

**A SURVEY OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS CORPORAL
PUNISHMENT AFTER THE ABOLITION OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT**

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ABSTRACT

Education within South Africa has undergone significant change within a short period of time. This change has primarily been written in terms of human rights and the equitable distribution of educational resources. This has necessitated a paradigm shift for many teachers and the study explores some of the factors that have prevented teachers from experiencing a paradigm shift.

The introduction of the South African Schools Act of 1996 heralded the start of the complete abolition of corporal punishment within all South African schools. The object of this investigation was to explore teachers' attitudes towards the abolition of corporal punishment and the factors that would contribute towards their attitude. The research explored whether the attitude of teachers, in relation to corporal punishment, had been influenced by the disruptive behaviour of pupils and their perceptions of the efficacy of alternate methods of behaviour management.

The research locates itself within general systems theory. Individual behaviour is looked at within the context that the behaviour occurs. Schools and families can be viewed as social systems that have hierarchical arrangements. A system can be viewed as a group or combination of inter-related, inter-dependent and interacting elements forming a collective entity. The behaviour of one component of the system is seen as affecting and being affected by the behaviour of others. Studying a system therefore involves studying relationships rather than parts in isolation. More importantly, these relationships are studied in context.

Data was gathered with the use of a survey questionnaire. The questionnaire contained closed and open-ended questions. The survey questionnaire explored teachers' attitudes towards corporal punishment and their understanding of discipline and punishment. The survey questionnaire is a viable method of assessing attitudes. More specifically, for the purposes of this study, the survey method was used to obtain information about events that occurred previously and that now exist in the memories of the teachers. The data was subjected to descriptive analysis with frequencies represented statistically in the form of percentages. The Chi-square test

was used to analyse the difference between selected groups of data. The results show that teachers acknowledged the importance of pupils taking responsibility for their own behaviour. However, there was a tendency by teachers to use punishment measures to regulate pupil behaviour. There was general support for the re-introduction of corporal punishment. Some teachers indicated that corporal punishment had to be un-banned without any restrictions, while others chose to see corporal punishment being used as a last resort. There was a significant absence within many schools of a detailed understanding of a discipline policy, which is an important requirement of the South African Schools Act of 1996.

The results reflect a need for schools to formulate clear guidelines on how to manage disruptive behaviour and have implications for the overall development of schools. In order for schools to be effective teachers would require training in alternate methods of behaviour management that have to be linked to an understanding of the causes of disruptive behaviour. This should lead to the formulation of a discipline policy by all stakeholders within the school that is reviewed regularly.

Recommendations such as the need for policy to deal with discipline problems, the need for in-service training and the need for a theoretical framework to manage organisational change are made. These recommendations are made to address critical elements of organisational change that would inform an intervention for whole school development. It is acknowledged that there are substantive issues that could inhibit a paradigm shift such as: teachers' lack of willingness to accept change, the changes in education being too rapid, the inability of schools to view themselves as organisations and the problems with adopting a more systemic approach to the behavioural management of pupils.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own original work and I have not submitted it, nor any parts of it, for a degree at any other university.

Adriaan Gradwell

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Within South Africa, at present, schools face imposed and unprecedented change. Teachers at schools are uncertain about what they have to do, feel anxious about their ability to cope within tight time scales and find it difficult to allocate enough time to manage these problems effectively.

With the introduction of a democratic government in South Africa in 1994, there was the expectation of dramatic political changes within South Africa. There was the expectancy amongst the majority of South Africans that the promises of the Reconstruction and Development Programme would improve their economic and social plight. In contrast to this, there was a sector of the nation that questioned whether the new government would be able to deliver on its campaign promises and whether it had the capacity to lead the country. The country was experiencing significant change.

There was a significant shift in education towards learning equity for children. This resulted in a change of budgetary allocations for the various provinces, which primarily meant that provinces that had benefited financially before had to develop innovative methods of coping with forced change. However, the shortage of money was not the only problem. The new curriculum which focussed on outcomes based education as well as the introduction of the South African Schools Act in 1996 introduced legislation which forced change on teachers who had not really been prepared for these significant changes (Naicker, 1999). The unification of the 17 education departments into a single ministry of education has proven to be a mammoth task. There were many disparities and the provision of resources to all sectors of the education community was a priority. Naicker (1999) states that the changes in education were largely phrased in the language of human rights. The new government's commitment to human rights was therefore reflected in the South African Schools Act, which protects the rights of pupils.

The South African Schools Act of 1996 brought about many changes to the general management of schools. One of the changes contained within the South African Schools Act of 1996 is the total abolition of corporal punishment. In certain schools, corporal punishment was primarily used as an economical means of maintaining discipline and managing disruptive behaviour. Teachers were now given the challenge to develop new and innovative methods of maintaining discipline in schools. The challenge would involve teachers changing their attitudes towards corporal punishment. This study therefore explores teachers' perceptions of corporal punishment as a means of controlling pupil behaviour since its abolition. With the abolition of corporal punishment, the Teachers In-Service Project and the Psychology Resource Centre, both from the University of the Western Cape, received requests from teachers for support and assistance in alternate methods of classroom management due to the increase in disruptive behaviour. This information came to the attention of the author while working within the Teacher In-Service Project unit. It could be argued that the present upsurge in disruptive behaviour of pupils should also be viewed against the backdrop of broad educational change within South Africa.

Problems about children and discipline are not only of perennial importance and faced by all educators and societies in the world, but they are also, like our own, deeply uncertain about how these problems ought to be solved. Teachers are therefore confronted with the problems of having to maintain discipline without unnecessary harshness, how to encourage reasonable moral thought and behaviour without indoctrination and how to keep order and control within the classroom without adopting a pose of infallibility.

It is a central tenet of this thesis that, in order for teachers to make any headway in this time of change, they would need to: (a) explore their understanding of discipline and punishment (b) review the traditional concepts of their authority as teachers in relation to the use of corporal punishment (c) have regular introspection into their own prejudices, fantasies, unseen emotions and other forces that control their behaviour in relation to their pupils.

Chapter two focuses on the literature survey and discusses the significance of the South African Schools Act of 1996 in relation to the abolition of corporal punishment. A central focus of the South African Schools Act of 1996 is the manner in which it dealt with the concept of *loco parentis* which generally empowered teachers to exercise corporal punishment. The chapter also focuses briefly on the origin of corporal punishment in South Africa starting with the biblical vindication for its usage to the ideological concept of control and suppression. It also captures the heated debate around the continued use of corporal punishment both within South Africa and abroad. Those opposed to corporal punishment view it as having a destructive impact on the pupil and that the behaviour would be modeled as a means to resolve interpersonal conflict. The supporters of corporal punishment argue that pupils' behaviour improves and that, in general, rule violation in relation to the school is lessened considerably. The reviewed literature shows that in order for teachers and schools to change they would need to view themselves as organizations. In addition to the need for change, are the resources that would be needed to facilitate the change process.

Chapter three delineates the primary aims, methodological procedures, instrumentation and analytical process applicable to this study. The schools chosen for this study are located within the Western Cape and the teachers came from both high and primary schools. Both male and female teachers participated within the study with the sample consisting of 100 teachers.

Chapter four reports on the analysis of the data and a summary of the findings is presented. It focuses mainly on the aims of the study and some of the psycho-educational issues that surface from the data. The findings show a preference by respondents to use methods of punishment to maintain discipline. It also shows the need for a clearly formulated policy on how to manage disruptive behaviour.

Chapter five discusses the findings and explores the respondents' perceptions of the efficacy of corporal punishment. It also shows how teachers are coping with organizational change and how educational change has impacted the working world of the teacher. The general tendency of respondents favouring the re-introduction of

corporal punishment is looked at in relation to the stress created by educational change in South Africa and the perceptions that teachers have of their pupils.

In chapter six recommendations are made with particular emphasis on the need for a school policy on how to manage disruptive behaviour, the need for teachers to broaden their understanding of the nature of disruptive behaviour and of a theoretical model that a school could use to promote, sustain and take ownership of the changes taking place in their school. A theoretical model is presented with an emphasis on social skill instruction that will equip pupils with the social skills necessary for responsible human behaviour.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The principle of punishment as applied to South African schools has a historical origin and is deeply infused with experiences of segregation, oppression and resistance (Cross, 1986). The general tone that would dominate education within South Africa was set by the early Dutch colonisers in the Cape. Collins (1983) describes the early schooling as having a strong focus on agriculture, being austere in character and having a strong religious tone. The first schools in the country were initiated and led by missionary organisations. Many slaves had been brought into the country to provide cheap unskilled labour and the first school was established in Cape Town in 1658 (Collins, 1983). Davenport (1985) comments that the Cape schools during the Dutch East India Company days were not segregated and contained the children of both the slaves and their white masters. The mission schools established in the Eastern Cape during the nineteenth century were also mixed. However, whenever government schools were established they only catered for white children (Davenport, 1985). Therefore education for indigenous communities fell into the care of the missionary organisations. Missionary schools had a character of their own which was to dominate the education of South Africa's indigenous people. These characteristics were as follows: the schools were unremittingly religious in nature; secondly, they were concerned with rudimentary academic education. Thirdly, they were increasingly segregated in race. A fourth characteristic was the keen interest displayed by the state in missionary schools (Collins, 1983). Collins (1983) states that missionary run schools were seen by the state as a means to control the indigenous population. They accomplished this through grants and by inspecting missionary schools for curriculum evaluation on a regular basis. It was through the missionary schools that Western values and assumptions were promulgated. They provided an ideology of obedience, discipline and servitude which tamed a much needed labour force. This aspect was noted by the state, which saw education as a vehicle to fulfil a particular political ideology.

It has to be noted that there was a difference between the educational aims of the state and the missionaries. The main intention of the missionary was to make the indigenous people Christians in the mould of a particular denomination and their primary aim was to produce black missionary teachers and clergy. For the state there was the need to have a cheap industrious and disciplined workforce.

The use of corporal punishment both within missionary and state schools had a threefold purpose (Ashley, 1989; Pete, 1994). The first was to remedy the perceived intrinsic human weaknesses through corporal punishment, which was validated by the Bible. Secondly, it was used as a practical ideological tool to remind indigenous communities of their particular place in life that was inferior to that of the white community. Thirdly, it was used as a medium to instill discipline according to a Western frame of reference as opposed to the indigenous practice of discipline which centred around the life of the family and the community. Traditional leaders lamented that traditional discipline had eroded and had been replaced by a method of discipline over which they had no control (Davenport, 1985). The situation would worsen later, especially when indigenous people would be forced to work as migrant labourers (Hlatswayo, 1992).

The biblical foundation for the usage of corporal punishment in schools to further the ideological aims of the state can also be traced to the introduction of Christian Nationalist Education, where the view of the world relied heavily on Biblical authority for its justification (Ashley, 1989; Cross, 1986). A Christian education was therefore essential to ensure the proper development of the young child, particularly in the view of intrinsic human weakness and temptation to sin (Ashley, 1989). The teacher's position as acting in *loco parentis* was fully supported and the effective maintenance of discipline was authorized (Instituut vir Christelike Nasionale Onderwys, 1948). The implication was that corporal punishment was viewed favorably to maintain order within schools and that the flawed character in pupils could only be rectified through corporal punishment (Holdstock, 1990; Monyooe, 1986; Rice, 1987). The connection between corporal punishment and religious orthodoxy in Britain is also recorded by Norwood (1929). He laments the brutal treatment meted out to boys in order for their character to be developed.

In America the development of schools is directly linked to European settlements in North America in which the religious motive was very strong and hence the application of corporal punishment to develop and nurture the character of pupils (Johnson, Collins, Dupus & Johansen, 1985).

This legacy of punishment as a concomitant of the need for discipline has prevailed throughout South Africa's educational history. However, with time it began to be challenged and its practice in some schools began to decline (Rice, 1987). However, the punitive, and often brutal, nature of South African schools was a constant reality for pupils, including those who had broken the law and who were sent to industrial and reform schools. This reinforced the general ethos of institutionalized violence that pervaded all types of schools (Pinnock, 1997; Southgate, 1997). The legacy of the philosophy of Christian National Education with regard to corporal punishment had become institutionalized with the focus of punishment being retributive (Ashley, 1989).

The abolition of corporal punishment within South Africa must be seen as an attempt to halt the tide of human rights abuse. It could also be argued that corporal punishment was banned to align the experiences of the pupil with the South African constitution that protects children from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation.

2.2 A systems perspective

This research locates itself within general systems theory. Individual behaviour is looked at within the context that the behaviour occurs. Schools and families can be viewed as social systems that are mutually inter-dependent. Therefore, the behaviour of one component of the system is seen as affecting, and being affected by the behaviour of others.

There is little doubt that the abolition of corporal punishment had an impact on education in this country. Teachers who used corporal punishment previously had to develop alternate methods of coping with discipline problems. It also had an impact on pupils in that they now had the right not to be struck by their teachers. Parents were also affected in that they would be called in more regularly to jointly manage the

behaviour problems of their children. Referral to support agencies by schools would also be made to assist schools in coping with pupils who presented with disruptive behaviour. The banning of corporal punishment therefore had an impact on various systems.

A system is a group or combination of inter-related, inter-dependent and interacting elements forming a collective entity. Systems are integrated wholes whose properties cannot be reduced to those of smaller units. Within the school, the various elements could comprise of the senior staff, teacher, pupils and support personnel. Similar groupings may also occur within families. The mother and father could be seen as one element, or subsystem, and the children, the other. There are different arrangements within a system that reflect the type of organisation, which is also characterised by different types of boundaries. There can be generational boundaries, hierarchical boundaries and boundaries between subsystems (Dowling, 1985). However, general systems theory emphasises that a system cannot be dissected into parts in order to be understood because the decontextualized parts do not necessarily behave in the same way independently as they do when in context with one another (Van der Hoorn, 1994). Studying a system therefore involves studying relationships rather than parts in isolation, and studying these relationships in context.

One of the dominant assumptions for the usage of corporal punishment is that the cause of the problem is within the pupil and can only be rectified through a hiding. This acceptance of the principle of cause and effect produces linear thinking in teachers whereas general systems theory provides an alternative theoretical framework for understanding the behaviour in context (Dowling, 1985; Druker and De Jong, 1996; Plas, 1986).

A key concept within general systems theory is the concept of context. In terms of social processes, the focus is not so much on the individual but on the interactive processes of which the person is a part (Dowling, 1985). When a pupil presents with disruptive behaviour, the teacher has to view the behaviour within the context of the pupil's life and come to an understanding of the forces that shape the life of the pupil. Circular causality is a term used to explain the nature of certain patterns of behaviour in human relationships in terms of cycles of interaction (Dowling, 1985; Plas, 1986).

Emphasis is not placed on the cause of a problem rather on the patterns that emerge between experiences. An authoritarian principal, who manages his or her staff in an autocratic manner, might make demands on the staff and be met with resistance. He or she might make appeals for support and then introduce decisions without consulting the staff. If the staff show resistance, the principal might see their behaviour as not being supportive. This can result in the principal making more decisions unilaterally since he or she believes that the staff will not give their full support. The resistance of the staff can be understood by asking why they behaved in a particular manner. De Jong (1995) argues that this type of thinking is linear since use is made of the cause-effect model. Dowling (1985) recommends that the word, "why" should be replaced by the word "how". Attention is given to how the phenomenon occurs and the sequences of interaction and repetitive patterns which surround the event. The process of not viewing events in a linear manner is called recursive thinking where observation is made of the mutuality of influences being exercised over the life of the individual through the interaction of the various systems (Plas, 1986).

In addition, the notion of circularity is intimately linked with the concept of punctuation (Dowling, 1985; Plas, 1986). Punctuation is the point at which a sequence of events is interrupted to give it a certain meaning. A teacher might respond to a disruptive class by screaming and walking out of the class. The teacher's colleagues might see it as an inability to cope with the class. The teachers have chosen to punctuate reality at the point of the teacher's behaviour. An exploration of the context of the teacher might reveal that broad educational change is constantly on the teacher's mind and that the teacher is worried about being retrenched. This was the primary reason for the teacher's behaviour. Dowling (1985) argues that no punctuation is right or wrong. Punctuation emphasises that behaviour is intimately dependant on the context in which it occurs.

A further concept used within general systems theory is homeostasis. This refers to the tendency of living organisms towards a steady state of equilibrium (Dowling, 1985). Homeostasis is made possible by information coming in from the environment in the form of feedback. If the information received is stressful, it causes perturbation.

Teachers might feel threatened when confronted with change, particularly around organisational development and the need to think and operate systemically (De Jong, 1995; Druker & De Jong, 1996). The system will in turn regulate itself to maintain its homeostasis. This acts as a self-regulatory mechanism to maintain the status quo of the school (Dowling, 1985). It would therefore be important to understand what in the school situation is causing the maintenance of the usage of corporal punishment.

The relationship between schools and families is intimately maintained over a significant period of time. There is an information exchange between the two systems and they cannot be viewed without reference to their influence on the environment in which they exist. They are closely inter-related in a dynamic two-way relationship. This provides feedback of how the two systems view each other and what they expect of each other (Dowling, 1985; Van Den Aardweg, 1987).

