



CHAPTER 3

ANALYSIS OF POSSIBLE FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE SITUATION OF UNREST AND LACK OF PEACE IN SOUTH AFRICA

1. THE AIM OF THIS CHAPTER

The primary aim of this chapter is to make an analysis of possible causative factors resulting in the situation of unrest and lack of peace in South Africa. Although there may be several causative factors, this chapter will mainly focus on the political, societal, educational and economic factors. Although these factors are interwoven and inter-related, they are nevertheless distinguishable.

2. INTRODUCTORY BACKGROUND

The dramatic advancement of liberty and democracy following the 1994 April democratic election in South Africa, was a watershed in the history of the country. An era of transformation was ushered in, in all walks of life. The political path which the country opted for then, remains irreversible today.

Violence, crime, unrest and instability are significant issues all over the world. But in a democratised South Africa, the level of crime, violence and unrest and instability reached a zenith. In this regard, Mphahlele (1992:3) states that crime, violence and unrest “*affect the whole country in general and the Black communities in particular. It is a real source of worry to all who are concerned with the education of Blacks. This vexing problem exercises the mind of almost everybody who cares about the future of this country.*”

The public's concern with what is widely perceived as burgeoning crime, violence and lack of peace in the South African society is reflected in and fostered by extraordinary media attention to the topic. Testimonial accounts of violence, crime and lack of peace are reflected daily in a variety of media. The gunning of three lecturers, namely Messrs Selepe, Mashego and Van Wyk of Tompi Seleka Agricultural College in the Northern Province by a resident student, has once more highlighted the unprecedented level at which crime is ravaging South African socio-educational institutions (*City Press*, 14 March, 1999:4).

Hardly a day passes in South Africa without violent and criminal activities having occurred. According to the South African News Bulletin that were broadcast, more than



192 policemen have been killed violently on or off duty since the beginning of 2000 (*SABC TV News*, 4 October 2000), the crime rate has doubled and an average of eight people are murdered in KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng every day. Carter, Rulashe, Streak, Koz, Khupiso, Van Eeden, Eshak & Krost (1994:3) add that a serious crime is committed every 17 seconds in South Africa, including murder, house-breaking, theft, assault and rape. According to the South African Television News broadcast on 29 September 1999, a rape is committed every 5 seconds in South Africa. This makes South Africa the number one country in the world in as far as rape is concerned (*SABC TV News*, 29 September 1999).

It seems quite ironic that, while the South African Government enjoys local and international legitimacy, violence and crime have reached alarming proportions.

According to former President Mandela (*Citizen*, 18 August 1994:3), crime, violence and lack of peace are the greatest challenges to stability in South Africa. He stressed that the challenge was to bring down the level of crime in general and drug trafficking in particular with a view to stopping it completely. Former President Mandela further warned that violence and crime were threatening to undermine the country's then Reconstruction and Development Programme. He pointed out that the Government was extremely disturbed by the increasing crime and incidences of violence. The attack on the prominent chairperson of the Portfolio Committee of Education, Mr Mokwena at his home in Soweto on 1 October 1999 by thieves and criminals who hijacked his car and demanded money, also highlights the seriousness of the level of violence in South Africa. It serves as proof that crime has no respect for the position, creed or colour of a person (*Sowetan*, 4 October 1999:5).

The unprecedented high level of violence and crime appears to tarnish the positive image of South Africa in the eyes of business sectors and the international community. Education and normal life cannot smoothly take on a meaningful shape in the *status quo*. In his inaugural address in 1999, President Mbeki highlighted that "*our days will remain forever haunted when frightening numbers of women and children of our country fall victim to rape and other crimes of violence ... Nor can there be peace of mind when the citizens of our country feel they have neither safety nor security because of the terrible deeds of these criminals and their gangs*" (Mbeki, 1999:9).

In an interview on the SABC TV programme *Agenda*, the then Deputy President F.W. de Klerk, argued that the South African society needs a period of what he called "unnatural stability" where the fundamental problems of poverty, crime, violence and economic growth can be addressed in a concerted way (*Agenda*, 21 August 1994; *Citizen*, 22 August 1994:3).

It seems that violence, crime and the consequent unrest and lack of peace are the major stumbling-blocks to socio-educational stability in South Africa. *“Because as long as crime and violence continue it is going to be very difficult for the social initiative projects we have planned to take off and to get the co-operation of the country”* (Mbeki, 1999:9). The escalating violent and crime stricken society of South Africa appears to be influenced greatly by a combination of various factors which are intertwined and inter-related. Firstly an overview of possible contributing political factors will be given.

3. POLITICAL FACTORS

The remarkable success of South Africa's first democratic elections, the re-acceptance into the world community, coupled with the commitment to tackle the urgent needs to eradicate violence, crime and ill-discipline among the youth, have been major positive factors in the changed outlook for the country.

The level of political violence and instability, especially in KwaZulu-Natal, the Cape Province, and Gauteng nevertheless appear to be causing a high degree of uncertainty in schools and society. Children are the future citizens of the country and they cannot easily be educated and trained in a climate characterised by unprecedented levels of violence and crime. *“Each child who is denied opportunities for full development (because of violence) becomes an economic and social burden for the country in the long-term”* (Le Roux, 1994:37). Boycotts of lessons by teachers and 80,000 pupils at 75 schools in KwaMashu during 1996 serves as a testimony to the prevalent *“rampant crime and political violence which have spilled into schools resulting in the gunning down of a teacher”* (Sowetan, 11 March 1996:2). The many similar incidents that took place during especially the latter part of 1998, during 1999 and the first seven months of 2000 confirm the ongoing situation of unrest and lack of peace in South Africa.

Political violence seems to have become endemic and canceric to children and all educational stake-holders in South Africa. *“For millions of children in South Africa, each day is a fresh battle against poverty, political uncertainty and violence. But even more frightening than the daily suffering, hunger and brutalization is their future in a country where political violence and crime is wrapping its tentacles around them”* (Barkhuizen, 1998:11).

In this regard Thipanyane (1999:7) states as follows: *“What is remarkable about this political violence, is that it is not dying out but, at least in KwaZulu-Natal, is spreading and intensifying at an alarming rate with little hope of ending in the near future. Another worrying feature about the violence is the inability or failure of the South African criminal justice system to curb, control and end a conflict which borders on civil war.”*

This chapter then primarily seeks to identify and discuss some possible political factors which may possibly contribute to a situation of unrest in South Africa. These include, *inter alia*:

- Political promises prior to the April 1994 general election
- Politicisation of teachers' organisations
- Politicisation of student organisations
- Radicalisation of teacher organisations
- Disruptions of academic institutions
- The era of ungovernability and transformation from Apartheid to democracy
- Political intolerance among South African political parties
- Lack of political education
- Lack of consultation
- Legacy of Apartheid
- Political mobilisation of the South African youth.

3.1 POLITICAL PROMISES PRIOR TO THE GENERAL ELECTION IN 1994

South Africa has arrived at a momentous stage in its history of development and must now display the natural responsibility for good economic governance, sound human relations and confidence in its future. The political rhetorics and promises of free houses, free education and jobs made prior to the 1994 April general election raised the public's expectations in South Africa to an all-time high, "*So when people saw no visible change in their lives after a few months, there was often a violent backlash*" (Sowetan, 23 November 1994:11). It would seem as if the post-apartheid period was frequently marked by truck and bus blockades, hostage-taking, invasions of buildings and land, army desertions, strikes, vandalism and an upsurge in crime as well as regular disruptions of lessons at various educational institutions possibly as a reaction to the failure of the Government to live up to the promises made.

Asmal (Sowetan, 23 November 1994:11) states that "*the masses live in roughly the same conditions as before. Unless there is an appreciable improvement in the physical conditions of the poor, the progress made in government (political circles) and in the economy could evaporate. The scene could be set for renewed disturbance and disruptions. At the end of the day, what we achieve must be something that can be seen, that is tangible to the people.*" This appears to be an urgent challenge facing the South African political leaders. "*For the first time, one has realised that being in government is a far cry from being involved in the struggle*" (Molefe in Sowetan, 23 November 1994:11).

The empty political promises and rhetorics made before and during the April 1994 general elections have contributed to the upheavals, not only in society but also in the heart of educational institutions which were supposed to be the backbone of nation development. Violence, vandalism and crime have permeated the education arena, thus making it virtually impossible for schools to play the pivotal role in the fulfilment of the educative teaching task. Some of the schools seem to resemble “criminal resource centres” where sound positive values such as respect for authority and colleagues, honesty, love for fellow human beings, cultural tolerance, peaceful co-existence and co-operation are relegated to the periphery and, in extreme cases, have disappeared.

During the 1994 election the public was made to believe that 150,000 houses would be built in Gauteng within the first twelve months of the Government. Free houses, free education and medical facilities were to be given to the toiling masses. Many people participated in the election with the expectations that an immediate Utopia would be the results, that all injustices would be righted instantly, that they would be better off, and that all election promises would be fulfilled immediately.

It seems as if the reality of life has shocked and left many people frustrated and the new nation or the new democratic society does not function in the manner people had hoped. The nation had to realise that it does not come into being at the flick of a lever or the push of a button. It will only be the result of a process of growth, of internal change of heart and attitude, of a building effort by all members of the society.

The much talked about and hoped for Reconstruction and Development Programme (hereafter referred to as RDP) did not deliver sufficient practical improvements and economic alleviation to ordinary members of the public. The slow process at which the RDP has taken off has resulted in the majority of people lacking confidence and trust in the new government and the ANC, as a leading partner of the then Government of National Unity. Indeed, people have become like Thomas; they believe only in what they see. It, therefore, seems as if the political promises made before the April 1994 general election have created a violent atmosphere that has engulfed the societal fabric of South Africa in general.

It appears that most black students expected to attend school free of any payment. Their expectations were unrealistic. When they were not given free books and still had to pay for tuition, they became violent and angry with the school authorities.

Schools, especially black schools, have become soft targets, where lawlessness and disrespect for authority seem to be gaining the upper hand. Students are demanding that

they should not be refused admission on the grounds of “financial exclusion” – that is the inability to pay or to have paid the fees of the previous academic year.

3.2 POLITICISATION OF TEACHERS' ORGANISATIONS

The teaching profession was also affected by politicisation. Various teachers' organisations have publicly aligned themselves with the political parties of their choice. For example, the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (hereafter referred to as SADTU) is officially affiliated to the African National Congress. SADTU has also anchored its roots in the radical trade union, the Congress of South African Trade Union (hereafter referred to as COSATU). According to Kruger & Van Schalkwyk (1993:244) little fault can be found with the broad aims of SADTU, but its deep roots in the trade unions and its unashamed alliance with the freedom struggle are a reflection on its professionalism. Ever since its inception on the 6 October 1990, SADTU has been political, and has advocated mass action, chalk-downs, sit-ins and regular demonstrations against the South African Government, especially applicable to the previous Department of Education and Training. The strategy of collective bargaining adopted by SADTU, resembles that of COSATU. The radicalism typified by COSATU is characteristic of SADTU members (Kruger & Van Schalkwyk, 1993:244).

The Natal African Teachers' Union (hereafter referred to as NATU) is also suspected of having forged links with the Inkatha Freedom Party (hereafter referred to as IFP). The United Workers Union of South Africa (hereafter referred to as UWUSA) is a trade union which is seen as having allegiance to the same Inkatha Movement.

The National Association of Professional Teachers' Organisation of South Africa (hereafter referred to as NAPTOSA) seems to be apolitical. However, in the past, NAPTOSA's affiliates were seen as sympathisers of the previous South African Government. The non-violent, non-militant and apolitical stand taken and followed by NAPTOSA and its affiliates prior to the April 1994 general election and during the Apartheid era, made it appear like a collaborative ally of the previous Apartheid Government.

Teacher unions align themselves with student-“comrades”. For example, SADTU is associated with the Congress of South African Students (hereafter referred to as COSAS) and the South African Student Congress (hereafter referred to as SASCO) with secondary schools and tertiary institutions respectively (Sowetan, 16 November 1994:8). The alliance of teachers' unions and students tend to marginalise the remaining students and teachers who do not stand together. This is likely to add tension and mistrust between teachers and students of divergent political views. The endless feud among COSAS and

the Pan Africanist Congress Aligned Students Organisation (hereafter referred to as PASO) as well as the African National Congress (hereafter referred to as ANC), and the Azanian Student Movement (hereafter referred to as AZASM) aligned to the radical Azanian People Organisation (hereafter referred to as AZAPO) is probably caused by the political “monopolistic” philosophy adopted by student movements.

Legitimate teachers' organisations, particularly SADTU and NAPTOSA play a key role in negotiating for better service conditions for teachers. “*Teachers' unions are ideally an interim solution to the problem of professional ossification*” (Hyslop, 1987:85). Hyslop (1987:85) further points out the ability of unions to create conditions for respectful regard for teachers and mentions obstacles in the way of the teacher, gaining an important role in the planning of school policy, namely: (i) a limited self-understanding; (ii) the legal sanctioning of unions as collective bargaining agents.

3.3 POLITICISATION OF STUDENTS' ORGANISATIONS

The politicisation of students' organisations gained momentum during the 1976 Soweto Education Crisis. Students organisations grew in leaps and bounds and started to affiliate with major political organisations. For example, the Congress of South African Students are aligned to the ANC and the Pan Africanist Congress (hereafter referred to as PAC), and AZASM are aligned to AZAPO (*Sowetan*, 23 November 1996:8).

Student organisations associated with the PAC namely the Pan Africanist Student Organisation (hereafter referred to as PASO) and AZASM adopted the common principle of “Africanism” unlike COSAS which is affiliated to the ANC, PASO and AZASM that do not accommodate other races. In principle, they seem to be racially orientated. They believe that white educators have no place in black education and that South Africa belongs to the black Africans only (*Sowetan*, 23 November 1996:8). This difference in philosophies as espoused by student organisations lead to continuing clashes, especially in Gauteng.

The participation of student bodies in educational institutions did not result in the rejection of the school and educational authorities, but it had a decisive and hostile effect among themselves. Student representative councils seem to lack unity as authentic student bodies because members are often politically aligned to various antagonistic political parties. This possibly explains the incomprehensible and endless feuds between PASO and COSAS on the East Rand of Gauteng (*Sowetan*, 23 November 1996:8).

The concept of free political activity and tolerance apparently is not fully known and understood in the Republic of South Africa. The violent clashes at some of the academic

institutions seem to be orchestrated by the variety of student organisations who pursue divergent political ideologies. Student representative councils appear to have become vehicles of political power domination within campuses instead of being student representative councils in the manner worthy of the name. For example, resolutions of one student political body cannot be forced down the throats of other students with different or no political affiliation. Proper and sufficient consultation should take place to solicit students' opinions on matters of common interest even if the matter is initiated by the "political enemy".

Already in 1986 De Beer (1986:4) warned that peace and progress cannot be separated. *"We cannot allow children and their education to be dragged into the political arena which is an adult domain. Boycotts and disruption in education do not only result in immeasurable harm to the individual child, his parents, the economy and everyone in the country, but also lead to serious retardation of genuine political progress within the communities concerned. No community can hope to administer itself properly or to govern effectively unless it creates a sound basis through education and training of its people."*

Educational institutions seem to have become launching pads for most political parties, especially in black communities. To date student political associations have not yet succeeded in sustaining the tolerance pacts entered into from time to time. De Beer (1986:4) warns that as long as schools are seen as political battle fields by the student organisations, violence, clashes and the atmosphere of disrespect, unkindness and criminality would likely be the order of the day. Consequently, the professional responsibilities and duties of teachers cannot be rendered effectively in a climate of violence and lawlessness.

3.4 RADICALISATION OF TEACHERS' ORGANISATIONS

3.4.1 Intensification of radicalism in teachers' organisations: 1944-1954

Historically, teachers' organisations in South Africa represent conflict between radical and professional perspectives. According to Mphahlele (1949:3) the Transvaal African Teachers' Association (hereafter referred to as TATA) launched a very active propaganda campaign led by a committee that included significant personalities such as Bopape and Mda. The campaign culminated on 6 May 1944 when a mass demonstration of teachers, parents and school children in support of the teachers' wage demand was held in Central Johannesburg. According to Mphahlele (1949:5) the march drew 12,000 people and swept aside police attempts to obstruct its way. It culminated in a mass meeting addressed by the President of the ANC on 6 May 1944.

