions, and partnerships to promote social and economic inclusion and well-being”. Thus, the developmental approach was appropriate for school violence prevention because of the focus on interconnectedness of the person and the environmental systems.

Weyers (2011:54) defines developmental social work, as “a distinctive approach to social work service delivery that goes beyond micro level rehabilitation, counselling, protection and continuing care services *but also includes it*; that utilises strengths, assets-based and non-discriminatory approaches to enhance social functioning, prevent social problems, and develop human potential and social capital; and – in so doing – help people to realise their fullness of the social, political and economic potentials that already exist within them”. The developmental approach to school violence prevention will help learners realise and utilise their inherent strengths and

environmental opportunities and resources to bring about the desired change of a non-violent society.

Developmental social work, therefore, is a shift away from traditional social work and social welfare service delivery to approaches that focus on strengths, assets, and rights. It is an approach that promotes non-discrimination and facilitates the empowerment of individuals, families, groups, communities and organisations (Lombard, 2008:167). As a shift from traditional social work practice, it is underpinned by principles such as social justice and equity (Lombard, 2008:167) and is an affirmation of the commitment of the social work profession to protect human rights and eliminate poverty and inequality (Lombard & Wairire, 2010:100). Thus, the developmental approach to social work practice in so far as school violence prevention is concerned focuses on promoting the right to education for all learners; it is committed to promoting equality between boys and girls and facilitating the empowerment of learners, and focuses on their strengths and assets as individuals.

Therefore social workers involved in the protection of human rights and preventative services are challenged to adopt a developmental approach to service delivery and advocate for the protection and promotion of equal rights and social justice for victims of violence, crime, oppression and discrimination. Lombard (2008:160) purports that the social welfare sector and social work practitioners will fail citizens if they do not advocate for social justice and human rights.

Within the context of this study, the developmental approach was thus relevant and appropriate for school violence prevention targeting learners, families and educators. According to Lombard (2008:162), there is enough evidence that developmental social welfare covers a range of services for various client populations such as individuals, families, groups and communities in South Africa. The development of a school-based violence prevention programme embedded and guided by developmental social work and social welfare principles and values should encompass respect for human rights, social justice, equality, democracy, non-discrimination, “ubuntu”, democratic participation, strengths, empowerment, human

dignity and self-worth, self-determination, accessibility, non-discrimination and investment in human capital (Poulin, 2005:34). These are distinct principles that guide social work practice.

Patel (2015:126) distinguishes the developmental approach to social work and social welfare from the traditional social work and social welfare approach by five themes which are a rights-based approach, the inter-relationship between social and economic development, democracy and participation, pluralism and partnership and finally bridging the gap between micro and macro practice. These themes are discussed next in relation to how it can inform the design of a school-based violence prevention programme:

- First and foremost, developmental social work is a rights-based approach that advocates for services and interventions such as the protection of the rights of vulnerable and marginalised groups such as women and children; facilitates access to services and opportunities and challenges structural systems that oppress and violate people's rights whilst at the same time advocating for an end to social injustice and inequality (Patel, 2005:127). The rights based approach is based on various international, regional and national conventions (*cf.* section 3.2.1 and 3.2.2). Social work services and prevention programmes to address social issues like school violence should thus be delivered from a rights based perspective acknowledging the rights of learners to safety and security and a right of access to educational opportunities and safe learning environments.

Programme design and implementation from a rights-based approach recognises the importance of treating all people equally, regardless of race, gender, religion, or sexual orientation, and acknowledging that all learners have the right to education, protection and security. If school learners are exposed to violence, they are restricted and denied equal access to educational opportunities because they may fear going to school. Ife (2012:239) states that denying people their rights is a form of violence. In

such cases, the educational system can be regarded as a violent system. UNICEF (2010:4) concur that being without an education as a result of fear created by school-based violence, will leave many children with little or no access to social, economic and political rights, as education is one of the effective ways to break the cycle of unemployment, poverty, inequality and under-development

The National Development Plan – Vision 2030 (hereafter referred to as the NDP) considers the safety of women and children as a human rights issue and therefore a priority for government (RSA, National Development Plan, 2011:37). As a result of the NDP policy, government mandates school principals and school governing bodies (SGB) to ensure that they have learner safety plans in place, ensuring that learners feel safe at school and can enjoy participating in sport and recreational activities without any fear of violence and crime.

- The second theme refers to the integration of social and economic development. Midgley (2010:13) reiterates that developmental social work is aimed at promoting social development, by focusing on human and social capital investment, social rights and the need for economic development. However, Dutschke (2009:152) states that even though developmental social welfare incorporates economic and social development, children and youth do not possess economic resources and therefore depend on adults for promoting their economic development. Developmental services such as school-based violence prevention programmes and interventions promote development of human and social capital. Education contributes to human capital which is relevant for socio-economic development. Patel (2015:89) proposes that school learners should be engaged in empowerment and capacity building programmes to enhance their knowledge, skills and competencies in order to indirectly influence the socio-economic development of the country.

- The third theme relates to democracy and participation. Ife (2012:234) sees developmental social work as efforts geared towards creating advantageous conditions whereby people are given opportunities and encouraged to participate in decision-making processes on matters that affect them in all aspects of their lives. Furthermore, Patel (2015:98) argues that service users should not be treated as passive recipients of services but should be given opportunities to engage as partners. In addition, Viviers and Lombard (2013:11) support the concept of participatory democracy by stating that children's participation is a fundamental human right. Similarly, with regard to violence prevention, learners should be engaged in decision-making processes as partners and stakeholders, and not as mere recipients of violence prevention services.

Additionally, To (2007:565) states that the school is a microcosm of society and as such, learners should be allowed to make inputs on matters that concern their schooling, to prepare them to participate in future social and political processes. Several authors (Patel, 2015:105; Viviers & Lombard, 2013; Midgley, 2010:16) concur that children have a right to self-determination, to have their voices heard and to be treated with respect and dignity. According to Poulin (2005:56), involving learners as partners by giving them a voice in matters that affect them, is in itself empowering. To (2007:565) adds that by facilitating and encouraging learners' meaningful participation, they are directly prepared for participating in broader social and democratic processes. The author further states that participating learners will become active service users and this may encourage them to partake in matters which are not related to the school (To, 2007:565). Thus, involving learners and allowing them to participate in violence prevention initiatives as partners is in itself, demonstrating an acknowledgement of their inherent assets, talents, resources. Save the Children Alliance (2005:4) add that involving learners and encouraging them to participate will ensure the sustainability and success of the programme.

To (2007:555) argues that young people have strengths and the capacity to embrace challenges such as violence and to develop positively. In support, Cowger, Anderson and Snively (2006:97) confirm that young people have the ability to solve their own problems and make their own choices and decisions. Therefore, young people should be provided with opportunities to acquire personal, interpersonal and socio-political skills or power (Weyers, 2011:54) in order to enable them to improve their quality of life. Cowger et al. (2006:97) and (Midgley, 2010:14) state that often people perceive themselves as lacking the power and resources to bring about environmental change and improve their living conditions.

Therefore, efforts should be made to identify and harness their strengths, enhance their coping abilities in dealing with difficult issues and enabling them to bring about change (To, 2007:559). Social workers should help service users realise their inner strengths and resources and motivate them to use these to bring about change (Midgley, 2010:14). Cowger et al. (2006:97) argue that it is not the role of the social worker to empower people, but to unleash people's strengths and help them to empower themselves and bring about the desired change. Cowger et al. (2006:97) and Weick, Kreider and Chamberlain (2006:125) argue that the social worker's role is to connect people with needed resources to reach their goals and should not see himself or herself as an expert who can solve their problems and bring about change.

Related to school violence prevention, learners should be given the opportunity to make decisions in the design of the programme and in identifying and utilising available resources to bring about an end to violence. This is important because children, and thus learners have a right to be heard and their views taken seriously (Viviers & Lombard, 2013:8). Midgley (2010:16) adds that not only do vulnerable groups, such as children have a right to participate in decision-making processes but also to be treated with dignity and respect and to benefit from services and support.

- Developmental social work also emphasises a pluralistic approach whereby social work and social welfare practitioners should facilitate collaboration by looking at the role of the state, civil society, and private sector in promoting social development (Patel, 2015:93). Patel (2005:187) asserts that social work practitioners involved in school-based prevention and intervention programmes should adopt a whole-school approach whereby all relevant stakeholders such as learners, families, educators, other school administrators and communities are involved in collaborative efforts to address violence and crime and create safe learning environments, where the rights of learners are respected and protected. To (2007:562) also emphasises the importance of school-community partnership as these collaborations are crucial for addressing the needs of school learners and for facilitating environmental change and promoting social development.
- Finally, developmental social work is about reconciling the micro and macro divide, by focusing not only on the individual but also looking at local and global issues that impact human and social development (Patel, 2005:110; 205-206). At the micro level social welfare practice aims to promote or enhance the empowerment and development of individuals, families and communities, whilst at the macro level interventions focus on challenging social structures and institutions that are oppressive, discriminatory and cause injustice and inequality (Patel, 2015:98).

Ife (2012:244) sees social work practice as a human rights based approach that aims to link the personal and political in efforts designed to bring about change on both levels. Social workers should not view people in isolation from the broader context but should see individual problems as political and structural systems' problems (Ife, 2012:244). From a human rights perspective, social workers need to work with both the individual learners to ensure their rights are protected and at the same time work with institutional structures to ensure they meet their legal and political obligations to promote social justice, and challenge oppressive and

discriminatory policies and practices that impact the learners' social function and well-being (Hepworth, Rooney, Rooney, Strom-Gottfried & Larsen, 2006:415).

To (2007:563) prompts social workers to critically appraise oppressive and discriminatory practices within the education sector to be able to effect positive change at the individual level. Furthermore, To (2007:563) states that often social workers ignore the social, political and economic dimensions of problems and only focus on the personal issues. The author emphasise that social workers should always consider the interrelatedness of the two dimensions – the personal and institutional factors, and how the interactions between the two contribute to social problems such as school violence (To, 2007:565).

Patel's (2015:7-14) emphasis on bridging the gap between local and global levels and to consider the impact of global issues on local developments and vice versa applies to violence in schools. In addressing school violence, social work practitioners need to consider how social issues impact personal behaviour and development and in turn, how personal behaviour affect other social systems. In addressing school violence, social workers must target oppressive and discriminatory structures and institutions within the education system that violate learners' human rights, cause injustice and inequality (Patel, 2005:110) by empowering learners and educators.

Empowerment is another distinguishing theme of developmental social work and developmental social welfare approach (RSA, 1997:95). The concept of empowerment was originally coined by Solomon in 1996 and has been widely used since the late 1980's (To, 2007:556). Empowerment is a process through which the personal, interpersonal and political power of people is increased so that they can solve their problems and change their situation (Ambrosino et al., 2012:74). Empowerment diminishes powerlessness and hopelessness and enhances the power of people by helping them develop skills to be independent so they can access external resources to solve their problems and be self-sustaining (Walsh, 2010:24-25).

The empowerment approach has evolved as a method for working with the marginalised and vulnerable groups such as women, children and people with disabilities (Poulin, 2005:55). The focus is on reducing powerlessness that is caused by social injustice and inequality and to address power imbalances by helping people exert their personal, political and economic power (Greene, 2009:265). The empowerment approach is appropriate for school-based violence prevention so as to eradicate injustice, discriminatory practices and reduce the inequality between boys and girls. This can be achieved by using strategies such as education and consciousness raising efforts to equip learners, especially girls to protect themselves against violence, abuse and exploitation. According to Greene (2009:265), the empowerment approach helps individuals acquire skills to manage emotions, acquire knowledge and material resources to enhance their well-being. Designing and implementing a violence prevention programme in line with the empowerment approach offers victims of violence opportunities to empower themselves with the right knowledge, attitudes and skill to protect themselves and eradicate violence in schools.

However, the empowerment approach has been criticised for overlooking the fact that some clients prefer the social worker to “do for them and not do with them” (Walsh, 2010:27). Some clients prefer to rely on the social worker to guide them in solving their problems as they believe the social worker is an expert with knowledge and skills to bring about change (Walsh, 2010:27). However, the empowerment approach is given credit for ensuring that interventions target all systems from the micro to macro levels (To, 2007:556). In a qualitative study conducted in Hong Kong to demonstrate how school social workers implemented the empowerment approach, findings indicated the following: On the micro level, practitioners focused on the inner strengths of service users and empowered them with skills to take action in bringing about change by focusing at the interactions between the individual and their social environment (To, 2007:559). In addition, social workers focused their efforts on empowering students to protect their rights and actively participate in school activities whereby they attended to and addressed unfair school policies or teacher

malpractice (To, 2007:560). By using the empowerment approach, students were conscientised and taught to openly voice concerns about schools' punitive disciplinary measures and to advocate for better learning environments.

On the meso level, interventions focused on the school and community (To, 2007:561). School learners were empowered with knowledge and skills to work hand in hand with school administrators and personnel to transform school policies that created barriers and hampered their social and educational functioning. In addition, practitioners facilitated collaborations with youth workers and community members to strengthen school-community partnerships as these collaborative efforts were crucial for addressing the needs of the students (To, 2007:562). Practitioners empowered students to actively participate in civic and community affairs through volunteerism in order to bring about community change (To, 2007:564). This kind of intervention is in line with the principle of participatory democracy (Patel, 2005:108) and demonstrates the power and capacity children possess and the crucial role they can play in bringing about desirable and sustainable change (Viviers & Lombard, 2013:8).

To continue on the macro level, practitioners who use the empowerment approach are seen as advocates and political activists who should mobilise service users and social service partners to protect the rights of learners and create a safe learning environment and lobby governments to bring about changes within the educational system (To, 2007:564). Interventions should focus on social institutions, such as the education sector with the aim of bringing about changes in oppressive and unjust policies and legislations (To, 2007:563). Therefore, practitioners can collaborate with learners to create environments where learners are empowered to critically reflect on their needs and advocate for the dismantling of oppressive school policies to bring about positive changes and ensure a favourable learning environment. Social workers who apply the empowerment approach not only focus on the personal factors but also on macro level issues, namely: the social, political, economic and cultural factors. Such practitioners are aware of the importance of partnership and stakeholder collaboration between families, school and community (To, 2007:565). With regard to school violence prevention, learners, families, educators, schools,

communities and the education sector are important targets of intervention and for bringing about positive macro level change.

The above themes are embedded in the developmental social work approach which incorporates the strengths-based approach. Strengths and empowerment are principles of the developmental social work approach (RSA, 1997). The two are closely related and complement each other (Cheon, 2008:181; Zastrow, 2004:432). For example, both evolved as a radical paradigm shift from the remedial, problem-focused and deficits-based approach to social work practice (Gray, van Rooyen, Rennie & Gaha, 2002:193) and are critical of the traditional remedial and pathology-based approaches that assign disempowering labels such as viewing service users as vulnerable and oppressed, thus fostering a sense of powerlessness (Gray et al., 2002:193). The strengths and empowerment approaches are also critical of the residual approach that blames people for the situation in which they find themselves and ignore the contribution of structural and environmental oppressive forces and inequalities (Gray et al., 2002:193).

Cheon (2008:179) concur by stating that the strengths perspective is an approach that de-emphasises problems and deficiencies, but instead, emphasises people's inherent capabilities and the environment's resources. Strengths mean "the capacities, assets, personal qualities, talents, what people have learned about themselves, others and the world through struggles and challenges and what they know about the world around them through education and the cultural and folk lore stories and narratives shared" (Saleebey, 2006:82).

Thus every individual, including school children have strengths, capabilities and talents, and they grow from the challenges they experience in their daily lives based on the lessons they learn. In developing a violence prevention programme from a strengths perspective, intervention services will be guided by the belief that learners have the capacity to grow and change (Kisthardt, 2009:54; Poulin, 2005:31). Guiding principles as outlined by Poulin (2005:31) include the belief that individuals, families, groups and communities have strengths, resources, assets and capabilities for

positive change. Adopting such an approach recognises and utilises the learners' inner resources or assets, their skills and capacity to change and grow (Weyers, 2011:21; Midgley 2010:14).

Furthermore, the strengths based approach is premised on the belief that although trauma, abuse, illness, and struggle may be harmful, they may also be sources of opportunity (Poulin, 2005:30). The violence, abuse and trauma that learners are exposed to, are harmful but may also be an opportunity for growth. Adversities provide opportunities for social workers to partner with service users to bring about change (Midgley, 2010:14). However, Cheon (2008:182) criticises the strengths perspective for minimising the struggles and hardship people are faced with in their daily lives. On the contrary, Gray et al. (2002:194) argue that the strengths perspective does not underplay the hardships people have to deal with, rather, it acknowledges and believes that people are resilient and capable of enduring hardship and can grow from their experiences.

Both the empowerment and strengths based approaches are criticised for minimising the overwhelming challenges and obstacles poor, oppressed and marginalised people experience on a daily basis (Cheon, 2008:182). On the contrary, these perspectives do not deny the fact that real problems exist, instead they accept and acknowledge that people are resilient and capable of enduring hardship (Gray et al., 2002:194). Thus, to prevent school violence, practitioners should adopt the strengths and empowerment approaches and focus on peoples' strengths and their capacity to empower themselves with knowledge and skills to challenge oppressive and unjust practices.

To be successful, violence prevention programmes should not focus on the individual in isolation, but also on environmental factors that influence behaviour. The Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) approach that incorporates the Character Education (CE) approach complements the developmental approach as relevant practice frameworks for school violence prevention and will be discussed next.

3.4.2 Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) theory

The social and emotional learning theory (SEL) shares and embraces a similar perspective with the bio-ecological systems theory in that both focus on the person-environment interaction. Both theories recognise the influence of the environment on the individual's behaviour and vice versa. The basic assumption of the social and emotional learning (SEL) approach is that learners with limited or poor social and emotional skills make uninformed and irrational decisions that may have undesirable outcomes (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor & Schellinger, 2011:405). Thus, learners who engage in violence, lack socio-emotional skills and this can have a negative impact on their and others' behaviour. According to Durlak et al. (2011:405) when children lack these skills, this can also affect not only their emotional or physical health, but also their academic achievement.

In addition, Zins, Weissberg, Wang and Walberg (2004:3) found that learners who are socially and emotionally competent, are aware of their feelings; are able to make rational decisions; can control their actions; will not act on impulse or say things they do not mean; and will consider the impact of their behaviours on self and others. Payton, Wardlaw, Graczyk, Bloodworth, Tompsett and Weissberg (2000:1) add that learners who participate in social and emotional learning programmes can develop knowledge and skills and can become responsible and caring learners who can succeed academically and contribute to society. Elbertson, Brackett and Weissberg (2010:1017) urge practitioners to apply the social and emotional learning approach to school violence prevention, because learners will learn to be self-conscious, to regulate their emotions, to make responsible decisions, to be able to solve problems peacefully and maintain positive relationships.

Several researchers (*cf.* Durlak et al., 2011:406; Zins et al., 2004:4; Payton et al., 2000:1; Zins & Elias, 2006:1), view social and emotional learning as a process of acquiring knowledge, skills and competencies to recognise and manage emotions, set and achieve positive goals, appreciate the perspectives of others, establish and maintain positive relationships, make responsible decisions, and handle

interpersonal situations constructively. Thus it is crucial that learners are capacitated through the social and emotional learning approach with knowledge and skills to become competent and to behave in an acceptable and non-violent manner and ensure they succeed socially and academically. These are life skills that facilitate and enhance positive youth development and pro-social behaviour. To address the problem of school violence, prevention efforts should focus on teaching learners social and emotional skills and competencies to be able to withstand the broader socio-environmental influences.

Cohen (2006:201) suggests that school violence prevention programmes should not only focus on academic achievement, but should incorporate social, emotional and ethical learning components to ensure learners are in control of their emotions and can achieve academic success because researchers have demonstrated that emotions can promote or hinder learning and academic success (Durlak et al., 2011:405; Zins & Elias, 2006:3; Elbertson et al., 2010:1018). Therefore, social and emotional learning programmes should aim to address underlying causes of behaviour problems and develop socially, emotionally and ethically competent, non-violent and academically successful learners who can actively participate in a democratic society and enjoy an improved quality of life.

The strengths of the social and emotional learning (SEL) approach are that it focuses not only on the individual learner, but also targets the broad macro level issues that may impact teaching and learning (Zins et al., 2004:5). Greenberg, Weissberg, O'Brien, Zins, Fredericks, Resnik and Elias (2003:467) concur by stating that it is holistic in that it targets the individual's personal, social and environmental issues. The authors continue to state that it can be implemented over multiple years starting from pre-school through high school and has multiple components that include the learner, family, school and community and produces multiple and long lasting benefits (Greenberg et al., 2003:467). Elbertson et al. (2010:1018) add another benefit by stating that this approach prepares students for life and not just for academic success.

In order to produce ethically competent learners, the concept of character education (CE) is introduced.

3.4.3 Character Education (CE) approach

Similar to the social and emotional learning (SEL) approach, character education (CE) is an approach that teaches and promotes moral and ethical behaviour (Cohen, 2006:205). Jones, Brown and Aber (2011:1-2) concur that the character education approach has been used to teach learners socio-emotional skills in order to eliminate anti-social behaviour and promote positive development. Cohen (2006:203-205) argues that socially, emotionally, ethically and academically educated people are informed members of a democratic society who demonstrate respect for others, are able to cooperate and collaborate with others, have high regard for fairness and social justice and share a concern for common good whilst participating actively in society.

This approach is most appropriate for training perpetrators of violence in schools. According to Greenberg et al. (2003:467), such training programmes would be able to produce learners who are culturally competent, respectful, behave positively, and uphold positive work habits and values that will enable him or her to become economically independent and can contribute positively to society. As a result, such emotionally and ethically educated learners will refrain from committing violence and other undesirable behaviours and will uphold the rights of their peers and adults.

Cohen (2006:206) also believes that people who are socially, emotionally, ethically and academically educated embrace democratic values, have a respect for the rights of others, have a strong regard for the law, participate voluntarily in civic duty and show some concern for common good. In addition, they recognise and respect diversity and are able to solve problems non-violently (Cohen, 2006:206). Therefore, it is essential that such capacity building programmes are designed and implemented in schools because Cohen (2006:201) states that access to social, emotional, ethical and academic education is a basic human right to which all

learners are entitled to. Thus, violence prevention programmes incorporating social, emotional, ethical and academic learning components should therefore be designed and provided to all children and youth in South Africa. Through the social, emotional, ethical and academic learning process, Elbertson et al. (2010:1018) claim that such learners will acquire interpersonal, communication, decision-making, problem-solving, negotiation, listening, self-esteem and self-management skills.

In summary, character education (CE) approach can be meaningfully integrated with the bio-ecological systems theory; developmental social work approach and the social and emotional learning (SEL) theory to design and develop a school-based violence prevention programme.

Another practice approach that can be used to address school violence and bring about positive change is the social cognitive and social competence approach. Similarly, this approach addresses the person and the environment and will now be discussed.

3.4.4 Social Cognitive and Social Competence approach

The social cognitive and social competence approach is based on two combined theories, namely, the social cognitive and the social competence theories (Shaffer & Kipp, 2010:49). According to the social cognitive approach, people are cognitive beings with the capacity to think about the consequences of their actions (Shaffer & Kipp, 2010:49). On the other hand, the social competence approach believes people should conform to the norms and values of the community to which they are members (Rolin, Kaiser-Ulrey, Potts & Creason; 2003:405). Within the context of this study, violence can be prevented if learners are made aware of the negative consequences of irrational and violent behaviour. Furthermore, they could benefit from being taught to conform to the norms and values of a democratic and non-violent society.

According to Boxer and Buktus (2005:279), children engage in aggressive behaviour because they assume their peers have the intent to harm them, even when this is not the case. In support, Bartol and Bartol (2004:39) also state that violent youth often commit errors of judgment whereby they perceive others as being hostile towards them when it is not true. Therefore, the social cognitive and social competence approach is appropriate to change individuals' thinking processes, thereby changing their behaviour. Learners should be taught skills to make rational decisions and behave appropriately. Therefore, learners should be taught to first think about the consequences of the choices they make.

Rolin et al. (2003:405) stress that learners should be taught skills to relate well with other people and thereby strengthen their social support network. Boxer and Buktus (2005:279) emphasise the need to teach them to correctly identify and label emotions; to understand the causes of aggressive behaviour, to think about alternatives before acting, and to learn to opt for non-aggressive responses. In addition, Bartol and Bartol (2004:390) conclude that they should be taught social, assertive and decision-making skills. Through participating in such empowering opportunities, learners' decision-making and problem solving capabilities will improve and they will relate well with other members in their school environment (Rolin et al., 2003:405). Such empowerment and capacity building efforts are crucial in enhancing learners' skills and competencies for violence prevention. Conoley and Goldstein (2004:110) confirm that the social cognitive and social competence approach has produced positive outcomes in reducing several risk behaviours including violence.

The social cognitive and social competence approach is criticised for oversimplifying human behaviour and believing that many problem behaviours can be easily eliminated by modifying people's thinking processes (Shaffer & Kipp, 2010:49). The authors further state that this approach ignores or downplays the individual's biological characteristics and cognitive functioning and only focuses on the individual's active role in the person and environment interaction (Shafer & Kipp, 2010:53). It is therefore crucial that all the multiple and interacting factors that

contribute to school violence are taken into consideration and are addressed holistically.

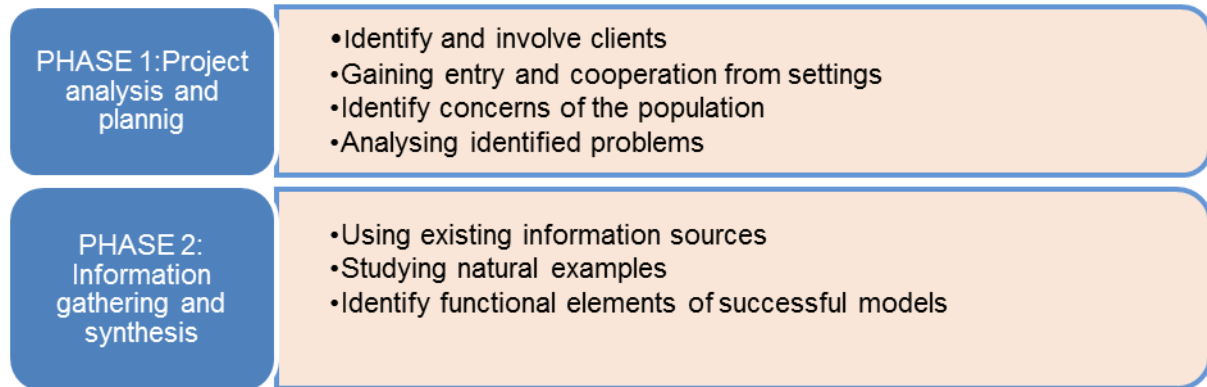
Overall, practice frameworks such as developmental social work, social and emotional learning (SEL), incorporating character education (CE) and social cognitive and social competence approaches provided guidelines for violence prevention in this study. These approaches are in line with the bio-ecological systems theory because they focus on person-in-environment interactions and multiple systems that contribute to violence, which is important for designing intervention strategies to prevent violence.

3.5 Summary

Several policy frameworks with a focus on International, Regional and National covenants and treaties were identified and discussed as these provided the mandate for violence prevention. Theoretical frameworks that explain human behaviour and help to create understanding as to why certain people behave in the manner in which is unacceptable to societal norms and values and is an infringement of others' human rights is fundamental to prevent school-based violence. The bio-ecological systems theory has been discussed as appropriate theoretical framework to guide the study, bearing in mind some limitations. To bridge these gaps, the researcher incorporated practice approaches as theoretical frameworks that could inform the design of a school-based violence prevention programme. The developmental social work approach; social and emotional learning approach; character education and social-cognitive and social competence approaches were discussed as appropriate approaches in support of the bio-ecological systems theory as they all target the person and the environment. Such approaches acknowledge the importance of school violence prevention efforts that could empower learners with socio-emotional, ethical and academic performance skills that could promote pro-social and non-violent behaviour.

The next chapter focuses on the nature, extent, causes and impact of school violence as well as existing intervention and prevention programmes.

CHAPTER 4: THE NATURE, CAUSES, EXTENT AND IMPACT OF SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE



(Rothman & Thomas, 1994)

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on phase 2 of the Intervention Research (D & D) Model to explore and describe school-based violence. School-based violence cannot be attributed to a single factor. The approach adopted in this study is embedded in the bio-ecological systems theory which argues that various internal and external interacting factors influence the behaviour of individuals (See Chapter 3: section 3.3.1). In exploring the school-based violence phenomenon, this chapter begins with a discussion of adolescence as a developmental phase, describing how adolescents develop physically, emotionally, intellectually, morally and socially. Furthermore, the distinctive changes and challenges characteristic of the adolescence phase and how these shape personalities and influence behaviour will be discussed. The next focus is on the nature and types of violence that is prevalent within the school context, followed by a discussion of the causes, extent and the impact of school-based violence. The last section focuses on a discussion of existing evidence-based intervention and prevention programmes and strategies that have been implemented both locally and internationally, to address school-based violence.

4.2 The developmental phase of adolescence

Children and adolescents behave differently at different age levels (Bender & Emslie, 2010:174). Their responses are influenced by environmental risk and protective factors, which in turn influence how they adapt to the changes associated with the stage of development (Wilson, Ruch, Limbery & Cooper, 2011:141). Therefore, it is critical to understand the adolescent stage in order to be able to differentiate between normal and abnormal behaviour and to incorporate the information in practice such as with school violence prevention within the context of this study.

Several authors have different views about the exact age of onset of the adolescent stage. Rogers (2013:263) indicates that this stage starts at age 10 to 12 and ends at age 18-22, whilst McGoldrick, Carter, and Garcia-Preto (2011:33) state that it starts from 11-13 and ends between 17-21 years of age. Wild and Swartz (2012:204) make a distinction between early adolescence (ages 11-14), middle adolescence (ages 15-17) and late adolescence (ages 18-21). This study will focus on the middle and late adolescent stage, targeting learners who are between the ages of 15 and 19 years old. Normally, learners of this age group are in high school, registered in grade 9 to 12.

Irrespective of the disagreements regarding exact age of onset, Carmody (2012:169) and Kingshott (2012:42) regard adolescence as the start of puberty and view it as a critical stage of development. The adolescent stage is seen as both exciting and challenging for most individuals. Wild and Swartz (2012:205) note that individuals develop physically, psychologically, cognitively and morally whilst they also adapt to the cultural expectations of becoming an adult. Other researchers describe this stage as the “roller-coaster” years (Inlay, 2005:41) or “troubled teens” (Kingshott, 2012:42) due to the dramatic pubertal bio-psychosocial changes experienced by most individuals (Rogers, 2013:263; Lesser & Pope, 2007:271). Therefore, individuals will differ in how they cope and adjust to the changes that accompany this developmental phase.

As noted with some individuals, the adolescent stage is characterised by defiance, disrespectfulness and rebelliousness against authority (Kingshott, 2012:42), unacceptable behaviour that may lead to many problems for individuals, families, peers and schools. The author further states that some individuals may lose interest in school and their grades may drop. They may lose interest in normal social activities and begin to experiment with drugs and alcohol, or engage in crime, while others may begin to suffer from low self-esteem and depression (Kingshott, 2012:42). Although this may be a difficult stage of development, not all adolescents experience this period as such. Rogers (2013:263) argues that for some individuals, it can also be a time of positive experiences, growth and development.

Geldard and Geldard (2004:8) note a distinction between healthy and unhealthy adolescence. As the authors state, “healthy” adolescents are able to master developmental tasks and cope well with life challenges whilst “unhealthy” adolescents fail to cope, thereby engaging in aggressive and violent behaviour. Lesser and Pope (2007:280) identify individual characteristics, the family, peers, school and community as important factors that contribute to how the adolescent copes and adapts to the developmental changes. Inlay (2005:42) argues that for healthy development, the adolescent needs a supportive environment that allows them the space to experiment, make mistakes and learn from these experiences, and to make choices and take responsibility for their choices.

Family structure is a family-related factor that facilitates or hinders healthy development. Makiwane, Makoe, Botsis and Vawda (2012:7) have identified that dynamics related to changed family systems in South Africa due to issues such as migration, rapid urbanisation, poverty and the effects of HIV and AIDS places a burden on adolescents’ coping abilities. In support, Kurebwa and Kurebwa (2014:238) noted the phenomena of child-headed households, grandmothers and other extended family members who have taken the responsibility of looking after children. These changes influence family functioning and the growth and development of children and youth.

The changing family structures and family dynamics exert enormous pressure particularly on the coping skills of adolescents. The growing adolescent has developmental milestones to reach and crises to deal with (Rogers, 2013:263; Wild & Swartz, 2012:204), in order to develop positively and become a well-adjusted member of society. Thus, the family system plays a crucial role in helping the adolescent to deal with changes and challenges. Without the support of a stable and supportive family environment, the adolescent is likely to display antisocial behaviour.

The challenge for healthy adolescent development is more in the presence of broken or dysfunctional families, and worse in the absence of family or supportive caregiving structures. Wild and Swartz (2012:204) confirm that the family is crucial to provide needed support and guidance to help adolescents cope with challenges associated with physical bodily changes, emotional turmoil and family and peer interpersonal relationships. As adolescence is a time of tremendous change, individuals undergo physiological, psychological, cognitive, moral, social and behavioural development. These are discussed below in order to demonstrate the link between developmental changes and behavioural outcomes.

4.2.1 Physiological development

During the adolescent stage of development, the individual experiences pubertal changes which are characterised by changes in physical appearance (Wilson et al., 2011:173) and hormonal changes such as rapid sexual growth which may affect body and self-image (Rogers, 2013:264). Wilson et al. (2011:173) assert that such physical changes have the potential to cause changes in behaviour and relationships. The authors go on to say that individuals respond differently to such changes and that some adolescents will experience difficulties during this stage of development while others will not (Wilson et al., 2011:131). This ability or inability to cope with physiological changes therefore explains the reasons why certain adolescents perpetuate violence whilst other do not.

Lesser and Pope (2007:271) are of the view that the timing of these changes and the responses of peers and family have an influence on the adolescent's response and ability to adjust to such changes. As a result, it cannot be concluded that physiological changes per se influence behaviour (Rogers, 2013:264), as there could be other environmental factors that contribute to behavioural abnormalities. In grappling with the school violence problem, it is also crucial to keep in mind the interacting environmental and cultural factors that influence violent behaviour (Wild & Swartz, 2012:239; Wilson et al., 2011:131). Certain cultural practices that young people have to undergo, such as initiation also influence behaviour (Wild & Swartz, 2012:239; Wilson et al., 2011:131).. From the above discussion, it can be concluded that the physiological changes that adolescents have to adapt to, could, but not necessarily will, trigger behavioural challenges such as aggression and violence. If the adolescent fails to adjust not only to the physical body changes, but also to accompanying psychological and emotional related crises and tasks, then behaviour dysfunction could occur.

4.2.2 Psychological or emotional development

During this stage of development, the major task to be accomplished is that of identity development and a strong sense of individuality (Lesser & Pope, 2007:273; Wilson et al., 2011:172). As Inlay (2005:42) points out, developmental crises that need to be accomplished are establishing independence from family whilst still maintaining relationships; and establishing friendships with peers whilst taking initiatives to set one's goals. These tasks include developing a self-concept; increasing self-direction and establishing friendships with the same or opposite sex (Lesser & Pope, 2007:274). The support of adults such as family and school staff, is critical at this stage.

Bender and Emslie (2010:178) state that adolescents become at risk of belonging to gangs and engaging in risky behaviours. Kirsh (2006:26) identifies the added risk of getting involved in conflict and violence. Kingshott (2012:45) attests that adolescents are prone to be more emotional because they process feelings differently to adults.

Rogers (2013:266) confirms that adolescents tend to overreact and misinterpret the feelings of others. Moreover, they experience mood swings (Rogers, 2013:266), therefore, they tend to be impulsive to an extent that they can make irrational and dangerous decisions. Similarly, not all adolescents fail to adjust to psychological and emotional changes. Their reactions and responses are influenced by the environmental context with which they come into contact, which in turn influences their thinking and behaviour.

4.2.3 Cognitive development

Strasburger, Wilson and Jordan (2009:173) hold the view that the structure and functioning of the adolescent's brain changes as a result of the physiological and psychological changes. Wilson et al. (2011:174) believe adolescents thus develop the ability to distinguish reality from fantasy as their thinking and reasoning capacities mature and their memory skills improve. As Lesser and Pope (2007:278) state, the adolescents' thinking becomes logical and systematic, and their problem-solving capacities improve. Adolescents learn to hold different perspectives, consider alternatives when making decisions and they start to think about their values and moral beliefs and how to live their lives (Wilson et al., 2011:174). This positive development is only possible in a supportive environment.

An assumption is made that adolescents who experience positive cognitive development are more likely to become well adjusted. However, not all adolescents cope and adjust easily during this developmental phase. According to Rogers (2013:267) some adolescents start to experiment with drugs, alcohol and sexual relationships whilst they are not yet ready to make such decisions and think about the consequences. This behaviour places them at increased risk of engaging in antisocial, violent and aggressive behaviour.

4.2.4 Moral development

Rogers (2013:268) notes that adolescents acquire higher order thinking skills, develop a moral code, and are able to think about moral values of fairness and

justice. Wilson et al. (2011:175) and Rogers (2013:268) add that adolescents are able to think about right or wrong, and good or bad. Within the context of school violence prevention, this is a critical stage for promoting positive human and ethical behaviour because this is the stage where adolescents are able to consider the views of other people (Wilson et al., 2011:175) and are able to distinguish between right and wrong. Learning to cope with the developmental tasks and to adjust easily to the developmental crises are influential in how they treat others or behave toward others.

Carmody (2012:169) also insists that adolescents' attitudes and behaviours are more influenced by family, peers and community during this critical developmental stage. Gentry and Campbell (2002:12) believe this is the favourable period to teach and reinforce moral values relating to discrimination, racism, sexism, homophobia, xenophobia and prejudice. This is also the ideal time to introduce school violence prevention programmes, as Rogers (2013:268) says it is the opportune time to teach adolescents how to behave towards others and to learn how their behaviour affects others. This in turn, emphasises that prevention activities should target learners' moral development and social behaviour.

4.2.5 Social development

Adolescents' social development pertains to the influence of society and significant others in that person's life (Louw & Louw, 2007:8). The obvious change during the adolescent stage pertains to the parent-child relationship. During this phase, there is a great shift from the family to peers, as already indicated above. The adolescent experiences a need to establish independence and autonomy from parents, they try to establish who they are, what they are all about and where they are going in life (Bender & Emslie, 2010:178). According to Inlay (2005:42), they strive to develop their own unique identity.

The strong need to belong may steer some individuals in the wrong direction of undesirable social networks (Louw & Louw, 2007:347). As adolescents show less

attachment and affection to parents, they begin to test rules and challenge authority (Kingshott, 2012:46). The peer group becomes important as it provides a sense of identity and source of acceptance, popularity and status. Rogers (2013:290) argues that although adolescents are moving towards independence, they are still dependent on the family for emotional and financial support. Therefore, it is important that adolescents are assisted to cope and adjust to the developmental changes.

Dupper (2013:6) shows that less parental support and lack of adult supervision coupled with increased negative peer influence, may lead to antisocial behaviours. During the increased social interaction with peers, adolescents begin to experiment with alcohol, drugs, crime and violence. In order to develop positive social relationships, adolescents have the challenge of balancing their relationships with parents and peers. Failure to strike a balance would make them succumb to peer pressure which, in turn, could negatively impact on their behavioural development.

4.2.6 Behavioural development

As discussed above, adolescents experience a lot of physiological, psychological, cognitive, moral and social changes and crises which may influence their attitudes and behaviour. Authors have various viewpoints on how adolescence impact their behaviour. Kirsh (2006:39) disputes the fact that the adolescent stage is characterised by an increase of aggression and conflict as young people struggle with adjusting to these changes. Wild and Swartz (2012:205) argue that most adolescents cope well with the developmental challenges without manifesting serious socio-emotional and behavioural problems. Kirsh (2006:26) agrees that aggressive behaviour peaks in early adolescence and then declines at the later stage. Although violence increases across adolescence, most adolescents are not violent (Kirsh, 2006:26). According to Soudien and Hardman (2012:315), certain socio-cultural and historical contexts influence the adolescents' development and behaviour. Additionally, Morell, Bhana and Hamlall (2012:119) assert that in certain cultural contexts, violence is accepted as part of a young man's transition into

adulthood and an expression of masculinity. As a result, violence is normalised and accepted as part of the growth stage.

Carmody (2012:169) is of the view that the attitudes and behaviours of adolescents are at an increased risk of being influenced. Gentry and Campbell (2002:30) observe that risk taking is one way that adolescents shape their identities, whereby they try out their decision-making skills and experiment with new activities such as drugs, alcohol, sexual relations, crime and violence. Osadebe (2013:86) and Blakeslee, Patel and Simon (2012:45) conclude that adolescents at this stage are prone to violence and are often engaged in violence as both victims and perpetrators.

The above discussion described developmental changes and crises that adolescents undergo, their responses to such changes, as well as the influence of the family, peers, and socio-cultural factors that explain why certain individuals become involved in violent and aggressive behaviours, whilst others do not. This information has to be taken into consideration in order to create an understanding of human development and the social behaviour of adolescents. This information is crucial for understanding the various types of school-based violence to which learners are exposed to in their daily lives.

The next section focuses on the nature of school violence and describes how the different forms of violence manifest in the lives of learners and educators.

4.3 The nature of school-based violence

Literature indicates that violence is multi-dimensional comprising of varied forms with each type differing according to frequency and the individuals' characteristics such as age and gender (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008:72). The South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) (2008:5) reports that the nature of violence often depends on the social context in which it takes place such as whether it is between learner-on-learner, teacher-on-learner, and learner-on-teacher or by external people against both learners and teachers. Another view by Mncube and Harber (2013:3) indicates that violence emanates from different sources and involves different actors,

often taking place in wide-ranging contexts. Du Plessis (2008:22) asserts that it is important to distinguish between the different kinds of violence, as it can easily be perceived as a single or general problem in society.

School violence takes many forms, varying from minor to severe acts of violence and aggression (Center.Link Newsbrief, 2002:1) and includes corporal punishment, bullying, gang-related activities, sexual abuse, physical assault, verbal abuse, theft, robbery and threats (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:177). The National School Violence Study (Burton, 2008b:16) and the National Youth Victimization Study (Leoschut & Burton, 2006:68) focus on verbal threats, physical assaults, robbery, and sexual assault; whilst other researchers (Burton, 2006:1; Collings & Magojo, 2003:134; De Wet, 2006:20) focus more on serious types of offences such as attacks with a weapon, rape, attempted murder and murder. Rodney, Johnson and Srivastava et al. (2005:440) have identified hitting, shouting, forms of initiation and corporal punishment as forms of violence that are common in high school, whilst bullying and physical fighting are more prevalent in primary or elementary school. The authors say that other forms of violence prevalent in pre-primary school may be expressed in the form of kicking, hitting, spitting and name-calling. On the other hand, Du Plessis (2008:65) makes a distinction between political, gang, criminal, and relational violence whilst the SAHRC (2008:v) differentiates between learner against learner; learner against educator; educator towards learner and external persons against learners and educators.

Evidently, other forms of violence emanate from different sources and involve different actors and take place in wide-ranging contexts such as inside or outside the school premises (Mncube & Harber, 2013:3; Devers, Henry, Hofmann & Benabdallah, 2012:6). In this study, verbal, emotional, physical, sexual, cyber, property, gang and systematic violence are discussed, as all of these types of violence are often interrelated and affect many South African schools. These types of violence are discussed next.

4.3.1 Verbal violence

Verbal violence is one common form of school violence that involves bad name-calling, racial slurs, cursing, screams, passing of remarks and use of foul language (Osadebe, 2013:88; Singh & Steyn, 2013:5; Benbenishty & Astor, 2008:72). Nesor (2006:120) highlights verbal violence as the perpetrator attacking the victim through words and teasing. Verbal violence can thus be summed up as an aggressive situation whereby words are used to hurt another person's feelings.

4.3.2 Emotional violence

Emotional violence is an umbrella term that incorporates psychological, verbal abuse and bullying which can take many forms such as threats of physical violence, name-calling, sarcasm, spreading rumours, persistent teasing, exclusion from the group, tormenting, ridicule, and humiliating comments (Mncube & Harber, 2013:8). Benbenishty and Astor (2008:72) identify other forms which include insults, neglect and isolation, whilst Antonowicz (2010:32) cites refusal to check students' homework or repression of the child's emotion as forms of violence. Additionally, Devers et al. (2012:8) refer to intimidation and emotional manipulation as forms of emotional violence. It is evident that emotional violence manifests in various forms including the use of words and humiliating actions to hurt the victim's feelings.

4.3.3 Physical violence and corporal punishment

Badri (2014:6) and Pinheiro (2006:52) describe physical violence as the intentional use of physical force against a child that either results in harm to the child's health, survival, development or dignity. Pinheiro (2006:52) declares that this form of violence includes hitting, kicking, shaking, beating, biting, strangulation or burning. The author further identifies corporal punishment as another form of physical violence, which is perpetrated to cause some pain or discomfort and includes acts such as spanking with a hand or objects such as a whip, stick, belt, shoe, or wooden spoon (Pinheiro, 2006:52). According to Badri (2014:6) and Pinheiro (2006:52), other actions may also include blows to the head or body and many other degrading

punishments such as pinching, pulling hair or ears or forcing children to stay in squatting positions for extended periods of time. Whilst emotional and verbal violence is mainly through the use of words, physical violence mainly involves the use of objects and physical force to cause bodily harm.

4.3.4 Sexual and gender-based violence

Several authors describe sexual violence as verbal or physical sexual harassment, inappropriate touching, including sexual assault or rape, inflicted on children by someone with power and control over them (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008:72; Pinheiro, 2006:20). Denvers et al. (2012:7) and MAALLA M’JID (2008:9) add that sexual violence is committed through the use of force or threats and comprises such acts as groping and rape. Perezniето, Harper, Clench and Coarasa (2010:28) found that verbal threats are used to prevent the child victim from reporting the sexual incident.

Perezniето et al. (2010:28) further identified sexual exploitation, where sexual violence is perpetrated on a child by a person in a position of authority or trust, with remuneration in cash or kind. Within the school context, this remuneration takes the form of money for school fees or supplies, or good marks in exchange for sexual favours. Basically, sexual and gender-based violence involve the abuse of power to capitalise on the vulnerability of the victims for the sexual gratification of the perpetrator.

4.3.5 Cyber violence

A form of bullying which has become increasingly common due to technological advancement is cyber-bullying. This is another form of violence that involves the use of electronic means such as mobile phones or the internet to intentionally harm, harass, damage someone’s reputation and relationships (Dupper, 2013:38; Price & Dalglish, 2010:51). Shariff (2004:223) says that often perpetrators make anonymous and wicked comments or threats to intimidate or tease, to spread malicious gossip and rumours, and to circulate defamatory images through online chat rooms such as “Facebook”, “Twitter” or e-mail.

Dowd, Singer and Fretwell-Wilson (2006:337) confirm that children often torment one another in relative anonymity. Govender (2008:1) adds that other people use the internet to perpetuate cyber violence with the intention to humiliate or threaten others. Burton and Leoschut (2013:70) and Chisholm (2006:81) confirm that cyber violence takes the form of sexting and outing, and occurs in online bulletin boards, instant messaging, websites, and online multiplayer video games. Cyber violence is distinct from other forms of violence in that it involves the use of electronic gadgets. Moreover, it is non-physical and is “hidden”, often making it difficult to identify the perpetrator (Dowd et al., 2006:337; Chisholm, 2006:81). However, the intention is similar. Cyber violence, like the other forms of violence, is intended to cause harm.

4.3.6 Property violence or vandalism

Vandalism, at times referred to as property violence, is a type of aggression caused by learners which results in the breaking and destruction of property and takes such forms as learners writing on seats and walls; destroying school facilities such as toilets, bathroom walls, seats, doors, windows, library contents, laboratories, and even water tanks and burning school facilities (Thawabieh & Ahmad Al-rofo, 2010:410). Robers, Kemp, Truman and Snyder (2013:189) describe property violence as “The intentional damage of school property including bombing, arson, graffiti and other acts that cause damage to property.” This indicates that property violence is most targeted at infrastructure and other material resources of both the school and teachers. Property violence does not include the learners targeting the material possessions of other learners. The trend of learners targeting other learners may manifests in the form of gang violence.

4.3.7 Gang violence

Standing (2005:8) describes gangs as a unique antisocial group of individuals who are intent on perpetrating violence, crime and causing disruptions within a school context, particularly to terrorise members of the community. The author goes on to say that gang members have a strong set of cultural beliefs that go against mainstream society; they share similar values, beliefs and perform rituals that are

peculiar to the gang (Standing, 2005:8). Osadebe (2013:87) and Gevers and Flisher (2012:180) concur that gangs have antisocial values and they cherish violence. Furthermore, Maphanga (2004:2) adds that gangs have formal structures and any outsider is considered hostile or an easy target for victimisation.

Young people join gangs for various reasons. Standing (2005:8) says some join as an act of rebellion against authority or to find a sense of belonging, whilst Maphanga (2004:18) states that some join not only to rebel against authority, but also to retaliate and earn honour and prestige among peers. Furthermore, Standing (2005:8) observes that others join gangs to engage in drug dealing and/or use, or crime. The author says that violent conflict is often instigated by trivial events such as fighting over girls, stolen items, money or insults (Standing, 2005:15). Maphanga (2004:18) notes that violence erupts under these circumstances to gain esteem and power. Within the school context, gang violence is perpetrated amongst the group members as they fight over various but often similar issues as alluded to above.

4.3.8 Systemic or institutionalised violence

Robinson, Davies and Saltmarsh (2012:186) refer to this form of violence as institutional policies and practices that exert power to enforce rules and disciplinary practices to harass learners into compliance. Mncube and Harber (2013:105) confirm that systemic violence is perpetuated by teachers who are verbally, psychologically and physically abusive, and who use corporal punishment to discipline learners. Similarly, Pedro (2012:78) argues that violent schools are characterised as hostile, where some teachers are unsupportive and uncaring. Such teachers criticise and call the learners names. Robinson et al. (2012:186) and Mncube and Harber (2013:105) add that such educators are unprofessional and they fail to take into consideration the unique needs of individual learners.

Systemic violence is not only perpetrated by educators through their uncaring, unsupportive and unprofessional behaviour, but Mncube and Harber (2013:105) add that institutional violence is perpetrated by schools and the broader educational

systems either by failing to take decisive action against perpetrators of school violence or by doing nothing to prevent school violence. Devers et al. (2012:9) argue that schools are supposed to set the example and educate learners by teaching them values and norms that espouse non-violence. Instead, violent schools depict classroom environments that are tense and ruled by authoritarian styles of leadership (Devers et al., 2012:9). Pedro (2012:78) has observed that learners' rights are violated and racial, cultural, religious and sexual discrimination is practiced in these school environments. Therefore, institutional violence is perpetrated by the wider systemic and institutional forces and manifests in the form of undemocratic policies, rules and regulations that ignore the needs and rights of learners.

In summary, violence may take varied forms and could be perpetrated by fellow learners, educators, the school system or external people from the community. It is essential that factors which contribute to school-based violence be identified. These causative factors are discussed in the next section.

4.4 The causes of school-based violence

To address or prevent school-based violence, Clark (2012:78) purports that it is important to understand its causes because it is difficult to address a problem without understanding its causes. In explaining school violence and the factors that contribute to its occurrence, Benbenishty and Astor (2008:66) and Beninger (2013:300) recommend that one moves away from simplistic and one-dimensional approaches because the causes of violence are complex and multifaceted. Casella (2012:39) supports the view that violent and aggressive behaviour is a result of complex interaction between the individual and multiple systems or contexts, such as the family, school, the community, culture and environment. Ward (2007:11) adds that various factors in these environments wherein children live influence their development.

In the next discussion, the bio-ecological systems approach (See Chapter 3) is used to facilitate understanding of the causes of school-based violence. As premised by

Cowie and Jennifer (2012:18), many contextual factors contribute to the development of violent behaviour among school learners. The following section starts with a discussion of individual level risk factors that contribute to the development of school violence and will culminate in an illustration of the respective micro, meso, exo, macro and chrono levels risk factors.

4.4.1 Individual-related factors

Cowie and Jennifer (2012:18) and Ward (2007:15) state that individual factors that contribute to one's engagement in violence and aggression at school include the personality and biological characteristics of the individual such as impulsiveness, hyperactivity, restlessness, and a short attention span. Other individual biological factors identified by Eisenbraun (2007:462), include high testosterone and low serotonin levels. Van der Merwe et al. (2012:55) identify age and gender as factors that contribute to violence. All these biological and personality-related variables in combination with other contextual factors contribute to school violence.

Other authors identified personality traits such as low frustration tolerance levels, feelings of powerlessness, lack of commitment to school, low academic ambitions and poor academic performance (Pedro, 2012:76; Cowie & Jennifer, 2012:18; Khan, 2008:1). In an interview conducted with a South African female secondary school educator to explore her experiences of school violence, Bester and Du Plessis (2010:210) found that learners who experience academic pressure and tension are more likely to engage in violent behaviour.

Rogers (2013:321) found that previous experiences of childhood abuse also place some children at risk of perpetuating school violence. On the other hand, Cowie and Jennifer (2012:18) show that early engagement in antisocial behaviour such as substance abuse and crime places many young people at risk of perpetuating violence. Eisenbaun (2007:462) concur that learners who use drugs and alcohol are more likely to take risks and get involved in violence. Rogers (2013:299) confirms that being male, with low impulse control, using substances, and performing poorly in

school, are some of the characteristics of individuals who are most likely to engage in violence.

However, it should be noted that not all children and youth engage in school violence. Cowie and Jennifer (2012:18) observe that some learners are resilient and have protective characteristics such as a sense of self-efficacy, high intelligence, and have outgoing personalities. Furthermore, Cowie and Jennifer (2012:18) reveal that some children are shielded by the family environment which is depicted by a strong sense of attachment, stable, warm and caring interpersonal relationships, accompanied by clear and consistent rules and discipline. Thus, the family has an influence on children's development and behaviour.

4.4.2 Family-related factors

The family and home environment wherein many children are raised contribute to children's engagement in school violence (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:60). Dupper (2013:16) and Pedro (2012:76) argue that children who are raised in families where physical punishment is used; where there is lack of affection and care; where sibling rivalry is high; and where the father figure is absent or uninvolved, are more likely to perpetrate violence in school. Similarly, Ward (2007:14) and Eisenbraun (2007:464) found that dysfunctional and unstable families, characterised by low levels of cohesion and high levels of parental conflict and disharmony, are more likely to raise violent youth.

Several authors (Singh & Steyn, 2013:3; van der Merwe et al., 2012:70; Khoury-Kassabri, Astor & Benbenishty, 2009:175) reveal that families that lack structure, or those that have inconsistent rules, that implement harsh and/or inconsistent disciplinary practices, and those that lack proper parenting skills raise violent offspring. Other identifying family characteristics include showing little interest in or being uninvolved in their children's school lives or failure to monitor and supervise their children's activities (van der Merwe et al., 2012:71; Perry, 2009a:29). Children raised in such uncaring and supportive families are often left to their own devices,

with little or no guidance. Such children are most likely to get attention from negative peers.

Le Roux and Mokhele (2011:323) point out that children who are exposed to domestic violence learn that violence is a normal and acceptable method for conflict resolution. These children are therefore more likely to use violence against their peers or other adults at school. Moreover, families who use violence are withdrawn, socially isolated and enjoy little support from the community and usually experience highly stressful lives and other social problems (Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2009:175). These factors have a negative impact on the developing child. As a result, such children are most likely to use violence at school. Perry (2009a:31) confirms that families who display high levels of violence also place their children at high risk of perpetrating violence against their peers and others.

Other factors that influence families negatively include family disruptions due to illness, divorce, incarceration or death (Eisenbraun, 2007:464). These families are more at risk of raising violent and aggressive children than their counterparts. Leoschut (2013:4) adds that parental criminality, sibling criminality, and exposure to family violence as a victim or witness are contributory factors to violent behaviour amongst offsprings. Additional factors identified by Khoury-Kassabri et al. (2009:175) and Eisenbraun (2007:464) include low socio-economic status, parental abuse of substances, and low value, interest and commitment to education.

In contrast, findings of a study by Collings and Magojo (2003:125) conducted in Durban to investigate the causes of violent behaviour among high school learners could not confirm that socio-economic status of the family causes violence. Instead, the findings indicated that exposure to community violence does contribute to school violence. Flores (2005:20) argues against the fact that learners from poor families are more likely to perpetrate school violence. Rather, some families protect their children against undesirable influences by supporting them and providing them with warm, caring, nurturing and stable home environments, in order to enable them to thrive and develop positively (Flores, 2005:20). Thus, family-related factors may

predispose some learners to risky behaviours whilst others may protect learners from engaging in aggressive and violent behaviour.

4.4.3 Peer-related factors

Burton and Leoschut (2013:66) and van der Merwe et al. (2012:73) assert that peers are a key socialising agent and play an influential role in learners' antisocial attitudes and violent behaviours. Casella (2012:45) argue that learners who engage in gang membership and associate with antisocial peers are at an increased risk of becoming involved in violence, either as victims or perpetrators. The authors state that exposure to aggressive and violent peer role models contributes to learned violent behaviour.

Furthermore, Collings and Magojo (2003:125) support the view that learners who participate in group violence are desensitised to extreme violence as compared to individuals acting alone. Osadebe (2013:87) adds that peers who hold pro-violence values and attitudes instigate each other and work together to cause violence in schools. Cowie and Jennifer (2012:18) postulate that this often happens when there is poor communication between children and their parents. The developing youngsters then look up to their peers for support and acceptance. The school system is an environment for peers to provide such support. Moreover, it is also where violent behaviour can be influenced by peers.

4.4.4 School-related factors

Within the school context, researchers identify environmental, administrative, curriculum and educator-related risk factors that contribute to school violence. As Zulu et al. (2004:170) state, schools have become highly explosive and unsafe places as evident from daily reports of violent incidences. Other scholars have identified poor classroom management, lack of boundaries, and poor leadership, poor management and a lack of administrative structures from heads of schools and school governing bodies as factors contributing to school violence (Cowie & Jennifer, 2012:18; Dupper, 2013:17; Edwards-Kerr, 2013:5; Singh & Steyn, 2013:3).

Dupper (2013:17) and Edward-Kerr (2013:5) indicate other causative factors to school violence. These include large impersonal schools where learners are part of the faceless masses and where there are poor teacher-learner relationships. Such school environments are deficient in social capital and are perceived by learners as hostile, unsupportive, uncaring and unwelcoming (Dupper, 2013:17; Edward-Kerr, 2013:5). Dupper (2013:17) and Edward-Kerr (2013:5) state that learners in such schools lack a sense of belonging and as a result are not concerned about the consequences of their harmful and undesirable violent behaviours to self, peers, educators and other school adults.

Janse Van Rensburg (2010:24) and Edward-Kerr (2013:60) regard staff-related factors to be risk factors for school-based violence. The authors argue that teachers who lack training on how to address school violence, who have low morale and lack job satisfaction, contribute to school environments that are prone to violence. Chisholm and Ward (2005:64) concur and add that schools with higher levels of educator dissatisfaction, high suspension rates, low levels of parent involvement, high drop-out rates and a high tolerance of bullying behaviour, are more likely to experience higher levels of school-based violence than their counterparts. Furthermore, De Wet (2005:44) and van der Merwe et al. (2012:72) mention lack of empathy on the part of some educators and the use of corporal punishment as contributory factors to school violence.

Le Roux and Mokhele (2011:323) identified school environments that lack constructive, creative and challenging activities to engage learners as issues that contribute to bored, apathetic and unhappy learners who resort to drugs and alcohol, gang activities and other antisocial behaviours. Janse Van Rensburg (2010:24) points out that schools with poor physical conditions such as narrow hallways, and broken-down and unhygienic buildings, could cause frustration and feelings of disrespect and may contribute to acts of violence. Eisbraun (2007:464) agrees that learners who attend schools that are untidy, graffiti covered and unhygienic are more prone to violence.

Not only does the physical condition of the school matter, but also the culture within the school environment. Dupper (2013:17) states that caring and supportive schools, where the staff condemn violence and are quick to respond to reported violent incidents, are most likely to experience less violence than their counterparts. Khoury-Kassabri et al. (2009:162) add that such schools will experience less violence if they have clear, consistent and fair rules. The authors further argue that learners flourish and experience less violence in school environments where students are given opportunities to contribute to decision-making processes, and where they experience positive teacher-learner relationships.

To reduce levels of violence requires strong leadership. Chisholm and Ward (2005:67) are of the opinion that good leadership, democratic rules, clarity and consistency about behavioural norms contribute to low levels of violence. The authors further assert that emotionally supportive and caring environments which encourage student participation and involvement in school matters are able to decrease levels of violence and increase academic performance (Chisholm & Ward, 2005:67).

Cavanagh (2009:74) believes that the school is a complex and dynamic microcosm of the community in which individuals are located. Thus, the violence that is prevalent in schools is influenced by the many dynamic and interacting factors within the school system. Burton and Leoschut (2013:53) argue that schools often represent the political, cultural, ethic and economic fabric of the community. Therefore, what goes on inside the school environment is indirectly or directly tied to the broader community (Flores, 2005:20; De Wet, 2009:59). Within the context of a bio-ecological systems approach, not only do the individual, family, peers and school-related factors cause school violence, but the community also poses risk factors, as will be discussed next.

4.4.5 Community-related factors

The occurrence of violence in schools is often compounded by community level risk factors such as access to alcohol, drugs and weapons and high crime rates (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:47). Flores (2005:20) confirms that constant exposure to neighbourhood violence contributes to violent and aggressive behaviour in schools. Furthermore, The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2013:29) have established that the physical, social and economic characteristics of neighbourhoods and communities influence the likelihood of violence in schools. On the contrary, Zulu et al. (2004:173) argue that schools are dysfunctional because of school violence and not because of community risk factors.

van der Merwe et al. (2012:75-76) are of the opinion that disorganised communities and neighbourhoods are unable to implement effective social controls; have an influence on effective parenting; affect schools' teaching and learning processes and result in poor academic achievement and high rates of unemployment, crime and poverty. The cycle of dysfunction continues infinitely. Nickerson and Spears (2007:9) concur that poor neighbourhoods characterised by high population turnover and crime, are at risk of school-based violence. Although research shows that schools located in poorer, disorganised communities are more likely to experience more violence and disorder than schools located in more affluent and organised communities, school-based violence is not restricted to poor and disadvantaged schools (Jefthas & Artz, 2007:47). Therefore, the conclusion can be safely drawn that community disorganisation could influence rates of violence in schools.

Burton (2008b:48) and SAHRC (2008:19) identify the existence of gang activities, availability of weapons, alcohol and drugs within communities as causes of school violence. Singh and Steyn (2013:3) agree with Leoschut (2013:4) that easy access to drugs and alcohol influence a culture and levels of violence in schools. Osadebe (2013:87) found that poor communities that lack access to water and electricity, experience more violence than affluent communities.

From the above discussion, it is clear that poor and marginalised neighbourhoods, characterised by high rates of gangsterism, easy access to weapons, alcohol and drugs experience more dysfunction which poses more risk factors for school violence.

4.4.6 Media-related factors

Livingstone (2007:6) and Hudson, Windham and Hooper (2005:137) claim that children and adolescents are vulnerable to media influence because they are bombarded with violent images through television, video games, movies and the internet. Expanding this line of discussion, Ward (2007:24) argues that children who are exposed to violent images on television and who live in environments that do not sanction violent norms and behaviour, are more likely to become aggressive than their counterparts. In a study of South African children's exposure to violent films and a lack of parental monitoring of the content, De Wet (2007a:56) found these children to be more at risk of developing aggressive behaviours. The conclusion is that the media could potentially influence and harm some children.

Livingstone (2007:7) argues that the media can harm some children under certain conditions. In order to control the media influence on their children's behaviour, the author urges parents to be media literate and to regulate and monitor what children are exposed to (Livingstone, 2007:7). O'Keeffe, Clark-Pearson and the COUNCIL ON COMMUNICATIONS AND MEDIA (2011:800-802) warn that technological advancement places a demand on parents to encourage healthy use of media and urges parents to evaluate the sites their children navigate in order to be certain that the content is appropriate for the child's age and to monitor the development of problems such as violence.

In support of the view that watching too much violent images and the lack of parental guidance contribute to violence among children, Pedro (2012:77) found that children who spend a lot of time watching violent images become insensitive and develop violent tendencies because they believe it is normal to shoot or kill someone as a

way to solve problems or conflicts. The Council on Communications and Media (2009:1497) demonstrate that violent media contribute to physical and mental health problems in children and youth, such as desensitisation to violence, depression, nightmares and sleep disorders.

There is however another view on the impact of media on children. For example, the Council on Communications and Media (2009:1498) found that interactive media, such as video games and the internet have potential for positive effects on children's physical and mental health. According to the authors, media per se is not negative. The content, frequency, and context of what children are exposed to matters. Similarly, Gentile, Anderson, Yukawa et al. (2009:753) established that video games can have both good and bad effects. These authors argue that only violent content makes the difference as it leads to aggressive behaviour in young people. They maintain that pro-social content teaches people to be cooperative and helpful.

In support, a study by O'Keeffe et al. (2011:801) indicate that technology and social media sites enable teens to socialise and communicate with ease, allow them to stay connected with friends and family, enable them to make new friends and exchange information and pictures whilst they also enhance learning. Stadler (2012:319) states that violent media alone does not cause violence, emphasising the interaction between various systems. Negative outcomes can be mitigated by parents who regulate and monitor what their children are exposed to.

4.4.7 Socio-cultural and economic-related factors

School violence stems from societal factors over which the school has no control, such as inequality and specific cultural beliefs and attitudes about gender roles (MiET Africa, 2009:10; Burton 2008b:49). A UN Study on Violence against Children confirms that gender-based violence stems from cultural stereotypes and practices that perpetuate gender inequality (Pinheiro, 2006:119). Similarly, in a study conducted in three Southern African countries by Leach, Fiscian, Kadzamia, Lemani and Machakanja (2003:132), findings suggest that schools are fertile breeding

grounds for potentially damaging gendered practices which remain with learners into adult life. Mpiana (2011:9993) indicates that girls are trained to submit to violence, while boys are not condemned. The conclusion can be drawn that in such contexts, boys may be encouraged to continue perpetrating violence against girls. Burton (2007:28) says some individuals are so exposed to such violent cultures and messages that they have accepted and internalised these as a normal way of life.

Clark (2012:80, 90) adds that structural violence is less visible and manifests in the form of poverty and unemployment, and is accompanied by inequality and power imbalances. South Africa is a country that is marked by massive economic inequality and is ranked as one of the most unequal countries in the world (Foster, 2012:45; Clark, 2012:80). This explains the rate of violence in many families, schools and communities. Violence stemming from structural issues and systems can also be linked to historical and political factors as will be discussed next.

4.4.8 Historical and political factors

Meyer (2005:11) states that the high level of violence in many South African schools reflects a complicated combination of past history and recent socio-economic and political stresses that affect individuals, families, schools and communities. Clark (2012:83) and Bruce (2007:64) share the view that the past apartheid system and its associated political violence explains the current violence experienced in society. Bender and Emslie (2010:192) concluded that South Africans are “immersed in a culture of violence that has become a way of life that gets learned and transferred inter-generationally and is dangerously attractive for today’s youth.” Generation after generation is affected by a culture of violence. At the current rate of violence in families, schools and communities, the future is bleak unless the tide can be stopped.

Another historical factor that was identified as a cause for school violence is racism and discrimination. The Public Hearings conducted by the Human Rights Commission in 2008 established that xenophobia contributes towards some

incidences of violence in South African schools, particularly those schools that attract immigrant learners (SAHRC, 2008:9). Findings also reveal that lesbian and gay learners experience discrimination and violence at schools (SAHRC, 2008:9). OUT LGBT Wellbeing, an organisation working towards the promotion of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) peoples` rights conducted research in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape, and reported that gay and lesbian youths experience high levels of prejudice and discrimination resulting in exclusion, marginalisation and victimisation (SAHRC, 2008:9). Children not only have the right to an education, but also to protection against violence (MiET Africa, 2009:4). Governments are required by law to ensure that all learners have access to education free from violence and to ensure that such an education fosters understanding of diversity issues and gender equality (Amnesty International, 2008:2).

Based on the ecological understanding of school-based violence, the existence of multi-level risk factors as discussed above, give account of the prevalence of violence in schools. School-based violence is an outcome of individual, family, peers, school, community, and societal level factors which interact with one another within the environmental context as depicted by the Bio-ecological Model of Human Development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) which is presented in Figure 4.1 below.