With the abolition of corporal punishment, teachers have been confronted by disruptive behaviour in the normal events of school life. The challenge for teachers would be to clarify differences in their perception of the problem by focussing on how it occurs rather than why. They would need to negotiate commonly agreed upon goals and they would also need to begin to explore specific steps towards change (De Jong, 1995; Dowling, 1985; Druker & De Jong, 1996; Raeburn & Seymour, 1979).

2.3 Discipline

Classroom discipline has traditionally been viewed as an important component of the general management of the school. It had enormous implications for the teacher in that effective classroom management coupled with good pupil grades presented with opportunities for promotion (Boyson, 1975; Carelse, 1986; Fontana, 1987; Holdstock, 1990). Methods to improve and maintain pupil and classroom control centred primarily around corporal punishment, verbal correction and other methods deemed appropriate by the teacher (Holdstock, 1990; Sihlangu, 1992). However, with the removal of corporal punishment, only three educational departments, namely, Western Cape, Gauteng and Eastern Cape made an effort to guide teachers with regard to alternate methods of classroom management. This was submitted in document form to schools. However, teachers received no in-service training and

were therefore left untrained in how to maintain pupil and classroom control in the absence of traditional methods (Pretorius, 1998). Consequently, the Psychology Resource Centre and the Teacher In-Service Project, both from the University of the Western Cape reported that schools had contacted them to report that disruptive behaviour within schools had increased and they requested assistance. The teachers attributed the increase in disruptive behaviour to the abolition of corporal punishment. Maxwell (1987) reports that in Scotland teachers attributed the increase "in disruptive behaviour in pupils to the abolition of corporal punishment by the Education Act 1986 and a lack of support by the educational authorities on how to deal with the sudden upsurge in disruptive behaviour.

2.3.1 Defining discipline

The defining nature of classroom discipline has to be explored before a person can embark on an understanding of the causes of disciplinary problems.

Furtwengler and Konnert (1982), Rice (1987) and Wynne (1991) indicate that establishing a consistent definition of discipline is generally a problem since the definition has to take into account the effectiveness of discipline and the organisational nature of the school. Wynne (1991, p. 168) defines discipline as "making students observe rules of conduct congruent with the norms prevailing in social gatherings and worksites in mainstream adult society". Furtwengler and Konnert (1982, p.4) state that discipline is "the processes designed to aid students develop social behaviours and attitudes for appropriate participation in an adult democratic culture". Jones and Jones (1981) state that classroom discipline is based upon developing an understanding of the needs and goals expressed by both the teacher and the learner and creating a clear philosophy of teaching that effectively responds to these needs. Rice (1987) maintains that the successful disciplinarian is someone who models caring, is committed and takes time to reason and communicate with the child, thereby showing the child that he or she is respected as an individual.

The above definitions emphasise the importance of preparing the pupil for the world of work and the attainment of certain values that would render the pupil capable of interacting meaningfully and productively within society. Coupled to this is the

attitude that the teacher and the school need to adopt in order for these definitions to be realised within the life of the pupil. McManus (1989) states that the teacher would need skill and understanding in dealing with the pupil and the school as an organisation would need to be flexible. Fontana (1987) goes further and states that teachers would be required to spend time reflecting on their own behaviour and how it impacts on the processes within the class.

Wilson and Cowell (1990), on the other hand, make an important distinction between the meaning of discipline when it is indicated that pupils are well-disciplined and the notion of pupils being well-controlled, well-ordered, organised or trouble free.

Through the use of corporal punishment, pupils can be beaten into being trouble free. However, this is contrary to the S. A. Schools Act of 1996 which embraces the notion that pupils be developed to be well-disciplined, thereby taking responsibility for their own behaviours. Being well-disciplined would, more specifically, mean that pupils would accept the rules of the school and this would bring in the idea of obedience since teachers would require that pupils obey the rules of the school willingly.

Wilson and Cowell (1990) raise a crucial point by mentioning that there has to be an understanding of the nature of a pupil's submission to the rules of the school. Many of the rules of the school are not popular with pupils and therefore they have to view them as beneficial to them or stemming from an authoritative source. However, the pupils are in the position to decide whether the authority is legitimate, based upon the treatment they receive from the teachers (Corrie, Haystead, Zaklakiewicz, 1982; Cowell & Jones, 1990). It would, therefore, be difficult to ignore the fact that issues of discipline are associated with power and control and are directly linked to tensions within the classroom (McManus, 1989).

2.3.2 The developmental aspect of discipline

As mentioned previously, the school is viewed as a microcosm of society and as such the child develops an understanding of discipline through the limit setting of parents prior to entering school. It is through the network of a family that a child acquires behaviour patterns, beliefs, standards and motives that are valued by and appropriate in the pupil's own cultural group and family (Harper, 1986). It is within this

environment that the child must learn to control uninhibited behaviours and learn to act with peers in an acceptable way. It is, therefore, within this environment that a child learns self-discipline and the principle of boundaries (Harper, 1986; Willis-Brandon, 1990).

It is within the context of the family and the care of significant primary caregivers that the child develops an understanding of norms. As children move into preadolescence and early adolescents, they need to experience a sense of independence from adults. The confusion and anxiety associated with their rapidly changing bodies and increased analytical skills make them increasingly vulnerable to peer group influences (Erikson, 1963). Children, therefore, need the safety and security that can be found in well-defined norms or rules.

Classroom rules are important because a pupil's academic achievement is significantly influenced by the degree to which the pupils' in the class accept and apply behaviours that support the learning process (Jones & Jones, 1981). Classroom rules also have to be applied consistently and fairly by the teacher.

2.3.3 Discipline and power

The essential nature of discipline is the pupils' acceptance of the rules of the school, which also brings in the notion of obedience. Pupils have to obey rules in order for discipline to be present in schools. The South African Schools Act of 1996 requires teachers to establish rules in the school in order to create an environment conducive to learning. It is argued by Wilson and Cowell (1990) that these rules are authoritative and do not necessarily originate from a popular source. Pupils are required to give their obedience to an established and legitimate authority. Teachers are empowered to apply rules in schools to ensure that there is discipline. Discipline can therefore be understood as the acceptance of the rules of the school by pupils, since teachers have been empowered to establish rules. Teachers operate from a position of authority and power. Wilson and Cowell (1990) state that teachers require power to ensure that the schools rules are obeyed. Without power to enforce obedience, teachers will not be seen as authority figures.

The question arises whether pupils submit to rules due to a teacher's power or authority. Before the abolition of corporal punishment, teachers exercised their power to use corporal punishment (Holdstock, 1990). The challenge now for teachers is to bring pupils to recognize and accept their authority without the constant need for demonstrations of power.

Power in the classroom has the potential to bring pupil and teacher into "direct confrontation with each other. The notion of power generally refers to a person's ability to control his or her environment. For the teacher there exists the need to develop the pupil's many skills while at the same time enjoying the task of teaching. For the pupil there exists the very powerful need to develop a sense of self-competence and self-esteem. The disruption of attempts to achieve desired ends by both pupil and teacher can result in acts of aggression on the part of both parties (Fontana, 1986; Jones & Jones, 1981).

In any social system there are rules governing the way people ought to behave towards each other and what should and should not be done. There are also rules about how rules are made, who makes them and how they are to be negotiated (Dowling, 1995). Van Den Aardweg (1987) discusses processes whereby school age children absorb family rules, contrast them with rules outside the family system, such as the school. Pupils can find themselves in the position where they are torn between different sets of rules and the loyalties demanded of them from each system.

2.4 Disruptive behaviour

The definitions of discipline quoted earlier are extremely broad and the question arises whether it includes acts of vandalism, violence and theft (Moles, 1990). Discipline problems or disruptive behaviour, may range from crimes where a pupil is found guilty of breaking the law to a lack of respectful behaviour towards teachers and peers. For the teacher the dilemma exists in deciding which behaviours are disciplinary code infractions and which represent crimes that fall outside of the ambit of their management since both represent disobeying rules and regulations. The teacher has to decide whether acts such as theft and assault also constitute acts of crime (Moles, 1990). The dilemma could be resolved through the school formulating

a policy with regard to the management of disruptive behaviour. This policy would include the school's understanding of disruptive behaviour including the management and referral of behaviour that the school cannot cope with. The dilemma with regard to describing disruptive behaviour is demonstrated by research conducted in Scotland, which revealed that teachers could not reach consistent consensus on defining behaviour that was disruptive (Corrie et al., 1982). Kerr and Nelson (1983) indicate that within America a similar situation exists with teachers relying heavily on consultants and specialists to help with identifying the nature of the disruptive behaviour of pupils but that the specialists also find it a problem to precisely define the presenting problem. An additional problem, is that the particular paradigm from which the theorist works, such as educational, medical, psychological and so forth influences the nature of the definition of disruptive behaviour. This would lead a person to infer that the more appropriate manner of assessment of disruptive behaviour is through the multi-disciplinary team approach where a variety of disciplines are represented to give a more holistic construction of the behaviour in question and provide for the behaviour to be viewed in context.

2.4.1 Defining disruptive behaviour

There are a variety of definitions to describe disruptive behaviour. Herbert (1978) states that disruptive behaviour must be viewed separately from aggression and oppositional defiant behaviour due to its group connotation. Herbert (1978) describes disruptive behaviour as a term applied to the interference with, or shattering of, some endeavour in which several individuals are involved as part of an organised group, in this instance, a classroom of pupils. Kerr and Nelson (1983), provide a similar but broader definition by describing disruptive behaviour as interfering with the freedom or personal comforts of another individual. The definition of Herbert (1978) in describing disruptive behaviour will be used for this study since it is able to draw a distinction between disruptive behaviour and behaviour that is of a more serious nature. Disruptive behaviour is therefore the behaviour by a pupil that interferes with the collective work of a group. Behaviour that the school would consider as being severe, would fall into the categories of conduct disorder and oppositional defiant disorder as defined by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (1994). This provides a meaningful framework within which teachers and schools can

operate. It also establishes where the cut-off points are for behaviour that is unacceptable to the school as a system.

2.4.2 The causes of disruptive behaviour

The causes of disruptive behaviour are extremely broad ranging from intrinsic factors within the pupil such as personality and neurological impairment to other sources of potential aetiology such as dysfunctional family features, processes of interaction between teachers and pupils, disruptive schools, classroom interaction and social, political, and economic considerations (Cohen & Cohen, 1987; Cummings & Davies, 1994; Wynne, 1990). The demand on the teacher is to develop an understanding of why the child is behaving in a particular manner. This can become an exhausting task when a teacher is confronted with a large class of disruptive pupils. Confrontations would then seem unavoidable and overwhelming and security found in unbending and autocratic domination such as corporal punishment (Corrie et al., 1982; McManus, 1989).

The dilemma confronting the South African teacher is that South African education is in a stage of transition from one that supported corporal punishment and the promotion of an inhumane retributive ideology (Pinnock, 1997) to a situation where schools promote health. A health promoting school engages in social, educational and political action that enhances public awareness of health, fosters healthy lifestyles and community action in support of health. Its aim is to empower people to exercise their rights and responsibilities in shaping environments, systems and policies that are conducive to health and well-being (Camara, 1996). This would require support from the education department which until now has been lacking (NEPI, 1992). Maxwell (1987) reports that within Scotland, schools similarly reported a lack of support from parents, support agencies and the education department with the abolition of corporal punishment and the resultant increase in disruptive behaviour.

- ✱ The causes of disciplinary problems are many and varied. Wynne (1990) groups the causes into macro and micro factors and offers a useful summary. Macro factors are influences over which the school has no control, such as legislation, gang related activities, shifts in popular youth norms and so forth, that have a pervasive effect on

the behaviour of pupils. Micro factors are factors peculiar to a particular school, classroom or even individual pupils, such as the innate disposition of specific learners, the home environment, the local social and ethnic environment, other pupils in the class and the ethos and forms of organisation of a particular classroom or school (Fontana, 1987; Jones & Jones, 1981; Van den Aardweg, 1987).

2.5 School violence

Problems around pupil discipline are not a modern phenomenon. McManus (1989) records violent student clashes in Britain as far back as 1261. In modern times, Boyson (1975) records that problems with pupil discipline had increased almost ten-fold within twenty years in Britain. The decline in discipline in public schools in Britain was primarily attributed to the lack of strict discipline within schools and the preference for the Discovery method of teaching above traditional methods (Boyson, 1975). The Discovery method of education discarded the traditional methods of teaching mathematics and literacy for a more child-centred approach to education. Boyson (1975) argues that the introduction of the Discovery method also meant that the traditional methods of maintaining discipline were discarded in favour of a system that was without rigid boundaries and rules. In America, disciplinary problems have reached dangerous levels with many teachers at inner-city schools fearing for their lives (Jones & Jones, 1981). In South Africa violence has become a common occurrence in many schools with both teachers and pupils fearing for their lives and having to live with the consequences of having being exposed to violence (Dawes & Tredoux, 1989; Klaasen, 1990; Robertson, 1990; Van den Aardweg, 1987). Most of the incidences of violence in schools are gang related. This is due to the schools being located within poor socio-economic areas and in territories that are controlled by specific gangs (Bridgraj, 1998). It was also found that schools that had been exposed to gang violence often had inadequate security, no counselling facilities, that there was a lack of conflict management skills and general parental apathy (Bridgraj, 1998).

It could be argued that violence is the final stage of disruptive behaviour with school violence embodying aspects such as vandalism, rioting, pupil-pupil assaults, parent-teacher assaults, teacher-pupil assaults and other acts of unacceptable violent behaviour (Johnson, Collins, Dupuis & Johansen, 1985; Van den Aardweg, 1987).

The impact of violence produces feelings of despair and helplessness both in pupils and teachers. The use of corporal punishment worsens these feelings with the school becoming an extension of the violence occurring within society, resulting in a loss of pupils' trust in teachers (Morrow, 1990; Winship, 1992). Similar patterns of mistrust in staff are observed in schools where there are high incidences of gang related crimes and violence within schools (Friedman, 1998). The application of corporal punishment will not be able to restore the trust in teachers (Maree, 1995).

From the local literature it can be seen that pupils who display violent behaviour and who are involved in breaking the law, are sent to alternate schools where individual attention can be paid to their behaviour (Inter Ministerial Committee, 1996; Southgate, 1997; Toby & Scrupski, 1982; Witten 1994). In South Africa a child first has to be found guilty of a crime before being sent to an alternate school such as a school of Industry or Reformatory. The success of these institutions in rehabilitating pupils in South Africa has been questioned since pupils are removed from their community and experience feelings of powerlessness and alienation which is worsened by the institution's harsh and punitive treatment of rule violation (Southgate, 1997). The feelings of powerlessness and alienation are similar to emotions evoked within pupils in ordinary schools where corporal punishment is applied. It can therefore be deduced that the behavioural problems of the pupil is passed on within the educational system.

The reasons for violence are multi-causal ranging from medical and personality factors (Cohen & Cohen, 1987; Coleman, Butcher, Carson, 1984; Kerr & Nelson, 1983;) to family issues (Jones & Jones, 1981; McManus, 1989; Van den Aardweg, 1987; Winship, 1992) such as breakdown in the extended family, poverty, divorce, ineffectual parental skills and parental abuse. Teachers within South Africa face many challenges. Not only are they faced with large pupil numbers, in excess of 40 pupils per class, but they also have to adapt to a new curriculum and uncertainty about their future. This has resulted in teachers experiencing severe stress (Chalkline, 1997). The daunting task of having to face an unruly mob of children that run riot in the face of ineffectual attempts to control them and that offer a varied fare of verbal and perhaps even physical violence on and off throughout the school day, is sufficient to drive teachers to use corporal punishment, especially when teachers have not

received adequate in-service training in alternate methods of discipline. Teachers, therefore, resort to a previous economical method that worked, namely, corporal punishment (Wynne, 1990).

2.6 Discipline strategies

2.6.1 Positive discipline strategies

In the absence of corporal punishment, teachers have to use other methods to maintain discipline in schools. There are numerous strategies available to the teacher to manage pupil behaviour. However, it would be necessary for teachers to acquaint themselves fully with what type of disciplinary programme they want to implement to maintain discipline. Most discipline improvement efforts would involve training or retraining of staff members.

Rice (1987) and Sihlangu (1992) expressed concern in that teachers participating in their research saw discipline and punishment as being synonymous. They express the need for teachers to see these two issues as being separate in order for strategies around discipline to be effective. Furtwengler and Konnert (1982) stress that the diagnosis of discipline effectiveness and the implementation of discipline change require time and commitment since positive results might not be immediate.

This study explores, through the survey questionnaire, the attitude of teachers to methods of discipline other than corporal punishment. Within this study, alternate discipline strategies will be termed positive discipline strategies, a term also used by Rice (1987) in a similar study.

The aim of exploring whether teachers have used positive discipline strategies is to establish their success or failure and to obtain an indication of how teachers understand positive discipline.