In the Transvaal, radicalisation of teachers' organisations was reflected in 1949 when the TATA leadership was captured by a group of urban radicals. The change became even more apparent in 1951 when a group of young Orlando teachers, including Mphahlele and Mothopeng took over the leadership with the adoption of the former Bantu Education Act no. 47 of 1953. The leaders of TATA realised the political implications and launched an energetic campaign of meetings across the Province to denounce the Eiselen recommendation. In 1952, Mphahlele, Mothopeng and a third TATA leader, Mothlame, were sacked from their jobs at Orlando High School. This was regarded as a clear case of victimisation as reported later by Hyslop (1987:92).

According to Hyslop (1987:92) the new radicalisation in the Cape was reflected in the 1948 decision of the Cape African Teachers' Association (hereafter referred to as CATA), to affiliate to the All African Convention, a Unity Movement Front. The CATA members became active in the Transkei and conducted a propaganda campaign among the local peasantry against "Bantu Education", "Bantu Authorities" and "Law Rehabilitation". Hyslop (1987:92) reported that when the implementation of former Bantu Education began in 1955, CATA actively participated in attempts to prevent the establishment of planned school boards and committees, helping to violently disrupt attempts to set them up in Cape Town and in the Eastern Cape.

Even in Natal, where teachers were generally quiescent in the late 1950's, "*NATU showed its hostility to former 'Bantu Education', and began to express African nationalist sentiment*" (Hyslop, 1987:92).

3.4.2 Intensification of radicalism: 1976-1990

During 1960 the various teachers' associations (unions) were united in an effective national body namely the African Teachers' Association of South Africa (hereafter referred to as ATASA). During the 1976 Soweto school uprising, the ATASA establishment began to come under new pressure: "*It was criticised heavily by the proponents of the Black Conscious Movement and had trouble in dealing with the growing number of politicised young teachers. The massive upsurge of labour and youth action challenged the kind of self-seeking, apolitical outlook which ATASA represented. In 1976 the ATASA offices were destroyed during the Soweto upheavals*" (Sowetan, 14 July 1987:8). However, ATASA members joined forces with other teachers' associations of different races to form a giant NAPTOSA.

Radicalism was intensified with the emergence of various teacher bodies such as the National Education Union of South Africa (hereafter referred to as NEUSA) and the Soweto Teachers' Action Committee in 1976 and 1980 respectively. The National

Education Crisis Committee (hereafter referred to as NECC) was also formed in 1980 with the purpose of propagating “People's Education” which was diametrically opposed to the former departments of Bantu Education and Education and Training as established by the previous Apartheid Government. In the Cape a militant and radical Western Cape Teachers' Union (hereafter referred to as WECTU) was formed in 1985 to challenge former Bantu Education and the Department of Education and Training.

With the increasing level of frustration among black teachers, the militancy manifested itself in strike waves, marches, protests, chalk-downs and sit-in strategies. The situation provided the impetus for the emergence of a new legitimate, nationally independent and democratic teachers' union. The union subsequently became known as the South African Democratic Teachers' Union, and was officially launched on 6 October 1990. Together with NAPTOSA, SADTU enjoys legitimate recognition from the Government. In spite of the legitimacy it enjoys, SADTU still seems to adhere to the principle of radicalism. Its association with an extreme labour movement like COSATU makes it even more radical when tackling national issues which affect its members: *“Yes, while we support the democratically elected Government, we shall remain independent as a workers' and teachers' union when it comes to our demand for a living-wage”* (Nxesi in SABC, TV News, 19 April 1999). Chalk-downs, sit-ins, protests and marches are still the strategies employed by SADTU in its endeavour to pressurise the Department of National Education (hereafter referred to as DNE) to accede to its demand for an inflation related increment.

3.5 DISRUPTIONS OF ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

3.5.1 Campus violence at tertiary institutions

With the emergence of the unrealistic expectations of students after the attainment of the “political miracle” on 27 April 1994, campus violence became a major problem at South African tertiary institutions.

The campus violence in August 1994 started with racial clashes between white and black students at the Vaal Triangle Technikon in Vanderbijlpark (*Beeld*, 21 August 1994:1). On the first day of the violence five students were injured in racial clashes, a building was partially set alight and windows were broken. Police fired teargas and rubber bullets to disperse the students. Hundreds of black students boycotted classes until the Vaal Triangle Technikon's Management addressed their demands. Lectures were resumed after a negotiated settlement was reached between student representatives and Management and an agreement that investigations would be launched into the students' clashes and the alleged campus racism (*Beeld*, 21 August 1994:1).

At the beginning of May 1995 violent clashes again erupted between black and white students at the Vaal Triangle Technikon campus in Vanderbijlpark. Students demanded the resignation of the Technikon's council and that of the Rector, Prof. Pieter du Plessis, who was accused of obstructing transformation as well as of financial mismanagement. Students however proceeded to disrupt lectures and intimidate non-participating students when their demands were not met.

With regard to campus violence at the Vaal Triangle Technikon, the editorial comment in the *City Press* (7 May 1995:8) stated as follows: “*What was initially a problem between the rector and black students soon degenerated into a racial confrontation between black and white students. Apparently the Technikon is perceived by most African students as being amongst those institutions which are racist and not prepared to transform and reflect the new South Africa*” (*City Press*, 7 May 1995:8).

The campus violence spread to the University of South Africa (hereafter referred to as UNISA), Vista University and to the University of the Witwatersrand. UNISA's students demanded representative student councils while the students of Vista University protested against the undemocratic management of the university. Students at the University of the Witwatersrand protested against the exclusion of students who failed to pay tuition fees (*City Press*, 7 May 1995:8). Minnaar & Payze (1996:1) explain the wave of protest, some of it violent, that flared up again on campuses countrywide. Characteristic of the protest was the trashing of campuses and the hostage taking of university officials by the students as a strategy to strengthen their demands, racial clashes between students, boycotting of classes and closing of universities and technikons (Minnaar & Payze, 1996:1).

Student violence again erupted early in February 1995 at the Free State Technikon in Bloemfontein when students were refused admission because of their failure of the previous year's examinations or because they had not paid tuition fees for the 1994 academic year. Concerning this, Minnaar & Payze (1996:1) give the following information: “*They immediately demanded the resignation of the rector and the senior director of the student bureau as well as the closure of classes for at least a week. After a few days of racial tension, violence erupted directly between black and white students which left seven students injured.*” According to the Technikon Liaison Officer, M. Vorster, the violence at the technikon was not only a remote incident at the Free State Technikon, but “*part of a tendency to revolutionise tertiary education*” (Minnaar & Payze, 1996:2).

Students on all seven campuses of Vista University boycotted classes. On 15 March 1995 more than 2,000 students from all the Vista campuses marched, firstly to the Vista

Head Office in Pretoria, and then to the then Minister of Education, Prof. M.S. Bengu's office at the Union Buildings, to hand over a list of grievances. They demanded the immediate resignation of the University Council as well as the lifting of the suspension of the then Director of the Sebokeng campus, Dr. S.N. Kekana (*Beeld*, 17 March 1995 and Minnaar & Payze (1996:2).

Disruptions at various academic institutions seems to have emanated from deep seated political dissatisfaction with the situation at the academic institutions. Several academic institutions such as the Vaal Technikon, Ruiterswacht School, Bloemfontein Technikon, Vista University (Mamelodi and Sebokeng campuses), Rand Afrikaanse Universiteit (hereafter referred to as RAU), Venda University and the University of the North experienced a series of academic disruptions. The major common factor underlying the disruptions seems to have been the lack of and the slow pace at which the transformation process was taking place: "*Demand at these institutions was mainly connected with reduction in fees, scrapping of outstanding fees and disbandment of the councils of the universities and technikons*" (Minnaar & Payze, 1996:2).

For the first time in the history of traditionally Afrikaans Universities, tensions appear to have been mounting as disgruntled black students were challenging administrations and white students whom they accused of trying to sabotage the transformation process. In a news item in *The Star* (15 May 1995:6) the following remark was made: "*The looming crisis is the first trouble at Afrikaans institutions which has so far managed to steer clear of the pitfalls which have bedevilled other tertiary institutions this year.*"

According to *The Star* (15 May 1995:6) the RAU campus was "definitely tense" but he believed that the cause of the trouble was the conflict between left-wing organisations led by SASCO and the newly formed Students for Democratic Transformation (hereafter referred to as SDT). A large contingent of policemen had been deployed on the campus early that week because of fears of trouble at an SDT meeting. In a statement issued by SASCO in May 1995, the SDT was allegedly conspiring to halt the process of transformation. SASCO further alleged that: the SDT was attempting to undermine transformation by forming a laager around Afrikaans tertiary institutions and attempting to revive the old racist "Afrikaanse Nasionale Studente Bond" (*The Star*, 16 May 1995:6).

Campus violence resulted from students' grievances revolving mainly around reduction in fees, scrapping of outstanding fees, disbandment of the councils of the universities or technikons (colleges) and the slow pace of the transformation process at these institutions.

Protesting students clashed not only with the authorities, but also with fellow-students. At some institutions (Vaal Triangle Technikon and Free State Technikon) the protests turned into racial clashes between white and black students and at the University of the Western Cape clashes erupted between black and coloured students.

What remains alarming is that campus trashing, intimidation and strikes have since become a norm for students who believe that their demands will be met if they resort to open violence. Minnaar & Payze (1996:3) remark: *“This resulted in the disruption of the lives of other students who wanted to continue their studies and negotiate any desired changes in conventional ways.”* In addition, a further alarming development was a tendency by some students to occupy administration offices and take the university, technikon and college staff members hostage in an attempt to force the university (and college) authorities to concede to their demands. It remains an inescapable reality that millions of rands of damage was done to campus properties countrywide.

3.5.2 Violence in schools

Violence in schools will also be discussed in par. 4.5 of this chapter.

During the latter years of the nineties, violence in schools seemed to have subsided considerably. It was only in the politically volatile provinces such as KwaZulu-Natal and to a lesser degree Gauteng, that violence in schools remained a problem. As mentioned earlier, during the early 1990's there were numerous “chalkdown” strikes by teachers, particularly those affiliated to SADTU. Most of these teacher strikes concerned demands for salary parity with white teachers, improved working conditions and more democratic and transparent decision-making by the education authorities. Minnaar & Payze (1996:3) point out that efforts by central government to address these issues and to work towards amalgamation of the different education departments led to minimal strike activities during 1994.

With relatively little disruption in schools most learners at the start of 1995 were eager to learn. According to Minnaar & Payze (1996:3) the exception to this was the continuing campaign by AZASM to force white teachers out of black schools and to replace them with black teachers. These campaigns led to a number of cases where white teachers were threatened and in some cases beaten up or had their cars or other property damaged. The violent actions were executed for the sake of Africanisation. As early as 1974, Mawasha warned black institutions that it was desirable that black universities (and schools) should be staffed by blacks for the sake of Africanisation; however, care should be taken that staff were adequately qualified for the job. He said: *“Should this important criterion be overlooked for the sake of Africanisation, then international ranking of these*

institutions would be adversely affected by the resultant localisation” (Mawasha in Daily Mail, 14 November 1974:27).

It seems as if the continuous boycotts by SADTU teachers gave momentum to a new wave of rampant crime and violence in schools during 1998. Indeed, no normal schooling and meaningful education could take place in a crime-ridden environment. SADTU's strike action got into full swing on 2 August 1999. In some districts teachers went from school to school forcing other teachers out of their schools. Schooling came to a standstill when disruption of academic activities was aggravated by class boycotts by learners. The culture of learning and teaching was dealt a severe blow. In some cases the unrest took on a violent form.

3.5.3 Conclusion

Stability and peace at academic institutions are important factors in the successful development of a nation, not only in Africa, but also in international context. Violence, lack of respect, ill-discipline, disruptions of lessons and crime are problems that seem to be impeding the general socio-political stability. With reference to violence on campuses, Asmal stated that *“we cannot achieve positive economic growth without meeting the challenges of growing unemployment and poverty. The country cannot afford unrest at its campuses. We cannot succeed without the reconciliation of the leaders of tomorrow. Leaders must stand firm against any form of violence. It is wrong and must not happen”* (Asmal in *The Star*, 3 September 1999:2).

Gangsterism is a social problem which must be speedily and effectively eradicated to prevent it from destroying the well-knit social fabric of communities. It is worse when this kind of criminality is present at schools and institutions of education where it disrupts learning and teaching in the short term and creates serious psychological problems in the long term.

In the final analysis, it appears that the honour rests upon all stakeholders and interested parties in education to collaborate effectively in devising means and ways of curbing violence and crime. Decisive measures must be taken to restore order, discipline, normality, respect for other human beings, human values, and respect for authorities in order for schools to play their decisive educative role. Failure to curb, prevent and eradicate violence especially in schools, would inevitably destroy the very future of the nation South Africans are aspiring for. Asmal (*City Press*, 26 September 1999:4) stated that *“as learners and educators, we have responsibilities to counter the legacy of violence by promoting the values underlying the democratic process, the importance of due process of law and the exercise of civic responsibility by always seeking non-violent*

solutions to difficulties. We must learn the importance of mediation and the benefit of co-operation. Only then will peace and stability become the norm in our schools."

Asmal (Sowetan, 8 September 1999:3) concludes that *"it is our non-negotiable intention to make our schools, the centres of community life, havens of peace and not places of violence and conflict."*

3.6 THE ERA OF UNGOVERNABILITY AND TRANSFORMATION FROM APARTHEID TO DEMOCRACY

South Africa experienced a traumatic shock of violence and ungovernability during the 1980's and mid 90's. The era of ungovernability seems to have been a strategy employed by the liberatory and mass democratic movements in waging a battle against the previous Apartheid regime. Truscott (1993:5) says the following: *"School boycotts, demoralised stay-aways, strikes, consumer, rent and service boycotts as well as regular confrontations with the police and troops on the streets and schools, all became regular occurrences in many townships and communities across the country."* The same author states that stay-aways and consumer boycotts were often constantly reinforced by youths who mounted barricades and pickets along township roads. The youth were also at the forefront of the attack on black councillors, who were considered to be sell-outs for having gone into the racially segregatory black local authorities with the result that groups of youths regularly disrupted or smashed municipal localities.

The youth were exploited and used by the revolutionaries as *"shock troops of the revolution. It is thus not at all surprising that South Africa has not been spared this revolutionary abuse of children for political ends"* (Roux, 1988:11). Large numbers of black children, especially teenagers, were involved in many acts of vandalism, violence and murder intended by their revolutionary mentors to sow anarchy and make the country "ungovernable" (Roux, 1988:11).

The spirit of ungovernability was openly cited and lavishly promised by the African National Congress and South African Communist Party alliance as early as 1985. An official statement from the African National Congress headquarters in Lusaka proclaimed: *"We call on our people and more especially our fighting youth in every black community, school and university to find ways of organising themselves into small mobile units which will protect the people against anti-social elements and act in organised ways in both white and black areas against the enemy and its agents"* (Roux, 1988:11).

The strategy of ungovernability resulted in an assortment of problems during the transition period (± 1990-1994). One of the most negative aspects of the ungovernability era was

the persistently undemocratic and autocratic behaviour displayed by the youth. This was manifested in enforced political action such as physical prevention of people from going to work during stay-aways, or searching and beating people suspected of breaking consumer boycotts (Truscott, 1993:5).

Truscott (1993:6) describes the youth during those years in the following terms: *“They are unemployed, badly educated and younger than the average activist. They come mainly from squatter areas, and have generally not been adequately educated within prohibited organisations. As the community organisations established dominance, the youth were drawn into political activity without substantially altering their positions on the fringes of legality. Known in the townships as the ‘Guerrillas or Amabutho’, they confront all forms of authority without getting approval from community organisations.”*

According to Van Rensburg (1992:4) South Africa was sitting on a powder-keg which could devastate the nation because of ungovernable, uneducated and unemployable youths who happen to be in the majority. The economically unemployable and uneducated youth could pose a serious problem to the socio-political stability of the country.