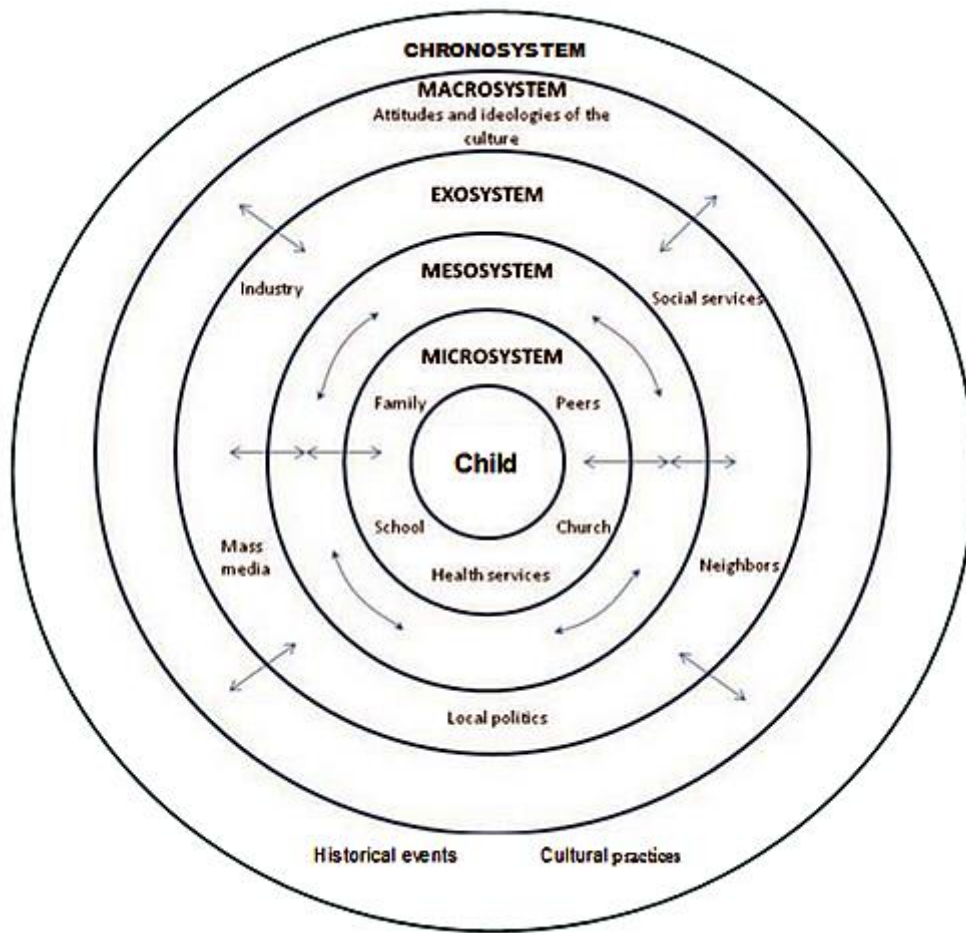


Figure 4.1 Bio-ecological Model of Human Development (Source: Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Figure 4.1 reflects a comprehensive image of showing how various risk factors place school learners at risk of violence, either as perpetrators or victims. At the center it is the child or learner who interacts with the family, peers, school, health or church system. These micro systems influence and are influenced by the child. Other influential factors include societal issues such as the media, politics, culture and historical events. It is crucial to identify and understand these factors as Clark (2012:78) says that it is impossible to effectively address a problem without understanding its causes. The myriad contributory factors that have been identified above provide an account of the scope and extent of school violence that is prevalent in some communities and broader society, as will be discussed next.

4.5 The extent of school-based violence

It is difficult to point out with complete certainty the extent of the problem of violence in schools. However, Mncube and Harber (2012:10) argue that it is possible to gauge the extent of violence and to make assumptions about its seriousness based on the number of studies that have been conducted and the available statistical data. Available data show that in South Africa perpetrators and victims of violence are becoming younger and younger, and their behaviour is becoming more lethal. For example, Mdletshe and Davids (2012:1) reported about six grade one learners of ages ranging between six and eight, who repeatedly kicked and punched a seven year old boy in full view of their classmates, damaging his liver and kidneys such that it is feared that he may never walk again due to the injuries he suffered.

This is only but one incident reported in the media among the available scientific research evidence that support the fact that violence is prevalent in many South African schools. Moreover, results of the 2012 National School Violence Study involving 5,939 learners, 121 school principals and 239 educators focusing on secondary schools in all nine provinces, reveal that more than a fifth (22.2%) of learners had experienced some form of violence while at school in the 12 months preceding the study (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:xi). According to the authors, a total of 12.2% (560, 869 learners) experienced threats of violence; 6.3% (289, 629 learners) experienced physical violence involving use of hands or weapons; 4.7% (216, 072 learners) experienced sexual assault; 4.5% (206, 878 learners) experienced theft and robbery; 20.9% experienced some form of online violence; 49.8% experienced corporal punishment, and 4.5% experienced multiple victimisation within the school premises (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:12-19).

The results of the Second South African National Youth Risk Behaviour Survey conducted in 2008 indicated that 9% of learners reported carrying a weapon (gun, knife, panga or kierie) at school during the month preceding the study; 15.7% of learners were threatened or injured with a weapon on school property during the six months preceding the study and 11% had threatened or injured someone with a weapon during the six months preceding the study (Reddy, James, Sewpaul et al.,

2010:49-51). Furthermore, 22.9% felt unsafe on the way to and from school and 27% felt unsafe at school respectively during the past month preceding the study; 21% were involved in a physical fight during the six months preceding the study; 58.7% had witnessed a physical fight at school and 36.3% tried to intervene and stop the physical fight in the six months preceding the study (Reddy et al., 2010:49-51).

Similarly, in another school-based violence prevalence study conducted among 995 learners in Grade 6 to 11 in nineteen secondary schools in Tshwane South, Naser (2007:31) found that about 40% of the participants revealed that they had been exposed to violence frequently. Of the total, about 11.2%, had experienced violence every day whilst 28.1% experienced it once or twice a week. Violence in schools is not only a South African problem; it is a worldwide phenomenon and a daily occurrence that manifests in bullying, harassment, assault and intimidation. Though school violence is a global problem affecting both developing and developed countries (Robinson et al., 2012:6; Chaux, Molano & Podlesky, 2009:520), the extent and impact of the problem differs from country to country and this difference can be attributed to local cultural and contextual factors.

From an international perspective, the following discussion in no particular sequential order presents the prevalence rates of violence in schools per country, continent, and/or region. According to Chaux et al. (2009:520), Lithuania reported 32% of 15 year olds being bullied two or more times during the last month prior to the study, compared to 2% of Hungarian 15 year olds. In another study, Benbenishty and Astor (2008:62) found that Israeli students experienced higher levels of bullying as compared to the rest of the world whilst Italy experienced twice as high the rate of England and three times more than Norway. These levels signify the reality that violence is a global phenomenon and affects many countries.

In the United States of America, The US National Centre for Injury Prevention and Control–Division of Violence Prevention reported minimal school-related violent deaths (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Fact Sheet, 2013:1). According to the report, 17 homicides of school-age youth occurred during the 2009-2010

period, with less than 2% occurring at school. Further, there were 828,000 non-fatal victimisations at school for the 12-18 year age category. Seven percent of teachers reported that they had been threatened with physical attack or were injured by learners at school, whilst in 2009 about 20% reported the existence of gangs at their school (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Fact Sheet, 2013:1). According to the Indicators of School Crime and Safety 2012 report, there were 31 violent deaths (25 homicides and 6 suicides) between July 1, 2010 and June 30, 2011 involving students, staff and non-students and 11 homicides and 3 suicides of 5-18 year old school age youth. Furthermore, there were 1,246,000 non-fatal victimisation, including 648,600 thefts and 597,500 violent victimisation (Robers et al., 2013: i-viii).

Canada is regarded as global leader in promoting women's rights by G20 countries as compared to the USA and other countries. Despite the good track record, approximately 24% of girls and 15% of boys experienced sexual violence before they turned age 16. In addition, 64% LGBT students felt unsafe compared to 15.2% of their heterosexual counterparts (Greene, Robler, Stout & Suvilaakso, 2012:9).

To further demonstrate the prevalence of school violence in other countries, UNICEF (2012a:5-6) presented findings of the Global School-based Health Survey on China where results showed that 17% of girls and 23% of boys (ages 13 to 15) reported being bullied at school. In Sweden, 15% of boys and girls also experience bullying whilst in Portugal 44% of girls and 56% of boys reported that they were being bullied.

France, for an example, conducted a study with 12,326 children (ages 9-11) of which only a few students experienced their school as violent. Approximately 32% of the learners said that they were "sometimes" verbally bullied, 35.1% "sometimes" experienced physical violence, and 6% "often" experienced violence from their peers. According to the findings, a remarkable 90% of learners felt good or very good at school and reported having good relationships with their teachers (UNICEF, 2012a:6).

Germany also had few incidences of school violence with only 6.2% of students reporting that they experienced sexual violence (UNICEF, 2012a:6). Similarly, in Belgium only 1.1% of students experienced sexual violence, whilst in Pakistan more than 2,500 cases of sexual abuse were recorded by clerics in religious schools (UNICEF, 2012a:6).

Brazil is also regarded as a country with high rates of school violence. According to a bullying study involving 5,168 students in five regions by Plan Brazil, findings show that 70% of the total sample reported having witnessed scenes of violence between school mates and 30% declared having been victims of at least one form of bullying in the 2009 school year (UNICEF, 2012:6; Perezniето et al., 2010:26).

There is limited information on the extent of school violence in the African Continent. The West and Central Africa Region lacks reliable systems for reporting school violence incidences (Devers et al., 2012:4). Hence the data that is available is not comprehensive and accurate or reliable. However scanty the information may be, Chege (2007:54) points out that sexual, physical and emotional abuse of girl learners by teachers is common. Similarly, in 2006 the United Nations Secretary General's report on violence against children exposed high levels of corporal punishment, bullying, mistreatment and sexual abuse (Devers et al., 2012:6).

Countries such as Burundi, Chad, Djibouti, Gabon, Madagascar and Rwanda do not have figures on the extent of school violence (Devers et al., 2012:13). Prevalence studies are underway in Burkina Faso, Mali, Cameroon, Guinea and Senegal to add to the limited information on school violence in these countries (Devers et al., 2012:13). Nonetheless, in all of the African countries where studies were conducted on school violence, the Global School-based Health Survey found that over half of all learners reported that they had been bullied (Antonowicz, 2010:32).

In Benin, The World Health Organisation's Global School-based Student Health Survey (2003–5) found that 92% of pupils reported they had experienced bullying both between peers and between teachers and pupils (Antonowicz, 2010:32).

Another study was conducted on gender-based violence with 70 girls in two large provincial towns in the South Western part of Benin. Findings revealed that 53% of girls aged between 11-19 had witnessed or suffered groping; pressure or jokes with a sexual connotation; and 40% of secondary school and 80% of primary school pupils knew of girls who dropped out of school because of sexual violence while 80% knew of girls who were asked for sexual favours by teachers and 77% believed that teachers have sexual relations with learners (Devers et al., 2012:13).

The African Child Policy Forum (ACFP) carried out a National Study on School-Related Gender-Based Violence-2010 in 123 schools from eight districts in Sierra Leone with 1,312 children below the age of 18. Findings showed that 86% of boys and girls experienced physical violence; more than 60% of boys and girls experienced psychological violence; 42% of girls reported to have experienced sexual violence involving touching of breasts, buttocks or genitals; 10% were forced into sexual intercourse and 8% experienced rape and physical assault involving weapons. About 70% of the reported cases happened in the 12 months preceding the study (African Child Policy Forum, 2011:10-13).

The findings of the Kenya Violence against Children Study (Kenya VACS) conducted in 2010 to investigate the prevalence of physical, psychological and sexual violence against learners aged 13-24 years with 1,306 females and 1,622 males, reveal that 32% females and 18% males experienced sexual violence; 66% females and 73% males experienced physical violence; 26% females and 32% males experienced other forms of violence and 13% females and 9% males experienced all three types of violence (Kenya Violence against Children Study, 2011:2-3). With regard to levels of violence against learners in the 13-17 year old category, 11% females and 4% males experienced sexual violence and 49% females and 48% males experienced physical violence twelve months prior to the study (Kenya Violence against Children Study, 2011:2-3).

The 2009 Tanzania Violence against Children Study (VACS) on the prevalence of sexual and emotional violence involving 3,739 females and males of 13-24 years old,

found that approximately 3 out of 10 females and 1 out of 7 males experienced sexual violence prior to age 18 (Tanzania Violence against Children Study, 2011:2). Of the total sample, 14% females and 5.9% males aged 13-17 years experienced one form of sexual violence a year preceding the survey (Tanzania Violence against Children Study, 2011:2). Almost three-quarters of both males and females experienced physical violence whilst more than one-half of females aged 13-17 years experienced physical violence (Tanzania Violence against Children Study, 2011:2).

In Burkina Faso, in a violence study conducted in 2009, Devers et al. (2012:13) report that 12% of secondary school pupils indicated incidences of attempted rape of their fellow pupils; 44.9% reported that teachers approach girls and text them while 26% reported that teachers seduce girls. In addition, 73.3% of primary school pupils reported incidences of physical violence; 84.3% reported verbal violence; and 65.4% reported psychological violence observed at school (Devers et al., 2012:13). In another study conducted in 2008, 13% of girls reported experiencing sexual violence whilst 40% reported being aware of sexual harassment cases at their schools. A total of 81.7% of the participants reported incidences of sexual violence against girl learners identifying teachers as the perpetrators; 41.7% identified male pupils as perpetrators; and 30.5% identified administrative staff at the school as the perpetrators (Devers et al., 2012:13).

In Cote d'Ivoire, findings reveal that sexual violence is widespread, with 11% of girls having been victims of sexual violence out of a total of 1,242,000 children whose aged ranging between 10-17 years (UNICEF Humanitarian Action for Children, 2011:96). A National survey on Crisis and Gender-based Violence carried out in 2008 revealed that 21% of girls between ages 2-14 years, had experienced severe physical punishment and another 21% of girls had been victims of sexual violence (UNICEF Cote d'Ivoire, 2009-2013:24).

A report on a study conducted in mid-2005 with 1,000 school children and 500 mothers, teachers and chiefs in 35 villages in Togo, results indicated that 88% girls

and 87% boys experienced physical violence; 52% girls and 48% boys experienced psychological violence and threats; 4.1% girls experienced sexual violence and a significant number of participants reported experiencing other forms of violence such as corporal punishment, forced labour and sexual harassment (Plan Togo, 2006:6).

In the Central African Republic, 42.2% boys reported committing sexual violence at school; and in the Democratic Republic of Congo, 46% girls had been victims of sexual violence and sexual harassment perpetrated by teachers and other school staff, whilst in Senegal 62.5% girls endured psychological violence; 37.2% suffered sexual harassment and 13.8% experienced rape; 40% experienced bullying and physical violence and in Uganda 8% boys and girls (16-17 years old) had sexual relations with their teachers, and 12% with ancillary staff (Devers et al., 2012:15).

Research across countries in Sub-Saharan Africa indicates that school-based violence, specifically gender-based violence, is common and generally tolerated (Beninger, 2013:284). In Malawi violence against children is a serious problem but no proper records are kept and reliable statistical data is unavailable (Beninger, 2013:284; African Child Policy Forum, 2011:10). In Zambia, service providers receive eight reports of violence against learners per week in each province (African Child Policy Forum, 2011:10).

Leoschut, Popovac and Burton (2011:15) conducted a study in Namibia with 381 children participants and findings reveal that 22.6% learners experienced personal victimisation and verbal violence; 18.8% experienced physical violence; 17.3% were threatened with harm and felt scared; 11.6% were forced to do something wrong; 5.7% were coerced to do something wrong with their bodies against their will; 45.5% experienced sexual violence once, 31.8% experienced it 2-5 times and 18.2% experienced sexual violence more than 10 times; 8.7% were fearful of travelling to and from school; 72.6% experienced corporal punishment at school; and 67.85% experienced corporal punishment at home.

Leoschut and Jantjies (2011:17) conducted research in Maputo, Mozambique with 499 youths aged 12-19 and discovered that 4 out of 5 learners perceive school violence to be a big problem and that 11.2% experience fear when travelling to and from school. The study's findings show that 36.4% learners experienced the threat of harm and violence; 33.1% experienced verbal violence; 19.6% experienced physical violence; 13.8% endured corporal punishment; and 4.2% suffered sexual violence; whilst 7.1% of the learners were bullied and coerced into doing wrong things they did not want to do.

To conclude, the prevalence, frequency and intensity of violence is yet to be comprehensively documented in most parts of the African continent and the world (Badri, 2014:6). Despite these limitations, there is enough evidence to demonstrate that school-based violence is a major problem across the world and affects a large number of children, especially in Africa (Plan International, 2008:15). The problem of school-based violence is not unique to South Africa, but affects all countries across the globe. The forms and types of violence vary from continent to continent, from region to region and from country to country.

In Africa, particularly in South Africa, the most common forms of school-based violence are physical, emotional and sexual violence. In Europe, the most common forms of school-based violence are emotional and cyber violence and in America, the most common forms of violence are gang violence and physical violence that involve the use of guns (Clark, 2012:83). Irrespective of the nature and cause of the violence, the extent of school violence has a significant impact on the behaviour of school children and young people in South Africa and around the world as will be illustrated next.

4.6 The impact of school-based violence

Learners who experience school violence are likely to experience and suffer wide-ranging physical, health, emotional, behavioural and educational consequences (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:91). The African Child Policy Forum (2006:1) shows the immeasurable costs that violence against children has to bear on present and future

generations and demonstrates how violence undermines human development. SAHRC (2008:18) reports that the effects of school-based violence often persists into adulthood, ultimately contributing to an intergenerational culture of aggression and violence. According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Fact Sheet (2013:1), the impact differs according to the nature and severity of the violence. In the following sub-sections, the health, psychological, educational, social, and economic consequences of school-based violence are discussed.

4.6.1 Health consequences of school-based violence

Violence has a profound impact on adolescents' health and behaviour resulting in short-and long-term physical health related problems. Some injuries are not visible but may culminate into negative behaviour outcomes such as alcohol or drug abuse and suicide (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Fact Sheet, 2013:1). Wright and Fitzpatrick (2006:1435) conclude that such injuries often persist into adulthood, with some leading into permanent disabilities or even death. Other physical health hazards posed by school violence as identified by Brock, Brundige, Furstenau et al. (2014:6) and Beninger (2013:301), include the spread of sexually transmitted diseases including HIV and AIDS and unwanted or early pregnancies. Similar findings were reported on a study in Ethiopia involving 1,278 children (Antonowicz, 2010:29) indicating that 10.6% of the victims of sexual violence fell pregnant and 23.5% had contracted sexually transmitted infections (STI's). Furthermore, the author found that those who contracted STI's never sought treatment out of fear of stigma. This can be detrimental to both maternal and child health or can lead to unsafe abortions or infanticide (Antonowicz, 2010:29).

Other health-related consequences stem from corporal punishment and serious physical injuries inflicted on learners. Becker (2008:52) report on a study about corporal punishment that was conducted in the U.S.A. Findings indicate that learners sustained severe muscle injury, extensive bruising and scarring. Similarly in South Africa, the SAHRC (2008:14) report that school violence can result in physical injuries that include wounds and scars. In summary, violence has serious negative

health-related implications. The physical injuries and concomitant scars may lead to psychological and emotional trauma.

4.6.2 Psychological consequences of school-based violence

The psychological impact is perhaps the most commonly reported of the consequences of school-based violence. Badri (2014:8) and Dupper (2013:39) agree that children and youth experience emotional trauma and suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, low self-esteem and a sense of worthlessness and disempowerment as a consequence of being subjected to violence. Gevers and Flisher (2012:184) confirm that victims of school violence become suicidal as a result of the traumatic experience. Compared to their male counterparts, Devers et al. (2012:11) and Govender (2008:1) conclude that female victims of gender-based violence are more inclined to develop eating disorders. A survey by Plan Brazil on bullying shows that 27% of victims of bullying lost interest and enthusiasm in education; 14% were afraid to go to school; and 3% respectively lost trust in teachers, lost friends and stopped learning (Pereznieto et al., 2010:11). In a Nigerian study, Antonowicz (2010:29) found that girls live in fear of sexual harassment from boys and teachers and as a result are unable to trust their classmates.

Timmerman (2004:823) and SAHRC (2008:14) found that unwanted sexual behaviour contributes to a lowered self-esteem and diminished psychological well-being. The devastating effects of violence on an individual's mental health and well-being are evident from the above-mentioned findings. Other negative psychological effects of school violence include depression and anxiety disorders (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Fact Sheet, 2013:1). De Wet, Jacobs and Palm-Forster (2008:97) affirm a positive association between adolescents' experiencing of verbal, physical or sexual violence and emotional and psychological trauma.

In a study to investigate the effects of verbal violence and corporal punishment by parents, Evans, Simons and Simons (2012:1105) report that verbal violence contributes to delinquency among both males and females, whilst corporal

punishment had a minimal effect. The study further reveals that corporal punishment fosters low self-control and hostility and contributes to antisocial behaviours in males particularly (Evans et al., 2012:1105). However, the findings show that verbal violence has a negative effect on both genders. This is attributed to young people finding the harsh parenting practices unjustified as they believe they are capable of reasoning with their parents if they are given a chance to do so, rather than being shouted or screamed at (Evans et al., 2012:1105).

Sexual violence is another type of violent behaviour which has serious psychological implications and repercussions for the child's own sexual behaviour. Beninger (2013:301) emphasises that child victims of sexual violence suffer severe emotional setbacks. Furthermore, they are at great risk of engaging in sexual experimentation at an early age, or with multiple partners (Kenya Violence against Children Study, 2011:83) whilst others may engage in commercial sex for good grades, lodging or food (Antonowicz, 2010:29). Safran (2007:45) confirms that school violence has a long-standing psychological impact. Left with the indelible psychological scars after traumatic violent experiences, children are likely to encounter educational difficulties.

4.6.3 Educational consequences of school-based violence

School-based violence impedes the achievement of regional and international agreements to which South Africa is a signatory. UNICEF (2007:4) notes that school violence hinders the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) 2 and 3 which relate to the achievement of universal access to education for all and the elimination of all forms of gender discrimination, and to UNESCO's Education for All (EFA) goals to meet all the educational needs of children, youth and adults by 2015. As part of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals, a call is made to all member states to promote safe and peaceful societies and strong institutions to facilitate access to education in safe and secure learning environments (United Nations Secretary-General, 2014:19). Therefore, political leaders and leaders of educational institutions are called upon to end school violence and to mitigate against these negative outcomes.

Gender discrimination is one critical challenge in curbing school-based violence and is a barrier to achieving gender equality (Beninger, 2013:287). Robinson et al. (2012:6) confirm that gender-based violence in developing countries impedes students' enrolments, retention and academic achievement. Violence, and particularly gender-based violence, runs counter to the country's commitment to work towards non-violence and gender equality. The long-term effects of violence may not only lead to failure to educate girls, clearly it limits social development since studies show a correlation between women's lowered educational attainment and risks for child health survival (UNICEF 2007:4; Perezniето et al., 2010:14).

Mncube and Madikizela-Madiya (2014:47) add that school-based violence instill fear and affect educational process to the extent that it affects the culture of teaching and learning. Zulu et al. (2004:174) and Devers et al. (2012:11) agree that violence discourages children from attending school and it discourages parents from sending their children to school. Pinheiro (2006:130) concludes that some parents change schools to protect their children against violence. According to a national representative study in Ethiopia involving 1,268 learners in all nine regional states, over 40% parents said that school-based violence can discourage them from sending their children to school (Save the Children Denmark, 2008:55). In this study, 60% girls and 42% boy learners said that violence had contributed to girls' absenteeism from school (Save the Children Denmark, 2008:56).

Similarly in Brazil, a nationally representative survey on bullying indicated that 5,396 learners (0.6%) had missed classes at some point during the school year as a direct result of bullying and harassment (Perezniето et al., 2010:10). School violence has dire consequences for both learners and their parents. More importantly, it deprives learners of the opportunity to access education in safe learning environments, free from violence and intimidation (Perezniето et al., 2010:10).

According to Devers et al. (2012:11), many victims of violence who continue to attend school lose interest, lack concentration, and as a result they perform poorly academically. MiET Africa (2009:22) found that many victims of school violence

cease to see education as a priority due to their inability to concentrate and their lowered self-esteem. Badri (2014:8) and Walker and Smith Jr (2009:317) observe that victims of violence may become hyper vigilant or extremely lethargic, often leading to the deterioration of their academic performance and contributing to absenteeism, failure and even dropout from school before graduation which affect their ability to reach their academic aspirations.

Similarly, the Department of Basic Education (2013:22-23) conducted a General Household Survey in 2011 involving 30,000 households. The findings show that 15% of the learners were not attending school and a total of 7.8% out of those not attending, dropped out due to pregnancy as a result of school violence. Failure to achieve educational success leads to undesirable economic outcomes as will be discussed in the following section.

4.6.4 Economic consequences of school-based violence

The denial of children's right to education as a result of school-based violence impacts children's current and future ability to participate in economic activities in society (Perezneito et al., 2010:12). The negative consequences of violence not only affect the individual child victim, but also their families, the wider society and threaten the rate of economic growth (Antonowicz, 2010:38).

The economic implications as a result of lower educational attainment are more severe for girls. The economic cost of 65 low and middle income and developing countries who fail to educate girls to the same standard as boys has been estimated at \$92 billion per year and for higher income countries, the economic cost is estimated at \$7.9 billion per year (Perezneito et al., 2010:17). Edwards et al. (2007:31) confirm that school dropout affects students' lifelong outcomes. Violence curtails opportunities to education and economic freedom and UNICEF (2007:3) concurs that violence jeopardises the opportunities of most individuals to get themselves out of poverty and improve their standards of living. In support, Ellery, Kassam and Bazan (2010:19) state, "school violence has far-reaching

consequences for children, their families, their communities and countries, and on global economic development.” Evidently, school-based violence has immense economic repercussions for families and entire countries.

Beninger (2013:287) states that few cases of school-based violence have immediate health-related consequences that are severe enough to require hospital treatment and which therefore would result in economic costs. Pereznieto et al. (2010:13) argue that the economic impact of school-based violence on health care and treatment is largely dependent on the form and severity of violence. Some of the acute cases where treatment is required include rape cases of severe injury that result from stabbings or extreme cases of corporal punishment and sexual abuse that result in pregnancy (Devers et al., 2012:11; Save the Children Denmark, 2008:62). Some of these injuries are serious to an extent that they can lead to permanent disabilities or even death (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2013:1). Although studies have found that severe incidents do occur, these have not been registered systematically. As a result, it is difficult to determine aggregate financial costs of school violence (Pereznieto et al., 2010:4; Pinheiro, 2006:68). However, the costs for ongoing medical and mental health care services are huge (Kingshott, 2012:59). Thus, it can be concluded that school violence generates an important economic cost for victims, their families and health care service providers.

4.6.5 Social consequences of school-based violence

Enormous social costs are incurred as a result of school-based violence. Antonowicz (2010:7) and (Burton 2008a:2) perceive school violence as a threat to everything that a modern society aspires to such as peace, individualism, emotional well-being, stability and equality, and has the potential to affect social cohesion. UNICEF (2007:3) alerts that school-based violence affects learners’ ability to trust and form pro-social relationships. Taken to extremes, Leoschut et al. (2011:2) conclude that school-based violence obstructs learners’ ability to engage in normal childhood and school-related activities. Pinheiro (2006:129) adds that school-based violence affects learners’ ability to develop social skills and the internalisation of moral values. Maree

(2005:18) warns that the failure to develop adequate pro-social behaviour and positive social capital as a result of exposure to violence undermines the development of caring and healthy communities. Pinheiro (2006:129) remarks that children who are affected by violence are unlikely to engage in altruistic activities and will not be able to show empathy to other children. It is rather a probability as in the case of learners who are exposed to violence to engage in disorderly and aggressive behaviour and may grow into adults who use violence and engage in criminal behaviour (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:183; Pinheiro, 2006:129).

Gevers and Flisher (2012:184) highlight that victims of school violence become pessimistic and often get a cynical view about the future, resulting in poor choices that jeopardises their future outcomes. When people feel unsafe, it makes it harder for them to develop their capabilities, pursue their personal goals and participate in socio-economic activities (RSA National Development Plan, 2011:21). The social consequences of school violence on children not only affect them in person, but violence has implications for the development of their social capital and social cohesion.

4.6.6 The impact of school-based violence on the educator

School-based violence does not only affect learners` emotional, academic, social, economic and behavioural development (Wilson, 2008:293), but also educators` attitudes and teaching performance (De Wet, 2007a:11). Educators who are exposed to violence experience post-traumatic stress disorders which ultimately influence their teaching capabilities negatively (SAHRC, 2008:14). Some educators feel scared and disempowered and they could act aggressively toward their learners (SAHRC, 2008:15). This could in turn lead to alienation, dissatisfaction with work and ultimately, personal problems such as alcohol dependency (SAHRC, 2008:15).

School-based violence has health, psychological, educational, social, and economic consequences for learners, educators and society in general. The Institute of Security Studies (ISS) and the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP)

confirm that violence in general is a huge problem in South Africa and has a detrimental impact on individuals, families, and schools (van der Westhuizen & Maree, 2009:58).

Given the devastating impact of school violence, it is important to rather prevent it as opposed to dealing with the consequences. This requires serious efforts in giving children a voice and access to resources and opportunities as a concerned Ghana Village Chief aptly states:

From what these children have said and done concerning the various types of abuse against them, we (adults) should bow our heads in shame. But, there will be more chances for us to raise our heads with pride, only if we support our children to have access to health, education and to participate in communal decision-making.

(Ghana Village Chief – Plan International, 2008:45).

Giving children a voice, applies to prevention of school-based violence. There are however, no quick-fix answers (Robinson et al., 2012:187), neither can there be a blanket approach to addressing school violence as this is a complex problem that is caused by multiple contextual factors as discussed in sections 3.3 and 4.4. Due to its complexity, school-based violence demands different strategies. The following section explores school violence prevention and intervention strategies and programmes, reviewing both international and national initiatives that have been implemented to address the problem of school-based violence.

4.7 Overview of school-based violence prevention and intervention strategies

This section discusses existing school-based violence prevention and intervention programmes and strategies in order to draw lessons on what constitutes effective programmes to prevent school violence. The literature review indicates that wide-ranging school violence intervention and prevention strategies and programmes have been implemented; some with trivial impact in reducing the levels of violence and indiscipline in most schools (Leoschut, 2013:3). In support of this study, Cowie and Jennifer (2012:3) emphasise the need to explore varied existing programmes

and strategies on violence in schools as a critical step in the process of developing a school-based violence prevention programme.

Firstly, prevention and intervention strategies that have been developed and implemented by the international community are discussed. The discussion is followed by prevention and intervention programmes developed in South Africa. Finally, a discussion of core components of effective and efficient prevention programmes is presented from which the researcher could draw in the design of a school-based violence prevention programme.

4.7.1 International school-based violence prevention programmes

Selection of international school-based violence prevention programmes was based on those programmes that are in line with the bio-ecological systems theory, social and emotional learning, social cognitive and social competence and character building approaches, as they served as theoretical frameworks for this study. The selected interventions include: Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies programme (PATHS); Resolving Conflict Creatively Programme (RCCP); Positive Adolescent Choices Training (PACT); SMART Team; Second Step Violence Prevention Curriculum (SSVPC); and Families And Schools Together - FAST Track.

4.7.1.1 Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies programme (PATHS)

PATHS is a school-based curriculum focusing on social skills training targeting learners only, designed to promote social and emotional competencies and character development of learners (The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP), 2004). The focus is on reducing classroom disruption and fostering positive interpersonal relationships amongst learners (OJJDP, 2004). Programme activities include lessons on problem-solving and self-control skills; reading and interpreting social cues; and understanding the perspectives of others (Allen, 2005:65). As Tomlinson, Dawes and Flisher (2012:152) state, these lessons teach learners to be able to identify and label feelings of their peers, express feelings

appropriately, manage and control anger, understand others' perspectives and effectively use problem-solving and decision-making skills.

A programme evaluation conducted by Pennsylvania State's Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group with an experimental group of 198 and a control group of 180 first grade learners show modest effects on participants' pro-social behaviour (OJJDP, 2004). However, Tomlinson et al. (2012:153) report that participants performed better than the control group on sociometric tests for aggression and hyperactivity-disruptive behaviour. The studies show that participants' social and emotional competence improved and antisocial behaviour decreased (OJJDP, 2004). In addition, the atmosphere at PATHS classrooms was rated better in that children were able to control their emotions and became less impulsive (Tomlinson et al., 2012:153; OJJDP, 2004).

4.7.1.2 Resolving Conflict Creatively Programme (RCCP)

The Resolving Conflict Creatively Programme (RCCP) is a comprehensive school-based programme for learners in primary and secondary school. RCCP is grounded in socio-emotional and character education approaches. Similarly, the programmes focus on character education and social emotional learning. The aim of the programme is to teach learners self-control, problem-solving, cooperation and to promote positive interpersonal relationships and respect for diversity (National Institute of Justice [SA]).

The goal of the programme is to increase learners' knowledge of violence; teach them strategies to approach conflict situations; enhance their conflict resolution skills and promote positive and caring interpersonal peer relationships and positive learning environments (OJJDP, 2004; National Institute of Justice [SA]). According to these authors, attention is paid to combating prejudice and stereotypes as these attitudes lead to violence and aggression. Learners are taught about identifying and addressing prejudice and to respect diversity. Additionally, the aim is to create caring and peaceful learning environments (OJJDP, 2004).

Evaluation studies were conducted using a quasi-experimental design with a matched control group of 5,053 students, 289 teachers in 15 elementary schools to assess the short-term impact of the programme. Results show that the programme improved participants' thinking and interpersonal relationships (Selfridge, 2004). Moreover, the socio-emotional development of participating learners increased (OJJDP, 2004).

Another evaluation was conducted with 350 teachers and 11,000 learners from public elementary schools across four districts in New York City by Brown, Roderick, Lantieri and Aber (2004:151) using an accelerated longitudinal design. Results show positive changes in children's academic achievement and social and emotional competencies, thus reducing the risk for school failure and violence (Brown et al., 2004:151).

4.7.1.3 Positive Adolescent Choices Training (PACT)

PACT is a video-based school violence prevention programme targeting at-risk secondary school students who display aggression and poor interpersonal relationships with peers (Peterson, Larson & Skiba, 2001:354). The curriculum includes teaching lessons on causes of violence, anger management, and pro-social skills using culturally-sensitive video material.

According to Peterson et al. (2001:354), the programme has proven to be effective for school violence prevention in that participants showed improved behaviour and decreased physical violence at school.

4.7.1.4 SMART Team

SMART Team is an innovative computer-based school-based programme that targets learners in grades 5 to 9 to address violence and aggressive behaviour using electronic multimedia equipment that incorporates interactive interviews, cartoons, games, graphics and simulations as teaching and learning aids. The content consists of modules on conflict resolution, anger management, and perspective taking, aiming

to empower participants with knowledge and skills for self-reflection and application of learned strategies in real life situations (Bosworth, Espelage & Du Bay, 1998:792).

The goals of the programme are to empower participants with non-violent conflict resolution strategies; increase their knowledge about anger triggers; increase pro-social behaviour and decrease violence (Bosworth et al., 1998:792). According to the authors, the advantage of the programme is that after initial training, learners can access and use the programme independently or in pairs at any time they want and for as long as they wish.

Two evaluations studies (one pilot evaluation and one outcome evaluation) were conducted. Learning Multi-Systems Incorporated (1996:13) reveal that the use of multimedia seems to be effective in providing information and building the skills of secondary school learners. According to Learning Multi-Systems Incorporated (1996:13), the electronic medium seems to be good at engaging youth who are at risk of perpetuating violence and empowering them with anger control and conflict resolutions knowledge and skills. Overall, SMART Team is a media and technology-based intervention that uses a variety of teaching and learning mediums to empower learners with anti-violence skills.

4.7.1.5 Second Step Violence Prevention Curriculum (SSVPC)

Second Step Violence Prevention Curriculum (SSVPC), is a skill development programme for primary school learners designed to increase learners' academic success and decrease antisocial behaviour (Allen, 2005:66). The curriculum entails enhancing the socio-emotional and self-regulation competencies of learners (Allen, 2005:66; Galezewski, 2005:135). SSVPC is a comprehensive whole-school programme that targets individuals, parents and teachers (Allen, 2005:66; Galezewski, 2005:135).

According to the authors, the components and activities of the programme are depicted according to the following levels: At the *Individual level*, learners are taken through 30 half-hour lessons taught as part of the regular school curriculum, to

promote competencies in empathy, impulse control, problem-solving, anger management and conflict resolution. At the *Parent level*, parents are provided with parenting skills training and are required to observe their children's behaviour and give feedback on any progress made by the children regarding the skills they learned. Finally, at the *Teacher level* teachers are provided with two day in-service training on the similar curriculum provided to the learners so as to enable them to continue to reinforce the learning.

Since inception in 1997, approximately 32,000 schools across the United States have implemented the programme and since 2004 nearly 8 million learners and adults have participated in the programme. Mixed findings are reported. A study conducted by Yu (2003:2) showed promising results. As the OJJDP (2005) found, the changes were modest but nevertheless positive. Several other evaluation studies have been conducted since 2006 to determine the effectiveness of the programme (National Registry of Evidence-based Programs and Practice, [SA]) and the findings show that the intervention is promising in reducing levels of school-based violence. SSVPC is a typical multi-systems level skills development programme that targets primary school learners, their parents and teachers. Since inception, it has been widely used in US schools due to its modest, but positive outcomes.

4.7.1.6 Families And Schools Together - FAST Track

FAST Track is a comprehensive programme targeting at-risk children identified in pre-school as a result of their disruptive behaviour and poor peer relationship skills (Peterson et al., 2001:352). The programme targets primary schools through to high school learners (OJJDP, 2004) and is based on the ecological systems theory which views behaviour as an outcome of interaction between multiple systems (Peterson et al., 2001:352).

The programme is composed of five components, namely: (1) parent training; (2) home visitation/case management; (3) learner's social skills and anger management training; (4) academic tutoring; and (5) teacher training in classroom management

skills (Tomlinson et al., 2012:155). The goal is to improve communication between learners, families and schools, with the view to enhance the individual learners' social, cognitive and problem-solving skills; to improve interpersonal relations; and to decrease disruptive and aggressive behaviour in the classroom (OJJDP, 2004).

An impact study involving 54 schools and 891 children (445 experimental and 446 control groups) was conducted by the National Institute of Justice. Results of the study show that the behaviour of participants towards peers and adults improved (Tomlinson et al., 2012:155; National Institute of Justice, [SA]). Further, results show improved parent-child relationships and parents' involvement in the children's school activities (Tomlinson et al., 2012:155; National Institute of Justice, [SA]). For example, parents and teachers displayed less use of physical punishment as a form of discipline (Tomlinson et al., 2012:155; National Institute of Justice, [SA]; OJJDP, 2004). In addition, results show a decrease in classroom conduct disorders among learners (Tomlinson et al., 2012:155; National Institute of Justice, [SA]; OJJDP, 2004).

To sum up, the programme is grounded in the ecological systems theory and is multi-systemic and multimodal. The goal is to bring about system-wide changes which entail improving learner behaviour, parent skills training and promoting parental involvement and improving the schooling environment to lessen the use of corporal punishment which reinforces violence.

The above discussion presented a wide variety of programmes. The programmes have been designed for primary and secondary school learners incorporating elements of parent and teacher training. Contrary to the current study, the above-mentioned programmes do not cover the high school category of learners. Nevertheless, violence prevention programmes should start in early childhood and continue across the adolescence lifespan (Gevers & Dartnall, 2015:53).

4.7.2 South African school-based violence prevention programmes

Leoschut (2013:3) presents results of the National Crime and Violence Study showing that South Africa is failing in its attempts to reduce the levels of violence in schools. In addition, Mr Basil Manuel, President of the National Professional Teachers' Organisation of South Africa was quoted by Govender (2013:10) acknowledging that schools do not have sufficient intervention strategies to address the scourge of violence. van der Westhuizen and Maree (2009:58) note that the problem of violence in schools persists and that it affects learners, educators and the school system. This is the case despite the South African Government being a signatory to several international legal instruments and developing several legislations and policies (See Chapter 3) to prevent and address school violence. Leoschut (2013:1) adds that not much has changed despite all these efforts. School learners and educators continue to suffer from the scourge of violence. As a result educational outcomes are not easily realised, which places a burden on the educational system as well as on the economic growth of the country.

In exploring what is in place, the researcher noted that the South African Government has initiated several school violence prevention programmes and strategies in partnership with the NGO sector, the business sector and civil society organisations (Mncube & Madikizela-Madiya, 2014:44). These attempts are noticeable. As Tomlinson et al. (2012:164) state, South Africa is one out of eight countries worldwide, identified by UNESCO, that has succeeded to implement effective school violence prevention programmes. The only limitation noted about these efforts is that very few of these initiatives have been scientifically evaluated (Tomlinson et al., 2012:164; Aitken & Seedat, 2009:viii) and hence their effectiveness is uncertain and the impact unknown. Due to the fact that there are many programmes and strategies to prevent school violence, the focus will only be on programmes initiated by the National and Provincial Department of Education (DoE), other Government Departments and role players in the NGO and business sectors.

4.7.2.1 The National Department of Education (DoE) Initiatives

In 1999, the then Minister of Education – the late Mr Kader Asmal - called for school violence prevention programme development and in 2000 launched a safer schools project called *Tirisano Plan* (a Sotho word meaning “Working Together”). According to the Centre for Applied Legal Studies et al. (2014:16), this was a nine point plan to be implemented over a five year period to rid schools of crime, sexual violence and harassment by fostering a gender equality culture and enforcing school safety. As MiET Africa (2009:26) reports, programme evaluation results show that *Tirisano* has the potential for changing behaviour; decrease crime and vandalism and teaching learners to take pride in their school infrastructure. However, some unintended consequences were identified, namely that some of the implemented measures violate learners’ rights to dignity and privacy. Additionally, the programme failed to teach learners how to behave outside the school premises (MiET Africa, 2009:26).

The outcomes of the evaluation culminated in the development of a multi-department intervention strategy which was aimed at developing policies and programmes targeting substance abuse, sexual harassment, gang violence, weapons and improving security control and infrastructure development (MiET Africa, 2009:26). The National DoE focused on strengthening interdepartmental partnerships with the Department of Safety and Security, South African Police Service, Department of Social Development, and Centre for Crime and Justice Prevention (MiET Africa, 2009:26). In addition, the strategy led to schools’ infrastructure improvement projects such as installing CCTV cameras, metal detectors, alarm systems, and security guards (MiET, 2009:26).

Following these drastic measures, the National DoE published the *Signposts for Safe School* workbook, creating school norms and procedures for behaviour and providing teacher training to improve their classroom management skills (MiET Africa, 2009:27). Such school-wide measures were designed to target both learners and educators, incorporating community-related risk factors such as access to weapons, alcohol and drugs.

Another pioneering initiative was the *Girls/Boys Education Movement (GEM/BEM)* that was initiated in 2003 by the DoE in partnership with UNICEF in all nine provinces to encourage girls and boys to join clubs where they were empowered with life skills to form supportive relationships with each other, their educators, parents and members of society (UNICEF, 2008:3). The objectives of GEM/BEM were to combat gender inequality; facilitate equal access to education for all; restore positive values in schools and communities; and enhance school safety (UNICEF, 2008:6-7; Wilson, 2008:5). Through this programme, girls and boys were encouraged to work together in order to minimise each other's vulnerability to violence and exploitation and to maximise their academic success (Wilson, 2008:5).

Other initiatives that were developed by the National DoE were the development of the National Crime Strategy for schools; the incorporation of gender violence into the Life Skills Curriculum 2005; and the launching of *Opening our Eyes: Addressing Gender-Based Violence in South African Schools* manual (MiET Africa, 2009:25). In addition, an interactive manual on alternatives to corporal punishment (South African Human Rights Commission, 2001:100) was developed for educators by the DoE. The interventions were designed to empower learners and educators with knowledge and skills, with the ultimate goal of preventing violence in schools.

Furthermore, the National DoE, in partnership with the Open Society Foundation of Southern Africa (OSF-SA), conducted a baseline study with 100 schools in Limpopo and Eastern Cape in partnership with CJCP in 2004, to investigate the issue of school violence. This study resulted in the design and launch of *Hlayiseka Early Warning Toolkit or System* in 2008 (MiET Africa, 2009:28; Khan, 2008:1-8). Hlayiseka is a Xitsonga term meaning "be safe". This is a toolkit comprising four booklets and posters that provides guidelines on how to manage school violence and promote safety (Khan, 2008:1-8).

As Khan (2008:4) states, the objectives of the Hlayiseka Early Warning System are to help schools identify threatening security issues; guide them to respond effectively; help them to establish reporting systems; manage and monitor progress

with regard to reported incidences; and finally to implement policies and legislation to ensure school safety. The toolkit comprises of the diagnostic tool for schools to assess its security measures, safety plans and referral systems in conjunction with other departments, stakeholders and parents by using democratic and consultative processes (Khan, 2008:1-8). In addition, the toolkit integrates the development of confidential school violence incidence reporting and recording systems. As Gevers and Flisher (2012:200) state, the toolkit was designed to monitor the security systems and track any changes on safety levels. The obtained information could be used to make decisions on whether to terminate or change the intervention strategy.

In 2008, the National DoE developed the *Quality Learning and Teaching Campaign* to provide guidelines for the prevention and management of sexual violence and harassment in schools (MiET Africa, 2009:27). The goals were to provide drug testing and random search guidelines; implement CCTV systems; and introduce Youth Camps and other extra-curricular activities, with the view to instil positive values and teach life skills (MiET Africa, 2009:27). According to the DoE's evaluation results, the initiative had positive outcomes in that levels of violence, vandalism and crime in schools were reduced (MiET Africa, 2009:27). The monitoring and evaluation of this programme is ongoing.

In 2010, the National DoE published the *Speak Out* handbook to educate learners about sexual violence in schools; teach them about the procedures to follow in the event of a sexual violence incident; and provide a list of telephone numbers to call in order to report sexual violence cases (Centre for Applied Legal Studies et al., 2014:16). Subsequently, in 2011, the National DoE together with the South African Police Service (SAPS) developed a *Protocol on the Prevention of Crime and Violence* in all schools to promote safer schools. This protocol is part of the SAPS Crime Prevention Component (Division: Visible Policing) and the Department of Basic Education (Directorate: School Safety and Enrichment Programmes - Social Mobilisation and Support Service Branch). The objectives of the protocol are to create safe, caring and child-friendly schools in an effort to address crime and violence (Mannah, 2013:10). Currently, the protocol is in its second phase of

implementation and has reached 18,000 schools by linking them with police stations and establishing safe school committees (Centre for Applied Legal Studies et al., 2014:17; Mannah, 2013:10).

The National DoE continued with its efforts to address school-based violence. In 2012, the DoE in partnership with Proudly South Africa; the then Department of Women, Children and People with Disabilities; The National Prosecuting Authority (NPA); The Film and Publication Board; Orlando Pirates Football Club; Crime Line; POWA; SHOUT; Zinto Activation Group and the International Federation of Christian Churches initiated the *Ubuntu Schools Campaign Against Sexual Violence and Bullying* (Centre for Applied Legal Studies et al., 2014:17). The aim of the campaign is to engage well-known South African personalities and positive role models to teach learners about the negative impact of violence, about their rights and responsibilities towards self and others, and to encourage them to take the Ubuntu Pledge whereby they undertake to uphold moral values, make right choices and behave positively (Centre for Applied Legal Studies et al., 2014:17). These values would enable them to become proud and productive members of society, who refrain from perpetuating violence against others.

Further, in 2013, the National DoE in partnership with Lead SA initiated the *Stop Rape Campaign* to raise awareness about sexual violence in South African schools and asked learners to take the Anti-rape Pledge (Centre for Applied Legal Studies et al., 2014:17). Additionally, the Department of Communications in partnership with the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) Industry, are in the process of developing a *Children and ICT Strategy* to support efforts to protect children against sexual exploitation. An online safety awareness campaign using the Girls'Net Project "Keep-Your-Chats-Exactly-That" was launched in 2009 to empower girls and boys with tactics on how to protect themselves from cyber violence and promote the positive use of ICT (Girls'Net website, 2014). Further, the ICT sector in conjunction with Department of Basic Education has developed draft e-safety guidelines for schools, whilst the Institute for ICT Advancement at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University conducts a series of educational and awareness

programmes for children, parents and educators (Popovac & Leoschut, 2012:8). Evidently, the National DoE and its partners and other role players have made strides by developing and implementing a variety of measures and strategies to address the school violence problem. The next discussion highlights some school violence prevention strategies and programmes initiated by the Provincial Departments of Education in the country.

4.7.2.2 The Provincial Departments of Education initiatives

- **Western Cape Department of Education (WCED)**

As the Human Rights Commission report (2001:97) indicates, a *Procedure Manual* for addressing child sexual abuse and sexual harassment of learners by educators and other school staff was developed to allow learners access to lodge complaints or report abuse cases in a confidential manner. This measure culminated in a referral and support service for victims of sexual violence. The Human Rights Commission report (2001:97) describes another measure in the form of a *Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) – South African Chapter*, developed in 1998 to address sexual harassment in secondary schools (South African Human Rights Commission, 2001:79). These are some of the attempts by the Western Cape Department of Education to address sexual exploitation of learners in schools.

In 1997, the *Safe Schools programme* was implemented in the Cape Flats to create a violence and crime free learning environment by targeting learners, educators and parents. Programme activities included infrastructure improvement; knowledge and skills development training; and counselling services (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:200-201; Smit, 2007:54). A manual was produced to enable schools to implement the programme. In addition, a call centre was established for reporting violence incidences and obtaining counselling services. According to Gevers and Flisher (2012:201), the programme has not been rigorously evaluated.

In 2006, WCED introduced the National Curriculum Statement to help learners deal with issues such as drugs, peer pressure, racism, gender discrimination and bullying

through Life Orientation (LO) curriculum lessons, to provide learners with skills to deal with these issues (South African Human Rights Commission, 2006:23).

Other initiatives in the province include the *QPC Campaign* that was established in 2007 targeting township schools (Clark, 2012:82). The initiative focused on teaching non-violence as part of the LO curriculum with the view to equip learners with information and skills to recognise, address and control violence. To this end, other activities included the formation of peace clubs and teacher training on peace education (Clark, 2012:82).

The South African Parent Anonymous programme was developed in Cape Town based on the United States Parent Anonymous child abuse prevention version (Tomlinson et al., 2012:157). The programme is aimed at providing support to parents from disadvantaged communities who are dealing with stressful life situations, to improve their parenting skills and reduce the risk of their children developing behaviour problems and to equip the children with skills to achieve academic success and avoid school failure, dropout and violent behaviour (Tomlinson et al., 2012:157). Although the programme has not been subjected to randomised controlled trials to evaluate its effectiveness, positive reports have been recorded based on parents' self-reports (Tomlinson et al., 2012:157).

- **Eastern Cape Department of Education**

The Eastern Cape Department of Education in conjunction with CJCP launched the *Be-Aware-Take Care* early warning system to detect and prevent school violence. In this way, the DoE together with SAPS work towards ensuring the safety of learners both in and outside the school premises using a multi-sectoral approach (MiET Africa, 2009:27). In 2009 the DoE also launched the school safety awareness day themed *School Safety Begins with Me* and *Torch of Peace* to raise awareness about self-respect, self-pride and respecting others (MiET Africa, 2009:28). The above examples show that the Eastern Cape government has also tried to intervene and work with its partners to address violence in schools.

- **Mpumalanga Department of Education**

The Mpumalanga DoE in collaboration with Department of Safety and Security initiated several projects to address school violence such as *Adopt-A-Cop; Captain Crime Stop* and an annual awareness campaign event called *Sport Against Crime* (MiET Africa, 2009:28).

- **Gauteng Department of Education**

The Gauteng DoE also implemented the *Hlayiseka Tool-kit* (See section 4.7.2.1) in collaboration with Center for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP) and the Department of Safety and Security (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:95). The alarming increased rates of violence in Gauteng schools, as reflected by reported deaths of learners and the increased number of calls received by Child-line Call Centre, has prompted the Gauteng Department of Education in collaboration with the then Department of Women, Children and People with Disabilities, the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA), Films and Publications Board and several NGOs to formulate a *School Safety Framework* – a strategy and a campaign against bullying and sexual violence in an effort to address the problem of school violence (Sithole, 2012:1-2).

- **KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education**

The Safer Schools Project for Survivors of Violence (PSV) is an initiative developed to train youth on violence, crime and HIV. Secondly, the project aims to promote a culture of human rights, gender equity, cultural diversity and tolerance. Activities include training educators on child development, basic communication skills, trauma support and victim empowerment (Sathiparsad, 2003:102-103). Focus is also on training learners about guns and weapons, teen pregnancy, assertiveness, decision-making, problem-solving, conflict resolution, mediation, and leadership. The programme also includes other activities such as peer counselling, sports and recreation, and encourage schools to form school safety teams for coordinating security issues (Sathiparsad, 2003:102-103).

An evidence-based programme, The *Conflict Resolution Programme* was implemented in three primary schools affected by political violence and instability in KwaZulu-Natal (Sathiparsad, 2003:103). The programme entails providing educational activities to promote peace and tolerance and to help prevent violence and conflict. Participants were trained on diversity, communication, conflict resolution styles and problem-solving (Sathiparsad, 2003:103). Evaluation outcomes indicate that the participants learned about the advantages of adopting non-violent conflict resolution styles, they learned about diversity and to respect different points of view and others' feelings (Sathiparsad, 2003:103). The programme succeeded in imparting conflict resolution skills to participants (Sathiparsad, 2003:103).

In 2008 Caritas South Africa, in partnership with a Franciscan-based Damietta Peace Initiative, developed and implemented a *Peace-Building Programme* in 12 schools to empower learners with skills to be able to deal with anger in a constructive and non-violent manner (Clark, 2012:82).

The above delineate the strides the South African Government through the National and Provincial Departments of Education and its partners has undertaken to combat school violence. The various strategies focus on all forms of violence and target learners, educators, parents and communities. Although the legal and constitutional responsibility of school violence prevention lies with the government, the National and Provincial Departments of Education cannot successfully and effectively address the problem of school violence alone. Perezniето et al. (2010:21) state that the responsibility to prevent school violence does not only lie with Government. It is also the responsibility of other stakeholders across all sectors of society to engage in efforts that are designed to combat social ills such as violence and crime that affect all humanity. Perezniето et al. (2010:21) argue that the state can only implement successful programmes with the support of NGOs and other stakeholders. Aitken and Seedat (2009:vii) affirm that the responsibility to create and implement successful interventions needs to be shared by all. The ensuing two sub-sections describe some of the NGO and private sector initiatives that are designed and implemented to combat school-based violence.

4.7.2.3 Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO) initiatives

Pinheiro (2006:15) states that international, regional and local NGOs have always been involved in initiatives to curb school violence. However, Moore, Jones and Broadbent (2008:20) note the poor inter-sectoral coordination between these organisations that results in fragmentation and possible duplication of services. Despite the limitations, NGOs have an important role in combating school violence (Devers et al., 2012:25; Moore et al., 2008:16). NGO initiatives in South Africa to tackle the school violence problem are discussed as follows:

- **OUT LGBT Well-being**

The OUT LGBT Wellbeing is an organisation that advocates for the promotion and protection of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender people's rights and engages in policy development and training programmes to prevent violence against learners with different sexual orientations (SAHRC, 2006:29).

- **Unisa's Centre for Peace Action (CPA)**

In collaborating with all relevant stakeholders, including learners, parents and educators, CPA worked on putting in place safety plans in schools (Stevens, Wyngaard & van Niekerk, 2001:150-154). According to the authors, each safety plan is supposed to be unique to address unique needs of the school and should have the following essential elements:

- An assessment record of the school's safety problems;
- Development of conduct and discipline codes;
- Provision for learner and staff training;
- Encouragement and ensuring parent involvement;
- Encouragement and ensuring students' participation in planning and management of programmes and activities in order to promote the development of leadership skills and ensure they act responsibly;
- Provision of afterschool safety activities;
- Crisis management strategies and counselling services;
- Broader community involvement in the school's activities;

- Engagement of schools in safe environmental design to minimise physical injuries, violence and crime; and
- Development of school violence prevention programmes ensuring that they are in line with policies and are effectively implemented.

- **Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation**

The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation together with Soweto Safe Schools Project in 1994 initiated the *Children and Violence Intervention Programme (CVIP)* targeting 40 schools to help learners and educators cope with the trauma of political violence and promote healing (CJCP website, 2014; Griggs, 2002:82). The project activities were to provide training workshops to teachers, parents or caregivers on the causes and effects of violence and enhance their coping skills (Sathiparsad, 2003:102). In the first two years of operation, 390 children, 1,900 parents and 145 teachers participated in the programme.

The CVIP programme was evaluated during the year 2000 and findings indicated that 38 out of the 40 schools succeeded to set up safety teams and developed policies. Additionally, communities and other stakeholders became involved in crime prevention (Griggs, 2002:88). As a result of positive outcomes, national government adopted the programme as a model for the development of school safety policy development processes. A workshop for parents, teachers and other community members was held and 685 participants benefited from the programme activities (CJCP website, 2014).

- **Nelson Mandela Children’s Fund (NMCF)**

In 2006 the Nelson Mandela Foundation commissioned Save the Children UK to develop a “*Caring Schools*” model which was piloted in 25 schools in the Free State Province. In partnership with four non-governmental organisations that work with children, NMCF initiated the training of teachers on child sexual abuse, the development of policy guidelines and manuals for educators and other personnel on

the management and referral of child sexual abuse cases (Nelson Mandela Foundation website, 2014).

It is evident from the above discussion that various NGOs have embarked on diverse programmes and projects to address school violence. These programme activities include the development of safety and security plans, codes of conduct and policies. In addition, the initiatives involve law enforcement and teacher, parent or caregiver training workshops. Moreover, some organisations provide ICT-based initiatives to combat cyber violence and human rights abuse. Furthermore, measures such as counselling, storytelling and drama are used to address school-based violence. These are discussed next

4.7.2.4 Private Sector initiatives

Two private sector initiatives include drama and multi-media responses and Safe Cyber Safety Programme.

- **Drama and Multi-media Responses**

The South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) through its TV and Radio stations also embarked on a campaign to fight the school violence scourge in partnership with relevant NGOs (MiET Africa, 2009:28). These are:

- The Soul City Institute for Health and Development Communication (Soul City IHDC) introduced a drama series called Soul City to tackle health-related topics such as HIV and AIDS, poverty, violence, gender and child vulnerability in order to educate primary school learners and encourage communities to get involved in the fight against school violence and child abuse (MiET Africa, 2009:28; SARHC, 2006:29).
- In Cape Town a Story Teller Group was initiated which uses comics to educate learners on gender and sexuality matters and prevent undesirable behaviour (MiET Africa, 2009:28).

- Dramaide, an initiative that uses drama to raise awareness and educate learners about HIV and gender-related issues was initiated in Durban (MiET Africa, 2009:28).

- **The i-Safe Cyber Safety programme**

I-Safe Cyber Safety Programme is an ICT-based community outreach and educational programme designed to inform individuals and communities about online safety and to empower youth with information on how to avoid dangerous online behaviour. It targets learners, parents, educators, community leaders and law enforcement agencies (Popovac & Leoschut, 2012:9). Evaluation studies show increased knowledge of internet safety amongst learners. However, findings showed that participants did not apply the new found knowledge in their daily lives (Popovac & Leoschut, 2012:9).

In sum, the above private sector organisations provide services that include educational content using drama, storytelling, comics, television and radio, and ICTs to create awareness amongst learners, families, schools, and communities with the view to reduce the high levels of school-based violence.

It is evident from the above discussion that strides have been taken by government departments in collaboration with NGOs and the private sector to prevent school violence within the South African context. Tomlinson et al. (2012:164) agree that NGOs and the private sector fulfil a crucial role by providing services where government lacks the capacity to intervene. Despite all these attempts, high levels of violence persist and the need to prevent school violence cannot be ignored. There is an urgent need to develop effective programmes and lessons can be learned from existing intervention and prevention strategies as described above.

4.8 Core elements of effective school-based violence prevention programmes

From a literature perspective, there are no simple strategies to address the complex problem of school-based violence. There is evidence of core elements for effective school-based violence prevention programmes, which include the following:

- School-based violence prevention programmes should be embedded in theoretical and practice frameworks (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:205; Gervers & Dartnall, 2015:53).
- Prevention programmes must be based on empirical research and must be scientifically evaluated to determine whether such programmes contribute to school violence prevention. The end goal should be betterment of people's lives (Henry, 2005:10).
- School-based violence prevention programmes should be comprehensive to address the complex nature of school-based violence by targeting interacting multi-level causative factors and should be aimed at bringing about system-wide changes by targeting the interconnected relationships between children, parents, peers, educators, communities, and society.
- As Michau (2005:3) argues, programmes should result in policy-wide changes. The emphasis should be on bridging the micro-macro divide, by challenging undemocratic policies and practices that perpetuate violence.
- Prevention programmes must be proactive and must target contextual factors that contribute to violence by addressing the power imbalance and deeply held value systems, beliefs and attitudes about gender roles (Pineiro, 2006:138). Michau (2005:3) says that the focus should be on fostering equitable and caring relationships.
- Prevention programmes should be multimodal and should offer class-room-based curriculum activities and be delivered using multi-media and interactive methods that are creative and that engage young people (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:204),.
- Programme planners should change their perceptions of children and youth. Cushing (2015:45) urges planners to see children and youth as people with

assets, who can make a positive contribution rather than seeing them as part of the problems to be addressed.

- Prevention programmes should rather focus on peace and human rights education, character education and social and emotional skills training to enhance behavioural and socio-emotional competence. In order to break the cycle of violence, violent and aggressive values must be replaced with respect for human rights, peace and citizenship (SAHRC, 2006:20). Emphasis should be placed on teaching content relating to moral and ethical principles, such as Ubuntu, human rights, democracy, equality, respect for diversity, empathy, dignity and worth, caring, and support (SAHRC, 2006:20).
- Prevention programmes should have educational content that increases knowledge and improves skills relating to communication, problem-solving, decision-making, anger and conflict management (Pinheiro, 2006:149). Skill development cannot be overlooked as these are critical thinking skills and core foundational elements of effective school-based prevention programmes (Snodgrass & Haines, 2005:29; Sathiparsad, 2003:30). Furthermore, socio-emotional competency is a key aspect and should be integrated in a school violence prevention curriculum (Burton, 2008b:80).

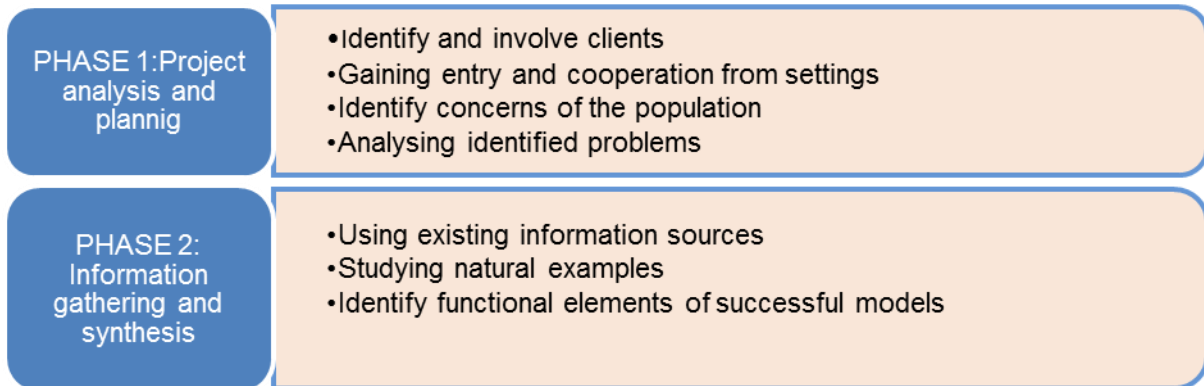
The researcher agrees that best practice approaches for school-based prevention need to reflect these core elements in order to be effective in addressing the school violence phenomenon.

4.9 Summary

Chapter 4 provided a review of literature which focused on the developmental stage of adolescence. This was followed by a discussion on the nature, causes, extent and impact of school-based violence on the learner, educators and the teaching and learning environment. Existing international and national school violence prevention and intervention programmes were reviewed and discussed. Core elements of effective school-based violence prevention programmes were identified towards the designing of a preventative programme for school-based violence. Overall, the

literature review provided a broad understanding on how to address the problem of school-based violence. Chapter 5 presents the data integration, interpretation and key findings of the first phase of the empirical study.

CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS



(Rothman & Thomas, 1994)

5.1 Introduction

This chapter forms part of phase 2 of the intervention research (D & D) model and aims to report on the findings that emanated from the combined qualitative and quantitative data which was obtained through survey research and focus group interviews during the first phase of the study. A total of nine focus group interviews comprising 30 educators and 47 grade 9 and 10 learners were conducted in the nine sampled schools in Tshwane South District in Gauteng Province. In addition, 679 questionnaires were administered to the population of grade 9 and 10 learners only. In this chapter the process of integrating the qualitative findings and the quantitative results to develop meta-inferences is discussed (Venkatesh et al., 2012-13:18).

Different opinions exist about when to integrate findings from qualitative and quantitative data. Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003:220) see integration as a “fluid process” that occurs at various stages of the research process. The integration can occur in the beginning stage of the study when the purpose of the study is being formulated; during data collection and analysis; during the interpretation stage or at the conclusion phase during the interpretation stage (Creswell, 2015:83; Creswell et al., 2003:220). Ivankova et al. (2006:11) is of the opinion that integration can be done in a sequential phasing format whereafter the

first phase, a qualitative data collection tool is developed based on the outcomes of the first quantitative phase of the study. However, Morse and Niehaus (2009:21) suggest keeping the two data sets separate until the final stage whereby both the qualitative and quantitative findings are mixed into a coherent whole. In this study, the researcher integrated the data at the interpretation phase.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:66) point out that mixed methods researchers are likely to experience difficulties in integrating the two strands of different data that is obtained through different samples and different sample sizes, particularly when the qualitative and quantitative data produce contradictory findings. In support, Bryman (2007:9-10) and Collins et al. (2007:269) add that often researchers report either on the qualitative or quantitative parts only and in some cases they report the findings in parallel and do not fully integrate the two datasets.

To counteract these challenges, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:80) advise researchers to design their studies in such a manner that the qualitative and quantitative data address similar concepts. In this study, the researcher compiled the survey questions and focus group interview schedule in such a manner that the two instruments addressed almost similar issues and concepts (see Appendices M & N). However, there were some questions which were only addressed in the questionnaire that were meant to obtain inputs strictly from the learners only (See sections B3 - B4; C1.1 - C1.5; D1 - D3 and E3).

As there are several strategies and methods of integrating quantitative and qualitative data, the researcher combined and compared survey results with focus group interview findings after both types of data were collected and analysed separately (See Figure 2.6). The qualitative and quantitative data were integrated to elucidate and expose the phenomenon of school violence as it is currently, to show the “true picture” of the extent and forms of violence prevalent in schools and to show how schools address violence in South Africa. As discussed in section 2.8, not only were the two strands integrated to enhance the validity and reliability of the

findings, but also to “increase the depth and breadth of understanding” through comparing the opinions and views of learners and educators (Fielding, 2012:128).

The rationale behind integrating the findings was to gain insights about school violence and how to prevent this scourge that could not be accomplished if one approach was used (Myers, 2014:299). To this end, the researcher was in a position to “listen” to and compare what the learners and educators said, and to see if there were any discrepancies or parallels (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:232-233). The researcher was able to understand the extent and prevalence of violence in schools, how violence affects victims, perpetrators, the teaching and learning environment and how to solve and prevent this phenomenon. According to Fielding (2012:131), this is a common but sophisticated strategy that is useful to obtain complete understanding of a complex problem such as school violence (Creswell, 2014:218).

In the following sections the researcher reports on the consistencies or contradictions between the qualitative data firstly by comparing the learners’ and educators’ findings. Thereafter, a comparison is made between the qualitative findings and the quantitative results. The qualitative findings are presented along themes and sub-themes that emerged, accompanied by verbal descriptions of the content while the quantitative results are presented using tables and graphs. The findings are substantiated with existing literature to support or contrast the findings. Finally, the key findings are presented, which provided guidelines for the design of the school-based violence prevention programme.

The next section presents the converged findings, first by focusing on the demographic information of the participating schools and the respondents who are categorised into three groups. Namely: grade 9 and 10 learners for the survey research, grade 9 and 10 learners for the focus group interviews, and the grade 9 and 10 educators for the focus group interviews. Thereafter, qualitative findings will be combined and compared with the quantitative results “into a coherent whole that leads to meta-inferences” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:258; Teddlie & Tashakkori,

2009:269) in order to guide the design of the school-based violence prevention programme.