Rogers (1990) states that discipline is a teacher directed activity whereby pupils are led, directed, managed or confronted about behaviour that disrupts the rights of others, be they teachers or other pupils. This teacher led behaviour has goals beyond

retaliation or punishment. It aims to lead pupils towards self-control and personal accountability (Rogers, 1990; Saunders, 1979).

Rogers (1990) indicates that discipline is concerned with, firstly, the socialisation process of individuals whereby pupils develop stability in social conduct. They need to learn to get on with others. Secondly, pupils need to experience personal maturation whereby they develop responsibility, tolerance to the frustrations of learning and social relationships, a sense of individual effort and a sense of pride in themselves and their potential. Thirdly, they need to develop moral judgement, which is bound up with the socialisation process which includes manners, standards, boundaries of right and wrong that are required to enable all members of a group to enjoy their rights. Fourthly, discipline must be concerned with providing emotional security. The self-esteem of the pupil must be developed in a positive manner.

It is acknowledged that acquisition of discipline is a long-term process (Furtwengler & Konnert, 1987; Rogers, 1990). It is a process that allows pupils self-control and a choice over their own behaviour. It can therefore be argued that discipline has long-term goals.

Different models of discipline management exist and the teacher would have to commit him or herself to studying a selected intervention and patiently applying it in class. MacNaughton and Johns (1991) have grouped management and discipline models into four categories. Firstly, there are behaviour management models, which have their source in behaviour psychology, which concentrate on determining the desired classroom conditions and the systematic application of positive and negative reinforcement. The primary focus is to strengthen desirable behaviours and to eliminate undesirable ones. Use is made of token economies and contingency contracting, such as reward schedules. The second category is the classroom management model with a high emphasis on on-task behaviour by pupils. The model stresses the need to plan management procedures, teach the procedures to pupils, monitor pupil behaviour and then deal with inappropriate behaviour by providing feedback. Thirdly, socio-emotional models emphasize a positive learning environment and interpersonal relationships between teacher and pupils. A climate of genuine acceptance, clear and open communication and democratic procedures is present.

Emphasis is placed on the importance of good teacher-pupil relationships in order for teaching to be effective. The fourth category is concerned with group process designs and stresses the control role that the teacher has to play in establishing and maintaining an effective classroom group. This design emphasises that a task-orientated classroom enhances acceptable behaviour, offers opportunities for pupil leadership, provides for a high level of interpersonal relationships and communicates accurate and realistic goals.

In order for new discipline strategies to be effective, there has to be a consistent, uniform, whole school discipline programme that involves all stakeholders (Fontana, 1986; MacNaughton & Johns, 1991; Wilson & Cowell, 1990). Parents would also need to be involved in the development of school rules. The communication of behavioural standards between both systems is important and is facilitated through the process of information and feedback. Through the process of information and feedback, the expectations of the school and the family would be reinforced.

Chalkline (1997) and Grey (1997), point out the difficulty that teachers are having in adapting to new methods of discipline and that the adoption of new methods in the classroom is going to be a long process. This raises serious questions around teacher training, support from the provincial education departments and other support services. Lack of tangible improvement in pupil behaviour may tempt teachers to use a quicker method of discipline management, namely, corporal punishment.

2.6.2 Punishment

Punishment can be viewed as the imposition of a penalty for some fault. Coleman, Butcher and Carson (1984) indicate that punishment may involve either the removal of positive reinforcers or the use of aversive stimuli. The basic idea is to reduce behaviour that is undesirable. Baron and Byrne (1984) see punishment as the introduction of severe penalties to deter unwanted behaviour.

Punishment may take many forms (Monyooe, 1987; Naidoo, 1994; Rice, 1987; Sihlangu, 1992) and for the purpose of this study include corporal punishment, withdrawal of privileges, detention, additional work, community work, hard labour,

cleaning the school and verbal abuse. On the other hand, positive disciplinary measures may vary in form and include rewarding positive behaviour, modeling appropriate behaviour, improving communication strategies, parent consultations, drawing up contracts, counselling and encouraging the development of self-discipline. There is an active debate whether punishment is effective in deterring unwanted behaviour. Brendtro and Long (1998) feel that punishment has a temporary effect on pupils especially when it does not lead to the pupils gaining insight to their behaviour. Jones and Jones (1981) argue that pupils will be unable to develop self-discipline in the presence of a punishing external agent that controls their behaviour. Boyson (1975) argues that punishment measures are essential since they provide the pupil with clear boundaries. Maree (1995) found that teachers regarded punishment as important since it developed respect and was seen as the only measure to reduce behavioral problems.

Rice (1987) and Sihlangu (1992) express their concern that discipline and punishment are seen as mutually inclusive components in effective pupil control strategies. Discipline and punishment are not synonymous yet they continue to be seen as such by educators. The primary reason being that teachers view schools becoming unmanageable in the absence of punishment measures (Conradie, Cloete & Sonnekus, 1994; Maree, 1995). Separating discipline and punishment would help teachers develop an understanding of the nature and purpose of each component (Rogers, 1990). They would be able to develop insight into the behaviour of pupils and understand the role that discipline and punishment plays. It is the author's contention that the synonymous use of discipline and punishment does not reflect an understanding of the nature of discipline and punishment in education.

With the abolition of corporal punishment schools have been called upon to determine whether their disciplinary measures were effective, hence the term discipline effectiveness (Furtwengler & Konnert, 1982; Toby & Scrupski, 1990). Weiner (1979) points out that these disciplinary measures need to make pupils look at their behaviour and decide whether they will take charge of changing or allow the school to impose measures that will monitor and regulate their behaviour, as would be the case in the application of corporal punishment.

2.6.3 Suspension and expulsion as punishment measures

This section will focus on two traditional forms of institutional punishment namely, suspension and expulsion due to the pervasive impact that they have on the pupil, family and community. Corporal punishment is discussed later in this chapter.

Suspension and expulsion are forms of punishment that are dealt with in existing forms of legislation.

The S. A. Schools Act of 1996 (p. 8) says the following:

Suspension and expulsion from public school

9. (1) Subject to this Act and applicable provincial law, the governing body of a public school may, after a fair hearing, suspend a learner from attending the school.
- (a) as a correctional measure for a period not longer than one week; or
 - (b) pending a decision as to whether the learner is to be expelled from the school by the head of the department.
- (2) Subject to any applicable provincial law, a learner at a public school may be expelled only –
- (a) by the Head of Department; and
 - (b) if found guilty of serious misconduct after a fair hearing.

Both forms of punishment are extremely serious and are generally given to pupils who have displayed serious forms of in-discipline (Prinsloo & Beckman, 1987).

To be suspended means to be temporarily excluded from school activities whereas expulsion is extremely serious action by the school where a pupil is banned from school activities permanently. Pupils are suspended or expelled due to causing disruption in their academic environment, damage to school property or endangering the safety of other pupils, teachers or other school officials. Pupils may be expelled for alcohol and drug abuse and the use of encouragement of others to use violence, force or other actions interfering with the education process (Bray, 1992).

In the absence of corporal punishment, teachers have to establish an effective method to deter undesirable behaviour from recurring. The punishment must protect the

normative system of the school's rules and must also serve as an example to other pupils of what could happen to them. Toby and Scrupski (1990) state that within certain schools in America, suspension was seen to have a positive effect on pupils. They found that suspension increased respect for the teacher and affected the behaviour of other pupils. It was also found to be a positive disciplinary strategy. This would account for its popular usage within American schools as opposed to corporal punishment (Bray, 1992). However, it can also lead to pupil disaffection with the school and can contribute to pupils dropping out of school (Grey, 1997; Sihlangu, 1992).

Denial of attendance at school is a serious issue since it infringes on the pupil's right to education. It can also detrimentally affect a pupil's future since he or she would be missing important work being done in class. This would have implications for the pupil since he or she would have to catch up on missing work and this could affect his or her opportunities later in education and has implications for employment (Bray, 1992; McManus, 1989).

From a developmental perspective, the school would also be denying the pupil the fulfillment of certain basic needs that are essential for his or her development. These needs are postulated by Maslow (1968) and are, physiological needs, security needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs. The negative impact that suspension and expulsion could have on the pupil will lead to unfulfilled needs such as the need for belonging, the need to belong to a group, damage to his or her self-esteem and withdrawal from an opportunity to experience self-actualization. These unmet needs may lead to disruptive behaviour (Moore, 1990).

The Educator's Employment Act of 1998 cautions the teacher against the psychological abuse of the pupil and the school has to determine whether emotional and psychological harm is being done to the pupil since the teacher could face a lawsuit (Prinsloo & Beckman, 1987). The S. A. Schools Act of 1996 stipulates that a thorough investigation has to precede a suspension or expulsion since some parents might even manipulate the situation to get their children out of school (Jones & Jones, 1981).

The socio-political implications for schools are quite evident with the S. A. Schools Act adopting a more humane approach to the treatment of the pupil free from the political ideology of the past. Morrow (1992) warns that teachers do have power, even when they feel dis-empowered and powerless. They need to use that power not to damage or distort pupils lives, thereby being drawn into the legacy of violence that has pervaded our schools but to use that power to make schools safe, non-violent places and where pupils can experience a form of life in which conflicts and tensions are resolved by methods other than violence.

Not only do teachers who perceive that corporal punishment to be a viable disciplinary tool need to undergo a paradigm shift, but the school also has to experience systemic change which is maintained over time to ensure that success with new methods is experienced.

2.7 Authority

Dowling (1985) indicates that there are common elements within family and school systems. An important shared element is the hierarchical organisation of both systems. It is generally the adult who takes charge, makes consistent rules, and communicates them clearly to the children or pupils. These rules are intended to make the children feel secure and provide them with an understanding about limits and enables them to begin to experience the notion that breaking rules has consequences.

Wilson and Cowell (1990) contend that in order for a school to function properly, someone, or a particular group of persons, has to establish rules to enable the school to operate effectively. Where rule violation occurs, teachers need to be given power to punish offenders. Teachers therefore find themselves in a position of authority, over pupils. If a teacher has authority, then the implication is that the commands of the teacher has to be obeyed whether or not it is thought to be wise, popular or pleasant.

Prior to the S. A. Schools Act of 1996 the notion of authority was that the pupil had to obey the teacher without much questioning. This introduced conformist and authoritarian practice. In some contexts, the rule was that people ought to get what they deserve and offenders were punished accordingly (Wilson & Cowell, 1990).

Pinnock (1997) states that this type of treatment was not educational but retributive and was supposedly designed to advance human well being. This introduced a norm which has been difficult to move away from for certain teachers when one considers that corporal punishment is still applied today in some schools (Chalkline, 1997). Teachers generally argued that their authority could not be established within the classroom without the use of corporal punishment and that the maintenance of school order to promote learning would be compromised in the absence of corporal punishment (Monyooe, 1986; Rice, 1987; Sihlangu, 1992). Teachers therefore had a specific understanding of authority and power in relation to school management and discipline. With the introduction of the S. A. Schools Act in 1996, teachers had to undergo a paradigm shift in terms of their understanding of authority and power. Corporal punishment was banned and teachers had to start taking responsibility for and initiating a process of teaching pupils to assume responsibility for their own behaviour and to participate in the taking of democratic and well informed decisions (Fontana, 1986).

In order for teachers to experience a paradigm shift, Druker and De Jong (1996) argue that teachers would need to see their pupils in relation to a number of variables such as the home, community, family, friends, personality, that is, they would need to view their pupils within an eco-systemic framework. The training of teachers within South Africa has primarily been linear and reductionistic and in order for there to be sustainable change, teachers would need to change their thinking from a positivistic and linear worldview to a more eco-systemic one (Druker & De Jong, 1996).

The challenge for teachers is to exercise their authority without being retributive. Teachers need to demonstrate to pupils an ability to apply the rules of the school in a manner that is fair and consistent (Jones & Jones, 1981).

2.7.1 The development of authority

The child's first encounter with authority is within the hierarchical structure of the family. It is within this context of human interaction that the child develops an understanding of authority and power (Jones & Cowell, 1990; Willis-Brandon, 1990).

Thus when describing the school as a microcosm of society we would imply that a child has been exposed to a hierarchy of authority.

In order for the principal and staff to establish and maintain conditions that are conducive to learning, there has to be an acknowledgement of the authority of the teacher and power granted to the teacher to carry out assigned tasks (Prinsloo & Beckman, 1987; Van Wyk, 1983). This power is given to the teacher through the governing body of the school and by other laws applicable to the educational practice of the teacher. Wilson and Cowell (1990) state that within a school there is specific interaction between the various members that constitute the school that would therefore require rules that are commonly subscribed to in order for the school to function effectively. These rules can be codified, overtly agreed or contracted for. The S.A. Schools Act of 1996 indicates that pupils must have a code of conduct into which they have had input and agreed to. The central purpose of this is to establish rules or norms that will lead to the maintenance of order and discipline within the school so that teaching can take place.

Children develop a construction of authority through the environment they interact with daily. Van den Aardweg (1987) found that pupils in South Africa who participated in acts of violence within their community would not limit their violent behaviour to outside the school. Pupils who feel isolated, powerless and dissatisfied with the treatment they receive by those in authority, will rebel in various ways against the authority within the school. From a general systems perspective, Dowling (1985) refers to this behaviour as a process whereby school age children absorb family rules, contrast them with rules outside the family system, namely the school, and play back to the family their new integrated version of familial rules. A pupil might therefore find him or herself torn between two sets of rules and the loyalties demanded by each system.

The implication is that pupils might view teachers as being part of a system that is oppressive resulting in behaviour that is defiant and condoned by the community. The challenge for teachers is to establish norms in schools that can be implemented in families, the aim of which is to benefit the child. The school's understanding of discipline would therefore be important since it would guide any formulation of

policy concerning the behaviour of pupils. The policy would take into account the context of the pupil's existence. It could be argued that pupils who have been exposed to live adult models of violence and who refuse to obey adult authority will find it difficult to accept coercive authority within the controlled environment of a school (Baron, 1977).

Jones and Jones (1981) indicate that there has been a move away from the automatic acceptance of adult authority within American schools primarily due to the dysfunctional nature of families and where adults are perceived to be less of an authority on world issues. As children become able to examine and analyse their environment at increasingly younger ages, the concept of child subservience to the unexplained authority of adults will come under increasing strain. As a result adult authority comes into question at an early age (Jones & Jones, 1981). Hlatshwayo (1992) indicates that the traditional black South African family that was characterised by a strong paternal authoritative base has undergone significant change. It was the father who exercised strong discipline in the home. This view is supported by Ngcobe (1986) who states that for the black child, authority constituted an essential element in life that the child learnt at an early age. However, the changing political landscape of South Africa has had a devastating impact on the traditional South African black family and has affected the construction of authority within the home (Hlatshwayo, 1992). Through education the children began to assimilate western culture with black parents depending on the school to manage the behaviour of their children since many parents could not identify with the new educational demands and new sets of values and norms. This resulted in a devaluing of the authority of the parents.

2.8 Legislation and the classroom

Legislation has also directly affected the classroom in that pupils are protected by law from being punished by means of corporal punishment. However, Jones and Jones (1981) as well as Hlatshwayo (1992) point out that some pupils have abused their rights by deliberately disobeying assigned tasks and instructions, thereby contributing to the erosion of the authority of the teacher. It could be argued that the abuse of power can swing in favour of pupils, with pupils being able to be abusive towards

their teachers, knowing that nothing can be done to them. Teachers are therefore faced with the challenge of educating pupils how to use their rights responsibly.

Teachers need to realize that pupils do not shed their rights when they enter the school gates and neither do they possess absolute authority over their pupils. Pupils must realize that in *loco parentis*, although limited, does allow the teacher to exercise power, restraint and correction to facilitate educational functions of the school (Bybee & Gee, 1982). The education of pupils raises critical questions, particularly around the manifestations of authority. The most important thing for the teacher is to allow the pupil to grasp that rules are logically required by human co-operation and to provide appropriate contexts for this to be discussed and experienced. This might indeed require a paradigm shift for some teachers since many cannot visualize a school being managed effectively without corporal punishment (Monyooe, 1987; Rice, 1987; Sihlangu, 1992).

2.8.1 South African law and corporal punishment

Before the abolition of corporal punishment in 1996, the various education departments in the country did not have a uniform set of rules for the administration of corporal punishment. However, the following regulations applied fairly generally. The caning of boys was to take place only in the principal's office, by the principal or somebody delegated to do so by the principal. Corporal punishment was limited to the buttocks and was carried out with a cane that had to comply with certain dimensions. The punishment also had to be recorded (Holdstock, 1990; Prinsloo & Beckman, 1987; Van Wyk, 1983). The application of corporal punishment in schools was subject to a lot of confusion and controversy due to the different Provincial Ordinances regarding corporal punishment and the different educational departments' views on the matter. In addition, lawyers made use of case law to guide them in lawsuits that went to court as a result of the application of corporal punishment by a teacher.