Students should no longer be manipulated and abused for further political aims of certain political leaders. Mabe (*Sowetan*, 3 September 1999:2) remarked as follows: *“And heaven help us all if our objective is to make schools ungovernable, for we could be starting what we may not be able to end. We are creating a culture which will not be required in a post-Apartheid society. The tragedy of what is happening in education is that we have a bunch of cowards among parents, teachers and politicians who are opposed to what is happening but are scared to death to publicly admit that we create more problems than we are solving.”* Many of the youth and students apparently saw themselves as the vanguard of the struggle against Apartheid, and were, therefore, unwilling to submit to more democratic ways of working.

Students, and youths were used extensively during the liberation struggle in various forms. Consequently, they were not given or taught any skill which was of value to them when democracy dawned. This is a serious challenge that South African society, especially educational institutions and authorities, is facing presently. The youth, and students in particular, need to recultivate the culture of learning, respect for authority, respect for societal norms and values and democratic ideals which are also the characteristics of an effective educational system.

3.7 POLITICAL INTOLERANCE AMONG PARTIES

Directly after the first democratic election in 1994, political disunity and intolerance among parties were a major political cancer which almost tore the South African society apart. The political arena of South Africa seemed to be characterised by mistrust, threats of walk-outs from the Government of National Unity and violence. This was clearly demonstrated in March 1995 when the Inkatha Freedom Party staged a walk-out from the National Government. This was allegedly precipitated by the failure of the African National Congress and the National Party to honour their agreement of international mediation entered into on 19 April 1994. This was seen in some political circles as a clear sign of political intolerance and insensitivity on the part of the two major partners in the Government.

Meyer (*Citizen*, 23 February 1995:8) stated that the consequence of the Inkatha Freedom Party's walk-out of Parliament was dangerous and would, without doubt, further inflame tension and violence in KwaZulu-Natal. He further elaborated that the situation required cool heads on all sides and a commitment to the reconciliation process that had succeeded up till then. He said: "*Walk-out strategies by the Inkatha Freedom Party and with the African National Congress gloating afterwards, do not contribute to maintain the momentum of the peace process*" (Meyer in *Citizen*, 23 February 1995:8).

Nzimande (*Citizen*, 23 February 1995:8) highlighted that the Government of National Unity had to crack down on violence irrespective of its source. The challenge facing political parties was to end violence in KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape which was threatened by political violence and instability. According to the *Sowetan* (23 May 1995:10) leaders in KwaZulu-Natal were required to act decisively to stop the bloodshed that was claiming the lives of children. It seemed to be an orchestrated ploy to make the killings ghastly and unbearable. It appeared that the attack on the children was aimed at inflaming the fury of those who lost children under such terrible circumstances. The most tolerant people could react with vengeance and disgust at this, a reaction elicited by cold-blooded calculation.

In Gauteng, particularly on the East Rand, where violence raged endlessly, the political attempt to halt it was joined by groups from the churches and from other community structures. "*The killings of children must be the last straw. If the men cannot find the means to stop it, mothers of the area – assisted by mothers everywhere – must join hands to stop this abomination*" (*Sowetan*, 23 May 1995:10). The senseless killings and school violence on the East Rand appear to have been orchestrated by the political rivalry and intolerance between PASO aligned to the PAC and COSAS aligned to the ANC on the

other side. The conflict became a dangerous and disruptive force when the parties involved were either drawn or forced into confrontation. They interfered with or obstructed each other in attempting to satisfy their goals. Everard & Morris (1988:80) point out that *“whenever personal glory is staked on the outcome.”* They (Everard & Morris) argue that decision-making becomes impossible because *“neither party dares to make any decision for fear that these will be seized upon by the other party as victory and a bridgehead for further advances.”*

In appealing for restoration of political tolerance in KwaZulu-Natal, former State President Nelson Mandela, in his address entitled *“Let’s bury the hatchet”*, stressed that one of the greatest enemies of the people of KwaZulu-Natal was political intolerance and instability. *“There are many orphans and widows. Fresh graves litter the hills and valleys; families are torn apart. Now is the time to change all this”* (Mandela, 1998:2). He further called on the African National Congress and the Inkatha Freedom Party members to stand united and fight crime and violence in order to improve the lives of black South Africans.

Table 1 indicates that 528 political unrest-related incidences in KwaZulu-Natal were reported during the first six months of 1998. This figure is more than twice that of the rest of South Africa combined.

TABLE 1: POLITICAL UNREST-RELATED INCIDENCES IN SOUTH AFRICA IN 1998

Month	KwaZulu-Natal	Gauteng	Rest of South Africa	Total
January	116	6	27	149
February	76	16	12	104
March	83	11	17	111
April	83	18	41	142
May	83	18	41	142
June	55	7	12	74
July	58	16	19	93
TOTAL	554	92	169	815

[Source: The South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:8)

“The incidence of murder in KwaZulu-Natal is nearly two and a half times higher than in any other region. This can be attributed to the continuation of the political power struggle raging since the latter part of the previous decade with its own dynamics, for example competition in a climate of intolerance, high levels of insecurity, the creation of self-defence structures ... and cycle of revenge” (South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:30).



3.8 LACK OF POLITICAL EDUCATION

Political education had been relegated to the periphery in the educational scenario of South Africa. In the case of blacks, it was simply non-existent. In fact, education and politics were viewed as two separate phenomena that had to be analysed and investigated in juxtaposition. However, the reality that has emerged since the 1976 Soweto riots was that black education and politics were inexorably enmeshed. Educational initiatives on the part of the Government of National Unity were released in September 1994 in the Draft White Paper.

South African schools, particularly in the East Rand of Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, seemed to be constantly under the threat of violence and unprecedented levels of crime. The continuous rivalry between PASO and COSAS appeared to be heightening the already fragile and volatile atmosphere. It was unfortunate that the educational policy makers of the previous – South African Government did not find, and deemed it necessary to place political education on the priority list of their curriculum.

The *Sowetan* sub-editor, Mabe, writes: *“One of the main reasons why there is a lack of discipline among our youth is that ex-Bantu Education has not taught them what democracy is. They go to school to be trained and like robots endorse whatever they are told by whoever is in authority. As a result, they are unable to think independently and that is why for anybody to get killed, all you need is one person to stand up in a meeting and say that so-and-so is a ‘sell-out’. Without any proof or explanation the person accused is not given a chance to defend himself, and a decision is taken that he be killed”* (*Sowetan*, 3 September 1999:6).

3.9 LACK OF CONSULTATION BETWEEN WHITES AND BLACKS

Ever since the whites came to settle in South Africa in 1652, the politics of exclusivity appeared to have been adopted. Matters reached a zenith when the National Party ascended to power in 1948. Apartheid became the blue-print of the Government's policy and blacks were excluded from political decision-making bodies. The outcry from blacks was that whites in the past had passed laws for them without consulting them. *“They, the whites did the thinking, planning and the implementations alone”* (Mphahlele, 1992:230).

In his inaugural address, Mphahlele (1981:1) summarises the problem of non-consultation in these words: *“It is difficult to understand or imagine how whites could have succeeded in understanding, appreciating and interpreting the views and values of blacks when the two lived in two separate worlds. The yawning gulf between them has remained almost unbridgeable.”*

It is, therefore, obvious that lack of political rapport and consultation in the formulation and design of educational laws have undoubtedly led to scepticism and suspicion. This probably strengthened the myth that blacks should not think for themselves and determine their own destiny, but should be told what is right for them.

On the issue of non-consultation, Mphahlele (1981:1) summarises the perplexity and dilemma of lack of peace in black education as follows: *“Whatever the merits of Black Education since 1658, when the first school for slaves was established, its arbitrary imposition will always breed protest and cause radicalisation. It is this unnegotiated action that has led to the present impasse with Blacks ever since the riots in 1976. They, the Blacks, seek for something more than reforming their education. They seek a complete scuttling of the whole system. They demand a new and imaginative educational dispensation ... it seems obvious that the natural solution in the present South African situation is to hand over Black Education to the relevant people, the Blacks themselves ...”*

The strategy of non-consultation, has been an unfortunate one. Since South Africa is undeniably a multi-cultural society, it is logical that the principle of cultural tolerance and acceptance should be promoted in all aspects of life. What seems important and imperative, is the change of heart and attitude towards one another. Mphahlele (1992:230) stresses that polarisation will do them more harm than good. Conflict could create animosity among the people. In a conflict situation there are no winners, but only losers.

Appealing to the Afrikaners to change their negative attitude and perception towards blacks, the former State President Botha stated categorically in 1978 that *“the Afrikaner must be prepared to change, adapt or die”* (Botha in Mphahlele, 1992:230). The former Minister of Constitutional Affairs, G. Viljoen, urged Afrikaners to mend their attitude towards non-whites. They must accept the permanence of the black people as part of the South African Nation (Viljoen in Mphahlele, 1992:230).

The issue of lack of political consultation, especially on educational matters was also a matter of great concern to Mphahlele. He summed it up as follows: *“One of the major problems that has bedevilled the development of Black Education since the early twentieth century down the years up to today, is the lack of consultation of the community in the education of their children. Educational decisions are handed over to them without inquiring into their wishes. Blacks have always been left out in the decision-making process regarding their education”* (Mphahlele, 1992:210).

However, it is no longer valid that blacks are presently excluded from the decision-making process, but what is relevant is that the lack of consultation in the past has resulted in an

irreparable damage that could take some decades to heal, for example the violent and unstable situation in black schools and the perpetual inferiority and isolation of the black people.

3.10 THE LEGACY OF APARTHEID

The post-apartheid era in South Africa seems to experience serious educational instability. Black secondary and tertiary institutions still have to contend with academic strikes and violence in the Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Western Cape and Northern Provinces. Pupils and students have wanted radical transformation and improvements in their institutions since the inception of the democratic government in South Africa.

However, it must not be forgotten that Apartheid in its real sense started in 1652, long before the passing and implementation of the Bantu Education Act in 1954. Blacks and whites had to be entrenched separately in all spheres for the successful implementation of the Apartheid policy. According to Mphahlele (1992:211), it was that separation that was responsible for all the confusion, suspicion, jealousy and animosity that persisted and culminated in the riots of 1976.

Admitting the magnitude of redressing the educational imbalances, Dr Motswaledi, the then Member of the Executive Council for Education in the Northern Province, said that it would take more than five decades to practically and successfully redress the educational imbalances of the previous Apartheid regime. Dr Motswaledi referred to the following words of the Apartheid architect, Dr. H.F. Verwoerd when he said that he will reform Black Education “*so that Natives will be taught from childhood to realise that equality with Europeans is not for them. People who believe in equality are not desirable for the native. Education must train and teach people in accordance with their opportunities in life, according to the spheres in which they live*” (Motswaledi, 1995:2).

Using Apartheid laws to deprive the blacks of the opportunity to exercise their natural talents, Roux, a former Minister of Agriculture in 1950, explained that: “*We should not give the natives an academic education as some people are too prone to do. If we do this we shall later be burdened with a number of academically trained European and non-Europeans. Who is going to do the manual labour in the country?*” (Mphahlele, 1992:26).

In the light of the above exposition, it seems as if the legacy of Apartheid will keep troubling the educational authorities and the Government for a foreseeable period. Educational problems which have been deliberately and unconsciously created during the previous Apartheid Government is part of the painful past of this country. Even the

violence and unpeaceful atmosphere that have engulfed the educational scenario seem to be a result of the Apartheid policies.

3.11 POLITICAL MOBILISATION OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN YOUTH

In the previous dispensation (especially the past three decades), the black youth have shown unusual high levels of political mobilisation. During the period 1970-1985 the youth took part in several forms of mass action which included boycotts (of classes) meetings, rallies, pickets, spontaneous gatherings, spontaneous eruptions and riots.

The issues that motivated political action and mobilisation by the youth were numerous and varied but the most important centred around black education. In 1983 it was noted in research done by Schlemmer at Natal University in Durban that one of the greatest threats of unrest, in fact, came from black school leavers who faced scanty job opportunities (Schlemmer, 1985:4).

Minnaar & Payze (1996:1) expatiated that this was compounded by the perception that the black school system was turning out high numbers of relatively poorly-educated graduates who found it difficult to compete in and have their aspirations met by the economic system.

It would seem that the quality and standards applicable to the education that was made available for black students and scholars in South Africa was one of the pivotal activators of political mobilisation and protests by the black youth. With the introduction of the former Bantu Education, the degree of political mobilisation grew significantly. According to Minnaar & Payze (1996:2) schools were converted into sites of the struggle, with schoolchildren becoming frontline combatants. In support of the foregoing assertion, the mouthpiece of the South African Communist Party "The African Communist" (Roux, 1988:6) puts it as follows: "*... the mass political struggle in our country in the recent past has been characterised by the vital role that the youth and students have come to occupy in the broad frontline of the liberation formations. It is the youth which must spread the word of the revolution in all corners of the country, they have got to symbolise the spirit of resistance, the spirit of fighting.*"

Tambo (1987:10) encouraged the political mobilisation of the South African youth. "*For the battles ahead, the mass organisations and political mobilisation of the youth must be strengthened from the base upwards, from local units to national structures.*" He further urged the youth "*to act as the yeast, to energise and dynamise the people as a whole and act together with and not separate from them (adults). You must act as a disciplined revolutionary force ...*" (Roux, 1988:12).

Educational institutions inevitably became the strategic and central places for mobilising the youth to revolt against the previous South African Government. *“The school, the college, the university is far more than a place for formal education. It is also our assembly point, the locale at which we marshal our forces; organise them and take the opportunity to give the order of the day”* (Tambo, 1987:11).

Political mobilisation of the youth contributed to the unrest, disorder and disrespect in academic institutions. In acknowledging the situation of anarchy and unrest in schools, a concerned student (Roux, 1988:53) stated that *“students today do as they please. A class can be busy at work in one classroom only to find the next room behaving as if it was at a picnic. Most teachers don't bother to come after lunch because there are no children to teach.”* A headmaster (*The Star*, 26 March 1988:5) confirmed that *“teachers fear these kids. I have seen teachers being humiliated by 15 year-olds and doing nothing about it.”* Roux (1988:52) holds the view that the youth's future has been stolen from them in this way: *“They will have no future except as criminals and wastrels.”*

Educational stakeholders now have the responsibility to address the violent situation that has engulfed the academic institutions. Strategies and alternatives in addressing the anarchy and unrest that characterised black schools during the Apartheid era need to be developed. This might also serve as a warning to a democratised South Africa that political mobilisation of the youth and politicising of education cannot offer a permanent solution to the South African problems.

3.12 CONCLUSION

In the light of the above discussion, it is clear that parents and stake-holders would need to work like Trojans in addressing the culture of violence that has been characteristic of youths and students during the era of transition. The perennial problem of poor matric results, especially in 1999 with five provinces going down by an average of two percent, is an indication that students' associations need to focus their undivided attention to education. For two successive years the Northern Province has produced less than 38% overall matric pass and COSAS still talks of organising marches and disrupting classes in the new millennium if the policy of age limit is not scrapped completely in schools (*Sowetan*, 17 January 2000:4).

In assessing and concluding the political factors behind the unrest in South Africa it must be kept in mind that there are, in fact, a wide variety of issues which are and remain unique to the South African context. These issues kept the political mobilisation and activism of the youth at high levels throughout the period from 1970 up to the birth of a democratic South Africa. The core issues can be summarised as follows:



- The politicisation of the system of education.
- The poor or inferior standard of education provided with its accompanying low pass rate.
- Unmotivated and poorly qualified teachers.
- The insensitivity and apparent incompetencies of the previous Department of Education and Training and their lack of consultation concerning such issues as raising fees and the establishment of Student Representative Councils.
- Political violence also impacted on education by way of school attendance and the role of political organisations within schools by creating a support base for protective action.
- Issues such as segregation, Bantu Administration boards, group areas, whites-only elections, tri-cameral parliament and general discrimination on a racial base also played a major role in raising the levels of political consciousness and awareness among black scholars and students who might otherwise have remained politically inactive.