5.2 Demographical information on schools and participants

5.2.1 School Information

Figure 5.1 below presents the schools which participated in the study. The nine participating schools were sampled from a sampling frame of 51 schools registered in the Tshwane South District, Gauteng Province (See Chapter 2). For ethical reasons, the schools have not been identified by name and are denoted using numeric characters. The data is presented in the sequence of the percentages of learners who participated by school

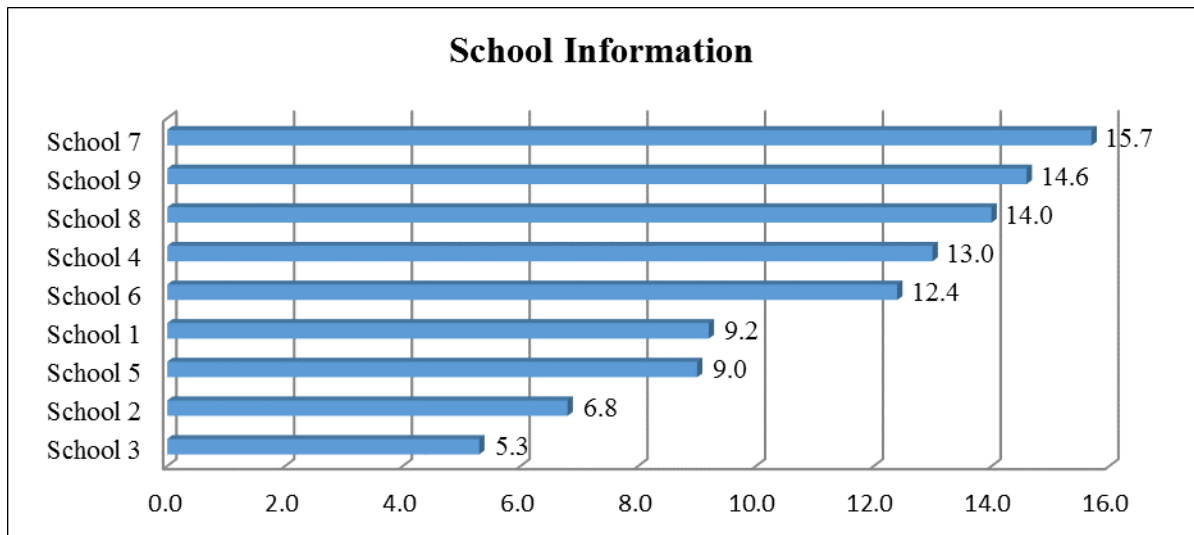


Figure 5.1 School Information (n=9)

From the 9 schools that participated in the study, school 3 had 5.3% (n=36) learners, school 2 had 6.8% (n=46) learners, school 5 had 9.0% (n=61) learners, school 1 had 9.2% (n=62) learners, school 6 had 12.4% (n=84) learners, school 4 had 13.0% (n=88) learners, school 8 had 14% (n=95) learners, school 9 had 14.6% (n=99) learners and school 7 had 15.7% (n=106) learners. The types of schools were: 7 public and 2 private. Of these, 4 were located in the townships and 5 in suburban areas.

5.2.2 Biographical information of learners: Survey research

The demographic profile of respondents is presented below with reference to age, sex, race, language and grade. For the quantitative strand of this study, a total of 679 respondents sampled from the nine participating schools completed self-administered questionnaires. However, two questionnaires could not be used due to errors.

Table 5-1 Biographical information of learners: Survey research (n=677)

Variable	Response options	Frequency	Percentage
Age	13-14	67	10
	15-16	356	53.1
	17-18	224	33.4
	19 & older	24	3.6
Sex	Female	344	51.7
	Male	322	48.3
Race	Black	517	78.7
	Coloured	35	5.3
	Indian	96	14.6
	White	9	1.4
Language	Afrikaans	24	3.6
	English	160	24
	Isindebele	19	2.8
	Sepedi	130	19.5
	Setswana	115	17.2
	Siswati	12	1.8
	Tshivenda	5	0.7
	Xitsonga	96	14.4
	Zulu	67	10.0
Grade	9	298	46
	10	354	54

A narrative description of the respondents' biographical information is provided below.

Age: Table 5-1 above indicates that 10% (n=67) respondents fell between the ages 13-14 years, 53.1% (n=356) were between 15-16 years whilst 33.4% (n=224) were between 17-18 years and 3.6% (n=24) were 19 years and above. Findings indicate that the majority of the respondents were in the age group 15-16 years. The age profiles match the profile of secondary school learners and are consistent with the

inclusion criteria for the study. This age band was selected because young people are most likely to be involved in violence either as victims or perpetrators (Ward et al., 2012:5).

Sex: The above findings indicate that 48.3% (n=322) of the respondents were male and 51.7% (n=344) were female. It is important to look at how gender influences violence as it seems there are gender differences in the types of violence perpetrated (DeFour, 2005:88).

Race: According to Table 5-1 above, 1.4% (n=9) of the respondents were white; 78.7% (n=517) were black; 14.6% (n=96) were Indian and 5.3% (n=35) were coloured. The race profiles of the participants are somewhat consistent with the mid-year population estimates which show that black Africans are the majority and constitute 43,33 million (80%) of the total 54 million of the entire South African population. With the exception of the Indian population who were more represented than the coloured and white population in this study, the coloured population is estimated at 4,77 million people followed by the white population, who are estimated at 4,55 million and lastly the Indian population who are estimated at 1,34 million (Statistics South Africa, 2014:P0302). Race or ethnicity is relevant and critical in studying violence. Ahmed (2005:216) argues that violence is not limited to any culture, ethnicity or social group and affects everyone. Thus, DeFour (2005:94) points out that exposure to violence is not the same for all racial groups.

Language: Table 5-1 indicates that 24% (n=160) of the respondents speak English; 3.6% (n=24) speak Afrikaans; 10% (n=67) speak Zulu; 19.5% (n=130) speak Sepedi; 17.2% (n=115) speak Setswana; 14.4% (n=96) speak Xitsonga; 0.7% (n=5) speak Tshivenda; 1.8% (n=12) speak Siswati; 2.8% (n=19) speak Isindebele and 5.8% (n=39) speak other languages. Based on the findings, the majority of learners speak English, followed by Sepedi and Setswana. According to the latest mid-year population estimate figures blacks are the largest population group (80.5%); followed by coloured (8.8%); white (8.3%) and the least (2.5%) representing the Indian group (Statistics South Africa, 2015:2).

The Sepedi-speaking ethnic group comprised the largest ethnic grouping followed by Setswana and Xitsonga. Sepedi, Setswana and Xitsonga were the mostly African spoken languages in the Tshwane Municipality. The findings are consistent with the Gauteng Municipality Census Report (Statistics South Africa, 2011:16). The increase of the black middle class to the metropolitan areas contribute to more inclusive schools where black learners reflect the South African majority profile (Statistics South Africa, 2015:2).

Grade: A total of 46% of the respondents (n=298) indicated they were in grade 9 and 54% (n=354) were grade 10 learners. One respondent indicated that he/she is in grade 11. The respondent was excluded from the rest of the data analysis. The grade profile of the respondents matches the age profile as most of the learners in Grade 9 and 10 fall between the ages of 15 to 18 years.

Living conditions: Data was also collected on the living conditions of the respondents as described below. The item contained two questions, one relating to who they are currently living with and the other relating to where they live.

Table 5-2 Who the respondents are currently living with and where they live.

Range	Response	Frequency (f)	Percent
Who are you currently living with	Both parents	361	55.1
	Single parent	191	29.2
	Grandparents	47	7.2
	Other family members	30	4.6
	Family friends	2	0.3
	Brothers and sisters	14	2.1
	In a children's home	5	0.8
	Other	5	0.8
Where do you live	City/Town/Suburb	323	48.4
	Township	302	45.3
	Farm	5	0.7
	Informal settlement	9	1.3
	Other	28	4.2

An analysis of the data in Table 5-2 will next be discussed.

Who are you currently living with?: Out of a total of 655 respondents, 55.1% (n=361) of the respondents live with both parents; 29.2% (n=191) with a single parent; 7.2% (n=47) with grandparent(s); 4.6% (n=30) with other family members; 0.3% (n=2) with family friends; 2.1% (n=14) with brothers or sisters; whilst 0.8% (n=5) live in a children's home and the other 0.8% (n=5) live with others. The majority of the learners live with both parents followed by those who live with single parents. This finding is inconsistent with other findings. Patel (2015:146) purports that most children live with their biological mothers, whilst with one in two, the father is absent and does not have daily contact with their children.

This finding is critical because the family is the most powerful socialising unit for children and adults influence the child's behaviour (Flores, 2005:79). According to Patel (2015:147), an absent father does not bode well for most children as it has poor educational, social and economic outcomes for such children. Research supports that family composition is critical and influences child development and as a result, many learners are at risk of violence due to the family settings in which they are brought up (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:61).

In another study on the manifestation of violence in Arab schools, it was found that the absence of fathers is linked to increased violent and aggressive behaviour (Ahmed, 2005:216). Turning from the international to the national perspective, South African children are similarly vulnerable to violence because most are raised by single parents or grandparents and extended family members. As stated by Gould and Ward (2015:2), more than 50% of children in South Africa grow up without the support and care of both parents. Many of these families are broken and dysfunctional as a result of varied socio-economic factors.

Locale: A total of 48.4% (n=323) of the respondents live in the city/town/suburb; whilst another 45.3% (n=302) live in the township; a further 1.3% (n=9) live in

informal settlements, only 0.7% (n=5) live on a farm whilst the remaining 4.2% (n=28) live elsewhere. The majority of respondents live in the city/town or suburb followed by those living in the townships. There are major differences between geographical areas and between schools that are located in those residential areas. The neighbourhood is one setting where children spend their everyday lives (Flores, 2005:78) and it has a significant influence on their development and behaviour. As Ahmed (2005:216) has established, the place of residence has an influence on violent and aggressive behaviour among learners.

5.2.3 Biographical information of learners: Focus group Interviews

The demographic profile of the participants is presented below in Table 5-3 with reference to age, sex, ethnicity, language and grade.

Table 5-3 Biographical information: learners (n=47)

Age	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
14 – 15	20	42.5
16 – 17	24	51.1
18+	3	6.4
Total	47	100
Sex	Number	Percentage
Male	24	51.1
Female	23	48.9
Total	47	100
Ethnicity	Number	Percentage
White	0	0
Black	33	70
Indian	9	19.9.
Coloured	5	10.
Total	47	100
Language	Number	Percentage
English	13	27.7
Afrikaans	1	2.1
IsiZulu	8	17
Sepedi	11	23.4
Setswana	10	21.3

Tshivenda	0	0
Xitsonga	1	2.1
Isiswati	0	0
Isindebele	0	0
Other	3	6.4
Total	47	100
Grade	Number	Percentage
9	18	38.3
10	29	61.7
Total	47	100

Table 5-3 shows that 42.5% (n=20) of the participants fell in the 14 to 15 age category, 51.1% (n=24) in the 16 to 17 year category whilst only 6.4% (n=3) were 18 years and older. A total of 51.1% (n=24) of the learners were male and 48.9% (n=23) were female which means there was a slight difference between the sample compared to the broader South African population which comprises 51% women (Statistics South Africa, 2015:2). Regarding ethnicity, the majority of learners, 70.2% (n=33) were black, 19.2% (n=9) were Indians and 10.6% (n=5) were coloured.

The findings are somewhat consistent with the South African 2015 mid-year population estimates (Statistics South Africa, 2015:2). Findings on the sample of learners for the focus group indicate consistencies with regard to the fact that the population is grouped according to an 70% majority of blacks and no white participants. However, there were differences with regard to the representation of the Indian group. There were more Indian learners represented in the study than reported in the mid-year population estimates of 2.5%. With regards to coloured representation, there was consistent representation which reflects consistencies with the mid-year population estimates of 9% coloured population (Statistics South Africa, 2015:2).

From Table 5-3 above, most learners 27.7% (n=13) speak English as their major language; 2.1% (n=1) speak Afrikaans; 17% (n=8) speak Isizulu; 23.4% (n=11) speak Sepedi; 21.3% (n=10) speak Setswana; 2.1% (n=1) speaks Xitsonga; and

6.4% (n=3) speak other languages. There were no learners who speak Tshivenda, Isiwati or Isindebele. In terms of grade level, 63% (n= 29) of the learners were in grade 10 and the remaining 37% (n=18) were in grade 9. All interviews were conducted in English and there was no need for translation as all the learners were fluent in English.

The next section presents the biographical data on the educators who participated in the focus group interviews.

5.2.4 Biographical information of educators: Focus group interviews

The biographical information of the educators relates to their age, sex, ethnicity, language, qualification, number of years of teaching experience.

Table 5-4 Biographical information: Educators (n=30)

Age	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
21-30	11	37
31-40	4	13
41-50	7	23
51+	8	27
Total	30	100
Sex	Number	Percentage
Male	9	30
Female	21	70
Total	30	100
Ethnicity	Number	Percentage
White	8	27
Black	11	37
Indian	7	23
Coloured	4	13
Total	30	100
Language	Number	Percentage
English	8	27
Afrikaans	11	37
IsiZulu	3	10
Sepedi	6	20

Setswana	1	3
Tshivenda	1	3
Xitsonga	0	0
Isiswati	0	0
Isindebele	0	0
Other	0	0
Total	30	100
Qualification	Number	Percentage
Diploma	5	17
Degree	16	53
Post-graduate	9	30
Total	30	100
Teaching Experience	Number	Percentage
1-5	7	23
6-10	7	23
11+	16	54
Total	30	100

Table 5-4 indicates that eleven (37%) participants were of age groups ranging from 21 to 30 years; four (13%) were between 31 and 40 years; seven (23%) were in the range of 41 to 50 years and the remaining eight (27%) of the participants were above 50 years of age. The highest number of educators (n=11; 37%) is of a younger generation which implies less teaching experience. With regards to sex, from all the educators (n=30) who were involved in the research, 21 (70%) were female and nine (30%) were male.

The ethnic category of the educators indicates that eight (27%) participants were white; eleven (37%) were black; seven (23%) were Indian and four (13%) were coloured. The participants were representative of the demographics of the South African population groups as reflected in the 2015 mid-year population estimates (Statistics South Africa, 2015:2).

The participants came from different ethnic groups and speak different languages as indicated in the table above. Of the participants eleven (37%) of the educators had

Afrikaans and eight (27%) had English as their main language. Six (20%) of the participants are Sepedi speaking and three (10%) speak Isizulu. Only one (3%) speaks Tshivenda and Setswana respectively. There were no educators who speak Xitsonga, Isiwati and Isindebele. Findings indicate that all the participants were professionally trained and had qualifications in education. Five (17%) of the participants had a diploma, followed by sixteen (53%) who had a degree and the remaining nine (30%) had a post-graduate qualification. Only seven (23%) of the educators had teaching experience of between one to five years, whilst another seven (23%) had experience of six to ten years and the remaining majority, that is sixteen (54%) had more than eleven years of teaching experience. Therefore the majority of the educators ($n=23$; 76%) have a substantive teaching experience.

In summary, the biographic profile of both learners and educators as presented above reveals the relevant demographic characteristics which could have an impact on the constructs measured in this study. The following section presents the integration of themes which emerged from the qualitative findings with the quantitative results of the study.

5.3 Integrated qualitative and quantitative findings

A thematic framework of the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the qualitative and quantitative research data will be used to present the integrated findings. Qualitative findings will be supported by direct quotes from the participants whilst the quantitative results will be presented in the form of frequencies and percentages which will be displayed in graphs and figures. The relationship between quantitative answers and demographic variables were investigated using the Chi-square test of independence. Cramer's V was used as effect size measure, with a value of 0.1 being referred to as small, 0.3 as medium and 0.5 as large (Cohen 1988). Literature will be integrated to substantiate the findings where relevant.

Table 5-5 Themes and sub-themes from qualitative and quantitative data

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
1. Nature of violence		
	1.1 Learner-on-learner 1.2 Educator-on-learner 1.3 Learner-on-educator	1.1.1 Places where learner-on-learner violence occurs 1.3.1 Places where learner-on-educator violence occurs

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
2. Types of violence		
	2.1 Emotional violence 2.2 Verbal violence 2.3 Physical violence 2.4 Sexual violence 2.5 Gang violence 2.6 Property violence 2.7 Cyber violence	

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
3. Causes of violence		
	3.1 Learner indiscipline 3.2 Family related factors 3.3 Poverty and community factors 3.4 Peer pressure and status 3.5 Provocation and revenge 3.6 Gambling 3.7 Alcohol and drugs 3.8 Unprofessional behaviour of educators 3.9 Racism and prejudice	

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
4. Impact of violence		
	4.1 Impact of violence on the learners 4.2 Impact of violence on the educators 4.3 Impact of violence on the culture of teaching and learning	

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
5. Management of violent incidences		
	5.1 Measures taken by schools to address violence in schools 5.2 Existing measures, rules and regulations in place to deal with violence 5.3 Existing measures, rules and regulations to deal with learners who abuse substances 5.4 Existing measures, rules and regulations to address gambling 5.5 Existing measures, rules and regulations to address gang related incidences 5.6 Forum to raise concerns regarding the conduct of learners and educators	5.2.1 Code of conduct 5.2.2 Demerit system 5.2.3 Police random searches 5.2.4 Disciplinary committee 5.2.5 Counselling referral system 5.2.6 Life Orientation Curriculum 5.2.7 Invite motivational speakers

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
6. Challenges encountered regarding violence prevention and intervention		

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
6. Challenges encountered regarding violence prevention and intervention	6.1 Lack of parental involvement 6.2 Lack of parenting skills and supervision 6.3 Lack of policy implementation by schools 6.4 Lack of support services 6.5 Unprofessional behaviour of educators	

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
7. Suggested measures to address and prevent school violence	7.1 Positive discipline and abolishing of corporal punishment 7.2 Ensure professional behaviour of educators 7.3 Promote self-discipline among learners 7.4 Counselling services and special schools 7.5 Peer support / Mentorship 7.6 Education and awareness campaigns 7.7 Demerit / Merit system 7.8 Suspension 7.9 Improved security system 7.10 Parent skills training 7.11 Stakeholder collaboration	

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY
8. Learners' experiences of programmes or Services existing school violence prevention		

The themes, sub-themes and categories identified above will be discussed next.

Theme 1: Nature of violence

Findings indicate that learner-on-learner, learner-on-educator and educator-on-learner violence is prevalent in all the participating schools. Included in this discussion are different typologies of school-based violence, namely: emotional, verbal, physical, sexual, gang, property and cyber violence. The results are presented below in three sub-themes.

Sub-theme 1.1: Learner-on-learner violence

During all the focus group discussions with both educators and learners respectively, most participants reported that violence between learners is prevalent in their respective schools. A number of educators revealed that often learners physically fight among themselves because of numerous issues. Learners also confirmed the infighting between themselves due to varied reasons. Furthermore, educators revealed that often learners physically fight among themselves using different instruments and objects (See sub-theme 2.3) below.

Category 1.1.1 Places where learner-on-learner violence occurs

In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate where these violent incidents by learners against other learners occur. The figure below depicts their responses:

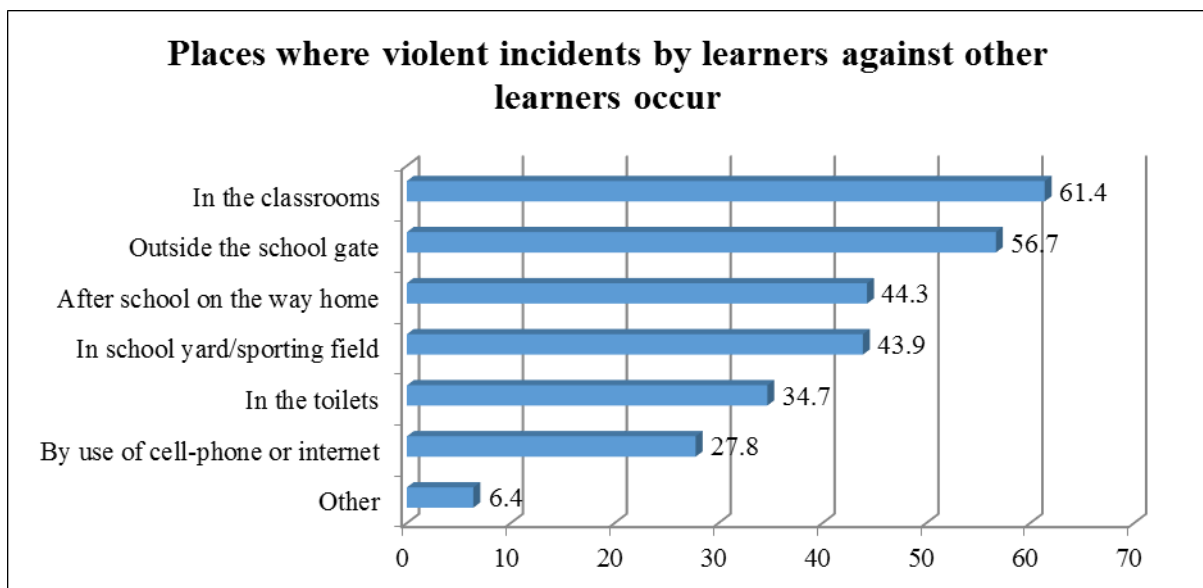


Figure 5.2 Places where violent incidents by learners against other learners occur (n=677)

According to Figure 5.2 Places where violent incidents by learners against other learners occur (n=677), 61.4% (n=416) of the respondents indicated that the violent incidents occur in the classrooms; 56.7% (n=384) outside the school gate; 44.3% (n=300) after school on the way home; 34.7% (n=235) in the toilets and 43.9% (n=297) indicated that it occurs in the school yard or sports field. The least place where violent incidents by learners against other learners occur was at other unidentified places. The latest instrument used by learners against other learners was a cell phone or the internet, which accounted for 27.8% (n=188).

To confirm that classrooms are the most common places where violence takes place, an educator said:

“There was this big fight earlier in my class and I couldn’t just deal with it any more, you know you get to a point when you are tired. So I stood far away on a corner next to my table and I watched the fight like everybody else.”

The results are consistent with studies by Burton (2008b:67) and Burton and Leoschut (2013:36), which reveal that classrooms, open grounds and playing fields are common sites where violence takes place. Molosankwe (2015:1) and Leoschut (2013:3) state that most of these violent incidents happen in the presence of educators or when the learners are left alone unsupervised.

Sub-theme 1.2: Educator-on-learner violence

Both qualitative findings and survey results indicate that learners are victimised not only by their peers, but also by educators. The results show that 19.3% (n=128) of the respondents indicated that they were physically abused by educators and another 40.3% (n=268) saw other learners being physically abused by educators. The respondents indicated that educators use foul language and objects to discipline learners. A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) was used to investigate the relationship between sex and nature of violence and the question whether: *“A learner ever experienced emotional abuse incident (s) that occurred at their school in the past 6-12 months*, the results showing: $\chi^2(1, n=593) = 7.324$, ($p=0.025$), Cramer’s V (0.107). According to Cohen’s (1988) guideline, all

these effect sizes were small. Respondents from townships were more likely to witness physical abuse of a learner by educators ($p=0.015$). The strength of the association is however weak.

The above findings confirm that violence perpetrated by educators against learners is prevalent and common in the participating schools despite the findings showing that less learners experience violence perpetrated by educators.

Sub-theme 1.3: Learner-on-educator violence

Learner-on-educator violence was identified by educators at all the schools. Educators revealed that learners are disrespectful; they answer back or speak in South African indigenous languages which immigrant educators do not understand, to humiliate the educators. Further, it was revealed that learners threaten and insult the educators. Educators also reported that it is common for the big boys to verbally threaten junior educators, especially female educators, and threaten them with physical violence. This phenomenon was confirmed by the participating learners (See sub-theme 2.3 below). Thus there is convergence between the qualitative findings and the survey research regarding the prevalence of violence perpetrated against educators by learners. Survey research results reveal that 22.4% ($n=149$) of the respondents were aware that an educator was threatened with violence or physically assaulted by a learner.

Category 1.3.1: Places where learner-on-educator violence occurs

Respondents were also asked to indicate places where the violent incidents perpetrated against educators by learners occur. Figure 5.3 below indicates the places where the reported incidences of violence against educators are observed.

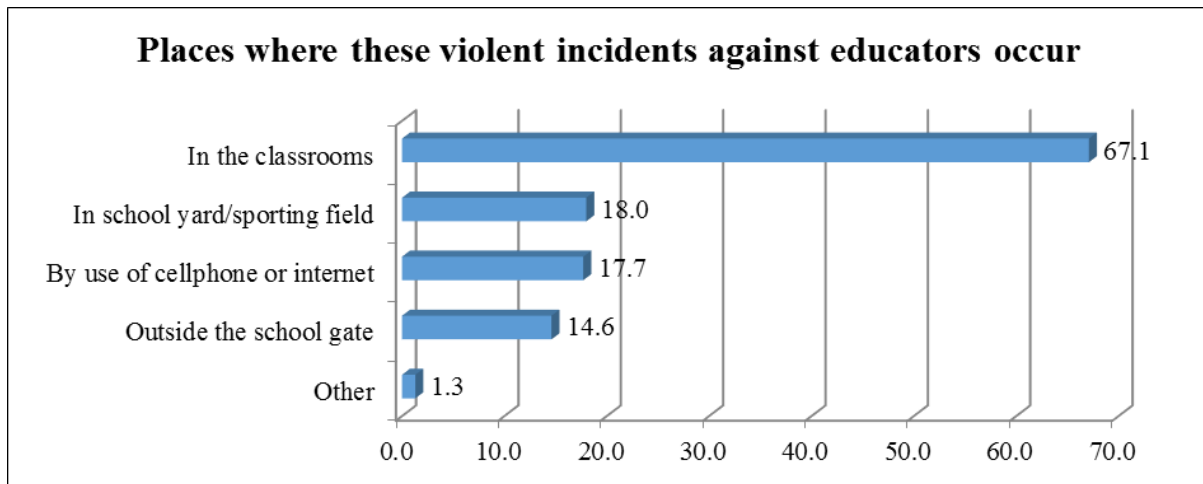


Figure 5.3 Places where these violent incidents against educators occur (n=677)

Figure 5.3 depicts that violence perpetrated against educators occurs in the classrooms was indicated by a majority of the respondents (67.1%; n=454). The rest of the respondents indicated that violent incidents occur in the school yard/sports field (18%; n=122); by use of cell phone or internet (17.7%; n=120). Violent incidents perpetrated by learners against educators occur outside the school gate is slight. This accounted for (14.6%; n=99) of the reported cases.

Overall, there is convergence between the data regarding the prevalence of learner-on-educator violence in all the participating schools. The incidents occur in different places within the vicinity of the school and via the use of cellphones. The findings are compatible with several studies (*cf.* Burton & Leoschut, 2013:27-28; De Wet, 2007b:683-684; De Wet, 2007a:31; De Wet, 2006:25) which confirm the extent of emotional, verbal, physical, sexual, gang, property and cyber violence. These different types of school-based violence are discussed next.

Theme 2: Types of violence

Findings indicate that learners and educators perpetrate, experience or observe emotional, verbal, physical, sexual, gang, property and cyber violence. The results are presented below in seven sub=themes.

Sub-theme 2.1: Emotional violence

To establish the extent of emotional violence, the participants were asked whether they were personally abused by educators or had observed another learner being emotionally abused by an educator. The findings confirm that participating learners suffer emotional abuse perpetrated by educators. Learners complained about the abusive conduct of their educators. In this regard, one learner said: *“They force us to bring tinned food to school, every day we must register in class and they mark who brings and who does not bring.”*

Learners were not only abused by educators, but by other learners as well. Quantitative data show that some learners are emotionally abused by peers. Of the respondents, 35.5% (n=230) indicated that they were emotionally bullied by another learner whilst 59.7% (n=385) of the respondents had observed another learner being emotionally abused. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-square) was performed to investigate the relationship between age group and the following statement: *You were emotionally bullied*, the results showing: $\chi^2(1, n=598) = 25.348$, ($p=0.000$), Cramer's V (0.140). The relationship was significant ($p<0.05$), however, the strength of the association between the age group of the learner and the variable is small. The percentage of learners who were younger (13-14 years) are more likely to be emotionally bullied compared to the percentage of learners in other age groups who are older. A total of 11.8% (n=27) of the learners between 13 and 14 answered yes to being bullied, while 62.0% (n=142) of those between 15 and 16 confirmed this statement. Only 24.5% (n=56) of those between 17 and 18, and 1.7% (n=4) of those older than 19, answered in the affirmative.

The percentage of bullying reported by both sexes at schools was recorded (females 58.8% (n=133) and males 41.2% (n=93). A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) was used to investigate the relationship between sex and nature of violence and the statement whether: *“A learner ever experienced emotional abuse incident (s) that occurred at their school in the past 6-12 months”*, the results showing: $\chi^2(1, n=593) = 7.324$, ($p=0.025$), Cramer's V (0.107). The

strength of the association between the two variables is weak. According to Cohen's (1988) guideline, all these effect sizes were small.

It is evident from the qualitative findings that the older children frequently bullied the younger children. The participating learners said that learners who keep quiet to avoid getting into fights are seen as cowards and therefore become victims to the bullies. One learner said in this regard:

Yeah... for example yesterday I have experienced my friend being ganged up by this bunch of bullies, that guy didn't know, my friend didn't know what they were accusing him for, they just came and they swear at him and when he tried to defend himself they slapped him and that was that. And that guy who slapped him thought maybe he was this bigger person or something, they feel this power, upon them when they bully other guys.

A learner confirmed this practice as follows: *"Yeah when we go to the toilets there are boys who are smoking, they abuse us, they make us buy cigarettes by force."* The learners mentioned that other learners steal from other learners, *"they also take your stuff, yes like our calculators, search our books, they steal lunch boxes and money."* The learners reported that bullies copy other learners' work against their will and if they refuse they threaten them or throw their books away.

Overall, there is convergence between the findings on the existence of emotional violence amongst learners and by educators in all the participating schools. The findings are consistent with previous research results. Mncube and Harber (2013:8) found that bullying is prevalent in most schools and can take many forms such as threats, spreading rumours, persistent teasing, and exclusion from group, tormenting, ridicule, humiliation, and abusive comments.

A similar study regarding reports about educator-on-learner emotional violence involving 50 students with behavioural problems attending alternative schools in the

US was conducted on the emotional abuse of learners by educators. Whitted and Dupper (2008:334-336) found that learners are being bullied by educators to a large extent. The results indicated that 88% of the participants endured psychological violence and that twice the number of learners reported that adults and not their peers contributed to their worst school experience. The respondents reported that educators make fun of students, tease them in a hurtful manner, say mean things about the students' families or make fun of them because of skin colour or race (Whitted & Dupper, 2008:336). Emotional violence is often linked with verbal violence as will be discussed next.

Sub-theme 2.2: Verbal violence

Findings in this study revealed incidences where verbal violence occurred between peers. One educator said: *"It is very rife, they fight all the time. They call each other names all the time. It is very often, somehow it has become like part of the school."*

Another educator added:

Some of the learners they do not use fists fights but then the words, the words they use on other learners are very humiliating. We actually have a case where it was reported to the principal. This girl was called names, a slut, a whore and so on... and well it affected her and caused a big fight.

Furthermore, educators confirmed that learners verbally abuse each other to an extent where the fights become physical. The following is a narrative by an educator:

In our schools, kids fight you know, and swear at each other, it is a common thing. Yeah and they end up fighting say during break time. They are free outside, there... that is the time where they meet and ask each other about these gossips and the like and in the process they might not agree on certain things and they end up you know exchanging hands.

There is consistency in the reports provided by educators and learners. One learner said: *“In our class there must be a fight, there is never a day there was no fight”*.

Another learner supported this view as follows:

Someone shouts or swears whatever...then a person goes about and gossip about me, for instance that other one will come and that one who gossip about that one will gossip about me, they just... and after that they wanna tell each other what they said neh... but they never said and then it's big fight, the other one wants to be better than the other.

Survey results among the learners show that 59.7% (n=385) of the respondents said that they saw another learner who was verbally or emotionally bullied by peers and a further 35.5% (n=230) said they were verbally or emotionally bullied by another learner. Both qualitative and quantitative findings in this current study point to similar evidence confirming that verbal violence between peers is common in Tshwane South District schools. For example, similar findings were reported in a previous quantitative study conducted in Tshwane South District involving 1,873 grades 6 to 11 learners from nine primary, eight secondary and two special schools on learner-on-learner attacks. According to Prinsloo and Nesor (2007:50), their study revealed that 54% of the learners were subjected to cruel teasing, 63% to name calling and 34% to verbal threats.

Findings obtained from this study further reveal the prevalence of verbal violence perpetrated against learners by educators. Participating learners said: *“The educators swear at us by our mothers' names, calling us names like “stupid” or “mgodoyi” [meaning: stray dog] and they scold at us, talk badly to us and do not treat us with respect.”*

Some of the findings were however astounding. Some learners did not regard the prevalent verbal threats and name-calling used by educators as verbal abuse.

Instead, participants viewed this unacceptable practice as “reverse psychology”. The learner explained as follows:

I think we were able to tell that in a way he kind of uses reverse psychology. If he tells you that you are stupid, he does not mean you are stupid. He even tells you. No, I am sorry. I do not mean you are stupid. I just mean that you are ... I want you to work harder you know.

During the survey research, learners were asked if they were personally verbally abused by educators. A total of 23.4% (n=153) of the respondents agreed that they were verbally abused by educators. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) was performed to investigate the relationship between race and this following statement: “*You were verbally abused by educators in the past 6-12 months*”, the results showing: ($\chi^2=15.462$, ($p=0.017$), Cramer’s V (0.110). A higher percentage of black respondents 88.4% (n=130) as compared to 8.2% (n=12) Indian and 2.7% (n=4) coloured respondents were more likely to observe this behaviour. The strength of the association is however small.

A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) was performed and indicated a significant association between where you live and the following statement: “*Another learner was verbally abused by educators in the past 6-12 months*”, the results showing: ($\chi^2=10.296$), ($p=0.006$), Cramer’s V (0.127). A higher percentage of township learners 51.6% (n=161) as compared to 48.4% (n=151) city/town/suburb learners were more likely to observe this behaviour. The strength of the association is however small.

Learners were also asked if they had observed another learner being verbally abused by educators. A total of 47.8% (n=317) respondents said they saw other learners being verbally abused by educators. There was an association between race and the following statement: “*Another learner was verbally abused by educators in the past 6-12 months*”, the results showing: ($\chi^2=45.062$), ($p=0.000$), Cramer’s V

(0.187). In this case again, the strength of the association is small. Of the entire group of respondents, 5.8% (n=18) of coloured respondents and 82.6% (n=257) of black respondents observed this phenomenon, as opposed to 11.3% (n=35) of Indian respondents. The white group of learners was too small to compare meaningfully. Learners in townships were also much more likely to witness this behaviour than those in the city, the results showing: ($\chi^2=10.296$), ($p=0.006$), Cramer's $V(0.125)$. A total of 51.6% (n=161) of those learners in townships indicated that they have observed this behaviour, in comparison with 48.4% (n=151) of those in urban areas. The effect size of these relationships was also small.

These results are consistent with and confirmed by the qualitative findings regarding verbal abuse perpetrated by educators and peers. The findings are compatible with other research which confirms that educator-on-learner verbal abuse is common in two out of every five schools (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:180). Findings show that educators verbally abuse learners by making derogatory remarks (Shariff, 2004:22), yelling and embarrassing them in front of other learners (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:181). In addition, McEvoy (2005:141) established that some educators bully learners and disguise their actions as "motivation" or as an appropriate method of instruction. Miller (1983:58-59) refers to this behaviour as "poisonous pedagogy" – an attitude adopted and used by adults to justify their abusive behaviour.

Bradshaw (2010:7) show that adults who abuse the rights of children give these children false and disguised information and beliefs to suppress outbursts of anger and aggression. This is done so that the learners can accept the abuse as being done with good intentions and is meant to benefit them. Contrary to this belief, Pottinger and Nelson (2004:29) argue that it is a myth that such disciplinary methods build character. In support, Mncube and Harber (2013:15) confirm that praise and warmth promote moral development whilst punishment is counter-productive.

The evidence in this study on the prevalence of learner-on-educator violence affirms similar findings by Bester and du Plessis (2010:224) who alert that the rate of violence against educators is increasing at an alarming pace, whereby learners

abuse educators physically or verbally to demonstrate insubordination, to be popular with peers, to relieve boredom or seek revenge. Other studies (De Wet, 2007a:27; De Wet & Jacobs, 2006:620) revealed that educators are also at risk of being verbally and physically abused by learners, whereby learners verbally insult and threaten them with weapons.

Sub-theme 2.3: Physical violence

As already mentioned above, the learners suffer violence at the hands of educators. Learners were asked if they had seen another learner being physically abused by an educator. Results show that 40.3% (n=268) respondents saw another learner being physically abused by an educator, whilst a further 19.3% (n=128) personally experienced physical violence perpetrated by educators.

Responses to this statement was significantly related to race, with black respondents being more likely to witness physical violence with the results showing: ($\chi^2=48.810$), ($p=0.000$); Cramer's V (0.194). A total of 87.5% (n=230) black respondents answered yes to this question and 8.7% (n=23) of Indian respondents and 3.0% (n=8) of coloured respondents. The white group of respondents was too small to compare meaningfully in respect of being physically assaulted by a teacher, the results showing: ($\chi^2= 26.099$), ($p=0.000$), Cramer's V (0.142). A total of 94.4% (n=118) of black respondents personally experienced violence, compared to 3.2% (n=4) of Indian respondents and 1.6% (n=2) of coloured respondents. Similarly, the white group of respondents was too small to compare meaningfully. In addition, this variable was related to with whom the learner is living. Learners living with parents or families were more likely to experience physical violence, the results showing: ($\chi^2=17.703$), ($p=0.007$), Cramer's V (0.117). However, the strength of the relationship is weak. The demographic variable concerning with whom respondents live, contained two small groups, namely those living with brothers and sisters (n=3; 2.4%) and those living with family friends, in a children's home or other (n=6; 4.8%). This variable was therefore omitted from the data analysis with regard to demographic groups.

A further 59.8% (n=335) of the respondents indicated that they have seen educators use an object to discipline learners in the past 6 to 12 months. There was a significant association between sex and this statement, the results showing: ($\chi^2=10.169$) ($p=0.0062$), Cramer's V (0.1247). Males 53.7% (n=180) were more inclined to witness this than their female counterparts 46.3% (n=155). There was a significant association between where the respondents live and this question respectively. Respondents who live in townships 53.1% (n=179) were significantly more likely to be exposed to this kind of behaviour than those in cities 46.9% (n=158), the results showing: ($\chi^2=6.921$); ($p=0.031$), Cramer's V (0.103). The effect size of these relationships was small. Even though age was also shown to be significantly related to this statement, there was no particular pattern of responses to suggest that it was more common among older or younger learners.

There was consistency in the reports on the physical abuse of learners by educators. Findings from the qualitative strand revealed that educators physically beat learners using different objects like belts, sticks or dusters. Learners at one school confirmed that the educators use a stick called '*Gloria*' to hit learners with. To confirm, a learner at another school voiced this reality as follows: "*Even today the other educator throws a child with a koppie [meaning cup] and the child was lucky because the child didn't move and the koppie just missed him.*"

Another learner affirmed that educators use objects and said this in this regard: "*The educators that is beating us, they throw us with that, what?...what?...They stand there in front of class and we seating here and they throw us with a board duster.*"

Physical violence perpetrated by educators against learners is a common practice. Participating educators justify using the objects to discipline learners who distract and disturb the class. One educator summarised this behaviour as follows:

Others they bang the table and then the board, it's a way of saying... hey I want your attention focus on me am in front I need you to listen and to concentrate and I wanna

teach you. They keep quiet for 5 minutes and at the end of the day you start to lose teaching time so it's not working 100 percent but it's a way of control and you get silence for a few minutes, it's not corporal it's to bang the table just to wake them up.

A divergence of the findings from the focus groups with educators was noted. Out of nine participating schools, participating educators in one school had a different view and reported that physical violence using instruments and weapons is not common. One educator elaborated as follows:

There is no violence between educators and learners or learners to educators and if we have violence from the children's part it is with no instruments. We have not heard of a knife or something like that but if there is violence between them it is just pushing and beating, but also then it is stopped immediately so we cannot say if any instruments are used.

This was supported by another educator at the same school as follows: *"Yes I will agree here we don't experience a lot of physical violence really... sometimes maybe like four times a year but we as educators we experience verbal abuse in a sense but nothing else."*

The researcher is of the view that the observed divergence is as a result of the sensitive nature of the school violence issue and the fact that some individuals feel uncomfortable discussing such matters and may sometimes be dishonest in their responses (Jehn & Jonsen, 2010:332). Despite the one observed inconsistency, both qualitative findings and the quantitative results confirm that physical violence is common in most schools.

The results of this current study further revealed that the learners themselves also perpetrated physical violence against their peers using objects and weapons. To

demonstrate and confirm the extent and pervasiveness of physical violence in most of the participating schools between learners, an educator said in this regard: *“It is a constantly happening thing, children fight all the time, you hear that so and so has stabbed so and so almost every day.”*

Based on the quantitative results, a total of 59.2% (n=380) of the learners saw another learner being physically assaulted by another learner as compared to 21.2% (n=136) who reported that they had never seen any physical violence by a learner against another. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between gender and the statement: *“You saw a learner physically hurt another”*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=6.769$), ($p=0.033$), Cramer’s V (0.103). Male learners 52.7% (n=197) are slightly more likely to witness this phenomenon than females 47.3% (n=177). The strength of the association is however small.

When asked whether they had personally been victimised, only 17.2% (n=111) had experienced physical violence as compared to a majority 80.7% (n=522) of the respondents who were not physically assaulted. About 9.3% (n=62) of the respondents indicated that they were hurt with an instrument or weapon by another learner. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between sex and the statement: *“A learner used an instrument or a weapon to hurt you in the past 6-12 months”*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=8.077$), ($p=0.017$), Cramer’s V (0.111). Male learners 65.6% (n=40) were more likely to be hurt by another learner and were more likely to agree with this statement than female learners 34.4% (n=21). The strength of the association is however small.

Respondents were further asked if they had seen an incident where a learner used an instrument or weapon to physically hurt another learner. About 33.8% (n=220) of the learners indicated that they saw a learner use an instrument or a weapon to physically hurt another learner. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between race and the statement: *“You saw a learner use an instrument or a weapon to physically hurt another”*, the

results showing: ($\chi^2= 20.446$); ($p=0.002$), Cramer's V (0.127). A higher percentage of black learners 87.4% ($n=188$) indicated that another learner was physically assaulted with an instrument. As in the case of previous questions related to physical violence, learners in townships 59.4% ($n=130$) were significantly more likely to witness this behaviour than those in cities, namely 40.6% ($n=89$), the results showing: ($\chi^2= 10.422$), ($p=0.005$), Cramer's V (0.127). The strength of the association is however small.

Respondents were further asked whether they have seen a learner carry a gun to school in the past 6 to 12 months. 5.9% ($n=39$) of the respondents indicated that they have seen a learner carry a gun to school. Sex was significantly associated with this variable that can lead to school-based violence. More males 70.3% ($n=26$) indicated that they have seen a learner carry a gun to school compared with their female counterparts 29.7% ($n=11$), the results showing: ($\chi^2=9.645$), ($p=0.008$), Cramer's V (0.123).

When further asked if they saw a learner commit violence against another learner that resulted in serious injury, 31.8% ($n=211$) of the respondents had seen a learner use violence to such an extent that it resulted in serious injury. Similarly, a Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between race and the statement: "*You saw a learner commit violence against another learner resulted in serious injury in the past 6-12 months*", the results showing: ($\chi^2=25.551$), ($p=0.000$), Cramer's V (0.141). More black learners 88.2% ($n=180$) saw another learner commit violence that resulted in serious injury as compared to 6.4% ($n=13$) Indian and 4.9% ($n=10$) Coloured learners. There was an association between where respondents live and this statement. Respondents in townships 61.0% ($n=128$) were much more likely to witness these types of incidents than those living in the city, namely 39.0% ($n=82$), the results showing: ($\chi^2= 13.050$), ($p=0.001$), Cramer's V (0.141). The strength of the association is however small.

With regards to learner-on-educator violence, physical violence perpetrated by learners against educators was observed in all the participating schools. Survey results show that 22.4% (n=149) of the learner respondents saw an incident at school where an educator was threatened or physically assaulted by learners. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between where respondents live and the statement: “*You saw a learner physically threaten or assault an educator in the past 6-12 months*”, the results showing: ($\chi^2=11.351$), ($p=0.003$), Cramer’s $V (0.131)$. Township respondents 59.5% (n=88) were more likely to witness this behaviour and were more likely to agree with this statement than city/town/suburb respondents, namely 40.5% (n=60). The strength of the association is however small.

Participating educators themselves also reported instances when educators were assaulted or threatened with physical violence by learners. To support this view an educator said in this regard:

Even last year, last year when we were conducting an examination, one of the boys attacked one of the senior members who was working there with a brick and he threw a brick at that educators and then the educators blocked the brick with a broom stick and that brick broke into three pieces.

To corroborate the findings, a participating learner also reported an incident where an educator was physically assaulted by a learner. In this case the participant said: “*There is this girl in our class who hit educators... she hit an educator back. If she is not in class everyone is quiet, no fighting but when she is in class there is fighting.*”

With regard to this theme, the quantitative results are consistent with the qualitative findings. Physical violence perpetrated by both educators and learners is prevalent. The present study’s findings are consistent with the results of previous research that confirm that learners suffer physical violence at the hands of educators who are supposed to be protecting and promoting their rights (cf. De Wet, 2007b:683; De

Wet, 2007a:18; De Wet 2006:23). Although corporal punishment is banned in South Africa, it is common practice in most schools and is a reality for most learners (De Wet, 2006:181; Leoschut & Burton, 2006:67). Educators not only threaten learners with objects, but they resort to corporal punishment as a method of discipline (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:181).

Corporal punishment is also common in other parts of Africa despite the fact that it is outlawed. Out of a total of 54 African countries, it is outlawed in 21 countries, South Africa being one of them (Plan International, 2008:12). However, from a total of 197 countries that are monitored by the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 90 countries permit the use of corporal punishment. This is a result of ineffective enforcement of legislation and punishment of transgressors (Plan International, 2008:12).

Findings of a quantitative study show that one in 20 (5.8%) learners reported that they were physically assaulted at school by peers (Burton, 2008a:16). Burton (2008a:16) found that weapons such as guns and knives are easily available to learners. Furthermore, results showed that learners use utensils and stationery such as pens and scissors to commit assaults that often result in serious injuries. Burton and Leoschut (2013:15) also found that 6.3% of learners were physically assaulted at school by peers.

Sub-theme 2.4: Sexual violence

Over and above emotional, verbal and physical violence, sexual violence is also prevalent in the participating schools. In this study, learner respondents were asked if they had seen another learner being sexually molested by an educator. Results indicate that 6.2% (n=41) of the respondents said that they know of a learner who was sexually molested by an educator whilst the majority 67.2% (n=446) did not know of any learner that was sexually molested by an educator. In addition, 2.9% (n=19) said they were personally sexually molested by teachers whilst a majority 91.3% (n=605) said they were never sexually molested by a teacher. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association

between race and the statement: “*You saw a learner who was sexually molested by a teacher*”, the results showing: ($\chi^2=25.474$), ($p=0.002$), Cramer’s $V(0.140)$. A higher percentage of black learners 90.0% ($n=36$) indicated that another learner was sexually molested by a teacher as compared to Indian learners 7.5% ($n=3$) and coloured learners 2.5% ($n=1$). Furthermore, learners living with single parents 46.2% ($n=18$) were significantly more likely to witness this behaviour than those living with parents or grandparents 43.6% ($n=17$), the results showing: ($\chi^2=25.360$), ($p=0.001$), Cramer’s $V(0.140)$. The strength of the association is however small.

In contrast to the quantitative data, findings from the qualitative segment of the study reveal the extent of sexual violence that is perpetrated by educators. Learner participants in three of the five schools that participated in the focus group interviews accused educators of perpetrating sexual violence against girl learners. Some of these incidences were reported as rumours whilst some were factual. The following statement by a learner expresses this uncertainty:

There are rumours of educators sleeping with students, but these are just rumours we don’t know anything about that we have never seen it, we just heard from our friends maybe they heard from friends.

On the contrary, the factual report that some educators perpetrate sexual violence was confirmed by a learner in one school who said: “*There is an educator who likes to look at girls’ bums. We can’t even concentrate because he was like staring at us.*”

Another learner in the same group elaborated as follows: “*He masturbates in class. I won’t say the name, but there is an educator who is masturbating and he looks at girls bums, breasts, everything.*” According to the researcher, it is probable that the participant wanted to say the educator was aroused and does not know the exact meaning of masturbation or that she saw him rubbing himself in front of the learners.

Some sexual advances by educators towards learners were described by another participating learner in another school as follows: “*Some educators even touch girls’*

bums at school... there are some educators who say... 'You gonna come and visit me in my class' and all that stuff. 'Come and visit at break time.' They ask you on MXit, BBM and Facebook and all that stuff."

The researcher noted that the topic of sexual violence perpetrated by educators was avoided and was never discussed during the focus group discussion with educators. The researcher observed that some educators were uncomfortable discussing this topic through their body language. Perhaps the educators thought the researcher was trying to catch them out or expected them to reveal what they do not want to talk about. This was however not the case but as a result, the researcher did not probe any further.

Instead, an educator participant revealed another form of sexual violence between learners as follows: *"Sexual harassment and remarks maybe but molestation no."* She continued to say, *"The one I handled is physically touching, a guy...a boy touched a girl on the stairs inappropriately."* The touching and passing of sexual remarks was corroborated by another educator as follows: *"I do agree with both participants, but you do get other forms of sexual abuse... Yes including touching and passing of sexual remarks."*

Sexual violence between learners was also reported in all the participating schools. A total of 25.3% (n=168) of the respondents know of a learner that was sexually molested by another learner. A Chi-square test for independence indicated an association between age with this following statement: *You saw an incident where another learner was sexually molested by another learner in the past 6-12 months*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=13.112$), ($p=0.041$), Cramer's $V=(0.100)$. The strength of the association is however very small. In addition, 10.3% (n=68) of the respondents reported they were sexually molested by another learner. However, a majority 85.8% (n=568) reported that they had never been sexually molested. The remaining 3.9% (n=26) of respondents did not reveal whether or not they were sexually molested by another learner.

The findings of the qualitative study contradict the quantitative results and reveal that sexual violence between learners is prevalent. Various forms of sexual violence were also revealed during the interviews with learners in all the five participating schools. A form of sexual violence that was identified in the participating schools involved forced kissing. A learner expressed this form of sexual harassment as follows: “*He tries to kiss you and if you refuse, If you refuse...he slaps you.*” The incidences of sexual abuse and unwanted touching by boys was also observed and confirmed by learners. A learner said “*Other boys they like to touch on our bums.*” Another learner concurred by saying:

They like to touch on a person and a person don't like it now they gonna be a big fight and stuff like that... eish! We don't want that stuff to happen eish!...They think a person who is small is gonna like it and won't stand up for himself [herself] and now they touch you and if when changing classes and you walk here they touch you on your bums and if you turn around ?, the fight starts.

There were, however, different opinions expressed by learners on the issue of sexual violence whereby some participating learners indicated that some girls seem to like it when boys touch them. This perception is reflected in the following statement:

I personally don't think it's something the girls will come out and say to the school because I have seen like most guys, let's say for example a guy touches a girl's bums most of the girls don't even mind. Yah so it's not something that is seen as abuse.

The learner continued to say:

Because you will find I experienced this on Friday and you will find like, I was sitting with one learner...and we were preparing for our lesson and then it was the second break

and then a guy comes up and smacks this other girl's bums and she just started laughing.

Another learner in the same group supported this statement by saying that girls who are sexually abused by boys will be looking for it because they touch boys in a sexual manner and expect the boys to touch them back or they do not dress properly, indecently exposing their bodies to others by stripping half naked in class. She explained as follows: *"I know that there are some like... they expose themselves in a sexual manner, they actually... they wanna be touched that way. They are asking for it."*

A participant learner supported this view as follows:

There was one day [neh...] there in the bottom in one class, then the children start to strip on the table... I bunked a class [neh...], I did it and I went upstairs, there was Afrikaans class, this one girl naked, standing on a table busy stripping, I am not lying, she is busy stripping for the whole boys.

The issue of some girls asking to be sexually harassed or raped raised some disagreement between the learners. Not all the participants agree that some girls enjoy being sexually harassed or touched inappropriately. They believe some girls pretend to be enjoying it because of peer pressure and fear of rejection and afterwards they feel bad. The learner described this as follows: *"There are some girls who do that just as something to hide but... they just pretend that they are happy but when they get home they stand in a mirror and don't like the picture they see."*

Another form of sexual violence depicted was that girl learners invite boys to engage in sexual intercourse and sometimes other boys take videos and send them around the school. This incident was revealed by a learner as follows:

Girls here they have problems by the school and then they call boys and they go and they tell the boy "I need

something”, obviously the boy knows and they take a video while “doing it” and they send it for the whole school and that child is a bitch of the school.

Such mixed reactions to sexual violence may create misperceptions that some girls invite boys and are asking to be sexually harassed. Learner participants indicated another form of sexual violence, namely that other learners peep through holes in the toilets when other children are using the toilets and this makes the girls uncomfortable. One learner explained how this happens as follows:

The thing on toilets even our toilets as girls neh ..., they have holes then boys look at our bums at the toilets and then they will go outside and tell their friends, its either they take a picture or they look at you.

Despite the perceptions that some girls like to be sexually harassed or inappropriately touched, the converged findings obtained from the educators and learners reveal that boy learners and male educators are perpetrators of sexual violence against girl learners in all of the participating schools. Based on figures and the statements above, there are few incidences of sexual violence cases perpetrated by educators against learners reported. The small number of reported cases is a confirmation of the report by Gevers and Flisher (2012:183) that many victims of sexual violence do not report due to fear or the belief that no one will believe them and nothing will be done to help them. In addition, this is due to the fact that only a small number of school principals report cases of sexual violence perpetrated by educators (Burton, 2008a:28). In a study in Lesotho, similar findings confirm that a small number (5.20%) of educators perpetrated sexual violence against learners (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:15; De Wet, 2006:23).

In another quantitative study conducted in Niğde Province in Turkey with 142 educators to determine the types, extent and causes of school violence and the perceptions of educators regarding methods of prevention, results revealed that sexual abuse or sexual harassment prevails at a rate of 15.5% (Yavuzer, Gundogdu

& Dikici, 2009:36). An exploratory study with 90 adolescent girls at three schools in Cape Town aimed at exploring Grade 12 learners' views and perceptions on gender-based violence and investigating the availability of intervention services for sexual violence reveal the extent to which girls and women are subjected to unsolicited and inappropriate touching, dehumanising remarks as well as threats or actual sexual violence (Mpiana, 2011:9994).

Of even greater concern regarding findings of this current study, is the perception that some girls ask for and like being sexually abused by the way they dress. In a study by De Wet et al. (2008:111), similar perceptions were reported that girls ask for it. Similarly, Mpiana (2011:9995) conducted a qualitative study with 90 adolescent girls on sexual violence at three schools in Cape Town, in which grade twelve learners debated and some participants questioned the behaviour of some of the victims and blamed the girls by alleging that they deserved to be abused. Similar literature does reveal that girls and women respond differently to sexual violence. Robinson (2012:81) found that some girls show delayed reactions whilst some may feel anger and shame or feel flattered by the attention from boys.

The other major concern prevailing from this study is sexual abuse of learners by educators. This was, however, not an issue that was discussed during the focus group discussions with educators, but was reported by learner participants. The link between avoidance to speak about the topic as an indication of the secrecy that surrounds the sexual abuse of learners by educators is supported by researchers. Devers et al. (2012:13) and UN General Assembly Report (2006:9) revealed that often the sexual violence by educators is concealed and shrouded by secrecy due to the fact that there are no safe or reliable methods for children to report anonymously. In this regard, Benbenishty and Astor (2008:73) state that when learners report that they are being bullied, school administrators turn a blind eye.

Other research studies have confirmed that the sexual exploitation of learners by educators is tolerated and condoned by adults when they are supposed to protect learners against sexual exploitation (Jones, Moore, Villar-Marquesz & Broadbent,

2008:23). In addition, Plan International (2008:25) and Caceva and Mirceva (2010:21) found that many cases of sexual violence against learners are often not reported and recorded. Furthermore, the studies showed that school administrators and some educators do not often condemn their colleagues' sexual exploitation of learners. In addition, the authors found that some parents from poor socio-economic background approve sexual relations between educators and their children.

According to Jones et al. (2008:23), studies in Africa show that some male educators exploit their positions and authority and take advantage of learners in exchange for pass marks whilst other educators justify their actions by claiming that learners wear provocative clothing. In another study, Maphosa and Mammen (2011:192) found that some educators use their position of power to threaten, harass, intimidate or blackmail learners to submit to their unacceptable motives and engage in sexual relations.

Sub-theme 2.5: Gang violence

Findings from the current study reveal that all but one of the participating schools experience gang violence whereby learners fight amongst themselves in groups. The fights can either be physical or just verbal. Participating learners revealed that there are gangs called "XXX" and the "XXX" [name concealed to protect the identity of the schools], having their names, signs and slogans written all over the walls in the toilets. Learner participants affirmed that the gang fights happen at least once or twice a month on Fridays after school on the way home. Such fights are so serious and life threatening to the extent that they even have to call the police to intervene.

Participating learners reported that the schools are not aware of such incidents of gang violence. A learner explained as follows:

Like this Friday, something happened in the school where the police were involved and the whole fight actually went from our school, from our gang to the town and other schools. There were at least 50 learners involved. So basically fights start outside the school and

misunderstandings happen and then it becomes a huge thing and on Fridays they meet up to sort an issue through physicality but there was a gun involved.

Results of the quantitative strand revealed the existence of gangs in schools. Respondents were asked if they had observed incidences of gang violence in school in the past 6-12 months and 44.8% (n=295) of the respondents had seen some learners engage in gang activities. A Chi-square test for independence did not indicate an association between age with this following statement: *You saw a learner engages in gang activities in the past 6-12 months*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=13.796$), ($p=0.032$), Cramer's $V (0.103)$. A total of 57.1% (n=168) older learners (15-16 year old) were more inclined to witness gang violence than a lesser 7.8% (n=23) group of younger (13-14 year olds); 33.3% (n=98) group of 17-18 year old; and 1.7% (n=5) group of the 19 & older learners. No other demographic variables were significantly related to this aspect. The strength of the association is however weak.

Gang violence is more prevalent in township, farm, informal settlements and other 54.6% (n=159) as compared to 45.4% (n=132) in city/town/suburb. Similar to other studies, Mncube and Madikizela-Madiya (2014:45) highlight that gangsterism is prevalent especially in the Western Cape and Limpopo Provinces. This finding confirms that gangsterism is an external factor that contributes to violence within the school context (Mncube & Madikizela-Madiya, 2014:45). The discussion of factors that contribute to the reasons why learners join gangs are beyond the scope of this study. It suffices to say that school violence is linked to gang membership and that gang membership contributes to school violence and continues to disrupt teaching and learning (Gevers & Flisher, 2012:180).

Sub-theme 2.6: Property violence

Vandalism and graffiti were also reported to be common at all the participating schools. Based on the qualitative findings, educator participants revealed that learners who are angry with their educators vandalise the cars of educators, school property or write nasty things about the educators on desks or walls in the toilets. A

common phenomenon is to use sharp unknown objects to vandalise educators' or the schools' property as a way to get back to educators who reprimand them.

This type of violence was confirmed by an educator as follows:

That seems to be a common thing even here at school when you scold a learner or reprimand him... when you go to your car you find that your car is scratched or they went to your car and let the air out of tyres ...[yah] the air, [mmm...]... the air of the tyres.

Another educator related an incident which happened outside the school whereby sharp unknown objects were used to scratch the body of his car and damage the car's tyres as follows:

They kicked, it happened at an awards giving function, where they broke all my ... (not audible) and the brake lights at the back, plastic lights they broke and somebody took a nail or a screw driver and scratched my bakkie [car] from back right round and that was done.

From the quantitative results, only 16.0% (n=106) of the respondents know of educators whose personal property was damaged by learners. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between sex and the statement: *An educators' personal property was damaged or vandalised by a learner in the past 6-12 months*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=7.823$), ($p=0.020$), Cramer's V (0.1095). Female learners were more inclined to observe such behaviour. A total of 58.5% (n=62) of the female learners and 41.5% (n=44) of male learners answered yes to this question. The strength of the association is however weak.

Findings from the study further showed that vandalism is not only directed at the educators, but to the learners as well. Participating learners revealed that some learners write bad things, accusing others of wrong-doings or implicating innocent

learners in the graffiti messages that are splashed all over the walls for other learners to see. A learner explained as follows:

They write things and pretend you wrote it. I am talking from experience. They framed me last week. They wrote... I am sick and tired of sleeping with you, you do not satisfy me any more. I heard you are cheating with another girl.

According to the participant, such behaviours are not only emotionally abusive to the victim, but also contribute to fights and/or revenge which escalates into serious incidences of violence. The study's findings also indicate vandalism or property violence as another form of violence experienced by learners and educators. The findings are consistent with existing literature. Ncontsa and Shumba (2013:6) and Thawabeih and Ahmad Al-rofo (2010:5) describe vandalism as a form of aggressive behaviour towards individual learners, school or staff property and manifests in behaviours such as writing on walls, desks or burning, breaking and damaging property.

Sub-theme 2.7: Cyber violence

Qualitative findings reveal that some learners use cell-phones and a website called "Outoilet" and other internet sites to insult and humiliate each other. This technology is free for anyone to anonymously post anything including uploading pictures. The danger with such a platform is that people can manipulate and accuse each other of wrongful doings, say bad and cruel things about others. This sinister behaviour can escalate into violence where innocent people are wrongfully accused.

A learner explained as follows:

These websites they have got categories. If you go to Pretoria, you can go to high schools, primary schools and then mention your school and you can talk about your school but without anybody knowing that it's you. Yah they couldn't trace who is saying what. So some people pretend to be

somebody and post something and sign off so now people are being framed and that causes conflict and it becomes a physical fight where the wrong person is blamed.

Based on the quantitative results, it can be deduced from the study's results that almost half of the respondents 46.4% (n=307) had seen another learner being emotionally abused via the use of cellphone or internet to post humiliating pictures or messages whilst another 12.5% (n=83) respondents were actual victims of cyber violence. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between age and the statement: "*Another learner was emotionally abused by another learner using the cell phone or internet to post humiliating pictures or messages*", the results showing: ($\chi^2= 18.126$), ($p=0.006$), Cramer's V (0.117). Older learners were more inclined to observe such behaviour. A total of 40.8% (n=125) of the learners between ages 17 and 18, 49.0% (n=150) of those between ages 15 and 16, answered yes to this question. Some 7.5% (n=23) of those between ages 13 and 14 years old and 2.6% (n=8) of those 19 & older also observed cyber violence perpetrated against another learner. The strength of the association is however weak.

A significant relationship was also found between age and the statement: "*You were emotionally abused by another learner who used the cell phone or internet to post humiliating pictures/messages or spread rumours about you*", the results showing: ($\chi^2=17.531$), ($p=0.009$), Cramer's V (0.115). Older learners were more inclined to be emotionally abused through the use of a cell phone or internet. Some 48.2% (n=40) between the ages 17 and 18 had experienced this, as opposed to 41.0% (n=34) of respondents between the ages 15 and 16. Additionally, a smaller number, 7.2% (n=6) of those 19 & older and 3.6% (n=3) of those between the ages 13 and 14 answered yes to this question. The strength of the association between the two variables is however small.

Race showed a significant relationship to emotional abuse using the cellphone or internet being the case with regard to personal experience ($\chi^2=19.091$), ($p=0.007$), Cramer's V (0.122), between other learners ($\chi^2=20.934$), ($p=0.002$), Cramer's V (0.127) or with educators as a target ($\chi^2=27.822$), ($p=0.000$), Cramer's V (0.147). Black respondents 87.3% ($n=69$) were slightly more inclined to experience these occurrences as compared to 8.9% ($n=7$) Indian and 3.8% ($n=3$) coloured learners. However, all effect sizes were small.

The current study revealed that cyber violence is also perpetrated against educators, whereby learners who are upset with educators can insult and humiliate them on Facebook and other social networks or digital platforms. This cyber violence practice was confirmed by an educator who said in this regard: "*Even beyond that if they are upset with you at the school they put you on Facebook they make funny remarks and insults.*"

This statement was confirmed by another educator as follows:

If you carry a stick like here and go to class you might appear on Facebook or on twitter with that stick which was not working to hit anybody and if people see, they approach the Department of Labour and ask questions. You will get a lot of these incidences.

Findings of the current study reveal some incidences of cyber violence perpetrated against both learners and educators by other learners. The findings are consistent with other studies. Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho, Fisher, Russell and Tippett (2008:336) show that the prevalence of cyber violence is increasing due to access of information and communications technology (ICT) among young people. The findings confirm the results of other research studies. For example, in a study conducted by Burton and Mutongwizo (2009:5) with 1,726 young people in four South African cities to explore the prevalence and types of cyber violence, almost half of the young people surveyed indicated that they had experienced some form of cyber violence.

Furthermore, Popovac and Leoschut (2012:1) and Burton and Mutongwizo (2009:5) demonstrate that South Africa has become the fourth largest mobile market in the world and one of the highest in Africa. The authors estimated that 99% of the population own a cellphone, with an increased use of the ICT by young people. As a result of this growth, cyber violence among young people is on the increase. Miller and Hufstedler (2009:2) confirm that with recent technological advancement, cyber violence is perpetrated through the use of social media platforms to instigate violence and inflict emotional harm. Robinson (2012:7) state that the danger with this type of violence is that it is done anonymously. Twyman, Saylor, Taylor and Comeaux (2010:195) and Hinduja and Patchin (2010:615) add that information is spread quickly and widely. As a result, victims suffer tremendous emotional trauma.

Theme 3: Causes of violence

For the survey research, learners were asked about the causes of school-based violence. A list of causes of school-based violence was identified by the respondents as indicated in Figure 5.4 below.

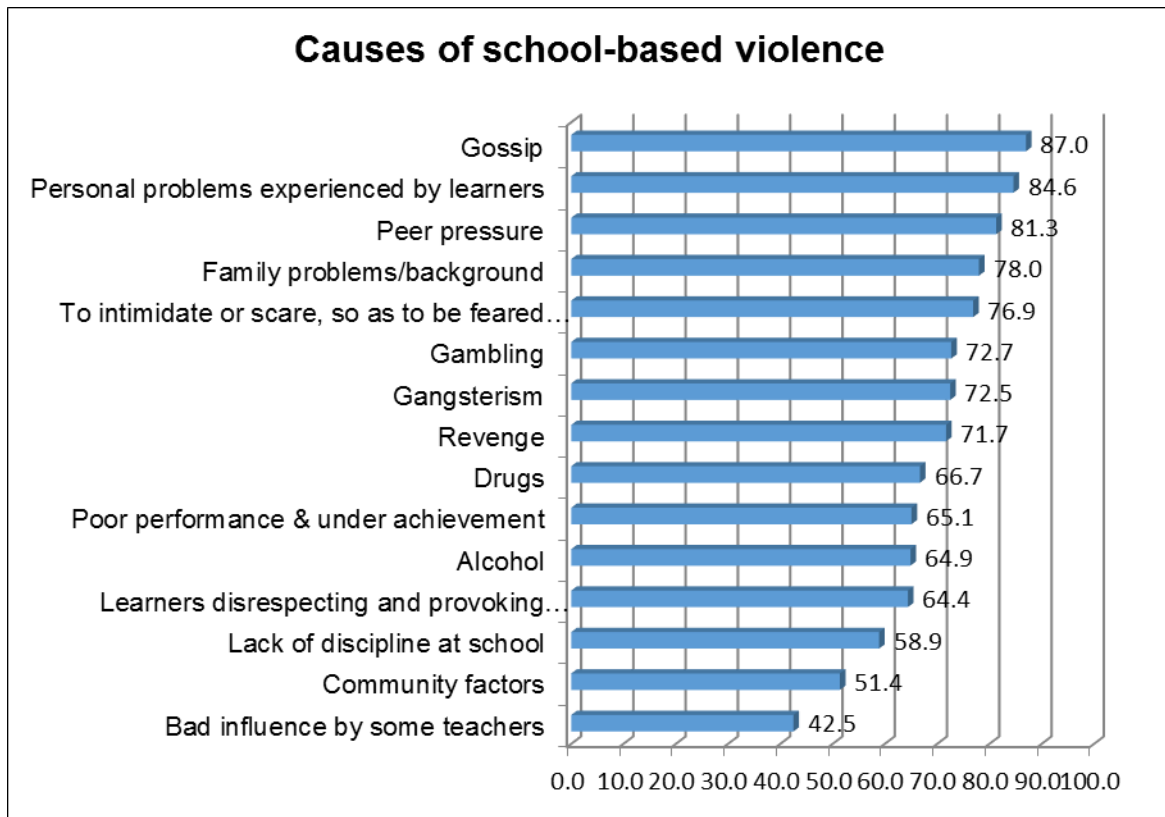


Figure 5.4 Causes of school-based violence (n=677)

Figure 5.4 above indicates that the quantitative results are consistent with the qualitative findings. Participants identified several factors that contribute to school-based violence. Different causes were identified as causes of learner-on-learner violence. In the same vein, different factors were identified as causes of educator-on-learner violence and learner-on-educator violence. These contributory factors included learners' indiscipline, family-related factors, personal problems experienced by learners, poverty, gossip, peer pressure and status, to intimidate, provocation and revenge, gangsterism, gambling, alcohol and drugs, poor academic performance, lack of discipline, unprofessional behaviour of educators, racism and prejudice and community-related factors. These causes are next discussed as sub-themes.