The introduction of the South African Schools Act in 1996 heralded the start of a new era in school management. The controversy that once prevailed with regard to corporal punishment was finally removed with full acknowledgement being given to

the human dignity of the child by way of the Bill of Rights which was enshrined in the constitution of the Republic of South Africa in 1996. A new controversy has now surfaced questioning whether the abolition of corporal punishment has affected the effective management of schools negatively.

Within schools, teachers had to maintain discipline so as to ensure that teaching took place. However, there existed amongst teachers a lack of insight into understanding the difference between discipline and punishment and corporal punishment was applied without an in-depth understanding of the two issues (Rice, 1984; Sihlangu, 1992). The South African Schools Act of 1996 forced schools to make a distinction between discipline and punishment with clear guidelines being given to the application of punishment. Traditionally, teachers were empowered to exercise corporal punishment by virtue of their common law status as persons acting in *loco parentis*, that is, in the place of the parent. Before the S.A. Schools Act of 1996, South Africa had seventeen education departments with different provincial and departmental regulations that applied to corporal punishment that guided the teacher in relation to the pupil and the meting out of punishment. Prior to 1994, South Africa never had a Bill of Rights and in its absence, Bray (1992) argues that corporal punishment violated a pupil's dignity and privacy and would not have afforded the pupil protection against inhuman and degrading punishment.

The South African Constitution, and the S. A. Schools Act of 1996 protects all pupils in South Africa from human rights abuse. Before the S. A. Schools Act of 1996, authors such as Bray (1992), Manyuha (1994) and Pete (1994) questioned to what extent the impact of court judgements in Namibia and Zimbabwe concerning corporal punishment would be seen to be significant in the formulation of the future South African Bill of Rights and the country's policy with regard to corporal punishment. In Zimbabwe, Supreme Court decisions in 1988 and 1990 prohibited corporal punishment being inflicted on adult and juvenile offenders. This had broad ranging implications for schools in Zimbabwe with corporal punishment being banned (Manyuha, 1994). The Namibian Supreme Court in 1991 ruled that corporal punishment inflicted on school children was unconstitutional (Bray, 1992; Pete, 1994).

When a person considers South Africa's history of human rights abuse with its inhumane treatment of juveniles (Pinnock, 1997), then the author would contend that the S. A. Schools Act was introduced to move away from South Africa's violent past as opposed to being primarily influenced by court judgments in neighbouring states. As a result, the acknowledgement of human dignity was inscribed in the South African Schools Act of 1996 which spelt out clearly that corporal punishment could not be inflicted on any child and that other forms of punishment had to be sought such as suspension or expulsion but only under strict provisions. The South African Schools Act of 1996 provides clarity on critical issues around school management and provides parents with more power in managing the educational future of their children. It also dealt with the confusion that existed around the *loco parentis* status of the teacher to inflict corporal punishment that arose from the common law.

The following prohibitions with regard to corporal punishment apply as contained in chapter two of the S.A. Schools Act of 1996 (p. 10)

10. (1) No person may administer corporal punishment at a school to a learner.
- (2) Any person who contravenes subsection (1) is guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to a sentence which could be imposed for assault.

The introduction of the S.A. Schools Act of 1996 therefore provided a clear interpretation of the position of corporal punishment in relation to pupils.

2.8.2 The debate around the teacher and *loco parentis*

Witten (1994) records the controversy in America and Canada with reference to the interpretation of the term *loco parentis* since it has implications for the use of corporal punishment. There is the view that the teacher stands in place of the parent and as such, is able to apply punishment. The other argument is that teachers do not perform the full range of duties, responsibilities and obligations of a parent toward a minor. They do not support the pupil financially nor do they provide for most of the tangible and intangible necessities that the child finds in the home (Witten, 1994). The definition of *loco parentis* within the educational context is therefore misleading and refers to a narrow set of responsibilities that are primarily concerned with

discipline, with discipline not being fully representative of the concept of *loco parentis*. Witten (1994) records that the lack of a definitional norm for *loco parentis* has led to various interpretations of the term *loco parentis* which has led to corporal punishment being applied differentially in America and Canada. In Britain, the concept of *loco parentis* was tackled differently in that a common definition for *loco parentis* was formulated. Teachers could no longer invoke the Common Law right to administer reasonable and moderate corporal punishment to defend themselves against an assault charge. The threat of an assault charge essentially abolished corporal punishment from public schools in Britain (Corrie et al., 1982). The Educators Employment Act of 1998 as well as the Educators' Guide to Conditions of Service (1997) indicates that teachers are to adopt a code of conduct in relation to the professional nature of their duties. It also explains the professional responsibilities of teachers. Teachers therefore function in a position of *loco parentis* towards the pupils in their care but may not use corporal punishment

2.8.3 Corporal punishment and common law

Each country has its own unique legal system and the law of education has to be studied within the context of that country's legal system (Birch and Richter, 1990). The South African legal system is regarded as a hybrid legal system since it contains elements of both the common law and Romano-Germanic legal families. The history of South African law may be divided into three periods, namely, the Roman, the Roman-Dutch and the South African periods. After the British occupation of the Cape, from 1806 – 1910, South African law was affected greatly by English law, namely common law (Van Wyk, 1983).

The term common law can be confusing. It can be used in three different senses: firstly, common law is the South African law which applies as a general rule to all residents within the Republic of South Africa; secondly, common law is the portion of South African law which is not embodied in legislation, in other words, that portion of the law which developed out of Roman-Dutch law; thirdly, common law is related to the common law of English law which is unwritten law since English jurists are trained in previous court judgements (Van Wyk, 1983). There are conflicting opinions about the role of common law as a source of law. Prinsloo et al. (1987) record

numerous court judgements that show differences of interpretation around the application of corporal punishment. They attribute this to the interpretation of an individual judge concerning common law and the uniqueness of individual cases. Common law should be seen as the central framework around which three law-making media evolve, namely; statute law, case law and the law of custom. Rules of common law may be abolished to bring about a clearer understanding of the law, hence the South African Schools Act of 1996. However, the S.A. Schools Act of 1996 can only be understood against the sub-strata that the common law provides.

The power vested in teachers to manage schools and maintain discipline surfaces out of the common law where teachers act in *loco-parentis* (in place of the parent). It is primarily out of the common law that teachers, prior to the S.A. Schools Act of 1996, could inflict corporal punishment.

An article by Baleta (1998) reflects the difficulties that teachers are having in coping with disruptive behaviour and indicates that teachers are still practicing corporal punishment, and in some instances, in collaboration with the parents. Winship (1992) attributes the need by parents to have the school punish their children to poor interpersonal relationships between parent and child and parents feeling dis-empowered since their children have a greater level of schooling than them. Due to some parents being unable to control their children, there exists a symbiotic relationship between the parents and the school in order to meet the needs of both adult systems.

2.9 Teachers and the legal provisions of education

Various Acts such as the Educators Employment Act of 1998 and the South African Schools Act of 1996, have brought the legal practice of education into sharp focus. The primary aims of these Acts was to bring a professional standard to educational practice within South Africa and to clarify any confusion that there might have been with respect to the duties and conditions of service of educators in South Africa. The abolition of corporal punishment has forced teachers to look critically at their methods of maintaining discipline and to align their behaviour with that of the S.A. Schools Act of 1996.

Van Wyk (1983) acknowledges that teachers within South Africa have generally been poorly prepared, legally, for the task that awaits them as educationists.

This lack of preparation can result in many teachers being uncertain about the numerous ways in which they are affected by the juridical sphere of reality in the performance of their professional duties (Van Wyk, 1983). This could result in their actions being unsure and haphazard in certain respects. In various Western countries such as England, the USA, the Netherlands and Belgium, the law of education is recognised as a relatively independent field of study and is studied in a systematic manner (Birch & Richter, 1990).

Raikane (1992) indicates the necessity for a course in educational law in teacher training programmes in South Africa to advise them about matters that pertain to their conditions of service and the administration of corporal punishment.

Just as members of other professions should be acquainted with the legal provisions that characterise their profession, teachers should not be the exception as their obligations and relationships to society are of a very public and sensitive nature. Teachers ought therefore to acquaint themselves with educational law in order to execute their professional responsibilities satisfactorily.

The specific authority held by teachers has numerous legal implications, particularly concerning possible liability for negligence. At times, teachers deal with immature pupils who, because of their defective knowledge and judgement, cannot always appreciate the connection between cause and effect. Teachers therefore have definite obligations in such matters as supervision of pupils, and the conduct and safety of pupils. Teachers who have no knowledge of the law of education are usually under the impression that all the legal rules that relate to education are contained in legislation. They are unaware that in addition to educational legislation, there are also other important sources of law, namely common law and case law (Prinsloo & Beckmann, 1987; Van Wyk, 1983).

Teachers are required by law to perform important functions within the school and to ensure the safety of the pupil. The application of corporal punishment as a means to establish and maintain this order is now illegal. However, with the upsurge in school violence and disruptive behaviour, teachers, in desperation, have sought to apply

corporal punishment with parental consent (Baleta, 1998). The question arises whether the act of parental consent contravenes the S.A. Schools Act of 1996 and the South African Constitution or whether customary law and common law, such as the authority of the parent, takes precedence (Birch & Richter, 1990; Prinsloo & Beckman, 1987).

The central purpose of education in all countries is to holistically equip young people for the demands of life, primarily the world of work. However, the laws that govern education differ from country to country (Birch and Richter, 1990). Although parents have control over their children, it is the government of the day that sets educational standards and that compels children to attend school. It is also the government that has an incisive say in the daily management of a school. Teachers should therefore be conversant with the various legal provisions and principles applicable to their profession. Such knowledge enables teachers to perform their professional duties more efficiently and to demonstrate to the pupils living models of adults who recognise the personal worth of children in their care.

2.10 The opposing schools of thought with regard to corporal punishment

2.10.1 The rationale for the continued use of corporal punishment

The institutional arrangements for education in schools define the terms under which teachers construct their relationships with the pupils in the immediate classroom situation. It is within the classroom situation that the authority of the teacher is put to the test. Teachers who support corporal punishment contend that it is essential to maintain a dominant position in their interaction with their pupils in order for work to be completed (Monyooe, 1986; Rice, 1987; Sihlangu, 1992). If we are to use the premise that it is the community which shapes and enforces the societal codes by which we live, then we will be able to get a picture of the tensions that exist within a classroom (Witten, 1994). These tensions arise where parents expect the teacher to maintain discipline and to remediate disciplinary problems. In contrast to this, are the expectations of teachers, who require parents to maintain discipline at home. The presence of disparate expectations can lead to tensions between the two systems.

2.10.1.1 Corporal punishment develops character

The pro-corporal punishment establishment has also clung to the notion that the child's nature is bad and can only be corrected through punitive measures such as corporal punishment (Potgieter, 1984). The application of corporal punishment is also associated with the development of character and morality within pupils with the development of character and responsibility being a strong requirement for entry into adult life (Sihlangu, 1992; Wynne, 1990).

2.10.1.2 The rights of teachers

A significant argument put forward by the pro-corporal punishment lobby is that there has been little or no consultation with teachers with regard to their opinion and recommendations on the issue of the banning of corporal punishment (Grey, 1997; Witten, 1994). Witten (1994) records that in many instances in America, the banning of corporal punishment was done without consulting teachers. Although corporal punishment was banned in British public schools in 1986, Docking (1987) found that more than 50% of teachers in British public schools supported the use of corporal punishment as a last resort. Boyson (1975) comments that pupils and teachers in Britain demonstrated for the re-introduction of corporal punishment in order to restore order and discipline in schools. Prior to the abolition of corporal punishment in Scotland in 1986, teachers still used corporal punishment with the full knowledge that corporal punishment was to be abolished. Scottish teachers were generally not consulted about the banning of corporal punishment and felt unsupported by the educational authorities. From the discourse above it becomes clear that many teachers had a positive attitude towards corporal punishment and that the lack of consultation with regard to the abolition of corporal punishment left teachers outside of the sphere of discourse that influenced their world of work directly.

2.10.1.3 Teaching is stressful without corporal punishment

Rogers (1990) indicates that when teachers are faced with pupils displaying 'power provocative' behaviour, teachers can experience intense feelings of anger and powerlessness. The best intentions of teachers are frustrated and conflict arises. The

greater the dissonance within the teacher, the greater will be the conflict (Saunders, 1979). The ability of the teacher to resolve the conflict is an important social skill, the success of which will reduce stress levels within the teacher and pupil. Saunders (1979) has identified three categories of conflict-resolving strategies: avoidance, defusion and confrontation. Teachers who do not choose to negotiate or lack the skills to negotiate may adopt avoidance strategies. They may stay absent from school or present with a variety of stress related illnesses. This may lead towards a lowered self-esteem and a lack of perseverance. The teacher may opt to defuse the conflict situation by paying more attention to less important matters. The real source of the tension is never explored and may lead to anxiety and general dissatisfaction. Alternatively, the teacher may attempt to resolve the conflict through direct confrontation which may involve either power or negotiation strategies. Power strategies may involve corporal punishment, giving or refusing attention, detention or systems of reward through gifts and favours. The negative aspect of this approach is that one party will always feel the loser and may experience feelings of hostility and anxiety. Through negotiation strategies, the nature of the conflict is identified, confrontation is initiated, attention is given to the other person's view and a mutual decision is agreed upon. This might indeed demand a lot from a teacher.

The pressing need to remediate disciplinary problems as quickly as possible is perhaps the reason for the reluctance on the part of teachers to accept the abolition of corporal punishment (Monyooe, 1986; Rice, 1987; Sihlangu, 1992; Witten, 1994). Disciplinary problems by pupils has led to increased stress being placed on teachers, with teachers reporting a variety of negative feelings such as anger, frustration, anxiety, powerlessness and a fear of losing control (Fontana, 1986; Jones & Jones, 1981; Witten, 1994). This results in demotivation and dissatisfaction within the working environment. In Scotland, teachers attributed the increase in disruptive behaviour in pupils to the abolition of corporal punishment. The result was that teachers experienced heightened levels of stress (Maxwell, 1987). However, additional stressors were also identified such as the lack of support from parents, support agencies and the inability of the education authorities to provide a viable alternative to corporal punishment (Corrie et al., 1982; Maxwell, 1987). A similar pattern is unfolding within South Africa. Education authorities have not provided adequate alternatives to manage the poor behaviour of pupils and support services

have been unable to fully meet the comprehensive needs of schools (Grey, 1997). In addition, teachers have to teach large classes of pupils, face the prospect of retrenchment and deal with a new approach to teaching through Outcomes Based Education. It can therefore be argued that the stress of teachers is not only limited to the classroom.

2.10.1.4 The behaviour of pupils improves

Although corporal punishment has been banned within South Africa, there are many reports that reflect its continued use (Alfonso, 1998; Baleta, 1998; Chalkline, 1997; Grey, 1997; Pretorious, 1998). The basic belief is held by teachers that corporal punishment is still appropriate in the face of large classes, which serves as a daunting challenge to maintain authority and control by teachers. Teachers also maintain that they cannot envisage a school being managed without corporal punishment. They contend that a state of anarchy will prevail within schools with pupils challenging the traditional authority base of the teacher (Monyooe, 1986; Sihlangu, 1992).

Teachers have a belief that corporal punishment is generally disliked by pupils and is an effective deterrent to disruptive behaviour. It is also easy to apply and does not take up much of the teacher's time and energy (Wynne, 1990). Wynne (1990) and Grey (1997) also show that other forms of non-corporal punishment consume staff time and resources.

2.10.1.5 Corporal punishment preferred to other discipline measures

Alfonso (1998) records pupils preference for corporal punishment above other punitive measures such as detention, since they feel that the other measures of punishment infringe on their free time which could have been devoted to sport and other leisure activities. Witten (1994) found that pupils in certain Canadian Reform schools also accepted the presence of corporal punishment as a means to regulate the behaviour of pupils, but within prescribed norms. Teachers who have to stay behind for detention, generally feel angry since they feel that they are being punished for the pupil's rule violation (Grey, 1997). This acceptance of corporal punishment can be attributed to a pupil's desire to see conflict resolved as speedily as possible (Cummings & Davies, 1994) as opposed to having to wait for detention which can be

regarded as a form of emotional abuse since punishment is delayed (Winship, 1992). The nonverbal expression of anger by a teacher in response to a pupil's misbehavior can produce angry or distressed emotions in pupils comparable with responses to verbally expressed anger (Cummings & Davies, 1994). Hence the unpopularity of detention due to pupils being exposed to an angry adult.

2.10.1.6 Parental support for corporal punishment

Although Manyuha (1994) indicates that only one state within America supported corporal punishment, Witten (1994) reports that the banning of corporal punishment in American states can have different legal interpretations. A teacher might be allowed to use corporal punishment to protect him or herself and others, to use reasonable and necessary force to ensure discipline in the class or to restrain a pupil to maintain order (Witten, 1994). This has led to the continued usage of corporal punishment in American schools especially in rural settings (Pete, 1994; Witten, 1994). The use of corporal punishment is still condoned in many Canadian elementary and Reformatory schools (Witten, 1994). In Canadian Reform schools, parents and teachers agreed to the use of corporal punishment as a deterrent to misbehaviour and to make pupils aware that corporal punishment could be used. The strong deterring effect of the presence of corporal punishment appears to confirm the need for pupils to develop self-discipline and for the teacher to present an instructional presence and competence. A prerequisite was a close home-school communication system that served as the basis for teacher-pupil interactions. Disciplinary practices are properly individualized and consistent (Witten, 1994).