In the final analysis, the most serious consequence of the high level of political mobilisation and the resulting violence during the 1970's up to the 1990's was the incredible high numbers of marginalised youth, the so-called "lost generation" who had been devastated by the interruption of their academic programmes. *"They had been in the forefront of the violence. They had followed requests to boycott schools, were often responsible for ill-discipline (during stay-aways) and made up the shock troops used against the security forces or against other factions in the townships. By the early 1990 's they were bearing the brunt of the consequences of political mobilisation since they made up the core of the unemployed masses"* (Miller in *Daily News*, 28 November 1991:6).

4. SOCIETAL FACTORS

Le Roux (1994:28-29) states that societal factors can refer to a variety of socio-economic problems such as low economic and social status, low level of education, poor housing, limited privacy, insufficient or unsuitable food, inadequate parental care, neglect and rejection, parental absence, inferior occupation, unemployment, limited community movement and a limited potential for upward social mobility.

Crime, as well as the role of the family and the school as societal factors will be discussed in this study, and there will be focussed on how the mentioned societal factors can contribute to the situation of unrest and violence.

4.1 CRIME

4.1.1 Introduction

Conklin (1992:557) defines crime as an act that violates the criminal law and is punishable by the state. Vetter & Silvermann (1996:142) emphasise that all crime is political because it is a political body in this context (South Africa, the legislature) that defines an act as criminal. All other political and legal bodies (the courts and correctional systems) decide whether or not an individual has actually committed a criminal act, after which they apply mandatory penal sanctions (Vetter & Silvermann, 1996:142)

Crime is probably the most important concern of all law-abiding people in South Africa. It is one of the critical factors which will determine the future success or failure of most other initiatives aimed at a prosperous and peaceful future for all South Africans. According to the South African Police Statistics Report (1995:1) “... *it is especially true in view of the fact that South Africa has not in recent years fared well as far as comparisons with other countries regarding crime prevention and especially the incidence of violent crime is concerned.*”

No society is entirely free from crime. Twenty five years ago, Midgley, Steyn & Grasors (1975:15) stated that “... *neither are crime rates evenly distributed between societies, nor do they occur with the same frequency within the different sectors of any given society.*” They further added that there is considerable evidence taken both from official statistics and research undertakings to support the contention that incidences of crime vary significantly among the different communities, regions, classes and sub-cultures of modern industrial societies.

In South Africa, the level of political violence and crime has reached unacceptably alarming proportions, especially in Gauteng, the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. Crime in South Africa manifests itself in various forms such as murder, theft, vandalism, rape, prostitution, drug-dealing and child abuse. The urban terrorism of indiscriminate bombing of key buildings in Cape Town in 1999 is another form of violence and criminal activities that are currently experienced in South Africa. “*Property and human lives are lost in a tragic manner*” (Sowetan, 16 January 2000:6). According to the South African Police Statistics Report on Crime (1998:1), those societies experiencing few problems are

either socio-economically more homogeneous in composition, have strong cultural constraints inhibiting crime, or utilise draconian measures of punishment as a deterrent.

4.1.2 Types of crime

Researchers seem to differ in the categorisation of crimes. Vetter & Silvermann (1996:8) distinguish between two types of crimes, namely, felonies (serious crime) and misdemeanours (less serious offences) whereas Conklin (1992:29) maintains that there are three types of crime. They are: conventional, white-collar and victimless crime.

4.1.2.1 Conventional crime

Conventional crime is divided into the following two types of crime:

- (a) Person-directed crimes of violence include murder, forcible rape, robbery and assault, and
- (b) property crime refers to burglary, larceny, arson, fraud and motor vehicle theft.

4.1.2.2 White collar (economic) crime

According to Edelhertz (1998:15) “*white collar crime is financially and materially motivated and affects government transactions at local, national and international levels.*” Vetter & Silvermann (1996:143) define white-collar crime as offences perpetrated by persons of respectability and high-school status in the course of their occupations. Vetter & Silvermann (1996:143) state that white collar or economic crime are organised crime such as

- abuse of trust,
- employee theft,
- computer theft,
- business crime, and
- personal crime.

Conklin (1992:42) explains that organised crime is criminal activity by an enduring structure or organisation developed and devoted primarily to the pursuit of profits through illegal means.

Vetter & Silvermann (1996:155) call organised crime a *syndicated crime* which operates on the highest level. It is a criminal organisation that governs relationships between individual enterprises, regulates prices of illegal goods and services, allocates territory, settles disputes and offers protection. It operates nationally and internationally.

Conklin (1992:42) explains that organised crime is characterised by formal organisation, a division of labour, co-ordination of activities through rules and codes and an allocation of tasks in order to achieve certain goals.

During the past few years, especially since South Africa's re-entry into the global community and its advance from a pariah state to one of Africa's leading nations, organised crime seems to have grown to such an extent that it has become a cause of grave concern: "*The growth in organised crime is a global trend and has spread to South Africa because of the accessibility of its new markets to the international economy in general. Finally, South Africa is ideally situated on routes used for the trafficking of contraband to and from Europe, the Americas and Asias*" (South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:52).

The veil of secrecy under which crime syndicate leaders seem to operate, makes it even more difficult to detect and police organised crime. Organised crime in South Africa seems to share a number of common characteristics with this phenomenon elsewhere in the world, such as hierarchies of control with clearly designated rank structure, and even systems facilitating payment and promotion of its members.

In an interview with Captain Van der Merwe of the National Crime Information and Management Centre (18 April 1999) in Pretoria, it became clear that

- the weakening of border control has played a significant role in the increase of transnational organised crime.
- the lack of well-defined legislation prohibiting money laundering also makes South Africa an ideal location for money laundering through legitimate businesses. The South African market also has an insatiable demand for illegal goods, including firearms, drugs, vehicles and products such as rhino horn and ivory as well as for counterfeit currency.

4.1.2.3 Victimless crime

Conklin (1992:42) explains that victimless crime is an offence that is consensual and which lacks a complaining participant. It might be more accurate to refer to victimless crimes as *crimes without complainants* because some people might question the idea that there is no victim of crimes such as drug abuse, gambling, prostitution and pornography. What appears to be of crucial importance is that the offences usually involve willing participants in activities that violate the law.

4.1.3 The possible causes of crime

Researchers such as Vetter & Silvermann (1996), Freed (1963) and Davis & Slabbert (1985) are in agreement concerning the causative factors contributing to crime and violence.

It is not possible to single out a particular factor as solely responsible for violence and crime. A combination of factors always acts in a complex fashion to account for a crime to be committed.

As far back as 1957 a commission appointed by the Johannesburg City Council indicated that the principal factors operating in the community environment which promotes crime are poverty, overcrowding, lack of educational opportunity and lack of recreational outlet (Freed, 1963:264). The social setting in which people live put severe limitations on their moral and spiritual development as human beings (Ferron, 1990:123).

Thirteen years later the National Advisory Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Crime and Violence of 1970 suggested that *“to be young, poor, male, to be uneducated and without means of escape from an oppressive environment, to want what society claims is available, to see around oneself illegitimate and often violent methods being used to achieve material success and to observe others using these means with impunity – all this is to be burdened with an enormous set of influences that pull many toward crime and delinquency ...”* (Cape Town City Council Report on Crime, 1970:22). Other factors causing crime can, *inter alia*, be the following:

- **The factor of heredity**

Hereditary factors seem to play a negligible role compared to the family situation and the social environment of the individual. Researchers nevertheless acknowledge the important interaction between the biological and physical factors in the cause of criminality (Louw & Van Rooyen, 1994:15).

- **The factor of sex**

In research, Vetter & Silvermann (1996:251) found that among all races and for all ages, males seem to be more liable to crime than females. According to the South African Police Statistics Report (1998:2), 90% of the prisoners in South Africa consists of males.

- **The factor of age**

For both sexes the incidences of crime increase progressively from the younger to the older age groups, reaching a peak at the age of 20-25 years (South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:4).



- **The factor of nutrition**

Under-nutrition insofar as it may be associated with socio-economic inadequacy may predispose an individual to criminalism. A hungry and extremely poor person may likely resort to criminality in an effort to satisfy his biological needs (Hartell, 1995:57).

- **The factor of educational status**

Inferior educational status appears to be an important contributory factor in criminality (Pretorius, 1990:202). The factors responsible for a low educational status can include a broken home, lack of educational facilities and lack of economic competence to afford such facilities.

- **The factor of marital status**

Vetter & Silvermann (1996:252) found that unmarried persons are more liable to crime than married persons.

- **The factor of residential status**

Le Roux (1994:47) states that a domicile in an area of comparatively high population density can increase the liability of an individual to criminality. Room overcrowding insofar as it may be associated with poverty and issues in mental and physical ill-health, engender a form of escapist behaviour which may finally express itself in criminal behaviour. Pretorius (1990:207) explains that the relationship between low educational and residential status exists when the family breaks up. That is, the father works away from home, leaving the wife to shoulder the responsibilities without enough income.

- **The factor of urbanisation**

Rural-urban migration, motivated by the urge for economic improvement and intensified by rapid industrialisation is a factor which can increase liability to criminality. The conditions of poverty and slums confronting the urban masses and which are the outcome of defective social planning, provide the soil in which criminalism flourishes. Le Roux (1994:48) adds situation where the mother works away from home to supplement the low income of her spouse and leaves the children in a rural area without any responsible authority to guide them to maturity.

- **The factor of occupational status**

Occupational and economic factors appear to be closely related as determinants of criminality. Persons of either sex with a high occupational mobility and a low economic status appear to be more liable to criminalism than persons with a low occupational mobility and a high economic status (Vetter & Silvermann, 1996:253).



- **The factor of economic status**

Poverty appears to be responsible for a diverse variety of family problems. Economic necessity forces more than 50% of mothers to find employment outside the home in order to supplement the family income. The neglect of husband and children following in its wake leads to a break-up of the home, either by divorce, separation or desertion. The working mother, in helping to resolve the economic problems of her family, creates new ones which is worse, namely, a domestic atmosphere of psychological and spiritual insecurity from which the children in many instances find escape in a life of crime. Such unfavourable socio-economic circumstances, together with unemployment, can cause an increase in crimes motivated by need (South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:2).

- **The factor of alcoholism**

Alcoholism seems to be a major cause of domestic strife. The effects upon the parents and the children are often disastrous as it destroys their faith, their dignity and their capacity to cope with the elementary demands of life.

4.2 THE CRIME SITUATION AT NATIONAL LEVEL

The South African Police Centre for the Analysis of Crime Information reports that crime in South Africa has increased to such an extent that the scope of serious crime is beginning to take on exceptional dimensions. An analysis of the figures pertaining to the crime tendencies indicates that in the case of common unarmed street robbery and the illegal possession of firearms, a significant increase occurred during the first quarter of 1998, compared to previous years (South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:1). Lack of parental discipline and positive role models, a good market for stolen goods and drugs, poverty and guns which are easily available, are factors that could have contributed to the higher level of crime and violence referred to above (Loate in *The Star*, 23 November 1998:2).

The South African Police Statistics Report (1998:2) further states that categories of crime representing 24,3% of the crime figures accounted for by all the serious crime, namely, murder, common assault, commercial crime and malicious damage to property, increased during 1998. A march against crime organised by 600 doctors at the Chris Hani Baragwanath Hospital took place on 26 November 1998. *"We are often attacked at gunpoint in the casualty and other wards in full view of patients by criminals. It is common knowledge that attacks happen frequently outside the hospital and we feel that the world has to know about this"* (Traub in *Sowetan*, 24 November 1998:2).

According to the South African Police Statistics Report (1998:5-6) it is evident that

- bank robberies and the robberies of cash in transit increased by 28,1% during the first quarter of 1998 compared to figures reported for the corresponding period in 1997;
- cash involved crime rose from R110 million to R136 million in 1997. The cost of crime prevention to banks is around R500 million a year;
- car highjackings and highjackings of trucks with freight increased by 1,3% and 41,7% respectively during the first three months of 1998 compared to figures for the corresponding period in 1997;
- common robbery and the illegal possession of firearms increased in 1998; and
- in the case of murder, attempted murder, common assault, malicious damage to property, commercial crime and drug-related crime, the real incidence increased together with the ratios between the first quarters of 1997 and 1998.

In South Africa, increasing numbers of young people are being sent to prison. There are currently more than 12 000 juvenile prisoners in the country, many of them serious violent offenders (Dissel, 1998:410).

4.2.1 South Africa's ranking with regard to the incidence of serious crime compared to 96 countries, according to the 1995 Interpol report

TABLE 2: SOUTH AFRICA'S POSITION REGARDING SERIOUS CRIME

Category of crime listed in Interpol report	Position occupied from the top of the ratio spectrum
Murder	3 rd position
Sex offences	2 nd position
Rape	1 st position
Serious assault	10 th position
Theft (all kinds)	17 th position
Aggravated theft	16 th position
Robbery and violent theft	2 nd position
Breaking and entering	27 th position
Theft of motor cars	19 th position
Other thefts	13 th position
Fraud	18 th position
Drug offences	31 st position

[Source: South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:5]

It is evident from the statistics of Table 2 on the previous page that South Africa occupies a first, second and third position with regard to the incidence of rape, sex offences, robbery and violent theft and murder respectively.

4.2.2 Provincial comparison of crime ratios

Provinces depicting a higher incidence of specific crimes per 100,000 of the population than the RSA average during the period January to March 1998 are the following:

TABLE 3: CRIME RATIOS

Crime	RSA	Province 1	Province 2	Province 3	Province 4	Province 5	Province 6
PROPERTY RELATED CRIMES							
Housebreaking Residential	144.3	W-Cape 260.1	Gauteng 256.2	N-Cape 166.3			
Housebreaking Business	15.8	W-Cape 110.5	N-Cape 96.0	Gauteng 63.8	Free State 53.6		
Other robbery	31.8	Gauteng 68.6	W-Cape 55.8	N-Cape 48.5	North West 0.0		
Stock-theft	20.8	N-Cape 59.2	Free State 46.5	E-Cape 36.3	Mpumalanga 31.5	North West 25.9	
Shoplifting	32.4	W-Cape 59.3	N-Cape 57.4	Gauteng 46.0	Free State 33.0		
Theft: Motor vehicles	57.8	Gauteng 179.0	W-Cape 64.4				
Theft out of/ from motor vehicles	100.2	W-Cape 279.2	Gauteng 401.3	N-Cape 101.8			
Other thefts	236.3	W-Cape 434.1	Gauteng 401.3	N-Cape 363.7	Free State 253.6		
Fraud	35.7	Gauteng 77.1	W-Cape 58.4	N-Cape 41.0			
VIOLENT CRIMES							
Murder	13.0	W-Cape 21.7	N-Cape 20.2	Gauteng 18.2	KZ-Natal 15.7		
Attempted murder	15.3	W-Cape 27.1	Gauteng 21.7	KZ-Natal 16.5			
Robbery with aggravating circumstances	41.9	Gauteng 110.8	KZ-Natal 45.0				
CRIMES RELATED TO THE SOCIAL FABRIC							
Rape	28.7	N-Cape 49.2	Gauteng 41.7	W-Cape 39.3	Free State 31.7	North West 30.0	
Assault with grievous bodily harm	136.7	N-Cape 463.4	W-Cape 211.6	Gauteng 164.4	Free State 154.6	North West 152.3	E-Cape 149.7
Assault common	119.0	N-Cape 293.5	W-Cape 261.9	Free State 175.5	Gauteng 143.0		

[Source: (South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:11)]

Statistics indicate an increasingly serious crime situation confronting South Africa. Current crime tendencies, including organised crime, drug-trafficking, commercial crime and vehicle theft, also have a potentially devastating effect on the socio-economic situation of the country, as well as a negative impact on development issues. *“The extent of the criminal activities of organised crime constitutes a real threat to the credibility and*

the ability of the Government to assert its authority" (*Citizen*, 23 February 1999:11). Some 278 organised crime syndicates are currently known to be operating in the country specialising mainly in drug trafficking. In 1999 the South African Police arrested 373 organised crime suspects (South African Police Statistics Report, 1999:11).

It is, therefore, not surprising that the South African government has declared war against crime (*The Star*, 23 August 1998:3 and *Citizen*, 23 August 1998:1). Strong law enforcement measures have been announced by Mr Tswete, Minister of Law and Order to curb the escalating crime in South Africa.