Sub-theme 3.1: Learners' indiscipline

The qualitative findings complement the quantitative to indicate that indiscipline is a contributory factor to school-based violence. Both sets of participants (learners and educators) in the focus group discussions identified lack of discipline on the part of

learners as one of the causes that contribute to school violence. As indicated by survey results, 58.9% (n=649) of the respondents regarded indiscipline as one of the causes of school-based violence. A continuity correction test indicated a significant association between grade and the statement: *“Lack of discipline is one of the causes of school-based violence”*, the results showing: (Continuity Correction=15.421), ($p=0.001$), (Φ Coefficient=0.055). Grade 10 learners were more inclined to observe such behaviour. Out of a total of 340 respondents, a total of 61.5% (n=209) of the grade 10 learners and 56.1% (n=160) of grade 9 learners answered yes to this question. The strength of the association is however weak.

During the focus group discussion, some learners referred to indiscipline as corruption. In this regard, learners explained that this corruption as learners disrespecting, verbally attacking and insulting educators, bunking classes and not obeying rules by smoking inside the school premises.

A learner participant said:

Yes, other children are rude to the educators. The new educators cannot really do anything because look now, you are 15 or 16 and you find the educators is 26 and if the educators talks the students they gonna start and say... What are you telling us?...In our school especially boys when the educators walks, they are looking at the educator's bums and they are saying....

Educators also revealed that learners attack them due to indiscipline and misbehaviour in class. An educator explained an incident as follows:

The other day the learner had a confrontation with an educator and the other educator was trying to tell the learner not to exchange words with the educator and the learner said... ‘I am not talking to you I was talking to this one’ [pointing a learner]. You know something like that and then you only find that the learner is friends with

some other educators and the learner feels he is now equal with educators.

To confirm this finding, an educator supported this view as follows:

Since I am new the first thing I observed about these kids is that they have no respect, they do not know the boundaries. Sometimes they come and sit on our tables and do whatever noise and all that. When you say no don't do that it's my table. They don't stop. Verbal communication is a waste of time.

This research finding is consistent with the observations by Maphosa and Shumba (2010:395) and Ncontsa and Shumba (2013:12) that indiscipline contributes to dangerous and unsafe schools, creates chaos, thus rendering the school environment not conducive to teaching and learning.

Sub-theme 3.2: Family-related factors and poverty

Another contributory factor that was identified by both the learner and the educator participants is the breakdown of the family system due to modernisation, moral degeneration, lack of discipline and domestic violence. The study found evidence of parents' inability to discipline their children and family discord in the following remark by an educator:

We actually had a case this morning of a learner who was absent from school for three weeks. I phoned the father and his response was: Maam...you know I just don't know what to do. The mother and sister decide in the house and what can I do.

Similarly another educator remarked on parents' inability to discipline their children by saying:

Parents expect educators to discipline their children. Yesterday the parents of a boy said: Look, I give you

permission to hit this one, you must hit this one. You know in our time you used to hit us and we were listening.

Different views were evident from the participating learners who expressed mixed views about whether dysfunctional families lead children to engage in violent activities. On the contrary, during the focus group discussions, only one learner said that family background is just used as an excuse and it is not a cause for violence. Another learner in the same group disagreed saying that despite it being used as an excuse it can also be a contributory factor to school violence. The learner explained as follows:

I think to be honest, even though some kids use it as an excuse, of course some kids use it as an excuse. But I think there are kids that come from such environments because I remember I used to see this in primary school where I knew a guy who actually become nasty to people. He formed some silly gang and they basically vandalise some people's property and so forth and only to find out that at the end of the year when they actually went deeper into his background and so forth they found out that he was being abused at home by all his siblings and so forth. He had burn marks on his body that people didn't see, he was burnt with an iron and beaten. In his way that was the way of retaliating and expressing himself to other people.

A similar finding was evident from the focus group interviews with educators. An educator confirmed this view as follows:

You know many of them are from broken homes so I mean how can we expect them to trust us and open up and see us as parent figures to them in school situations when their own parents aren't even parents for them. You see, because a lot of our kids are either physically abused by their parents; anything of that line from broken homes,

some are living with the aunt, some are living with the sister/brother you know stuff like that. So we have kids from broken homes who do not know what is a stable home.

There was convergence between the qualitative and quantitative data sets. The majority, 78.0% (n=634) of the learners identified family issues as a contributing factor to school violence. A continuity correction test indicated a significant association between grade and the statement: *“Family problems are some of the causes of school-based violence”*, the results showing: (Continuity Correction = 9.375), ($p=0.025$), (*Phi Coefficient*= 0.055). Grade 10 learners were more inclined to observe such behaviour. A total of 82.0% (n=271) of the grade 10 learners and 74.1% (n=207) of grade 9 learners out of a total of 478 respondents answered yes to this question. The strength of the association is however weak.

As evident from above, the current study reveals those family factors that contribute to school-based violence. These findings are in line with Narsee’s (2013:5) observation that South African families are experiencing a crisis of family disintegration and moral decay which presents in a form of indiscipline, crime, rape, school violence, vandalism and corruption. According to Narsee (2013:5), the outcome of such family dysfunction is that children lack proper socialisation, guidance and supervision which can lead to antisocial behaviour and a culture of violence.

Furthermore, Bender and Emslie (2010:191) found that family-related factors affect the individual learner’s socio-emotional development and behaviour at school. Cowie and Jennifer (2012:15) report that harsh or inconsistent discipline and lack of supervision contribute to school violence. The authors state that a lack of warmth and caring attitude, lack of communication between parents and children, family violence, family drug and alcohol abuse, involvement in criminal activities, low socio-economic status, and lack of interest in children’s education also contribute to school-based violence. Rogers (2013:299) affirms that family conflict, lack of family

support and discipline, all contribute to violence. It is evident from the above that the family as a socialising unit, is one of the systems that contributes to school-based violence. However, it is the family in interaction with the context in which they exist that contributes to school violence.

Sub-theme 3.3: Poverty and community factors

Based on the qualitative findings of the study, educators said that poverty causes malnutrition which subsequently leads to agitation and irritation in class. One educator explained as follows:

Malnourishment...I would say because many times here there are kids who only eat at night they don't get something to eat. Some kids here go three days without food, and if they have food it can also be food that's off, you know, not healthy food. A lot of the kids here also, get tuck shop money and that's the food they have for the day, then they buy the pie and cool drink and that's the food they have for the day. They don't get any food when they get home or before school and nothing and if you think of a pie and coke for a daily meal, that's all. Its malnourishment, they don't get healthy food.

When the researcher probed further, she linked poverty and violence as follows
“Violence? Well you don't eat healthy... how do you feel afterwards? If you eat unhealthy you are, how do you say that? You are easily irritated and agitated.”

Participating educators also said that poverty causes depression and that most families in poor communities experience social problems and engage in such antisocial behaviours as muggings, theft and robbery, and that such antisocial behaviours result in violent episodes. An educator explained as follows:

“As a result of the inability to meet their needs, some learners act aggressively toward other learners or they steal from each other which ultimately cause fights.”

This factor was confirmed by another educator in the following words: *“Stealing from one another, particularly cellphones and calculators in the school and then if this one realises that this one has stolen from him then they start fighting.”*

Based on the quantitative results, 51.4% (n=640) of the learners identified poverty in the community as contributing to school violence. However, a divergence was noted. Some focus group learners did not agree that poverty contributes to violence. Some participants thought that most learners who are violent come from economically sound, loving and stable families.

The following statement reflects a learner’s views:

But ma’am I personally think that most of the kids here at school they don’t come from underprivileged backgrounds because okay sometimes when, okay for example the XXX [name of gang concealed to protect the identity of the school], if you see them in the morning when they come with their parents it’s this sweetest angel. They get anything they want, their clothing, they are so nice but then they tend to lose it.

There is coherence between the quantitative and qualitative findings regarding poverty and community-related factors as conditions that contribute to school-based violence. However, there were some disagreements between learners on this issue. Despite the disagreements, the majority of participating learners and educators agree that poverty and community factors contribute to school-based violence. These findings of the current study are consistent with other studies. Leoschut et al. (2011:10) have identified a link between poverty and other forms of violence. Similarly, Foster (2012:45) confirms that poverty and income inequality contributes to rates of violence. In addition, Morrell et al. (2012:119) found that youth from low income families have limited means to affirm their identities and often engage in violence to compensate for lack of access to resources and opportunities.

To place this view in proper perspective, Wilkinson (2005:131) argues that experiencing poverty or disadvantage does not influence violence, but inequality contributes to violence and antisocial behaviour. In the same vein, Chaux et al. (2009:521) add that children from lower socio-economic status lack access to resources and fashionable trends and are excluded. Thus they may engage in violence to compensate for their inadequacies.

Twemlow and Sacco (2012:8) assert that poverty has many dimensions and should be separated from dysfunction. The authors argue that violence is perpetuated by structural inequalities that include lack of access to opportunities and resources that exacerbate socio-economic inequalities and social exclusion. Furthermore, Hong and Espelage (2012:35) and McGrath and Akoojee (2007:422) agree that poverty does not directly cause violence. The authors argue that inequality and lack of access to opportunities cause violence.

Twemlow and Sacco (2012:18) argue that school violence does not only occur in disadvantaged and poor families or communities. The authors argue that children from affluent families feel privileged and protected; they have access to the means to satisfy their needs and desires without limits. As a result, they behave as they please and are likely to act violently at school (Twemlow & Sacco, 2012:18). Despite the difference of opinion, both strands of data agree that lack of access to resources and opportunities create inequality which ultimately contributes to school violence perpetrated by learners who feel excluded or inferior to their privileged counterparts.

Sub-theme 3.4: Peer pressure and status

Quantitative results reveal that 81.3% (n=632) of the learners identified power and status as a cause of school-based violence whilst another 76.9% (n=633) believed learners engage in violence to intimidate other learners and be feared. A continuity correction test indicated a significant association between sex and the peer pressure as one of the causes of school-based violence, the results showing: (*Continuity Correction* = 3.988), $p=0.046$), (*Phi Coefficient* = 0.084). Female learners 84.4% (n=275) were more inclined to cite such behaviour as compared to 77.8% (n=231)

males. Similarly, A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between language and the statement: “Peer pressure is one of the causes of school-based violence”, the results showing: ($\chi^2=5.101$), ($p=0.024$), Cramer’s V (0.109). Sepedi/Setswana learners were more inclined to observe such behaviour. A total of 81.8% (n=185) of the Sepedi/Setswana-speaking learners and 85.5% (n=154) of English and Afrikaans-speaking learners answered yes to this question. The strength of the association is however weak.

Similarly, qualitative findings reveal that some learners are influenced by friends to get involved in violence because they want to be seen as the cool ones and to be in the “top ten”. It was revealed by participating learners that some learners harass other learners to impress their peers, get recognition, satisfy their personal egos and boost their reputation. A learner remarked as follows:

Sometimes you find I speak to you and you walk into a group of friends who provoke you, so you as an individual you might want to ignore it and your friends will say: Are you gonna let him say that to you?..... Are you gonna let him say that to you? Then you are forced to do something and then it turns into a big issue.

Educators shared the same view as the learners. This view is reflected in the following statement by an educator:

I think teenagers who... everybody wants to prove a point, everybody wants to create a name for themselves, as a result they fight to get the kind of recognition they want. Everybody wants to be known as that boy... so and so... who is being feared by everybody. To create that kind of name and that image, they feel that they need to go out and do it in violent ways.

However, a divergence was noted between the findings. Two contributory factors were identified but these were never discussed in focus group interviews with both learners and educators. A total of 84.6% (n=639) respondents identified personal problems experienced by learners whilst 65.1% (n=633) said poor academic performance and under-achievement contribute to school violence. It is probable that learners who experience stress will perform poorly. This poor academic performance then places pressure on them to compete for recognition. As a result, they will compensate for their poor academic performance by being violent and aggressive.

The above converged findings reinforce the view that the peer group has a direct and indirect influence on misbehaviour and causes some youth to engage in undesirable behaviour to fulfil a need to belong and avoid being rejected (Lassiter, 2009:31). Marais and Meier (2010:45) concur and state that school violence is caused by the individual's need to belong and the need for authority, status and power.

Sub-theme 3.5: Provocation and revenge

According to the findings in this study, another cause of violence is provocation. Both learners and educators believe some learners engage in violence to retaliate and for revenge, especially when they are provoked. Based on the quantitative results, 71.7% (n=626) of the learners identified revenge as a cause of violence and another 87.0% (n=660) identified gossip as a cause of school-based violence. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between sex and the statement: *"An educators' personal property was damaged or vandalised by a learner in the past 6-12 months"*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=7.823$), ($p=0.020$), Cramer's V (0.1095). Female learners were more inclined to observe such behaviour. A total of 58.5% (n=62) of the female learners and 41.5% (n=44) of male learners answered yes to this question. The strength of the association is however weak. The younger learners were more likely to mention revenge as a cause of violence in schools, the results showing: ($\chi^2=9.956$), ($p=0.019$), Cramer's V (0.126). About 21.8% (n=49) of learners between 13 and 14 years mentioned revenge as a cause, followed by 56.1% (n=251) of learners between 15 and 16

years and 30.1% (n=135) of those between 17 and 18. As far as race is concerned, more Black learners 69% (n=325) were most likely to mention revenge as a cause of violence, the results showing: ($\chi^2=18.517$), ($p=0.030$), Cramer's V (0.137). Although there was a marginal difference between city dwellers (n=234) than those in townships (n=211) with regard to mentioning revenge and intimidation, these differences were too small to be practically meaningful.

To confirm the findings in this regard, learners revealed that some learners tease each other, talk badly about others and this makes some of them angry which leads to fights. A learner revealed an incident where a learner was provoked to an extent that she retaliated. The learner said:

Yes, it happened in our class then the bully did it to another girl and the bully thought the girl was gonna keep quite. I don't know what the bully said to that girl and that girl then back chat and she was like.... Tshweni, tshweni... [Calling her monkey]. Every day she called her monkey and the girl said she won't answer back and the bully said she was a coward. And one day that girl was fed up and hit the bully.

There was consistency with what the learners said. Educators agreed that some learners engage in violence when they are provoked. One educator said: *"I think sometimes children provoke each other, they really provoke each other with the name-calling and all other things that they do"*.

The findings of the current study link school-based violence with provocation and revenge. The results are consistent with other studies. Weatherby, Strachila and McMahon (2010:3) and Bester and du Plessis (2010:209) confirm that learners who are bullied resort to shootings as a way of revenge. Furthermore, SACE (2011:26) adds that male learners engage in violence because of the pressure to be seen as brave.

Sub-theme 3.6: Gambling

Gambling was identified by some educators and learners as one of the contributing factors to school violence. Learners in the three schools reported that there are places in the school premises where learners congregate during break to smoke cigarettes and gamble. According to learners the places are called 'XXX', 'XXX' and 'XXX' [names concealed to protect the identity of the schools] respectively. A learner said: "*They gamble at the placed called XXX*". An educator affirmed and said: "*You know of the squabbles that emanate from gambling... because the school of gambling will always be there and active participation is experienced there*".

To confirm that gambling contributes to school violence, the quantitative results reveal that 72.7% of the respondents agree that gambling is a big problem at their schools. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between race and the statement that gambling causes violence, the results showing: ($\chi^2=98.826$), ($p=0.000$), Cramer's V (0.393). About 82.4% ($n=28$) of coloured learners mentioned gambling, compared to 79.4% ($n=398$) of black and 30.5% ($n=29$) of Indian learners. Although learners in townships ($n=260$) were slightly more likely to mention gambling than learners who are living in the cities ($n=214$), the effect was practically very small. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a medium association between language and the statement that gambling causes violence.

The findings of the present study reveal a link between gambling and school violence. The converged results are compatible with a similar study on the association between gambling and conduct disorder conducted in the United States with adolescents and young adults. In this study, Welte, Barnes, Tidwell and Hoffman (2009:397) established that gamblers are at a higher risk for engaging in problematic and antisocial behaviours such as frequent bullying, fighting, using weapons, rape, stealing, vandalism and truancy. However, Bester and du Plessis (2010:224) assert that there is no clear evidence of any link between gambling and school violence.

Sub-theme 3.7: Alcohol and Drugs

Alcohol and drug abuse are major concerns in all the participating schools, usually leading to indiscipline and fighting. Quantitative results reveal that 64.8% (n=652) of the learners identified alcohol and 66.7% (n=653) identified drugs as contributing factors to school-based violence. Some of the common drugs mentioned are dagga, lance and nyaope [nyaope is a mixture of dagga, heroine and anti-retroviral drugs].

A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between race and the statement: *drugs are some of the causes of school-based violence*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=22.062$), ($p=0.000$), Cramer's V (0.186). Black and coloured learners were more inclined to observe such behaviour. A total of 69.2% (n=344) of the black learners and 79.4% (n=27) of the coloured learners answered yes to this question. The strength of the association is however weak.

To confirm, most learners in four out of the five schools that participated in the focus group interviews reported that learners come to school under the influence or bring drugs and alcohol. It was also revealed by learners in two schools that drugs are also sold in schools by learners who hide the drugs in their school ties or mix it with dough into cookies and sell them at school.

There were consistencies between these findings. An educator confirmed and reported as follows:

On Friday when the learners entered my class I smelt dagga and when I approached the culprits to say there is dagga they tried to be aggressive towards me. And it's not the first time when I met an incident like this. Usually we have suspects that are taking drugs when we confront them they become aggressive.

In addition, a learner said: *“Some are selling drugs here at school, dagga, and drugs and if you come into my territory, then there is a fight because I am selling at this corner in the school”*.

Furthermore, both learners and educators in two other schools said some people from the neighbourhood who are not learners collude with learners to gain entry into the school to sell drugs to school learners. The one educator said:

“We have children coming from outside jumping into the school causing havoc. They will be selling drugs. Where my class is situated, I’m faced with these things every day. People jump in and out, in and out and being a young woman I will not even try to stop it.”

Another educator added:

“Schools that are part of the community usually have a problem with drug abuse because it is so close some people just stand over the wall and pass it over... you know what I mean.”

Similarly, a learner said:

“But some of the children also allow it because they are calling their friends, people from outside and then there is people using drugs in the school and they bring the drugs, daggas - some children they are smoking and selling drugs here.”

It was also reported by some learners that in specific instances educators allow learners to smoke, or they ignore them and do not reprimand them and this makes it difficult for learners to be controlled and well behaved. They become disruptive and aggressive. An educator observed: *“Some educators sell cigarettes to the children. Some children smoke in class even when you say you cannot smoke in front of us, they tell us the door is open.”*

Another educator added:

“Some parents allow their children to smoke and drink alcohol and when they are caught, the parents cover up their children’s wrong-doing and indiscipline by denying

that their children are involved in drug abuse or they go to an extent of bribing officials in order that disciplinary procedures are not instituted.”

Although four out of five schools that took part in the focus group interviews identified alcohol and drugs as contributing factors to school violence, learners in the one remaining school had a different opinion and said the problem of drugs is prevalent but the rate is low at their school. Irrespective of the difference, easy access to drugs and alcohol fuels school-based violence. This current study's findings confirm previous research conducted by Maphosa and Mammen (2011:91) who revealed that many learners bring alcohol and drugs to school. These authors report that some infuse the drugs in juice or cookies or they smoke or drink on the way to school and attend classes whilst under the influence. It is when they are intoxicated that they become violent, aggressive, unruly, disruptive and/or disrespectful to peers and educators (Maphosa & Mammen, 2011:91). According to Burton and Leoschut (2013:54), schools are microcosms of communities and certain characteristics of communities such as access to weapons and drugs increase children's risk of violence.

Sub-theme 3.8: Unprofessional behaviour of educators

The behaviour of some educators has been identified as a contributory factor to school violence by both the educators and learners participating in this study. Based on the survey results, 42.5% (n=647) of the learners identified unprofessional behaviour of some educators as a contributory factor to school violence. The respondents said that some educators befriend learners, share cigarettes and smoke with learners during break or when learners bunk classes to go and smoke behind the classes. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between age and the statement: *“Educators cause school-based violence by behaving unprofessionally”*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=9.172$), ($p=0.027$), Cramer's V (0.119). About 51.6% (n=33) of learners between 13 and 14 years mentioned unprofessional behaviour of educators as a cause, followed by 38.6% (n=131) of learners between 15 and 16 years; 43.6% (n=95) of

those between 17 and 18; and 65.2% (n=15) of those 19 and above. The strength of the association is however weak.

When asked to identify actual incidents where they saw educators behave unprofessionally, 6.7% (n=44) saw an educator drink with or in front of learners and 45.8% (n=305) saw educators smoke in front of or with learners. The respondents further said the educators turn a blind eye and do nothing to discipline the learners. A Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between sex and the statement: *“Have you ever seen a teacher drink in front of or with learners”*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=9.047$), ($p=0.0109$), Cramer’s V (0.1179). Male learners were more inclined to observe such behaviour. A total of 9.5% (n=30) of the male learners and 4.2% (n=14) of female learners answered yes to this question. The strength of the association is however weak.

In addition, a Chi-square test for independence (with Pearson Chi-Square) indicated a significant association between sex and the statement: *“Have you ever seen a teacher smoke in front of or with learners”*, the results showing: ($\chi^2=20.282$), ($p=0.002$), Cramer’s V (0.125). More black 48.30% (n=246) learners were inclined to observe this behaviour. The strength of the association is however weak.

To confirm the results, during the focus group discussions, a participating learner said: *“Some learners steal items like memory cards and phones from each other and sell these items to educators who are willing to buy such stolen items”*.

The unprofessional behaviour of educators was confirmed by educators themselves. Participating educators at one school said that some educators become friends with learners and influence them negatively, to an extent that such learners become disrespectful toward other educators. An educator explained:

You know we are pointing out that the learners are to be blamed. There are educators who are also perpetrators who take a child and expose them to drugs and alcohol

and the educator is involved with the children, they are also part of the bringing of the alcohol. They allow it even in his classroom, the educators allows the children to smoke.

Overall, school-based violence is caused by multiple factors including the unethical behaviour of professional educators. The present study affirms findings from other studies indicating that the unbecoming, inappropriate and unprofessional behaviour of some educators contributes to indiscipline and school violence (De Wet, 2007a:21). In addition, Maphosa and Mammen (2011:191) found that educators who behave unprofessionally can make learners become rebellious.

Furthermore, results of a school violence survey presented at a SADTU Principals' seminar showed that sexual abuse, sexual assault and harassment of pupils by educators increased from 12 recorded incidents in 2012/2013 to 17 in 2013/2014, but decreased to 15 recorded incidents in 2014/2015. The greatest concern is the report by Mr Ngobeni, Head of Department in the Gauteng Department of Education, that some educators refer to their sexual relations with learners as "service benefits" (Louw, 2015c:2).

However, a divergence was noticed from the results relating to the behaviour of some educators and school culture. In the survey research, when respondents were asked about the school culture and learning environment, the individual responses on the school culture and learning environment revealed a different picture as indicated by Figure 5.5 and the summary given below:

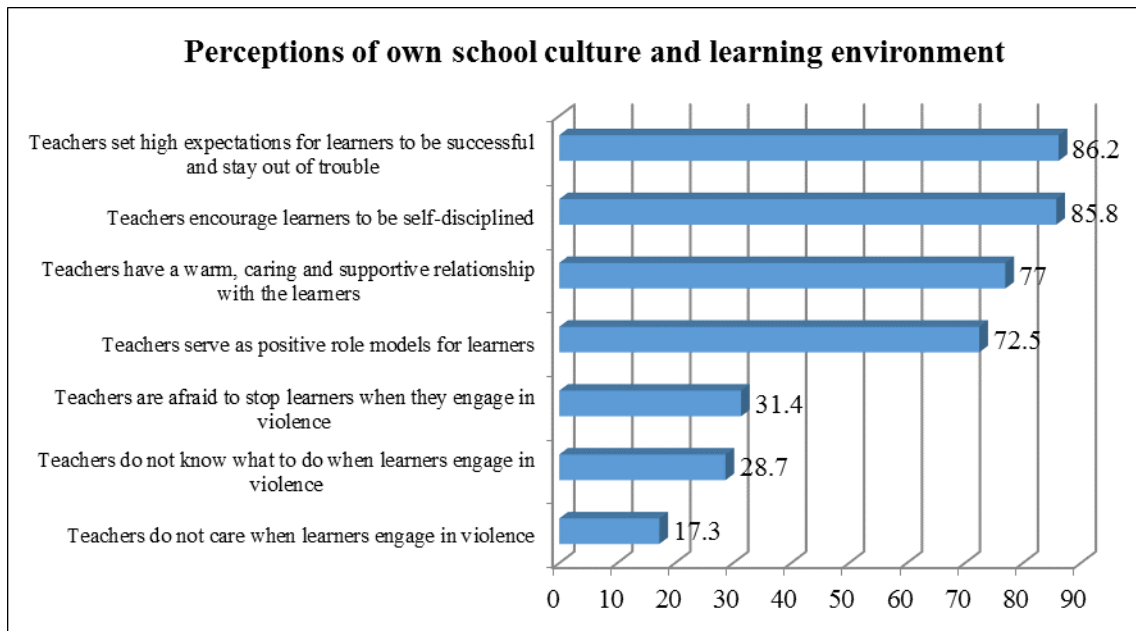


Figure 5.5 Perceptions of own school culture and learning environment (n=677)

Given these diverse observations, 86.2% (n=584) of the learners said educators set high standards for and expect learners to be successful and stay out of trouble. Another 85.8% (n=581) said educators encourage learners to be self-disciplined, whilst 77.0% (n=521) revealed that educators have a warm, caring and supportive relationship with the learners. 7.5% (n=51) of the respondents had a different view and said educators serve as positive role models; whilst 31.4% (n=213) said teachers are afraid to stop learners when they engage in violence. Another 28.7% (n=194) said teachers do not know what to do when learners engage in violence whilst a further 17.3% (n=117) said teachers do not care when learners engage in violence. Different learners have diverse perceptions and experiences about their school environment and the attitude of educators.

The divergence is supported by the researcher through the findings discussed above. To confirm, Furrer, Skinner and Pitzer (2014:105) show that some educators are dependable to such an extent that learners trust them and feel connected to them. According to the authors, such educators provide emotional support and set clear and reasonable expectations of behaviour.

Sub-theme 3.9: Racism and prejudice

Findings by participating learners in three out of the five participating schools that took part in the focus group interviews revealed that racism and prejudice is another source of physical fights among learners. At one school it was reported that coloured and black children discriminate against each other on the basis of race and that this can escalate into violence. A learner confirmed this potential conflict by saying: “Yes *it’s like there is racism in the school*”... *they think they are better than us because we are blacks and they teased me because of my surname*”.

Educators were also identified by participating learners as contributing to violence by perpetuating racism and discrimination. Learner participants noted that some educators tease children about their religion and ethnic origin. A learner explained as follows:

There is this one educator in the beginning of the year when we first went into his class it was like funny because he likes to make jokes but sometimes those jokes are just too personal. In the beginning it was quite funny but now it’s irritating because he does it to the same kids based on religion, where you come from, your race and skin colour. He doesn’t know the difference between where he is going right where he is going wrong and stuff like that. But he is also one of the hypocrites because once you attack him back he gets very sensitive. We have a case where one child was sick and tired of him and he came back and hit him hard with the things he had to say and that educator just lost control. He wanted that child out of that class. So he doesn’t know he can’t tell a fine line between right or wrong for certain things that he says.

To add, the participating learners said that one of their educators is prejudiced and has a tendency of generalising and classifying learners according to their ethnic grouping and there are always debates and fights amongst the learners on who

causes trouble in the school. One learner said: *“Our educators blame the Zulu-speaking learners as the ones causing indiscipline, fighting and disrespecting educators”*.

The issue of racism was not identified in the quantitative phase of the study. Racism was identified as being perpetrated by peers and educators against other learners. Convergence was only observed between what the learners said during the focus group interviews. This matter was not discussed during the interviews with educators. These findings are in line with existing studies which have revealed that issues of racial and ethnic diversity can contribute to violence when individuals of a different race feel disrespected. Moore et al. (2008:39) are of the view that violence is exacerbated when children are victimised by bullies because of their ethnicity. Further, the authors state that bullying is common in most schools that condone racial discrimination.

Twemlow and Sacco (2012:13) add that oppression by a dominant race causes violence. In another study exploring the dynamics of school violence in six provinces to elicit perceptions and experiences of learners, educators, other school personnel, parents’ school governing bodies, Mncube and Harber (2013:6) found that coloured and black parents and children held negative stereotypes about each other and that schools failed to address this phenomenon. According to the authors, these practices ultimately led to misunderstandings and violence.

Morrell et al. (2012:123-124) conducted a study at Chatsworth, Durban at Sunville Secondary School and found that Indian learners were hostile toward black learners because they feel threatened and experience distress as a result of the perceived upward mobility of Africans due to the social and economic opportunities and resources provided by the present democratic Government. According to Morrell et al. (2012:123-124) violence in this context is sparked by racial tension between Indians and blacks as a result of current affirmative action policies, fights over access to economic resources, and competition for employment opportunities.

The current study has demonstrated that school violence is caused by internal and external factors embedded in the individual, family, school, community and society at large. Cowie and Jennifer (2012:14) confirm that violence is an outcome of many factors that influence the behaviour of individuals to become aggressive. Educators, learners and community members are perpetrators of violence. Exposure to physical, verbal, emotional, sexual, cyber, gang or property violence has profound and long-lasting effects (UNICEF, 2011:34) and the impact of school violence, be it short-term or long-term, needs to be investigated so as to facilitate intervention strategies to diminish this scourge. The next section presents the findings on the impact that violence exerts on the individual learner, the educator and the teaching and learning environment.

Theme 4: Impact of violence

This section of the study was only investigated using the qualitative approach. Below is an integration of the findings from learners and educators. The qualitative findings revealed that violence has detrimental effects on the victim, the perpetrator, the bystander and on teaching and learning. The discussion below relates to findings about the impact of violence on the learners, educators and teaching and learning.

Sub-theme 4.1: Impact of violence on the learners

Findings from both learners and educators who participated in the study revealed various detrimental effects of school-based violence on learners. Some of the participants said that learners who are bullied feel bad, are frustrated and scared, feel negative about school and perform badly in class. The educators reported that as a result of school violence, learners end up not participating in class, not responding and not listening attentively. One educator explained as follows:

I think most in our situation the kids provoke each other and I think that's also bad, but there are kids that are - you know that are victors, the coolies and I think that affect them negatively emotionally in such a manner that they struggle to perform academically. It influences the academic results because if you look at some kids they

turn negative such that they can't focus in other classes. As soon as you talk to them they immediately feel that you are picking on them but it's not that you are picking at them but that's how a victim feels. They say...“They are always busy with me...they are always busy with me”. So I think they feel being picked on every time by everyone and I think that makes them so emotionally negative that they can't focus in class. They can't perform academically and most of all that also motivates bad behaviour on them as well.

Learners said that some learners become frustrated to the extent that they bunk school because they are afraid of aggressive and violent learners at school. Others said that some learners do not report incidences because they are scared the bully learners will continue to hit them if they do.

Some learners said that they feel frustrated and end up not wanting to talk about it because educators laugh at them when they report. Learners also said they feel helpless if there are no educators to stop the learners who cause violence. Additionally, learners in two schools reported that violence affects other learners to such an extent that they commit suicide. Learners in the two schools mentioned incidences where it was rumoured that learners killed themselves because they were bullied at school. The one learner said *“Yes they kill themselves. There was this girl, but not in our school, one day she told her mother and the mother did not go to the school so she killed herself.”*

Furthermore, findings revealed that some learners resort to retaliation when bullied. Other learners and educators reported that some learners are forced to retaliate when they are teased by other learners. An educator elaborated as follows:

I can think of an example where one learner was in trouble in the morning during line-up. He was speaking so his morning started bad already. So in the first or second

period his friends started to tease him about the incidence in the line-up and then a period further he acted out violently against one of the educators by saying things, no...no, not saying things, he actually slapped a girl because she was teasing him and he was suspended for that.

Some learners reported that some learners are not intimidated and they stand up for themselves when teased. A learner said:

You stand for yourself and just want to fight.... like for me if you bully me, there is this side of mine which no one wants to see. So when you gonna push me you gonna see that... So when you try to push me around or tease me I stay back. I stay back because I know myself what I can do. I don't wanna get into fights because I gonna injure someone very hard." ..."My friends if they are fighting I just tell them just cool down just leave the person to talk because me I like that, when someone is insulting me I just laugh and keep quiet because I don't want myself to get angry because I know if I can get angry when I fight with that person, I will fight and then I will never stop. So that's why when you are insulting me I just go so that I don't hear what you are saying.

Further, findings showed that some parents even remove their children from schools which have high rates of bullying. An educator said:

"We had instances where parents have removed their children out of the school purely because of harassing by a boy or girl. In more cases girls that were teased and bullied at school and the parent says: "Hey! I can't leave my child here let me...I rather remove the child and take the child to another school". This is happening."

Violence not only affects victims but also bystanders. Participating learners reported that violence affects learners who are not even involved in violence. They reported that in their school, some school learners who do well, who are in the top ten, are used to help disruptive learners catch up with work after they have missed classes due to suspension or being sent to rehabilitation for drug abuse. A learner said:

This programme which they tried to bring to the school where they take top ten learners from each grade and all the people who went to rehab... when they come back and they are weeks behind in school and they wanna take the people from the top ten and want to help them to catch up. I want to be honest... I disagreed and because it's inconveniencing, I have to study myself, I have to work hard myself but then my time is taken away because I have to help this other person. I see as helping somebody who doesn't wanna be helped.

The findings of this study regarding the detrimental effects of school violence on the victims and bystanders confirm the results of several studies. For example, Leoschut (2013:4) and Oosthuizen (2008:11) found that school violence may result in trauma that could affect cognitive development and functioning, may lead to inability to concentrate, sleep properly, or may result in depression, anxiety and suicide. Burton (2008a:2) and Burton and Leoschut (2013:91) concur that the effects of violence may result in long-term emotional, behavioural and educational outcomes that influence the victim's entire lifespan.

Sub-theme 4.2: Impact of violence on the educators

The findings from the current study revealed that violence has detrimental effects on educators as well. Participating learners and educators revealed that violence affects the educators' self-confidence and personal dignity. It was revealed that such violent behaviour creates negative attitudes towards uncooperative and disruptive learners. As a result, some educators ignore or expel the learner from their class. One educator explained as follows:

What I have realised is that it creates attitudes in the minds of educators and how they treat certain learners. If you know that this person is violent or they have tried to show you in one way or another that they are violent or they do not respect you..., you end up..., I think in my mind when I am faced with learners like that I have two choices. I can choose to ignore you and pretend as if you don't even exist in my class and already that has negatively, that has a negative impact on the results that we are going to produce as a class.

Another educator at the same school elaborated as follows:

I feel as educators we are powerless... as educators we are really powerless because there is not much we can do to the learners to change them. You can beat them you go to jail, you can't. Sometimes you think of other methods of punishing them, if you detain children, who are you really punishing, the children or yourself? Because detention means you have to sit down with them for that hour or three hours you are punishing them so you are also punished. So it's sad but you have to ignore certain children. But I think it works for the best because you are sure that you will go home safe unharmed and that you know you are able to work with the children that want to work with you.

A discrepancy between learners' responses revealed different views about the impact of violence on educators. Some learners said violence does not affect educators as much as it does learners because educators are used to it. The following statement reflects this view: *"I don't think so because they are already used to it; now they don't even care."* Contrary to that, other learners said violence does affect the educators such that it frustrates them to the extent that they become angry

and beat the children who are involved in violence. In support, a learner said: *“If it affects them, they don’t allow it. They call those children who are fighting and they will beat them.”*

Based on the educators’ views, some educators feel powerless and helpless. Educators said that the less experienced educators find it more difficult to cope and deal with the situation without any support from the school or officials from the Department of Education. The one educator expressed her frustrations as follows:

At the end of the day you feel like you... you come here, you are new into the teaching profession and you come to school and you find the children are fighting like this and these dramatic things which happen which am talking about it feels like you have been thrown into the deep end of the pool and you should swim. So you just need to fend for yourself somehow so that’s how it is.

In addition, educators also revealed that some educators lose respect from learners when they fail to control disruptive learners or those who bully others or answer back to their educators. These findings showed educators feel disrespected and embarrassed. Not only is their self-esteem affected, but also their standard and quality of teaching. An educator explained how school violence affects her as follows:

Before confrontation between the educator and learner of that nature, kids will be respecting you, you will be commanding a lot of respect. But after that kind of thing happens, so kids attempted to take advantage of that and when you lose respect and that grip you had over the learners. Also your teaching is also affected in terms of the fact that there will be disruptions in class.

Further findings indicate that educators feel unsafe in some of the schools, fearing for their own safety as some learners threaten them with physical assault. In this

regard, an educator said: *“No, I do not want to put my life at risk when there is a fight. I just watch because the Department of Education will not support you if you are hurt. Rather the children “kill” each other and not me.”*

In addition, it was reported that violence contributes to the use of corporal punishment. Some educators admitted to using corporal punishment as it is the only thing that works in cases when indiscipline has gone to the extreme. One educator said: *“There is no other training and it results in a lot of educators being expelled... those who use corporal punishment even now there are cases where educators are fed up. They don’t know what to do anymore.”*

The results on the impact of violence on educators are consistent with other studies’ findings which revealed that violence creates unsafe schools and threatens the lives of both educators and learners (Maphosa & Shumba, 2010:388). The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (2005:10) established that some educators change schools, or leave the profession whilst some are more likely to retire early. Moreover, Le Roux and Mokhele (2011:324) found that school-based violence results in educators’ absenteeism, or unpreparedness and lack of motivation. Such behaviours have unintended but detrimental outcomes on the quality of education. To add, Louw (2015a:2) revealed that incidents of violence, drug abuse, theft, bullying and the use of offensive language create a climate of distrust and fear in schools. Thapa, Cohen, Higgins-D’Alessandro and Guffey (2012:6) argue that feeling safe in school is critical for effective teaching and learning.

Sub-theme 4.3: Impact of violence on the culture of teaching and learning

Findings from both educators and learners demonstrate that violence disrupts teaching and learning. Participating educators reported that vital teaching and learning time is lost as educators try to control learners who are disruptive, uncooperative and violent. Consequently, this has a negative effect on the overall pass rate of the school. An educator stated:

[Ehe]... whatever has happened in class, the confrontation or whatever. It means the whole of that

period you will not be teaching. You will be lashing out, so you will be saying whatever... you know.... taking it out to the whole class. So it means if it's a double period the whole one hour is lost on that day as long as you are still angry. Even if the other class comes you will be telling them and telling them (claps hands). So really it does affect teaching and learning.

Another educator supported this view and explained as follows:

Can I too say, I agree with ...But at the same time it's very negative on our teaching because the experience in one day it puts off all the other time you teach because you end up judging, you end up criticising and saying what?... I am not gonna do anything because if I work with a bunch that wants to work, the bunch that being the rascals and the bullies and the ones that are fighting... they come and mess up with these kids that you are working with, and then at the end of the day you say... What are you fighting for?.

The learner participants said that learners who disrupt class affect the standards and quality of teaching as well as the overall performance of the school in the region and nationally.

A learner said:

I think in school there is a lack of discipline because you find that others wanna learn and the others are busy talking and there is so much disruptions in class, so I think that's why we cannot be high in Gauteng or Pretoria as the best school because we lack discipline in the school.

Moreover, findings revealed that some educators stop teaching. This was confirmed by learners during the focus group interviews who noted that school-based violence affects teaching since some educators just ignore the class and do not teach. A learner said:

“Sometimes the educators refuse to teach because certain, the majority in the class did not do the home work and things they are supposed to do, it’s noisy, they are disruptive and sometimes the educators just give up and say...” [The learner shrugs her shoulders].

In support, another learner added what happens if a teacher is distracted from teaching by violence by saying:

Some educators leave the class and when you look at subjects, it is Mathematics and she just leaves and you have to follow her and persuade her and she tells you that she does not care at the end of the month she gets her money. Sometimes the educators just ignore us as a class and then leaves for a week or two and they don’t teach us.

Educators reported that violence not only affects teaching and learning in dysfunctional schools, but schools with proper discipline systems are also affected. For example, the findings show that schools with well developed and implemented code of conduct system, the grade coordinator of the class where an incident of violence occurred, can spend the whole day without teaching addressing the matter.

An educator explained as follows:

From my side as a grade coordinator, if there is an incident I have to stop everything. Even if there are forty kids in front of me and an incident is reported I have to stop then listen to that story and then handle the case with the forty learners in front of me, see how it is, so it’s very disruptive. Luckily the incidents don’t happen that much

but when it happens, it can be extremely disruptive towards the person that actually has to handle the case. As a grade coordinator, normally, the educators will send the learner to me perhaps with another learner and you have to handle that situation at that moment, not forgetting that you are in a middle of a lesson and you must listen to their story and so you must listen to the learner story and all the learners involved in that specific case. It's very disruptive and then you have to get the report from each learner and if necessary you have to contact the parent and at the end of the day you haven't gone to your class at all.

The impact of violence on teaching and learning as found in this study is in line with previous studies. Firstly, Vannini, Enz, Sapouna, Wolke et al. (2011:22) showed that school violence disrupts and interferes with teaching and learning by creating fear and anxiety among educators and learners. Secondly, Abuya, Onsomu, Moore and Sangwe (2012:324) and Robinson et al. (2012:6) found that school violence ruins learning opportunities and makes the school environment risky, thus denying learners opportunities and access to an education.

The findings indicate the short- and long-term effects of school-based violence on learners, educators and the teaching and learning environment. The negative effects call for strategies and programme to be put in place to address the problem. The following section describes the methods and strategies schools use to address violent incidents. Both qualitative findings and quantitative results are presented and integrated to identify any convergence or divergence.

Theme 5: Management of violent incidents

Learners were asked to indicate the steps schools take when a learner reports a case of violence; as well as to identify the types of measures, rules, regulations and services provided to victims and perpetrators of violence by selecting as many

answers as they thought applied to their school from a supplied list of options for various transgressions.

Sub-theme 5.1: Measures taken by schools to address violence

Figure 5.6 below reflects the responses of schools to address violence:

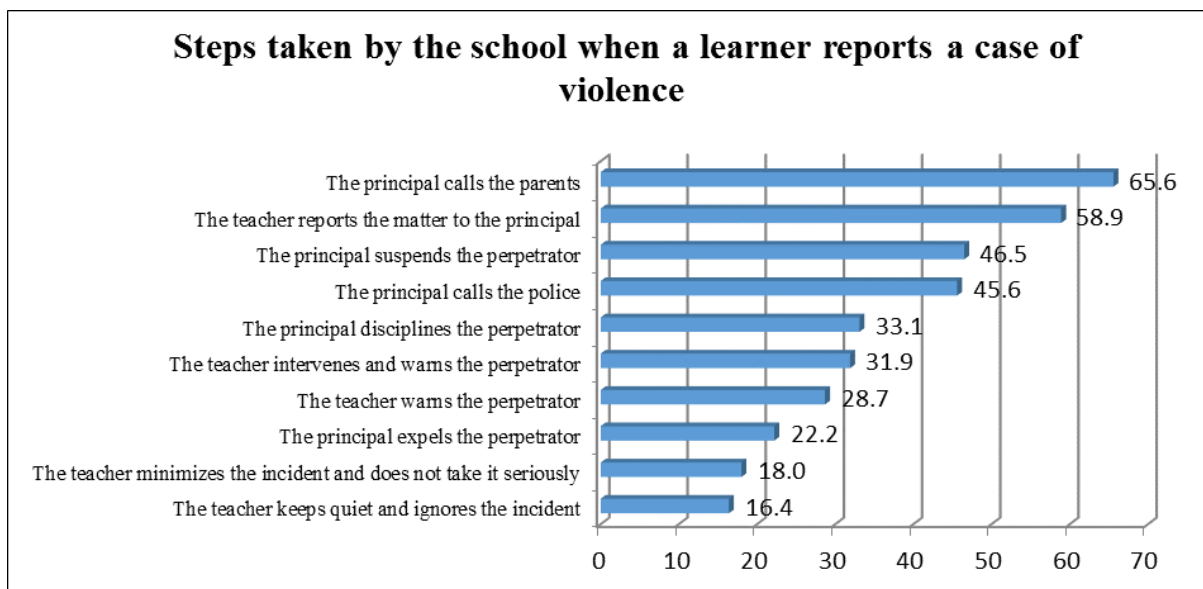


Figure 5.6 Steps taken by the school when a learner reports a case of violence (n=677)

With regard to actions taken by the school in the event a case of violence is reported, Figure 5.6 above indicates that 65.6% (n=444) of the respondents indicated that the school principal calls parents. A further 58.9% (n=399) indicated that educators report the matter to the principal. In addition, 46.5% (n=315) indicated that the principal suspends the learner whilst another 45.6% (n=309) of the respondents reported that the principal calls the police. An additional 33.1% (n=224) reported that the principal disciplines the perpetrator; 31.9% (n=216) said an educator intervenes; 28.7% (n=194) indicated an educator warns the perpetrator; 22.2% (n=150) said learners who transgress the code of conduct and engage in violence are expelled by the principal; whilst 18.0% (n=122) responded that an educator minimises the incident and does not take it seriously; and 16.4% (n=111) said an educator ignores the incident.

Sub-theme 5.2: Existing measures, rules and regulations at school to deal with violence

Furthermore, respondents were asked about available measures, rules and regulations that schools apply to address incidences of violence. Similarly, respondents had the option to select as many answers as they deemed fit. Results of this section are provided in the following Table 5.6.

Table 5-6 Existing measures, rules and regulations in place at school to deal with violence (n=677)

Response	Frequency	Percent
Call the parents	634	93.6
Suspension	541	79.9
Disciplinary procedures	468	69.1
Call the police	467	69.0
Code of conduct	443	65.4
Expulsion	337	49.8
Demerit system	302	44.6
Drug testing	298	44.0
Motivational talks by positive role models	277	40.9
Mediation and conflict resolution by a educators or principal	216	31.9
Referral for counselling by a psychologist or social worker	187	27.6
Peer counselling	183	27.0

Findings indicate a wide range of measures are available to deal with violence in the schools that participated in the quantitative study. An analysis of the measures discussed above show that 65.4% (n=443) of the respondents indicated that their school does have a code of conduct in place. On the other hand, 93.6% (n=634) of the respondents agreed that their school principal calls parents; 79.9% (n=541) said some learners are suspended; 69.1% (n=468) acknowledged the use of disciplinary procedures by their schools; 69.0% (n=467) said that the school principal calls the police; whilst 49.8% (n=337) said that some learners are expelled when found guilty.

Furthermore, a total of 44.6% (n=302) indicated that their schools use the demerit system; another 44.0% (n=298) indicated that drug testing is conducted; whilst 40.9% (n=277) said that their school organises motivational talks by positive role models to address learners on various topics to promote pro-social behaviour and

non-violence. Only a minority of 31.9% (n=216) of the respondents said that the school educators intervene to try and resolve the conflict, while another 27.6% (n=187) said their school have a referral system to a professional counsellor. Lastly, 27.0% (n=183) of the respondents said a peer counselling service is in place to help in dealing with school violence.

The educators and learners in all the five schools that participated in the focus group interviews mentioned that measures to discipline learners and address violence and disruptive behaviour are in place. These are discussed according to categories which confirm the findings and are indicative of the strategies and services that are available and implemented in order to deal with or prevent school-based violence.

Category 5.2.1: Code of conduct

The qualitative findings confirm that all the participating schools have a code of conduct for learners in place. However, some participating educators at three schools complained that the code of conduct is not implemented at all. The educators at one school did not understand how a code of conduct is developed and seemed to be reluctant to implement it. An educator said:

What schools should do is parents should sign the code of conduct. Parents should come to the AGM where they get informed about everything that is happening in the school and sign the code of conduct. But parents are not coming so we end up taking the code of conduct and give it to the children to take home for the parents to sign and bring back. Guess who is signing?. It's the children, the code of conduct does not reach the parents.

Category 5.2.2: Demerit system

The participant educators from all the participating schools reported that they use a demerit system. However, learners have to call in parents when the demerits are high but the parents do not cooperate or are not informed of the incidents by the learners concerned. In this regard, an educator said:

I feel as educators we are powerless because there is not much we can do to the learners to change them. You can beat them but you go to jail, so you can't. Sometimes you think of other methods of punishing them, if you detain them... who are you really punishing...the children or yourself.?Because detention means you have to sit down with them for that hour or three hours, so you are also punished.

Category 5.2.3: Police random searches

It is evident that schools use the police to conduct random searches for weapons and drugs. Educators and learners in all the five schools that were involved in the focus group interviews agree that the schools report violent incidences to the police and request the police to conduct random searches for harmful substances and instruments. A learner explained:

What I have seen is that our principal wants our school to be clean. If anything happens, he just calls the police. This year, last year... he called the police and they searched and got a boy with a knife, they took the boy and his knife to the police station and searched the whole school, they got many things there such as weapons and dagga.

An educator explained that they also call the police. In this regard he said:

Last year we contacted the safety and security department, they came here...it was a combination of Metro, SAPS with the Dog Unit and they were targeting these boys who are smoking drugs, smoking dagga. One of the measures which we take is drug testing, so they took the samples and they discovered that more than 80 percent of the learners tested positive for dagga.

The qualitative findings from participating learners and educators are consistent with regard to the involvement of South African Police Service being engaged as an important stakeholder in the fight against violence and crime. Research confirms that involving other stakeholders such as police and the community at large in a coordinated manner is an effective strategy for addressing social problems such as school violence (Jansson, 2016:453).

Category 5.2.4: Disciplinary committee

The qualitative findings from learners and educators are consistent in terms of availability of disciplinary measures in the participating schools. The findings suggest that only one out of the five schools has a disciplinary and management committee in place to deal with violence or indiscipline. An educator explained how the disciplinary committee operates as follows: *“In our school we have grade coordinators whose responsibility is to identify and record children with discipline problems and take the children through the disciplinary procedures which may result in suspension or expulsion.”* The school also keeps up to date records of the disciplinary hearings which is an indication of measures being in place to address violence and learners’ misconduct.

Educators in two participating schools out of the four that participated in the focus group interviews reported that they implement a disciplinary system that involves manual work. One educator explained this as follows: *“The children are punished by picking up papers around the school or made to clean the classroom.”* However, some educators said this does not help at all as the learners enjoy the punishment and can even sing while doing the punishment while some even refuse and the educators cannot do anything about it.

Category 5.2.5: Counselling referral system

The qualitative findings obtained during the learner and educator focus group interviews are consistent by reflecting that three out of the five schools that took part in the focus group interviews use available counselling services that are provided by the Department of Education. An educator commented as follows:

Some of the schools have a referral system in place for counselling services for learners with emotional and behaviour problems. With drug testing, if a learner tests positive for any drugs he or she is taken to a hearing and recommended for rehabilitation or is suspended.

However, it was reported that only public schools have access to counselling services whilst independent schools have to pay for services as will be discussed (See Theme 6: sub-theme 6.4).

Category 5.2.6: Life Orientation Curriculum

The qualitative findings from learners and educators are consistent with quantitative results that certain topics are taught during the Life Orientation classes. Respondents were asked to select from a list subjects that are taught in the life orientation curriculum, to inform and educate them about school-based violence. Respondents had the choice to choose as many subjects as they wished. Based on the results, Figure 5.7 below indicates which subjects are taught in the participating schools.

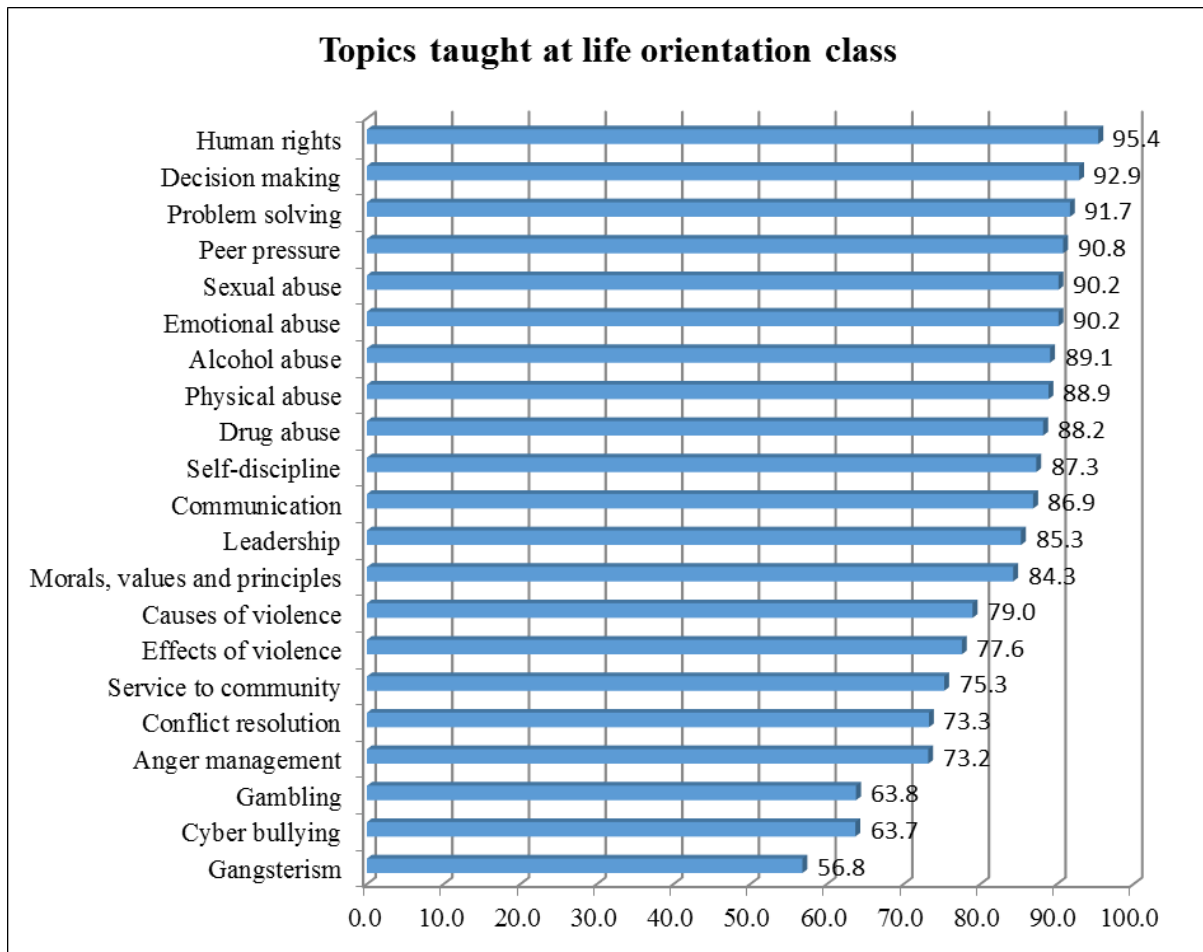


Figure 5.7 Topics taught in life orientation class (n=677)

A summary of the results as presented in Figure 5.7 above show that most respondents, ranging between 56.8% and 95.4%, agreed that their schools provide Life Orientation lessons on several topics. The findings show that learners learned more about human rights (95.4%; n=646) and less about gangsterism (56.8%; n=385), one of the contributory factors to violence.

The convergence that is noted between the two data sets is that all the schools offer a life orientation curriculum to teach learners about life skills and topics such as substance abuse, teenage pregnancy, HIV and AIDS, anger management, conflict resolution, communication skills and problem solving.

However all the participating educators were not optimistic about the strategy of providing life skills education due to time constraints. An educator said:

Most of us teach life skills, life orientation, the number of periods set aside is too little to handle this because in our curriculum we don't have conflict management, we do have anger management and stress reduction, but we are allocated two periods a week and also remember we must also do physical education and one period is allocated for that. So I think we have little time especially for this and what is happening presently with the violence, so I think more periods should be set aside for that.

Another educator voiced this concern as follows: “*We only have one period to teach life skills and the time allocated is insufficient and that most of the learners are uninterested and do not concentrate during these lessons.*” This observation was confirmed by learner participants who also reported that some learners do not take these lessons seriously. Another strategy that is used is to invite motivational speakers as is reported below.

Category 5.2.7: Invite motivational speakers

The qualitative findings indicate that some schools organise motivational talks by experts in various fields as a strategy to address indiscipline and violence. An educator said:

We invite other professionals, service providers or experts such as religious organisations to teach learners about values, morals, drugs and alcohol abuse or provide counselling and support to learners with emotional problems. However, the problem is that the learners who have discipline problems do not attend such services.

A learner said: “*Schools should have more educational campaigns about drug and alcohol abuse since they are major causes to school violence.*” However, another

learner responded that the learners who are violent will not come to these educational talks. This is an indication that this strategy is not effectively implemented by educators and that such services are underutilised by learners. Overall, it seems from the qualitative responses that learners do not respond positively to such an effort.

In addition to these probing questions, learners were specifically asked to describe how incidents that involve substance abuse, gambling and gangsterism are addressed in the participating schools.

Sub-theme 5.3: Existing measures, rules and regulations in place to deal with learners who abuse substances

In addition, respondents had the option to select as many answers as they deemed fit to indicate how schools deal with substance abuse incidences. The results presented in Table 5-7 below indicate the steps that are taken where substance use is involved in violent incidents:

Table 5-7 Existing measures, rules and regulations in place at school to deal with substance abuse (n=677)

Response	Frequency	Percent
Principal warns the learner	14	2.1%
Call the parents	43	6.4%
Call the police	38	5.6%
Drug testing	12	1.8%
Disciplinary procedures	14	2.1%
Suspension	31	4.6%
Expulsion	12	1.8%

Findings show that a wide range of measures are instituted to deal with learners who violate the schools' code of conduct by using alcohol and drugs. The evidence indicates that calling parents is the first call (n=43; 6.4%), followed by the police (n=38; 5.6%) and suspension (n=31; 4.6%). The least measure taken is drug testing (n=12; 1.8%). However, if the learner tests positive for alcohol and substance use, formal disciplinary procedures are instituted (n=14; 2.1%), which could result in the

learner may be expelled (n=12; 1.8%), but under extreme circumstances. Alternative measures include warnings being given (n=14; 2.1%).

Sub-theme 5.4: Existing measures, rules and regulations in place to address gambling

Respondents had the option to select as many answers as they deemed fit to indicate how schools deal with gambling incidences. The results presented in Table 5-8 below indicate the steps that are taken to deal with learners who participate in gambling activities.

Table 5-8 Existing measures, rules and regulations in place at school to deal with gambling (n=677)

Response	Frequency	Percent
Detention	21	3.1 %
Call the parents	28	4.1 %
Call the police	22	3.2 %
Disciplinary procedures	23	3.4 %
Suspension	36	5.3 %

As evidenced in Table 5-8, measures include immediate suspension of the learner who is found guilty (n=36; 5.3%), followed by parents being called to a meeting by the principal (n=28; 4.1%), whereafter formal disciplinary procedures are instituted (n=23, 3.4%), or the police may be called (n=22; 3.2%). At the least, the learner may be punished by being sent to detention (n=21; 3.1%).

Sub-theme 5.5: Existing measures, rules and regulations in place to address gang-related incidences

Lastly, the learners were asked to describe how schools address learners who engage in gang-related activities. As

Table 5-9 below indicates the measures that are taken to address gang related offences.

Table 5-9 Existing measures, rules and regulations in place at school to deal with gang-related activities (n=677)

Response	Frequency	Percent
Disciplinary procedures	21	3.1%
Call the parents	35	5.2%
Call the police	45	6.6%
Suspension	23	3.4%
Expulsion	17	2.5%

Findings indicate that the principal may call the police (n=45; 6.6%), followed by parent(s) being called to a meeting (n=35; 5.2%), whereafter the learner may be suspended (n=23; 3.4%), or the principal may institute disciplinary procedures (n=21; 3.1%) whereby the learners may be expelled, however, only in extreme cases (n=17; 2.5%).

To sum up, all the nine participating schools implement various measures and have rules and regulations in place to address and curb behaviour that escalates into violent episodes. They range in terms of stronger action.

A further question was asked to assess if schools provide a mechanism for learners to report violent incidences and the conduct of other learners and educators anonymously. Below are the responses of the participating learners.

Sub-theme 5.6: Forum to raise concerns regarding the conduct of learners and educators

Responses presented indicate the existence and the use of a forum developed for the purposes of reporting the undesirable conduct of peers and educators. Only a minority (n=155; 22.9%) of the respondents said that there is a forum for learners to raise concerns with regard to the behaviour of other learners and educators without any fear.

A follow up question was asked whether or not they would like to have such a forum. Out of those respondents who said that there is no forum to raise concerns, the

majority (n=398; 58.8%) of the respondents indicated that they would like to have such a forum. Of those respondents who said that their school does have a forum to raise concerns, only (n=136; 20.1%) of the respondents said they use such a forum. The fact that the service is under-utilised raises concerns. This explains why school-based violence continues to affect learners negatively. Burton and Leoschut (2013:103) say that learners must be given a voice to express their safety concerns and needs through providing adequate reporting mechanisms and response systems.

Overall, all nine schools that participated in the study have strategies and measures in place to address the violence problem. Several efforts have been made to intervene and prevent school-based violence, some with modest outcomes as depicted by the qualitative findings which confirm the survey results as discussed above. Some of these are ineffective, hence the scale of school violence is not diminishing but rather increasing. This is evident in daily media reports on violent episodes, some with fatal outcomes (See section 1.1).

Despite all the measures and strategies in place in most schools, learners and educators endure persistent incidences of violence and aggression. The participating educators and learners have confirmed that some of the existing school violence prevention strategies are effective whilst others are not effective in reducing or preventing school-based violence. Evidently, an effective and efficient strategy is urgently required. According to Zulu et al. (2004:174), measures such as the code of conduct and adequate provision of psychological services in all schools are needed to reduce the scourge of school violence. The researcher argues that such simplistic measures may not be adequate, unless they are informed by the needs of the target population and address the root causes of school violence.

The next section describes the challenges schools encounter in their efforts to implement effective measures and services to combat school-based violence. This aspect was not covered in the quantitative strand of the study. Therefore, the next sections pertain to qualitative findings obtained from educators and learners only.

Theme 6: Challenges schools encounter in addressing and preventing school-based violence

Findings of the study show that all the schools have systems, strategies and measures in place to address violent incidences as already described above. However, the participating educators and learners revealed challenges and obstacles that schools encounter which make these systems ineffective. These include: lack of parental involvement; lack of parenting skills and supervision; lack of policy implementation by schools; lack of support services by education officials and the Department of Education; and unprofessional behaviour of some educators. These will next be presented as sub-themes.

Sub-theme 6.1: Lack of parental involvement

Parents are seen as a critical part of the school system by the learners and educators who participated in the focus group discussions in all the five participating schools. Their involvement in the school as well as their children's education is regarded as crucial in ensuring there is proper teaching and learning. However, the participating learners and educators reported that some parents are uninterested in their children's education; some are unable to get involved because of various reasons such as work commitments, not receiving notifications from the schools requesting such involvement, or the timing of the meetings which is inconvenient for some parents.

Based on the findings, participant educators are of the opinion that some parents contribute to school violence and lack of discipline. For example, it was reported that some parents do not cooperate with schools in addressing school violence whilst other parents reinforce the bad behaviour of their children by covering up for the indiscipline of their children, as already discussed in this chapter (See sub-theme 3.7). Furthermore, parents are reported to be bribing police officials to cover up the indiscipline of their children, whilst some are in denial of their children's violent

tendencies. Hence schools are unable to effectively address school violence and indiscipline.

A participating educator revealed:

Once I tried to point to the parent that he needs to discipline the child himself, the parent goes into denial you know and say, "My child will never do something like that". It is negative reinforcement when a parent is informed that a child needs to be disciplined, and you find that the parent tends to cover up.

Another participating educator lamented and said: *"This strategy is sometimes ineffective due to parents who bribe the police and cases which should have been dealt with in a court of law are thrown out because of lack of evidence."*

Findings also revealed that parents in general do not want to take responsibility for the behaviour of their children, they are not involved or interested in their children's education, and they do not attend school meetings. One participating educator explained as follows:

Out of 800 to 900 learners which we have in our school, only 60 parents attend the school meetings. The learners who have discipline problems are the ones who do not inform their parents about school meetings because they do not want their parents to discover that they misbehave at school. Only parents of children who are well-behaved and who perform well at school attend parents' meetings.

Another participating educator added: *"Our parent community is non-existent, the parents are not working with the school at all. I personally think the parents are failing us, parents are failing [the] school; parents are failing the children because parents are not involved in the lives of their children."*

There is consistency between what the participating educators and learners said. Learners shared the same view with educators regarding lack of parents' involvement and agree that some parents do not care about the learning of their children. One learner said:

But sometimes I have a person who I know in the school who her mother does not want even to hear about school. Anything she does if it involves school, the mother doesn't even care about it. So I think that the thing that we should go to the parents sometimes it won't work because that girl now she is one of the most awful mannered girls in the school. So it's also the parent thing, it's not gonna work.

Another challenge and obstacle to school violence prevention reported by educator participants was that it is difficult for the educators to get hold of the parents to attend disciplinary hearings. An educator said: *"This is exacerbated by some learners who do not take messages to the parents or by the learners who give wrong contact[s] details of their parents."* The educators reiterated that the learners are the only link or intermediary between the school and the parents but some learners do not communicate the message from the school to their parents.

Learner participants confirmed educators' views that some learners do not deliver notices from the school to the parents. A school learner said: *"They don't take the letters to the parents. The parents cannot be blamed alone because other learners do not take messages to their parents."*

However, not all the participating educators and learners in all the participating schools had similar views about the alleged lack of interest and involvement of some parents in their children's education. The participants from two schools confirmed that not all parents are uncooperative or uninvolved with the school. One educator participant alluded to the challenges of modern life. Due to industrialisation and urbanisation some parents are working or trying to find work so that they can provide for their children. As a result, they are unable to supervise their children and be

involved in matters that affect their children's education. The participating educator elaborated as follows:

Yes, I think parents are so occupied in finding employment because they want to get their children better education. They are trying providing for the child with the best education but somewhere they lost out they don't have anyone to look after the children and when the children get home they, they don't know what their child is up to and lots of things take place there.

Participating learners shared similar views that some parents do cooperate with schools. They reported that parents who do not attend school meetings have genuine reasons such as work commitments or the timing of the meetings which is inconvenient for most working parents. A learner participant explained as follows:

Okay the reason why most of the parents are not coming to the meeting is because the school arranges the meeting at six pm at night or nine pm which other parents cannot afford to come at six because this place is dangerous so they don't attend the meeting because the meeting is organised at nine or eight.

The converged findings of the study show that more parents need to take responsibility for the education of their children and collaborate with the school system in order to reduce levels of indiscipline and violence. As evidenced from the converged results, parental involvement in children's social and academic life is critical in ensuring positive behaviour and development of learners. The findings are consistent with the finding by Perry (2009b:52) that suggest that uninvolved and unsupportive parents contribute to school violence. In addition, Bender and Emslie (2010:195) argue that parents who demonstrate love and warmth, who provide supervision and set boundaries, who motivate their children to participate in sporting activities, who get involved and support the school system, can help their children develop positively and avoid engaging in violent and aggressive behaviour.

Furthermore, other researchers (van der Westhuizen & Maree, 2009:56; Cohen, 2006:214) demonstrate that the family-school partnership is vital for the children's educational achievement and effective schooling system. Thus, schools need to find innovative ways of engaging and involving parents in the schools' activities.

Sub-theme 6.2: Lack of parenting skills and supervision

Findings reveal that educators are of the view that some parents lack parenting skills and cannot deal with the misbehaviour of their own children and expect the educators to deal with the discipline problems of their children. According to a participant educator one parent said to the educators: *"My child is in grade 11; can you tell him he watches too much TV. I cannot tell him because if I tell him my child will get cross."* The educator said she told the parent to deal with it since he was the one residing with the child but the parent could not confront and reprimand the child.

Another educator participant recounted an incident about an overwhelmed parent who was unable to cope with the behaviour of his/her child who was absent from school for three weeks. The parent said: *"I wish God can just take that child away"*. The educator went on to add: *"The parents do not have parenting skills, they really do [not]. Most of them I know are at a loss. The parents are the problem. One thing I can mention is like you will have to educate the parents because parents do not have the skills."*

From the findings it is apparent from the educators' perspective that some parents lack the skills to monitor and supervise their children's behaviour and enforce discipline. According to the educators, this has an influence on children's discipline and behaviour problems. According to Singh and Steyn (2013:3) and Yavuzer et al. (2009:38), the family is an important and powerful socialising agent for children. Thus, poor parenting skills, lack of care and interest in their children's social and academic lives, or lack of control and an inability to instil discipline, can contribute to violence.