Research also reflects parental support for corporal punishment. In Scotland, Corrie et al. (1982) found that parents consented for their children to receive corporal punishment at school. In South Africa, Chalkline (1997), Grey, (1997), Baleta (1998) and Pretorious (1998), found parental support for corporal punishment, which translated into parents giving teachers permission to apply corporal punishment. Winship (1992) found that the consent was mainly given due to poor parental skills or the parent feeling intimidated by their child due to parents not having the same educational training. As a result, parents feel incapable of disciplining their children and transfer the responsibility to the school (Hlatshwayo, 1992; Winship, 1992).

Baleta (1998) reports that at the time of investigation, approximately 75% of schools in the Western Cape were still using corporal punishment with a higher incidence rate in rural areas. It can therefore be seen that although teachers are not supposed to apply corporal punishment, their perception of the efficacy of corporal punishment has still remained unchallenged in the face of mounting stress within South African education. Teachers indicate that the abolition of corporal punishment is ambitious and does not take into account the realities that teachers have to face (Grey, 1997).

2.10.2 The rationale for the abolition of corporal punishment

2.10.2.1 A violation of human rights

Section 11(2) of South Africa's constitution reads as follows:

‘ No person shall be subjected to torture of any kind, whether physical, mental or emotional, nor shall any person be subject to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.’

A strong argument for the abolition of corporal punishment was that it violated a person's dignity. The introduction of the South African Schools Act of 1996 heralded the introduction of a new philosophical and ideological construction of the treatment of pupils in schools. It represented a major shift from the retributive nature of education to an understanding of the inner life of youth and the processes that caused deviancy (Pinnock, 1997). The argument against corporal punishment has generally been well supported with research reflecting the negative impact of corporal punishment (Cherian, 1990; Holdstock, 1990; Maree, 1994; Rice, 1987).

2.10.2.2 Violence is acceptable

Carelse (1986) and Holdstock (1990) point out that the ability of a teacher to maintain discipline and ensure that assigned work is completed creates the impression of an effective teacher. The implication is therefore, that teachers who can manage their classes well stand a good chance to get ahead in the educational system.

The effectiveness of the teacher, to achieve desired goals, can be linked to the mechanisms used by the teacher to obtain compliance from the pupils. A teacher who

uses corporal punishment to achieve this desired end imparts the misguided lesson to the pupil that one way of getting ahead in life is to use force to achieve a desired goal (Brendtro & Long, 1998). This has the potential to teach pupils that violence pays (Baron, 1977) and that overt aggression displayed by the teacher is maintained through a process of self-reinforcement which is rewarded by the school through praise and promotion.

2.10.2.3 Hostile behaviour is modeled

The school has an important role to play in preparing pupils for meaningful entry into society. Pupils who are exposed to corporal punishment receive a conflicting message of how to cope with conflict since within the working environment it is unacceptable to react with physical force to opposition. Social learning theory views aggression primarily as a specific form of social behaviour where the behaviour of the individual is seen as the outcome of the reciprocal influence of the individual and the environment (Bandura, 1973). The application of corporal punishment within a hostile environment presents with an ideal situation for learned aggression. Holdstock (1990) contends that a child who has experienced physical punishment has the potential to develop into an adult who will use force to solve problems. There will also be a strong tendency to use force to solve problems within the family context and the person would perceive aggressive behaviour as being legitimate (Cummings & Davies, 1994; Robertson, 1998; Willis-Brandon, 1990; Winship, 1992). The exposure to corporal punishment leads to the use of aggression which, in turn, leads to more violence (Holdstock, 1990; Klaasen, 1990; Robertson, 1990; Straker, 1992). Corporal punishment is based on external motivation and, if not integrated with efforts to improve interpersonal skills, may leave pupils with a major skill deficit as well as a motivational system that ensures that productive behaviour will only exist when strong external controls are present.

2.10.2.4 Impaired academic performance

It has been shown that corporal punishment has a negative effect on the academic development of the pupil and it was also found that pupils developed a fear for school, bunked classes and developed a negative relationship with their teacher (Cherian,

1990; Holdstock, 1990; Maree, 1994; Monyooe, 1986; Sihlangu, 1992). Monyooe (1986) and Conradie et al. (1994) found that pupils felt nervous and aggressive in schools where corporal punishment was applied. Many pupils felt fear and hatred towards their teachers instead of respect which teachers thought corporal punishment produced in pupils (Brendto & Long, 1997). The fear that pupils experience leads to poor academic achievement (Cherian, 1990; Conradie et al., 1994; Maree, 1994) and to a variety of behavioural and emotional problems. These emotions cause pupils to experience a lack of mastery within their environment that leads to academic underachievement. The school can, therefore, be experienced by pupils as being a hostile environment in which teachers are seen as being brutal (Conradie et al., 1994).

2.10.2.5 The Development of a poor self-concept

Cherian (1990) points out that pupils who have been exposed to corporal punishment may develop a poor self-concept, which leads towards feelings of inadequacy, and incompetence, which is often accompanied by a sense of defeatism. These pupils will therefore doubt their ability to master new work (Cherian, 1990; Conradie et al., 1994; Purkey, 1970). The pupils' resultant need for attention and sympathy may lead them into attention seeking behaviour such as the making of unreasonable demands, deliberate misbehaviour in order to be noticed, emotional outbursts and over reactions to positive criticism. These behaviours reflect the pupils' emotional vulnerability and insecurity (Fontana, 1987; Ker & Nelson, 1983).

2.10.2.6 The formation of healthy relationships is affected negatively

Straker (1990) states that severe corporal punishment can lead to a lack of empathy within pupils. Corporal punishment reinforces a lack of desire to see things from the perspective of the pupil and therefore does not promote empathy that attempts to view the world from another person's perspective. Corporal punishment blunts altruism and concern. This is extremely significant since the pupil is involved in a reciprocal relationship with his peers and caregivers. Corporal punishment would therefore interfere with the healthy development of relationships (Brendtro & Long, 1998). Generally, altruism develops through role-playing and in providing emotional feedback. Through role-play, the pupil experiences the world of another person and is

provided with appropriate emotional feedback (Straker, 1990). Corporal punishment blunts this process and therefore does not facilitate the development of empathy within the pupil. This has significant implications for the manner in which pupils engage with their social world.

2.10.2.7 Psychological abuse: the impact of witnessed violence

Teachers often use corporal punishment on a pupil to remind the class what could happen to them if they do not conform to the rules of the teacher. This is an overt attempt on the part of the teacher to demonstrate what acceptable behaviour is. The important consideration is to establish whether pupils become compliant or whether they experience feelings of violence. Research done by Baron and Kepner (1970) indicates that exposure to the actions of another person who acted in a highly aggressive manner increased observers' tendency to behave aggressively themselves. Pupils today are more aware of their rights than has been the case in the past and it is understandable that there would be a collective anger at the violation of their rights as a result of corporal punishment (Chandler, 1990). This would result in increased disruptive behaviour, particularly in cases where pupils are exposed to violence at home and in the community (Van Den Aardweg, 1987). Van Den Aardweg (1987) and (Holdstock (1990) argue that pupils who receive punishment can become aggressors and that the cycle of violence becomes perpetuated. Therefore corporal punishment may be viewed by pupils as an appropriate manner of dealing with conflict and in turn may inflict punishment on others.

2.10.2.8 Emotional abuse

The present changes within South African education have placed huge stress on teachers and on the overall management of the school (Chalkline, 1997). With the removal of corporal punishment the preference to use severe verbal correction could be anticipated. The question arises whether severe verbal attacks could lead to acts of disruptive behaviour or even aggression in pupils. Pupils can react in different ways to severe verbal correction. They can reconcile, surrender or leave the class (Baron, 1977). However, Van Den Aardweg (1987) shows that severe verbal corrections can lead to acts of disruptive behaviour and, finally, aggression. The verbal attack by the

teacher produces a hostile environment, which is filled with fear. The mere thought of having to go to a class where the teacher is verbally hostile is sufficient to induce feelings of fear and powerlessness (Baron, 1977). The result is that often pupils react aggressively to indications of aggressive intention on the part of the teacher even though they are not actually attacked by the teacher (Herbit, 1978). The mere knowledge that another person harbors hostile intentions is often sufficient to elicit overt aggression (Baron, 1977). These attacks come from teachers whom pupils are supposed to esteem and whose opinions are supposed to be valued (Van Den Aardweg, 1987).

Research by Baron and Kepner (1970) has shown that pupils' exposure to violence leads to a breakdown in self-confidence, interpersonal skills and the inability to cope with emotions (Gama, 1990; Southgate, 1997). Pupils' academic achievement and behaviour are significantly affected by their feelings about themselves and their environment. Therefore, the school environment and effective instruction can affect pupil behaviour (Jones & Jones, 1981). Negative emotions experienced by pupils include fear, powerlessness, low self-esteem, alienation and isolation (Fontana, 1987; Gama, 1990; Maree, 1994; Van Den Aardweg, 1987). The resultant feelings of fear produce psychosomatic as well as physiological problems within certain pupils. Problems such as headaches, stomach cramps, fatigue and heightened levels of anxiety can be present (Cummings & Davies, 1994; Holdstock, 1990; Winship, 1992).

2.11 The adjustive demands faced by schools

2.11.1 Introduction

Research clearly shows that the organisation, policy and practices of individual schools have an important bearing upon pupils' behaviour. Schools themselves may sometimes be a key factor in determining whether or not certain pupils become disruptive and unco-operative. The nature of school rules, the system of sanctions and punishments, the accessibility of key members of staff, the pastoral care network, the leadership styles adopted by the principal and by senior and middle management staff, the attitude towards children's academic and social problems, and the general philosophy and ethos of the school all seem to play an important role in influencing

children's reactions (Eckholm, 1984; Fontana, 1986; Schmuck, 1984; Wilson & Cowell, 1990). The school, it seems, that shows a sensitive awareness of the needs of its individual pupils, and that operates in a caring, constructive and positive fashion, is less likely to have problems of anti-social behaviour from children than the school that adopts a more punitive and less pupil orientated role (Fontana, 1986).

2.11.2 The need for a paradigm shift

The author would argue that prior to the democratic elections in 1994, that teachers had become accustomed to a particular way of teaching and thinking which included the usage of corporal punishment. This conceptualization of the world of work of the teacher had formed a paradigm. A paradigm can be understood as the manner or way in which people view their world (Naicker, 1999). De Jong (1995), Druker and De Jong (1996) and Naicker (1999) have argued that in order for schools to be effective, teachers would need to undergo a paradigm shift. A paradigm shift refers to changing the way in which one views the world (De Jong, 1995). Naicker (1999) emphasises that teachers in South Africa have had to change from an education system that was content based, segregated and often inflexible, to an education system that was Outcome Based where the curriculum, instruction and assessment are flexible. There is also no exclusion based upon disability or race. The challenge has therefore been for teachers to let go of the old style of thinking and to shift to a more holistic approach to education. A paradigm shift could be facilitated by teachers thinking more systemically and putting in place interventions that have a systemic understanding of the behaviour of pupils (De Jong, 1995).

However, there have been factors that have impeded such a paradigm shift within South African education. Firstly, the transformation of the educational system was sudden (Naicker, 1999). Chalkline (1997) argues that the sudden change was also accompanied by other changes to education that affected the job security of teachers. The change that was brought about was introduced primarily to address the imbalances in education. However, the sudden introduction of change impeded the acceptance, by teachers, of the new direction in which education was moving. Secondly, Naicker (1999) identifies the complexity of policy development as being an additional factor in impeding the paradigm shift. Various committees and

commissions were initiated to advise the education department with regard to policy, and how to manage the educational change. The work performed by the various committees and commissions provided rich data. However, the transformation within education remained incomplete due to a lack of collaboration between the committees and commissions (Naicker, 1999). Thirdly, there has been an overestimation of the ability of teachers to experience a paradigm shift. De Jong's (1995) evaluation of the organisational development work done within schools by the Teacher in-service Programme (TIP) of the University of the Western Cape, found that only a minority of teachers experienced a significant paradigm shift from a linear to a more systemic way of thinking. In addition, teachers who accepted the new way of thinking, were impeded in their efforts by their colleagues who were either resistant or disinterested. This brings into question the effectiveness of in-service training involving the paradigm shift for teachers. (Naicker, 1999). A fourth aspect is that the expectations of the majority of teachers have not been met. In 1994 many promises were made to address the imbalances in education. However, in 1997 many schools were still without basic necessities such as books and had to deal with the additional problem of educational change (Ntombele, 1997). Outcomes Based Education also came under the spotlight with questions being asked regarding whether teachers and pupils would be able to cope with the adjustments demanded by education (Baine & Mwamoenda, 1994).

The new approach to education in South Africa respects the rights of pupils. The new paradigm demands an essential shift away from corporal punishment. This study looks at whether teachers have been able to exclude corporal punishment from general educational practice.

2.11.3 School management

All schools in South Africa are faced with the huge challenge of change. Not only are there changes that have to be made to managing disruptive behaviour of pupils, but the change to Outcomes Based Education has also placed untold stress on many schools, especially those in the poorer communities. Coupled to this is the threat of job loss to teachers (Chalkline, November 1997).

Druker and De Jong (1996) emphasise that if schools want to change then they would need to view themselves as organisations and be prepared to look at whole school development. The purpose of organisational development would be to create a capacity within the school for problem solving, an ability to examine the causes of difficulties, the development of new group process skills, the redesign of structures and procedures for achieving the goals, the alteration of the working climate of the school and the assessment of results (Hopkins & Wideen, 1984). Undoubtedly the school is arranged in a hierarchical system, which is mostly patriarchal, in which issues of power and authority strongly reside. De Jong (1995) indicates that in order for the school to move forward it would need to realize that all participants within the school would need to work together to bring about sustainable change. There must be a desire to bring about change. If this desire is absent within the management or teaching core, then sustainable change will not take place. The ways in which school factors enhance or handicap pupil progress and behaviour are often invisible to those who work within the system of the school. Even when features that contribute to disaffection have been identified, it is hardly a simple matter of removal and replacement (McManus, 1989). Jones and Jones (1981) state further that teachers need to be reflective about their own behaviour and to monitor its impact on pupil behaviour. In order for there to be sustainability of change, there has to be an on-going momentum of self-evaluation and development (Davidoff, Kaplan & Lazarus, 1994; De Jong, 1995; Druker & De Jong, 1996). Coupled to this is the principle of ownership whereby teachers own the process of change and become internally motivated for change to occur (Green, Donald & MacIntosh, 1992).

Work conducted with schools by the Teacher In-Service Project (TIP) based at the University of the Western Cape has indicated the following factors that inhibit the sustainability of school development (De Jong, 1995):

- low morale amongst teachers (lack of enthusiasm for new ideas)
- rigidity of management (conceptually narrow focussed, top down decision-making, inflexibility)
- time constraints, heavy workloads exacerbated by the retrenchments of teachers
- lack of commitment, responsibility and accountability of teachers in general
- no recognition or accreditation for courses completed.

For the school leadership there exists a very real problem of how to market the change from a retributive punitive style of pupil management to a more holistic and integrated construction of pupil and invariably school development, given the present turmoil within education and the tendency to revert to harsh measures of punishment.

2.11.4 Teacher in-service training

Various authors (Hlatshwayo, 1992; Sihlangu, 1992) have recommended in-service training for teachers to cope with the behavioural problems of pupils. Although in-service training is not a new concept to South Africa, the retraining of teachers within an organisational development framework is relatively new in South Africa (De Jong, 1995). In Europe, Britain and America there exists a long tradition of in-service training for teachers with compulsory attendance at certain courses (Newton & Tarrant, 1992). They have therefore had opportunities to develop alternate methods of coping with disruptive behaviour. Davidoff et al. (1994) recommend that teachers develop an understanding of their school environment, which includes pupils, within an ecological, systemic and social framework. This will help shift the mindset of teachers from a linear, positivistic worldview to a more systemic one which will make the process of developing alternate management strategies easier for the teacher (Van der Hoorn, 1994). For the teacher there exists the challenge to explore new methods in discipline effectiveness and to use the opportunities to maximize experience. It is within these experiences that new problems surface. MacNaughton and Johns (1991) indicate that teachers have to choose from an array of approaches and that these techniques have to be compatible with the general teaching style of the teacher. Wynne (1990) states that the definition of discipline has to be clearly understood by all staff in order for there to be consistency in the application of norms within the school. Sweden has a long tradition of in-service training for teachers and Ekholm (1984) comments that the success of in-service training can only really be seen over an extended period of time in order to realise sustainability. Ekholm (1984) contends that although teachers have received extensive training in Sweden, there is still exists a call to return to a situation where there is less freedom for the pupils, more direct teaching and more power for teachers. In America Johnson et al. (1985) state that disruptive behaviour is on the increase although teachers have entered the class

trained to deal with disruptive behaviour from various non-punitive schools of thought.