4.2.3 Impact of crime

According to a survey done in October 1999 by the HSRC, 47,2% of people in South Africa have a perception that crime has increased drastically during 1998/1999. Forty-nine comma nine percent of the people are worried about the level of crime and an additional 22,6% are worried about becoming victims of crime and experience a feeling of fear, anxiety and unsafety in their own homes and communities (South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:1).

Crime has an impact on all aspects of life. The impact is generally measured in terms of the financial loss incurred as a result of crime, the physical harm caused to victims and the negative effect on the quality of life of the members of society.

4.2.4 Effects of crime

Glanz (1994:21) maintains that a sense of personal security is a basic requirement for a satisfactory quality of life. Experts agree that personal safety in South Africa is affected more by crime and the threat of crime than by anything else (Le Roux, 1994:47) and the phenomenal growth in the private security industry in South Africa is evidence of this trend (Glanz, 1994:21).

It is widely known that crime pervades all kinds of societies, and different sectors of society are differently affected by the threat of crime. "*The impact of crime is related to the vulnerability of an individual or a group. The threat of crime will have a greater effect on the lives of women and the elderly, for example, than it will have on the lives of young males*" (Glanz, 1994:21).

Glanz (1994:22) explains further that fear is known to be associated with behaviour that is actually conducive to crime in what can be described as a vicious circle. Fear also leads to avoidance behaviour, isolation and the erection of barriers. Natural surveillance and informal social control are then weakened and this facilitates crime.

The South African Police Statistics Report (1995:1) states that the negative consequences of crime are incalculable, as not only direct costs (damages running up to R115 billion during the first 8 months of 1995 alone, according to estimates contained in a report of the Nedcor project) are involved, but also a range of more or less hidden costs, among which the psychological scars left on society in general and the victims of crime and their relations in particular. In this regard the perceptions about crime held by society are of special concern, not only to the citizens of the country generally, but also to both foreign and domestic investors in the economy.

In 1995 McKenzie (*Sowetan*, 16 October 1995) summarised the severity of the crime situation in South Africa as follows: *“Angry and grieving doctors gathered at the weekend to demand a state of emergency as a result of South Africa's 'chaotic culture of crime' which claimed the life of a Park Lane Clinic physician last week. Prominent physician Dr Theo Kopenhagen called on the Government of National Unity to recapture the country from the hyenas and jackals who roam the streets, preying on innocent citizens. But now neither you nor your Government of National Unity is running this country. It is run by murderers, hijackers and thieves.”*

4.2.5 Crime as a contributory factor to unrest in South Africa

In the light of the above discussion, it is obvious that crime is one of the major contributory social factors to unrest and violence in South Africa. It is widely acknowledged that the quality of peoples' lives depend upon stability and a peaceful atmosphere prevailing in all aspects of life. It is also increasingly acknowledged that the lives of the youth are negatively influenced by the situation of unrest and insecurity. *“The youth of our country are the most valued possession of our nation. Without them there can be no future. Their needs are immense and urgent”* (Mandela in *Sowetan*, 7 May 1996:6).

In a society where crime has reached unacceptable proportions, and has pervaded all societal levels, it has become extremely difficult to inculcate positive values and norms in the minds of the youth. Political violence and crime have unashamedly become a “monster” and endemic to the entire community. Children are daily exposed to violence and criminal acts, for example in the murdering of school teachers in full view of learners. Children are likely to internalise the wrong modes of life and might later see crime as normal in a society. After all, children learn and live by the examples set by adults and society in general. The maiming of a school principal, Mrs. Jele at work on 19 April 1999, and Mrs. Mnisi of Olifantsvlei Primary School in Gauteng, is a clear indication that crime and violence are twin socio-educational problems that are seriously ravaging the South African society (*Sowetan*, 11 June 1999:2).

The *Sowetan* (10 April, 1999:8) commented as follows: “*South Africa needs to get serious about the senseless killings in KwaZulu-Natal. By the same token we are close to getting tired of the inability of the police to protect innocent peasants and children caught up in the insanity of political violence, unrest and criminal activities. At least 78 people were murdered in the region over Easter in crazy acts of murder that saw women and children once again the victims.*”

4.2.6 Conclusion

Crime statistics in South Africa indicate that crime is not only a serious social problem, but a complex phenomenon that influences all aspects of life. The unprecedented increase in crime and the intolerable level that crime has reached, remains a matter of national concern. South Africa cannot develop educationally, economically or socially when crime is rampant. Trying to reduce crime by relying on the criminal justice system seems to be relying on therapeutic or curative measures rather than preventive measures to deal with the root cause of the disease.

In this regard, Conklin (1992:552) asserts that eliminating the motivation to commit crime may be the most effective way to reduce crime in the long run. In the short run, the expression of this motivation may be minimised by developing informal control mechanisms that induce people to conform to the law.

Conklin (1992:552) adds that by creating a legitimate identity, a sense of competence and personal responsibility, as well as links to school and work, social policies can create a stake in conformity that makes the rewards of a law-abiding way of life and the risks of criminal behaviour great enough to reduce violations of the law.

Conklin (1992:552) concludes that increasingly harsh punishment seems less likely to reduce crime than policies that make it more rewarding to abide by the law. Policies that strengthen the institutions which tie people to others whose good opinion matters to them, are likely to be especially effective in reducing the crime rate in the long run.

Unless we mobilise communities to take action against crime and empower them to respond collectively to the threat of crime, we will allow crime to disrupt the essence of social life. Many communities have already suffered the onslaught of social disorganisation due to a wide variety of factors (South African Police Statistics Report, 1998:3).

It is, therefore, essential that South Africa with all its means at its disposal should address crime. In this way its social fabric can be retained. Children will then be able to advance

socially and psychologically *en route* to a full life as adults without the negative impact of crime. “Every effort should be made by means of community crime prevention to ensure that crime and the threat of crime do not contribute further to the social disorganisation of South African communities” (Sowetan, 17 January 2000:4).

4.3 THE FAMILY

4.3.1 Introduction

The family is the primary social and functional unit of any society and plays the most fundamental role in the developmental process of the child. Therefore, the child needs the support and guidance from the family in order to fully develop into a responsible adult. In this regard Mashile (1991:1) remarks: “*It is at home that the foundations are laid.*”

The family should be a source of economic and emotional sustenance and a source of continuing affection and encouragement. Christopher Lasch (Allan, 1978:198) calls it “*a haven in a heartless world.*” Unfortunately, it can also be a source of corrosive rivalries and jealousies, negligence, abuse, incest and violence. The family might not be declining as an institution but seems to be going through a period of rapid change and restructuring due to modernisation and Western influences.

Some families seem to be unable to execute their primary responsibilities owing to some or other pathology within the family. Violence in the family in particular seems to be far more common than is generally believed (Sowetan, 24 November 1998:2). Violence between spouses and between parents and children are on the increase (Martin, 1978:198). Already in 1978 Allan indicated that “*it should be noted that violence is not unilateral from male to female – there are also homes in which women inflict violence not only on their children but on their husbands*” (Allan, 1978:199).

Also in the seventies Kutash, Kutash, Schlesinger & Associates (1978:237) focussed the attention on the fact that there is no society that does not contain in its normative system some elements of acceptable limits of violence in some form. Although often severe, the use of physical force by parents to restrain and punish children is seen as permissible, tolerated, and encouraged and is thereby viewed as part of the normative process by which every society regulates its childrearing (Kutash, *et al.*, 1978:238). The application of force seems to be a form of violence that may be used to discipline the child to behave in an acceptable way. According to Kutash, *et al.* (1978:246) there is a sub-culture of violence in the broader cultural context, which is culturally transmitted from generation to generation. In this sub-culture, primarily in a lower socio-economic class which is disadvantaged concerning the traditionally known ways, the use of violence is either

tolerated and permitted or specifically encouraged from infancy to adulthood (Pretorius, 1998:27).

4.3.2 Theories on the causes of family violence

Buzawa & Buzawa (1990:15) state that theories of causation of domestic violence can be loosely classified into three general categories:

- Individually focused theories.
- Those that examine family structure.
- Those critically reviewing the legal, religious and economic basis of how violence is structurally based in society.

There is intense controversy among researchers regarding the causes of family violence and this may be due to profoundly different assumptions regarding societally defined roles of men and women and the ability of individuals to change behaviour in this context. However, this study does not intend to take sides in such a controversy, but to factually present the causes of family violence *per se*.

4.3.2.1 Individually oriented theories

These theories, according to Strauz, Gelles & Steinmetz (1980:40) focus on “... *the individual stressors created by poverty and unemployment; deep-seated associations between love and violence caused by physical punishment from infancy.*” It would seem as if patterns of poor self-control, low-esteem, immaturity, depression, schizophrenia, severe character disorders created by poverty, and efforts to keep control despite poor communication skills and commission of crimes by the offender outside the family, are insignificant. Buzawa & Buzawa (1990:16) indicate that minorities and the poor are subjected to a higher level of stress, a higher incidence of broken families, and in correlation with poverty, have higher rates of domestic violence.

4.3.2.2 Family-orientated theories

Family-orientated research primarily focuses on the determination of characteristics of the family structure that lead to high levels of domestic violence. The family is, therefore, viewed as a unique social grouping with a high potential for frustration and violence (Buzawa & Buzawa, 1990:17).



4.3.2.3 Violence against women

Concerning this perspective Buzawa & Buzawa (1990:18) say the following: “A *third approach to examining the causation of family violence uses a macro-level analysis to emphasize the 'structural violence' considered endemic against women in Western society. It has been accurately noted that societally sanctioned violence against women has been persistent since biblical times. Christianity, Judaism and other patriarchal religions seem to affirm a male-dominated family structure. Law, religion and behavioural sciences are seen to historically endorse the husband's authority and justify his use of violence to punish a disobedient wife.*”

4.3.2.4 Poor parent-child relationship as a cause of family violence

The parent-child relationship unquestionably plays a critical role in shaping the personality of the child. In spite of modern socio-cultural changes that came as a result of technological innovations and industrialisation, sound parent-child relationships still remain a prerequisite for the child's healthy personality development and his compliance to norms and values. Pretorius (1998:52), De Witt (1975:93), Brümmer (1985:24) and Santrock (1984:495) found that a healthy parent-child relationship results in less violent behaviour in teenagers.

Besag (1989:6) explains that if the child has been brought up in a warm atmosphere of support and acceptance, the child by mid-childhood, will have an emerging realisation of his own strengths and weaknesses. This awareness is accompanied by an acceptance of himself with a parallel acceptance of others. If the parent-child relationship is negative, the child will feel frustrated, angry and insecure. “*The negative emotions may then be turned inward, or unleashed upon others in the form of aggressive behaviour*” (Besag, 1989:61).

From the available literature it is clear that a sound parent-child relationship plays a significant role in the positive development of the child's personality – it can also result in permanent and irreparable damage to the child's self-actualisation (Dallas, 1972:81; Kantner & Zelnik in Santrock, 1984:495 and Van Rooyen & Louw, 1994:8). In this regard Pretorius (1998:11) found that poor parent-child relationships result in anxiety, withdrawn insecurity, frustration, instability, disrespect, anger, impatience and human intolerance in the child which makes him a possible culprit of crime and violence in the future.

Children exposed to poor primary family relationships suffer from the “*inability to establish satisfying scholastic achievement and inadequate motivation and zest for life*” (Van Rooyen & Louw, 1994:9). According to Van Rooyen & Louw (1994:9) many behavioural

problems of teenagers and children in general are attributed to poor and inadequate parent-child relationships. It seems that parents often have no idea of the child's psycho-spiritual needs. Love is often expressed as an excess of sweets or a new tape recorder, but in no other way. With puberty and the search for a secure adult identity, such children are very vulnerable to a variety of social influences.

According to Van Rooyen & Louw (1994:9), when the child experiences an unhappy father-mother relationship and consequently a disharmonious educative atmosphere, his chances of optimal personality development are diminished. Poor parent-child and father-mother relationships appear to have a great influence on the personality development of the child. Poor parent-child relationships seem to result in the inadequate establishment of basic authority patterns and a negative self-concept.

4.3.2.5 The socio-cultural context of male violence

At the societal level, male violence against women is seen as the manifestation of gender inequality and as a mechanism for the subordination of women (see par. 4.3.2.3 above). The critical roles that gender and gender relations play in directing male violence against women force the conclusion that male violence against women has deep roots in socio-cultural constructions of gender and heterosexuality (Koss, Goodman, Browne, Fitzgerald, Keate & Russi, 1994:4).

4.3.2.6 Sexual inequality and the propagation of violence

Understanding male violence against women requires an examination of the power inequalities between men and women, including, but not limited to legal, economic, and physical power inequalities. Such inequalities pervade the social constructions of gender and sexuality and profoundly affect the intimate relationship between men and women (Koss, *et al.*, 1994:6).

A variety of scholars have suggested that violence functions as a mechanism of social control of women and serves to reproduce and maintain the *status quo* of male dominance and female subordination (Koss, *et al.*, 1994:6).

4.3.2.7 Theories concerning marital violence and feelings of inferiority

According to Pretorius (1984:48) theories concerning marital violence explain that "*when the husband feels threatened in his position by a more skilful wife, he resorts to physical violence to maintain dominance in the family.*"



4.3.2.8 Tourette Syndrome as an example of hereditary genetic disorders as causative factors in family violence

Pretorius (1994:16) explains that Tourette Syndrome is a hereditary genetic disorder which manifests as a chemical imbalance in the space between neuron or nerve cells in the brain. It is characterised by involuntary motor movement and jerking contractions of any muscle and a wide range of behavioural problems such as defiance of authority, aggressiveness and violence, lying, stealing, destructiveness and poor inter-personal relationships.

4.4 FAMILY VIOLENCE AS A PHENOMENON

4.4.1 The concept “family violence”

According to Lystad (1986:52) family violence is an act carried out with the intention of, or perceived as having the intention of physically hurting another member of the family. Physical injuries can range from slight pain, as in a slap, to murder. Lystad (1986:12) defines violence in the family as behaviour that involves the direct use of physical aggression against other household members; this includes homicide, beating and forced sex. The most vulnerable to violence in the home are the least powerful in the family and in the society, namely the elderly, women and children.

4.4.2 Factors precipitating violence in families

According to Pretorius (1994:28) family violence is associated with the following factors:

- Low economic and social status
- Poor housing
- Limited privacy
- Insufficient or unsuitable food
- Inadequate parental care
- Indifference
- Neglect and rejection
- Parental absence
- Inferior occupation
- Unemployment
- Limited community involvement and
- Limited potential for upward social mobility.

Pretorius (1994:202) states that these characteristics are usually indicative of families that are caught up in a spiral or syndrome of poverty, deprivation and cultural destitution

because of their disadvantaged milieu and psycho-social impediments. These families “are seriously handicapped in their efforts to achieve optimal self-actualization, to improve their chances in life, and to achieve a satisfactory standard of living” (Pretorius, 1994:202).

4.4.3 Effects of family violence

The effects of witnessing violence may later lead to violent behaviour especially in boys. In a study on violence, Lystad (1986:63) found that although abused wives were no more likely to have witnessed parental abuse than non-abused wives, a strong and significant relationship existed between the husband's witnessing parents abusing each other and using physical violence on his wife. The researcher also found that nearly 82% of husbands who witnessed marital violence as children were also victims of abuse by their parents.

Lystad (1986:63) concludes that the male children of couples in which the wife is abused are clearly at high risk for developing into the next generation of abusive households.

Ongoing family violence leads to children suffering from feelings of low self-esteem, instability in their intimate relationships, anxiety, depression, suicide attempts, substance abuse, psychosomatic complaints and poor functioning in school and work situations (Finkelhor, 1988:109).

Pretorius (1998:109) found that when violence and disturbed relationships in the family develop, the family communication gradually degenerates into a pattern of inter-personal aggression and conflict, the children in the family practice violent interacting with one another and the norm is upheld that it is acceptable for family members to assault one another.

Naidoo (1994:16) indicates that violent parents breed violent children. He also states that recent studies indicate that the plight of battered women is becoming a major social issue in South Africa. He concedes that very little attention has been devoted to children whose exposure to parental violence left them vulnerable to a variety of other social and emotional problems.