Sub-theme 6.3: Lack of policy implementation by schools

Findings from the qualitative study revealed that inadequate and ineffective implementation of policies, codes of conduct and discipline procedures contribute to lack of discipline and violence (See category 5.2.1). As reported by the educators, four out of the five schools have rules and procedures in place to deal with school violence or discipline problems, but these are not enforced and/or are ineffective (See sub-theme 5.2). One educator said: *“Yes, it is there on paper, very nice discipline policy, but not implemented.”*

In the one school which does not implement a code of conduct, a participating educator did not even understand how crucial it is to have codes of conduct in place and to implement them effectively. She responded in this manner:

One thing is that it is difficult because every year we have learners that are going and new learners coming, so do you mean we have to sit down every year and draft a new code of conduct?. That one... I do not think we will be able to do that, not that we do not want but you know there is so much to do in this teaching. I do not think we will be able to... every year the beginning of the year when we have new learners we should sit down with them and draft the new code of conduct... next year again, new code of conduct...?

Participating learners also identified the lack of policy implementation as a contributing factor to school violence. A learner confirmed that the school has a code of conduct and uses a demerit system, however neither is effectively enforced. The learner said: *“It’s a process of demerits but they are not following it. They just give us the papers to sign, but they are not following it. I have a copy.”*

Findings in this current study are consistent with literature and builds upon previous studies by Singh and Steyn (2013:5) and van der Westhuizen and Maree (2009:56) which confirmed that most schools have policies, regulations and codes of conduct

in place, but these are not effectively implemented and enforced. Antonowicz (2010:7) adds that lack of law and policy implementation, lack of political will and weak institutional capacities to enforce regulations and procedures, contribute to ineffective strategies designed to address school-based violence and indiscipline.

Louw (2015c:2) refers to Mr Ngobeni, Head of Department in the Gauteng Department of Education who confirmed that schools are provided with a generic policy on safety but it needs to be adapted to each school's unique circumstances. Leoschut et al. (2011:55) recommend enforcement of legislation and policies by providing relevant training and technical support to stakeholders and policy implementers and ensuring there is accountability or consequences for non-compliance.

Sub-theme 6.4: Lack of support services

Another significant finding mentioned by the educators and learners in the qualitative phase of the study was the absence of support services such as counselling services for victims of violence and proper and secure infrastructure and security systems in the participating schools. Participant educators reported a significant difference between the administration and functioning of public and private schools. An educator revealed the inequalities and said: *"In independent schools parents have to pay for counselling services whilst in the public schools there are psychologists who are employed by government to provide counselling service."* Further, it was found that there is a short supply of and very little use of psychological services, where available, whilst the majority of educators and learners need emotional and spiritual support.

In all the five participating schools, both learners and educators agree that all the schools have security officers at the main gate, but these are not effective as some learners collude with them to smuggle in harmful instruments, alcohol and drugs. A learner commented as follows: *"Security officers ask for 50 cents to open the gate, so school learners go out during break time."*

Learners are searched randomly and in some schools they are not searched at all and therefore it is easy to bring in instruments and substances, which exacerbate violence. It was also reported in one school that the fence is broken and some members of the community jump into the school premises to bring and sell drugs or even rob learners and educators of their valuables.

Confirming the actions described in Table 5.7, the educators also reported that the Department of Education does not support efforts to expel learners who display aggressive and violent behaviour despite hard evidence and reasonable grounds. An educator lamented as follows:

I think they are focusing on the wrong things. The department is coming to look at the educators, to show they are superior and not coming to look at the children, instead of coming to see what is happening, why are the educators struggling. So they should come once or twice a week in general capacity and look at the children and not the educators. Maybe it can help if they see what is going on and try and deal with this whole teaching.

There was consistency between what learners and educators said about a lack of support from the Department of Education. A learner shared a similar view as the above educators as follows: *“We report cases to the district, sometimes they don’t believe you, and they don’t take you seriously.”*

Based on the findings, lack of access to counselling and support services for learners and educators, poor infrastructure, and inefficient and corrupt security officers, are a hindrance to effective implementation of strategies and measures to address school-based violence. Consequently, these limitations contribute to increasing rates of school-based violence. The findings are in line with Bester and du Plessis (2010:204), who show that educators are dissatisfied with the Department of Education’s lack of support for their efforts to develop and engender a positive culture of teaching and learning.

To curb learner indiscipline and violence, van der Westhuizen and Maree (2009:56) recommend that government should send a strong message to learners and their parents that disobedient learners will be dealt with harshly. Furthermore, SACE (2011:33) and van der Westhuizen and Maree (2009:56) suggest the Department of Education implement Employee Assistance Programmes (EAPs) and workshops to support and empower educators to cope with indiscipline in classrooms. These services would enable educators to apply positive discipline measures and minimise school-based violence.

Sub-theme 6.5: Unprofessional behaviour of educators

Another challenge that was identified by participating educators and learners is the unprofessional behaviour of educators who befriend school learners to such an extent that those learners think they are equals with the educators and they do as they please and say whatever they want. This issue has been raised and confirms the view that unethical behaviour of some educators is one of the causes of school-based violence. In this regard, an educator participant said:

I wanted to say... we have problems where we find learners being friends with educators and then those learners after being friends with educators then they think now they are our equals. So they tend to say anything they want to us and they don't understand if some of us have to reprimand them.

Learners also observed that some educators add to the problem by behaving unprofessionally. Two participant learners confirmed as follows:

"Some educators, [eish] there in "Sun City" they smoke with the boys and one girl goes to report at the office, one educator goes to them saying... Hey get over, go away so that they cannot see you."

“Even educators smoke dagga with the children in class. I saw in another educator’s class, they say there is a party but don’t bring beer bring zol.” [meaning a roll of dagga].

The finding is similar to a study by De Wet (2007a:21) which found that professional misconduct such as fighting in front of learners, purposeful dereliction of duties, corruption, abuse of power and autocratic leadership styles, contribute to indiscipline and violence in schools. Dubanoski, Inaba and Gerkewicz (1983:276) caution educators to always remember the importance of positive role modelling. The authors argue that learners will imitate the similar behaviour displayed by adults.

The several challenges and obstacles that hinder school violence prevention and intervention highlighted above warrant drastic measures to be implemented to alleviate the school violence problem and minimise the negative impact that violence has on learners, educators and teaching and learning. Learners and educators were requested to provide suggestions towards school-based violence prevention as will be discussed next.

Theme 7: Suggested measures to prevent school violence

Several steps that can be taken to intervene and prevent school violence are informed by the research findings. With the exception of only one learner participant who said that there is nothing that schools can do to address school violence, the suggestions elicited from both participating learners and educators include positive discipline and the abolishment of corporal punishment; professional behaviour of educators; self-disciplined learners; counselling services and special schools; peer support and mentorship; education and awareness campaigns; demerit and merit systems; suspensions; security systems; parent skills training; and stakeholder collaboration. These are presented and discussed next according to the following sub-themes:

Sub-theme 7.1: Positive discipline and abolishment of corporal punishment

The picture arising from the study is that educators in the participating schools were concerned that the government abolished corporal punishment but did not introduce an alternative way of disciplining children in schools. A despondent educator said:

“We have had a lot of people coming here and making suggestion[s]... doing this... doing that, but nothing that helps.”

Another educator elaborated and explained as follows:

“I feel it was wrong of the people to abolish corporal punishment and not come up with a new solution. It’s better corporal punishment is brought back. Right now as educators we are expected to do things that are beyond us and we are not being helped in any way.”

The educators believe that training workshops and seminars should be provided to capacitate them with knowledge and skills to deal with school violence, to train them on how to control and react to violent incidences and to restore power and authority in the hands of the educators. One educator said:

I would appreciate a model that reinstates power in the hands of the educators...because honestly educators are powerless because no matter what you do the educators are powerless, the learner is always right. The district office... very well..., they run over to the district office and guess what? ... the district office is going to call the school and say you are going to take this child back... you are going to accept this child.

Another educator added:

We need anything that would allow to say we are going to deal with this children this way and we will get support from our superiors or we will get support from the district office, we will get support from all the higher level rankings of the education profession.

Educator participants expressed varying opinions on the issue of corporal punishment and positive discipline. There were educators who expressed a need to be trained on how to respond during violent episodes and there were others who called for corporal punishment to be reinstated to deal with violence because they believe it was working towards bringing order in schools. Educators in two schools with a different suggestion said corporal punishment should be reinstated because it can help restore order in schools: *“Corporal punishment is the best way to deal with children who are violent in schools. It was working on a serious note. There is [a] difference between today’s learners and yesterday’s learners.”*

On the contrary, the majority of the learner participants wanted to see corporal punishment abolished. A participating learner said: *“Corporal punishment in full... should stop.”* Only one learner in the same school had a different opinion and said educators should discipline learners fairly.

Ward, Gould, Kelly and Muaff (2015:16-18) are convinced that corporal punishment does not teach children to respect adults and does not instil discipline but increases internalising and externalising behaviour. Rather, the authors suggest positive discipline could have a positive influence on the child’s mental health and behaviour. In the same vein, Mncube and Harber (2013:15) suggest educator training to help educators understand that corporal punishment does not improve behaviour and educational achievement, but has detrimental outcomes.

Sub-theme 7.2: Professional behaviour of educators

Participating learners suggested that schools should get good educators who care about the learners; who have good relationships with learners and who take them seriously when they report incidences of violence. In the focus group interviews, a learner said: *“Educators should stop laughing at us when we are reporting.... Even at the district they don’t take us seriously.”*

Furthermore, learners suggested educators stop smoking with the learners and become positive role models. One learner said:

All the children are affected by the bad manners because no one is better than the other one by those schools. They will never change unless they can get proper educators who is lovely, who respects and who cares for the children. If the manners of the educators change, the children can also change.

Another learner added:

Everything comes from the educators, the educators must start, they must tell us what to do and we will all change. They must change their behaviour and not smoke with the learners, must not perpetrate violence against learners. We want educators who care about learners and take them seriously when they report.

In addition, learners suggested the educators instil discipline in class and self-discipline among learners. Others said educators should conduct awareness campaigns, conduct drug testing, increase security and report violent incidents or suspend violent learners.

From the participating learners' perspectives, educators are not setting the example for them by treating them with disrespect and laughing at them when they report bullying incidents and by behaving unprofessionally. These findings are consistent with literature. Mncube and Harber's (2013:75) view is that efforts need to be made to increase levels of good leadership, professionalism and improve the quality of teaching. Moreover, Bender and Emslie (2010:196) and McEvoy (2005:147) state that educators need to fulfil their roles effectively and realise that learners need positive adult role models. Le Roux and Mokhele (2011:330) add that educators need to set a good example by behaving professionally and ethically.

Sub-theme 7.3: Disciplined behaviour of learners

Participating learners acknowledged that violence is not only caused by the behaviour of educators, but also the behaviour of learners. A learner said: *“It doesn’t mean that we just have to tell that the educators are wrong, we are also wrong.”*

Learner participants gave several suggestions regarding the behaviour of their peers. Based on the survey results (Section E 5.1), the respondents said fellow learners should be self-disciplined, respect each other, report any violence incidences, love and care for one another, stop gambling and engaging in violence activities, learn to communicate and openly talk to each other about violence and the effects, have self-control and be able to solve problems without violence.

Suggestions given during the focus group interviews entailed encouraging learners to participate in sports so that it will take away their time from the undesirable behaviour like taking alcohol and drugs. A learner participant explained as follows: *“If then the people that are bullying can participate in sports it will be much better because they gonna keep them away from wrong things, smoking.”*

The current study’s findings that learners’ indiscipline, insubordination, lack of care and respect for fellow human beings contribute to school violence build upon similar findings in literature. Zulu et al. (2004:174) suggest that learners’ problematic behaviour such as violence and aggression is sometimes caused by their lack of respect for fellow human beings. Le Roux and Mokhele (2011:329) caution learners to be aware that their academic success depends on their personal commitment and input. Therefore, learners need to learn to behave responsibly and be accountable for their actions. These authors are of the view that antisocial behaviour can be changed by teaching positive behaviour and instilling in them a sense of respect for self, their peers, parents, school authorities and property (Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011:329). The authors go on to suggest that schools should introduce *Ubuntu* – a sense of belonging and respect and help establish positive relationships between individuals and groups. Ubuntu will help change the behaviour of learners by making

them understand the significance of education in their lives and in nation building (Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011:329).

Sub-theme 7.4: Counselling services and special schools

The educators in this study suggested that learners with behaviour problems should be referred to special schools such as a reformatory which have trained personnel, services and structures to specifically deal with learners with behavioural problems similar to schools for children with learning difficulties. Another educator had a somewhat similar but alternative suggestion and said: *“I would be honest, I would like a school of their own or a class of their own with educators that can handle that. The experienced male educators should be the ones focusing on them.”*

Another educator elaborated as follows: *“If learners with behaviour problems were to remain in the mainstream school system, then educators, preferably a male educator or someone with the relevant skills or experience should be appointed to teach such learners who are violent and uncooperative.”*

A similar suggestion was put forward by a learner who said that violent learners should be separated from the rest of the learners. The learner said: *“I think we can do something. They must put all the students who work in one class and the rest of them just be...”* (the learner shows by sign of hand that they must be placed in separate classrooms). Thus, there is a convergence between the suggestion made by the educators as indicated above with the one made by learners.

Other additional suggestions made by learners included a counselling programme for learners who have behaviour problems such as violence and aggression in schools. Learners suggested school principals invite professionals or counsellors to talk to learners about violence. The views of learners can be summarised in the following suggestion: *“The schools should get counsellors to talk to the children. They can be interviewed to find out why and how they bully others.”*

There was also coherence in the suggestions made by educators and learners. An educator made a similar suggestion as follows:

Maybe the school can have a psychologist coming for two days a week or once a week, have a room to sit and to teach the kids. The children should be sitting and talking to someone, explaining their situation, their problems, dealing with it and not just sitting and think about what he is gonna eat this afternoon and what is gonna do tomorrow. Things like that can help as well.

The findings in this study replicate the findings by Mpiana (2011:9996) and Le Roux and Mokhele (2011:350) whereby suggestions were made for schools to employ counsellors who can provide learners with needed services. Singh and Steyn (2013:7) had a similar suggestion when they stated that schools need to provide guidance counsellors that were previously made available to schools. The authors noted that for more than 450 schools there is only one psychologist. This service is inadequate considering the extent of the problems experienced in schools. The need for counselling services is also noted by van der Westhuizen and Maree (2009:57) who identified that many learners and educators need emotional, psychological and spiritual support. Therefore, the suggestion by the participants in this study for counselling services to be made available in all schools, irrespective of whether it is an independent or public school, is justified.

Sub-theme 7.5: Peer support and mentorship

Participating Learners indicated a need for peer support for learners with behaviour problems. A learner at one school suggested a peer support service by senior students. Another learner recommended a mentoring system and suggested as follows:

I think one of the ways to just deal with something like most the guys are saying, most of them are mentioning... when we were younger I think if we deal with it from the onset like when I came into the school in grade 8, we had

a pretty strict matric group and we had a strong leader panel. So they were the type that told us from the gate. They said...got that? listen here if you come from a school where you used to misbehave things are gonna change here and most of us I think we are good because you know that here we don't mess around and this is that other kids do so. I think that at school the leader panel disciplines the young ones because they are the ones who are going to carry on whatever they have been taught and whatever by the other kids. So the moment we go to the core of the issue and start with the young ones then the problems will be minimised at least.

The research findings above are in line with previous studies regarding the provision of peer support services and mentoring. Perry (2009b:55) states that best practice should include programmes that focus on creating environments that foster positive peer interactions and develop peer mentoring programmes where graduates are encouraged to volunteer as mentors to work with youth who are at risk or train learners as peer mediators so they can help with problem solving and assist educators in their efforts to create safer schools.

Sub-theme 7.6: Education and awareness campaigns

The research findings show that Local District Officials of the Department of Education should initiate awareness campaigns to educate learners about violence; visit schools to talk to and motivate learners; provide security at schools; and work together with parents and police to prevent violence.

In addition to the above-mentioned suggestions for violence prevention, a learner participant suggested that schools should have more educational campaigns about drug and alcohol abuse since these are major causes to school violence.

The learner said:

I want to go back to the educational and awareness campaign if we design a programme that wants to teach learners about positive attitudes, understanding that fighting is not good, violence is not good. Giving them skills on how to relate to each other and start appreciating people that are doing well and not trying to expose them and all that. What do you think about all that? The activities should be interesting, fun, be able to draw the attention of young people...That kind of thing will have to be implemented as a funny activity because that is how kids respond, something fun they will do it (others agree). If it is educational, if you implement something that they can relate to like say, what do you call it?.., bonding experience through these play station games, or soccer or school team-building activities or something like that, people will respond. But you have got to make sure that you make the messages clear on what you wanna do, do not tell them directly but the message comes across.

A divergence was noted when another learner participant disagreed and said that it will not help because the learners who are violent will not come to these campaigns.

This counter opinion was expressed by another learner who said:

Our principal tried it where he took all the learners that are performing badly, all those learners found positive with drugs abuse and everything...gangs. They took them to prison to show how life is in prison, then they came back and for that week, they were different.

Another learner recommended educational TV programmes which teach children on various topics such as positive behaviour and said:

Yes because when I was a kid there used to be a lot of TV programmes that told you that you must be well mannered in this way and it's quite fun because you could stand up and do little activities around the house and sing the songs and we still remember the songs now and we were well mannered and stuff so make it fun.

Another learner confirmed this view and said that people who are on TV these days are involved in drugs and alcohol, the things which bring them into the limelight and that these have a negative effect on young people. The learner elaborated by saying:

I don't know if it's positive or negative because for it to be implemented it's gonna be difficult because judging from what most teenagers do on their daily basis...I think it's weird and so on. If you can look at the media now I think it's about to get to where the people who are being... who are in the media, to get where they are it's all about drugs and alcohol and violence and all and now for teenagers those things attract their attention so now they think for me to get there for me to be that kind of person I need to do this and that and that.

Findings of this study are consistent with literature and build on suggestions for strategies to address the problem of violence in schools in an effective manner. Mpiana (2011:9996) proposes education and awareness campaigns and the use of the media and TV educational programmes. Furthermore, the author suggests the use of interactive and engaging activities such as drama plays or the facilitation of open and frank discussions on the topic of violence, involving well-known personalities in the community. In addition, Le Roux and Mokhele (2011:330) suggest programmes that teach about the risks of substance abuse and violence to educate learners and educators about what actions to take in the event of a violent incident as well as about available services and reporting systems and procedures.

Sub-theme 7.7: Demerit and merit system

Survey results as discussed with learners and educators, show that school principals should empower educators to offer educational programmes about violence; be strict and enforce the rules and discipline learners; call parents; suspend or expel learners who commit violence; call the police to patrol schools and conduct drug testing (See sub-theme 5.2 and theme 7 under discussion). A convergence with the qualitative findings was noted. A learner participant suggested a reward system not only for top achievers but also for those learners with behaviour problems whose behaviour would have improved. The learner said:

I think we should have some kind of a reward system. I remember last year they took the top twenty, top ten, top five boys and top five girls. They took them to this place, what's this place?" [Grahamstown] "Yes I think they should also acknowledge the kids who make an improvement and who try...so that the other kid will say...I am not necessary getting the top marks like the top ten but the fact that I have at least made a 10% improvement and it's acknowledged and rewarded by the educators in the school then we will still push for the better.

Other participant learners had a different view and suggested that violent and aggressive learners should be exposed by publishing their marks on the schools' notice board. One of the learners said: *"Ok there is another school where their marks...their end of term marks are being put on the foyer. So it's from the lowest to the highest so that makes them work and work. So I think expose is the best thing to do."*

The learners' suggestions indicate conflicting views. Some learners recommended punishment by enforcing an academic performance tracking system and expose learners who perform badly, whilst others said that schools should not only implement demerit systems, but provide rewards for improved behaviour. The findings are in contrast with other studies' findings. For example, Akiba (2005:102)

states that schools that create a set of academic winners and losers characterised by high academic competition, are more likely to encounter increased levels of school violence. Furthermore, huge academic achievement gaps between students provoke violence (Akiba, 2005:102).

Woods and Wolke (2004:150) caution schools against labelling students based on academic performance. The authors state that students with high academic achievement scores are at a high risk of being victimised and called names such as “nerd” by peers, whilst low academic achieving students are at risk of being labelled “failures”. Akiba (2005:96) is of the view that labelling and academic tracking stigmatises low achieving students and increases the likelihood of violence and aggression towards peers and school authorities. On the contrary, Hong and Espelage (2012:315) state that “gifted students are more likely to be bullies because of their skilful and manipulative attitudes and behaviours”. The suggestions made above by the participants need to be carefully considered because of the underlying unintended consequences.

Sub-theme 7.8: Suspension

Some participant learners in two schools suggested that schools should take more serious action such as suspending learners who misbehave in school. A learner elaborated as follows:

They should take more action, suspend Ma'am... Yes I think it can. Like our principal used to say he better teach five kids than 15 more kids who are corrupt. So I think they must be suspended, yes suspended and maybe if they repeat what they have done again, maybe be expelled from the school. I think that may be the solution.

Another learner expanded on the suggestion and said: “So I think they must be suspended. And maybe if they repeat what they have done again, maybe they should be expelled from the school. So I think that may be the solution.”

However, another learner in one of these schools disagreed and said:

I don't agree because if the principal suspends a learner, in a way he is promoting something bad in a learner. If the learner doesn't go to school and obviously he or she is at home she will be happy and even if it's not a good thing it will, he will start doing bad things so that he can keep himself or herself busy so.

Another learner supported the suggestion: *"The principal cannot suspend learners, only the school governing body can. He only tells the learner to go home and come back with parents and when they go home, the parents don't come."*

There were no suggestions about expulsion from participant educators. There were contradictions between the learners. Some learners suggested authorities should take serious steps and suspend or expel violent and undisciplined learners, whilst others thought suspensions would be counter-productive. Baker and Letendre (2005:102) had similar findings and caution that zero tolerance policies like suspension and expulsion have short-term emotional appeal to parents but do not adequately address the real causes of school violence. Furthermore, the authors warn that focusing on suppressing constructive expression of emotions will not be effective in addressing violence (Baker & Letendre, 2005:102). Therefore, schools need to be pro-active and innovative and design effective measures for addressing school-based violence.

Sub-theme 7.9: Security system

Learners and educators both shared a similar view that schools should improve security infrastructure at the respective schools to avoid learners and community members who bring alcohol, drugs and dangerous weapons to school. A learner from one of the participating schools suggested as follows: *"But I think that the school can change. Maybe if they have the proper security by the gate each and every learner who comes there and if you have dagga or something they took that thing. Even they will come to the classes and search."*

Several other suggestions were made by the participating learners such as the closing of access points and installation of security cameras and random searches by police. Another learner made the following suggestion: *“They can organise police to come and search, but, they must not tell the children that this day the police is coming because all the children who sell these things will know, they must just come here and will catch the people who sell those things.”*

Overall, the suggestions made by the learner participants on improving security infrastructure and conducting random searches are compatible with the ones made by participating educators. The combined findings recommend safety and security measures such as access control and random search and seizure to be established and implemented in all schools to ensure that schools are safe and violence free. In support, Le Roux and Mokhele (2011:329) say school buildings, grounds and fences need to be in good condition and that schools should provide monitoring and surveillance of secluded areas. However, the Center. Link Newsbrief (2002:xi) cautions against the use of physical security infrastructure to keep weapons and drugs out of the school environment because these are inadequate and ineffective in preventing school violence. The author states that these measures do not address the root causes of violence.

Sub-theme 7.10: Parent skills training

As indicated in the research findings, participant learners and educators suggested parents talk to their children and listen to their problems; teach their children good behaviour and discipline them when they misbehave; report violent cases; educate their children about violence; teach their children about respect and self-discipline; support and care for their children; and encourage them to do their school work and participate in school activities.

The educators and learners at all the participating schools recommended parent skills training or books on parenting to empower parents to be able to supervise, guide and discipline their children. An educator said:

We lack joint effort and it's not necessarily the school staff, but all stakeholders of the school, parents included. Even if we educators try to do something about the discipline, but we are not getting there, we need help from parents to discipline the children from their side, from home.

Some learners suggested getting parents involved in the education of their children and work with schools in ensuring proper teaching and learning. They suggested that parents should be called in if learners do not listen to their educators. One learner made this suggestion:

I think we should get the parents involved. Some parents are too soft they don't care much about what kids do whilst at school and that contributes much to the personality of the person because the person mostly misbehaves. You don't listen to educators... maybe you will listen to your parents.

The above suggestions are in accordance with research findings from other studies (cf. Singh & Steyn, 2013:6; Le Roux & Mokhele, 2011:331; Bender & Emslie, 2010:185) which confirm that parents need skills to instil discipline. The authors suggest discipline will contribute to curbing violence and disruptive behaviour in schools.

Sub-theme 7.11 Stakeholder collaboration

Participant learners suggested that communities should work together with schools; organise community meetings to raise awareness and educate community members about violence; report cases of violence; organise community policing patrols; and engage community leaders to serve as positive role models.

Furthermore, learners said the Gauteng Provincial Department of Education should work with district officials, schools, police and parents. Learners said that these

persons should visit schools regularly to encourage principals and pay educators more in order to encourage them to do their work. Furthermore, the learners said the Department of Education should improve security at schools, organise awareness campaigns; and employ qualified staff with knowledge on school violence to empower educators and principals about school violence.

Educators in all the five participating schools observed and commented on the lack of support from their superiors; the lack of cooperation and coordination between the various departments; and the lack of cooperation from parents and guardians. The educators identified learners, parents, educators, communities and the Department of Education as important stakeholders in the education system who need to work together in order to prevent violence in schools. An educator said: *“The solution is... there are three components in education sector. We talk about the learners, parents, ok... there are four. We talk about the educators and the community. I think these four components must work hand in glove.”*

As part of the research, learners were requested to give an opinion on their experience of existing measures and to give suggestions on the type of skills training to be provided in order to help in reducing the levels of school-based violence. Learners listed the following topics: Counselling; information about violence; skills training on self-discipline; self-defence; self-control; respect; communication; anger management; problem solving; stress management; study skills and importance of education; decisionmaking; dealing with peer pressure; team work; and physical training, sports and recreation.

It is evident from the challenges experienced by schools and the suggestions made by the participants that school-based violence places a lot of learners and educators at risk. Burton (2008b:75) and Leoschut (2013:103) show that a range of interventions have been implemented by the Department of Education. However, according to the authors, these interventions have been unsuccessful because they are not based on any evidence on the nature, causes and extent of the problem. Furthermore, the authors note that these interventions ignore the influence of the

broader environmental context (Burton & Leoschut, 2013:101). Therefore, a lot more still needs to be done to address this problem. Empirical evidence from this current study shows that learners and educators want schools to do more than what is currently being done to prevent school-based violence.

Theme 8. Learners' experiences of existing school violence prevention programmes or services

Table 5-10 below confirms that despite the existing measures in schools, learners yearn for a school-based violence prevention programmes that provide them with information, knowledge and skills on how to avoid engaging in violence or becoming victims of violence in the future and to enable them to change their behaviours and attitudes toward their families, peers and educators. Learners had the option to select as many responses as they wished to indicate their experiences from existing school violence prevention programmes and indicate their future needs from the seven options provided in the table below.

Table 5-10 School programmes or services on violence prevention (n=677)

Response	Frequency	Percentage
I would like to participate in these programmes and services at my school	495	73.1
I learned something and benefited from group discussions on violence and violence prevention at my school	439	64.8
I learned something and benefited from media and awareness campaigns on violence and violence prevention at my school	378	55.8
I learned something and benefited from one-one-one discussions with a educators on violence and violence prevention at my school	371	54.8
I learned something and benefited from skills training workshops presented on violence and violence prevention at my school	318	47.0
My school does not offer any of these programmes or services	210	31.0
I did not learn anything from any of these programmes or services at my school	178	26.3

According to Table 5-10 above, the Life Orientation module provides violence prevention skills training workshops, group discussions, media and awareness campaigns and one-on-one discussions with educators on violence and violence prevention. Findings show that the majority respondents (n=495, 73.1%) said they like to participate in the school violence prevention programmes and services at

school. The respondents (n=439, 64.8%) reported that they do benefit and learn something from the group discussions; (n=378, 55.8%) said they learn something and benefit from media and awareness campaigns and (n=371, 54.8%) said that they learn something and benefit from one-on-one discussions with educators. Only (n=178, 26.3%) reported that they do not learn anything from the school violence prevention programmes as compared to (n=318, 47.0%) of the respondents who said they benefit from the existing skills training workshops. It is noticeable that some schools (n=210, 31.0%) do not offer any programmes or services related to prevention of school violence.

Overall, within the context of this study, the converged data have provided a broad understanding of the school violence plaguing schools. Below is a presentation of key findings on the study.

5.4 Key Findings

To recap, the study responded to the following research question:

- What constitutes a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners?

The research question was informed by the following research sub-questions:

- What are the nature, extent, causes and impact of school-based violence among high school learners?
- What school-based violence prevention and intervention strategies are available internationally and nationally?
- What core elements should be included in a school-based violence prevention programme for learners?

The key findings of the study are discussed within the context of the ecological systems framework and pragmatic research paradigm. The following key findings relate to: the learner, family, peers, educators, the school system, and the

community. In addition, findings will focus on the causes of school-based violence; the impact of school-based violence; measures to manage violent incidents; and prevention strategies and challenges encountered in addressing the school violence problem. This section will conclude with suggestions to prevent school-based violence and a summary.

5.4.1 Learner-related findings

Findings indicated that learners are exposed to all forms of violence in all the participating schools. Learners experience, perpetrate and observe emotional, verbal, physical, sexual, gang, property and cyber violence. Perpetrators of school-based violence included other learners, some parents, some educators and community members. As a result, learners are constantly exposed to high levels of violence. Perpetrated by peers, parents, educators and community members.

5.4.2 Parent-related findings

As the study findings show, some parents or caregivers are uninvolved and unsupportive of their children social and academic needs and activities. They do not respond when called to meetings. Additionally, some parents lack skills and competencies to raise and discipline their children without resorting to corporal punishment. As a result they collude with their violent offspring by covering up aggression and violent-related behaviours that are reported by school personnel to police. Furthermore, the study shows that some parents delegate their parenting responsibilities to educators and the school system due to fear and inability to enforce discipline and set boundaries.

5.4.3 Peer-related findings

Learner-on-learner violence in all its forms and typologies is prevalent. In some instances, some learners participate in gang-related activities; they have easy access to alcohol, drugs and weapons which perpetuate violence. This violence

occurs in the classrooms, in the sporting fields, remotely via Information and Communications Technology (ICT), and on the way home.

5.4.4 Educator-related findings

Educators are perpetrators of violence against learners. Some educators are also vulnerable to violence perpetrated by learners especially where the learner-educator relationships are poor. Some educators are uncaring and unsupportive; they behave unprofessionally and unethically in the presence of learners setting a wrong precedent.

Some educators lack training on early identification and handling of violent episodes and they have poor classroom management skills. Instead, they resort to verbal and physical violence to enforce discipline. Sometimes they deliberately renege from enforcing discipline out of fear of victimisation due to lack of support from the DoE.

5.4.5 School-related findings

Violence is experienced everywhere within the school environment and in surrounding communities. It is entrenched into the fabric of the school culture. Most incidences of violence are either under-reported or are totally unreported. The school system and authorities are unresponsive and unsupportive. Where cases are reported, there is a lack of access to free counselling services. The school infrastructure is insecure and enables intruders and criminals to enter school premises and perpetrate crime and violence. Where the infrastructure is secured, the security officials are corrupt and collude with learners by selling drugs to learners, or they allow learners to smuggle drugs and weapons into the school premises.

5.4.6 Community-related findings

Members of the community perpetrate violence by jumping through the fence into schools to rob learners and educators or sell drugs. In the process, learners are harassed or robbed, forcing some learners to carry weapons to school in self-

defence. These weapons end up being used in instances of conflict with peers or educators.

5.4.7 Findings relating to the causes of school-based violence

Several factors that contribute to school-based violence include learners' indiscipline, poor academic performance, personal problems, family-related factors, community-related factors, poverty, peer pressure and status, gossip, provocation and revenge, lack of respect, gambling, alcohol and drugs, gangsterism, unprofessional behaviour of educators and racism and prejudice.

5.4.8 Finding relating to the impact of school-based violence

The identified multiple causative factors discussed above in 5.4.7 exert a negative influence and lead to undesirable outcomes for learners, educators and the school environment. Violence does not only affect people physically, but has short-term and long-term emotional, social and economic outcomes which translate into intergenerational influences and implications. Violence disrupts education and impedes successful academic outcomes.

5.4.9 Findings relating to the management of violent incidents

Several measures that schools implement to manage violent incidents include, educators reporting the matter to the principal, calling parents and instituting disciplinary actions, calling the police to conduct drug and weapons searches, suspensions, expulsions. A few learners revealed that other educators intervene and warn the perpetrator. Others minimise or ignore the incident.

A wide range of additional measures to deal with violence in the schools were identified such as the use of a demerit system; motivational talks by positive role models, professional counselling and peer counselling services. Findings also revealed a need for a forum to raise concerns and needs in a safe and private manner.

5.4.10 Findings relating to school-based violence prevention strategies

Schools have school-based violence prevention and intervention measures and services in place (See category 5.2.6 and figure 5.7). Schools were found to provide life skills modules on various topics including human rights, decision-making, problem-solving, peer pressure, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, alcohol abuse, physical abuse, drug abuse, self-discipline, communication, leadership, morals, values and principles, causes of violence, effects of violence, service to community, conflict resolution, anger management, gambling, cyber bullying, and gangsterism.

However, most of these measures are not adequately implemented and/or are ineffective in reducing levels of violence or preventing school-based violence. Results show that learners are disinterested in these services and programmes and educators are overburdened with other teaching academic subjects and as a result lack time to focus on implementing prevention services and programmes.

5.4.11 Findings relating to challenges that schools encounter in addressing and preventing school-based violence

Several challenges and obstacles that hamper the implementation of prevention and intervention strategies include: Lack of parenting skills, lack of supervision and lack parental involvement in school activities; unprofessional behaviour of educators; lack of policy implementation and support services to educators; and the unethical and unprofessional behaviour of some educators.

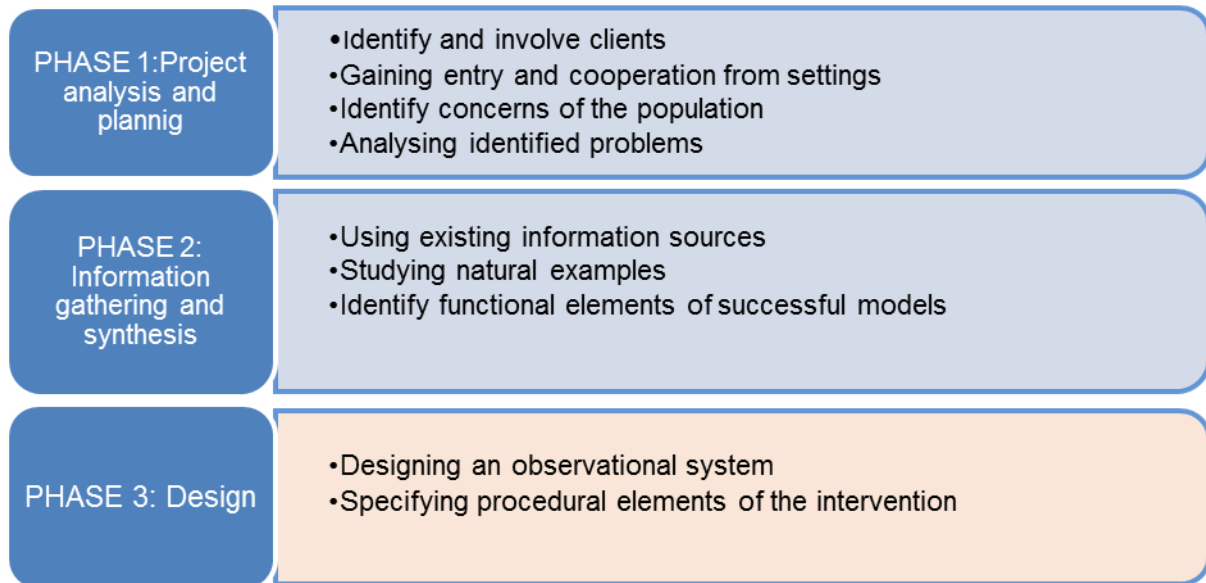
5.4.12 Findings relating to suggested measures to prevent school violence

Despite the existing measures in schools, learners want schools to implement school-based violence programmes that will capacitate them with information, knowledge and skills in order change their pro-violence behaviours and attitudes. They want programmes that are interactive, fun and creative. Learners want school environments and educators that are caring, supportive and respectful. They want to

be treated with respect and dignity, ensuring their rights are protected. Learners want school environments that are safe and secure to ensure effective teaching and learning.

In conclusion, the outcome of this study indicate that all the participants were in support of a school-based violence prevention programme. Learners made several relevant suggestions for school-based violence prevention which the research has integrated in the proposed school-based violence prevention programme (See Chapter 6). However, some suggestions were institutional and thus on a policy level, relating to positive discipline and abolishing corporal punishment; professional behaviour of educators; disciplined behaviour of learners; counselling services and special schools; peer support and mentorship programmes; education and awareness campaigns; demerit and merit system; suspension; improved infrastructure and security systems; parent skills training, and stakeholder collaboration.

CHAPTER 6: DESCRIPTION OF THE SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE PREVENTION PROGRAMME



(Rothman & Thomas, 1994)

6.1 Introduction

Raviv, Raviv, Shimoni, Fox and Leavitt (1999:352) compare the prevention of school violence in South Africa to an issue like the weather stating that, "...it should not be like something that everybody complains about, but nobody does anything to improve it." The need for a prevention programme to curb violence in South African schools is of great concern to everyone (Leoschut, 2013:3). Therefore, this chapter focuses on phase 3 of the Intervention Research (D & D) Model, which entails the design phase of a school-based violence prevention programme.

Firstly, the chapter presents the background information on the multi-level school-based violence prevention programme, that targets learners, parents or caregivers, educators and the school system. The term caregiver is used in this context interchangeably with parents because only one in three children live with both

biological parents whilst the majority (80%) live with grandparents or relatives, with one in five of the children having lost one or both parents mainly due to the AIDS epidemic (UNICEF, 2014:50). The next discussion focuses on the theoretical framework of the school-based prevention programme. This section is then followed by a discussion of the school-based violence prevention programme, including a description of the curriculum, the hybrid model of teaching and learning, the stages of change theory and the lesson plans. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary.

6.2 Description of the school-based violence prevention programme

The development of the school-based violence prevention programme is based on the literature review (See Chapters 3 and 4) and the empirical study (See Chapter 5). From the literature review, the programme was informed and guided by the theoretical and practice frameworks (See Chapter 3: sections 3.3.1; 3.4.1-3.4.4). In addition, the researcher drew from the literature review with regard to existing evidence-based school violence prevention programmes (See Chapter 4: section 4.7). The empirical study (See Chapter 5) presented the voices of the learners and educators which makes them the co-designers of the school-based violence prevention programme. The empirical study reflects the deliberate efforts that were made to involve and engage learners and educators in the design of the school-based violence prevention programme. Cushin (2015:44) emphasises the relevance of meaningful participation of young people in matters that affect them, while Fletcher (2005:9-10) highlights that such benefits accrue not only to the individual learners themselves, but to the entire school system as well.

The literature review and the empirical study was undertaken in line with the view that researchers need to first know what is going on and to understand why certain people behave the way they do, before they can confidently introduce an intervention to change a problematic situation (Strydom, 2013:153). Moreover, Lewis et al. (2012:63) and Wodarski and Hopson (2012:23) emphasise that designing an intervention should be based on empirical grounds. The empirical study contributed valuable input from learners' and educators' perspectives, as well as in providing

justification for the decisions taken by the researcher to develop the school-based violence prevention programme. Involving learners and educators was beneficial because it enabled them to identify issues that are important to them (Oliver & Pitt, 2013:176). Developing the programme from both a literature and empirical perspective, is in line with the view that research activities must result in an interpretation of the data to solve the problem under investigation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:220).

The literature study and empirical evidence has shown that school-based violence is caused by multiple factors which involve learners, parents or caregivers, educators, community members and the school system (See Chapter 4: sections 4.4.1 to 4.4.8 and Chapter 5: theme 3). The researcher adopted the name, *Think Smart-Take Charge-Turn a New Leaf Programme* (hereafter referred to as *Triple T*) as the proposed school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District in Gauteng Province. The rationale for the name is based on the premise that an effective response would require *thinking smart* and *taking action* in order to *turn around* school-based violence. In line with the key focus areas, 'thinking', 'taking action', and 'turn around', the researcher selected 'Triple T' as the point of departure for the design of the school-based violence prevention programme.

Conducted within the bio-ecological systems theoretical framework, research findings revealed the inter-connectedness of the various systems within which learners are functioning. Hence, a prevention programme to curb school-based violence can not focus on learners in isolation of the other systems. Therefore, the Triple T programme adopts a comprehensive multi-system and holistic approach to school-based violence prevention, comprising of three distinct systems, namely learners, caregivers and educators, including the school system.

The next section provides the context of the multi-level interventions that compose the Triple T programme. In line with the focus of the study, the proposed school-based violence prevention programme was designed and hence pilot tested with

learners. The following brief discussion of the meso and macro levels emphasises the importance of the bio-ecological systems framework in approaching the phenomenon of school-based violence. The researcher proposes further research on the meso and macro levels to align the three levels of the proposed Triple T school-based violence prevention programme.

- **The micro level (learner) intervention**

The learner intervention is partially modelled on a multimedia computer-based violence prevention programme for learners in grades 6 to 9, namely the Students Managing Anger and Resolution Together (SMARTteam) (Learning Multi-system Inc, 1996) (See Chapter 4: section 4.7.2.4). However, Triple T should not be confused with SMARTteam because it is an Information and Communications Technology (ICT) based intervention, customised from DVD to mobile phone, which uses a WhatsApp smart phone application to fit the current Information and Communications Technological advancements.

The literature review indicated that young people grow up in an era where they interface with technology on a daily basis and that their lives revolve around mobile phones and games (See Chapter 4: section 4.4.6). Based on the model of the SMARTteam programme, the researcher saw an opportunity to use a mobile phone as a teaching and learning tool due to the technological advancements that the youth are exposed to and are familiar with². This innovation is in line with the empirical evidence from this study showing that young people want schools to implement interesting and fun educational programmes such as play station games (See Chapter 5: theme 7, sub-theme 7.6). Burton and Mutongwizo (2009:8) confirm the need to develop comprehensive, adaptive, dynamic and responsive solutions that address the environment and context in which young people live.

² The researcher received copyright permission from SMARTteam for adapting from DVD to smart phone (see Appendix P).

The rationale for this focus is that if learners participate in the school-based violence prevention programme, they may acquire appropriate knowledge and gain affective, cognitive and behavioural skills, which will enable them to think smart, take action and turn around school-based violence phenomenon once they realise that violence is a violation of people's rights and hence is morally wrong. Secondly, once learners learn to think about the consequences of their behaviour on themselves and others, they may take action and turn around school-based violence. As a result, violence may be reduced or eradicated in schools, families and communities. It is envisaged that by participating in the Triple T programme, learners may become peaceful, respectful and responsible adult citizens that contribute positively to society.

Therefore, it is important to teach learners socio-emotional and ethical skills to enable them to see violence as a violation of people's rights, and to think about the consequences of their behaviour on themselves and others and to turn around their violent behaviour by learning decision making, problem-solving, anger control and conflict resolution skills. This view is supported by LeCroy and Williams (2013:109) who identify lack of problem-solving skills as contributing to antisocial behaviour, and who regard problem-solving skills training to be a cognitive behavioural strategy that can help children and adolescents deal with difficult situations during interactions with their peers and adults.

Moreover, the need to teach learners these ethical and socio-emotional skills is justified by Ming-Tak and Wai-Shing (2008:47) who argue that learners need to feel safe and secure within the classroom environment, to know the boundaries, and act accordingly. Hence, the focus of the programme will include problem solving, anger control, decision making and peaceful conflict resolution skills training. The design of the intervention and the goals of the learner intervention will be discussed in sections 6.3 to 6.4 below.

- **The meso level (parent or caregiver) intervention**

The literature review (See Chapter 4: section 4.4.2) and empirical findings (See Chapter 5: Figure 5.4; theme 3, sub-theme 3.2; theme 6, sub-themes 6.1-6.2; theme

7, sub-theme 7.10) revealed that family circumstances place many learners at risk. Previous studies confirm that parents and/or caregivers have a critical role to play in the socialisation of children (Tomlinson et al., 2012:143). Yet, many parents and/or caregivers are not capable of fulfilling their caregiving roles due to inadequate knowledge and skills (Tomlinson et al., 2012:145). The programme is premised on the belief that if parents and/or caregivers think smart; turn around their parenting styles; begin to take charge and take responsibility for raising their children; imparting sound moral values, beliefs and attitudes, then children may grow up and uphold positive values as individuals, families and members of society who strive to uphold and protect the rights of their own children and other citizens, in particular the right to protection, safety and education.

UNICEF (2007:28) purports that efforts to curb school violence must focus on changing parenting styles and attitudes to strengthen families' functioning (Tomlinson et al., 2012:148). Following this argument, Moore, Stratford, Caal, Hanson et al. (2014:42) assert that caregivers should raise their children to control their undesirable impulses and behaviour. Undeniably, if parents and/or caregivers think smart, take action and turn around their parenting responsibilities by beginning to cooperate and work in partnership with schools, they may enhance the academic success of their children and change their attitudes and behaviour. By getting involved and participating in their children's academic and social lives, their roles could contribute toward addressing classroom disruptions, school violence and other antisocial behaviours. Furthermore, Gould and Ward (2015:6) argue that if caregivers take charge and fulfil their caregiving roles by supporting schools in achieving academic excellence and reduce school dropout rates, they could contribute to the achievement of the National Development Plan (NDP). Research findings documented in the African Child Policy Forum (2014:pxvi) also provide evidence that the family environment is the key setting for reducing violence.

The proposed parent and/or caregiver level intervention could be developed in the form of workshops for caregivers and/or parents of high school learners, who may or may not be involved in school violence. The focus of the parent and/or caregiver

intervention could include discussions on attitudes and behaviours of parents and caregivers with regard to their caregiving responsibilities, especially by encouraging them to be involved in the social and academic lives of the children in their care. Manyike (2014:57) confirms that parents and/or caregivers need skills training in order to be empowered with knowledge to learn about the importance of being involved with the children in their care and to show interest in their school work. WHO (2015:16; 22) agrees that caregiver involvement and the quality of the relationship between caregiver and child, directly influences child development. The goals of the parent level intervention should be to strengthen child-caregiver relationships; to promote caregiver participation and involvement in school activities; to encourage support of schools' endeavours to address school violence; to facilitate caregiver-educator relationships; and to foster family-school partnerships and collaboration that promote effective schooling systems.

- **The macro level (educator and school system) intervention**

Naturally, an educator is one adult, apart from the family, with whom children have regular and prolonged contact with (Knoetze, 2012:129). For the same reason, the macro level intervention is based on the view that schools and their academic staff need to think smart, take action and turn a new leaf by providing an enabling environment, abdicate corporal punishment and use positive discipline strategies. Additionally, to prevent school violence and minimise the impact thereof, the researcher argues that educators need to change their thinking and behaviour by beginning to view school violence as a human rights and moral issue (See Chapter 4: section 4.4.4; Chapter 5: theme 3, sub-theme 3.8; Figure 5.4; theme 6, sub-theme 6.5; theme 7, sub-themes 7.1-7.2).

Educators need to think smart, take action and turn a new leaf by acting as positive role models and behave professionally and morally so that the learners can take a lead from them. Furthermore, educators need to set the right examples by not engaging in undesirable behaviours such as smoking and colluding with learners or engaging in sexual relations with learners. UNICEF (2007:24) contends that teachers' attitudes, approaches and skills are critical because they shape the

learners' development and experiences in school. Therefore, the educator level intervention is proposed to be in the form of teacher in-service training workshops on positive and constructive discipline, moral guidance and professional behaviour targeting grades 9 to 11 educators. The goal of the intervention should be to empower educators to change from using corporal punishment, improve learner-educator interpersonal relationships, and to promote professional behaviour.

Equally important, if school headmasters think smart; take action and turn a new leaf by creating caring and supportive school environments through their policies, practices, improved infrastructure development, and improved social and academic activities, these efforts may enhance a positive bond between the learners and the school staff. The Geneva Declaration Secretariat (2015:iii) point out in the foreword of the Declaration that, "safe life, without fear, is one of the most basic aspirations of the human being."

Furrer et al. (2014:112) believe learners will feel connected to their teachers and will feel safe at school when the teachers are dependable and provide emotional support. Zins et al. (2004:3) illustrate that schools will be successful if they promote children's emotional, social and academic learning. The researcher argues that this can be achieved if schools could begin to think smart, take action to turn around school-based violence by becoming democratic institutions that place emphasis on respect for human rights, that involve and engage learners in decision-making processes, and facilitate non-violent and respectful interpersonal relationships. Furrer et al. (2014:111) are of the opinion that this is achievable if teachers can provide warmth, structure, engagement, and support for learners' democratic rights. As a consequence, the researcher anticipates that such schools will more likely become centres of academic excellence that produce peaceful, productive and involved civil citizens.

Research findings indicated that educators are also victims of violence. It is therefore important that the role of educators to create a non-violent school environment for learners should not be seen in isolation from their own need for support, resources

and effective policies. The role of the Department of Education in developing and moreso, monitoring policy enactment in schools, is critical for the successful implementation of a school-based prevention programme. The rights of all the roleplayers, including learners, educators, parents/caregivers and the entire school system, should be respected and protected.

The researcher undertook the study in response to the call of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence against Children (2011:9) urging researchers to develop and implement programmes that seek to change attitudes among school children, school staff, administrators, parents and the community at large. The outcome of this study confirms the relevance of the Secretary-General's call to target various systems. As indicated above, it was beyond the scope of this study to develop all three interventions of the school violence prevention programme. Therefore, the current study was restricted to the micro level intervention, targeting grade 10 and 11 learners. It has been confirmed by Steyn (2007:23) that implementing a programme such as Triple T in its entirety could take several years to complete. The following section presents the underpinning theory of the proposed co-designed Triple T programme, in particular, giving a description of the curriculum.

6.3 Theoretical framework for the design of the Triple T programme

In designing the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme, the researcher utilised Lipsey's Theory-Based Programme Development and Evaluation Model as a guide in line with the author's view that any attempt to conduct intervention research requires the researcher to be theory-oriented (Lipsey, 1993:33). The premise that intervention methods should be based on theory is confirmed by Lewis et al. (2012:63) and Wodarski and Hopson (2012:23). The researcher used Lipsey's theoretical framework as it provides a sensible explanation of the reasons why such a programme should be designed (Huijbregts, Kay & Klinck, 2008:41); it provides an explanation of the implementation process to be followed to solve the social, educational and health-related problems that are linked to school violence (Chen, 2012:17); it offers explanations why the identified problems will

respond to this particular intervention (Lipsey, 1993:33), and it provides an account of how the intervention is expected to have effects on the specified target population of high school learners (Funnell & Rogers, 2011:12; 31). Based on the literature review and empirical findings which demonstrated that existing programmes and intervention are not theory-based (See Chapter 4: section 4.8), the researcher adopted Lipsey's Theory-Based Programme Development and Evaluation Model.

The legitimacy of the Lipsey's Theory-Based Programme Development and Evaluation Model is embedded in its accreditation by the World Health Organisation for providing better understanding of the service users' needs, the processes to be followed in addressing the identified needs and for specifying how the programme will achieve the set goals (WHO, 2013:12). Huijbregts et al. (2008:47) endorse the framework for identifying possible barriers to successful programme implementation and for providing insights into how to refine and improve the intervention. Furthermore, the model is a useful tool for developing a new intervention such as Triple T (Huijbregts et al., 2008:40). The model was utilised with the intention to promote social change by empowering learners with socio-emotional and ethical skills and to enhance their existing assets (Weil & Ohmer, 2013:154), in order to create more democratic, just and peaceful school environments and societies.

Overall, Lipsey's theory-based model represents the problem theory whereby risk factors and targets for change are identified; critical inputs and activities to address the identified problem are specified; the rationale for the particular chosen intervention is provided; a prediction of how the activities will produce the expected outcomes is provided; possible barriers that might affect the success of the intervention are identified; and the required resources to successfully implement the intervention are outlined (Fraser et al., 2009:47;51; Huijbregts et al., 2008:42). The only criticism levelled against the model is overlooking strengths and capacities of service users that could facilitate successful programme outcomes (Engelbrecht & Terblanche, 2014:31-32).

Therefore, in line with the underpinning principles of the developmental approach, the researcher adapted Lipsey's theoretical model slightly to incorporate strengths and assets that would contribute to service users' ability to benefit from the intervention. With this adaption, the researcher supports the view by Cushing (2015:45) that adults should change their perspectives about youths and refrain from seeing them as problems to be addressed, but rather as competent citizens with assets who can contribute to social development efforts. Engelbrecht and Terblanche (2014:31-32) also support utilising individuals' strengths, competencies, and capabilities in addressing social problems. Applied to this study, learners were engaged and participated in bringing about solutions to the identified school violence problem, rather than focusing on their deficits or seeing them as individuals with weaknesses, who cause the problems of school violence.

Lipsey's Theory-Based Programme Development and Evaluation Model as described by Huijbregts et al. (2008:42), entails six components, namely problem definition, critical inputs or activities, implementing issues, expected outcomes, mediating processes, and extraneous variables. The researcher added *intrinsic variables*, which refer to inherent strengths and capacities with which the learners are endowed, as well as *environmental resources*, into the model. The components of the theoretical framework are consolidated and captured in Table 6.1 in this Chapter in the respective sessions of the lesson plan of the pilot programme. How the adapted model was used as a guide for the design of the school-based violence prevention programme as consolidated in Table 6.1 will next be discussed.

- **Problem definition**

The researcher ensured she understands the problem, namely the nature, types and extent of violence prevalent in high schools as well as the circumstances that contribute to its existence and the impact thereof, before designing the intervention to address it. Macdonald and Popay (2013:265) and Wodarski and Hopson (2012:9) confirm that problem identification is crucial prior to designing an effective intervention, otherwise individuals that are at risk of the problem, cannot benefit from the programme, no matter how effective it is (Lipsey, 1993:39).

The researcher involved the learners in the need assessment for a school-based violence prevention programme because developmental social work practice expects the practitioner to form partnerships and work together with service users in solving identified problems (Gredig & Marsh, 2013:73). This practice ensures effective achievement of outcomes when programme design is anchored in what the service users say they want or what matters to them most (Macdonald & Popay, 2013:267). In the context of the current study, the problem to be addressed was the constant exposure of school learners to violence and the lack of holistic and successful interventions which results in enormous short- and long-term physical, emotional, educational, social and economic negative consequences for learners, families, educators, schools and broader society.

- **Critical inputs or activities**

Critical inputs are the key activities that use a range of inputs intended to contribute to the achievement of the outcomes (Funnell & Rogers, 2011:27-28). The authors say it is basically “what we do” and “what we invest” (Funnell & Rogers, 2011:27-28). According to Oliver and Pitt (2013:167), critical inputs include actions that are executed as part of the implementation process. In order to address the identified problems and needs of the learners, the researcher reviewed literature about how these problems could be addressed, and the inputs of learners and educators on how the identified needs could be met were enlisted. The inputs enabled her to plan and execute the process of designing and implementing the intervention.

According to WHO (2013:9) and Lewis et al. (2012:68), planning involves identifying tasks to be performed, methods and technologies to be used to reach the desired outcomes of peaceful and violence free school environments. It was imperative that the programme includes the activities and procedures to be carried out to achieve the set goals and that these should reflect the theoretical assumptions underpinning the study (Huijbregts et al., 2008:44). Using the information obtained from the literature review and inputs from learners and educators, appropriate activities were

put in place, clearly describing what would be undertaken to address the problem. These are discussed in Table 6.1.

- **Implementing issues**

In order to implement the intervention with success, all available and required resources were identified and harnessed. This was achieved through proper planning. As Nel (2014:51) asserts, programme planning provides structure and direction, whilst Herbst (2014:84) says it facilitates the process of allocating needed resources. Therefore, needed and required resources were acquired to ensure piloting the intervention is successful. Huijbregts et al. (2008:46) agree that adequate allocation of resources facilitates successful implementation of programmes and ensures the achievement of expected outcomes. Nel (2014:57) contends that successful implementation will be hindered if implementing issues, that is, human, financial, environmental and material resources are not sufficiently and efficiently allocated.

The researcher identified a school from the list of 20 sampled schools in Tshwane South District that would be willing to give approval for the pilot study to be conducted and managed to obtain access to a suitable public high school to implement the intervention. Parental consent and assent from the participants was obtained prior to commencement of the activities (See Appendices R & S). In addition, the support of educators and school social worker was obtained in order to facilitate the implementation processes. Chen (2012:19) states that both micro and macro level contextual supports are crucial to successful implementation of an intervention. According to Chen (2012:19), micro level supports include social, psychological, and material supplies that participants require to ensure continued participation, whilst macro level supports include norms, cultures, political and economic factors. Over and above these, material resources such as teaching and learning aids were collected. The researcher organised pencils, a digital recorder, laptop, data projector and speakers to ensure the implementations went according to plan.

Finally, financial resources to provide for transport and lunch snacks were provided to enhance productive participation since sessions were held after school. In addition, an amount of R20.00 per learner to purchase mobile phone data was provided to ensure participants could participate in assigned homework activities. Therefore, this should not be construed as bribery to participate or as unethical behaviour. To the contrary, Fraser et al. (2009:151) state that payment of incentives and provision of transport reduces the burden and reinforces participation. Without reservation, the researcher ensured that all required resources were available to facilitate implementation of the programme and ensure participation.

- **Expected outcomes**

Interventions are designed and implemented to achieve set goals and objectives. The goals and objectives imply the envisaged benefits, outcomes and impact of the intervention on the target system (Weyers, 2011:109) and should be linked to identified needs and activities. On the whole, outcomes represent the actual desired changes such as acquired knowledge, skills, attitudinal and behavioural change at the completion of the intervention (Nel, 2014:56). Within the context of this study, the expected outcomes were enhanced knowledge and skills, improved peaceful and non-violent values, attitudes and behaviours and reduced levels of violence that would occur as a result of participating in the intervention. Hence, each session had set expected outcomes that are in line with set goals and activities. These will be discussed later in Table 6.1.

- **Mediating processes**

In designing the school-based violence prevention intervention, the researcher provided the underlying reasons for the intervention and provided the justification for the chosen activities (Weyers, 2011:112). According to Weyers (2011:112) reasons for the intervention and the approach taken would need to be supported by existing research evidence because inaccurate assumptions may lead to negative or unintended outcomes. In this context, each session was supported by existing or current evidence and the researcher provided the rationale and a justification to support the particular chosen activities. This is in line with Huijbregts et al. (2008:44-

45) who assert that researchers need to provide an explanation about how the activities will address the identified problem. In this context, each session begins with a catchy phrase in the form of a quotation to draw the interest and attention of the service users and provides a strong body of literature sources and current empirical evidence to support the activities that are laid out.

- **Extraneous variables**

Sharpe (2011:74) points out the importance of considering the impact of service users' participation in programme activities and the influence of external environmental obstacles or barriers that could hinder the successful implementation of a programme. Furthermore, Antikainen and Ellis (2011:199) state that personal, behavioural, and environmental factors should be considered. Therefore, prior identification of obstacles and barriers are a critical part of programme planning (Huijbregts et al., 2008:46). Thus, planning for these potential barriers that could hinder the participants' ability to benefit from the intervention was an imperative to avoid rendering the intervention ineffective. Additionally, the interaction of personal, behavioural and contextual factors was taken into consideration in line with the ecological systems theory that underpinned the study.

- **Intrinsic variables**

In line with the bio-ecological systems perspective, certain personal characteristics of the participants in interaction with environmental factors have the potential to influence the implementation process and outcomes of the proposed intervention. According to Kaakinen and Hanson (2015:86), the individuals and their environments are mutually shaping and changing each other. In other words, pertinent strengths, assets, capacities and resources that can contribute to the effectiveness of the intervention in addressing the identified school violence problem were identified and harnessed in order to prevent external factors from negatively influencing intervention outcomes. For example, the researcher always acknowledged participants' positive attitudes or behaviours and reminded them to focus on their dreams and goals. For the same reason, Weyers (2011:23) states that social

workers should explore and exploit strengths and resources. This is in line with the developmental social work approach which places value on people's strengths and assets rather than weaknesses (cf: Lombard, 2008:159; To, 2007:555; Saleebey, 2006:97). This view is supported by Manyike (2014:57) who urge schools to use the personal characteristics and experiences of individuals to enhance their positive behaviour and overall well-being in order to reduce school violence. The theoretical framework as described above, guided the design of the intervention which is discussed next.

6.4 The proposed school-based violence prevention programme

The proposed Triple T programme for preventing school-based violence is developed and described as a curriculum comprising six sessions, as indicated below:

6.4.1 Description of Triple T curriculum

Session 1: The contents of this session were based on the empirical findings which showed that learners are ill-informed about violence; they lack knowledge and information about the causes and impact of violence on themselves and others. Violence is pervasive and deeply entrenched in society, such that it is accepted as the norm. According to UNICEF (2014:16), South African children are exposed to high levels of violence that occur in multiple settings where childhood is spent and these include family homes, schools and communities. Thus, the session was designed to correct any myths and misinformation and encompassed theoretical and didactic lessons on nature, types, causes and impact of violence.

Session 2: This session was based on the finding that learners are not aware that violence is a violation of human rights and a manifestation of lack of respect, empathy and compassion. This session encompassed theoretical lessons on values, moral beliefs, principles and attitudes. The session is crucial because, "Values are beliefs that determine who we are and how we will respond to situations" (Rothery, 2008:101). Therefore, the focus was on knowledge transmission and information

sharing whereby learners were empowered with knowledge and information in order to change their pro-violence beliefs, attitudes and behaviours. Learners were taught about the need and importance of showing respect, compassion and empathy towards peers and educators. They were taught to think about how their behaviour affects others' feelings and behaviours, and how it infringes on human rights. They were also taught about the importance of establishing positive and caring interpersonal relationships.

Sessions 3 to 6: These sessions were dedicated to problem solving, decision making, conflict resolution, and anger control. The current study's empirical evidence showed that learners are engaged in social activities, such as sports, where the possibility of conflict is rife. Additionally, they participate in risky antisocial behaviours such as drinking alcohol and using drugs; gambling and participating in gang-related activities with peers without thinking about the consequences. Furthermore, findings showed that some learners perpetrate sexual abuse and molestation of peers; some are sexually exploited or they expose themselves to sexual abuse and exploitation. Perry (2009a:27) affirms that children and adolescents make irrational decisions, thus exposing themselves to aggressive and violent behaviours.

Therefore, the focus of sessions 3-6 was on cognitive, emotional and behavioural skills development in four critical areas in order to bring about change in violent attitudes and behaviour amongst learners. Learners were taught how to think before they act; to solve problems amicably; how they could manage their anger; resolve conflict constructively; and refrain from resorting to violence. Snodgrass and Haines (2005:30) believe that conflict resolution, anger management, problem-solving and decision-making skills are supposed to be learned in the primary social groups such as family and school. In addition, Snodgrass and Haines (2005:28) are of the view that learners must be taught that conflict is an inevitable part of school life and has many possible outcomes if handled constructively. Moreover, Tawana Bandy and Moore (2011:3) argue that most effective programmes focus on teaching problem solving skills and improving learners' ability to solve problems peacefully. The hybrid model of teaching and learning was selected to present the sessions.

6.4.2 Hybrid model of teaching and learning

There are various modes of facilitating information, knowledge and skills transfer and building competencies. In order to empower the learners, the following hybrid of modalities was used to address the identified problems and bring about the desired outcomes. These methods include the following:

6.4.2.1 Classroom-based didactic teaching

The classroom-based teaching approach was used to provide theoretical information and increase participants' knowledge, skills and competencies. This was necessary, despite the fact that outcomes of a research study by Wild and Swartz (2012:214) showed that strict classroom instruction teaching methods that follow rigid curricular lessen enthusiasm, creativity and interest to learn. The researcher took note of this finding, hence the teaching and learning included experiential learning methods. In line with Wild and Swartz (2012:214), adolescents learn much better through experience.

6.4.2.2 Group discussions

In addition to classroom didactic teaching, small-group discussions and exercises were used. Wodarski and Hopson (2012:39-40) show that groups provide opportunities for social skills training, where new behaviours can be tested in realistic contexts and where immediate peer feedback are provided. Learners were divided into groups to engage in discussions in order to show their comprehension through critical listening, questioning, and arguing as they applied the learned material (Furrer et al., 2014:101). Using group discussions is supported by Delgado and Staples (2013:555), who state that activities should integrate opportunities for fun and learning, with built-in opportunities for role play, film, and the use of technology and other aspects of youth culture. Hence, the innovative idea to use ICT in order to be in line with technological advancements.

6.4.2.3 Information and Communications Technology (ICT) and video-based lessons

The WhatsApp mobile phone application was incorporated to enable learners to watch videos, play educational games and perform homework exercises relating to theoretical content learned in classroom sessions. The Institute of Medicine and National Research Council (2012:4-2) state that youth are the fastest adopters of new media and mobile technology. Adair (2006:92-93) adds that interactive multi-media and ICT tools such as WhatsApp, Mxit and videos are used to provide lessons and skills training activities. Furthermore, Popovac and Leoschut (2012:9) contend that interactive media is key and effective in engaging children's attention when dealing with such serious issues as violence.

Thus, the WhatsApp mobile phone application was chosen as an appropriate teaching and learning tool (See Appendix Q). Curriculum-aligned content and short videos incorporating pictures, messages, quizzes and quotes relevant to the themes were uploaded and shared with participants to be used for homework exercises and tests to complete on their phones with a view to assessing the knowledge gained. For example, FIND decision making model where they were expected to define and explain what the acronym stands for or they were given case scenarios that involved violence and were asked to describe how they could deal with it. Additionally, daily challenge questions were sent to their mobile phones with a statement where they were expected to respond to a question by choosing the correct answer, such as:

- *“Conflict is a normal part of life.” (True or False).*
- *“People often disagree or clash on certain issues. When a conflict situation is not resolved, it affects your thoughts, feelings and behaviour.” (True or False).*
- *There are ways of resolving a conflict without resorting to violence.” List the steps you would follow to ensure a peaceful and non-violent resolution of the conflict.*

Mancini and O'Reilly (2013:1) argue that new technologies are not a panacea for preventing and reducing violence. Hence, other material such as video and music

were effectively utilised as a teaching and learning medium. Morris (2010:145-146) postulates that films are a rich source of communication, teaching and learning. Digital short films in the form of video clips were used to teach participants and enhance learning. Morris (2010:145-146) indicates that films evoke a range of feelings from viewing fictional characters, providing opportunities for reflection and discussion, promoting proper understanding of content relating to a topic such as violence, and facilitating the process of changing attitudes and behaviour. Learning also occurred by observation and modelling.

6.4.2.4 Modelling

In order to facilitate learning, modelling was included in the programme. Glick and Gibbs (2011:14) describe modelling as an exercise where the facilitator demonstrates and shows examples of behaviours or skills they want the participants to learn. The researcher and her assistant conducted demonstrations of particular skills or behaviours to the group such as conflict resolution, anger control, problem solving or decisionmaking. The learners imitated and repeated what had been taught through the demonstrations and they received feedback on their performance. This method allowed them the opportunity to practice what they have learned. It was anticipated that the learning would be retained through further practice in real life contexts and through role plays during the group sessions.

6.4.2.5 Role play

Role play is defined as “a simulated situation whereby a person is required to improvise a characterisation and perform it in front of an audience that is aimed at imitating a real life context” (Cohen et al., 2007:448). In the context of this study, participants were provided with opportunities to try out and rehearse the learned skills by using real life situations they had experienced or imagined. During the role plays, participants were required to imagine themselves in a particular situation or to react and behave as if they believe another person would have done so in that similar situation (Cohen et al., 2007:448).

With the assent of the participants, the role play sessions were recorded with a digital video recorder. The aim was to replay the scene to the audience so the participants can receive performance feedback from the group members, whereby they could be given praise, approval and encouragement (Glick & Gibbs, 2011: 47). As Ohmer, Warner and Beck (2010:168) state, role plays are effective for building and enhancing learned skills and helping learners to internalise and apply these skills in their own lives, school and communities.

6.4.2.6 Transfer training

To retain the learned material, participating learners were assigned tasks and encouraged to engage in activities at home or during school break, to practice what they have learned as described above. These tasks and activities could increase the chances that the learned information and skills endure to be used in other contexts (Glick & Gibbs, 2011:14, 35-36). The mobile phone application (WhatsApp), videos and written material were to be utilised for this purpose. These tasks were designed to offer learners an opportunity to test the retention and maintenance of the information, knowledge and skills gained. The participating learners were provided with a guideline to demonstrate when, where and how they have practised the skills and share their experience and its outcomes with the group in the next session.