In order for teachers within South Africa to be taught alternate strategies in pupil management, they would require assistance from a variety of agencies such as the education department, school clinics, non-governmental organisations, universities and private consultants. However, the challenge for South Africa is huge since there exists a dire shortage of effective support to adequately service all schools (Lazarus & Donald, 1994). The implication is therefore that unless the national education department funds a national initiative to promote whole school development in which the fundamentals of alternate discipline effectiveness are incorporated, corporal punishment will continue to be a practice in many schools.

2.11.5 Change and the effect on pupils

Rudduck (1984) states that programmes directed at managing discipline often fail due to schools not realising the power that pupils have to sabotage programmes.

The pupils' definitions of classroom and school behaviour can be powerful conservative forces within educational practice. If the norms of classroom behaviour are suddenly changed and a new mode of learning introduced, then it is not surprising that pupils might seek to reinstate the familiar, the comfortably predictable and through the power of group pressure, lure the teacher back into recognisable routines. In the class, teacher and pupils meet each other on an unequal footing of power. In such a framework, teachers are likely to introduce an innovation since their authority or that of the school is sufficient to enforce it. This imposition of change upon pupils can be met with opposition since the pupils have to adapt to a new set of unfamiliar practices. Teachers therefore have to negotiate the meaning of innovation with pupils (Rudduck, 1984).

Rudduck (1984) presents a summary of issues that the teacher has to be aware of:

- Pupils' understanding of the form of the innovation will be increased if they have access to concrete representations of the form in addition to oral explanations.
- If an innovation requires a substantial shift in classroom roles and relationships, teacher and pupils will have to develop a mutual commitment to the work, which will counter the pull of existing conventions.

The development of a mutual commitment by teacher and pupils requires understanding of the nature of the innovation and negotiation about the management of classroom control.

Alertness on the part of the teacher to aspects of the task of communicating the nature of the innovations to pupils will increase the likelihood of the innovation taking root in the classroom.

Where innovations fail to take root in schools and classroom, it may be because the pupils are the guardians of the existing culture and as such represent a powerful conservative force in the classroom. Unless teachers pay attention to the problems that pupils' face they might be overlooking an important part of the innovation process.

2.12 Conclusions

The South African Schools Act of 1996 has significantly affected the working world of the teacher. There is the need for teachers to differentiate between discipline and punishment and to find methods other than corporal punishment to manage the behaviour of pupils. The chapter discusses the role the school environment and effective instruction play in influencing pupil behaviour indicating that pupils' behaviour is significantly affected by their feelings about themselves and their environment. In view of this, this study is aimed at exploring teachers' attitudes toward discipline and punishment in general, the attitude of teachers towards corporal punishment, educational support for teachers and the utilisation of alternate discipline strategies by teachers.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

3.1 Introduction

Traditionally, South African education has been characterised by an unconditional acceptance of authority. This tradition, together with a conformist approach to teaching, was regarded for decades as the only way to teach effectively. In addition, corporal punishment was seen as an important tool to maintain this practice.

There has, however, been an overwhelming shift away from this tradition of education in favour of a more open and democratic system of education with greater pupil participation in classroom activities, the formulation of school rules and resolution of conflict (Maree, 1995).

The question of whether teachers still feel that they have authority in the class or whether the new dispensation of education has dis-empowered them is a central focus of this study.

3.2 Aims of the study

This study is of a descriptive nature since it explores the attitudes of teachers towards corporal punishment after its abolition, which is a relatively unexplored area of research in South Africa.

The aims of this study were therefore:

- (1) to describe the existing attitudes and beliefs of teachers in schools with regard to discipline and punishment;
- (2) to determine teachers' attitudes towards corporal punishment;
- (3) to establish whether positive disciplinary strategies are considered important educational goals;
- (4) to establish whether teachers have received support in alternate methods of establishing and maintaining school discipline;

(5) to identify some educational-psychological implications that would emerge from the above areas, thereby providing information for discussion, such as the existence of a disciplinary policy for schools and teachers' perceptions of pupil behaviour since the abolition of corporal punishment.

3.3 Subjects and sampling

The sample consisted of 100 teachers. Four high schools and four primary schools within the Western Cape participated within the study.

The research made use of non-probability sampling with the specific use of purposeful random sampling. The fact that a small sample size was chosen does not mean that the sample strategy could not be random (Patton, 1990). It is argued further by Patton (1990) that the use of purposeful random sampling is to increase the credibility of the generalisations or representativeness of the results. An additional reason for the choice of purposive sampling is that the research focuses on the dynamics within a specialised profession in which respondents would have had first hand experience of the area of interest to this research (Sanders & Pinhey, 1983).

3.4 Research design

The research design used in this study was the questionnaire survey. The questionnaire consisted of closed and open questions. Chadwick, Bahr and Albrecht (1984) indicate that the survey technique is one of the most viable methods for assessing attitudes. More significantly, and for the purposes of this study, the survey method can be used to obtain information about events that have occurred previously and that now exist in the memories of those to be studied (Chadwick et al., 1984). Since corporal punishment is now banned, teachers would be able to reflect on a past when corporal punishment was legally enforceable.

The survey provides information about contextual factors unavailable via any other research (Baker, 1988). Tuckman (1978) states that the survey technique is used to discover what experiences have taken place and what is occurring at present.

3.5 Instrumentation

A questionnaire with 20 structured/closed and seven unstructured/open questions was used. The choice of closed ended questions served the advantage of ensuring that the answers were given within a frame of reference that was relevant to the purpose of the study and in a form that was legible and easy to analyse (Sanders & Pinhey, 1983). The open-ended questions provided respondents with an opportunity to expand on a particular question thereby providing richness of data. Open ended questions, raise issues but do not provide any alternatives for an individual's reply. Respondents can answer in their own terms and within their own frames of reference. The small selection of open ended questions added depth, detail and meaning at a very personal level of experience by allowing the respondents to articulate their world in terms of how they see and feel it. The argument for open-ended questions is that they provide an opportunity for the respondent to express an appropriate set of alternatives that are meaningful to them. Secondly, respondents might be influenced by the alternatives of the close ended questions given by the researcher, so that a more valid reflection of respondents' attitudes toward an issue may be obtained when they are allowed to respond for themselves (Sanders & Pinhey, 1983).

The questionnaire was able to access and measure respondents' preferences and their attitudes and beliefs (Tuckman, 1978). An advantage of the questionnaire is that it is a useful means of obtaining information about sensitive topics. It would therefore be easier for a teacher to disclose his or her feelings with regard to corporal punishment without the feeling of being censored. Sensitive topics can therefore be explored more accurately. By using the survey questionnaire, it is easier to break down the data to recombine it into categories of meaning (Baker, 1988).

The questionnaire covered the following themes:

- (1) teachers' biographical data;
- (2) the attitude of teachers towards corporal punishment;
- (3) forms of punishment other than corporal punishment used by the teachers;
- (4) the disciplinary policy of the school;
- (5) in-service training for teachers;
- (6) teachers' perceptions of the causes of disruptive behaviour;

(7) alternate strategies to corporal punishment.

3.6 Pilot study

Chadwick et al. (1984) recommend that a pilot study be conducted in order to reveal problems related to design, ambiguity and where items on the questionnaire might not even be suitable.

A pilot study was conducted to assess the clarity of the survey questionnaire with 15 teachers. Four questions were found to be unsuitable and were amended. Question 12 was rephrased due to the question not being clear enough. An example of a positive disciplinary strategy was added to question number 3 to facilitate an understanding of positive discipline strategies. Questions 8 and 10 were simplified by changing statements into questions. The questionnaire was handed back to the teachers who indicated they understood the questionnaire and had no additional problems.

3.7 Data collection procedure

Different approaches can be used to fill in the questionnaire. For this research, a group procedure was used in which teachers were called to a meeting in the staff room where the purpose of the research was explained. The questionnaires were then handed out.

Preliminary meetings were held with principals to obtain their support and to arrange for an appropriate time for the questionnaires to be administered to the teachers. The teachers were assured that anonymity and confidentiality would be maintained within the boundaries of the research process. A letter explaining the purpose of the study was given together with the questionnaire. Respondents were encouraged to express their views without discussing them with their colleagues. The aspects of anonymity and confidentiality were emphasised.

Use was made of an assistant to minimise the researcher's influence over the variables. The assistant was used to facilitate the administration of the questionnaire in all of the schools. The assistant was fully acquainted with the method of research

used within this study. A copy of the research proposal was made available to the assistant to study beforehand. Meetings were held with the assistant to rehearse procedures and to smooth out any problems.

The assistant was unable to speak to the staff at six of the schools due to schools indicating that they had time constraints. The principals also preferred to speak to their staff themselves. The researcher held regular feedback meetings with the assistant to clarify any questions and provided guidance on appropriate feedback to principals.

The use of the assistant and principals in administering the questionnaire had the following advantages, as postulated by Lin (1976):

- (1) the assistant was present or available to clarify any unclear instructions;
- (2) it was economical in terms of time since it was convenient to collect the completed questionnaires;
- (3) it created pressure for teachers to participate and complete the questionnaire;
- (4) incomplete or unclear questions could be followed up.

3.8 Analysis of the data

The data were subjected to descriptive analysis. Descriptive analysis is a set of concepts and methods used in organising, summarising, tabulating, depicting and describing collections of data. The goal of descriptive analysis is to provide a representation of the data which describes, in tabular, graphical or numerical form the results of the research (Shavelson, 1981). The data from the survey questionnaire were sorted according to frequency with findings presented statistically in the form of percentages. The data were then arranged in frequency distributions. The frequency distribution provides a means of summarising and highlighting important aspects of the data. By summarising the critical features of the data, the mass of data is presented in a more interpretable form (Shavelson, 1981).

Use was made of contingency tables to examine the relationship between variables.

The tables were used to identify and categorise patterns in the data that might be of interest to the study (Patton, 1990). The Chi - Square test was used to analyse the differences between selected groups of data.

The data from the open-ended questions were subjected to content analysis. Content analysis is an accepted method of textual investigation and involves the identification of coherent and important themes or patterns in the data (Patton, 1990).⁷ Saunders and Pinhey (1983) indicate that content analysis is a quantitative method for the analysis of qualitative data and findings can therefore be analysed statistically. In this research, the findings from the content analysis are not represented statistically. It is important to note that the data from the open-ended questions were not subjected to a standardised method of content analysis. The primary aim of the contextual analysis was to look for repeated patterns, as postulated by Baker (1988). The information was used to add richness to the data from the close-ended questions. These reported patterns are therefore used to relate to data obtained from the close-ended questions, as measured against the aims of the research.

3.9 Ethical considerations

Permission was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department to conduct the research in the schools. All persons involved in the research were informed of the purposes of the research. Participation was voluntary and informed consent was obtained. The research did not disrupt the normal functioning of the school. Anonymity and confidentiality were emphasised. The results of the research will be made available to the Western Cape Education Department and shared with the respective schools upon request.

3.10 Significance of the study

The author believes that the research has an important contribution to make towards improving teacher-pupil relationships. It also serves as a means to understand the coping strategies of teachers since the abolition of corporal punishment. Since the abolition of corporal punishment, it has become necessary for teachers to differentiate between discipline and punishment. Of a greater challenge to teachers is the demand

to understand the causal nature of disruptive behaviour, thereby providing them with an understanding of how to approach the problem behaviours and to develop effective strategies of maintaining discipline.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the findings of the research project

Patterns that emerged from the open-ended questions were combined with responses from the close-ended questions within specific categories. This provides for a rich amount of data and demands close reading.

The themes in the questionnaire, which also cover the aims of the study, serve as a guide for the presentation of the findings. Additional themes include psycho-educational findings that are linked to the study.

4.2 Biographical information of respondents

The sample consisted of 100 teachers. The teachers came from four high schools and four primary schools.

4.2.1 Gender distribution of respondents

The respondents within the sample were chosen at random and consisted of males and females as shown in Table

Table 1
Gender distribution of respondents

Gender	High School	Primary School	Total
Male	24	5	29
Female	30	41	71
Total	54	46	100

N = 100

4.2.2 Educational training of respondents

Respondents within the sample were all qualified teachers and were either trained at University or College as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Qualifications of respondents

Training Institution	High School	Primary School	Total
University	32	9	41
College	22	37	59

N = 100

4.3 Respondents' Responses to the Questions of Discipline and Punishment

The first aim of the study was to explore the attitudes of teachers toward discipline and punishment. Their responses are captured in questions 1 and 2 and are represented in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3
Responses to the question of discipline

Item	No. of respondents	%
Extremely important	90	90
Important	9	9
Not very Important	1	1

N = 100

This question reflected a general agreement amongst the respondents that discipline within schools was important (99%) with only one percent not regarding discipline as being important.

Table 4
Respondents attitude towards punishment

Item	No. of respondents	%
Extremely important	50	50
Important	45	45
Not very important	5	5
Extremely unimportant	0	0

N = 100

From Table 4 it can be seen that there was general agreement amongst the respondents that punishment was important within schools (95%).

The reasons why respondents thought punishment to be necessary were explored in question 27, which asked teachers to state the typical types of behaviour for which pupils were referred for punishment. The respondents gave the following reasons: racism, disruptive behaviour, rudeness, verbal abuse, homework not done, no books brought to school, disrespect for others (teachers and peers), drugs, vandalism, violence, theft, attention seeking, swearing, bunking, absenteeism, smoking, breaking school rules, teacher abuse, coming late to school and class, intimidation of others, no uniform, pornography, defiance, sexual harassment, alcohol, crime, carrying of weapons. The rank order of behaviour that concerned respondents the most which had to be dealt with through punishment were: disrespect for teachers and peers, no homework, acts of violence which involved fighting, assault, aggression and intimidation, vandalism, bunking and theft.

4.4 Teachers' attitudes towards corporal punishment

One of the central tenets of this research was to explore the attitudes of teachers towards corporal punishment, which was the second aim of this study. Question 4 explores the effective types of punishment received by the respondents while they were at school and are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Item	No. of respondents	%
Positive Disciplinary strategies	21	21
Verbal punishment	4	4
Corporal punishment	23	23
Verbal and corporal punishment	28	28
Self discipline	13	13
Additional methods of punishment	11	11

N = 100

From the above table it can be seen that the two categories, corporal punishment and verbal and corporal punishment obtained a combined score of 51% compared to positive strategies of 21% and self-discipline 13%. In the category additional methods of punishment, 7% had been exposed to positive disciplinary strategies combined with corporal punishment. Respondents' exposure to punishment as compared to non-punitive measures was significantly larger ($\chi^2 = 5,76 < 0,05$).

The information in Table 5 has to be compared with Table 7 which compares the respondents' exposure to punishment while they were at school and their usage of corporal punishment before the abolition of corporal punishment. The link between individual respondents' previous exposure to punishment measures and their present usage of discipline strategies, was not measured. Instead, the collective score between the two groups of data was studied. When comparing data in the combined categories of corporal punishment and verbal and corporal punishment, in Tables'5 and 7.2, 51% and 57% respectively, there is little change. It could be deduced that the choice of respondents' usage of corporal punishment could have been influenced by the availability of corporal punishment as a discipline measure, but also that this choice was influenced by respondents' exposure to corporal punishment while they were at school.

Question 21 explored the respondents' impression of the effect that corporal punishment had on pupils. Since it is teachers who primarily inflicted corporal punishment in school their insight would provide richness of data. Their responses were ranked as follows: corporal punishment has a mixed effect on pupils, corporal punishment has a positive effect on pupils, and corporal punishment has a negative effect on pupils. The dominant response was that corporal punishment had a positive effect on pupils with improvement in behaviour and productivity. Reasons given for the usage of corporal punishment were that a teacher could not adopt a soft approach since pupils came from tough areas, it instilled respect for authority, it made teaching bearable, pupils behaved, it gave clear guidelines, it should be applied in love, it was biblical, and it was the only thing that worked.

There were respondents who believed that corporal punishment affected pupils negatively in that it affected their self esteem, alienated them, caused feelings of embarrassment, led to revenge, made pupils feel more aggressive, induced fear and mistrust of adults, there was no inner change, there was a loss of respect, violence increased, pupils became frustrated and stubborn, there was value confusion with regard to human rights, corporal punishment only provided a short-term solution and that violence breeds violence.

Respondents indicated that corporal punishment had mixed results on pupils. They indicated that some pupils were accustomed to getting a hiding and acted with bravado in front of their peers. This resulted in no change in their undesirable behaviour. They attributed this to the pupils' exposure to violence at home and in the community and reflected their preference for corporal punishment as a means of punishment.

4.5 Teachers' attitude toward the abolition of corporal punishment

This section explores the opinions of respondents with regard to the abolition of corporal punishment as captured in questions 6 and 7. These are represented in Table 6.

Table 6

Respondents response to the banning of corporal punishment

(6.1) Were teachers consulted?

Item	No. of respondents	%
Yes	9	9
No	68	68
Uncertain	23	23

(6.2) Should corporal punishment remain banned?