“Children who were exposed to parental violence from an early age are more than likely to use violence to resolve conflicts in their adulthood” (Naidoo, 1994:16). The cycle of abuse can be brought to an end through promotive, preventive and therapeutic intervention. This network should include shelters, social support, education and advocacy for battered women and children, treatment for men who batter women and children and intervention

by community institutions (Naidoo, 1994:16). The vicious circle theory supports Naidoo's findings that children should be made to understand that violence is the wrong way to deal with anger and that other methods do exist.

In an attempt to break the vicious cycle of "*violent parents breed violent children*", Naidoo (1994:17) suggests that individual counselling can be geared towards helping "*the child face and deal with his or her own anger and see that alternatives to violence and helplessness are available.*"

In this regard children who are born and bred in a society where violence and crime have reached alarming proportions should be taught positive human relations skills as early as possible (Pretorius, 1998:111). Stories of love, respect for fellow human beings irrespective of their socio-economic, political and educational status should be taught in primary schools with the avowed purpose of building a positive image in the minds of the young (Naidoo, 1994:20). In senior primary and secondary schools, teachers can skilfully introduce the concepts of peace, respect, mutual co-operation, peaceful co-existence and negotiations in their different subjects that deal with civics and humanities. In that way a step in the right direction will have been taken in redressing the wrong that threatens to "pollute" the minds of the young ones (Comenius, translated by Keatinge, 1917:134).

4.4.4 Declination of societal morals

Societies all over the world have particular societal beliefs and practices that are respected, followed dogmatically and accepted as truths. These beliefs and sober practices help to keep societies intact. According to Haralambos (1990:5) societal beliefs are guidelines for behaviour and prescribe what is acceptable in a particular situation. These beliefs consist of norms and values which are peculiar to each culture and they differ from nation to nation and from race to race (Steyn, 2000:17).

Church leaders agree on the fact that the South African society have low morals (Hendrikz, 1995:22). This is evident *inter alia* by the level of the current violence sweeping across South Africa, causing schools and daily life to function abnormally under extremely difficult social circumstances. The decline in societal morals, especially in South Africa, could result in total anarchy, collapse of law and order and have a further damaging influence on the developing youth. Children need to grow up in loving, caring families which are typical of societies which uphold cultural norms and values. A state of mutual co-operation between schools, family, state and the public seem to be vital for the reduction of anti-social behaviour so that peace and stability can underpin all human efforts.



It appears that children who lack respect for teachers and parents are influenced by the modern Western lifestyle and the so-called “*moral values of free enterprise and the pursuit of profit*” (Thacker, 1987:5). In the South African context, the lack of respect for authority appears to be complicated by high incidences of violence that have negatively affected socio-educational centres. Consequently, the educational system struggles to equip the young people to take their place as responsible citizens and workers in a country with an uncertain future.

In this regard Piaget (1932:134), seventy years ago, emphasised that young people need to find themselves in the system that neither commands nor requires ritualistic and external obedience, but in a system of social relations where everyone does his best to obey the same obligations, and does so out of mutual respect. Piaget (1932:134) further recommended that the lack of respect for school authorities could be addressed by democratising the school structures. This, therefore, calls for “*anticipatory democracy in which staff and students share equally in socio-moral decisions about the rules and discipline of the school*” (Thacker, 1987:19).

Through the centuries values have served as the foundation for all human activities (Van Rooyen & Louw, 1994:5). Norms have directed the logical, social-ethical, the judicial and moral spheres. Man is a norm-orientated being and as such he is able to distinguish between right and wrong.

Norms serve as guidelines for behaviour and prescribe what is acceptable in a particular situation and society. Norms are rules for behaviour which affect both individual and group behaviour in a particular precept of society (Haralambos, 1990:5). Haralambos (1990:12) explains that a value is a general conception of what is desirable in social behaviour and it serves as a guideline in deciding on alternative actions. Cultural differences include differences in emphasis placed by different cultures or societies on values such as honesty, politeness, equality, self-confidence, respect for God and democracy.

It appears as if deviation from the traditional value system of institutions like initiation schools have resulted in a variety of problems such as a lack of discipline and immorality problems among the township youth of South Africa. Thomas (1987:5) in this regard concurs that initiation contributes to the maintenance of cleanliness, perusal of aesthetic values, promotion of socio-political cohesion and the prevention of promiscuity. It would seem that the youth in South Africa, especially in the violent townships, appear to have lost their traditional culture of “humanism” or “ubuntu” – the sound positive human values. A lack of self-control, privacy, physical purity, cleanliness, chastity and lack of total

dedication to marriage as an absolute value have led to an increase in phenomena such as illegitimate births, prostitution, rape, child molestation, sexually transmitted diseases and the Aids epidemic.

This requires that schools and families should rededicate their guidance efforts in dealing with the socio-pathological causes impeding the normal psycho-physical development of the child. Parents should take up their responsibility as primary educators in this regard. Close co-operation between the school and the family can be of great significance in the formation of the moral character of our youth.

Vetter & Silvermann (1996:311) emphasise the importance for the youth of a clear example of normed adult life as they find themselves in a situation where the *“rules governing behaviour are not sufficiently clear to permit them to anticipate in the actions of others or provide guidelines for their own behaviour in a specific situation.”*

In this regard Merton (1996:311) explains how some social structures exert a definite pressure on certain persons in society to engage in non-conforming rather than conforming conduct. Merton identified the following two characteristics common to all social structures:

- Cultural and moral goals which provide the direction for individual behaviour.
- Socially approved means or allowable procedures for achieving these goals.

Merton (1996:188) explains that, for many individuals, regulatory norms do not necessarily represent the most direct or efficient method of achieving moral objectives. He points out that there are alternative ways which specific individuals will find far more efficient for securing these desired objectives, including fraud, theft and violence.

Merton (1996:190) expatiates that, should all people in a society accept the goals and the socially approved means of obtaining them, there would be no deviant behaviour. When either the goals or the means for obtaining them are rejected, non-conforming behaviour occurs. The lack of concurrence between the means and the goals, represents what he calls, a state of “anomalie”, meaning the inequalities regarding education, economy, health and social status are cause for the lower income group to resort to crime and deviant behaviour.

Merton (1996:214) identified five courses of action that people follow to achieve social goals. They are:

- Conformity
- Innovation



- Ritualism
- Retreatism
- Rebellion

4.4.4.1 Conformity

In a stable society, conformity seems to be the most common form of adaptation. This ensures the continuity and stability of the society.

4.4.4.2 Innovation

An individual accepts the cultural emphasis on a specific goal without also internalising the institutional rules governing the methods for obtaining them. For example, in the South African society there is an undue emphasis on the acquisition of wealth without equal concern being given to the means employed to acquire it. Merton (1996:189) observes that in the lower classes with limited access to legitimate means for achieving success, the promise for high income and power from organised immorality, disturbances and delinquency represents an alluring alternative for achieving success.

4.4.4.3 Ritualism

In this context ritualism involves the abandoning or scaling down of the lofty cultural goals of wealth and rapid social mobility to a point at which one can successfully achieve them (Merton, 1996:190).

4.4.4.4 Retreatism

Merton (1996:212) views retreatism as typical of people who are “*in society but not part of it.*” They are unable to achieve goals by legitimate means and they cannot pursue them through the use of illegitimate means because of internalised prohibitions. Frustrated and handicapped, such people abandon both the goals and means and become psychotics, chronic drunkards, vagrants, tramps and drug addicts. These are society's drop-outs who cannot succeed legitimately and refuse to resort to legitimate means in order to be successful.

4.4.4.5 Rebellion

Individuals who adapt through rebellion, reject both the goals and the means and, for example, seek to establish a new or greatly modified social order, for example in Cuba, where a new communist-style social order was established in 1957 as a rebellion against the then *status quo*.



4.4.5 Conclusion

With reference to the South African context, Merton's theory suggests that the inequalities regarding education, economy, health and social status are cause for the lower income group to resort to crime and deviant behaviour. It implies that pressures toward deviation occur when there is a discrepancy between aspirations and the opportunities for achieving them. In this regard Glanz (1994:30) states that many people "*have internalised the success goal but are disadvantageously ranked in the social structure. High rates of crime and deviance may be expected among them.*"

In practice this means that pupils have to be taught how to conform to societal (family and school) norms and regulations for the sake of continuation, stability of the society, personal growth and scholastic progress. Children should be taught to innovate positively and not resort to negative tactics and misbehaviour in the pursuance of personal goals.

Family violence affects all members – the victim, the abusers and the witnesses. It has been demonstrated that the effect of this violence goes beyond the interaction of the family and pervades all aspects of life.

It is essential that teachers identify at an early stage the children whose family backgrounds are characterised by violent experiences and that they should offer the necessary guidance. Such children often display disciplinary problems (Ferron, 1990:123). They are emotional, unco-operative, aggressive and disobedient. South Africa should seriously address the effects of family violence by employing all educational stake-holders so that peaceful co-existence in family and society prevails.

4.5 EDUCATIONAL FACTORS: VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS

4.5.1 Introduction

Everyone involved with education is deeply concerned with the level of violence in our schools, especially in some black communities. The school functions abnormally in a climate of violence and disorder. The level of crime, disrespect and violence seems to sabotage the basic task and responsibility of the school. Teachers and educational stakeholders seem to be highly concerned about the "chaotic" and lawless conditions that characterise certain schools especially in KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and the Western Cape.

According to Rousseau, the great naturalist, it is at school where the battle is lost and won. This seems true in the light of the school's role in shaping the social, moral, intellectual facets and personality of the child. Because of the immense responsibility of

the school, the existence of an atmosphere of peace and pedagogical love seem to be a prerequisite for the successful development of the total personality of the child.

Teachers and parents have to understand the dynamics of school violence. Research studies undertaken by Rich (1992:91) indicate that school violence is associated with the following aspects:

- The causes of violence in schools.
- Approaches on causes of school violence.
- The role of the school in addressing violence.

4.5.2 The causes of violence in schools

The causes of violence in schools seem to be varied and confusing. The influence of the home environment could also be a significant cause of violence at school. Children who display violent and delinquent behaviour often come from a poor family background. In research carried out by Thurstone, Feldhusen & Benning (1993:341) it was found that violent and disciplinary problems at school are mainly influenced by the home environment. These homes were characterised by

- discipline by the parent which was either laxing, overly strict, or erratic;
- discipline by the parent which was either irregular or otherwise inadequate;
- indifference or even hostility of parents towards their children;
- the family seldom operating as a unit;
- parents having difficulty involving children in talking things over;
- the husband-wife relationship lacking closeness and equality of partnership;
- the parents finding fault with their children;
- mothers not being happy with the community in which they lived;
- the parents' responding to a child's inappropriate behaviour with anger and physical punishment of the child;
- parents believing that they had little influence on the development of the children;
and
- parents leisure time including few cultural or intellectual activities.

Furtwengler (1992:45) argues that negative circumstances in schools can also contribute to violence. Serious cases of inappropriate and violent behaviour can result from negative school experiences. For example, when some students experience repeated failures or never receive the rewards that other students of different ability and status receive. The violence at Vryburg High School in the North West Province has further highlighted that inappropriate and violent behaviour in school can polarise pupils of diverse culture.



Babeile, a matric pupil at Vryburg, was sentenced to three years hard labour for stabbing his fellow white pupil with a pair of scissors. A lack of racial tolerance, respect and accomodativeness among learners in multi-cultural schools can contribute to stressful relations and violence (Sowetan, 19 April 2000:5).

Other writers such as McPortland & McDill (1992:20) suggest that schools cause violence and behaviour problems because they fail to involve students in any of the decisions affecting their lives in schools. According to the National Institute of Education Report on Violent Schools versus Safe Schools, large city and township schools experience discipline problems as a result of their large enrollment and impersonal and overcrowded conditions which make it difficult to manage the school's organisational administration.

4.5.3 Approaches on causes of school violence

4.5.3.1 School disorganisation approach

This approach predicts that school violence would likely erupt whenever disorganisation and “anomalie” are sufficient to precipitate disequilibrium²⁶ in the school system (Merton 1996:210). It is unlikely that schools will experience much violence if they can create a normative consensus, developing compelling goals and consistent procedures for achieving them and institute effective socialisation practices. Schools need to improve the socialisation of students via the co-operative efforts of administrators, teachers and counsellors.

4.5.3.2 Conflict approach

The conflict approach was propagated by Karl Marx who viewed society as being in a perpetual struggle against capitalism and stratification of people. According to Rich (1992:91) the conflict approach views society as a struggle between contrasting and opposing groups. Each group pursues its own values, which may be in conflict with the values of other groups. Therefore, from the perspective of one's own group membership, other groups would appear to be deviant. Violence may likely erupt from conflicting values held by students or pupils versus those of the teachers and adults.

4.5.3.3 Labelling approach

According to Rich (1992:91) labelling consists of classifying an individual and attributing a negative status to the label, for example drug addiction, alcoholism, truancy, delinquency, vandalism, jail-bird, *et cetera*. This may sometimes occur in some of the multi-cultural schools, thus resulting in strained relations between the affected individuals.



4.5.3.4 Differential association

The differential association theory was developed by Rich (1992:92). It states that deviant communication and unlawful behaviour can be learned. Deviant behaviour specifically, is learned through a process of social interaction in which language and gestures are employed and it is learned within intimate personal groups, for example, peer groups, friends, cliques, classmates, cultural clans, *et cetera*.

4.5.4 The role of the school in addressing violence

Violence can be curtailed and addressed by firm pedagogically democratic disciplinary measures and the teaching of values such as honesty, modesty, respect, love for one's fellowman, charity and humility. Vorster & De Meillon (1991:90) support the idea that traditional moral and religious education which emphasises the teaching of the Christian Scriptures and the virtues of honesty, service, self-control, friendliness and other moral virtues, should be taught in schools.

The task of teachers is to help South African children on the path of self-direction and knowledge, and to help those morally lost along the way, "*Pupils are not in a viable state of mind to learn*" declared Sibiya (*Sowetan*, 21 August 1994:6). He further explains that the majority of pupils require rehabilitative education because of exposure to crime, political violence and other disciplinary disturbances in education. These pupils are no longer in a viable frame of mind as far as education is concerned. Sibiya (*Sowetan*, 21 August 1994:6) further suggests that the education ministry must seriously consider implementing a rehabilitative programme to assist such pupils. The question of prevention rightfully comes to mind in this regard.

Children should be taught concern for the rights of others, respect for peace and order and the understanding that law enforcement officers are friends and not enemies. Too many children today are not taught these values at home, so the message should reach them in the classroom. In this regard, Asmal states that "*It is our non-negotiable intention to make our schools the centres of community life, havens of peace and not places of violence and conflict*" (Asmal in *Sowetan*, 1999:3).

Furtwengler (1992:40) argues that self-direction in children is an overriding educational goal. Socialisation is inherent in self-direction. Random unsocialised behaviour is the very antithesis of self-direction. Developing self-direction in children means helping them to become responsible individuals who know how to act and to care for themselves and others.

Furtwengler (1992:37) expatiates that what we need in our schools and society is “nicer” people: pupils and people who are rich in spirit, people with more trust and tenderness, people who care for and share with one another, who have the capacity to discover and appreciate the worth of others and who are not disturbed by differences in background, behaviour and life-styles – people who have a positive self-image. In short, people who want to be better human beings in a more humane society.

The role of the school in combating, reducing and addressing violence is a mammoth task requiring the sound co-operation of all stakeholders in education. Morales (1990:115-116) suggests that the teacher should involve the students in the development of a set of classroom rules. These rules should be stated positively; they should be short and few though adequate to manage classroom behaviour, attention of pupils, noise levels, movement and interaction in class as well as create respect, love and co-operation.

The role of the school in addressing violence primarily revolves around the non-violent resolution of classroom conflict. This presupposes that conflict management is one of the major tasks of a teacher. Pupils and students have to be taught the key aspects of non-violent principles in conflict resolution. This will probably help them in positively addressing violence and conflicts.

According to Roland & Munthe (1989:131), aspects of non-violent conflict resolution include *inter alia*:

- Non-violent principles that reject the use of force and violence in any form – be it on the personal, social or political level.
- Non-violent strategies that deal with problems and conflicts consciously, constructively and imaginatively.
- Non-violent strategies that create a trusting atmosphere in which the personal worth of every individual is respected, regardless of her or his social, cultural or family background.
- Endeavouring to establish open communication.
- The desire to think critically and work together towards finding a common solution to problems.