Wordaski and Hopson (2012:36) argue that if the participants are provided with positive and constructive feedback, and are taught skills that enable them to influence and control their internal thoughts and external environments, their social functioning will improve.

6.4.2.7 Positive role models

The programme included a segment of positive well-known TV personalities, soccer stars as well as people who have had past transgressions of the law as a result of committing violence. The purpose of the engagement of such persons was to act as role models and address learners on lessons they have learned. According to Manyike (2014:57), it is helpful to include role models who can talk about issues that

affect young people such as drugs, alcohol, violence and gambling. The invited guests were requested to inspire and motivate learners to refrain from risky antisocial behaviour, that could jeopardise their and others' safety and future outcomes.

Manyike (2014:57) further states that programme implementers can use existing networks and service providers to enlist their support in identifying and inviting such individuals. Within the context of the study, a video recording was utilised, relaying an inspirational message to the participants from a well-known young married couple who are local TV presenters of youth programmes and the husband is well-known musician who is popular with the youth.

The methods that the researcher used as described above, do not preclude other methods that participants and other programme facilitators would prefer to utilise to facilitate effective programme implementation. The list of blended teaching and learning methods is exhaustive. Whilst equipped with a hybrid of teaching and learning model as discussed above, the researcher realised that bringing about change in a troublesome situation such as school violence is not a simple, single event, but a gradual and dynamic process that must be approached systematically.

The researcher was conscious of the diversity amongst the participants, and took into consideration their strengths and weaknesses. As explained by Antikainen and Ellis (2011:199), facilitators need to be conscious of the uniqueness of individuals, their strengths and weaknesses, different learning styles and the fact that learning takes place through cycles of reflection-action-reflection (Huitt & Dawson, 2011:19). As a result of the uniqueness of individuals, change takes place differently. This is embedded in a theory informing the process of change as will be described next.

6.4.3 Stages of Change Theory

Michau (2005:4) confirms that the growth and development process is complex and individuals go through the change process differently. Therefore, consideration

should be given to moving at the pace of each individual to ensure maximum benefit. According to Michau (2005:4), the process which individuals go through in the Stages of Change Theory, comprises of five phases, namely:

Stage 1: Pre-contemplation phase: In this stage, the participants are unaware of the problem and its effects on themselves and other people's lives. In this study's context, session 1 of the pilot intervention ensured that the participants understand how violence is caused and how it affects not only the victim, but also other people within the teaching and learning environment. It is crucial that all participants go through this phase successfully before they can move to the next phase.

Stage 2: Contemplation phase: During this phase, the participants are supposed to begin to question if the issue or problem of school violence relates to their lives. In session 2 participants were exposed to opportunities whereby they questioned and were made aware of how their values, beliefs and attitudes about violence influence their actions and behaviours which ultimately affect those they are in contact with such as peers and educators. During sessions 3-6, participants had the opportunity to ponder and think about how they resolve conflict, control their emotions, make decisions, and solve problems, and how these behaviours and attitudes may place their lives and those of others at risk. As the participants gradually moved through the teaching and learning process, getting more information and learning new skills and competencies, they moved into the next stage.

Stage 3: Preparation for Action. In this phase, the participants are supposed to develop an intention to act. As learners were capacitated with information, knowledge and skills to think about the consequences of their behaviour on themselves and others, they began the process of wanting to change their untoward behaviour. Through limited role plays, skills transfer training and homework assignments, participants were assisted to prepare for action.

Stage 4: Action phase: Participants began to put into practice what they had learned. In this phase, they experimented with new learned skills and different ways

of thinking and behaving as they took action in preparation for change. Positive and constructive feedback from the researcher, her assistant and group members facilitated this process of change. As a result of the constructive feedback, some participants were assisted to gradually move into the final stage.

Stage 5: Maintenance phase: Participants who experienced success and the positive benefits of the new learned skills and behaviours on themselves and others, were expected to retain the new learned behaviour and attitudes. Patel (2015:212) agrees that participants are more likely to maintain positive attitudes and behaviours for future use if they perceive or experience the benefits of behavioural change if that outweighs the risks of antisocial behaviour. However, it is only possible to monitor and determine if participants have retained the learned skills and the changed behaviours and attitudes over a period of time in a longitudinal study.

The theory of change is based on the premise that some people might change their behaviour because of new information about the risks and benefits they receive from participating in the intervention, whilst others may change due to tangible incentives they receive in return (Funnell & Rogers, 2011:31). It was therefore critical that the programme is implemented with fidelity to ensure the set goals are achieved and the participants benefit. Sseguya, Mazur, Wells and Matsiko (2014:15) state that the professionals' competencies, roles, status and expectations may also affect the functioning of the group, the implementation process and successful achievement of outcomes. Thus, these extraneous factors needed to be properly managed to ensure the achievement of outcomes.

Figure 6.1 below demonstrates that although change goes through a sequence of stages, it is not necessarily linear, but the process is rather cyclical because some individuals may encounter difficulties and relapse back into their problematic behaviours (Funnell & Rogers, 2011:326). The possibility of relapse could be due to the impact of person-environmental factors (See Chapter 3, section 3.2).

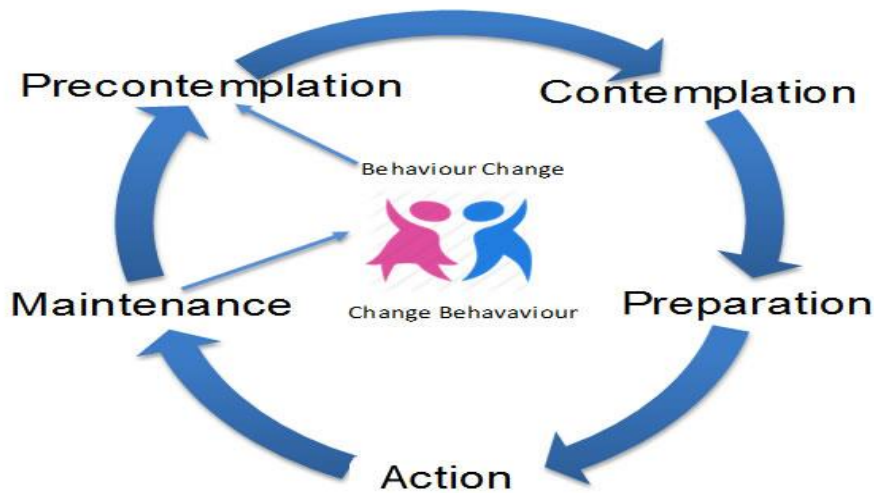


Figure 6.1 Stages of Change Theory

It is however important that programme implementers are aware of the stages of change in order to help participants move through the process of change. Due to the fact that this was a pilot study within a limited time span, it was anticipated that participants would not have gone through the complete process to reach the maintenance stage.

As a result of the fact that change is a process, that individuals are unique and contexts differ, Walzer and Cordes (2012:6) emphasise that programmes must have an implementation plan, specified goals and objectives with specified time frames that are set to meet pre-determined needs. Contrary to this, Ife (2012:2) is of the view that the implementation process of a programme cannot be pre-arranged, time limited and cannot be expected to fit into pre-determined stipulations and guidelines. Rather, as Chen (1989:303) states, it should be flexible to suit contextual issues and changing circumstances that may arise during the implementation process. Walzer and Cordes (2012:4) urge facilitators to adhere to the theoretical model of the intervention, but be flexible enough to adjust it to the specific needs of service users and local issues that might arise. Gray, Plath and Webb (2009:147) add that facilitators should recognise that effective implementation of an intervention is as important as the intervention itself. Thus, adhering to the theoretical model and

implementing the intervention with fidelity but flexibly is therefore critical for achieving set outcomes and for bringing about sustainable change (Walzer & Cordes, 2012:5).

In the context of this study, the researcher worked out a lesson plan according to the components of the theoretical model in which the programme was designed. During the implementation phase, the researcher remained aware that the prior determined sessions of the lesson plan must remain flexible to accommodate the participants' interest and learning styles. Walzer and Cordes (2012:5) propose that programme facilitators identify and utilise local opportunities and resources to achieve desired outcomes. The researcher discarded the idea of using WhatsApp and continued with the other planned teaching and learning activities.

Chen (1989:303) advises programme implementers to be at liberty to improvise and adapt the teaching and learning materials and activities because school contexts vary due to “environmental turbulence” and uncertainties that are caused by organisational changes and shifting participants' interests. The following section describes the school-based violence prevention programme according to the lesson plan that was implemented in different sessions and accordingly evaluated during the pilot study.

6.4.4 Description of Triple T lesson plan

As already indicated (See section 6.4.1), session 1 constituted a discussion about the nature, causes and impact of school violence; session 2 focused on values, beliefs and the importance of supportive and caring interpersonal relationships; and sessions 3 to 6 focused on conflict resolution, problem solving, decision making and anger control respectively. Each session started with a quote to draw the attention of participants to the theme of the session, create anticipation and set the context for the respective lessons. The respective sessions of the lesson plan are described next in Table 6.1 according to the components of the theoretical model of the intervention design (See section 6.3): problem definition, critical inputs or activities,

implementing issues, expected outcomes, mediating processes, extraneous variables and intrinsic variables.

Table 6-1 Triple T lesson plan

Session 1

Understanding the nature, causes and impact of school-based violence

‘Understanding the nature of the problem and its dimensions is the first step in responding to children’s needs effectively’ (Mathews, 2015:12)

Problem definition	Critical inputs/Activities	Implementation issues	Expected outcomes	Mediating processes	Extraneous variables	Intrinsic variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are exposed to violent and uncaring ecosystems on a daily basis. • Violence is the norm and part of learners’ school life. • Learners constantly display violent and aggressive attitudes and behaviours towards peers and educators. • Learners lack knowledge of and understanding about the nature, causes and impact of violence on the victim, the perpetrator and the teaching and learning environment. • Learners generally receive inadequate tuition during the Life Orientation Curriculum due to time constraints and lack of interest from the learners. • The current existing efforts are ineffective and unsuccessful in empowering learners with information and knowledge about the nature, causes and impact of violence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify and describe the seven types of school-based violence. • Identify and discuss the multiple causes of school-based violence. • Identify and describe the negative impact of school-based violence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Didactic lecture. • Group discussions. • Video clips. • Laptop and speakers. • Projector. • Flip charts. • White board. • Violence Tree hand-outs. • Paper and pens. • Lunch packs. • Transport fare. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe and distinguish between the seven types of school-based violence: emotional, verbal, physical, sexual, cyber, gang, and property violence • Identify and describe the individual, family, peer, school, neighborhood or community and societal factors that contribute to school-based violence. • Identify and describe the physical and emotional effects of school-based violence on the individuals, families, and educators. • Identify and describe the negative impact of violence on teaching and learning. • Identify and describe the socio-economic effects of violence on communities and society. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School violence is a multifaceted phenomenon caused by multiple factors which inhibits development and learning and affects the schools’ climate (Meyer, 2005:14). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptions and negative attitudes that this intervention is similar to the Life Orientation curriculum that is taught at schools. • Lack of interest and commitment to learn. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are resilient, have strengths and assets. They have the capacity to learn, grow, change and develop positively (Kisthardt, 2009:54). • Children have the capacity to protect each other, and to identify and support victims of violence among their peers (UNICEF, 2007:22).

Session 2
Demonstrating and promoting supportive and caring interpersonal relationships within the spirit of UBUNTU
"I am because you are.... You are because I am"

Problem definition	Critical inputs/Activities	Implementation issues	Expected outcomes	Mediating processes	Extraneous variables	Intrinsic variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners engage in peer-related activities such as gossiping, stealing from each other, drinking alcohol and using drugs, gambling, and gangsters that can escalate easily into conflict and violence. • Learners generally receive inadequate guidance during the Life Orientation curriculum covering conflict management at school due to time constraints and lack of interest from the learners. • The current existing efforts are ineffective and unsuccessful in empowering learners with knowledge and skills to resolve conflict peacefully. • The current existing efforts are ineffective and unsuccessful in changing learners' attitudes and behaviour, thus they resort to violence as a strategy to resolve conflict. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify and describe values, ethics or moral principles such as human rights, democracy, UBUNTU, empathy, integrity and compassion. • Demonstrate caring, supportive, fair and just attitudes and behaviour towards peers and educators. • Treat peers and educators with dignity and respect. • Describe and explain how school-based violence is a violation of human rights. • Learn about rights and responsibilities towards self, others and the school environment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecture notes. • Story telling. • Laptop and speakers. • Projector. • Flip charts. • White board. • Video clips. • Values Tree hand-outs. • Constitution hand-outs. • Paper and pens. • Lunch packs. • Transport fare. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate increased moral compass and reasoning abilities. • Display compassionate, caring and empathic attitudes and behaviours to peers and educators. • Demonstrate understanding that school-based violence is a violation of other people's rights. • Treat other learners and educators with respect and dignity. • Experience increased sense of caring and belonging. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Violence is a manifestation of lack of respect for other people and for human rights (Gevers & Flisher, 2012: 208). • Violence is a serious human rights violation issue and learners need to be taught to assess their value systems and begin to treat others as valuable human beings (Wessels et al., 2013: 1). • Learners should learn not to hurt others and must behave in a way that protects and enhances the rights and well-being of others (Von Reininghaus, Castro & Frisancho, 2013: 228). • Learners who are taught to be empathic are able to "take others' perspectives; to understand others' thoughts, feelings and behaviours, and are able to make moral decisions and enjoy improved interpersonal relations" (Wild & Swartz, 2012:226). • Anti-violence values, behaviours and pro-rights beliefs not only contribute to academic success but promote positive interpersonal relationships among students and school staff, and build good character and citizenship (Eisenbraun, 2007:467). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptions and negative attitudes that this intervention is similar to the Life Orientation curriculum taught at schools. • Lack of interest and commitment to learn. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood (Article 1 of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948) • Children have the capacity to protect each other, identify and support victims of violence among their peers (UNICEF 2007:22) • Learners are resilient, have strengths and assets. They have the capacity to learn, grow, change and develop positively (Kisthardt, 2009:54).

Session 3
Conflict Resolution Skills

"An eye for an eye will only make the world blind" (Mahatma Gandhi)

Problem definition	Critical inputs/Activities	Implementation issues	Expected outcomes	Mediating processes	Extraneous variables	Intrinsic variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners do not know that violence is a violation of people's rights. • Learners are raised by parents who are uncaring, uninvolved, and un-interested in their academic and social lives. • Learners are raised by parents who are incompetent and fail to install discipline. • Learners are taught by educators who are uncaring and unsupportive. • Learners are taught by educators who are ill-equipped, who rely on corporal punishment and undemocratic codes of conduct and policies to maintain discipline. • Learners are taught by educators who behave unethically and unprofessionally. • Learners are exposed to immoral and unethical role models at school and in the community. • Learners lack moral and ethical reasoning capacity and demonstrate lack of respect for self, peers and authority figures. • Learners are deficient and incompetent with regards to showing empathy, compassion, caring and supportive attitudes to peers and educators. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand that conflict is normal and that their response can escalate into violence. • Understand that conflict should not be avoided or ignored but should be resolved peacefully. • Apply and follow conflict resolution steps during a conflict situation. Namely: Any of the three ways of resolving conflict according to Oboegbulem and Alfa (2013:92). • Apply and follow conflict resolution strategies during a conflict situation. Namely: Any of the five strategies for conflict resolution according to Oboegbulem and Alfa (2013:92). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecture. • Story telling. • Group Discussion. • Role play. • WhatsApp homework assignment. • Laptop and speakers. • Projector. • Flip charts. • White board. • Video clips. • Conflict Resolution Strategies hand-outs. • Paper and pens. • Lunch packs. • Transport fare. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate understanding that conflict is normal and that their responses can escalate into violence. • Demonstrate understanding that conflict needs to be resolved and not ignored. • Apply and follow the conflict resolution steps in their encounters with peers and educators. • Demonstrate understanding that conflict can be resolved in any of the three ways. • Apply any of the five strategies to resolve conflicts in their daily encounters with peers and educators. • Resolve conflicts using peaceful and non-violent means in their encounters with peers and educators. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals who learn to resolve their own conflicts are empowered with a life skill that will benefit them in their personal and professional lives (Furrer et al., 2012:107; Reynecke, 2014:46). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptions and negative attitudes that this intervention is similar to the Life Orientation curriculum taught at schools. • Lack of interest and commitment to learn. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood (sic) (Article 1 of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948). • Children have the capacity to protect each other, and identify and support victims of violence among their peers (UNICEF, 2007:22). • Learners are resilient, have strengths and assets. They have the capacity to learn, grow, change and develop positively (Kisthardt, 2009:54).

Session 4 Problem-Solving Skills

“We cannot solve our problems with the same level of thinking that created them” (Albert Einstein)

Problem definition	Critical inputs/Activities	Implementation issues	Expected outcomes	Mediating processes	Extraneous variables	Intrinsic variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners often engage in social interactions and other undesirable activities such as gambling and gang activities whereby they encounter problem situations which they are unable to resolve amicably without resorting to violence. • Learners are not aware of other problem-solving options other than confrontation, conflict and violence. • Learners generally receive inadequate guidance during the Life Orientation curriculum covering problem solving at school due to time constraints and lack of interest from the learners. • The current existing efforts are ineffective and unsuccessful in empowering learners with knowledge and skills to solve problems peacefully and to change their aggressive attitudes and behaviours. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avoid engaging in fights with peers and educators in their daily encounters with peers and educators. • Apply and follow the four steps (S.T.A.R) in solving problems they encounter in their interactions with peers and educators according to Allan, Nairne and Majcher (1996:121-129). • Apply and follow the five steps in solving problems they encounter in their interactions with peers and educators according to Frey, Hirschstein and Guzzo (2000:104). • Apply and follow the six steps in solving problems they encounter in their interactions with peers and educators according to Scarborough (1996:18). • Apply and follow the ABC Model of problem solving according to Dobson & Dobson (2009:205). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecture. • Story-telling. • Group Discussions. • Role play. • WhatsApp homework assignment. • Laptop and speakers. • Projector. • Flip charts. • White board. • Video clips. • Paper and pens. • Lunch packs. • Transport fare. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Solve problems non-violently and amicably. • Apply and follow the four steps (S.T.A.R) in solving problems they encounter in their interactions with peers and educators. • Apply and follow the five steps to solve problems they encounter in their interactions with peers and educators. • Apply and follow the six steps to solve problems they encounter in their interactions with peers and educators. • Apply and follow the ABC Model of problem-solving. • Demonstrate increased competency in perspective-taking and problem-solving abilities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners who learn to listen to diverse views and to take others' perspectives into consideration, are able to solve problems peacefully and non-violently (Snodgrass & Haines,2005:30). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptions and negative attitudes that this intervention is similar to the Life Orientation curriculum taught at schools. • Lack of interest and commitment to learn. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood (sic) (Article 1 of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948). • Children have the capacity to protect each other, and identify and support victims of violence among their peers (UNICEF, 2007:22). • Learners are resilient, have strengths and assets. They have the capacity to learn, grow, change and develop positively (Kisthardt, 2009:54).

Session 5

Decision-making skills

"In matters of your life don't take orders, take decisions" (Amit Kalantri)

Problem definition	Critical inputs/Activities	Implementation issues	Expected outcomes	Mediating processes	Extraneous variables	Intrinsic variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learners often encounter difficult situations where they have to make important but difficult decisions on matters such as drinking alcohol and using drugs, engaging in gambling activities during and after school hours or engaging in gang activities. Some learners do not take the time to stop and think about the consequences of their actions before they act. Learners receive inadequate guidance during the Life Orientation curriculum covering decision-making due to time constraints from the perspectives of educators and lack of interest from the learners' perspectives. The current existing efforts are ineffective and unsuccessful in capacitating learners with knowledge and skills to think before they act and to think about the consequences of their actions on themselves and others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Avoid to act without thinking about the consequences of their behaviour on self and others. Apply and follow decision-making steps before taking any action according to Glick and Gibbs (2011:235). Apply and follow the FIND decision making model prior to making any decision according to Sussman et al. (2004:1995). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lecture. Role play. Group Discussions. WhatsApp homework assignment. Laptop and speakers. Projector. Flip charts. White board. Video clips. Paper and pens. Decision Worksheets. Lunch packs. Transport fare. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Make rational and well thought out decisions and choices when faced with a range of challenging situations. Apply and follow the decision making steps. Apply and follow the FIND decision making model. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teaching learners about rights and responsibilities is a key in violence prevention. Learners will be capacitated and empowered to act responsibly if they understand that rights are linked with responsibilities (Lombard, 2014:49). They will be helped to assess their own thoughts, feelings, beliefs, and attitudes in order to identify new thinking (Glick & Gibbs, 2011:7) that includes considering alternative solutions (Lewis et al., 2012:65) in order to reduce undesirable risky behaviour. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceptions and negative attitudes that this intervention is similar to the Life Orientation curriculum taught at schools. Lack of interest and commitment to learn. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learners are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood (sic) (Article 1 of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948). Children have the capacity to protect each other, and identify and support victims of violence among their peers (UNICEF, 2007:22). Learners are resilient, have strengths and assets. They have the capacity to learn, grow, change and develop positively (Kisthardt, 2009:54).

Session 6
Anger Control

“He who conquers his anger, has conquered an enemy” (Daniel Webster)

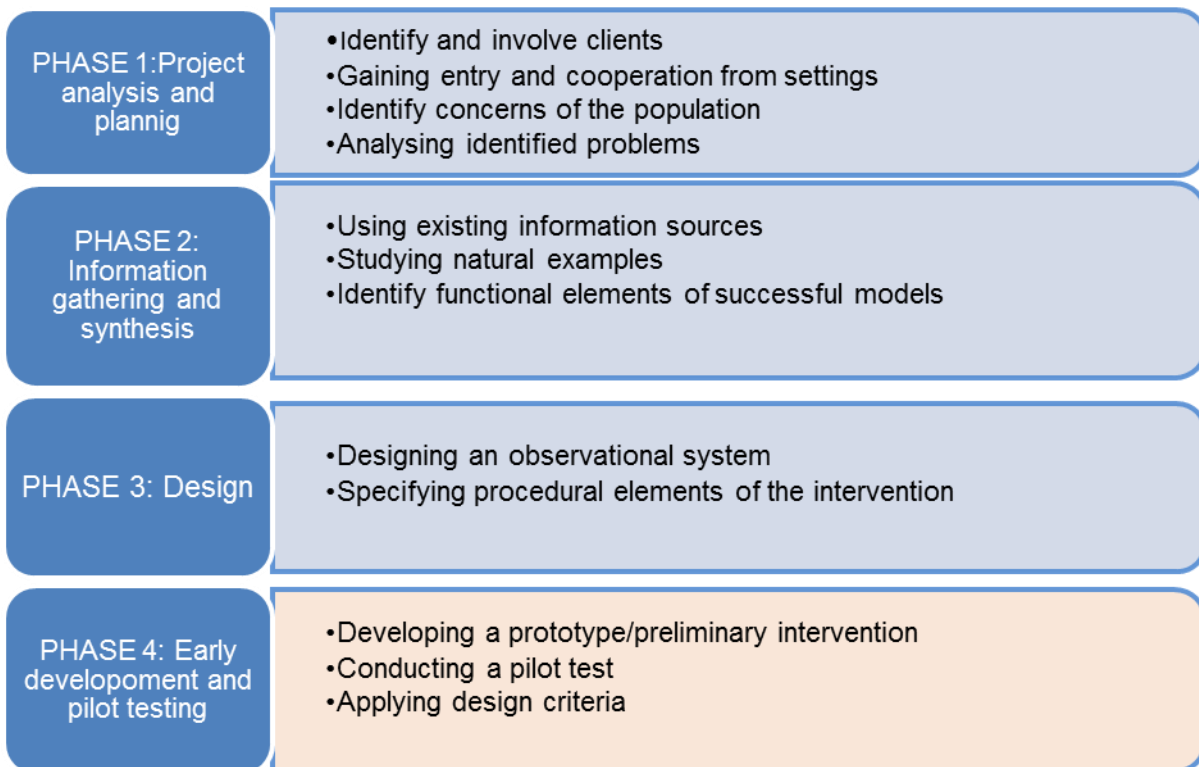
Problem definition	Critical inputs/Activities	Implementation issues	Expected outcomes	Mediating processes	Extraneous variables	Intrinsic variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners interact with peers in classrooms or sporting field where some situations are likely to provoke angry feelings and aggression. • Learners generally receive inadequate guidance during the Life Orientation Curriculum covering anger control at school due to time constraints and lack of interest from the learners. • The current existing efforts are ineffective and unsuccessful in capacitating learners with knowledge and skills to identify their anger triggers, to control their anger or to express their anger constructively. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe anger as a normal emotion that people experience. • Understand that anger affects people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviours. • Control their impulses and/or express their anger constructively. • Identify and describe that which triggers their anger as described by Glick and Gibbs (2011:262). • Apply and follow the anger control steps as described by Glick and Gibbs (2011:262). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecture. • Role play. • Story telling. • Group Discussions. • WhatsApp homework assignment . • Hand-outs. • Laptop and Speakers. • Projector. • Flip charts. • White board. • Video clips. • Paper and pens. • Lunch packs. • Transport fare. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate understanding that anger is a normal emotion that people experience. • Demonstrate understanding that anger affects people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviours. • Identify and describe their anger triggers. • Apply and follow the anger control steps. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequate impulse control and aggression are obstacles to forming successful interpersonal relationships (Knoetze, 2012:134). • If individuals are taught to control their internal and external environments, their social functioning improves (Wodarski, 2009:36). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptions and negative attitudes that this intervention is similar to the Life Orientation curriculum taught at schools. • Lack of interest and commitment to learn. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood (sic) (Article 1 of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948). • Children have the capacity to protect each other, and identify and support victims of violence among their peers (UNICEF, 2007:22). • Learners are resilient, have strengths and assets. They have the capacity to learn, grow, change and develop positively (Kisthardt, 2009:54).

6.5 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to present a description of the theoretical framework for the programme design and to develop the school-based violence prevention programme and discuss its implementation process. The rationale behind the Triple T programme is the fact that school-based violence is caused by multiple factors. Therefore, an effective strategy would require thinking smart in taking action in order to turn around school-based violence. This strategy was linked to all the systems to which the respective T's apply, namely the learners; the parent or caregiver; and the educators and the school system.

A description of the theory informing the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme was provided. The components of Lipsey's Theory-Based Programme Development and Evaluation Model include problem definition, critical inputs or activities, implementing issues, expected outcomes, mediating processes, extraneous and intrinsic variables. The curriculum content included six sessions that focused on the nature, causes and impact of school violence; values, beliefs and the importance of supportive and caring interpersonal relationships; conflict resolution; problem solving; decision making; and anger control. This was followed by a discussion of the hybrid model proposed for teaching and learning which constituted classroom-based didactic teaching; group discussions; ICT and video-based lessons; modelling; role play; transfer training; and positive role models. The envisaged outcome of the intervention should reflect the Stages of Change Theory, namely: pre-contemplation; contemplation; preparation for action; action and maintenance. The lesson plan for the designed school-based violence programme was presented in respective sessions. The outcome of the implementation and evaluation process will be discussed in the following chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7: EARLY DEVELOPMENT AND PILOT TESTING OF THE PROGRAMME



(Rothman & Thomas, 1994)

7.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on phase 4 of the Intervention Research (D & D) Model which entails the early development and pilot testing steps. Developing and testing interventions can be a lengthy process. Therefore, the current study only proceeded as far as the pilot testing step to “assess the functioning of the new intervention, the preliminary effects and to identify potential threats or weaknesses before embarking on a full scale implementation” (Melnyk, Morrison-Beedy & Moore, 2012:3; 41). Macdonald and Popay (2013:272) confirm that pilot evaluation is a pre-requisite before one embarks on large-scale expensive evaluative studies involving true experimental studies. The early development and pilot testing phase reported in this chapter evaluated the implementation and the feasibility of the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme which was presented in Chapter 6 as a prevention programme to address school-based violence.

In this study the researcher evaluated all components of the programme in order to conclude on what should be retained, improved, added or removed. Additionally, the focus was on how the participants experienced the implementation process and the factors that influenced those experiences. The aim was thus not to assess the impact of the programme, but to determine whether the school-based violence prevention programme presented a learning experience that enhanced their knowledge and skills and/or influenced their attitudes and behaviours in relation to violence.

The pilot study was guided by the following research questions:

- How did participating in the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme enhance your knowledge about school violence and violence prevention?
- How did participating in the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme enhance your skills about school violence and violence prevention?
- How did participating in the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme influence your attitudes about violence in schools?
- How did participating in the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme influence your behaviour towards peers and educators?

The chapter first presents the research design and the process of implementing and evaluating the programme. This will be followed by a presentation of the results of the pilot study. The chapter concludes with a synopsis of key findings and limitations of the pilot study.

7.2 Research design

As the pilot study was pre-experimental research, the One-Group Pretest-Posttest design was used to implement the programme using self-designed measuring tools (See Appendices E, F, G & H). As a pre-experimental design, there was no random selection of respondents and no control group (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013:233). Rather, non-probability sampling was used. Specifically, purposive sampling (Hesser-Biber, 2010:51) was implemented whereby a total of 12 grade 11 learners from a public high school were selected for the pilot study. As already described (See Chapter 2 section 2.6.3), the high school was randomly selected from the list of 20 sampled schools in the Tshwane South

District. Similarly, the school principal was requested to provide the researcher with grade 11 class registers which was then used to select the participants. The researcher enlisted the help of the school social worker in recruiting the participants from the larger grade 11 classes. The first 12 learners who responded to the call were invited to participate in the pilot study. The learners were chosen because they met the selection criteria of being:

- In grade 11;
- Able to speak English fluently;
- Of any nationality or racial group;
- Of any gender and
- Involved in school violence or not

Howard, Allen-Meares and Ruffalo (2007:34) notes that a One-Group Pretest-Posttest design has the potential to introduce bias as it makes it difficult to determine causal relationships between the pre- and post-test results. As Babbie (2008:253) purports, there is the possibility of some other factors causing a change other than the intervention itself. Nonetheless, the researcher minimised this possibility by using the theory-driven model (Lipsey, 1993:33). In support of this model, McGilton, Fox and Sidani (2005:27:31) argue that a theory driven model is an alternative to randomised controlled trials, that can be used to design, implement and evaluate interventions because it is easy to account for the processes and outcomes of the intervention.

By following Lipsey's theoretical model (Lipsey, 1993:33), the researcher created space for extraneous factors that could affect the implementation process. Funnell and Rogers (2011:217-226) and Salkind (2012:231-232) urge programme designers to take into account the impact of external factors they cannot control in order to ensure that the programme outcomes are not negatively affected. Interacting factors that influenced the implementation process and outcomes of the school-based violence prevention programme included three participants getting involved in violent altercations with peers that resulted in one participant being suspended from school. These incidents had the potential to derail the implementation process, but the researcher managed to salvage the situation by using the incidents as examples during the sessions in order to ensure successful achievement of the outcomes with minimal negative impact. This confirms the

view by Fraser et al. (2009:18) that practitioners need to make instantaneous decisions because intervention represents an adaptive process that arises from the confluence of a problem or circumstances, the response of those involved and the response of the environment.

Additionally, time constraints and the attitudes and behaviours of some participants who often arrived late derailed the implementation plan of the pilot study. The researcher had to adapt and change the lesson plans, which entailed shortening group discussions, thus compromising modelling, role plays and group discussions. McGilton et al. (2005:32) assert that multiple interacting factors have the potential to hinder successful implementation of programmes and the achievement of desired outcomes. Despite the above-mentioned obstacles, the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme was presented in a classroom-based group session format targeting between 8 to 12 high school learners.

The pilot testing step was accompanied by an evaluation process using self-designed measuring instruments (see Appendices E, F, G & H). Evaluation is a critical part of pilot testing a programme as in the case of the Triple T, that needed to be monitored to ensure that the planned activities are carried out as intended; available resources are adequately utilised; existing assets are maximised and the impact of barriers or obstacles are minimised so that the outcomes of the programme are successfully achieved (Herbst, 2014:56, 95).

There are several types of evaluation that can be conducted to assess the functioning of programmes, projects or interventions. For the purpose of the pilot test, the researcher conducted developmental evaluation. The researcher describes developmental evaluation as a form of formative evaluation that relies on the engagement and involvement of service users as partners in order to obtain feedback and inputs. Developmental evaluation has a participatory and empowerment focus (Lennie & Tacchi, 2011; Lewis et al., 2012:220), which was relevant to this study. The learners were engaged and involved in a consultative and collaborative process, whereby they shared their views and experiences of how the programme has improved their knowledge and skills, and influenced their

attitudes and behaviours. The service users gave input on the content, implementation processes and outcomes of the new programme. Such feedback and input will be used to make changes to the content, the teaching and learning materials and the mode of delivery during phases 5 and 6 of Intervention Research (D & D) Model. As Lewis et al. (2012:214) state, feedback and input obtained from the learners should be used to make changes either to the content, the teaching and learning material or the mode of delivery, in order to make adjustments and improve a programme.

In line with principles of participation and partnerships as enshrined in the developmental approach, the views and concerns of the participants were genuinely taken into consideration (Patel, 2015:136; Chen, 2012:18). Cushing (2015:45) observes that when participation is correctly implemented, involvement and participation of service users can become empowering in that participants gain a positive sense of self, gain understanding and sensitivity to the perspectives or needs of others. Funnell and Rogers (2011:333) confirm that participation and involvement of service users in evaluation processes is empowering. In support, Lewis et al. (2012:229) advocate for evaluation designs that are inclusive of diverse perspectives, where transparency and an atmosphere of trust and openness is created, so that participants can freely express their views.

The advantage of conducting developmental evaluation is that real relevant issues were examined; the participants became key informants and decision-makers regarding the contents, materials used and mode of delivery, whilst the researcher facilitated the sessions in order to be able to complete the programme development and evaluation process (Lewis et al., 2012:220) in an effort to address school-based violence. The disadvantage with this type of evaluation is that it is less objective and it can be a lengthy and time-consuming process (Lewis et al., 2012:220).

Developmental evaluation was conducted following the mixed methods approach. Sharpe (2011:73) confirms that multiple methods can be used to conduct evaluation studies to document the implementation process and outcomes of an intervention such as Triple T. As referred to by McGilton et al. (2005:32), the researcher incorporated and utilised a theory-driven evaluation framework to evaluate the overall performance of the programme

by focusing on three critical elements. These were: 1) the critical inputs, which related to the activities pertaining to the objectives of each session; 2) the process, assessing the teaching and learning methods and resources as well as how the researcher and her assistant conducted the sessions; and 3) the expected outcomes, assessing whether the set objectives were successfully achieved, whether the learners had gained any new information and knowledge, they had learned new skills and whether their attitudes and behaviours had improved as a result of participating in the intervention.

Despite time constraints, the researcher conducted a systematic and objective evaluation to determine the relevance, effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability of the programme (Department of Social Development, 2011:49) in order to determine whether the school-based violence prevention programme needs to be improved or discarded (Sharpe, 2011:72). The outcomes of the evaluation provided insights into how the school-based violence prevention programme could be improved in preparation for full-scale dissemination to other schools (See Chapter 8). Macdonald and Popay (2013:272) confirm that outcomes of an evaluation can be used later to refine and improve programmes for large-scale implementation and dissemination. Shai and Sikweyiya (2015:38) state that service users or stakeholders should be allowed to provide indications about the desirability and acceptability of the programme, prior to full-scale implementation. Therefore, this makes developmental evaluation relevant in this study as inputs were obtained from the participating learners which will be used to improve the school-based violence prevention programme prior to large-scale dissemination to other schools. The next section provides a description of how the pilot study was conducted in this study.

7.3 Data collection and analysis

Mixed methods in the form of questionnaires and focus group interview were used to collect data. For each of the six sessions, the participants were given self-designed pre-test questionnaires to complete prior to participating in the activities, and self-designed post-test questionnaires to complete after they had participated in the sessions (See Appendices E & F). In addition, in the last session, an overall evaluation questionnaire was completed (See Appendix G). Informed consent and assent forms were distributed to the

parents and participants themselves to obtain permission to participate prior to commencement of the study (See Appendices R & S).

The survey part of the pilot study was combined with one focus group interview to capture participants' views, perceptions and experiences about the school-based violence programme. A semi-structured interview schedule was utilised to evaluate the programme (See Appendix H). The participants were encouraged to interact with each other, sharing their experiences, particularly focusing on the benefits of participating in the school-based violence programme. In addition, the discussions were focused on the content of the sessions and the material used to enhance learning. Moreover, the researcher was interested in hearing their personal opinions relating to how the school-based violence programme had empowered them with knowledge and skills and how it had influenced their attitudes and behaviour. Additionally, the objective was to obtain inputs and suggestions from the participants on how to refine the school-based violence programme and improve its effectiveness in preventing and reducing levels of school-based violence.

The self-designed questionnaires had emoticons that were used for the evaluation of each session. Responses were quantified by assigning the negative emoticon a code of 1; the uncertain emoticon a code of 2 and the positive emoticon a code of 3 (see Appendices E & F). The means of codes 1 to 3 were then calculated across all participants to give an indication of the centre of gravity of the scale and hence to rank the aspects of evaluation. The means ranged from a minimum of 1 (implying a negative perception) to a maximum of 3 (implying a positive perception). A mean of 2 implies a perception that is neither positive nor negative, referred to as "uncertain". Since the means are on a continuous scale, it is possible to obtain a mean between the values 2 and 2.49. In such a case, it can be reasoned that the value is closer to 2 than to 3 and for ease of reference, this perception is categorised as "uncertain". In cases where the mean falls between 2.5 and 2.99, this perception is categorised as "fairly positive" and 3 is categorised as being "positive". This approach was followed in evaluating all the six sessions.

As there were few participants, descriptive statistics were computed using frequencies and cross tabulations. Descriptive statistics are routinely used to summarise pilot testing and

evaluation outcomes of a study (Beins & McCarthy, 2012:106) and to describe the data sets (Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2012:244), but not to examine the impact of an intervention (Tripodi & Bender, 2010:120). In alignment with the view of Tripodi and Bender (2010:123), descriptive statistics were used to determine the degree to which the learners were satisfied with the intervention; their views on how it was implemented; their perceptions of which lesson activities were effective or not; which materials and resources were adequate and efficient or not; and to suggest ways to improve the intervention. Cross-tabulations were used to compare and show relationships between pre- and post-test data (Alkin, 2011:172). This allowed the researcher to depict the number of participants who reported one of the categories, for example from “yes” to “no” in relation to the total number of participants. Therefore, cross-tabulations of the pre- and post-test results were compiled where the pre-test results were listed vertically and the post-test results were listed horizontally. In the intersection of a pre- and post-test result, the number of respondents who indicated “yes/no” in the respective tests were jointly presented in numbers and percentage as a total number of respondents (See Table 7.3).

Thematic analysis was utilised to analyse the qualitative data because the method takes a holistic and comprehensive approach in order to completely grasp the multiple views of the participants concerning the complex process of preventing school violence by filtering out the main points (Kohlbacher, 2006:16). Themes incorporating verbatim quotes were used to present the qualitative findings. The qualitative findings were integrated with quantitative results where appropriate by using tables and graphs, to show any convergence or divergence. The converged findings based on the participants’ evaluation of the programme are presented in the next sub-section. Firstly, the demographic data is presented. This will be followed by a presentation and analysis of the outcomes, which are verified by verbatim quotes.

7.3.1 Biographical profile of the respondents: Learners

Twelve participants were recruited for the pilot study. After the orientation session ten agreed to participate, but two dropped out of the programme after the first session presumably due to the session not meeting their expectations. The remaining eight

learners attended all six sessions. The biographical profile of the eight participants is presented in Table 7-1

Table 7-1 Pilot test: Biographical details of respondents (N=8)

Code	Sex	Age	Race	Sessions attended
1	M	19	B	All
2	F	19	C	All
3	M	18	B	All
4	F	18	B	All
5	M	17	C	All
6	F	17	C	All
7	F	17	B	All
8	M	16	B	All

As indicated in Table 7-1 above, the male and female participants were equally represented, four respectively. In terms of age, four respondents were 18 years and older, while four were younger than 18 years. On average, the learners were 17.5 years old. Relating to race, five respondents were black and three were coloured. As a depiction of the South African population trends, there were no white and Indian learners who agreed to participate when the announcement was made, although the school has learners from all racial groups. The sampling process is described in section 7.3 above.

7.3.2 Formative outcomes of the intervention

The formative outcomes are presented according to the six sessions of the programme. To recap, session 1 encompassed theoretical and didactic lessons on nature, types, causes and impact of violence. Session 2 provided theoretical lessons on values, moral beliefs, principles and attitudes. Learners were engaged on the need and importance of showing respect, compassion and empathy towards peers and educators and to think about how their behavior affects others' feelings and behaviors, and how it infringes on human rights. Sessions 3 to 6 focused on conflict resolution, problemsolving, decisionmaking, and anger control. In these sessions, the focus was on skills development in order to promote non-violent and peaceful attitudes and behaviour amongst learners. The evaluation included a

description of additional learning needs identified by the learners as a result of not being catered for by the contents of each session, so as to adapt and improve the intervention.

7.3.2.1 Session 1: Knowledge on types, causes and impact of violence

The goal of this session was to provide participants with information and to empower them with knowledge about the types, causes and effects of school violence on the individual; educator and on teaching and learning. The results of this session are presented below.

- **Types of violence**

Table 7-2 indicates the outcomes regarding learners' knowledge about the types of violence they have seen or experienced at school.

Table 7-2 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Types of violence

Pr_See_Violence * Po_See_Violence Crosstabulation				
			Po_See_Violence	Total
			Yes	
Pr_See_Violence	Yes	Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.00%	100.00%
Total	Count		8	8
	% of Total		100.00%	100.00%

In the pre- and post-test results, all eight (100%) respondents agreed that they have indeed seen or experienced different forms of violence in school. Prior to participating in the session, the respondents listed bullying, fighting, physical abuse, sexual abuse, stabbing, gang violence, theft, vandalism, verbal abuse, emotional abuse, gambling, teacher violence. After the session, respondents listed cyber bullying, rape and gender-based bullying in addition to the above list, implying that they had learned three more types of violence.

- **Causes of violence**

Respondents were further asked if they know what causes violence in school and to describe or explain the different causes of violence taking place in their school. Table 7.3 indicates the results for knowledge regarding the causes of violence.

Table 7-3 : Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Causes of violence

Pr_Know_Causes * Po_Know_Causes Crosstabulation			Po_Know_Ca uses	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Know_Causes	Yes	Count	7	7
		% of Total	87.5%	87.5%
	Sometimes	Count	1	1
		% of Total	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

The pre- and post-test measures remained the same with seven (87.5%) of the respondents saying they know about the causes of violence whilst only one (12.5%) said sometimes in the pre-test, but agreed in the post-test. Prior to participating in the session, respondents gave examples such as poor anger management, short temper, arguments that can get out of control, poor communication, racial discrimination, fights over money, attention seeking, not knowing where to report when they experience violence, verbal abuse, gangsterism, drug and alcohol abuse, domestic violence, previous experience of bullying, peer pressure, dominancy, and thinking one has authority over others.

During the post-test, the respondents used different words but with the same meaning for what they believed cause violence. For example, the respondents listed conflicts, provocation, not getting along with each other, rumours, disagreements, insults, having a mindset that “you know it all” (superiority complex) and degrading others. It is probable that by participating in the session, their terminology increased, whereby they learned new words to describe the causes of violence.

- **Effects of violence on the victim**

Table 7-4 shows that the pre- and post-test measures on how violence affects the victim remained the same with seven (87.5%) of the respondents knowing about the effects of violence on the victim whilst only one (12.5%) disagreed that they knew in the pre-test, but agreed to knowing the effects of violence on the victim in the post-test, implying that their knowledge had increased.

Table 7-4 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Effects of violence on the victim

Pr_Effects_Victim * Po_Effects_Victim Crosstabulation				
			Po_Effects_Victim	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Effects_Victim	Yes	Count	7	7
		% of Total	87.5%	87.5%
	No	Count	1	1
		% of Total	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

Prior to participating in the session, respondents said violence can be emotionally and mentally damaging, and can cause depression and suicide. Moreover, respondents were of the opinion that learners cannot stand up for themselves and may want to drop out of school due to feelings of vulnerability and low self-esteem. In addition, respondents were of the view that learners may become anti-social, may be afraid in the school environment and may start engaging in self blaming tendencies. After participating in the session, respondents added that violence may cause victims not to trust one another, thus becoming resentful. Such feelings could result in further conflict and violence.

- **Effects of violence on the educator**

In answering the question on whether violence has any effects on the educator, respondents' views are illustrated in Table 7-5 below.

Table 7-5 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Effects of violence on the educator

Pr_Effects_Educator * Po_Effects_Educator Crosstabulation				
			Po_Effects_Educator	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Effects_Educator	Yes	Count	6	6
		% of Total	75.0%	75.0%
	No	Count	2	2
		% of Total	25.0%	25.0%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

In the pre-test, the results showed that six (75%) of the respondents agreed that violence affects the educator whilst the remaining two (25%) disagreed. In the post-test, all eight (100%) of the respondents agreed that violence has an effect on the educator.

Elaborating on how violence affects the educator, respondents stated in the pre-test that educators are disrupted whilst doing their work; are physically and emotionally hurt; and do not feel safe in the school environment, thus they become more cautious over their possessions. Moreover, respondents noticed that educators' self-esteem is lowered due to the inability to have control over the violence at school. After participating in the session, they added that some educators may resign from their teaching jobs.

- **Effects of violence on teaching and learning**

Table 7.6 indicates the pre- and post-test results with regard to whether violence has any effects on teaching and learning. Seven (87.5%) respondents agreed that violence affects the teaching and learning environment, whilst only one (12.5%) disagreed in the pre-test, but agreed in the post-test.

Table 7-6 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Effects of violence on teaching and learning

Pr_Effects_Learning * Po_Effects_Learning Crosstabulation				
			Po_Effects on_Learning	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Effects on_Learning	Yes	Count	7	7
		% of Total	87.5%	87.5%
	No	Count	1	1
		% of Total	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

Prior to participating in the session, the respondents said that violence causes chaos which disturbs teaching and learning as educators are forced to devote teaching and learning time to addressing conflicts in the school, including writing incident reports, which consumes a lot of time. Respondents further said other learners become scared of coming to school, hence their learning is disrupted. It is not only the learning of scared learners which becomes disrupted; respondents stated that other learners become excited and inquisitive about the violence incidents, resulting in them losing focus at school, especially

considering that some violence incidents are unpredictable as they occur at any time during the school periods.

After the session, respondents came up with two new effects of violence on teaching and learning, saying that an incident involving conflict between two learners might end up escalating to gang fights, which causes total chaos and disruption of teaching and learning activities. Additionally, they stated that teachers get offended by the violence and end up losing interest and stop their teaching activities.

Below is a description of additional learning needs identified by participants that were not catered for by the contents of the session.

- Learning needs relating to the nature, causes and effects of violence

Prior to participating in the session, the respondents said they wanted to learn how to deal with a violent and stubborn person and how to avoid substance abuse in schools. Additionally, respondents stated they wanted to learn how to motivate others to resolve conflicts non-violently and how to intervene during violent incidents. Furthermore, respondents wanted to know what triggers violent behaviours and if parents were aware of such violent behaviours.

Post the session, the respondents did not repeat the same learning needs as indicated pre-intervention. Instead, they came up with new learning needs, which included the desire to learn how to deal with rejection; how to make the school environment safe; how to respect others' rights; how to give positive attention to those who seek attention; to learn about external violence and how to prevent it; and to understand why people tend to solve problems with violence. The fact that no pre-session learning requirements were indicated in the post-session learning needs assessment, indicates that these needs have been met.

Respondents were asked what should be excluded from the session. Two respondents said: *“Nothing. All the types and effects of violence is relevant for others to know about.”* Six respondents interpreted the question as what they want to see included in the session.

Namely, to include more knowledge about violence prevention; how the rate of violence in schools can be decreased; how to be protected; and how to make others aware of the dangers of violence through anti-violence campaigns or safety measures. As these were valuable additions, the researcher left the question open for interpretation in the following evaluation of sessions as she realised that the evaluation of the session was restricted by only focusing on what should be excluded.

- **Overall evaluation of session 1**

Table 7.7 indicates the overall evaluation of session 1.

Table 7-7 Overall evaluation of session 1

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Goal	8	3	3	3
Length	8	3	3	3
Facilitators	8	3		3
Overall	8	2	3	2.88
Skills	8	2	3	2.88
Material	8	2	3	2.87
Knowledge	8	2	3	2.87
Discussions	8	2	3	2.75
Homework	-	-	-	-

The table shows a positive rating of goal, length and facilitators respectively in this session (mean=3). The rating of overall impression of the session and skills was slightly lesser, (mean=2.88), followed by material and knowledge (mean=2.87). Discussions was ranked the lowest (mean=2.75). These aspects received a fairly positive rating. The homework sub-theme was not evaluated in this session due to the fact that it was the first session and there was no homework given to learners prior to the session.

7.3.2.2 Session 2: Values, principles and morals

The goal of this session was to provide the participants with information and to empower them with knowledge about values, principles and issues of morality. The session focused

on violence as a violation of rights; whether perpetrators lack compassion, caring, respect, and moral grounding, and finally, whether individuals have a responsibility to show compassion, care, support and respect for people.

- **Violence is a violation of people’s rights**

Table 7-8 indicates the outcomes regarding learners’ beliefs regarding violence being a violation of other people’s rights.

Table 7-8 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Violence is a violation of people’s rights

Pr_Violate_rights * Po_Violate_rights Crosstabulation				
			Po_Violate_ri ghts	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Violate_rights	Yes	Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%
Total			Count	8
			% of Total	100.0%

In the pre- and post-test results, the measures remained the same with all 8 (100%) respondents agreeing that violence is a violation of people’s rights. Prior to participating in the session, respondents regarded beating and stealing; denying people’s safety and security; and interruption of others’ education as violation of their rights. They expressed their views as follows:

- *“Because the moment you beat or steal something from someone you are violating that person's rights.” “Because they are denied their safety rights. Everyone has the right to safety and no-one wants to be abused. Everyone should feel safe, loved and cared for.”*
- *“Violence in class prevents others’ right to education.”*

After the session, respondents contextualised their views on violations of people’s rights further by focusing on the impact of violence, which makes people live in fear and as a result makes them think they are not worthy; and that they have no say in what happens in their lives. Furthermore, violence instils fear in people to say or do things they like and

hence steals their freedom and takes away their privacy. The respondents articulated their views as follows:

- *“People will have fear in himself to do something and not be free due to someone making life hard for them.”*
- *“Right to get education. It violates their privacy.”*
- *“Yes, because everyone has the right to be safe and loved and cared for, so violence is not right. We can't violate others rights.”*

In the post-test, respondents were more articulated on the impact of violence on people’s personal agency; in particular, how they feel about themselves and how that inhibits them to be spontaneous and act freely. However, in both the pre- and post-test, respondents adamantly condemned violence as a violation of people’s rights and emphasised the counter side to violence, namely the right to safety and to be loved and cared for.

- **Perpetrators of violence lack compassion and caring for others**

Table 7.9 indicates the results on whether perpetrators of violence lack compassion and caring for others.

Table 7-9 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Perpetrators lack compassion and caring

Pr_Lack_Caring * Po_Lack_Caring Crosstabulation					
			Po_Lack_Caring		Total
			Yes	No	
Pr_Lack_Caring	Yes	Count	5	1	6
		% of Total	62.5%	12.5%	75.0%
	No	Count	1	0	1
		% of Total	12.5%	0.0%	12.5%
	In between	Count	1	0	1
		% of Total	12.5%	0.0%	12.5%
Total		Count	7	1	8
		% of Total	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%

In the pre- and post-test, results revealed that ($f=5$; 62.5%) of the respondents believed that perpetrators of violence lack compassion and do not care for other people, whilst ($f=1$; 12.5%) did not believe so in the pre-test, but believed so in the post-test. The other ($f=1$; 12.5%) respondent did believe that perpetrators are uncaring and lack compassion in the pre-test, but did not believe so in the post-test. The remaining respondent ($f=1$; 12.5%)

was uncertain in the pre-test and did not believe in the post-test that perpetrators of violence lack compassion and do not care for other people.

Upon elaborating on whether people who perpetrate violence against others lack compassion and caring feelings for others prior to partaking in the session, seven respondents stated that perpetrators of violence are heartless and inconsiderate of the feelings of others. However one respondent had mixed views and stated that in as much as perpetrators of violence are compassionate, they at times find themselves being overwhelmed by feelings of vengeance. Respondents elaborated their views as follows:

- *“This is a yes - no answer because some people who perpetrate violence have feelings and care for others. Some people are inconsiderate towards others because they feel they aren't treated with compassion. They wanna [want to] gain on other people's lives.”*
- *“People who perpetrate violence have no compassion as they like seeing others get hurt.”*
- *“Because these people are just heartless.”*
- *“They just do not care about the person because they feel it is right. They do not care about how the victims feel or going through as they violate their rights.”*

After participating in the session, the respondents were still resolute that people who perpetrate violence are uncaring about the emotional well-being of others. In addition, they said these people lack moral grounding and have a weak conscience. Furthermore, respondents said perpetrators displace their unhappiness on others. The views from respondents are captured below:

- *“Because if you ignore or violate others you show a sign of being feelingless and not caring for others.”*
- *“Because to me it seems as if they have a blind eye towards other's emotional beings.”*
- *“Most perpetrators are unhappy themselves that is why it is very hard for them to be remorseful or it might be to think of “if I'm unhappy, why let others be happy?.”*

- *“They aren't able to tell right from wrong. They have no positive morals and principles. Weak conscience.”*

In the pre-test, respondents stated that perpetrators of violence are heartless and callous and are overwhelmed by feelings of revenge. In the post-test, respondents were still of the view that people who perpetrate violence are hard-hearted and selfish. However, they focused more on the reasons why they lack empathy and care for others and concluded that it is because they are not compassionate, are immoral and unhappy themselves, hence they displace their feelings of unhappiness on others.

- **Perpetrators of violence lack respect for other people**

Table 7.10 displays respondents' beliefs that people who perpetrate violence lack respect for other people.

Table 7-10 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Perpetrators lack respect

Pr_Lack_Respect * Po_Lack_Respect Crosstabulation					
			Po_Lack_Respect		Total
			Yes	No	
Pr_Lack_Respect	Yes	Count	7	0	7
		% of Total	87.5%	0.0%	87.5%
	No	Count	0	1	1
		% of Total	0.0%	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	7	1	8
		% of Total	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%

The findings revealed that seven (87.5%) respondents agreed that perpetrators of violence lack respect for other people in the pre- and post-tests, whilst one (12.5%) disagreed in the pre- and post-tests. In explaining why respondents think perpetrators of violence lack respect for other people prior to participating in the session, respondents said disrespect goes hand in hand with hurting people's feelings or disrespecting others' properties. They believed that respectful people do not perpetrate violence against other people or their properties. The respondents expressed their views as follows:

- *“Because you would not harm someone else if you respect them.”*
- *“They have no respect whatsoever for other people's body or their feelings.”*

- *“They should respect other people's belongings.”*

Following participation in the session in the post-test, the respondents were adamant that perpetrators of violence are disrespectful not only to other people and their belongings, but that they lack pride and self-respect, they lack moral values and are self-centred. The views from the respondents are captured below.

- *“Because we need to respect other people's morals and rights. If you lack respect for others, you would harm them regardless of your self-morals.”*
- *“I believe they do not respect themselves enough to respect other. Respect to them is just a word that means nothing at all. Other might know about respect as to how they were brought up, but totally fail to apply that due to their values.”*
- *“They are so self-absorbed that they think others are less important.”*

There was no change in the pre- and post-test results. However, the seven respondents were more outspoken on comparing violence to lack of respect for oneself, others and other people's belongings. In particular, they felt that people who perpetrate violence are self-centred and have a tendency of disrespecting and undermining other people and their belongings.

- **Perpetrators of violence have low morals**

Table 7-11 indicates that six (75%) respondents agreed in the pre- and post-test that perpetrators of violence have low morals. One (12.5%) disagreed in the pre-test and agreed in the post-test. The remaining one (12.5%) respondent was uncertain in the pre- and post-test that perpetrators of violence have low morals.

Table 7-11 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Perpetrators have low morals

Pr_Low_Morals * Po_Low_Morals Crosstabulation					
			Po_Low_Morals		Total
			Yes	In between	
Pr_Low_Morals	Yes	Count	6	0	6
		% of Total	75.0%	0.0%	75.0%
	No	Count	1	0	1
		% of Total	12.5%	0.0%	12.5%
	In between	Count	0	1	1
		% of Total	0.0%	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	7	1	8
		% of Total	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%

Prior to participating in the session, respondents said that some perpetrators of violence behave violently because of upbringing, whereby they learn that violence is a solution to all problems. On the contrary, another respondent had a different view saying violence is not caused by low morals, but is due to indiscretion and poor judgement. The respondents elaborated their views as follows:

- *“Because they don’t adhere to certain morals because it shows that you have been brought up with violence.”*
- *“Because they see it [violence] as a solution to life barriers / obstacles.”*
- *“They support bad things.”*
- *“You can’t really say they have low morals because they could have good morals and make the worst decisions.”*

After participating in the session, the respondents expressed that people who perpetrate violence lack self-respect, Ubuntu and cannot discern right from wrong, hence they are easily swayed. The respondent who had a different view persisted and said that all people have some values and principles. However, what differentiates the person is the strength of their belief system. The views from respondents are captured below.

- *“Because they don’t have self-respect first of all, they lack humanity and care unto their opponents/peers.”*

- *“Don’t have the conscience to identify right from wrong. To them the wrong they do seems right to them.”*
- *“They do not have strong values or principles. They just go by the wind, what they think is right or wrong.”*
- *“This is a yes no answer because everyone has morals. It’s what you do with it that defines how strong your beliefs are.”*

In the pre-test respondents stated that perpetrators of violence are badly brought up, being taught that violence is a panacea whilst others make irrational decisions irrespective of the impact of their behaviour on others. In the post-test, respondents were still of the view that people who perpetrate violence lack Ubuntu and are inconsiderate, hence they cannot distinguish between right or wrong or good or bad.

- **Individuals have a responsibility towards others**

Respondents’ beliefs that individuals have a responsibility to show compassion, caring, support and respect for other people are captured in Table 7-12.

Table 7-12 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Individuals have a responsibility towards others

Pr_Responsibility * Po_Responsibility Crosstabulation				
			Po_Responsibility	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Responsibility	Yes	Count	7	7
		% of Total	87.5%	87.5%
	No	Count	1	1
		% of Total	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

In the pre- and post-test results, the measures revealed that seven (87.5%) respondents agreed that people have a responsibility to show compassion, caring, support and respect, while one (12.5%) did not agree in the pre- and post-test that people have a responsibility to show compassion, caring, support and respect to others.

Prior to participating in the session, respondents were vehement in stating that care, compassion and respect is earned. In addition the respondents added that people have a

responsibility to be positive role models to future generations and build social cohesion by expressing humanity, caring and support to each other. The respondents expressed these views as follows:

- *“Caring for someone you make them comfortable around you. Support and let them know you'll be there for them. Respect is just what is given if a person gave it.”*
- *“If you expect people to show you compassion, care support and respect, you should return the favour of respect and compassion.”*
- *“It's right and called "Ubuntu". So that the victims can feel protected by us who are aware of the issue. They have a responsibility the young ones look up on us. It's a way of getting our rainbow nation to be united.”*

There is convergence between what was said by the respondents as evidenced by the remarks made during the focus group discussion. Post-session, the participants were adamant and emphatic that even though they are learners and young, they deserve to be treated with respect and humanely, especially by educators. They said it is their right to be treated with dignity and worth. They believe respect, caring and compassion is a two-way stream and knows no age boundaries. One participant expressed his view as follows:

Ma'am I would say when they [educators] poke us we react. When they poke you, you must keep quiet. Some of us are at that stage when you poke me I react. Because of the environment in which I live, it's something that I have learnt and absorbed. So that is why when they poke me I react very quickly to a point where we start exchanging words because they treat us like children. They don't respect us but they want us to respect them and we don't have a say, what they say is the right way but that is not what we want. We want to be happy as humans.

From the voice of the respondent, it is obvious that post-session, the respondents learnt more about values and principles as compared to what was stated in the pre-test session.

The respondents were more emphatic in saying that being treated with care, compassion and respect is their human right. They also understand that it is their right to be listened to and to be heard, and not to be dismissed and disregarded because they are children.

- **Learning needs relating to values, principles and morals**

Prior to participating in the session, the respondents said they want to learn how to be accommodating of other people whose values differs from theirs, and how to be compassionate. In addition, respondents wanted to learn about rights and responsibilities; how poverty contributes to violence; and to understand human behaviour particularly, to learn how to support uncaring and selfish people.

Post the session, the respondents came up with new learning needs, which included the desire to learn how to improve their behaviour so that they can become accepting of others; how to behave well and maintain good moral values and principles; and live positive lives. This indicates an addition to the learning needs listed in the pre-intervention session.

- **Overall evaluation of session 2**

Table 7-13 below indicates the overall evaluation of session 2.

Table 7-13 Overall evaluation of session 2

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Knowledge	8	3	3	3
Goal	8	2	3	2.87
Facilitators	8	2	3	2.87
Overall	8	2	3	2.87
Material	8	2	3	2.87
Discussions	8	2	3	2.87
Skills	8	2	3	2.75
Length	8	2	3	2.75
Homework	7	2	3	2.71

The respondents rated knowledge positively (mean=3), which is an indication that they are satisfied with the level of knowledge gained. In addition, goal, facilitators, overall, material and discussions were rated fairly positive (mean=2.87). Although skills and length were

rated lower than the other aspects mentioned above (mean=2.75), they were also rated fairly positively. However, homework was rated lowest (mean=2.71). This finding was a trend for all the following sessions. Due to personal and environmental obstacles, the ICT method of teaching and learning could not be adequately utilised as planned and the response was poor. None of the participants used the ICT method to do assigned homework exercises. The lower rating implies that the respondents did not like homework and were not happy with this aspect being included in the sessions (See section 6.4.2.3).

In response to the question relating to what should be excluded from the session, seven respondents indicated that they were satisfied with the contents of the session. One respondent wanted the session to include a focus on respect in order to avoid perpetrating violence. The respondent said: *“I would like to see people respecting each other enough not to resort to violence.”*

Overall the respondents rated session 2 fairly positively (mean=2.87).

7.3.2.3 Session 3: Conflict resolution

The goal of this session was to provide participants with information and to empower them with knowledge and skills for conflict resolution. Focus was on whether conflict is a normal part of life; if it should be ignored; describing how participants resolve conflict, and to identify conflict resolution strategies.

- **Conflict is normal**

The results on whether respondents thought that conflict is a normal part of live are displayed in Table 7-14

Table 7-14 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Conflict is normal

Pr_Conflict_normal * Po_Conflict_normal Crosstabulation				
			Po_Conflict_normal	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Conflict_normal	Yes	Count	7	7
		% of Total	87.5%	87.5%
	No	Count	1	1
		% of Total	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

There was only one change between the pre- and post-test measures regarding whether respondents believe conflict is a normal part of life or not. The measures remained the same, with seven (87.5%) of the respondents agreeing that conflict is normal whilst only one (12.5%) changed his/her view from no in the pre-test to yes in the post-test.

In explaining why respondents think conflict is normal prior to taking part in the intervention, respondents said conflict is caused by disagreements between friends especially because of different personalities or overwhelming emotional difficulties, which result in people thinking conflict is the solution. The respondents' views are displayed as follows:

- *“Because most of the time when having a conversation/topic of something then some friends disagree with the conversation/topic.”*
- *“Conflict can occur when two people aren't fond of each other. When someone says something offensive to others.”*
- *“Conflict is indeed a part of life, because not all have the same personalities and conflict may occur.”*
- *“People go through rough patterns. We can be overwhelmed by emotions.”*
- *“Some people believe that conflict makes things better in the end. In life conflict takes place in the wild as well.”*

After participating in the session, the respondents expressed the view that conflict is a daily occurrence because some people have unresolved anger issues, others display a

superiority complex whereby they impose their will on other people without considering the hurtful consequences of their behaviour on themselves and other individuals. The respondents' views are captured below:

- *“Because people have anger problems, people have mood swings.”*
- *“Because we often use conflict towards each other showing the other person that you know things better than him/her.”*
- *“It is a normal part of life but it is not necessary. Because the only people we are hurting is ourselves and others.”*
- *“Things are not always the way you want them to and that normally leads to conflict or violence and this happens on a daily basis. It happens so often that it is now like second nature.”*

From the voices of the respondents above, it appears as if the respondents had a deeper understanding of conflict in the post-session, since they identified more in-depth causes and consequences of conflict, unlike the general causes stated in the pre-test session.

- **Conflict should be ignored**

On the question of whether conflict should be ignored or not, the views of respondents are captured in Table 7.15. The findings reveal that two (25%) respondents agreed during the pre- and post-test that conflict should be ignored, whilst five (62.5%) did not agree during the pre- and post-test. Only one (12.5%) respondent changed from no in the pre- to a yes in the post-test.

Table 7-15 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Conflict should be ignored

Pr_Conflict_Ignored * Po_Conflict_Ignored Crosstabulation					
			Po_Conflict_Ignored		Total
			Yes	No	
Pr_Conflict_Ignored	Yes	Count	2	0	2
		% of Total	25.0%	0.0%	25.0%
	No	Count	1	5	6
		% of Total	12.5%	62.5%	75.0%
Total		Count	3	5	8
		% of Total	37.5%	62.5%	100.0%

Prior to participating in the session, only two respondents said that conflict should be ignored because people always disagree on certain issues, such that they may want to win the argument by resorting to violence. The respondents' views are captured in the following statements:

- *“Because the situation you are at it make people want to win the conversation and it might lead you to danger.”*
- *“Conflict that gets people's attention can result in violence. Conflict that has resulted in violence can cause harm to others.”*

After participating in the session, only three respondents expressed that minor arguments can result in major mishaps, therefore it is better to ignore conflict and pursue a win-win solution. The respondent articulated his/her views as follows:

- *“Because a small thing like this can cause serious issues and consequences you can regret for the rest of your life and ignoring conflict can make you a better person as well. So avoiding conflict is a win-win situation.”*

From the voices of the respondents above, it appears as if most respondents indicated that conflict should not be ignored. During the pre- and post-test, respondents justified their viewpoints by stating that conflict should be ignored because disagreements between people will always arise as a result of different personalities, whilst others said it should not be ignored as it is a part of life.

The results indicate that after taking part in the session, respondents learned something new about the negative consequences of conflict, hence they were saying that people should rather pursue a win-win solution rather than resort to violence. Moreover, only a few respondents learned that avoiding conflict can enhance and improve one's personal circumstances and opportunities.

Prior to participating in the session, respondents expressed divergent conflict resolution strategies. These included walking away from the scene; calmly and politely talking to the

person in an effort to diffuse the situation. Additionally, respondents said they approach someone neutral and ask them to intervene. The respondents' views are captured herein as:

- *"I walk away from the person creating the conflict or I calmly tell the person to go home, calm down and we will speak when we're both calm."*
- *"Should sit down and talk about the matter at hand and try to resolve it without fights."*
- *"Speak in a subtle and polite manner. If you have anger problems just breathe to prevent violence."*
- *"Try to talk to someone who won't judge you."*

Post-intervention, respondents identified additional ways for resolving conflict, such as breathing exercises to calm themselves, and control their temper with the intention to listen to their opponent's point of view and thereafter express their feelings and opinions in a non-confrontational and non-judgemental manner. The respondents' views are articulated as follows:

- *"Breath, count to 10 or even 100."*
- *"Calm down."*
- *"Hold my temper and listen to the opposite person's point of view."*
- *"Unfortunately I tend to always settle most of the conflicts violently but recently I've learned to walk away for my own good."*

Pre and post-test intervention results indicate that respondents have their own different and individualised ways of dealing with conflict. It is noticeable that in the pre-session, they focused more on external ways of resolving conflict but after participating in the session, they focused more on internal ways of resolving conflict. Thus, they developed an understanding that resolving conflict starts with them being in a position of controlling their anger and temper and by calmly approaching the other person in a non-violent and non-confrontational manner. This indicates that they have internalised the ways of non-violent conflict resolution.

Prior to participating in the session, respondents identified strategies they use to resolve conflict as remaining calm and avoiding foul language; paying attention to the other person's views; attentively listening with the intention to understand the source of conflict; it is advisable to compromise and if that does not work, to seek the intervention of elders or professionals. The respondents' views are captured below:

- *“Be calm. First try to understand the topic and who is saying what and who is disagreeing/agreeing.”*
- *“Ignore using vulgar words.”*
- *“Go to an elder who knows how to handle difficult situations.”*

After participating in the session, the respondents identified and listed such strategies as ABC, which is an acronym for antecedent, behaviour and consequences of conflict, calming oneself down by using relaxation strategies, empathise, compromise, or humbly walking away from the situation, and the importance of getting help from someone trustworthy to intervene. The following voices confirm the findings:

- *“Go talk to someone who can help.”*
- *“I usually find myself taking a second to step back, breathe deeply and calm myself down.”*
- *“Lower yourself while talking to other people.”*
- *“Put myself in the person's shoes and understand why he/she saying this or that.”*

Prior to participating in the session, respondents had sound conflict resolution strategies, however they were but a few. Post-session, they identified additional conflict resolution strategies, an indication that the session was empowering and enlightening for them.