Item	No. of respondents	%
Should be unbanned	25	25
Should remain banned	17	17
Should be used as a last resort	58	58

N = 100

In Table 6.1, 68% of the respondents indicated that they had not been consulted with regard to the banning of corporal punishment with 9% stating that they had been consulted, while 23% stated that they were uncertain. The results from Table 6.2 indicate a strong support for the reintroduction of corporal punishment, whether totally un-banned (17%) or used as a last resort (58%). The difference between the number of respondents favouring the re-introduction of corporal punishment or its continued ban is significant ($\chi^2 = 25$ p < 0,05).

The impact of the banning of corporal punishment on teachers and pupils is explored further in questions 24 and 25. The responses provide insight into the preference for the un-banning of corporal punishment (75%). The following pattern of reasons emerged from the data: classes were less manageable, teacher stress increased, teachers felt helpless, pupils were aware of their rights, no effective alternatives to corporal punishment, teachers are forced to develop alternatives, the teacher's authority is challenged, no effect on teachers. The rank order of responses was: an increase in teacher stress, teachers feeling helpless, the poor behaviour of pupils, the authority of teachers had been taken away in that pupils had no respect for them as teachers and pupils knew their rights. It could therefore be argued that respondents felt that corporal punishment gave them a sense of authority. There was the perception that the alternatives to corporal punishment were ineffective in the absence of an effective disciplinary policy, no in-service training and the absence of effective alternate measures. There were respondents who felt that the banning of corporal punishment had not affected them. They felt that teachers had to be more sympathetic, be creative in their problem solving and had to work harder.

Question 25 explored the respondents' opinion of the impact that the abolition of corporal punishment had on pupils. Patterns that emerged from the data are listed as follows: pupils are aware of their rights, overly disruptive behaviour, poor academic results, no respect towards peers, no respect towards teachers, pupils do what they want, decline in discipline, mixed impact on class, and a decline in self-discipline. The rank order of the responses that concern respondents the most are: decline in discipline, pupils knowing their rights which led to oppositional behaviour and no respect towards teachers. The information sketches a picture of a perception of a decline in discipline with pupils displaying disruptive behaviour, with teachers, generally, not knowing what to do. This has resulted in feelings of helplessness and teachers opting for corporal punishment to be re-introduced.

4.6 Disciplinary strategies used by teachers

The third aim of this study focussed on the respondents' understanding of positive disciplinary strategies, how they used them in their classes and their perceptions of their efficacy as asked in questions 3, 5 and 6. The responses to these questions are presented in Table 7. These questions elicited responses related to forms of punishment and training in maintaining classroom discipline

Table 7

Discipline strategies used by the respondents

(7.1) Forms punishment of punishment that they consider being effective today

Item	No. of respondents	%
Positive discipline strategies	47	47
Verbal punishment	1	1
Corporal punishment	12	12
Verbal and corporal punishment	16	16
Self discipline	4	4
Other methods of punishment	8	8
Other combinations of punishment	12	12

N = 100

(7.2) Methods of punishment used before the banning of corporal punishment

Item	No. of respondents	%
Positive discipline strategies	22	22
Verbal punishment	1	1
Corporal punishment	24	24
Verbal and corporal punishment	33	33
Self discipline	3	3
Other methods of punishment	5	5
Other combinations of punishment	12	12

N = 100

(7.3) Training in classroom and pupil management

Item	No. of respondents	%
Western Cape Education Dept.	0	0
School Clinic	1	1
Non Governmental Organizations	17	17
Other	12	12
No training received	70	70

N = 100

Table 7.1 (question 3) captured the opinion of the respondents with regard to what form of punishment presently, after the banning of corporal punishment, worked best on pupils. Of the sample, 47% indicated that positive discipline strategies worked best. Combining the punishment categories, verbal punishment and corporal punishment with verbal and corporal punishment gave a combined score of 29%. In the category, other methods of punishment, 12% of respondents combined corporal punishment with positive discipline strategies. The difference between the combined use of punishment methods as opposed to positive discipline strategies with self-discipline, was found to be significant ($\chi^2 = 7,84$ $p < 0,05$). This indicates that more respondents in this sample resorted to using positive discipline strategies as opposed to punishment strategies. Table 7.2 (question 5) explored the punishment used by teachers before the banning of corporal punishment. Combining the categories corporal punishment (1%), verbal punishment (33%) with verbal and corporal punishment (24%) yields a score of (58%) compared with positive disciplinary strategies of (22%). In the category, other combinations of punishment, 6% of respondents indicate that corporal punishment has to be combined with positive disciplinary strategies. The difference between the preference to use punishment methods as opposed to positive discipline strategies was found to be significant ($\chi^2 = 7,84$ $p < 0,05$) with respondents indicating that punishment methods, that included corporal punishment, were more effective before the banning of corporal punishment. When comparing the of incidence of the preference to use corporal punishment after and before its banning, as in Tables 7.1 and 7.2, then we will note that the use of corporal punishment dropped by 50% within this sample from 24% to 12%.

Table 7.3 explored whether teachers had received training in alternate methods of coping with pupil behaviour since the banning of corporal punishment. It is noteworthy that 70% of the respondents indicated that they had not received any particular training in alternate methods of pupil management. Those teachers who had received training, obtained it from non-governmental organizations (17%) while 12% indicate that they received training from other organisations.

Question 22 explored the respondents' view of positive disciplinary strategies. The following were listed by respondents: call in parents, demerit system, reward system,

caning, detention, counseling pupils, self-discipline, physical work, community work, time out, extra schoolwork. The rank order of responses were: the demerit system followed by detention and counseling. Fourteen percent were unable to give suitable examples with an additional 2% indicating that they would use anything that worked. It is noticeable that 5% equated positive disciplinary strategies with caning.

Question 23 explored the respondents' opinion with regard to positive 'disciplinary strategies as opposed to corporal punishment. The patterns of responses that emerged from the data are listed as follows: positive discipline strategies are better than corporal punishment but are difficult to maintain, positive discipline strategies are more positive than corporal punishment, positive discipline strategies are good but do not always work, corporal punishment is more effective, positive discipline strategies do not work. There was support for positive discipline strategies with respondents stating that although positive discipline strategies required more work, they were more constructive, pupils were not demoralized, they led towards self-discipline, they built pupils' self-esteem, they promoted insight, they provided pupils with incentives and assisted in the development of social skills. Certain respondents believed that positive discipline strategies could only succeed when used in conjunction with corporal punishment. These respondents believed that the two had to work together in order for discipline to succeed. Others believed that pupils who came from poor socio-economic circumstances only respected harsh discipline. The data indicate that most respondents did not have a clear understanding of the nature of positive discipline strategies. Most attempts at positive disciplinary strategies were primarily aimed at alleviating the stress of teachers temporarily as opposed to developing a complete understanding of the pupil. This can be attributed to a lack of training as evidenced in Table 7.3 where 70% of the respondents indicated that they had received no training in alternate methods of pupil and classroom management after the abolition of corporal punishment

It is interesting to note the respondents' preference for punishment responses as opposed to positive disciplinary strategies to cope with problems of discipline. Although positive disciplinary strategies score 47% in Table 7.1, little attention is paid to self-discipline (4%) as an educational goal.

Table 7.1 reflects a mixture of strategies used by teachers to cope with the disruptive behaviour of pupils. Although positive discipline strategies scores 47%, it is evident that there are respondents who have been unable to integrate positive disciplinary strategies in their teaching effectively.

4.7 In-service training for teachers

Questions 17,18,19 and 20 explore whether teachers have been trained to cope with the various aspects of pupil and school discipline. The results are presented in Table 8 and address the fourth aim of the study.

Table 8
Respondents' views with regard to in-service training

(8.1) Preparation in the legal aspects of corporal punishment

Item	No. of respondents	%
Your training institution	6	6
Western Cape Education Dept.	22	22
School management	13	13
Non Governmental Organizations	0	0
Other	1	1
No training received	58	58

N = 100

(8.2) Types of training programmes.

Item	No. of respondents	%
Workshops	31	31
Seminars	3	3
Short courses	14	14
Other	3	3
No significant training	49	49

(8.3) Financial support

Item	No. of respondents	%
Yourself	16	16
The School	42	42
Western Cape Education Dept.	2	2
Non Governmental Organizations	2	2
Other	3	3
No response	35	-

(8.4) Senior management's interest in teacher development

Item	No. of respondents	%
High level of interest	60	60
Low level of interest	30	30
No interest shown	10	10

N = 100

The need for in-service training for teachers is highlighted in Table 9.2 where 66% of respondents indicate that they received no training in alternate methods of pupil and classroom management. They indicate that the Western Cape Education Department had not helped them much (3%) and that support had mainly come from the school (19%), Non Governmental Organisations (8%) and other unspecified organisations (4%).

Table 8.1 records the amount of training in the legal use of corporal punishment received by teachers with 58% indicating that they had not received any training. The involvement of the Western Cape Education Department was 22%, school management 13% and training institutions 5%.

Table 8.2 looks at courses that teachers could attend to extend their knowledge about relevant educational issues. Workshops (31%) are the most popular method for further training, followed by short courses (14%). It must be noted that 49% of the sample indicated that they had received no significant training to further their development. Responses in Table 8.3 were influenced by the fact that no significant training had been received by 49% of the respondents as shown in Table 8.2. Respondents indicated that the school provided finance for further training for 42% of the respondents, followed by 16% who had to pay for themselves.

Table 8.4 shows that senior management displayed a high interest in the development of teachers (60%). Although there is this high interest, Table 8.2 reflects a lack of opportunity for teachers to go on courses (49%).

4.8 The causal nature of disruptive behaviour

The following section focuses on questions 12, 13, 14 and 15 with the responses recorded in Table 9. The questions explore whether teachers have an understanding of

the reasons for disruptive behaviour. This insight is important particularly when an approach is developed to help remediate problem behaviours.

Table 9

The respondents' understanding of disruptive behaviour

(9.1) The reasons for disruptive behaviour.

Item	No. of respondents	%
Yes	60	60
No	40	40

N = 100

(9.2) Training to deal with disruptive behaviour

Item	No. of respondents	%
Western Cape Education Dept.	3	3
Your school	19	19
Non Governmental Organizations	8	8
School clinic	0	0
Universities	0	0
Other	4	4
No training received	66	66

N = 100

(9.3) Disruptive pupils are dealt with by

Item	No. of respondents	%
The principal	22	22
Other senior staff	15	15
Yourself	28	28
Guidance teacher	0	0
School clinic	0	0
Other	35	35

(9.4) The effectiveness of present methods to deal with disruptive behaviour.

Item	No. of respondents	%
Very effective	2	2
Effective	19	19
Average	37	37
Below average	21	21
Poor	21	21

N = 100

Of the teachers surveyed, 60% indicated that they believed they had a clear understanding of the reasons for disruptive behaviour, as reflected in Table 9.1.

However, Table 9.2 reveals that 64% of the respondents indicate that they had not

received training to cope with disruptive behaviour. Hence the high levels of referrals by teachers to the principal and other senior staff (37%). The other referrals of 35% are all combinations of referrals to the principal and other senior staff, which would include the teacher. Therefore, the percentage of referrals to the principal and other senior staff, amongst the respondents amounted to 72%. The effectiveness of the schools' ability to cope with referred disruptive behaviour is dealt with in Table 9.4 and is generally not viewed in a positive light by the respondents with only 2% indicating very effective, and 19% effective management.

The respondents' understanding of the occurrence of disruptive behaviour is dealt with by question 26. The responses were ranked as follows: lack of self-discipline, problems within the home and the environment, no respect, they know their rights and therefore deliberately break rules, unemployment, substance abuse, attention seeking, poor self control, the impact of television, peer pressure, cannot cope with schoolwork, medical and emotional problems, teachers' attitude, lack of motivation, school, and the banning of corporal punishment. The majority of respondents viewed family and community problems as a significant contributor to disruptive behaviour. There were a number of factors that contributed to the respondents' understanding of family problems, namely, the breakdown of the family unit, poor discipline in the home, family violence, lack of boundaries, socio-economic issues, parents' long working hours, the parents' dependence on the school to discipline pupils, and the emotional needs of the pupils not being met at home. Attention seeking behaviour by pupils was also seen as a problem by the respondents.

Reasons for disruptive behaviour clustered primarily around family and environmental issues. Little or no reference was made of other viable causes of disruptive behaviour such as learning problems, medical and psychological issues and so forth.

4.9 Teachers' view of the disciplinary policy of their school

A sound disciplinary policy should provide clear guidelines to which both the teacher and pupil adhere. Table 10 captures the responses of the respondents to questions 8,9,10 and 11 concerning the disciplinary policy at their school.

Table 10

The disciplinary policy of the school

(10.1) Does the school have a policy?

Item	No. of respondents	%
Yes	50	50
No	50	50

(10.2) Teachers and pupils understand the discipline policy

Item	No. of respondents	%
Yes	41	41
No	59	59

(10.3) The policy was created by

Item	No. of respondents	%
The teachers	34	34
Teachers and pupils	12	12
Teachers, pupils and parents	35	35
The governing body of the school	6	6
Other	5	5

N = 100

(10.4) The effectiveness of the discipline policy.

Item	No. of respondents	%
Yes	26	26
No	47	47
Uncertain	27	27

their schools shows 47% indicating that their policy did not work and 26% that their policy worked.

4.10 Summary of results

4.10.1 It can be seen from the results that discipline and punishment are often regarded as being synonymous.

4.10.2 Little emphasis was placed on the development of self-discipline as an educational goal primarily due to teacher stress and the lack of training in alternate methods of pupil management.

4.10.3 Respondents indicated strong support for the re-introduction of corporal punishment, which could indicate a difficulty that schools are experiencing with regard to organisational change.

4.10.4 In-service training for teachers presents as being inadequate and lacks focus in terms of the needs of the teachers.

4.10.5 There is clear evidence that some schools do not have a clearly formulated discipline policy, which had led to teachers referring many of their problem cases to senior staff. The inability to deal with these problems led to the perception, amongst some respondents, that the discipline practice of some schools was ineffective.

4.10.6 The respondents' understanding of the nature of positive discipline strategies gave evidence that the majority of respondents have received either no training in alternate methods of pupil management or refused to use it in the face of increased teacher stress.

4.10.7 Although 60% of respondents indicated that they understood the causes of disruptive behaviour, the remaining 40% is still a large group and could be a contributory factor for the preference of punishment methods.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The information gained from this study, with regard to teachers' perceptions of corporal punishment, reflects, in part, the working world of the teacher. There is an indication of the stress that teachers are subjected to and of some of the forces that contribute to the stress. The research also captures the struggle of teachers to adapt to the new requirements regarding managing the disruptive behaviour of pupils, a task which has not been made easy by the lack of educational and social infrastructure to support and sustain such a change.

The discussion in this chapter focuses primarily on the aims of the research, with additional discussion points unfolding as the aims are considered in more detail.

5.2 Teachers' attitudes toward discipline and punishment

Respondents in the sample studied regarded discipline as being very important in their respective schools. However, in order to maintain discipline, they showed a strong preference for the use of punishment methods to enforce discipline. Even when positive disciplinary strategies were used, some respondents believed that positive discipline strategies could only be used in combination with corporal punishment. The preference for the use of punishment methods to maintain discipline is attributed by Rice (1987) to teachers regarding the two concepts as being synonymous. The dominant thought is that productive behaviour will only exist when a strong external control is present. Sihlangu (1992) also found that teachers believed that in the absence of corporal punishment, schools would be ungovernable. The majority of respondents in this sample also viewed schools as being ungovernable in the absence of corporal punishment. Respondents' previous experience of corporal punishment while they were at school, appeared to have had an influence on their practices of discipline before the abolition of corporal punishment. Rice (1987) found that teachers who had been exposed to punishment measures while they were at school,

would resort to using similar measures in their educational practice. Even after the abolition of corporal punishment, 20% of respondents, as shown in Table 7.2, still used corporal punishment. The failure of teachers to adopt less punitive approaches to discipline infractions can possibly, in addition, be attributed to a lack of a school policy to cope effectively with discipline problems, a lack of the understanding of discipline and positive discipline strategies. It could be argued that teachers have failed to view their pupils within a systems framework and have rather chosen to see the problem as originating from within the pupil, which represents linear thinking (Druker & De Jong, 1996). This contradicts the acknowledgement of respondents in this study who indicate that the primary causes of the behaviour problems in pupils are within the family and community. It is inconceivable how a problem in the child can be remedied through a beating when the cause is often outside the school. It can therefore be deduced that the majority of teachers within this study view discipline and punishment as being synonymous.