Roland & Munthe (1989:137) further states that teaching and learning conflict resolution skills in the co-operative classroom include the following:

- Self-respect and respect for others
- Communication
- Assertiveness

- Open-mindedness and critical thinking
- Empathy
- Co-operation

School policy could be adjusted and prioritised to pay special attention to programmes of non-violence as a means of solving school violence and differences among pupils and between teacher and pupils.

The school should also resort to a democratic type of school governance structure that could serve as a binding code of conduct to all structures within the school (Metcalf in *City Press*, 24 March 1996:5) . Such a code of conduct should serve as a blue-print in addressing areas of conflict and violence within the school. It must serve as an appropriate avenue for students, teachers and parents to address grievances. According to Metcalfe (*City Press*, 24 March 1996:5) such “a student code of conduct” should endorse the following basic principles and values:

- Democracy
- Non-violence
- Respect
- Responsibility and accountability
- The creation of an environment conducive for learning and teaching.

4.5.5 Educational implications of the foregoing approaches

From the information gathered in the above discussion it is found that teachers need to improve the socialisation of students through co-operative effort and formative power. The teacher-pupil relationship can be enhanced through dialogue and positive approaches when dealing with crucial issues (Rich, 1992:91).

The educational implications of the conflict approach is that in order to reduce conflict and alienation, one could identify those groups in which such tensions are likely to be found. One way to reduce violence can be to observe and enforce student rights and for students and parents to participate in the development of a student code.

In the case of the labelling approach, the teacher may transfer labelled students to an alternative education programme (Rich, 1992:92). The teacher should avoid labelling at all cost, especially labelling affecting the personality of the pupil.

In the case of the differential association, the teacher needs to strive to teach his pupils to associate with law-abiding people. Primary group relations need to be regulated, student sub-cultures more carefully supervised and sound role models supplied: “*We educate our*

children more by what we do than by what we say and even more by what we are than by what we do. To put it in another way, the principle means by which we can help the child to develop towards adult maturity is by providing the personal example of our own adult life” (Van Rooyen, 1996:10). Teachers and adults must always be excellent role models to pupils and never contradict norms and rules. In that way, pupils can associate with them.

But since the differential association problem extends beyond the school, administrators could establish after-school programmes in high violence stricken areas to get students off the streets and provide them with healthy recreational and learning activities. Greater parental and community involvement in schools may help to reduce violence.

4.5.6 Educational factors

Education is perhaps the most powerful tool in shaping the direction and development of society. It contributes towards skill formation, productivity and learning of new ideas and techniques. It is through education that culture and tradition are transmitted from generation to generation (Lowry & O'Connor, 1986:169). Educational factors contributing to a situation of unrest and hostility can include the following:

- Lack of discipline in schools
- Lack of sound motivation
- Lack of meaningful facilities
- Lack of educational curriculum
- Lack of family planning education
- Lack of effective educative teaching
- Rejection of authority
- Lack of political education and literacy

These factors are discussed briefly:

• Lack of discipline in schools

Lack of discipline seems to be a common feature in our schools. According to Vorster & De Meillon (1991:91) discipline basically means voluntary subjection to authority, implying obedience to orders and instructions. Discipline is an indispensable phenomenon for socially acceptable behaviour. Discipline is necessary to maintain a certain standard of social conformity so that the community can function in an orderly, fearless manner.

Through discipline the child realises the necessity for order in the world and that to maintain order some forms of behaviour are abhorred while other forms are praised

(Hamachek, 1995:440). As mentioned previously, children should, therefore, be instilled with concern for the rights of others, with respect for peace and order and with understanding that law enforcement officers are friends and not enemies (Vorster & De Meillon, 1991:91).

It appears that many children are not taught sound values at home like respect for adults, peers and teachers. It is the duty of the school to teach children the values of self-discipline, order, respect and humility. Firm pedagogical love and respect should be used to guide children in developing a positive forming of sound relationships with peers and adults. Peace within the child and love for his neighbours should be inculcated at school if the home has failed to carry out its responsibilities.

If discipline is lacking or is not applied in a pedagogically acceptable way in a family, then the children will generally be ill-disciplined and consequently be disrespectful, recalcitrant and disobedient to any order that exists at school. It seems that alarming reports of misconduct, ill-discipline and consequently disrespectful, recalcitrant and disobedient behaviour are found at schools. Even criminality among pupils in classrooms overseas and locally can be related to the lack of pedagogical discipline both in the home and at school.

Lack of discipline can result in the disruption of the school. As an organised institution, schools should identify and address any disciplinary problems and misbehaviour at an early stage so that the child is given the necessary pedagogical guidance. Besag (1989:74) asserts that long-term studies are starting to indicate that children with disciplinary and social problems have a high risk of taking those problems with them into adult life and even passing them on to their own children.

It seems as if effective learning and academic success are very important to both children and adults. Unless our children are socially secure, well adjusted and feel accepted by both teachers and peers, it might be extremely difficult to see the fruition of teachers' and parents' labour. Children can only learn meaningfully if the learning environment is free from bullying, truancy, immorality, disorder, disrespect and antagonism.

As stated in the foregoing paragraphs, it appears necessary and vital for teachers to be in a position to identify the disciplinary problems and maladjustments at an early stage. *“Teachers have always had to battle against inattention, idleness, irresponsibility, vandalism, bullying, fighting, defiance, truancy, impertinence and personal attack”* (Wheltall, 1992:64).

The main purpose is to maintain pedagogical discipline in the didactic situation. This seems to be a crucial question that most South African schools, particularly in the black townships, have to tackle so that the learning culture consisting of positive values is restored. Pedagogical discipline has to be prioritised as a mechanism of avoiding the degeneration of schools into unrest, unstable and violent arenas. Rich (1992:157) expresses the same sentiment that schools cannot effectively operate in an atmosphere of violence, disrespect, uncertainty and restlessness. It is, therefore, obvious that lack of discipline has to be solved before normal schooling and effective teaching as well as meaningful learning can be realised.

- **Lack of sound motivation**

According to Vorster & De Meillon (1991:170) motivation is the activation of the conative disposition of a person, either by the person himself or by another person. It is focused on functioning in order to attain a goal or goals. These mentioned authors (1991:173) state that both pleasant and unpleasant measures for encouraging extrinsic motivation should, therefore, be circumspectly applied. The educator needs to apply some form of encouragement at any developmental level in order to instil positive values in the developing youth. Parents and teachers can extrinsically motivate their children to take the lead in peace dramas, projects and conferences.

Motivation has to be channelled towards achieving positive values. In this way children will grow up with a sense of responsibility, love for their neighbours and abhor any sort of violence as a means of settling disputes.

- **Lack of a meaningful curriculum**

A curriculum embodies all the philosophical and cultural aspects stipulated in syllabi. The school curriculum has to be relevant, interesting and meaningful to the learner. This can be achieved if the developmental level of the learner is taken into account. The curriculum has to consider the practical needs of the pupils and the society at large, lest it becomes irrelevant (Department of Education and Training, 1997:2).

It does appear that the curriculum content in humanities, such as history in secondary schools, fails to take cognisance of the multiculturalism and pluralism of the South African society. The school curriculum does not always teach the pupils what they feel they need to learn. In ordinary life, the youth experiences cases of divorce, crime and violence through the media and movie theatres. However, the school curriculum is completely silent on such practical activities. Although the school cannot address all the societal problems on its own, it can co-operate with community organisations and families in devising programmes to present after school (Department of Education and Training,

1997:5). The media could be approached and requested to report on positive aspects of life and pay less attention to crime and violence. It can concentrate on conflict resolution skills and non-violence as key strategies of solving problems (Department of Education and Training, 1997:3).

A meaningful curriculum has to be designed in consultation with educational stake-holders (Department of Education and Training, 1997:11). The idea is to utilise the curriculum in order to foster positive ideals and tackle key aspects of life such as divorce, unrest, violence and peace education as well as political education.

Children are future politicians and have to be prepared for the political life of the future. The principles and philosophies of each political party have to be explained to children so that they as future adults will be in a position to take informed decisions about political views and alignments.

- **Lack of educational facilities**

Lack of educational facilities and resources are prevalent in the South African set-up. Children, especially blacks, learn for example, about science without the relevant facilities and resources. As a result pupil interest in the learning activity *per se*, is low because they lack scientific apparatus, basic laboratory equipment and relevant textbooks. Science in particular cannot be taught without adequate educational facilities (*New Nation*, 1994:5).

Kambule, in *New Nation* (1994:5) states that the then Government of National Unity is talking about electrifying millions of houses whereas it fails to supply schools with electricity facilities. Books and teaching aids are inadequately provided. This lack of basic educational facilities may prove to be the breeding ground for unrest and disrespect. This may also result in frustration and eventually in disorder from pupils.

It is, therefore, clear that meaningful education can only take place when adequate educational facilities are provided for all communities. Disorder and unrest situations will likely be experienced at institutions where inadequate resources are provided.

- **Lack of adequate education at home**

Mashile (1991:1) states that the child's ability to benefit from education is primarily dependent upon the quality and quantity of informal education at home. The spontaneous process of teaching and learning in the home is in fact the prototype where the education phenomenon may be seen in its original and pure form.

Kriegler (1989:18) states that informal education determines attitudes towards formal education, enabling the child to mobilise such strategies applicable in the classroom situation. Undoubtedly, the mother is the most important person in the education of the child. Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer (1982:89) assert that she is the first educator who creates a sphere of security which eventually invites the child to venture into the world and mix with others.

Mlondo (1987:2) mentions the indispensability of a natural mother. The mother is, therefore, the first person who shapes a child's behaviour, and the one who sustains his/her total development. "*The mother serves as a model that the child can imitate, including actions that mirror his own*" (Mashile, 1991:2). This seems important in the early stages of the child's life when the limitation of his control confines his initial behaviour to imitate the model provided by a mentor.

Mlondo (1987:3) explains that without a mother, a child is susceptible to a variety of problems as he/she grows up. In the case of an employed mother, the co-existence with the child is disturbed as she spends the whole day or the best part of it away from home at the time when her child needs her most.

Maternal and parental deprivation results in insufficient interaction between the child and his natural educators. This may lead to hostility, rejection, cruelty, lack of affection and psychological instability (Mlondo, 1987:3). This could eventually develop into a violent and disobliging personality.

- **Lack of preparation for adult and family life in the home**

The family environment is a most powerful factor in determining children's level of school achievement and socialisation. It represents an informal learning situation in which the family, more particularly parents, act as natural educators. Mashile (1991:15) maintains that the family is an arena in which virtually the entire range of human experience can take place. He further states that the degree in which parents are involved in their children's schooling by way of active participation, showing interest, giving encouragement and being a positive example is crucial to the successful outcome of education.

Pellegrini (1988:117) declares that homes that are supportive before school, tend to continue being supportive when children attend school. So there is every chance of those already having an enriched experience becoming richer, while those with impoverished beginnings get poorer for many interactive reasons.

Silvern cites Schaefer (1996:46) who found that parents who were supportive, curious, imaginative and positive in their approach to life, had a modelling influence in their children's development of these behaviour patterns. He also found that this positive parenting behaviour correlates with the socio-economic environment.

It seems that most children who are supported and guided by their parents, have little disciplinary problems at school. Parents, in particular the mother, are strategically placed to exert a positive influence regarding family and sexuality education of the developing youth and avoiding possible future marital breakdown, delinquency, violence, promiscuity and teenage pregnancies. This will help the child in developing positive human relationships, sound values of respect and love for fellow human beings based on sound moral principles.

- **Lack of political education**

Political education and literacy are aspects that need serious attention in the preparation for adult life. The aim is clear: to enable young people to internalise those values which are essential to the maintenance of the democratic form of life and to contribute constructively to those social institutions which affect their welfare (Thacker, 1987:9).

It appears that social, personal and educational development cannot escape political issues. Education has to serve a socio-political purpose in most countries (Thacker, 1987:9). Political education is concerned with the quality of personal life, but the quality of that life depends on the sort of society one lives in and on the social relationships created within it.

Political education and literacy appear to be a neglected aspect in South African schools. The ideological and cultural intolerance can be discussed and possibly be overcome through this type of education. In an investigation on "politieke geletterheid", Trümpelmann (1986:14) concludes that political literacy is essential to the democratisation of a country. People may and should differ constructively, without hatred. Political education promotes positive political ideals of tolerance and acceptance of another's opinion.

Teachers are required to be very objective and non-partisan in the didactical execution of this sensitive aspect of education.

- **Lack of effective educative teaching**

In effective educative teaching the child and his teacher are involved in sharing the educative experience. According to Vorster & De Meillon (1991:29) effective educative teaching is characterised by:

- Challenge and encouragement
- Personal feedback
- Consideration of the learner's personality
- Being didactically flexible

A lack of effective educative teaching seems to be prevalent in South African schools. Involving the learners in the educative teaching process and didactical flexibility appear to be ignored. Teachers seem to be interested in covering the stipulated syllabus at the expense of the children. Lack of effective educative teaching seems to lead to more educational problems such as boredom, inattention, truancy, failing and demotivation. Where effective teaching occurs, absenteeism decreases as children might feel that they will miss an appealing and thought provoking lesson. The subject matter becomes magnetic to children and the general class average and individual performances will likely improve. Children who enjoy their tuition, have little time for developing negative values.

• **Conclusion**

Violence in the school cannot be addressed successfully if violence in the family and the community in general is not solved. Violence, lack of psychological and physical peace, crime and disciplinary school problems should be accorded the highest priority in the allocation of financial resources and planning of educational policy. In other words, a holistic approach seems to be the only remedy to the eradication of violence. Children cannot achieve the desired adulthood learning in violent, restless, anti-social, and disrespectful environments.

Regardless of the combination of causes of a specific source of violence and disciplinary problems, it is important for the school to try and teach the appropriate social values of honesty, humility, love for fellow human beings, co-operation, kindness and appropriate behaviour to avoid focusing on its own contribution to inappropriate acts among students. If committed to its educative goal, schools still have a definite positive role in teaching the concepts of peace and humility to children.

In view of the fact that both the family and the school are two powerful societal institutions most concerned with the growth, socialisation and education of the child, a sound relationship between the two seems to be indispensable for successful learning by the child. Discussions and mutual understanding between the school and family about children's behavioural and disciplinary problems could go a long way in addressing some negative behaviours that seem to characterise modern South African schools, especially in the black communities.

Due to the fact that some parents, especially blacks, are both working far from their rural homes, the responsibilities of guiding and educating their children shift to the school. “Society then looks to the school to produce future citizens who will be able to meet the challenge of a rapidly changing world ...” (Cunningham & Radford, in Van Rooyen, 1996:12) – a world in which some of the lessons taught yesterday may be quite out of place tomorrow or even today.

Teachers, therefore, have to be equipped with relevant and the latest information about skills in conflict management in order to help the pupils. They have to set true examples and become role models and ambassadors of what they purport to teach. In this regard Van Rooyen (1996:15) remarks that it makes no sense for educators to talk about the importance of teaching respect only to reveal disrespectful behaviour themselves, or to talk about the importance of self-esteem in the paying of respect and then make children feel bad about themselves.

5. ECONOMIC FACTORS

The economic stability, especially in the family, plays a critical role in the general advancement of the family. Children will not grow and study effectively if they have to contend with empty stomachs at school and home. Adverse economic conditions can manifest itself in serious social problems such as poverty, shortage of housing and unemployment.

5.1 VIOLENCE AS A MANIFESTATION OF THE CULTURE OF POVERTY

5.1.1 Poverty: A major social problem

Poverty is one of the greatest problems that South Africa is facing today. According to Heyman (1991:35) about 25% of the population in South Africa live below the proverbial breadline. Poverty is a worldwide phenomenon of considerable topical interest. It designates a social grouping with low socio-economic and cultural levels and scant social and economic status (Pretorius, 1990:202).

Poverty seems to be one of the major social problems facing large sections of South African communities. “Poverty is associated with crime, illiteracy, sub-economic standards, inferior educational status and politically oppressed communities as well as large families” (Ramushu, 1992:29). The relationship between crime and poverty is direct. Lack of food will cause a child to steal (Vorster & De Meillon, 1991:125).