- **Learning needs relating to conflict resolution**

Prior to participating in the session, respondents said they wanted to learn about the sources of conflict; to learn and be able to teach their peers how to resolve conflict

amicably; and to learn about places to go to for help when confronted with conflict situations. The respondents expressed their learning needs as follows:

- *“How to deal with conflict.”*
- *“How to tell others/ recommend ways to also deal when conflict occurs.”*
- *“What causes conflict.”*
- *“Who to go to when you need help.”*

After participating in the session, respondents identified and expressed additional learning needs. They expressed a desire to learn how to prevent conflict by applying strategies and skills they had learnt in the session in real life situations. The learning desires of respondents are captured below:

- *“How conflict can be prevented.”*
- *“How to avoid violence and staying calm and adhering to what I've learned in the group.”*
- *“How to control my anger when I am in conflict.”*
- *“How to distance yourself [oneself] from conflict.”*

A comparison of the learning needs prior and post the session indicates that respondents learned about the causes of conflict which they expressed as a learning need prior to the session. Moreover, prior to the session they were more concerned about learning how to react when conflict has already occurred. However, in the post-session, they were more concerned with strategies for preventing conflict from occurring as well as skills to resolve conflict when it has occurred. This is an indication that their pre-session needs have been met, since they did not repeat them in the post-session learning needs.

- **Overall evaluation of session 3**

Table 7-16 indicates the overall evaluation of session 3.

Table 7-16 Overall evaluation of session 3

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Length	8	3	3	3
Material	8	3	3	3
Discussions	8	3	3	3
Facilitators	8	3	3	3
Goal	8	2	3	2.87
Skills	8	2	3	2.87
Knowledge	8	2	3	2.87
Overall	8	2	3	2.86
Homework	7	2	3	2.75

The table above shows an overall positive rating of length, material, discussions and facilitators respectively with a mean of 3, which implied that they considered these aspects positively. The goal, skills and knowledge were rated fairly positively (mean=2.87). The overall impression was rated fairly positive (mean=2.86). Homework got a lesser rating (mean=2.75), which implies that they viewed this aspect as fairly important although they did not do the assigned tasks. The (n=1; 12.5%) respondent who did not respond to the homework sub-theme is neither unexpected nor surprising, rather an indication that they avoided this method of teaching and learning.

Responding to the question regarding their thoughts about what should be excluded from session 3, respondents did not want to add anything. For example, a respondent said: *“Nothing, everything adds value to life.”* Five respondents interpreted the question as what they want to see included in the session, namely, how to prevent violence in school and to help learners with family problems such as domestic violence and poverty. The participants’ remarks are captured below:

- *“Domestic violence we didn’t cover it but we said that, when we looked at the causes what you do today as a young person, if you don’t change when you grow up you are going to do the same in your house. You are going to beat your wife or kids.”*

- *“What about social economic problems.? Because some of us in our homes, they are not that rich so we tend to take ideas from the community into our homes. For instance, you see my cellphone then you rob me, you hit me because you want my cellphone or you steal someone’s money or you gamble at the back there because you want money.”*

The above results indicate the need to prevent violence at school and at home, and to intervene and help learners with domestic violence, poverty and family dysfunction. Overall, the respondents rated session 3 fairly positively (mean=2.86).

7.3.2.4 Session 4: Problem solving

The goal of this session was to provide participants with information and to empower them with knowledge and skills relating to problem solving. Focus was on problem solving options and steps.

- **Problem-solving options**

Table 7-17 indicates the outcomes regarding learners’ knowledge and skills relating to problem-solving options.

Table 7-17 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Problem-solving options

Pr_Problem_solving * Po_Problem_solving Crosstabulation				
			Po_Problem_solving	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Problem_solving	Yes	Count	7	7
		% of Total	87.50%	87.50%
	No	Count	1	1
		% of Total	12.50%	12.50%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.00%	100.00%

In the pre- and post-test results, the measures revealed that seven (85.7%) respondents agreed that problems can be solved without resorting to conflict, aggression and violence, whilst one (14.3%) disagreed in the pre-test but agreed in the post-test. This is an indication that the particular respondent learned from the session that there are non-violent options to problem solving.

Prior to participating in the session, respondents who agreed that there are options to problem-solving gave divergent views while describing the various options. Their responses ranged from trying to understand why the opponent is filled with anger; calmly approaching the opponent, peacefully discussing the problem and politely speaking to them about how their behaviour affects them; ignoring the person and walking away; to seeing a social worker. The descriptions of respondents are reflected below:

- *“Asking questions regarding why they are filled with such resentment. Will it help if they talk about it.”*
- *“First thing I will sit you down and tell you that what you doing I don't like.”*
- *“Walk away, Talk it out of conflict.”*
- *“You can calmly approach the person and speak to them about what they did to make you unhappy.”*

After participating in the session, respondents repeated some of the problem-solving options they had identified in the pre-session, especially the issue of getting a mediator to intervene in conflict situations and ignoring a situation that has the potential to cause violence. However, they identified more problem-solving options, ranging from using the ABC model to demonstrating empathy and looking at issues from the other person's point of view. Additionally, they listed finding alternative ways of releasing anger, including playing music and taking some time off. The responses are captured below.

- *“Today I've learned a few steps in solving problems and they opened my eyes as to how to solve problems. Violence is not always the answer.”*
- *“ABC model. STAR method. IBESE.”*
- *“By putting yourself into other people's shoes.”*
- *“By talking about it, accepting the opposite person's opinions and searching ways on how to approach it the next time around.”*
- *“Run to my room. Go to a quiet place or put music on.”*

Respondents highlighted problem-solving options in the pre-test and repeated the same options on the post-test. However, they demonstrated a lot of deeper understanding in the post-test in that they could properly identify specific problem-solving strategies and steps. This is an indication that learning had taken place.

- **Problem-solving steps**

Respondents were asked to describe how they solve problems they encounter in their daily lives. Their responses ranged from acknowledging the presence of a problem and negotiating for an amicable solution; turning away if all attempts fail to avoid a fight; to consulting a social worker to intervene in finding a solution. The voices of participants are recorded below:

- *“Try identifying the problem and ignore if not worth it.”*
- *“Talking it out.”*
- *“Seeing a social worker.”*

After participating in the programme, respondents identified additional ways they will use to solve problems and these include employing proper conflict resolution strategies, whereby they would first attempt to understand the root cause of the problem so that they can come up with a compromise solution which is fair to all the involved parties. Furthermore, respondents stated that they would use the ABC and the STAR problem-solving strategies and that they would try to be empathic to a person with whom they are involved in conflict. Their exact words are recorded below:

- *“Today I've learned a few steps in solving problems and they opened my eyes as to how to solve problems. Violence is not always the answer.”*
- *“Understanding the cause of the problem and evaluating the outcome.”*
- *“You could calmly talk about the situation, ask others for advice on how to deal with the conflict in a non-violent way.”*
- *“By putting yourself into other people's shoes.”*

- *“By using the ABC; STAR; IBESE method. But mostly you have to step back, think, act then solve the problem positively (both parties are happy).”*

The difference in the pre- and post-session results is an indication that respondents learnt new ways of solving problems, in addition to the strategies that they were already using. The respondents learned that violence is not a solution and that there are various strategies and steps that they can apply to solve problems. Respondents mentioned strategies such as open discussions with opponents with the view to understand and accept their point of view. Furthermore, respondents said they learned to control their anger and to apply strategies such as ABC model; STAR or IBESE method.

- **Learning needs relating to problem solving**

Prior to participating in the session, the respondents said they wanted to learn and teach others how to solve problems. In addition, the respondents stated that they want to learn to practically solve problems. Moreover, they wanted to be capacitated to be able to react to people who solve problems with aggression. The pre-session learning needs were as follows:

- *“How to deal with conflict.”*
- *“How to physically [practically] solve a problem.”*
- *“How to react to those who solve problems with conflict.”*
- *“How to teach others to resolve conflict and how to prevent violence from happening.”*

After participating in the session, respondents did not repeat the learning needs that they had expressed in the pre-session. In the post-session, respondents revealed a desire for more lessons on this topic. The respondents said they wanted to learn to be quick in finding a solution when they encounter a problem. Additionally, they said they wanted to learn to be fair and objective. Furthermore, respondents wanted to learn about addressing interpersonal issues. The respondents' views are captured below.

- *“How to solve a situation quicker without retaliating violently.”*

- *“I know saying I think I've learned far enough would make a motivated idiot because knowledge/education has no limit.”*
- *“Solve a problem without choosing sides, fair judgement.”*
- *“Would love to learn about solving problems in a relationship - Myths and Facts.”*

Post-intervention, the identified learning needs did not differ significantly from the needs identified prior to participating in the session. This seems to indicate a desire to learn diverse options to problem solving, over and above what they already learned in the session. This confirms the need for allocating more time to present more lessons on the topic and related issues.

- **Overall evaluation of session 4**

Table 7-18 indicates the overall evaluation of session 4 whereby respondents rated length, skills, discussions and knowledge respectively with a mean of 3 (mean=3). In addition, they rated facilitators, goal, overall impression of the session and homework respectively with a mean of 2.86 (mean=2.86).

Table 7-18 Overall evaluation of session 4

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Length	8	3	3	3
Skills	8	3	3	3
Discussions	8	3	3	3
Knowledge	8	3	3	3
Facilitators	8	2	3	2.86
Goal	8	2	3	2.86
Overall	8	2	3	2.86
Homework	8	2	3	2.86
Material	-	-	-	-

Based on the above, respondents rated length (mean=3), skills (mean=3), discussions (mean=3) and knowledge (mean=3), which implied that they were satisfied with these aspects. In addition, they rated facilitators (mean=2.86), goal (mean=2.86), overall impression of the session (mean=2.86) and homework fairly positively with (mean=2.86), although they did not complete assigned tasks. Material was mistakenly omitted by the

researcher and was not included in the questionnaire, hence it was not rated in this session.

In response to questions relating to which aspect they thought should be excluded from this session, six respondents said nothing should be excluded. It seems two respondents interpreted the question as what they wanted to see included in the session, namely to learn to reach out to others and help them with their problems. Overall, the respondents rated session 4 fairly positively (mean=2.86).

7.3.2.5 Session 5: Decision making

The goal of this session was to provide participants with information and to empower them with knowledge and skills for decision making. Focus in this session was on consequences of violent behaviour; whether respondents stop and think before they act and on describing steps they take before they decide to take any action.

- **Consequences of violent behaviour**

Table 7-19 indicates the outcomes regarding learners' knowledge about the detrimental consequences of violent behaviour.

Table 7-19 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Consequences of violent behaviour

Pr_Consequences * Po_Consequences Crosstabulation				
			Po_Consequences	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Consequences	Yes	Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

As displayed in the above table, all eight (100%) respondents agreed during the pre- and post-test that there are consequences to violent and aggressive behaviour.

- **Stop and think before you act**

Table 7-20 displays the outcomes regarding the question whether respondents stop and think before they act when confronted with a violent situation. In the pre- and post-test

results, the measures revealed that six (75%) respondents confirmed that they stop and think before they act, whilst one (12.5%) disagreed in the pre-test, but agreed in the post-test. The remaining one (12.5%) respondent disagreed in the pre-test but was uncertain in the post-test.

Table 7-20 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Stop and think before you act

Pr_Stop_Think * Po_Stop_Think Crosstabulation					
			Po_Stop_Think		Total
			Yes	Not really	
Pr_Stop_Think	Yes	Count	6	0	6
		% of Total	75.0%	0.0%	75.0%
	No	Count	1	1	2
		% of Total	12.5%	12.5%	25.0%
Total		Count	7	1	8
		% of Total	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%

The change between the pre- and post-test results signifies that the two respondents learned the importance of thinking before one acts. It is probable that the respondent who initially disagreed in the pre-test and was uncertain in the post-test, could have also learned something. The following remark reflect the participant's experience:

- *“I've gained respect, also management, knowledge. To know myself and be aware of what I am doing. In the past I just do things according to the way they come without thinking.”*

The level of uncertainty expressed by the one respondent could be ascribed to a lack of opportunity to experience how they would respond if they were to find themselves in a violent situation or predicament, or that he needed time to decide on the matter.

- **Steps you take before you act.**

With regard to whether respondents follow any specific steps before they decide to act, Table 7-21 below indicates that the measures remained the same in the pre- and post-tests with seven (87.5%) of the respondents confirming that they do follow certain steps before they act whilst only one (12.5%) respondent disagreed that he follows any steps before acting between the pre- and post-test.

Table 7-21 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Steps you take before you act

Pr_Steps_Before * Po_Steps_Before Crosstabulation					
			Po_Steps_Before		Total
			Yes	No	
Pr_Steps_Before	Yes	Count	7	0	7
		% of Total	87.5%	0.0%	87.5%
	No	Count	0	1	1
		% of Total	0.0%	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	7	1	8

As there was only one change between the pre- and post-test measures regarding steps to follow before one makes a decision to act, it is probable that the respondents are content with the way they make decisions, or that they needed more time to think about it. Prior to participating in the session, the respondents were aware of the importance of thinking before they act. The respondents said that they do think about the pros and cons of their actions. Furthermore, respondents were of the view that acting without thinking could be detrimental. The respondents' views are captured in the following statements:

- *“I am a very short-tempered person so I always stop and think about my reaction to the problem before I act upon it.”*
- *“Is my decision positive or negative?. How will it affect me in general?, what are the consequences of my decision?.”*
- *“Think about the advantages and disadvantages.”*
- *“To see whether I benefit from it or not, and if there is something wrong that is going to affect me.”*
- *“Well in most cases I just react just to make myself feel better about the situation. But I figured doing that causes more harm than good.”*

Post-intervention, the respondents were more specific about the steps they follow before making any decision. These include being guided by values such as empathy and compassion and following steps such as ABC, STAR and being cognisant of the benefits of choosing peace and non-violence. The respondents identified the steps they follow before they act as:

- *“Calm down, think, imagine myself in the opponent's shoes.”*
- *“Do the ABC steps.”*
- *“Follow the STAR steps because I find them most suitable to learn.”*
- *“Identify the problem first, look for positive and negative aspects. Take the positive way out and handle the situation.”*

In the pre-test, respondents were aware of the consequences of acting on impulse nonetheless, they could not clearly articulate how they make decisions. In the post-test, respondents were more articulate about the steps they follow in making decisions. This indicates that the session was informative since it empowered them with decision making steps they can follow when they encounter difficult situations.

- **Learning needs relating to decision making**

Prior to participating in the session, respondents expressed the desire to learn and acquire easier and good decision-making skills applicable to their daily lives, ensuring their decisions are not harmful to themselves and others. Additionally, respondents wanted to become competent in empowering their peers. The respondents articulated these learning needs as:

- *“Learn easier steps in making decisions.”*
- *“Yes, how to implement decision on a regular basis.”*
- *“How to make positive decisions without having to hurt others.”*
- *“How to educate other people about decision making.”*

Post-intervention, respondents expressed the need for continuous learning and included new needs such as learning to resist peer pressure; being aware of the possibility of making errors of judgement; and to accept the outcomes of bad decision making. These views are represented by the following statements:

- *“How to accept that I can make bad decisions and that things won't always go my way.”*
- *“How to come over the challenges that decision making holds.”*

- *“How to teach and avoid being influenced negatively when a decision needs to be made.”*
- *“Positive and negative decision making.”*

Post-session results indicate an addition to the learning needs listed in the pre-intervention session. This is a sign that by participating in the session, respondents learnt that it is important to make informed and rational decisions. However, the respondents still wanted to learn how good, rational and sound decisions are exactly made.

- **Overall evaluation of session 5**

Table 7-22 indicates the overall evaluation of session 5..

Table 7-22 Overall evaluation of session 5

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Goal	8	3	3	3
Length	8	3	3	3
Knowledge	8	2	3	2.87
Discussions	8	2	3	2.87
Facilitators	8	2	3	2.87
Skills	8	2	3	2.87
Overall	8	2	3	2.87
Material	8	2	3	2.75
Homework	8	2	3	2.63

During the overall evaluation of session 5, respondents rated goal and length similarly (mean=3) which implied that they considered these aspects as positive. In addition, they rated knowledge, discussions, facilitators, skills and overall impression of the session respectively with a mean of 2.87 which is close to 3 and implies that they considered these aspects as fairly positive. Even though material got a lesser rating (mean=2.75) and homework receiving an even lesser rating (mean=2.63), respondents viewed these aspects as important, hence they rated them fairly positively.

In response to a question about which aspects needed to be excluded, 50% of the respondents interpreted the question as to what they want to see included in the session, namely school and domestic violence; steps to take to address violence; and decision

making. Three respondents were happy with the contents of the session and did not want to add anything. The remaining respondent seemed to be concerned about the amount of videos and limited time for discussions and said:

- *“I think we covered everything that happens on a day to day basis. One or two videos would’ve been enough. We could’ve used the extra time to do practical exercises. A few less videos to get more theory in.”*

Overall, the respondents rated session 5 fairly positively (mean=2.86).

7.3.2.6 Session 6: Anger control

The goal of this session was to provide participants with information and to empower them with knowledge and skills for anger control. Focus was on the questions of whether anger is normal; whether it affects people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviour; and whether it is possible to control one’s anger non-violently. Finally, the objective was for participants to identify their anger triggers and to describe how they control their anger.

- **Anger is normal**

Table 7-23 displays the average changes in the pre- and post-test measures of knowledge and skills regarding the question of whether it is normal to experience anger or not.

Table 7-23 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Anger is normal

Pr_Anger_normal * Po_Anger_normal Crosstabulation					
			Po_Anger_normal		Total
			Yes	No	
Pr_Anger_normal	Yes	Count	7	0	7
		% of Total	87.5%	0.0%	87.5%
	No	Count	0	1	1
		% of Total	0.0%	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	7	1	8
		% of Total	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%

In the pre- and post-test results, the measures revealed that seven (87.5%) respondents agreed that anger is a normal feeling to experience in the pre- and the post-test, whilst one (12.5%) disagreed in the pre- and post-test. It is probable that this one respondent views

anger as an uncontrollable and overwhelming feeling that results from external provocation.

- **Anger affects people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviour**

Table 7-24 displays respondents’ opinions regarding whether anger affects people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviour or not.

Table 7-24 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Anger affects people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviour

Pr_Anger_Affect * Po_Anger_Affect Crosstabulation					
			Po_Anger_Affect		Total
			Yes		
Pr_Anger_Affect	Yes	Count	8		8
		% of Total	100.0%		100.0%
Total	Count		8		8
	% of Total		100.0%		100.0%

There were no changes in the pre- and post-test results. The measures revealed that all eight (100%) of the respondents agreed that anger affects people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviour.

- **Anger control**

In response to whether it is possible for one to be able to control one’s anger, Table 7-25 displays the responses.

Table 7-25 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Anger Control

Pr_Control_Anger * Po_Control_Anger Crosstabulation					
			Po_Control_Anger		Total
			Yes	No	
Pr_Control_Anger	Yes	Count	6	0	6
		% of Total	75.0%	0	75.0%
	No	Count	0	2	2
		% of Total	0.0%	25.0%	25.0%
Total		Count	6	2	8
		% of Total	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%

In the pre- and post-test measures, results remained unchanged. The measures revealed that six (75%) of the respondents agreed that it is possible for an individual to control their

anger, whilst two (25%) respondents disagreed in both pre- and post-tests and said it is not possible for people to control their anger.

The following remark confirms one of the participant's views that it is possible to control one's anger after they have learnt the anger control skills.

The second thing I've learnt is self-control. I've learnt to manage my anger, not to react in a violent or negative way but to keep my mind open that there are other strategies to keep me from acting violently. I think one thing that got me was when we said that if you find yourself in a position where you are going to react in a violent manner, you should stop and think about it and ask yourself is this going to benefit me or hurt the other person.

On the contrary, the results indicate that despite participating in the intervention, the two respondents that said that anger cannot be controlled have not been empowered with knowledge and skills regarding anger control. As a consequence, they have not learned the anger control steps and strategies.

- **Non-violent anger expression**

Table 7-26 displays results regarding whether people can express their anger in a non-violent manner.

Table 7-26 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Non-violent anger expression

Pr_Express_Nonviolent * Po_Express_Nonviolent Crosstabulation				
			Po_Express_Nonviolent	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Express_Nonviolent	Yes	Count	7	7
		% of Total	87.5%	87.5%
	No	Count	1	1
		% of Total	12.5%	12.5%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

As indicated in the above results, the pre- and post-test measures revealed that seven (87.5%) of the respondents agreed in the pre- and post-test that it is possible for an

individual to express their anger non-violently, whilst one (12.5%) respondent disagreed in the pre-test but agreed in the post-test.

- **Anger triggers**

Table 7-27 reveals the results regarding whether respondents are able to identify things that instantly make them angry (triggers). In the pre- and post-test results, the measures revealed that all eight (100%) of the respondents agreed that they are able to identify their anger triggers.

Table 7-27 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: Anger triggers

Pr_Identify_triggers * Po_Identify_triggers Crosstabulation				
			Po_Identify_triggers	Total
			Yes	
Pr_Identify_triggers	Yes	Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%
Total			Count	8
			% of Total	100.0%

Prior to participating in the session, the respondents listed diverse triggers which include rude and disrespectful people who use foul language; who are loud and make unbearable noise, especially while speaking and addressing them. Additionally, the respondents said they easily get angry when they are being wrongfully accused or being pressurised to lie. Moreover, the respondents stated that they easily get angered by someone who acts immaturely or by someone who bad mouths family members during a conflict situation. Furthermore, the respondents said being discriminated against or being ignored also makes them angry. Their responses are captured below:

- *“Being discriminated.”*
- *“Irritating and stupid things.”*
- *“Putting me off. Refusing to listen to my point of view also makes me angry instantly.”*
- *“Forcing me to agree with your lies.”*
- *“Insults.”*
- *“Being disrespectful after I approached you in a respectful manner.”*

- *“Making a loud noise while speaking with me.”*
- *“When people talk about my mother.”*

Post-session, the respondents repeated most of the triggers they had described in the pre-session. However, new additions were made which included being undermined, ignored and forced to agree with their opponent’s point of view. The respondents said:

- *“Avoiding my right answer, disagreeing with your wrong answers.”*
- *“Treating me like child while expected to act like an adult.”*
- *“Rude people, messing in my face, liars, people that continue to aggravate me.”*

The above pre-and post-test results indicate that respondents were able in the pre-test to identify and describe what triggers their anger. However, in the post-test, they repeated the same triggers. Nevertheless, they used different words to describe things that trigger their anger. This confirms that the learners have been exposed to knowledge of different provocative and confrontational situations that trigger their anger.

- **How to control anger**

In response to describing how they control their anger, pre- and post-test results displayed in Table 7-28 reveal that six (75%) of the respondents were able to describe how they control their anger, whilst two (25%) respondents could not describe how they control their anger in the pre-test, for they said:

- *“I normally can’t control my anger, I snap and act upon it.”*
- *“I just lose it, at that time I can’t think.”*

However, they could do so in the post-test.

Table 7-28 Cross-table of pre- and post-test: How to control anger

Pr_describe_How * Po_describe_How Crosstabulation			Po_describe_How	Total
			Yes	
Pr_describe_How	Yes	Count	6	6
		% of Total	75.0%	75.0%
	No	Count	2	2
		% of Total	25.0%	25.0%
Total		Count	8	8
		% of Total	100.0%	100.0%

Prior to participating in the session, the respondents described divergent strategies they use to control their anger. The strategies they use include concentrating on one's hobby as a cathartic activity for relieving anger. Others stated they consult a friend for debriefing purposes. Their strategies are captured below:

- *“Avoiding the person, speaking to a person's friend about the problem so that he/she can know what happened.”*
- *“By just listening to music, or take a walk to the park, just lie on the bed for a while.”*
- *“I often count to ten and calm myself down. I tend to sit alone in my room to re-compose myself. I also write all my feelings and emotions on a piece of paper.”*
- *“Sometimes I scream to let it out. Sleep. Read. Count and sing.”*

After participating in the session, the respondents identified additional strategies they use to control their anger. These include having a distracting activity like walking away from the conflict and engaging in positive thinking. Others revealed that they have learnt to control their anger. Their responses are recorded as follows:

- *“I walk away, silence and think about the future.”*
- *“I learnt not to snap.”*
- *“Try to be in relaxing state of mind.”*
- *“Walk away, write my feelings and emotions on paper, talk about what makes me angry and how it makes me feel.”*

A convergence is noted between the quantitative and qualitative findings. Participants reported in the focus group discussion how the intervention has empowered them with new strategies for anger control. The following are the participants' remarks:

- *“It taught me not to be violent because I was a violent person before. I get angry very quickly. Should you poke me, I react. But now it showed me that when someone pokes you, just take them as a never mind [ignore] because I am going to beat you up and go to the police and get arrested for assault, because I couldn't say you are not worth it. Therefore that is why I say when you do something to me, I don't fix my anger with something wrong, That's where I take the saying “an eye for an eye will only make the world go blind” into consideration because it touched me a little bit.”*
- *“If someone approaches me with anger, I stay calm, I don't raise my voice and I respond in a positive way. In that way, that person will see that I am not fighting with them and stay calm so they too will see that I am not shouting at you [them].”*

The above results serve as an indication that the respondents have learned something about anger control from participating in the session. It is evident that one respondent who could not control his or her anger in the pre-session, learnt the importance of controlling their anger in the post session, as what the respondent stated in the pre-session became exactly the opposite in the post-session. It is also apparent that most respondents prefer walking away from conflict since they repeated the strategy in the post-session. Another popular strategy is listening to music.

- **Learning needs relating to anger control**

Prior to participating in the session, all respondents but one said they wanted to learn about how to control their anger and stay calm when provoked. One person did not articulate an additional learning need, which could be an indication that he/she was satisfied with the content of the session. Their slightly similar responses are as follows:

- *“How to control another person's anger.”*

- *“How to control my anger, how to stay cool and calm when people make me angry.”*
- *“How to teach others to stay calm and for them to control their anger.”*

After participating in the session, respondents repeated the same learning needs as articulated in the pre-session. Even though it was still in the context of anger control, two respondents changed their frame of reference, indicating the need to solely focus on themselves as a starting point of anger management. It is evident that the respondents learned that it is easier to control how they respond than to control what happens to them. The following statements describe the respondents' learning needs:

- *“More help to control my temper.”*
- *“I cannot control others anger but my own.”*
- *“Learn more about how to deal with my anger.”*

The fact that most respondents repeated the learning needs that they had stated in the pre-session is an indication that they regard the ability to control one's anger as very important. In addition, the respondents felt that they are not adequately empowered, which is evident that they needed more time to apply the knowledge gained and practise the skill of anger control. Having the knowledge on how to control anger is the starting point, but a true test of application of skills can only occur when one is confronted with an anger triggering situation. The change of focus from the “other person” to themselves that was evident in the post-test session suggests that the respondents have learned from the session that anger control starts with them.

- **Overall evaluation of session 6**

Table 7-29 below indicates the overall evaluation of session 6.

Table 7-29 Overall evaluation of session 6

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Goal	8	3	3	3
Length	8	3	3	3
Material	8	2	3	2.87
Discussions	8	2	3	2.87
Facilitators	8	2	3	2.87
Knowledge	8	2	3	2.87
Skills	8	2	3	2.87
Overall	8	2	3	2.87
Homework	8	3	3	2.5

Respondents rated goal and length similarly positively (mean=3). In addition, they rated material, discussions, facilitators, knowledge, skills and overall impression of the session fairly positive (mean=2.87), respectively. Homework was rated the lowest (mean=2.5), which implies that they were neither positive nor negative. This was the pattern throughout the pilot study, an indication that the respondents did not like homework.

Six respondents seemed satisfied with the contents of this session and had nothing to add to the session. However, one respondent wanted the amount of videos reduced to allow time for discussions. The remaining one respondent interpreted the question as what they want to see included in the session, namely the aspect of trust. It was evident that the particular participant had trust issues, as he remarked about the treatment he receives from educators. He said:

- *“Teachers. Ma'am I have this thing, they don't give you an opportunity to change. If I was a gangster in the past and have changed, they will still oppress me with the things I did in the past. Like demerits, you carry them over. How can you learn from your mistakes if you carry over your mistakes?”*

Overall the respondents rated session 6 fairly positively (mean=2.87).

7.3.2.7 Overall evaluation of the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme

To conduct the overall evaluation of Triple T programme sessions, respondents were asked to complete the self-designed questionnaire using emoticons (see Appendix G). By assigning the negative emoticon a code of 1; the uncertain emoticon a code of 2 and the positive emoticon a code of 3, the responses were quantified. The focus of the evaluation was on all six sessions. The results are displayed in Table 7-30.

Table 7-30 Overall evaluation of the Triple T programme

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Decision-making	8	3	3	3
Conflict resolution	8	3	3	3
Nature, causes and impact of violence	8	2	3	2.87
Values, beliefs, caring and supportive relationships	8	2	3	2.87
Problem-solving	8	2	3	2.63
Anger control	8	2	3	2.5

Table 7.30 indicates the overall evaluation of the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme whereby the respondents rated decision making and conflict resolution similarly, with a mean of 3 (mean=3), an indication that they were satisfied with these sessions. In addition, they rated knowledge about types of violence and values respectively with a mean of 2.87. This is a fairly positive rating as well. Problem-solving got a lesser rating (mean=2.63) whilst anger control received the lowest rating (mean=2.5). Both problem-solving and anger control received a rating nearing the uncertain borderline, which implies that the respondents were neither positive nor negative about these sessions.

- **Summary of overall evaluation of the six sessions of Triple T school-based violence prevention programme**

Table 7-31 presents a summary of the results of the overall evaluation of the entire six sessions, using the means of codes 1 to 3 as indicators of the centre of gravity of the scale. The quantifying of the responses for the overall evaluation of the six sessions was on the following sub-themes: length, goal, knowledge, facilitators, discussions, skills, material, and homework.

Table 7-31: Overall evaluation of all the six sessions

	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3	Session 4	Session 5	Session 6	Overall	Rank
Length	3	2.75	3	3	3	3	2.96	1
Goal	3	2.87	2.87	2.86	3	3	2.93	2
Knowledge	2.87	3	2.87	3	2.87	2.87	2.91	3
Facilitators	3	2.87	3	2.86	2.87	2.87	2.91	3
Discussions	2.75	2.87	3	3	2.87	2.87	2.89	4
Skills	2.88	2.75	2.87	3	2.87	2.87	2.87	5
Material	2.87	2.87	3	0	2.75	2.87	2.87	5
Homework	0	2.71	2.75	2.86	2.63	2.5	2.69	6

The findings are presented in graphs below. However, these graphs are not line graphs in the true sense of the word. The graphical representation shows the means per session which may be used in comparing the findings across the six sessions. Figure 7.1 illustrates the rating of length of sessions.

- **Length of sessions**

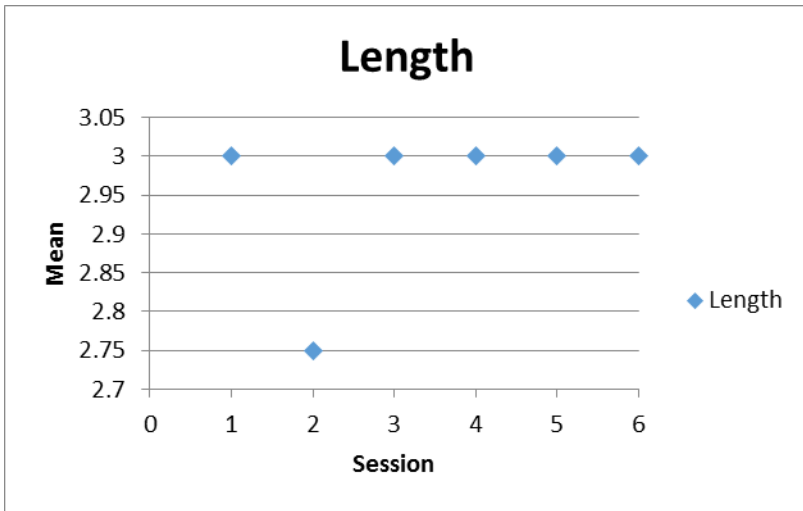


Figure 7.1: Length of sessions

Figure 7.1 represents the rating of the length of the sessions (mean=2.96). The respondents rated the length of sessions 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6 respectively with a mean of 3 (mean=3), implying that the respondents were satisfied with the sessions, hence they were rated positively. Session 2 was rated slightly lower (mean=2.75) which implies that the respondents were fairly satisfied with the length of the session.

- **Goal of the sessions**

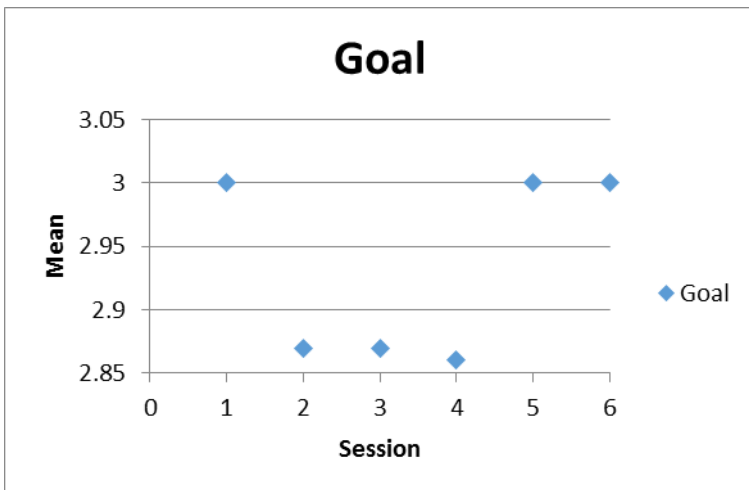


Figure 7.2: Goal of sessions

Figure 7.2 represents the rating of the goal of the sessions (mean=2.93). The respondents rated sessions 1, 5 and 6 positively (mean=3). Sessions 2 and 3 were given a fairly positive but a lower rating (mean=2.87) respectively. Similarly, session 4 was given the lowest rating (mean=2.86). Despite the lower rating, the session was rated fairly positively.

- **Knowledge gained**

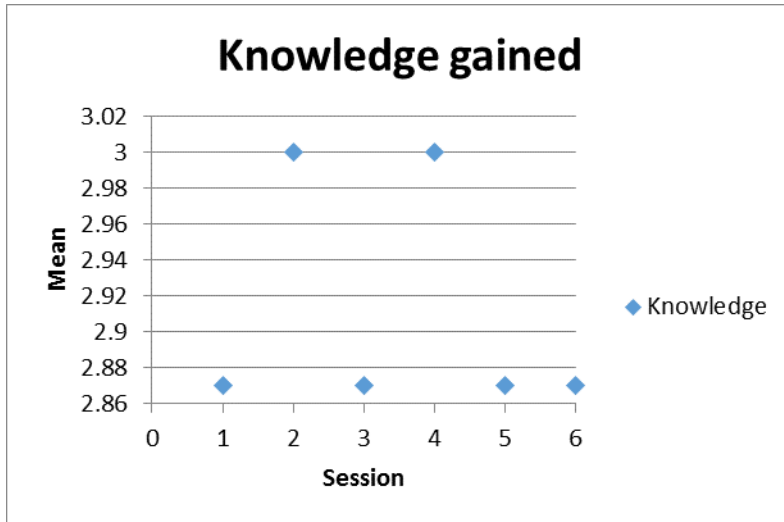


Figure 7.3: Knowledge gained

Figure 7.3 illustrates the rating of the knowledge gained as a result of participating in the intervention (mean=2.91). Sessions 2 and 4 received a positive rating (mean=3). Sessions 1, 3, 5, and 6 respectively received a lower but fairly positive rating (mean=2.87). Overall knowledge gained was rated fairly positively and received a rating mean of 2.91. Although all the respondents had prior knowledge about the types, causes and impact of school violence; and were aware of some of the skills required to avoid getting involved in violence, the results obtained from focus group discussion indicate that the respondents were satisfied with the intervention. The respondents said:

- *“Knowledge and education has no limits. There is always something to learn.”*
- *“You cannot say you have learned enough.”*

- “Yea because before you never thought people can get irritated but now you are more aware. You must learn people’s responses when they react. You must be able to analyse when people are not enjoying it.”
- “I’ve learnt to accept that people’s values, morals and principles are not the same and I can’t change theirs to be exactly the same as mine.”

- **Efficiency of the facilitators**

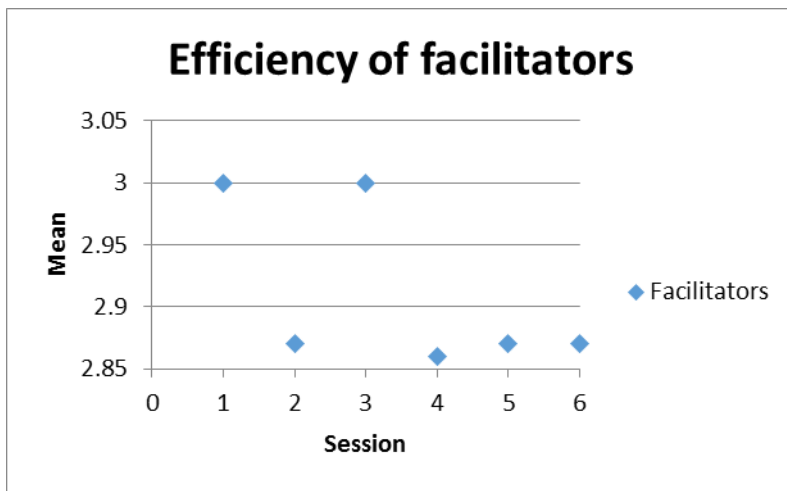


Figure 7.4: Efficiency of the facilitators

Figure 7.4 illustrates the rating of the efficiency of the facilitators of the sessions (mean=2.91). Sessions 1 and 3 were similarly rated positively and received a rating mean of 3 (mean=3). Sessions 2, 5, and 6 respectively received a fairly positive rating (mean=2.87). Session 4 received the lowest rating (mean=2.86). The results indicate that respondents were fairly positive about the professionalism, efficiency and the overall manner in which the facilitators presented and facilitated the lessons.

- **Discussions during sessions**

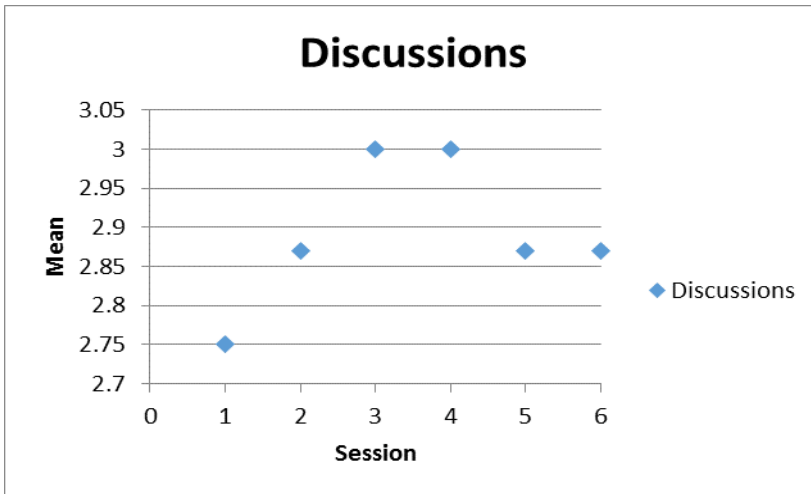


Figure 7.5: Discussions during sessions

Figure 7.5 represents the rating of the didactic lectures and group discussions presented during the sessions (mean=2.89). The results indicate that the respondents rated sessions 3 and 4 respectively with a mean of 3. This shows that the respondents were positive about these sessions. Sessions 2, 5 and 6 were respectively rated with a lower mean of 2.87. The respondents rated the sessions fairly positively. Session 1 received the lowest but fairly positive rating (mean=2.75).

- **Skills acquired**

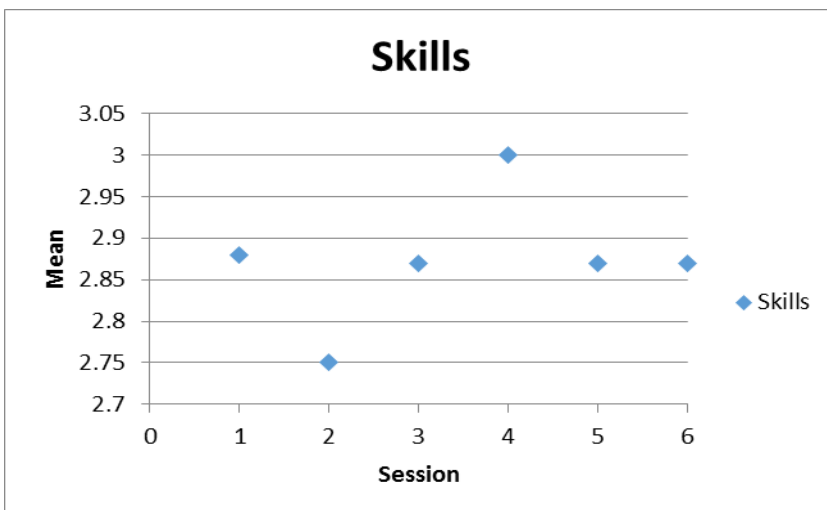


Figure 7.6: Skills acquired

Figure 7.6 represents the rating of the skills acquired during the sessions (mean=2.87). The results indicate that session 4 received a positive rating (mean=3). This was followed by session 1, which was rated fairly positively but lower (mean=2.88). Sessions 3, 5, 6 were respectively rated with a mean of 2.87 (mean=2.87). Session 2 received the lowest rating (mean=2.75). Overall, the skills aspect was ranked 5 out of the six sessions, possibly due to lack of time to model and practise the skills presented during the sessions.

- **Material used during sessions**

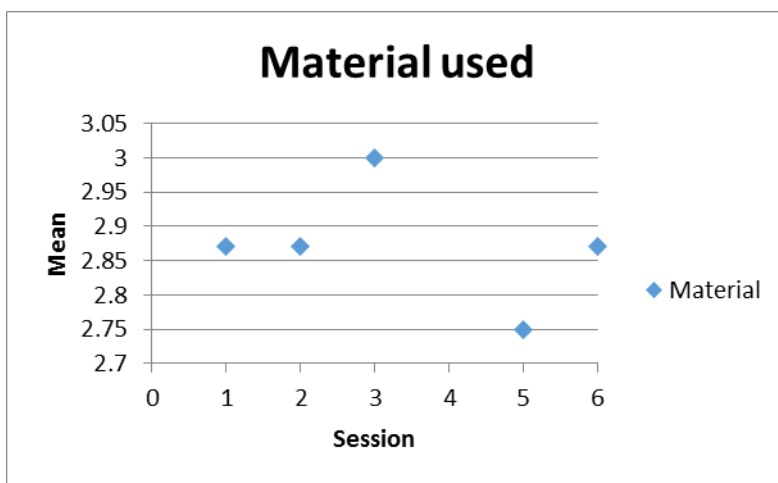


Figure 7.7: Materials used during sessions

Figure 7.7 represents the rating of the materials used during the sessions (mean=2.87). The results indicate that session 3 was rated positively (mean=3). Sessions 1, 2 and 6 were respectively rated fairly positively although at a slightly lower mean (mean=2.87). Session 5 received the lowest rating (mean=2.75). The aspect of materials used was not rated in session 4 because it was mistakenly omitted by the researcher during the compilation of the questionnaire.

- **Homework handed out during sessions**

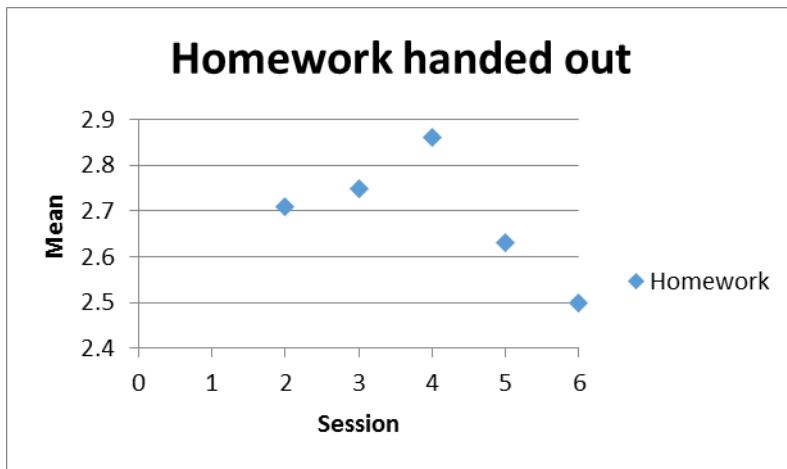


Figure 7.8: Homework handed out during sessions

Figure 7.8 represents the rating of homework handed out during the sessions (mean=2.69). Session 1 was not rated because there was no homework given prior to commencement of the sessions. Session 4 was rated fairly positively (mean=2.86). Session 3 received a slightly lower but fairly positive rating (mean=2.75). Similarly, session 2 received a fairly positive but lower rating (mean=2.72). Session 5 received a lower rating (mean=2.63) and session 6 was rated lowest (mean=2.5). This implies that the respondents were uncertain about sessions 5 and 6. As indicated above, the homework was ranked lower than the other aspects of the evaluation (mean=2.69). This method of teaching and learning had limitations yet to be discussed in section 7.4.

- **Overall impression of the sessions**

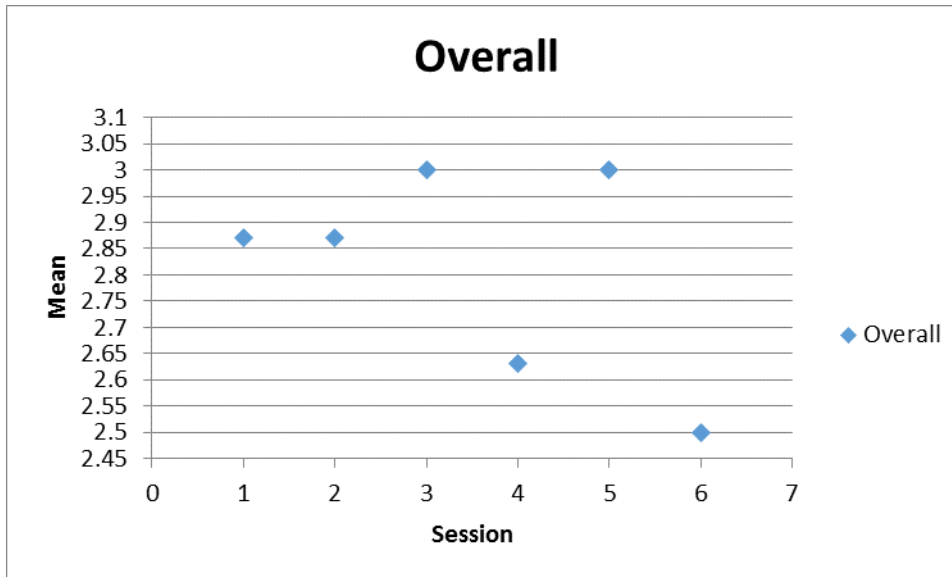


Figure 7.9 Overall evaluation of sessions

Figure 7.9 displays a summary of the means for the overall impression of the entire six sessions. Overall, session 3 (conflict resolution) and session 5 (decision making) respectively received a positive rating (mean=3). These were followed by sessions 1 which focused on types, causes, impact of violence and session 2 which focused on values, principles and morals. These two sessions were respectively rated fairly positively (mean=2.87). Session 4 which pertains to problem solving received a slightly lower rating (mean=2.63), implying that the respondents were not entirely satisfied with the session. Anger control was rated the lowest (mean=2.5), which implies that the respondents were uncertain about this session.

7.3.2.8 Themes emerging from the focus group discussion

Questions that were asked in the survey were not entirely similar to those asked during the focus group discussion. Participants were asked to further reflect and share their experiences and views on how attending the school-based violence prevention programme has influenced their behaviour and attitudes which was the themes of the findings that emerged from the focus group discussion.

Theme 1: Remorseful and building character

The empirical evidence shows that the intervention has made a preliminary positive contribution. The participants stated that participating in the intervention has changed their attitudes because they have learned to be remorseful, to take their peers and others peoples' opinion and feelings into consideration. Additionally, they said the intervention has built their character to be patient, calm, humble, forgiving and positive. The participants said:

- *“Ma’am I’d say the impact of the programme it changed our mind-sets because we all had the mind-set that if someone approaches you we’re going to fight but now we no longer feel that way.”*
- *“I would say that it has made me realise not to look down on ourselves because we have strengths.”*
- *“I’d say at this stage, should you swear at me, I will just look at you and I walk away. Even though sometimes temptation will come along I will still be able to think about the right thing to do to avoid making the situation worse.”*
- *“It has taught me to be remorseful and to think about how my behaviours affect others.”*
- *“I was a bull fighter. I would hold a grudge and would make you suffer because of that grudge but now I have realised that I can just move on and do better things.”*
- *“Okay ma’am, my behaviour, I wouldn’t exactly say it was bad at first but I already had this maturity of how to handle a situation when it came my way. I think it bettered that because I feel calm even if there is something that strikes me. I just feel this calmness that I need to calm down and realise that it is not worth my time, it’s not worth my fight, it’s just something that life throw in my face.”*

Theme 2: Change is a process

Moreover, the participants were self-aware and realistic because they said that they realise that change is a process. Hence, they voiced their wish for the sessions to continue and be presented at-least once or twice a week to assist them particularly when they relapse back to their violent ways. The responses are captured by the following statements:

- *“I would say that there is always room for improvement than where I am now. I can still improve with regards to attitude.”*
- *“And personally I don’t think these groups should happen only once. Because during this programme 1, 2, 3, we all got into fights during the course of this programme because we are still in the process of learning. So if we do it once and stop, then we forget. I think we should do it once in a week so that we don’t forget. And if I lose my temper you will still be there to remind me to keep calm and to contain my temper. Yes, maybe twice a week or once a week.”*

7.4 Key findings of the pilot study

The pilot study followed a developmental approach by seeking learners’ perspectives in an effort to understand how to effectively address school-based violence. Key findings from the pilot study of the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme are presented in relation to the relevance of Lipsey’s theory-based programme development and evaluation model; the hybrid teaching and learning method; contents of the programme; facilitators and learning needs of the participants.

7.4.1 Relevance of the theory-based programme development and evaluation model

All the components of Lipsey’s Theory Based Programme Development and Evaluation Model were applicable and useful in ensuring proper planning, monitoring and evaluation of the intervention. In alignment with Lipsey’s model, the contents of the intervention were based on the identified problems plaguing the participating schools (WHO, 2013:12; Huijbregts et al., 2008:41).

Secondly, the model required that the activities be linked not only to the problem, but also to the expected outcomes. This is essential in that through the programme theory, proper planning was done to ensure required teaching and learning material and other required resources were mobilised in order to carry out the planned activities.

Thirdly, Lipsey's model was effective in that it was easy to ascertain and ensure that the desired outcomes are linked to the activities, problems and the needs of participants.

Fourthly, the theory-based development and evaluation model was useful during the process of conducting the formative evaluation. It guided the researcher to focus more on the content, the processes and the desired outcomes. Moreover, the purpose was not to conduct impact evaluation. Thus, it was appropriate and enabled the researcher to conduct the pilot evaluation.

Finally, the theoretical model enabled the researcher to conclude that the change in knowledge, and the improvement in attitudes and behaviour, as reported by the participants, is as a result of their participation in the intervention. However, the limitation is that it is impossible to confirm if the change will be sustained, as premised by the stages of change theory (see Figure 6.1). The limitation was confirmed by the participants themselves when they acknowledged that although they have benefited from participating in the intervention, change is a process. They indicated that they need time to internalise the knowledge and skills in order not to revert back to their violent behaviours and attitudes. As a result, they were in favour of the continuation of the sessions. The participants wanted the sessions to be on-going and to be held at least weekly

7.4.2 Hybrid teaching and learning method

The hybrid model of teaching and learning which included classroom-based didactic teaching; group discussions; ICT; modelling; role play; transfer training and positive role models was appropriate and effective to cater for the individualised learning needs of the participants, to enhance teaching and learning and ensure effective achievement of desired outcomes. Notably, not all the teaching and learning methods were effectively applied.

Firstly, the use of mobile phone (ICT) was not effectively implemented as planned as the participants did not do homework assignments and yet they rated it. One of the participants remarked as follows:

- *“I think in terms of homework, better if you make it an activity that we do here because some of us when we get home I don’t even have time to check my phone.”*

Secondly, the transfer training and modelling method were not adequately implemented due to time constraints. The participants observed this limitation and made a specific request for the opportunity to practise what they have been taught.

Thirdly, the use of positive role models was a limitation although an improvisation was made to use a recorded message. This strategy was inadequate. The participants stated that they are constantly exposed to negative role models in their respective communities hence the need for positive role models to motivate and inspire them.. A participant said:

- *“I can say is in the world, there are good people and bad people. But most of us look up to the bad people because the good people don’t like sharing what to do like you are doing now with the group. But in the kasi [township], what you see is gangsters and these are the people we look up to because the good people don’t like sharing.”*

Although the participants could relate to the celebrities, the researcher is of the view that perhaps a youngster who has had an experience of overcoming violence would be an ideal role model. In line with the principles of self-determination and stakeholder involvement, the researcher proposes that programme participants be engaged in the identification and involvement of positive role models from their respective communities. These role models must be people the participants look up to and admire from their own perspective.

7.4.3 Contents of the Triple T programme

The contents of the school-based violence prevention programme were relevant for empowering the participants with knowledge about the various forms and types of violence; the multiple causes of school-based violence and consequential effects. As a result of participating in the intervention, the learners learned about the negative effects of violence on the victim, educators and teaching and learning. However, the participants

indicated the need to learn more about school violence prevention; how to decrease the high levels of violence in schools and create safe learning environments, either through awareness campaigns or safety measures.

Secondly, all the participants knew that violence is a violation of people's rights. They however learned about the values of respect, empathy, compassion and caring. Additionally, they learned about good moral values and the value of showing empathy, care, support and compassion to others. Furthermore, the participants learned that each and every person has a right to be treated with respect and dignity. Additionally, they learned that each individual, in turn, has the responsibility to show respect, care and support to their peers and other people.

As a result of participating in the school-based violence prevention programme, their knowledge has increased and their attitudes and behaviours have been positively influenced. Nonetheless, the participants had additional learning needs relating to this theme. They indicated the need to learn about being non-judgmental; to maintain positive moral values and principles; and to lead positive and non-violent lives.

Thirdly, the majority (n=7) of the participants knew that conflict is normal and should not be ignored. The participants had some knowledge about the causes of conflict. Nonetheless, the participants were empowered with more information and knowledge about conflict resolution. They learned about the sources of conflict and about constructive conflict resolution strategies and steps. However, the participants did not get the opportunity to practice these steps and strategies during the sessions in order to become competent and avoid getting involved in violence. After participating in the intervention, the participants indicated the need to learn more about conflict resolution strategies to prevent conflict from erupting as well as to be capacitated with skills to resolve the conflict once it has occurred.

Fourthly, the majority of the participants (n=7) were aware that there are options and steps to solving problems, other than violence. However, they were empowered with additional information about problem-solving steps and strategies. Additionally, they were capacitated with more information and they gained more knowledge about the negative

consequences of a lack of problem-solving skills. However, the participants did not get the opportunity to practise the problem-solving steps and strategies due to time constraints. Hence, the participants expressed the need for more time to learn to practically solve a problem quickly without resorting to violence.

Fifthly, all the participants (n=8) were aware of the negative consequences of violent behaviour. Additionally, the majority of the respondents (n=6) reported that they stop and think about negative consequences before they act. Moreover, the participants said they follow certain steps before they decide to act. However, the participants were initially not specific about the steps they take. Therefore, participating in the programme empowered and capacitated them with specific steps such as ABC and STAR, which they can follow before they make any decisions. After participating in the session, the participants expressed the need for learning more and easier decision-making steps; resisting peer pressure; and to accept that sometimes things will go wrong, therefore, to learn to live with the consequences of bad decision making.

Finally, the majority of the participants (n=7) know that anger is normal and all the participants (n=8) know that anger affects people's thoughts, feelings and actions and they also knew their anger triggers. Only six respondents had vague descriptions of anger control strategies. Hence all the participants were empowered with more specific and concrete anger control strategies. However, due to time constraints, the participants could not learn and practise the learned anger control skills. As a result, the participants expressed the need to learn to control their temper better and to deal with their anger rather than perpetrate violence against others.

7.4.4 Facilitators

Within the context of this study, social workers as facilitators, have to be adequately trained in the developmental social work approach and theory-based programme development and evaluation model. In addition, facilitators have to be familiar with the stages of change theory in order to be able to implement and evaluate the programme successfully. Finally, they need to have good facilitation and computer literacy skills.

The researcher, who was the main facilitator in this study, has extensive experience in working with youth. She has good project management, communication, facilitation and computer literacy skills. The assistant researcher is a recently qualified social worker. She has completed group work and project management modules as part of her social work training. She has experience in school social work obtained during her field placement practice training. Additionally, she has experience working with youth obtained through her voluntary work in her community. She also has good communication, facilitation and computer literacy skills. As such, the facilitators ensured that rapport was built prior to implementing the intervention. Furthermore, they ensured that they were well prepared for all the planned sessions.

7.4.5 Learning needs

Although the observation is made that the participants confused the words “exclude and include”, it is also probable that they did not have anything to say about aspects that needed to be excluded. Rather, they had more to say about what needed to be included in the sessions in order to learn. The participants indicated a desire for continued education and development relating to all the themes contained in the sessions. Hence the need for the sessions to be on-going and to be held at least once or twice per week.

Additionally, the participants identified additional themes they wanted to be included in the intervention such as trust, socio-economic and cultural issues and domestic violence. Additionally, they wanted to be taught about how to deal with educators who are uncaring, unsupportive and disrespectful.

7.5 Pilot testing limitations

The school-based violence prevention programme was implemented as planned. However, limitations were noted during the pilot testing process. The limitations are interwoven and relate to time constraints; the application of the ICT method; poor response to homework assignments; omissions in session 4; confusion around the words “exclude” and “include” in relation to learning needs; and the over utilisation of videos.

These limitations will be discussed as follows:

- Time was insufficient to conduct proper group discussions, to model various skills, steps and strategies and to engage participants in role plays to practise skills learnt during the respective session and to provide them feedback on their performance. In alignment with the policy of the Department of Education, the school-based violence prevention programme had to be implemented after school to avoid interfering with learners' teaching and learning schedule. The sessions were designed to start at 14:30 and finish at 16:00. The sessions were always delayed due to late coming, often times starting after 15:00 and the participants demanding to leave at 15:30 due to the public transport schedules. Time was a barrier that negatively affected the implementation and outcomes of the intervention.
- The participants were informed about how the programme was going to be implemented, including the learning activities and methods of teaching and learning, homework being one of these. At this stage, the participants did not oppose the issue of homework assignments. Homework instructions were given at the end of the first session and the participants did not oppose or have a counter suggestion. Due to time constraints, the researcher was unable to follow up and encourage compliance or give further instructions and/or clarify any queries.
- During the focus group discussion, the respondents stated that they already have school-related homework and house chores to do at home which placed added demands on them. In addition, it is probable that the word "homework" had a negative influence on their response as none of the respondents did the assigned homework. They possibly viewed the educational activities as a "chore". As noted, the participants rated the homework theme fairly positively when in actual fact they did not experience it. It is possible that they regarded homework as important but unmanageable. This introduced respondent bias and decreased the reliability of the results in that they scored an aspect they did not experience. Consequently, the homework theme was rated the lowest.
- Two aspects that related to Material in session 4 and Homework in session 3, were mistakenly omitted from the post-test questionnaires. As a consequence, these aspects were not rated.

- The participants observed that there was over utilisation of videos, without balancing that with skill practise sessions and the use of posters and handouts.
- The contents of the four skills building sessions were overlapping. For example, conflict resolution, problem solving and anger control steps overlapped. Although there was overlap, the methods of implementation differed. However, it is crucial that this is clearly explained to the participants in advance so that they understand.
- The content did not address other multiple contextual factors that influence the individual learner. These include: family-related factors; educator-related factors; the school system; and community-related factors such as domestic violence, socio-economic issues, poverty and cultural beliefs and traditions. It has been pointed out in relation to the bio-ecological systems approach as important components of a school-based violence prevention programme or meso and macro intervention levels.

7.6 Summary

The chapter presented a discussion of how the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme was piloted and evaluated. The key findings relating to the relevance of the theory-based programme development and evaluation model; contents of the intervention; facilitators and learning needs were highlighted. In addition, the limitations of the pilot study were highlighted. Based on the key findings and conclusions, recommendations for the further development and implementation of the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme will be proposed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8: KEY FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The study was guided by the bio-ecological systems theory as a theoretical framework, as well as practice frameworks which included the developmental approach to social work, the social and emotional learning theory, the character education and social cognitive and social competence approaches. Learners and educators are part of the violence problem that is prevalent in most schools and therefore, they need to be part of the solution. Being important stakeholders in the prevention of violence, it was thus imperative to involve them in the design of the school-based violence prevention programme.

This final chapter gives an account of how the objectives of the study were achieved in meeting the goal of the study, namely to develop, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in the Tshwane South District in Gauteng Province. The chapter firstly presents the key findings and conclusions of the study in relation to the respective objectives of the study. Thereafter, recommendations will be made from the study, including guidelines for future development of the proposed school-based violence prevention programme.

8.2 Key findings and conclusions of the study

Objective 1: To provide a conceptual framework for school-based violence, violence prevention and intervention strategies

This objective was achieved through a literature study presented in Chapter 3, which outlined relevant legislative frameworks (See Chapter 3: section 3.2) and appropriate theoretical and practice frameworks (See Chapter 3: sections 3.3 and 3.4).

The bio-ecological systems theory showed that the individual learner does not exist in isolation, but is in a symmetrical relationship with other systems. It posits that various factors interact with each other (See Figure 3.1). The contributory factors include:

- Biological make-up of the learner
- Psychological or emotional functioning
- Social networks
- Economic status
- Political context
- Historical developments
- Spiritual beliefs
- Cultural beliefs
- Media.

The bio-ecological systems theory provides a holistic understanding of causes of violence and why some learners perpetrate violence while others do not. It contextualises how learners are influenced by, and in turn, influence multiple systems they interact with, including individual learners themselves; family or caregivers of the learners; peers; educators and other staff; the school; communities, and society in general.

It can be concluded that the bio-ecological systems theory is an appropriate theory for a holistic understanding of school-based violence, and to contextualise the behaviour of learners and educators in relation to school-based violence.

In addition to the bio-ecological systems theory, practice frameworks were utilised to design of the school-based violence prevention programme, namely, the developmental social work approach which incorporates rights-based, strengths-based and empowerment-based approaches (See section 3.4.1); the social and emotional learning (SEL) approach (See section 3.4.2) incorporating character education (CE) approach (See section 3.4.3); and the social cognitive and social competence approach (See section 3.4.4).

The developmental social work approach incorporates the principles which underpin a holistic school-based prevention programme, namely human rights; democracy; strengths; empowerment; capacity building; participation, partnerships, and bridging the micro-macro divide.

The social and emotional learning (SEL) approach affirms that learners are more likely to perpetuate violence if they lack social and emotional skills; claims that learners who are capacitated and empowered with socio-emotional skills are able to gain thinking, feeling, and behavioural competencies; make responsible decisions, and are more likely to maintain peaceful and non-violent interpersonal interactions with peers and other adults. It asserts that learners could be able to recognise and control their emotions and empathise with their peers and adults. As a result, levels of school violence could decrease.

The social and emotional learning (SEL) approach indicated that school violence prevention programmes are likely to be effective if they focus on empowering learners and enhancing their social and emotional competencies that would enable them to control their impulses and avoid perpetrating violence, make rational decisions; avoid placing themselves and others at risk; take into account the impact of their behaviours on others; demonstrate caring, compassionate and supportive attitudes and behaviours to their peers and educators, and to be competent in establishing and maintaining positive and constructive interpersonal relationships.

The character education (CE) approach was relevant in informing the design of the intervention because it focuses on empowering learners and building their social and emotional skills which is important to avoid engaging in violence. The approach promotes moral and ethical behaviour so that learners can learn to treat each other with respect and dignity; it is useful for influencing pro-social attitudes and behaviours amongst learners; reduces levels of school violence, and fosters caring and respectful relationships between learners and educators.

The relevance of the character education (CE) approach is in designing a school-based violence prevention programme that is embedded in teaching learners about moral values

and principles such as human rights, respect, Ubuntu, caring and compassion; encouraging learners to uphold the rights of other people and to be conscious about the impact of their violent and aggressive attitudes and behaviours; capacitate learners socially, emotionally and morally to be culturally sensitive and respectful in their interactions with others, and to empower learners socially, emotionally and ethically, with skills to cooperate and collaborate with peers and educators.

Finally the social cognitive and social competence approach was appropriate for guiding the design of the programme because it empowers learners with socio-emotional skills that enable them to correctly label and identify other people's emotions. Furthermore, it empowers them to think before they act and to consider the impact of their behaviour on others; to communicate and interact positively with peers and educators, and to avoid violence and aggression, and rather, to choose non-violent alternatives.

The social cognitive and social competence approach guided the school-based violence prevention programme design for empowering and capacitating learners with socio-emotional skills that will enable them to think before they act; to make responsible decisions and choose non-violence and peace when faced with a conflict or problematic situation. Furthermore, it was relevant for teaching learners to realise the value of adopting and conforming to non-violence and a human rights culture.

A mixture of practice frameworks for the development of a school-based violence prevention programme has shown that developing the thinking, feeling and behavioural skills of learners would enable them to think before they act, to show empathy towards others' feelings and to choose peaceful and non-violent options. Furthermore, findings show that violence can be addressed if programmes focus holistically on high school learners, their emotional, cognitive and behavioural abilities, and the influence of multiple interacting contextual factors that perpetuate violent behaviour. It can be concluded that a combination of practice frameworks is relevant for developing a holistic school-based prevention programme which targets multi systems.

Objective 2: To describe the nature, extent, causes and the impact of school-based violence

This objective was achieved through the literature review (See Chapter 4) and the empirical study (See Chapter 5). The following discussion will present the key findings from the literature review and the empirical study and conclusions drawn from the findings respectively for (1) the nature and types of school-based violence; (2) the causes of school-based violence; and (3) the impact of school-based violence.

Key findings and conclusions based on the literature review and the empirical findings are next presented on the nature and types of violence; the causes of school-based violence (See Chapter 4: section 4.4; Chapter 5: section 5.3, theme 3), and the effects of school-based violence (See Chapter 4 section 4.6; Chapter 5: section 5.3, theme 4).

- **The nature and types of school-based violence**

Table 8-1 displays key findings and conclusions pertaining to the different forms and types of school-based violence, namely: verbal; emotional; physical; sexual; cyber; property; and systemic or institutional violence (See Chapter 4: sections 4.3; Chapter 5: section 5.3: themes 1 and 2).

Table 8-1 Key Findings and Conclusions: The nature and types of school-based violence

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
It is confirmed by literature that several forms and types of violence persist in most schools. (See Chapter 4: section 4.3, sub-sections 4.3.1 - 4.3.8): -Learner-on-learner -Educator-on-learner -Learner-on-educator -External people against both learners and educators	The nature of school violence that is found to be common in schools relates to the following forms of violence (See Chapter 5: theme 1, sub-themes 1.1-1.3): -Learner-on-learner -Educator-on-learner -Learner-on-educator The following types of violence were	-Violence has filtered into schools, perpetrated by learners, educators, the school system and members of the community -A holistic approach is required to broadly assess and identify personal, social, economic, cultural, political, historical, technological, structural factors that contribute to different

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
-Political -Criminal -Relational -Verbal violence -Emotional violence -Physical violence and Corporal punishment -Sexual and gender-based violence -Cyber violence -Property violence or vandalism -Gang violence -Systemic or institutionalised violence	found to be prevalent in schools (See Chapter 5: theme 2, subtheme 2.1 - 2.7): -Emotional violence -Verbal violence -Physical violence -Sexual violence -Gang violence -Property violence -Cyber violence	types and forms of violence in schools. -A comprehensive school-based violence prevention programme guided by the bio-ecological systems theory and practice frameworks such as developmental social work approach, social and emotional learning theory, character education and social cognitive and social competence approaches should be designed to target different types of violence

In sum, violence is multi-dimensional and manifests in varied forms in schools and is exacerbated by varied contextual factors. Learners and educators are at risk of violence within the school context.

- **Causes of violence**

Table 8-2 presents the key findings and conclusions pertaining to causes of school-based violence. (See Chapter 4: section 4.4; Chapter 5: theme 3, sub-themes 3.1-3.9). Causative factors are interactive and relate to individual learners, family, poverty and community factors, peer-related factors, educator and school factors, media, and socio-cultural, socio-economic, historical and political factors.

Table 8-2 Key findings and conclusions: The causes of school-based violence

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL FACTORS		
Individual-related causes of school-based violence confirmed in literature include (See 4.4.1 and Figure 4.1): -Personality -Gender	The personality profile compounded by ecological system factors places many learners at risk of perpetrating violence (See Chapter 5: theme 3, sub-themes 3.1 -3.8 and Figure 5.4):	-Learners' biological make-up contributes to violence -Learners who are aggressive, and who lack self-control or who have low impulse control are more likely to get

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL FACTORS		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Age -Low impulse control -Low academic performance -Previous exposure to violence -Involvement in crime -Substance abuse -Access to weapons -Peer pressure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Learners' indiscipline -Lack of respect for authority -Poor academic performance -Personal problems -Revenge -Need for recognition and status -Gambling -Drugs and alcohol -Gangsterism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> involved in violence -Male learners are most likely to carry weapons and engage in physical and sexual violence whilst under the influence of alcohol and drugs than their female counterparts -Female learners are more likely to engage in emotional and cyber violence -As compared to their male counterparts, female learners are more vulnerable to school-based violence as victims -Learners who associate with a violent peer group are more at risk of becoming a victim or perpetrator of violence -Learners who are raised in families with a violent background or who have a history of being victimised, are more likely to engage in revenge attacks against the perpetrator or other vulnerable victims

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
FAMILY-RELATED FACTORS		
<p>The family system has been identified in literature as having an influence on the development of violent behaviour. (See Chapter 4: section 4.4.2 and Figure 4.1).</p> <p>Family-related factors that contribute to aggressive and violent behaviour include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Low socio-economic status 	<p>Several family-related factors were identified as contributing to violent behaviour of school learners (See Chapter 5: sub-theme 3.2):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Family dysfunction -Domestic violence -Moral degeneration -Poverty -Economic status 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The family has an immeasurable impact on the development, behaviour and attitudes of learners -Many families encounter countless challenges that negatively impact their parenting capabilities -Caregivers need support to minimise the impact of the challenges families face

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
FAMILY-RELATED FACTORS		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Lack of interest in children's education -Family disintegration and moral decay -Family conflict and domestic violence -Harsh or inconsistent discipline -Lack of supervision -Lack of warmth and caring attitude -Family violence -Family drug and alcohol abuse -Involvement in criminal activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Lack of parental involvement -Poor parenting skills -Physical abuse 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Parenting skills development interventions are called for to address the lack of parenting skills and alleviate the family-related factors that contribute to the problem of school violence

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
PEER- LEVEL FACTORS		
<p>Literature has demonstrated that school violence is caused by several peer related factors (See Chapter 4: section 4.4.3 and Figure 4.1):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Peer pressure -The need to belong and to be accepted -Being bullied -Revenge -Gambling -Gang membership -Violent attitudes and beliefs -Access to weapons -Access to alcohol and drugs 	<p>The peer group has an influence on the behaviour of learners</p> <p>A myriad of peer related factors contribute to school violence (See Chapter 5: sub-themes 3.4 - 3.7 and Figure 5.4). These factors include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Gossip -Peer pressure -Intimidation -Gambling -Involvement in gang activities -Revenge -Drugs and alcohol -Provocation -Indiscipline 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Learners at high school level are at a critical stage of development and are more amenable to peer pressure -The need to be accepted by peers places many learners at risk of negative peer influence -Peers can dramatically influence and change each other's developmental trajectory -Learners should be educated and made aware about the risk of associating with antisocial peers -Learners need to be empowered with skills to be able to resist negative peer pressure

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
SCHOOL- LEVEL FACTORS		
<p>Literature has confirmed that the school as a system contributes to school violence (See Chapter 4: section 4.4.4 and Figure 4.1)</p> <p>The factors that contribute to violence are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Poor classroom management -Corporal punishment -Indiscipline -Undemocratic policies and rules -Poor leadership -Poor infrastructure -Large school size -Poor educator-learner relationships -Easy access to drugs and alcohol -Easy access to weapons -Gang activities -Gambling -Unethical behaviour of educators -Lack of educator training on school violence management -Low morale and lack of job satisfaction 	<p>Schools that are characterised by the following factors have been shown to experiencing more violence (See Chapter 5: theme 3, sub-themes 3.1; 3.7-3.8):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Learner indiscipline -Access to drugs and alcohol -Access to weapons -Corporal punishment -Verbal abuse by educators -Emotional abuse by educators -Sexual abuse by educators -Unprofessional behaviour of educators -Racism and prejudice -Collusion with security personnel 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The extensive levels of violence in schools deprive learners the opportunity to benefit from the core purpose and mission of the school, namely, to learn in safe and secure environments -In the face of violence, the school system is failing in its responsibility to educate and promote compassionate, ethical and moral citizenry who must respect, care and support each other -The school system needs to improve its policies and practices in order to successfully promote and protect the rights of its learners and educators -The school system could be construed as violent if violence continues to affect people physically emotionally, academically and economically

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
COMMUNITY-LEVEL FACTORS		
<p>Literature has confirmed that the community contributes to violence experienced in schools (See Chapter 4: sections 4.4.5 - 4.4.8 and Figure 4.1)</p> <p>Evidently, the following factors exist in communities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Poverty 	<p>High levels of violence are experienced in communities that display the following anomalies (See Chapter 5: theme 3, sub-theme 3.3):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Poverty -Crime 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The socio-economic status of the community is a risk factor for school-based violence -Learners who live in poor and disadvantaged neighbourhoods are more at risk as compared to their counterparts

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
COMMUNITY-LEVEL FACTORS		
-Unemployment -Income inequality -Lack of access to basic resources -Access to alcohol and drugs -Access to weapons -Crime and violence -Low social cohesion and social capital -Over population -Gangs -Media -Cultural factors -Historical factors -Political factors	-Low income status -High economic status -Alcohol and drugs	-However, low socio-economic status alone, does not predispose people to becoming violent -Control of access to alcohol, drugs and weapons should be improved to minimise the influence of these risk factors -Security infrastructure and access to the school premises by community members should also be improved -Learners should be provided with information on the dangers of engaging in crime and violence and be empowered with knowledge and skills to make informed decisions

In summary, aggressive and violent behaviour amongst learners is caused by multiple interacting factors. Some factors can be controlled better than others. While being poor cannot be controlled, access to weapons, alcohol and drugs can.

- **The effects of school-based violence**

Based on the literature review in Chapter 4 (See section 4.6) and the empirical findings in Chapter 5 (See theme 4), Table 8-3 addresses the key findings and conclusions regarding the effects of school-based violence on the victim.

Table 8-3 Key findings and conclusions: The effects of school-based violence on the learners, educators and teaching and learning outcomes

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
School violence has to be prevented to mitigate against the negative effects on the learners, educators and teaching and learning	Exposure to violence has detrimental short- and long-term negative effects on the victims, perpetrators and teaching and learning (See Chapter 5: section 4.1-4.3)	-School violence has detrimental outcomes on the victim, perpetrator, bystander and academic outcomes -As a consequence of the levels of violence in schools, learners need to

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
<p>The effects manifest in several negative outcomes: (See Chapter 4: section 4.6.1-4.6.6)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Health -Psychological -Educational -Social -Economic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Violence affects different individuals differently -Violence affects educators' ability to perform their professional duties -Violence affects the victim <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Physically ◦ Emotionally ◦ Behaviourally ◦ Academically ◦ Economically -Violence affects the teaching and learning environment by disrupting lessons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> be protected against the negative outcomes -School violence should be prevented to ensure that learners can learn and be educated in safe and secure school environments where their rights are protected -Learners should be made aware of the negative and dangerous consequences of violent behaviour and attitudes on themselves and others -Learners should be empowered to peacefully resolve conflict and solve problems -Educators who are constantly exposed to school violence opt to physically and emotionally withdraw from the violent situation in self-defence and this attitude thwarts academic progress and outcomes -School violence should be prevented in order to ensure that educators can safely perform their professional duties -Educator in-service training should be provided to enhance educators' coping and classroom management skills -Policy should be enforced and practice should be improved to ensure that educators refrain from perpetrating violence

In summary, school violence is detrimental not only to the victims' physical, emotional well-being and educational achievement, but also to the schools' mission of promoting effective teaching and learning in safe and secure school environments.

Objective 3: To identify the specific knowledge and skills required in changing learners' attitudes and behaviour

This objective was achieved through the literature review (See Chapter 3: sections 3.4.1 - 3.4.4). In chapter 4 (See section 4.7), existing prevention and intervention strategies were identified and discussed. Moreover, the empirical findings (See Chapter 5: section 5.2.6 and Figure 5.7) presented contents of the Life Orientation curriculum that is currently presented in schools. Chapter 6 presents the contents of the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme, focusing on the knowledge and skills required to change violent attitudes and behaviours (See section 6.4.1) and the hybrid model of teaching and learning to ensure that learners are empowered with the required knowledge and skills (See section 6.4.2). Table 8-4 displays the key findings and conclusions on the knowledge and skills that are required for changing learners' violent attitudes and behaviours.

Table 8-4 Key findings and conclusions: Required knowledge and skills to change violent attitudes and behaviours

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
REQUIRED KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS		
<p>As confirmed by literature learners require the following knowledge and skills to change their attitudes and behaviour towards violence (See Chapter 3: section 3.4.1 and Chapter 4: section 4.10):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Social and emotional skills in order to enhance their knowledge and competencies to refrain from perpetuating violence -Peace and human rights -Knowledge and improve their skills relating to problem solving, conflict resolution; decision making and anger control 	<p>Learners identified the following unmet needs (See Chapter 5: theme 5, category 5.2.6 - 5.2.7; Figure 5.7; theme 7, sub-theme 7.6):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Schools currently provide lessons in the Life Orientation module on how to reduce levels of violence and anti-social behaviour -Learners identified the need to be capacitated with knowledge and skills on how to avoid engaging in and perpetrating violence in school -Learners made specific suggestions on the knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Life Orientation Curriculum is offered in all schools to empower learners with knowledge and skills on violence per se -However, findings show that the lessons are not effective in empowering learners and capacitating them with the required skills to change their violent behaviour and attitudes -Findings derived from the study show that learners need to be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ make rational choices when faced with a dilemma or violent situation ◦ solve problems peacefully

KEY FINDINGS LITERATURE REVIEW	KEY FINDINGS: EMPIRICAL STUDY	CONCLUSIONS
REQUIRED KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS		
-Critical thinking skills, competencies and decision-making capacities	and skills they require, namely: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ to assist them ensure peaceful and violence free schools ◦ to enable schools to develop and implement effective measures to reduce levels of violence 	manage and control their emotions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ show empathy and take other people's perspectives into consideration ◦ solve problems and make rational decisions ◦ control their impulses and behave non-violently ◦ regain the trust of their educators ◦ and advocate for their rights ◦ confront educators who abuse them physically, emotionally and sexually

In summary, schools provide lessons to empower learners with knowledge and skills on violence. Despite these efforts, most learners want effective skills development programmes to be presented continuously and are willing to participate and learn to behave non-violently.

Objective 4: To review school-based violence prevention and intervention programmes and strategies targeting high school learners internationally and nationally.

This objective was achieved through the literature review (See Chapter 4). The findings presented international school-based violence prevention programmes (See section 4.7.1) and South African school-based violence prevention programmes (See section 4.7.2). The literature review culminated into core elements of effective school-based violence prevention programmes (See Chapter 4; section 4.8). The results show that school-based

violence is a global issue and effective interventions are required in order to successfully tackle the problem.

The literature review shows that the international community has put in place several school-based violence prevention programmes that are evidence-based, targeting children, youth, families and school communities. Some of the programmes focus on skills development, incorporating technological mediums to empower participants with anti-violence knowledge and skills.

With regard to the South African context, government departments, non-governmental organisations, private sector and civil society provide a diverse range of policy strategies, programmes, projects and services using a hybrid of teaching methods such as early warning systems, workbooks, youth clubs and camps, counselling and support, and skills training.

Pertaining to core elements, the literature review reveals that effective school-based violence prevention programmes should meet the following criteria: they should be theory and evidence-based; pro-active; comprehensive; multi-modal and developmental; in order to result in policy and sustainable change.

Objective 5: To develop and pilot test a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners.

The Triple T school-based violence prevention programme which targets high school learners was designed and pilot tested (See Chapters 6 and 7). As discussed in Chapter 7, mixed methods were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention. A One-Group Pretest-Posttest design (See Chapter 7, section 7.2) was used in combination with a focus group interview, utilising a semi-structured interview schedule, to evaluate the programme (See Appendices E, F, G, & H).

The results show that the theory-driven and evidence-based intervention made an important contribution in designing a school-based violence prevention programme that aligns with the identified needs of the learners. By conducting the study through the lens of the bio-ecological systems theory, the nature, extent of violence in schools, the causes and impact thereof were identified and utilised for the development of the school-based violence prevention programme. Following Lipsey's theory-defined model enabled the planning of the activities and identifying the expected outcomes, whilst the practice based approaches created the framework of the programme.

The combined findings showed that the programme was effective in enhancing the knowledge of the participants regarding the nature, causes and impact of violence. Further, the intervention was effective in increasing the participants' knowledge about the importance of caring, compassionate and supportive interpersonal relationships that are based on respect and UBUNTU principles. The learning content allowed the learners opportunities to take responsibility and question their value systems and assess the impact of their aggressive and violent behaviour. The knowledge of the learners regarding moral values and ethical principles increased. They also learned that violence is a violation of human rights, and their knowledge about care, compassion, empathy and support was enhanced. Through the intervention, additional knowledge about discerning right from wrong or good from bad was gained. Moreover, they learned that being respected and listened to by educators is their fundamental human right.

With regard to conflict, the intervention improved and deepened the learners' understanding regarding the causes and consequences of conflict. They gained a deeper understanding that peaceful conflict resolution starts with them by realising that conflict can be resolved non-violently and constructively, failure of which they will have to deal with the negative consequences. Pertaining to anger control, not all the participants gained new knowledge. Particularly some were unconvinced that anger can be controlled.

In changing attitudes and behaviours of the learners, the pilot study findings show a positive outcome in that the learners' attitudes and behaviour were influenced. The

programme influenced the participants to conduct a self-introspection and contemplate to change their violent behaviour and attitudes. The learners claimed that the programme has built their character as they confirmed that they have learned to be remorseful and considerate of others' feelings and point of view. However, the programme has not been effective in changing the attitudes and behaviours of the learners because change is a process. What was clearly achieved is that the programme was effective in increasing knowledge, enhancing skills and encouraging learners to adopt positive attitudes and behaviour.

Although the programme had enhanced the learners' knowledge and skills and influenced their attitudes and behaviours, the participants agreed that gaining knowledge and learning new skills have no limits. The participants yearned for more knowledge and skills development. They wanted the sessions to continue.

The hybrid model of teaching and learning which was used to facilitate the sessions contributed to the positive outcomes of the programme. However, the use of ICT and role play was unproductive. There was an overwhelming lack of preference for homework exercises, and time constraints to promote skills development.

Findings indicated that other options such as educational games should be explored and presented during the group work sessions to empower and develop socio-emotional and ethical skills and competencies in order to effectively prevent school-based violence. Thus, the programme should be adapted in accordance with the findings of the study and continue to be implemented and evaluated to determine its impact on preventing school-based violence and promoting an anti-violence school culture.

Objective 6: To draw conclusions and make recommendations on the proposed school-based violence prevention programme for further implementation and refinement

This objective is achieved in this chapter.

8.3 Recommendations

Based on the conclusion that the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme should be adapted for further implementation and evaluation, the following recommendations are made:

- **Conceptual frameworks**

Due to the interactive and complex nature of violence, a school-based violence prevention programme should be conceptualised within theoretical frameworks such as the bio-ecological systems theory; the developmental social work approach; social and emotional learning; character education; and social cognitive and social competence approaches due to the fact that they all target not only the individual but also the ecological systems that contribute to the problem of school violence.

The further development of a school-based violence prevention programme should utilise the theory-driven approach to programme design and evaluation because it provides guidelines for precise definition of the problem and enables setting of specific goals and objectives that are tied to activities and tangible resources to achieve intended outcomes that are linked to the identified need or problem.

- **Structuring the programme**

The programme should be revised with regard to the following:

- Time: Sufficient time should be allocated for the implementation of the planned activities. It is recommended that the programme should be implemented over 12

weeks with one theme stretched over two weeks so that there is adequate time to integrate theory and skills development training.

- Information and Communications Technology (ICT): The ICT method should be reformulated and integrated as edutainment to be applied during the group work sessions.
- Role models: The learners should be involved in identifying community members who they regard as positive role models. These role models should be encouraged to physically engage with the participants to inspire and motivate them to embrace non-violence and respect for human rights.
- Facilitators: Within the social work context of the study, training of school social workers and/or student social workers should be provided by academic institutions and employment agencies to enable them to implement and evaluate the programme.

- **Policy change directives**

Due to the high levels of violence in schools, the Department of Education and the school system need to take responsibility and promote a culture of respect, Ubuntu and peace amongst learners, educators and all school staff members by reviewing policies and procedures with the view to protect learners and educators against school violence.

In achieving this, it is recommended that the Department of Education and school system undertake the following:

- Review and replace the demerit system when learners engage in violence and replace it with a developmental process that results in learners being compelled and mandated to attend and successfully complete an adopted school violence prevention programme. By making the paradigm shift and adopting a developmental approach to learner behaviour, schools need to reward learners who successfully complete the programme and maintain positive behaviour with an incentive, such as a certificate, as a form of reinforcement for achieving positive behavioural and attitudinal change.

- Develop policies and prevention programmes in collaboration with learners, giving them a voice in their own development.
- That a programme such as Triple T be adopted and implemented as part of the Life Orientation module in schools.
- Social workers based in schools could be utilised for presenting the programme to enable educators to focus on their core teaching responsibilities.

- **Future Research**

Based on the outcomes of the study, the researcher recommends further research in the following areas:

- An experimental, longitudinal study with a large and racially diverse sample to test the impact of the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme in enhancing knowledge and skills that is required for changing violent and aggressive behaviour and attitudes of learners.
- Adapting the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme to other context related to violence, namely: alcohol and drug abuse; gambling; gangsterism; and for fostering resilience and positive youth development.
- Adapting the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme for learners in pre-primary, primary and secondary schools.
- Adapting the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme for learners with intellectual disabilities (LSEN).
- Adapting the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme for learners in other provinces.
- Adapting the Triple T school-based violence prevention programme for learners in rural areas.
- A study targeting micro and macro levels, in order to equip parents/caregivers, educators and school principals with knowledge and skills to be able to holistically and comprehensively bring about an end to violence in families, schools and communities.

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APPENDIX A

UP Faculty of Humanities Research Ethics Committee Approval



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Research Ethics Committee

14 December 2010

Dear Prof Lombard

Project: The design, implementation and evaluation of a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District

Researchers: KP Mashego

Supervisor: Prof A Lombard

Department: Social Work and Criminology

Reference number: 89240728

Thank you for your response to the Committee's letter of 12 October 2010.

I have pleasure in informing you that the Research Ethics Committee **approved** the above study at an *ad hoc* meeting held on 13 December 2010. 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. John Sharp
Chair: Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of Humanities
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
e-mail: john.sharp@up.ac.za

Research Ethics Committee Members: Dr L Blokland; Prof M-H Coetzee; Dr JEH Grobler; Prof KL Harris; Ms H Klopper; Prof E Krüger; Prof A Mlambo; Dr S Ouzman; Dr C Panebianco-Warrens; Prof G Prinsloo; Prof J Sharp (Chair); Prof E Taljard ; Dr J van Dyk; Dr FG Wolmarans

APPENDIX B

Gauteng DoE Approval



education
 Department: Education
GAUTENG PROVINCE

Enquiries: Nomvula Ubisi (011)3550488

Date:	07 September 2011
Name of Researcher:	Mashego Kate Poppy
Address of Researcher:	21 Osler Street
	Rynfield
	Benoni 1501
Telephone Number:	0124202395/0845347602
Fax Number:	0124202093
Research Topic:	The Design, Implementation and Evaluation of a School-Based Violence Prevention Programme for High School Learners in Tshwane South District
Number and type of schools:	7 Secondary Schools
District/s/HO	Tshwane South

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

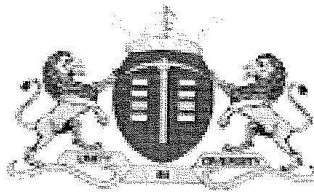
Kind regards

Nomvula Ubisi
 DEPUTY CHIEF EDUCATION SPECIALIST: RESEARCH

Office of the Chief Director: Information and Knowledge Management
 Room 501, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2000 P.o.Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000
 Tel: (011) 355-0809 Fax: (011) 355-0734

APPENDIX C

Tshwane South District Approval



education
Department of Education
GAUTENG PROVINCE

Reference: Policy and Planning; Fellowships
Enquiries: Sello George Ngwenya
Telephone: 012 401 6122
Fax: 012 401 6303
E-mail: 0021 674 276
E-mail: 8430.Ngwenya@education.gov.za
15 October 2011

Ms Kate Poppy Mashogo
21 Osler Street
Rynfield
Benoni
1501
Tel: 012 420 2385; Fax: 012 420 2093; Mobile: 084 534 7602

Cc: The Principal and SGB

Dear Madam

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: POPPY MASHEGO

Your research application has been approved by Head Office. The full title of your Research, "The design, implementation and evaluation of a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District". You are expected to adhere strictly to the conditions given by Head Office. You are also advised to communicate with the school principal/s and/or SGB/s of the targeted schools regarding your research and time schedule.

Our commitment of support may be rescinded if any form of irregularity/ no compliance to the terms in this letter or any other departmental directive/ if any risk to any person/s or property or our reputation is realised, observed or reported.


Terms and conditions

1. The safety of all the learners and staff at the school must be ensured at all times.
2. All safety precautions must be taken by the researcher and the school. The Department of Education may not be held accountable for any injury or damage to property or any person's resulting from this process. The schools must ensure that sound measures are put in place to protect the wellness of the researcher and his/her property.

NB Kindly submit your report including findings and recommendations to the District at least two weeks after conclusion of the research. You may be requested to participate in the Department of Education's mini-research conference to discuss your findings and recommendations with departmental officials and other researchers.

The District wishes you well

Yours sincerely


Mrs. H.E. Kekana
Director: Tshwane South District

1/1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the District Director: Tshwane South District
(Mmemono/Sutshanyo/Pretoria-East/Pretoria-South/Atteridgeville/Laundum)
205 Pretorius Street, Pretoria 0001
Private Bag 27925, Sunnyside 1322, Tel: (012) 401 6317 Fax: (012) 401 6315
Website: www.education.gov.za

APPENDIX D

School Principal Approval



**HOËRSKOOI
SILVERTON**



☎ (012) 804 6719
Faks: (012) 804 3974
E-pos: silverton@silvies.co.za

Privaatsak X533
SILVERTON
0127
27 February 2012

TO: ME P MASHEGO

FROM: MR TJ SCHOEMAN
PRINCIPAL

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: ME P MASEGO

Your research application has been approved.

Included are a list of the Gr 9 and 10 educators, as well as the class lists of the gr 9 and 10 classes. Please make an appointment with the principal to discuss any further needs.

TJ SCHOEMAN
PRINCIPAL

APPENDIX E

Pre- test Questionnaires

Pre-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 1: The types, causes and impact of violence in school

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge about the types, causes and effects of school violence. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:

Gender: Male
 Female

Age:

Section 2: Types, cause and effects of violence

Do you see different types of violence at school?	Yes	No
If yes, please list the different types of violence that you see at school		
Do you know what causes violence in school?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain and describe the different causes of violence in school		
Does violence have effects on the victim?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain how violence affects the victim		
Does violence have effects on the educator?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain how violence affects the educator		
Does violence disturb your learning at school?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain how violence disturbs your learning at school		

What do you still want to learn about this theme?	
Signature: (Optional)	Date:

Pre-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 2: Values, principles and morals

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge about values, principles and issues of morality. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:	
----------------------------	--

Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
	<input type="checkbox"/> Female

Age:	
-------------	--

Section 2: Violence and rights, values, principles and morals

Is violence a violation of other people's rights?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Do people who perpetrate violence against others lack compassion and caring feelings for others?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Do people who perpetrate violence against others lack respect for other people?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		

Do people who perpetrate violence against others have low morals?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Do individuals have a responsibility to show compassion, caring, support and respect for other people?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
What do you still want to learn about this theme?		

Signature: (Optional)	Date:
------------------------------	--------------

Pre-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 3: Conflict Resolution

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge and skills to avoid getting involved in violence. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:	
----------------------------	--

Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
	<input type="checkbox"/> Female

Age:	
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Section 2: Conflict Resolution

Is conflict a normal part of life?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Should conflict be ignored?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		

What do you do to resolve conflict in a non-violent manner?
What strategies do you apply to resolve conflict in a non-violent manner
What do you still want to learn about this theme?

Signature: (Optional)	Date:
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Pre-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 4: Problem-solving

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge and skills relating to problem solving . The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:	
----------------------------	--

Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
	<input type="checkbox"/> Female

Age:	
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Section 2: Problem-solving

Are there options to solving a problem other than conflict, aggression and violence?	Yes	No
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How do you solve problems?
What do you still want to learn about this theme?

Signature: (Optional)	Date:
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Pre-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 5: Decision making

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge and skills for decision making. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:

Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
	<input type="checkbox"/> Female

Age:

Section 2: Decision making

Are there consequences to actions?	Yes	No
Do you stop and think before you act?	Yes	No
Do you follow any specific steps before you decide to act?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
What do you still want to learn about this theme?		

Signature: (Optional)	Date:
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Pre-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 6: Anger Control

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goals and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge and skills for anger control. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:	
----------------------------	--

Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
	<input type="checkbox"/> Female

Age:	
-------------	--

Section 2: Anger Control

Is anger a normal feeling to experience?	Yes	No
Does anger affect people's thoughts, feelings and behaviour?	Yes	No
Is it possible to be able to control one's anger?	Yes	No
Can you express your anger in a non-violent manner?	Yes	No
Can you identify things that instantly make you angry (triggers)?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Can you describe how you control your anger?	Yes	No
What do you still want to learn about this theme?		
Signature: (Optional)		Date:

APPENDIX F

Post-test Questionnaires

Post-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 1: The types, causes and impact of violence in school

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District that was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge about the types, causes and effects of school violence. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:

Gender: Male
 Female




Age:

Section 2: Types, cause and effects of violence

Do you see different types of violence at school?	Yes	No
If yes, please list the different types of violence that you see at school		
Do you know what causes violence in school?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain and describe the different causes of violence in school		
Does violence have effects on the victim?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain how violence affects the victim		
Does violence have effects on the educator?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain how violence affects the educator		
Does violence disturb your learning at school?	Yes	No

Section 3: Evaluation of session one

Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM Please rate (mark with an ✓) your views about the following:			
Session goal and objectives			
The length of the session			
Teaching and learning material (e.g. video)			
Group discussions			
Facilitators			
Knowledge gained			
Skills learned			
Overall impression of this session			

Signature: (Optional)	Date:
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Post-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 2: Values, principles and morals

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge about values, principles and issues of morality. The programme is

piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:

Gender: Male
 Female

Age:




Section 2: Violence and rights, values, principles and morals

Is violence a violation of other people's rights	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Do people who perpetrate violence against others lack compassion and caring feelings for others?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Do people who perpetrate violence against others lack respect for other people?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Do people who perpetrate violence against others have low morals?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		

Do individuals have a responsibility to show compassion, caring, support and respect for other people?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
What do you still want to learn about this theme?		
What would you like to see excluded from the theme?		

Section 3: Evaluation of session two

Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM Please rate (mark with an ✓) your views about the following:			
Session goal and objectives			
The length of the session			
Teaching and learning material (e.g. video)			
Group discussions			
Homework assignments			
Facilitators			
Knowledge gained			
Skills learned			
What is your overall impression of this session?			

Post-test Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 3: Conflict Resolution

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge and skills to avoid getting involved in violence. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:	
----------------------------	--

Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
	<input type="checkbox"/> Female




Age:	
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Section 2: Conflict Resolution

Is conflict a normal part of life?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Should conflict be ignored?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
What do you do to resolve conflict in a non-violent manner?		
What strategies do you apply to resolve conflict in a non-violent manner?		
What do you still want to learn about this theme?		
What would you like to see excluded from the theme?		

Section 3: Evaluation of session three

Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM Please rate (mark with an ✓) your views about the following:			
Session goal and objectives			
The length of the session			
Teaching and learning material (e.g. video)			
Group discussions			
Home work assignments			
Facilitators			
Knowledge gained			
Skills learned			
Overall impression of this session			

Signature: (Optional)		Date:
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Post-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 4: Problem-solving

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge and skills of problem solving. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:	
----------------------------	--

Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
	<input type="checkbox"/> Female




Age:	
-------------	--

Section 2: Problem-solving

Are there options to solving a problem other than conflict, aggression and violence?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
How do you solve problems?		
What do you still want to learn about this theme?		
What would you like to see excluded from the theme?		

Section 3: Evaluation of session four

Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM			
Please rate (mark with an ✓) your views about the following:			
Session goal and objectives			
The length of the session			
Group discussions			
Home work assignments			
Facilitators			
Knowledge gained			
Skills learned			
Overall impression of this session			

Signature: (Optional)		Date:	
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Post-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 5: Decision making

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goal and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge and skills for decision making. The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:	<input type="text"/>
----------------------------	----------------------

Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
	<input type="checkbox"/> Female




Age:	<input type="text"/>
-------------	----------------------

Section 2: Decision making

Are there consequences to actions?	Yes	No
Do you stop and think before you act?	Yes	No
Do you follow any specific steps before you decide to act?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
What do you still want to learn about this theme?		
What would you like to see excluded from the theme?		

Section 3: Evaluation of session five

Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM			
Please rate (mark with an ✓) your views about the following:			
Session goal and			

objectives			
The length of the session			
Teaching and learning material (e.g. video)			
Group discussions			
Home work assignments			
Facilitators			
Knowledge gained			
Skills learned			
Overall impression of this session			

Signature: (Optional)		Date:	
------------------------------	--	--------------	--

Post-test

Intervention Evaluation Form

Session 6: Anger Control

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The goals and objectives of this session is to provide you with information and empower you with knowledge and skills for anger control . The programme is piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you will be asked to evaluate the session by filling in this questionnaire. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine this theme of the programme.

Section 1: Biographic details

Participant Number:

Gender: Male
 Female




Age:

Section 2: Anger Control

Is anger a normal feeling to experience?	Yes	No
Does anger affect people's thoughts, feelings and behaviour?	Yes	No
Is it possible to be able to control one's anger?	Yes	No
Can you express your anger in a non-violent manner?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
Can you describe how you control your anger?	Yes	No
If yes, please explain		
What do you still want to learn about this theme?		
What would you like to see excluded from the theme?		

Section 3: Evaluation of session six

Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM			
Please rate (mark with an ✓) your views about the following:			
Session goal and objectives			
The length of the session			
Teaching and learning material (e.g. video)			
Group discussions			

Home work assignments			
Facilitators			
Knowledge gained			
Skills learned			
Overall impression of this session			
Signature: (Optional)			Date:

APPENDIX G

Pilot Test Overall Evaluation

Programme Evaluation Form

You agreed to participate in the pilot study on the school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District which was co-designed by the researcher and learners from schools in the district. The programme was piloted over a period of six sessions. After each session you had an opportunity to evaluate the specific session. In this questionnaire, you have an opportunity to evaluate the entire programme. Please complete the form as honestly as possible. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine the prevention programme for full-scale implementation in other schools.

Section 1: Biographic details




Participant Number:

Gender: Male
 Female

Age:

Section 2: Knowledge and skills gained




Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM			
Please rate (mark with an ✓) your level of knowledge and ability in the following areas:			
Knowledge about types, causes and impact of violence			
Knowledge about values, principles and morals			
Conflict resolution skills			

Problem solving skills			
Decision making skills			
Anger control skills			




Section 3: Implementation of group sessions

Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM			
Please rate (mark with an ✓) your views about the following:			
Number of sessions			
Length of sessions			
Teaching and learning material			
Group discussions			
Homework assignments			
Facilitator(s)			

Section 4: Outcome of group sessions

Please rate each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate box that represents your views the best.

ITEM Please rate (mark with an ✓) your views about the following:			
Knowledge gained			
Skills learned			

How did this programme influence your attitude about violence in schools?

How did this programme influence your behaviour towards peers and educators?

Thank you for your participation and input.

APPENDIX H

Pilot Test Focus Group Interview Schedule

School violence intervention

Semi-structured interview schedule

The goal of this interview is to get your views and experiences about the programme, specifically the content, the activities, the facilitators and the outcomes. Your feedback will enable the researcher to refine the programme.

1. What was the value for you to participate in this programme?
2. What is your view on the content of the programme in preventing school violence?
3. What is your opinion about the teaching and learning activities of the programme?
4. What is your opinion about the facilitators?
4. What are your views on the respective sessions of the programme as themes to be included in a programme to prevent school violence?
5. What additional topics do you recommend to be included in the programme and why?
6. To what extent did attending this programme influence your attitudes about violence?
7. To what extent did attending this programme influence your behaviour towards peers and educators?

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX I

School Principal Permission Request

**Faculty of Humanities
Department of Social Work & Criminology
PRETORIA
0002**

Our Ref: Ms KP Mashego
Tel: (012) 420-2325
Fax: 0866242562
E-mail: poppy.mashego@up.ac.za

The Principal
Areff, M.I
Pretoria Muslim School
PO Box 13878
Laudium
0037

Dear Sir/Madam

Re: Request to conduct research for a doctoral study

I hereby would like to request permission to conduct research in your school in fulfilment of my DPhil studies in Social Work. I have been granted approval by the Gauteng Department of Education and Tshwane South District (see the attached letters). Your school was randomly selected from the Tshwane South District School Contact List. Your letter of permission will be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Pretoria for ethical clearance of the research.

The purpose of the research is to design, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District. The envisaged outcome is to reduce violence in schools, promote effective teaching and learning, and contribute to safer schools and communities. A copy of the proposal is available upon request.

I will need a list of all grade 9 and 10 educators as well as all grade 9 and 10 classes in order to be able to sample participants for the study. Two groups of learners will be required, one for an experimental group and the other for the control group. If given approval, my plan is to conduct the research from May 2012.

Data will be collected in two separate phases. In the first phase, I intend to conduct separate focus group interviews with Grades 9 and 10 educators and learners respectively after school in order to avoid disrupting the teaching and learning programme. The purpose of the focus group interviews is to explore the views, experiences and perceptions of educators and learners regarding school violence.

During the second phase, I intend distributing self-administered questionnaires to be completed by the same groups of learners in a group setting after school as well to avoid disrupting the school's programmes. Learners will be required to sign assent forms and

educators and the parents/guardians of participating learners will also be required to complete consent forms before the commencement of the research. Participation in the study is voluntary.

If you need any further information, I can be contacted at 084 534 7602 or poppy.mashego@up.ac.za.

Yours sincerely

Ms Poppy Mashego
Researcher

APPENDIX J

Educator Informed Consent



Researcher: Ms Kate Poppy Mashego
Tel: (012) 420-2395 or 084 534 7602
E-mail: poppy.mashego@up.ac.za

21 Osler Street
Rynfield
Benoni
1501

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of study: The design, implementation and evaluation of a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District

Purpose of the study: To design, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District.

Procedures: I understand that I will be required to participate in a focus group interview that will require 60 minutes of my time.

Risks and Discomfort: I understand that there are no known risks and discomfort that I may be exposed to in participating in this study. If I experience any discomfort at any time during the research study, I will inform the researcher.

Benefits: I understand that there is no direct financial benefit to me for participating in this study. However, my participation in this study will help the researcher to develop a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners to help promote safety in schools and enhance teaching and learning, thereby promoting safer communities.

Participant's Rights: My participation in this study is voluntary and I may withdraw my participation at any time without any negative consequences.

Confidentiality and anonymity: In order to record accurately what I will say during the focus group interviews, a tape recorder will be used. The tapes will only be listened to by the researcher and authorized members of the research team. The information received from me will be treated confidentially and my identity will not be revealed. Should I withdraw from the study, my data will be destroyed. The results of this study may be published in the researcher's thesis, professional journals or presented at professional conferences, but my identifying details will not be revealed unless required by law.

Publication: I take note that the researcher will publish the results of this study in the format of a report and in professional journals or be presented at professional conferences, but my identifying details will not be revealed unless required by law.

Data storage: The data that is collected through this study will be stored by the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years. If anyone wishes to use these data, it will only be allowed with my informed consent.

Person to contact: If I have any queries or concerns, I understand that I can contact Ms Kate Poppy Mashego on 084 534 7602 at any time.

I understand my rights as a research participant and I voluntarily give my consent to participate in this study. I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being done. I have received a copy of this consent form.

Declaration

I,, hereby voluntarily give my consent to participate in this study. I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being conducted.

-----	-----	-----
-		
Date	Place	Participant's signature
-----	-----	-----
-		
Date	Place	Researcher's signature

APPENDIX K

Parent Informed Consent



Researcher: Ms Kate Poppy Mashego
Tel: (012) 420-2395 or 084 534 7602
E-mail: poppy.mashego@up.ac.za

21 Osler Street
Rynfield
Benoni
1501

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of study: The design, implementation and evaluation of a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District

Purpose of the study: To design, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District.

Procedures: I understand that my child will be required to participate in a focus group interview that will require 60 minutes of his/her time. Afterwards he/she will be requested to complete two questionnaires that also forms part of the study.

Risks and Discomfort: I understand that there are no known risks and discomfort that my child may be exposed to in participating in this study. If my child experiences any psychological distress at any time during the research study, I will inform the researcher. I expect the researcher to then arrange counselling for my child with a suitably qualified counsellor.

Benefits: I understand that there is no direct financial benefit to me and/or my child for participating in this study. However, the participation of my child in this study will help the researcher to develop a school-based violence prevention programme for high schools to help promote safety in schools and enhance teaching and learning, thereby promoting safer communities.

Participant's Rights: The participation of my child in this study is voluntary and he/she may withdraw his/her participation at any time without any negative consequences.

Confidentiality and anonymity: In order to record accurately what my child will say during the focus group interviews, a tape recorder will be used. The tapes will only be listened to by the researcher and authorized members of the research team. The information received from my child will be treated confidentially and his/her identity will not be revealed. Should my child withdraw from the study, his/her data will be destroyed. The results of this study may be published in the researcher's thesis, professional journals or presented at professional conferences, but my child's identifying details will not be revealed unless required by law.

Data storage: The data that is collected through this study will be stored by the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years. If anyone wishes to use these data, it will only be allowed with my informed consent and the permission of those who participated in the study.

Person to contact: If I and/or my child have any queries or concerns, I understand that we can contact Ms Kate Poppy Mashego on 084 534 7602 at any time.

I understand the rights of my child as a research respondent and I voluntarily give consent for him/her to participate in this study. I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being done. I have received a copy of this consent form.

Declaration

I,, parent or guardian of.....hereby voluntarily give consent for my child to participate in this study. I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being conducted.

-----	-----	-----
Date	Place	Parent's signature

-----	-----	-----
Date	Place	Researcher's signature

APPENDIX L

Learner Assent



Researcher: Ms Kate Poppy Mashego
Tel: (012) 420-2395 or 084 534 7602
E-mail: poppy.mashego@up.ac.za

21 Osler Street
Rynfield
Benoni
1501

ASSENT FORM

Title of study: The design, implementation and evaluation of a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District.

Purpose of the study: To design, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District.

Procedures: I understand that I will be required to participate in a group interview with other learners that will require 60 minutes of my time. Afterwards I will be requested to complete two questionnaires that also forms part of the study.

Risks and Discomfort: I understand that there are no known risks and discomfort that I may be exposed to in participating in this study. If I experience any discomfort at any time during the research study, I will inform the researcher. I expect the researcher to then arrange that I speak to somebody that I trust.

Benefits: I understand that there is no direct financial benefit to me for participating in this study. I understand that my participation in this study will help the researcher to develop a school-based violence prevention programme for high schools to help promote safety in schools and enhance teaching and learning, thereby promoting safer communities.

Participant's Rights: I understand that my participation in this study is voluntary and I may withdraw my participation at any time without any negative consequences.

Confidentiality and anonymity: I understand that the researcher will use a recorder to record accurately what all the learners will say during the group interviews. I also understand that we have the right to say we do not want to be recorded if we so wish. If we are taped, I understand that the tapes will only be listened to by the researcher, the transcriber and supervisor of her study. I note that the information that I share in the group will be treated confidentially and that my identity will not be revealed. Should I withdraw from the study, I take note that the information that I shared will be destroyed.

Publication: I take note that the researcher will publish the results of this study in the format of a report and in professional journals or be presented at professional conferences, but my identifying details will not be revealed unless required by law.

Data storage: I understand that the information shared in the group will be stored by the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years. I understand that if anyone wishes to use any of this information it will only be allowed with my informed consent and the permission of those who participated in the study.

Person to contact: If I have any queries or concerns, I understand that I can contact Ms Kate Poppy Mashego on 084 534 7602 at any time.

I understand my rights as a research participant and I voluntarily give my assent to participate in this study. I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being done. I have received a copy of this consent form.

Declaration

I,, hereby voluntarily give my assent to participate in this study. I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being conducted.

-----	-----	-----
Date	Place	Participant's signature
-----	-----	-----
Date	Place	Researcher's signature

APPENDIX M

QUESTIONNAIRE

SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS

Please answer the questions honestly and to the best of your ability. It will take approximately 60 minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire.

SECTION A – BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please answer **ALL** the questions in this section by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate box.

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1 Questionnaire number	A1	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>												
2 Age (years):	A2	<input type="checkbox"/>												
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 25%;">1.13-14</td> <td style="width: 25%;">2. 15-16</td> <td style="width: 25%;">3. 17-18</td> <td style="width: 25%;">4.19 & older</td> </tr> </table>	1.13-14	2. 15-16	3. 17-18	4.19 & older										
1.13-14	2. 15-16	3. 17-18	4.19 & older											
3 Sex:	A3	<input type="checkbox"/>												
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">1. Male</td> <td style="width: 50%;">2. Female</td> </tr> </table>	1. Male	2. Female												
1. Male	2. Female													
4 Race:	A4	<input type="checkbox"/>												
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 25%;">1. White</td> <td style="width: 25%;">2. Black</td> <td style="width: 25%;">3. Indian</td> <td style="width: 25%;">4. Coloured</td> </tr> </table>	1. White	2. Black	3. Indian	4. Coloured										
1. White	2. Black	3. Indian	4. Coloured											
5. Language:	A5	<input type="checkbox"/>												
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">1. English</td> <td style="width: 50%;">6. Xitsonga</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. Afrikaans</td> <td>7. Tshivenda</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. Zulu</td> <td>8. Siswati</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4. Sepedi</td> <td>9. Isindebele</td> </tr> <tr> <td>5. Setswana</td> <td>10. Other (please specify)</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2" style="height: 40px;"></td> </tr> </table>	1. English	6. Xitsonga	2. Afrikaans	7. Tshivenda	3. Zulu	8. Siswati	4. Sepedi	9. Isindebele	5. Setswana	10. Other (please specify)				
1. English	6. Xitsonga													
2. Afrikaans	7. Tshivenda													
3. Zulu	8. Siswati													
4. Sepedi	9. Isindebele													
5. Setswana	10. Other (please specify)													
6. Grade:	A6	<input type="checkbox"/>												
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">1. Grade 9</td> <td style="width: 50%;">2. Grade 10</td> </tr> </table>	1. Grade 9	2. Grade 10												
1. Grade 9	2. Grade 10													
7. Who are you currently living with?	A7	<input type="checkbox"/>												
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">1. Both parents</td> <td style="width: 50%;">5. Family friends</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. Single parent</td> <td>6. Brothers and sisters</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. Grandparents</td> <td>7. In a children's home</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4. Other family members (e.g. uncles)</td> <td>8. Other (please describe)</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2" style="height: 40px;"></td> </tr> </table>	1. Both parents	5. Family friends	2. Single parent	6. Brothers and sisters	3. Grandparents	7. In a children's home	4. Other family members (e.g. uncles)	8. Other (please describe)						
1. Both parents	5. Family friends													
2. Single parent	6. Brothers and sisters													
3. Grandparents	7. In a children's home													
4. Other family members (e.g. uncles)	8. Other (please describe)													

--	--

8. Where do you live?

1. City/Town/Suburb	
2. Township	
3. Farm	
4. Informal settlement	
5. Other (please describe)	

A8

--	--

SECTION B: ABOUT SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE

In this section I would like to know about the types of violence that happen in your school and the number of times it has happened. In order to help you understand what is meant by school-based violence, I will first explain what school-based violence is.

School-based violence is when one learner/person does any of the following acts to another learner/person at school:

- Call names, say bad and hurtful things, tell lies or gossip, tease or make fun of, take things by force or damage belongings/property. These acts are called **Bullying, Verbal abuse or Emotional violence.**
- Hit, slap, kick, push or shove around, stab with a knife or sharp object, shoot with a gun. These acts are called **Physical violence.**
- Making nasty and sexual remarks, touching inappropriately (private parts) or rape. These acts are called **Sexual violence.**
- Use social networks (e.g. cell-phones or internet) to spread pictures or rumours about another person without their consent or knowledge. These acts are called **Cyber bullying.**

For the purposes of this study, I will talk about all these types, the **verbal, emotional, physical, sexual violence and cyber bullying.**

THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE

Please answer **ALL** the questions in this section by placing a cross (**X**) in the appropriate box.

B 1. In the past 6-12 months, has any incident(s) occurred at school where:	1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know	For office use only
1. You were verbally or emotionally bullied (e.g. teased; called names; lies or bad and hurtful things said about you; your belongings were taken by force or damaged) by other learners ?				B1.1
2. Another learner was verbally or emotionally bullied (e.g. teased; called names; lies or bad and hurtful things said about them; their belongings were taken by force or damaged) by other learners ?				B1.2
3. You were physically assaulted (e.g. punched, kicked, slapped) by another learner ?				B1.3
4. Another learner was physically assaulted (e.g. punched, kicked, slapped) by another learner ?				B1.4
5. You saw a learner use an instrument or a weapon to physically hurt another learner (e.g. gun, knife, scissor or any sharp object)?				B1.5

SECTION B: ABOUT SCHOOL - BASED VIOLENCE (continued)

In the past 6-12 months, has any incident(s) occurred at school where:	1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know	For office use only
6. A learner used an instrument or a weapon to hurt you (e.g. gun, knife, scissor or any sharp object)?				B1.6
7. You saw a learner commit violence against another learner that resulted in serious injury?				B1.7
8. You saw violence committed by a learner to another learner that resulted in death?				B1.8

9. Another learner was sexually molested (sexual remarks made or touched on private parts or raped) by another learner ?				B1.9	
10. You were sexually molested (sexual remarks made or touched in private parts or raped) by another learner ?				B1.10	
11. Another learner was emotionally abused by another learner using the cellphone or internet to post humiliating pictures or messages?				B1.11	
12. You were emotionally abused by another learner who used the cell-phone or internet to post humiliating pictures/messages or spread rumours about you?				B1.12	
13. Another learner was verbally abused (called names) by a teacher ?				B1.13	
14. You were verbally abused (called names) by a teacher ?				B1.14	
15. Another learner was physically assaulted (hit or slapped) by a teacher ?				B1.15	
16. You were physically assaulted (hit or slapped) by a teacher ?				B1.16	
17. A learner was sexually molested (sexual remarks made or touched on private parts or raped) by a teacher ?				B1.17	
18. You were sexually molested (sexual remarks made or touched on private parts or raped) by a teacher ?				B1.18	
19. A teacher was threatened with violence or physically assaulted by a learner ?				B1.19	

**SECTION B: ABOUT SCHOOL - BASED VIOLENCE
(continued)**

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use only

In the past 6-12 months, has any incident(s) occurred at school where:	1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know		
20. A teacher's personal property (e.g. car) was damaged or vandalised by a learner ?				B1.20	
21. A teacher was emotionally abused by using cellphones or other social networking mediums to humiliate or spread false rumours by a learner ?				B1.21	

B 2. Where do these violent incidents by **learners** against **other learners** occur? (*You may choose more than one answer.*)

1. In the classrooms	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. In the toilets	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. In school yard/sporting field	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Outside the school gate	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. After school on the way home	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. By use of cell-phone or internet	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Other (please describe)	<input type="checkbox"/>

--

B2.1

B2.2

B2.3

B2.4

B2.5

B2.6

B2.7

B 3. Where do these violent incidents that are committed by a **learner** against a **teacher** occur? (*You may choose more than one answer.*)

1. In the classrooms	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. In school yard/sporting field	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Outside the school gate	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. By use of cell-phone or internet	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Other (please describe)	<input type="checkbox"/>

--

B3.1

B3.2

B3.3

B3.4

B3.5

B 4. In the past 6-12 months, have you ever seen any of the following :

	1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know
1. A learner comes to school under the influence of alcohol?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. A learner uses drugs at school?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. A learner carries a knife to school?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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B4.1

B4.2

B4.3

4. A learner carries a gun to school?				B4.4	
5. A learner engages in gambling activities at school?				B4.5	
6. A learner engages in gang activities at school?				B4.6	
7. A teacher smokes in front of or with learners				B4.7	
8. A teacher drinks in front of or with learners				B4.8	
9. A teacher uses any object to discipline learners				B4.9	

SECTION C: MANAGEMENT OF VIOLENT INCIDENTS

In this section I would like to know what is being done to stop school-based violence at school. Place a cross (X) to your answer. Tick all applicable.

C 1. What does the school do when a learner reports a case of violence?

1. The teacher keeps quiet and ignores the incident		C1.1	
2. The teacher minimizes the incident and does not take it seriously		C1.2	
3. The teacher intervenes and warns the perpetrator		C1.3	
4. The teacher reports the matter to the principal		C1.4	
5. The principal warns the perpetrator		C1.5	
6. The principal disciplines the perpetrator		C1.6	
7. The principal calls the parents		C1.7	
8. The principal calls the police		C1.8	
9. The principal suspends the perpetrator		C1.9	
10. The principal expels the perpetrator		C1.10	

C 2. What does the school do when learners come to school under the influence of alcohol?

.....

.....

C 3. What does the school do when learners use drugs?

.....

.....

C 4. What does the school do when learners engage in gambling activities?

.....

.....

C 5. What does the school do when learners participate in gang activities?

.....

.....

SECTION D: CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE

The following section aims to find out about the causes and effects of school-based violence.

D 1 CAUSES OF SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE

Please read each sentence and place a cross (X) to your answer in one of the four columns.

Some of the causes of school-based violence are:	1.	2.	3.	4.
	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

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1. Personal problems experienced by learners					D1.1	
2. Poor performance and under achievement at school					D1.2	
3. Family problems/background					D1.3	
4. Peer pressure					D1.4	
5. Revenge					D1.5	
6. To intimidate or scare, so as to be feared by other learners					D1.6	
7. Gossip					D1.7	
8. Drugs					D1.8	
9. Alcohol					D1.9	
10. Gambling					D1.10	
11. Gangsterism					D1.11	
12. Learners disrespecting and provoking teachers					D1.12	
13. Lack of discipline at school					D1.13	
14. Bad influence by some teachers					D1.14	
15. Community factors					D1.15	

D 2 EFFECTS OF SCHOOL-BASED VIOLENCE

D 2.1 How do you think the learner feels when he/she is victimised by other learners or teachers?

.....

.....

D 2.2. How do you think the teacher feels when he/she is victimised or disrespected by learners in class?

.....

.....

D 2.3 What do you think happens when there is violence in class whilst the teacher is busy teaching and you are busy learning?

.....

.....

D.3 MEASURES AND SERVICES TO ADDRESS VIOLENCE

*Please answer **ALL** the questions in this section by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate box.*

My school has the following measures/services in place to deal with violence	1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't

For office use only

1.Code of conduct				D3.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Demerit system				D3.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Disciplinary procedures				D3.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Call the parents				D3.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Call the police				D3.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Drug testing				D3.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Suspension				D3.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Expulsion				D3.8	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Referral for counseling by a psychologist or social worker				D3.9	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 Peer counseling				D3.10	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Mediation and conflict resolution by a teacher or principal				D3.11	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Motivational talks by positive role models				D3.12	<input type="checkbox"/>

SECTION E: SCHOOL - BASED VIOLENCE PREVENTION STRATEGIES

This section is about getting information about the different violence prevention programmes or services that your school presents or could present to teach you how to avoid violence. Please answer each question by placing a cross (X) next to your applicable answer.

E 1. My life orientation teacher taught me about the following topics :	1. Yes	2. No	For office use only
1.Communication			E1.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. Anger management			E1.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. Decision making			E1.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Conflict resolution			E1.4 <input type="checkbox"/>

5. Problem solving			E1.5	
6. Peer pressure			E1.6	
7. Human rights			E1.7	
8. Physical abuse			E1.8	
9. Emotional abuse			E1.9	
10. Sexual abuse			E1.10	
11. Cyber bullying			E1.11	
12. Alcohol abuse			E1.12	
13. Drug abuse			E1.13	
14. Gambling			E1.14	
15. Gangsterism			E1.15	
16. Causes of violence			E1.16	
17. Effects of violence			E1.17	
18. Self-discipline			E1.18	
19. Leadership			E1.19	
20. Service to community (volunteerism)			E1.20	
21. Morals, values and principles			E1.21	

E 2. How does each of the following programmes or services on violence prevention apply to your school and you? *Place a cross (X) in all the applicable boxes for each question.*

E 2. School programmes or services on violence prevention	1. Yes	2. No		
1. I learned something and benefited from group discussions on violence and violence prevention at my school.			E2.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I learned something and benefited from one-on-one discussions with a teacher on violence and violence prevention at my school.			E2.2	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. I learned something and benefited from skills training workshops presented on violence and violence prevention at my school.			E2.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. I learned something and benefited from media and awareness campaigns on violence and violence prevention at my school.			E2.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. I did not learn anything from any of these programmes or services at my school.			E2.5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. My school does not offer any of these programmes or services			E 2.6 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. I would like to participate in these programmes and services at my school.			E2.7 <input type="checkbox"/>

E 3. Is there a forum established at school for learners to raise concerns regarding the conduct of learners and teachers without any fear?

1. Yes		2. No		3. Don't know	
--------	--	-------	--	---------------	--

E.3

E 3.1 If **no** to question E.3, would you like your school to have such a forum?

1. Yes		2. No	
--------	--	-------	--

E3.1

E 3.2 If **Yes** to question E.3, did you use such a forum in the past?

1. Yes		2. No	
--------	--	-------	--

E.3.2

E 3.3 If **Yes** to question E.3.2, what was the outcome?

.....

.....

E 3.4 If **No** to question E.3.2, why not? Please elaborate.

.....

.....

E.4 Please read each sentence and place a cross (X) to your answer in one of the four columns for each question.

In my school:	1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Disagree	4. Strongly disagree	For office use only	
1. Teachers have a warm, caring and supportive relationship with the learners					E4.1	
2. Teachers serve as positive role models for learners					E4.2	
3. Teachers encourage learners to be self-disciplined					E4.3	
4. Teachers set high expectations for learners to be successful and stay out of trouble					E4.4	
5. Teachers are afraid to stop learners when they engage in violence					E4.5	
6. Teachers do not care when learners engage in violence					E4.6	
7. Teachers do not know what to do when learners engage in violence					E4.7	

E 5.1 What can learners do to reduce and/or prevent school-based violence?

.....

.....

E 5.2 What can parents/family do to reduce and/or prevent school-based violence?

.....
.....

E 5.3 What can teachers do to reduce and/or prevent school-based violence?

.....
.....

E 5.4 What can the principal do to reduce and/or prevent school-based violence?

.....
.....

E 5.5 What can the community do to reduce and/or prevent school-based violence?

.....
.....

E 5.6 What can the local district officials of the Department of Education do to reduce and/or prevent school-based violence?

.....
.....

E 5.7 What can the Gauteng Department of Education do to reduce and/or prevent school-based violence?

.....

.....

E 5.8 What kinds of training should be provided to learners to help them behave positively and become successful?

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much for your participation

APPENDIX N
Focus Group Interview Schedule
(Learners and Educators)

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

LEARNERS

Goal of research: To design, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District

Biographical details: *Place a tick (x) to your answer.*

1. Age : 13 14 15 16 above 16
2. Gender : Male Female
3. Grade : 9 10
4. Language : English Afrikaans Zulu Sepedi
 Setswana Xitsonga Tshivenda Siswati Isindebele Other
.....
5. Ethnicity : White Black Indian Coloured
6. Have you been involved in violence at school? Yes No
7. If yes, what type of violence?.....
8. Have you been involved in violence at school as a victim? Yes No
9. Have you been involved in violence at school as a perpetrator? Yes No

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is the nature of violence in your school?
2. How often do you experience incidents of violence?
3. By whom and to who is violence directed?
4. What are the causes (triggers) of violence in schools?
5. What do you think violence does to a learner who is the victim (what is the effect/ impact on him/her)?
6. What do you think violence does to a learner who is the perpetrator (what is the effect/ impact on him/her)?
7. What do you think violence does to the teacher if he/she is the victim?
8. What do you think violence does to the teacher if he/she is the perpetrator?
9. What is your opinion regarding the impact of violence on teaching and learning?
10. What services are available for learners to help them deal with violence?
11. What do you think should be done by the school to make learners feel safe at school?

12. What do you think should be done to prevent violence at schools?
13. What other suggestions can you make for a violence prevention programme?
- 14.

Thank you for your participation

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE EDUCATORS

Goal of research: To design, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high school learners in Tshwane South District

Biographical details:

1. Age: 21-30 31-40 41-50 51+
2. Gender: Male Female
3. Qualification: Diploma Degree Post-Grad Qualification
Other
4. Years of teaching experience: 1-4 5-10 11 and more
5. Language: English Afrikaans Zulu Sepedi Setswana Xitsonga
Tshivenda Siswati Isindebele Other
6. Ethnicity: White Black Indian Coloured
7. Have you been involved in violence at school as a victim? Yes No
8. Have you been involved in violence at school as a perpetrator? Yes No

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is the nature of violence in schools?
2. How often do you experience incidents of violence in schools?
3. What types of violence do you observe or experience at your respective schools?
4. By whom and to who is violence directed?
5. What causes (triggers) violence in schools?
6. What is your opinion regarding the impact of violence on the learner who is the victim?
7. What is your opinion regarding the impact of violence on the learner who is the perpetrator?
8. What is your opinion regarding the impact of violence on the teacher if he/she is the victim?

9. What is your opinion regarding the impact of violence on the teacher if he/she is the perpetrator?
10. What is your opinion regarding the impact of violence on teaching and learning?
11. What other challenges do you have to deal with at school as a result of school-based violence?
12. What measures or services are in place at your school to address school-based violence?
13. What professional help/training is there for educators to deal with violence?
14. What is your perception regarding intervention/prevention strategies, if any?
15. What suggestions do you have for school-based violence prevention programmes?

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX O

Confidentiality Agreement



Researcher: Ms Kate Poppy Mashego
Tel: (012) 420-2395 or 084 534 7602
E-mail: poppy.mashego@up.ac.za

Confidentiality Agreement

Name of research assistant

In consideration of my participation in the research study conducted by Ms KP Mashego in my capacity as a research assistant, I acknowledge and agree that:

- I shall keep all information strictly confidential;
- I shall not disclose the identifying details of the participants;
- I shall not disclose the findings to any person;
- I shall deliver all the records or material of any nature relating to the study to the researcher; and
- I acknowledge that the disclosure of any confidential information is against ethical principles and is prohibited.

This agreement is binding to me and my conscience and shall be strictly adhered to.

Signed this.....day of....., 20.....

Signature

APPENDIX P

Copyright Permission



Educational Leadership Program
College of Education

PO Box 210069
Tucson, AZ 85721-0069
Telephone: (520) 626-7313
Fax: (520) 626-6005

February 17, 2014

To whom it may concern.

As author of the SMART Team software, I give my permission to Poppy Mashego of the University of Pretoria to modify the software to meet the needs of her project.

Sincerely,

Kris Bosworth

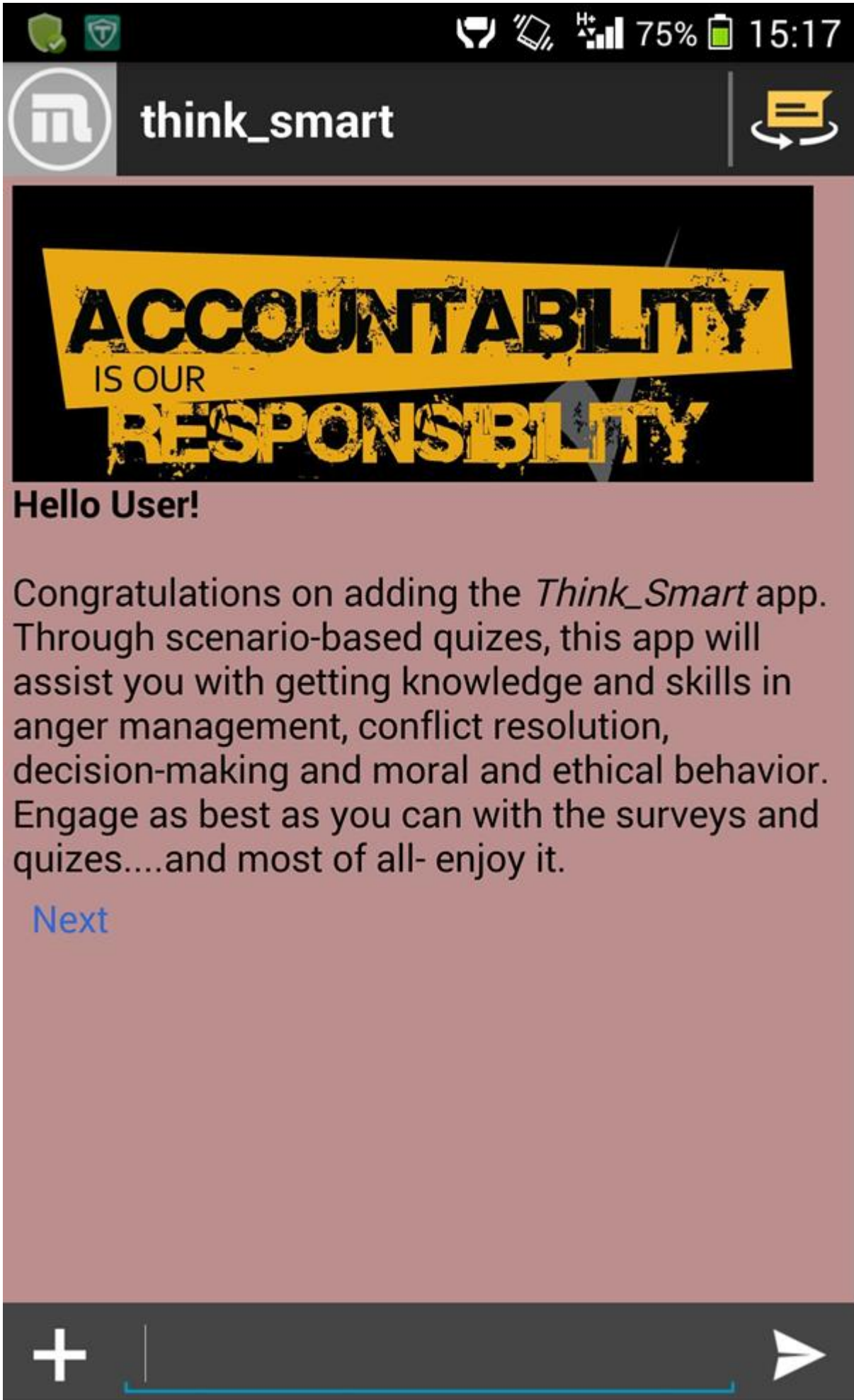
Kris Bosworth, Ph.D.

Professor and Smith Chair in Prevention and Education



APPENDIX Q

WhatsApp



Know your *TRIGGERS*....Don't pull the *TRIGGER*....*Think Smart*"

HOMEWORK

Session 3: Conflict Resolution: **"An eye for an eye will make the world blind"** – Gandhi

Instructions: Read the statement below and complete the assignment to the best of your ability. Please note that there are no wrong answers.

"Conflict is normal part of life. People often disagree or clash on certain issues. When a conflict situation is not resolved, it affects your thoughts, feelings and behaviour. The important lesson we learnt during the group session was how to respond during a conflict situation.

We have learnt that there are ways of resolving a conflict without resorting to violence.

1. List the **steps** you would follow to ensure a peaceful and nonviolent resolution of the conflict between you and your friends.
2. Choose any one of conflict resolution strategy using the animals to describe how you would deal with a conflict situation. Also explain why you like that strategy

Session 4: Problem-solving: **"Two wrongs don't make a right"**.

Instruction: Using the FIND or ABC Model, firstly explain what the name stands for and describe a scenario where you applied this strategy to solve a problem and tell us what the outcome was and also what lessons you have learned.

"Know your *TRIGGERS*....Don't pull the *TRIGGER*....*Think Smart*"

APPENDIX R

Parent Informed Consent (Pilot)



Researcher: Ms Kate Poppy Mashego
Tel: (012) 420-2395 or 084 534 7602
E-mail: poppy.mashego@up.ac.za

21 Osler Street
Rynfield
Benoni
1501

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of study: The design, implementation and evaluation of a school-based violence prevention programme for high schools in Tshwane South District

Purpose of the study: To design, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high schools in Tshwane South District.

Procedures: I understand that my child will be required to participate in a school violence prevention programme as a member of a group that will require 60 minutes of his/her time. He/she will be requested to attend one focus group interview and complete two questionnaires that also forms part of the study.

Risks and Discomfort: I understand that there are no known risks and discomfort that my child may be exposed to in participating in this study. If my child experiences any psychological distress at any time during the research study, I will inform the researcher. I expect the researcher to then arrange counselling for my child with a suitably qualified counsellor.

Benefits: I understand that there is no direct financial benefit to me and/or my child for participating in this study. However, the participation of my child in this study will help the researcher to develop a school-based violence prevention programme for high schools to help promote safety in schools and enhance teaching and learning, thereby promoting safer communities.

Participant's Rights: The participation of my child in this study is voluntary and he/she may withdraw his/her participation at any time without any negative consequences.

Confidentiality and anonymity: In order to record accurately what my child will say during the group activities, a tape recorder will be used. The tapes will only be listened to by the researcher and authorized members of the research team. The information received from my child will be treated confidentially and his/her identity will not be revealed. Should my child withdraw from the study, his/her data will be destroyed. The results of this study may be published in the researcher's thesis, professional journals or presented at professional conferences, but my child's identifying details will not be revealed unless required by law.

APPENDIX S

Learner Assent (Pilot)



Researcher: Ms Kate Poppy Mashego
Tel: (012) 420-2395 or 084 534 7602
E-mail: poppy.mashego@up.ac.za

21 Osler Street
Rynfield
Benoni
1501

ASSENT FORM

Title of study: The design, implementation and evaluation of a school-based violence prevention programme for high schools in Tshwane South District

Purpose of the study: To design, implement and evaluate a school-based violence prevention programme for high schools in Tshwane South District.

Procedures: I understand that I will be required to participate in a school-based violence prevention programme as a member of a group that will require 60 minutes of my time. I will be requested to participate in one focus group interview and complete two questionnaires that also forms part of the study.

Risks and Discomfort: I understand that there are no known risks and discomfort that I may be exposed to in participating in this study. If I experience any psychological distress at any time during the research study, I will inform the researcher. I expect the researcher to then arrange counselling for me with a suitably qualified counsellor.

Benefits: I understand that there is no direct financial benefit to me for participating in this study. However, my participation in this study will help the researcher to develop a school-based violence prevention programme for high schools to help promote safety in schools and enhance teaching and learning, thereby promoting safer communities.

Participant's Rights: My participation in this study is voluntary and I may withdraw my participation at any time without any negative consequences.

Confidentiality and anonymity:

In order to record accurately what I will say during the group interviews, a tape recorder will be used. The tapes will only be listened to by the researcher and authorised members of the research team. The information received from me will be treated confidentially and my identity will not be revealed. Should I withdraw from the study, my data will be destroyed. The results of this study may be published in the researcher's thesis, professional journals or presented at professional conferences, but my identifying details will not be revealed unless required by law.

Data storage: The data that is collected through this study will be stored by the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years. If anyone wishes to use these data, it will only be allowed with my informed consent and the permission of those who participated in the study.

Person to contact: If I have any queries or concerns, I understand that I can contact Ms Kate Poppy Mashego on 084 534 7602 at any time. I understand my rights of as a research respondent and I voluntarily give my consent to participate in this study. I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being done. I have received a copy of this consent form.

Declaration

I,, hereby voluntarily give my consent to participate in this study. I understand what the study is about and how and why it is being conducted.

----- Date	----- Place	----- Participant's signature
----- Date	----- Place	----- Researcher's signature