Campos, Raffeallo, Ude, Creco, Antunes, Halsey, Greco, Ruffilia & Rolf (Hartell, 1995:70) quote a 17 year-old street child who says that “it is very difficult to live on the street; you

have to steal. If you don't steal, you don't eat. You have to be able to run or the police will get you. You have to risk your life in exchange for food and clothes."

Pretorius (1994:29) and Rutter & Madge (1981:5-6) maintain that families in disadvantaged environments are subjected to adverse factors such as poverty, physical deficiencies and the high mobility and uprooting of families caused by migrant labour and urbanisation. Pretorius (1994:27) describes poverty as *"the biggest disaster to strike planet earth since World War I devastated Europe."*

Poverty, malnutrition and high birth rates are causes and effects of one another and all play a part in the carnage. Death also seeks out poverty – for every white infant, over ten black babies die in South Africa (Pretorius, 1994:47).

Pretorius (1994:47) views poverty as deficiency in the amounts of food, clothing and finance that are regarded as the minimum criteria for a decent standard of living. Van Niekerk & Bondesio (1990:117) argue that intellectual ability, social style refinement, cultural practice, economic productivity, learning styles and needs must not be ignored when identifying a poverty culture.

For the purpose of this research, poverty is simply regarded as a condition where a person's income is insufficient to provide the necessary means of livelihood.

5.1.2 Characteristics of the culture of poverty

Parents rear their children so that eventually, as adults, they will be able to participate constructively in a society. Children from poor families display a variety of characteristics that include

- deprivation,
- ill-health,
- under-nourishment,
- communication and language deficiency,
- an opportunity-deprived existence,
- limited social status, and
- violence (Pretorius, 1994:36).

5.1.3 Violence as a manifestation of a culture of poverty

Pretorius (1990:211) states that because of a low self-concept and frustration, a poor person will be inclined towards aggressive, violent and destructive behaviour. According to Pittock (1992:32), Lamb (1992:36) and Mazumbar (1989:12) the section of society that



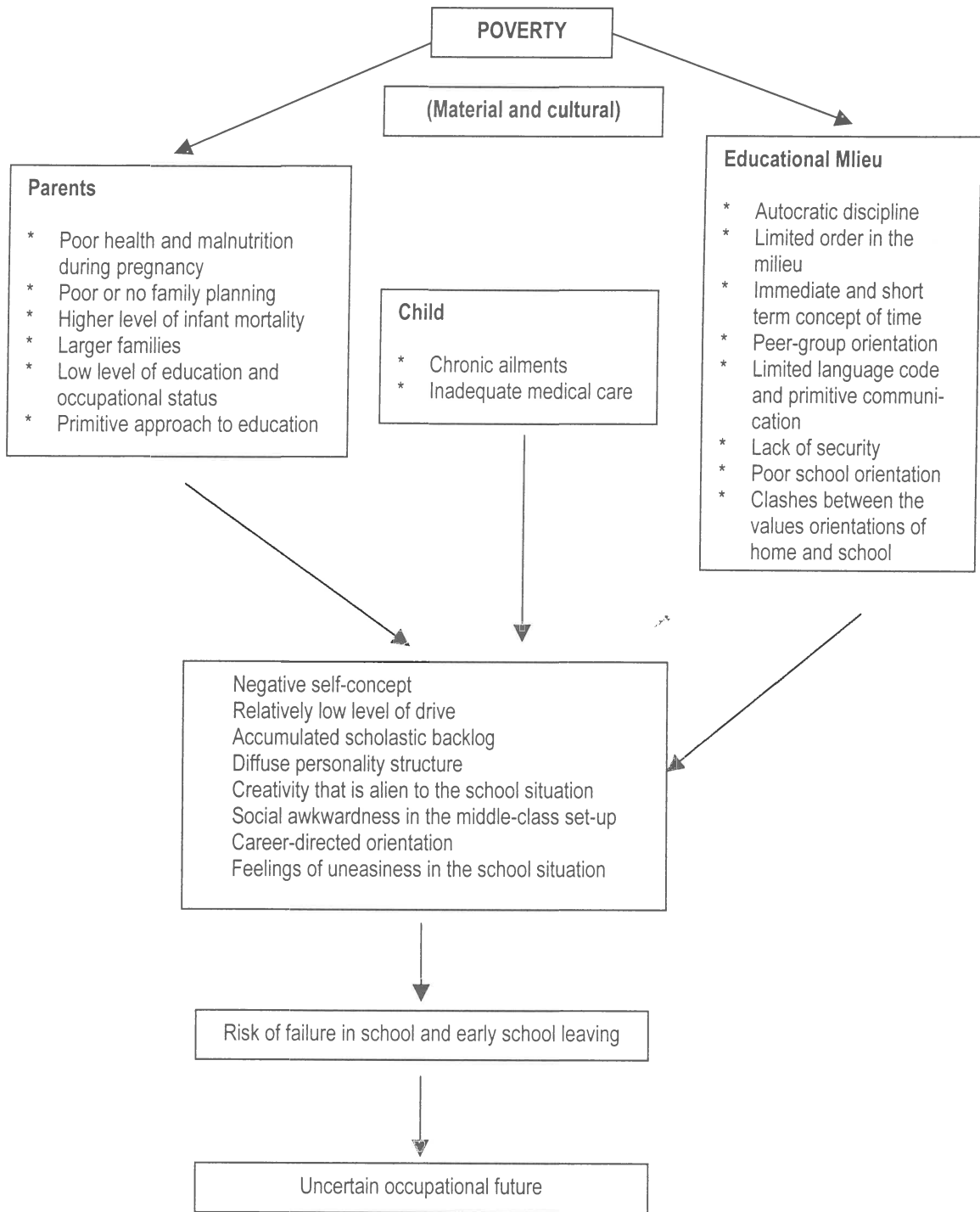
has a culture of poverty, typically has to cope with violence. Bluen & Odensnik (1988:5) describe the conditions as follows: overcrowding, the break-down of cultural, financial and social support systems, continued harassment by security forces, a high crime rate, unrest and violence. At present, poverty, violence and unemployment pose a serious problem to the metropolitan areas and the KwaZulu-Natal regions. Violence is part of the daily existence and way of life of the members of a poverty culture. Unlike the peaceful suburbs, the black environment of the poverty-stricken is punctuated by outbursts of violence. These are some of the harsh realities that dominate the daily lives of the people of KwaZulu-Natal and townships in the metropolitan areas.

Mncwabe (1990:37) has strong views on the causes of poverty that is evident in South Africa: *“Perhaps the answer could possibly lie in the perception that race, colour, et cetera, have for a very long time been unjustly used as a criterion for unequal treatment.”* Mncwabe (1990:23) describes the members of a culture of poverty as a huge number of “left-outs” and “push-outs”. This has created a mass of utterly frustrated individuals with no hope for the future. According to Pretorius (1990:205) the concept of poverty includes

- cultural isolation,
- cultural alienation,
- cultural neglect,
- cultural destitution, and
- a disadvantaged social environment.

It seems as if the majority of South Africa's citizens are trapped in a spiral of suffering and exploitation. Pretorius (1990:212) gives a schematic representation of the poverty spiral that characterises the poverty culture in the South African context (Figure 3).

FIGURE 3: THE SPIRAL OF POVERTY



[Source: Pretorius (1990:212)]

Poverty is also associated with certain social conditions that may be of greater significance for crime causation than its economic need (Vetter & Silvermann, 1996:288). Poverty areas in our modern cities typically involve segregation in low-rent districts in which people are invariably exposed to criminal behaviour patterns. Vetter & Silvermann (1996:288) further expatiate that it also characteristically means high unemployment with

no future potential for work and is associated with lost social status, lack of respect, feelings of powerlessness and the sense of “little to loose”.

It appears to be quite correct that the poverty conditions described in the preceding paragraph are relevant to South Africa. In South Africa, it seems as if a disproportionate number of children in poor areas drop out of school at an early age because they see little value in an education. “*The jobs they obtain are generally low paying, unskilled, not interesting and offer little chance for economic advancement*” (Vetter & Silvermann, 1996:288).

Educators have to advise parents and children on some preventative and combating strategies of poverty. Self-sufficiency, self-motivation, economic empowerment and affirmative action seem to be key areas which could greatly reduce the level of poverty (see Figure 3, p.114).

5.1.4 Child labour as an economic factor causing crime in South Africa

Although it is illegal to employ any child under the age of 16 in South Africa, many black children are obliged to work in order to survive. With the disintegration of several family units because of the migrant labour system, many black children are homeless and have to find some means of supporting themselves. According to the International Defence and Aid Forum (1980:45), urban areas of South Africa employ children illegally. South African newspapers are distributed by vans daily crammed with little children whose rightful place is in the classrooms.

5.1.5 Migratory labour as an economic factor causing crime in South Africa

South African blacks especially, experience serious problems of family destruction. Millions of people spend their entire working life as contract labourers and are denied the right to live with their families. “*The men work in mines and factories and live in hostels or compounds on a single basis*” (International Defence and Aid Fund, 1980:55). There is massive disorganisation of African family life in contemporary South Africa because female workers are often forced to go back to their former employment soon after they have given birth. The result is that children grow up without the adequate loving care of mothers or the authoritative guidance of the father.

5.2 LACK OF ADEQUATE HOUSING AND ACCOMMODATION OF THE FAMILY AS AN ECONOMIC FACTOR CAUSING CRIME

Lack of decent housing and ordinary shelter has precipitated the mushrooming of slums, decayed areas and ghettos in most parts of the world where people live below the

minimum breadline. *“Because of economic pressures the modern family is often in the desperate position that housing is inadequate or even unobtainable”* (Vorster & De Meillon, 1991:125). They further assert that this leads to a loss of personal refinement. Owing to lack of housing and accommodation as well as privacy, feelings of dissatisfaction and aggression can easily develop, thus leading to anti-social behaviour such as gang activities, drug abuse, alcoholism, theft, robbery and sexual misconduct. Peace and stability are unthinkable in poor social circumstances and conditions.

Lack of housing, shelter, amenities and accommodation is a very serious social issue which needs to be addressed and prioritised by the South African Government. Stability and peaceful co-existence will not be attained if the misery of lack of housing is not fully addressed and solved. It is clear that children born into extremely poor conditions where shelter and housing are non-existent, have the potential of developing into violent, anti-social criminals.

Due to the extreme inequalities and imbalances that exist in our multicultural society, the situation of unrest and uncertainty is likely to prevail.

5.3 THE UNEMPLOYMENT CRISIS AS AN ECONOMIC FACTOR LEADING TO UNREST

Unemployment is an extremely serious economic problem sweeping across South Africa. It has been reported that unemployment reached a peak during the pre-election era. It manifests itself in retrenchment, poverty, disease and poor health conditions. Like poverty, unemployment affects the sub-economic, illiterate and politically oppressed sectors of the community.

Van Rensburg (1992:4) expatiates that the stark reality, therefore, is that South Africa is characterised by a dualistic economy: a mixture of traditional and western. The minority are efficient and educated as opposed to the majority who are unemployed, uneducated and live below the breadline. This situation seems to lead to an unprecedented level of violence, tension, crime and racial intolerance.

6. CONCLUSION

With the multiplicity of problems affecting the social fabric of our country, causing a state of violence, crime-dominated and ill-disciplined schools, the evolution of a new education paradigm can become one of the alternative and realisable propositions in counterbalancing the current socio-educational crisis. The absence of peace in the family and school makes it very difficult for the youth to fully actualise themselves. It seems



ironic that most crimes experienced in South African schools are similar to those committed by ordinary criminals in the streets.

The news about the “drug barons” plot to kidnap or assassinate former Premier Sexwale of Gauteng and his father, was testimony to what the future could hold if suitable steps were not taken (Tondi in *Sunday Times*, 21 August 1994:21). Expressing the same sentiments, Lindi (*Sunday Times*, 21 August 1994:21) stated that it is high time that the community unites to do something about the criminals who kill South African policemen. He further explained that to obtain peace, positive steps will have to be taken.

South African schools and communities seem to be in trouble. In fact, the social problems related to the escalating violence, crime and lack of peace are of such crippling proportions that many areas, especially in the Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape, do not have normal schooling conditions. Children living under those fearful conditions cannot be exposed to the learning and teaching culture that is essential for their educational development.

Family background has a far reaching influence on the socio-educational and personality development of the child. It seems likely that an adverse background produces anti-social people. Several studies carried out by researchers such as Mashile (1991), Pellegrini (1988), Silvern (1996) and Taylor (1996) confirm that parenting practices appear to be highly influential in controlling or encouraging aggressive behaviour. “*The child's ability to benefit from formal education is primarily dependent upon the quality and quantity of informal education in the home*” (Mashile, 1991:1). Research studies on crime clearly indicate that family factors are of considerable significance in the development of the personality of the child who bullies others as well as the child at risk of being bullied (Besag, 1989:59).

Cultural pluralism is both a fact and a concept which has not been given due recognition in South Africa. It is a state of equal co-existence in a mutually supportive relationship within the framework of one nation of people of diverse cultures with significantly different patterns of beliefs, behaviour, colour and in many cases with different languages. According to Tutu (*The Star*, 15 May 1994:10) South African strength lies in its rainbow nature, that is in her unity in diversity.

6.1 THE NEED TO BE PRO-ACTIVE

In the light of the above discussion it seem essential for teachers and parents to become more pro-active. Hendrikz (1995:4) asserts that the school's primary task is to educate and teach children and to offer them therapy. The task is preventative and pro-active

rather than remedial and reactive. He stresses (Hendrikz, 1995:8) that the school needs to be productive in the following respects:

- Preparing children for what might happen to them, especially during the ages when they are at the peak of their health.
- Teaching them how to respond under violent, and emotional circumstances that make them feel threatened and uncomfortable.
- Informing, training and providing parents with the knowledge and skills that they need to address the problem of “ill-discipline”.
- Offering in-service training and staff development.
- Creating support structures such as standard tutors and heads of departments of educational guidance. According to Van Rooyen (1989:4-5) a pro-active programme could also include teaching the child that his body is beautiful, that some parts of his body are private, that some types of touching are natural but that other types of touching could make one feel uneasy and uncomfortable.
- Van Rooyen (1989:9-10) proposes that the Grade 12 teachers should be specially trained to provide family guidance. The most important aspect of a pro-active strategy is that in both families and schools, relationships of trust, understanding and authority need to be restored.

6.2 THE NEED FOR REACTIVE STRATEGIES

Children who experience violence, family instability and social problems in one way or another, could be helped by reactive strategies. Hendrikz (1995:7) remarks that the teacher is *in loco parentis* and needs to be part of a multi-disciplinary professional team. Remedial measures should always be found to deal with disciplinary problems as they emerge.

7. THE CHALLENGE

The South African society, especially black education, has been in a state of flux and turmoil. Certain black secondary schools and some tertiary institutions seem to be experiencing an unprecedented high level of violence. Parents and teachers as well as politicians seem to have lost control over their children. Schools cannot effectively inculcate and implement humanistic and societal values such as respect, tolerance, obedience and co-operation. Teachers also seem to have lost interest in their work and



pupils. What deepens the problem is the fact that the violence and disturbances in academic institutions seem to centre not only around protests against educational expectations, but also around key political and social issues.

The violence, whether political or social, seems to vary in degree of intensity from province to province. But in South Africa, Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal are the most violent provinces (both political and social). With the advent of the democratic dispensation in South Africa, violence in schools and crime in general have risen sharply. Statistics from the Police Centre Analysis indicate a chilling reality in that respect. With regard to schools, Newell (1998:4) says: *“Like the rest of society and its organisation, the schools are troubled by upheavals. Students are restless and even come to school with knives, guns and other lethal weapons. Some are using drugs or alcohol and many are dropping out of school and out of society. Teachers through strange associations and collective bargaining are demanding better schools, better working conditions and greater material rewards.”*

Politics and education have always remained inseparable phenomena, especially in the South African context. The current problems of violence, truancy, intolerance, ill-discipline and instability seem to revolve around political and social issues. These problems pose a serious challenge to all educational stakeholders and politicians.

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