5.3 Respondents' exposure to corporal punishment

Fifty one percent of respondents indicated that they had been subjected to corporal punishment while they were at school. Sihlangu (1992), Rice (1987) and Monyooe (1986) found that there was a strong correlation between previous experience of corporal punishment and present attitudes towards corporal punishment as a disciplinary strategy. These findings support the argument of Winship (1992) and Holdstock (1990) that children who have been exposed to models of violence will tend to produce similar patterns of behaviour later in life. It can therefore be argued that respondents' choice to exercise corporal punishment could have been influenced by their exposure and experience of corporal punishment while they were at school. The findings are consistent with research literature, which shows that violence, including punishment, is mainly a learned response (Bandura, 1973; Baron, 1977). Brendtro and Long (1998) observed that this learned response produced thinking errors in adults: firstly, if the behaviour persists, more punishment is needed. This could be counter-productive given the findings in this research where it was found that pupils often acted with bravado in front of their peers and had become accustomed to a hiding. However, punishment resulted in no change in the undesirable behaviour. In contrast, it often made pupils angrier. Secondly, teachers

justify the application of corporal punishment by rationalising that if it were good for them then it would be good for pupils. This amounts to justification for counter aggression on the part of teachers. Thirdly, teachers can become locked into a strategy that is destructive. Instead of attempting other methods of managing disruptive behaviour, teachers may escalate the intensity of punishment, not wanting to acknowledge that the method is not working. Findings of this research show that the indiscriminate use of corporal punishment led to pupils seeking revenge and becoming more aggressive.

5.4 Teachers' attitudes toward the abolition of corporal punishment

There was strong support for the re-introduction of corporal punishment albeit to be used as a last resort (58%) or un-banned completely (25%). The belief that corporal punishment should be used as a last resort implies that teachers need to assess the disciplinary problems that they experience and apply various forms of discipline before resorting to corporal punishment if it were allowed (Witten, 1994). Among other disciplinary techniques, teachers would need to use communication and listening skills to explain and make sure that rules in the classroom were known and understood by all pupils before resorting to corporal punishment. Docking (1987) recorded that before the abolition of corporal punishment in Britain in 1988, more than 50% of teachers in Britain supported the use of corporal punishment as a last resort.

The complete un-banning of corporal punishment and the concept of corporal punishment being used as a last resort operate under different principles. The removal of the ban on corporal punishment would allow for its indiscriminate use, whereas corporal punishment as a last resort implies that corporal punishment can only be used after all other measures have failed. Before the abolition of corporal punishment, legislation relating to the nature of corporal punishment was dealt with in education legislation. Generally the rules and regulations permitted only reasonable corporal punishment of male pupils by the principal or his or her delegate (Prinsloo & Beckman, 1987). In schools that were administered by the former House of Representatives, corporal punishment could only be administered as a last resort after an investigation by the principal. The principal had to record the incident and the type

of punishment meted out to the pupil. The argument for corporal punishment to be used a last resort is not new. Olmesdahl (1984), Hlatshwayo (1992) and Witten (1994) comment that corporal punishment should only be imposed in the most severe cases of rule violation and then with the greatest of care, discretion and restraint. However, it is questionable whether such a rule will achieve much success in that it might open the door for abuse. Hlatshwayo (1992) comments that in many black schools there is often a disregard for regulations and that the principle of using corporal punishment as a last resort would be abused. Before the banning of corporal punishment, it was never really applied as a last resort. It is argued by Holdstock (1990) that corporal punishment was aimed at control and could be abused by teachers. Teachers often applied corporal punishment without the permission of the principal. It is the opinion of the writer that the re-introduction of corporal punishment even as a last resort, may unleash acts of revenge on the part of teachers. Sihlangu (1992) states that the last resort punishment is primarily used by teachers out of frustration and despair as opposed to the method having any educational value. For the respondents in this study, their choice for corporal punishment to be used as last resort indeed appears to arise from their frustration and despair.

5.5 The effect of the banning of corporal punishment on teachers

A high percentage of respondents indicated that teaching had become stressful since the abolition of corporal punishment. They also indicated feelings of despair. These feelings of desperation were mainly attributed to the poor behaviour of pupils and the respondents belief that their authority had been taken away. The general indication was that teachers were in need of help and the need existed for teacher training and the formation of a closer working relationship with parents, confirming the Chalkline (1997) report.

5.6 Teachers' perceptions of pupils

It is the contention of the author that the teachers' perceptions of pupils give an indication of the success with which teachers are coping with the disruptive behaviour of pupils. Respondents generally held a negative view of pupils, indicating a sharp decline in discipline as being a significant contributory factor. An additional factor

was the perception that pupils knew their rights and violated rules, knowing that teachers could not hurt them. Legislation has thus had a powerful impact on the dynamics within the class (Jones & Jones, 1981), leading to pupils abusing their rights. Wilson and Cowell (1990) question whether pupils are mature enough to deal with this type of legislation in a responsible manner. Fontana (1986) argues that it is the role of the teacher to develop a teaching environment in which the pupil is able to exercise his rights in a responsible manner. Grey (1997) states that the teacher must develop a learning environment which is safe and affirming. From the results of this survey, it can be inferred that respondents' attempts at creating a safe affirmative environment were either non-existent or were met with mixed results. This resulted in teachers feeling frustration and despair and hence their preference to use punishment to manage pupil behaviour.

5.7 Respondents' perceptions of the impact of corporal punishment

Although there was strong support for the re-introduction of corporal punishment, the respondents gave mixed responses with regard to the effect that corporal punishment had on pupils. Findings were consistent with Sihlangu (1992) and Monyooe (1986) who found that teachers believed that corporal punishment led to an improvement in productivity and pupil behaviour. Brendtro and Long (1998) indicate that the reasons given for the usage of corporal punishment by teachers are based on distorted thinking. One such thinking error is the belief that if punishment is severe enough, children will cease behaving in a negative manner and comply with instructions. Failure of the method does not result in the application of an alternate strategy; rather the intensity of punishment might increase. This results in pupil distrust in teachers and a negative attitude towards school.

This view is upheld by respondents in this study who indicate that corporal punishment affected pupils negatively both psychologically and emotionally. Respondents admitted that pupils began to mistrust adults and that there was no significant inner change in pupils. It can be deduced that corporal punishment did not lead to the development of self-discipline since the climate within the class instilled fear and resentment. Respondents also indicated that some pupils experienced value confusion in that they saw teachers attempting to resolve conflict through violence.

Some pupils refused to change their behaviour even when confronted by the prospect of corporal punishment. They had become conditioned to accepting severe punishment. Research has pointed out that violence as a conflict resolution model is ineffective (Brendtro & Long, 1998; Holdstock, 1990; Klaasen, 1990) and suggests that the pupils will become perpetrators of violence later in life.

5.8 Teachers' attitude towards self-discipline

The study revealed that there were very few respondents who did not favour corporal punishment and maintained that corporal punishment should remain banned. These teachers gave various reasons for their views, such as: it affected pupil's self-esteem negatively, it caused feelings of embarrassment and alienation, pupils reacted more aggressively and there was a distrust of adults, there was no inner change and pupils generally reacted in a negative manner to corporal punishment. Similar results were found in the studies of Rice (1987) and Sihlangu (1992) where teachers relied heavily on external measures of control such as corporal punishment to monitor the behaviour of pupils. The nature of the South African Schools Act of 1996 is to allow pupils to take responsibility for their own actions and become self-disciplined. However, self-discipline as an important educational goal received a very low score in this study. Reasons for self discipline not being viewed as an important educational goal are that teachers view pupils as not having self control, which is reflected in high frequencies of disruptive behaviour, disrespect for teachers and non-compliance with school rules. This results in a climate which is less democratic and which has a more punitive approach to education. Table 7.1 reflects the usage of punishment methods at present, which includes corporal punishment, while Table 7.2 reflects its usage before the abolition of corporal punishment. There is a noticeable drop of 50%. However, the fact that corporal punishment is still present could be linked to many factors, one of which is the teachers' insistence on using corporal punishment as a means of controlling disruptive behaviour. Rice (1987) found that where corporal punishment was an available option to teachers, self-discipline as an educational goal would be neglected. The data in Table 7.1 and Table 7.2 reflect the struggles that teachers are experiencing in departing from old practices of pupil management. This is confirmed by Pretorius (1998) who discovered that certain schools in South Africa still used

corporal punishment with teachers acknowledging that self discipline as educational goal was difficult to attain.

5.9 The use of alternate discipline strategies

The abolition of corporal punishment in 1996 compelled teachers to use other more appropriate methods to maintain discipline in schools. An attempt was made by some respondents in this sample to use methods other than punishment, such as positive discipline strategies. However, there is not overwhelming support for positive discipline strategies, since respondents still made use of harsh methods of punishment, which included corporal punishment. The most common positive discipline strategies used by respondents followed a behaviorist approach with demerit systems and detention. The more humanistic approach of counseling came second. Of importance was the 14% of respondents who were unable to give a clear explanation of their understanding of positive discipline strategies. This can possibly be attributed to their lack of training in alternate methods of pupil management, which is evidenced by the small percentage equating positive discipline strategies with corporal punishment. MacNaughton and Johns (1991) indicate that part of the problem is the choice of an appropriate theoretical framework to serve as a guide to understanding and managing pupil behaviour and developing a successful discipline programme for the school. The lack of an understanding of alternate discipline methods by teachers has serious implications for the management of a school. An additional dilemma is pointed out by Furtwengler and Konnert (1982) who indicate that schools must construct their own understanding of what constitutes discipline effectiveness. Respondents in this sample did not really appear to have an understanding of discipline effectiveness since 50% of the schools did not have a code of conduct. Of the 50% whose schools had a discipline policy, only 41% of the respondents really understood the policy. This amounts to 21 respondents within a sample of 100 respondents really understanding their schools' discipline policy. This low figure is supported by the high referral rate of poor behaviour to senior staff for intervention as contained in Table 7.3. This can be viewed as a lack of confidence in the effectiveness of the school's discipline policy as shown in Table 10.4. Although teachers might have attempted to apply alternate discipline strategies, their failure should be seen in the light of the schools not having a consistent whole school approach to behavioural management. Therefore, the

perception of the failure of the alternate discipline strategy contributes towards the teachers' understanding that the alternate methods of behavioural management do not work. Furtwengler and Konnert (1982) and Wynne (1990) state that alternate methods of discipline often require a lot of time and patience. This is often the reason why teachers abandon these methods in favour of methods that require less time, such as corporal punishment.

It is significant to note that the usage of punishment methods only dropped by 50% within this sample of teachers after the abolition of corporal punishment in 1996. This leads to the inference that corporal punishment is still being used by teachers, reflecting a lack of confidence in alternate methods of managing pupil behaviour.

5.10 The lack of training and support

There have been many changes to educational policy in South Africa that have affected all schools. An article in Chalkline (1997) captures the stress that many teachers are experiencing as a direct result of the many changes to the South African education system. Grey (1997) links the stress of teachers to the absence of support systems being put in place by national and regional education departments. The respondents in this study indicate that they have received no support from the Western Cape Education Department to manage disruptive behaviour since the abolition of corporal punishment. The situation here is similar to that in Scotland, in that teachers felt unsupported by education authorities when corporal punishment was abolished (Corrie et al., 1982). The resultant increase in disruptive behaviour was attributed to the abolition of corporal punishment. Teachers also lamented the fact that education authorities had not put alternate plans in place to facilitate the change, thereby helping teachers (Maxwell, 1987). Baleta (1998) and Pretorious (1998) conclude that nothing substantial has been done by education authorities to support teachers to manage disruptive behaviour since the abolition of corporal punishment in South Africa. Respondents' continued use of corporal punishment could therefore be linked to a lack of training in alternate methods of coping with disruptive behaviour, which reflects a lack of support from education authorities.

The South African Schools Act of 1996 requires that each school have a policy that governs school discipline, namely a code of conduct for learners. The main aim of the code of conduct is to establish a disciplined and purposeful school environment to ensure that learning takes place. Half of the respondents indicated that their school did not have a disciplinary policy, with 47% indicating that their disciplinary policy was ineffective. The disciplinary policy should serve as a guide, advising teachers and pupils what behaviour will be condoned in the school and what the consequences will be in the event of rule violation. The abolition of corporal punishment and confusion with regard to behavioral management of pupils led to a high rate of referral to the principal and other senior staff. This is indicative of either the teachers' lack of confidence in dealing with disruptive behaviour, which could indicate a lack of training in managing disruptive behaviour, or that the school as a system, has not been able to effectively address the issue of disruptive behaviour (Van der Hoorn, 1994).

Druker and De Jong (1996) state that the educational mindsets of teachers would have to change in order for them to accept the sweeping changes taking place in education. However, they also indicate that where teachers view change as being threatening, resistance will develop, accompanied by negative emotions within teachers. Respondents in this study generally gave a negative view of education which is reflected in the support for the re-introduction of corporal punishment.

5.11 Respondents' perceptions of the causes of disruptive behaviour

The primary reason for pupils being punished is behaviour that does not fall within the prescribed rules of the school. Although a small majority (60%) of respondents indicate that they understood the causes of disruptive behaviour, 66% in Table 9.2 indicated that they had received no training in dealing with disruptive behaviour. Their inability to cope is evidenced in the high referral rate to senior staff (72%). The high referral rate to senior staff for intervention could be interpreted as an abdication of the teachers' responsibilities. It may further be indicative of either the school not having an effective discipline policy, a lack of resolve on the part of teachers to patiently implement alternate discipline strategies, or of the general stress levels of the teacher having gone beyond a tolerance threshold. The abolition of corporal punishment has applied pressure on teachers to look for the reasons for the occurrence

of disruptive behaviour and then apply appropriate remedies. This search for causes provides the teacher with opportunities to think more systemically (De Jong, 1995). However, Druker and De Jong (1996) admit this new way of thinking for teachers is not an easy task and requires a long term application.

Respondents in this study attributed disruptive behaviour primarily to problems within the family and community. Little mention was made of medical or personality factors as contributors to disruptive behaviour. A very small percentage viewed the school as a contributory factor to disruptive behaviour. Maxwell (1987) provides an understanding of why teachers primarily view the disruptive behaviour of pupils as stemming from factors within the family and community by using an adaptation of the locus of control theory and applying it to a group context as follows: the school experiences a sense of powerlessness but believes that it is not to blame for the disruptive behaviour of pupils. The school adopts an institutionalised version of helplessness that inhibits it from taking constructive action. A similar conclusion emerges from this study with respondents viewing the causes of disruptive behaviour as stemming from outside influences. This is supported by conclusions suggesting that the erosion of the family environment and the exposure to models of violence, both within families and the community can be a primary contributor of disruptive behaviour of pupils (Maree, 1994; Van Den Aardweg, 1987; Winship, 1992). The likelihood of teachers feeling a sense of powerlessness is supported by the findings of this research, with teachers indicating that the discipline of pupils had declined, that they showed no respect towards teachers and that alternatives to corporal punishment were generally ineffective. There was a general sense of disempowerment and increased levels of stress, which induced a feeling of helplessness. However, Fontana (1986) and Morrow (1992) contend that teachers do have power and that they need to develop an understanding of where they want to take pupils with regard to education and the mechanisms that will facilitate reaching the objectives.

5.12 The social-political implications of corporal punishment

Although the South African Schools Act of 1996 rejects corporal punishment it does not discard the idea of authority. Rather it prescribes that the authority of the teacher should foster mutual respect between pupil and teacher in order to establish a positive learning environment. It advocates disciplinary methods that promote respect for and responsibility towards self and others.

In this study it can be seen that the transition from the old punitive system to a more humane system of education can be subject to failure if effective measures are not put in place. Transitional failure would be viewed as the justification for the continued use of corporal punishment. The re-introduction of corporal punishment would introduce fear once again into schools and fear was never an acceptable motive for effective learning (Brendtro & Long, 1998).

5.13 The debate with regard to change

The use of punitive measures to manage pupil behaviour by the majority of respondents within this study and the call for the re-introduction of corporal punishment calls into question whether teachers have been able to cope effectively with changes in managing the disruptive behaviour of pupils. The situation is worsened when teachers still view the problem as being within the pupil only, despite the fact that they themselves acknowledge that the cause of disruptive behaviour is also family and community based.

The absence of a school policy to effectively address and manage disruptive behaviour is a feature that stands out in this study. The efficacy of discipline policies in schools that already have such policies, is also questioned. In addition, teachers have had to cope with broad educational change, some of which has demanded a letting go of traditional mindsets and attitudes. It could be argued that the issues discussed above have contributed to teachers being unable to experience a paradigm shift from managing disruptive behaviour with a mindset which favours corporal punishment to one favouring positive discipline strategies with self-discipline as focus.

The challenge for the Department of Education in implementing system-wide change is to address the disparate expectations between teachers and the Education Department. Tingstrom and Little (1990) argue that at the systems level, the Department of Education needs to convey the requirement of change in a manner that will not be experienced as being punitive by teachers. The beliefs and attitudes of teachers need to be explored and substituted by a belief system with an emphasis on the probability of success (Tingstrom & Little, 1990).

5.14 Limitations of the study

The abolition of corporal punishment has not only affected the world of work of the teacher, but has also affected the educational experience of pupils. The research does not address the attitude of pupils toward the abolition of corporal punishment. The broad changes in education could also have had an influence on the choice by respondents to use corporal punishment to bring order to a perceived chaotic educational environment. Educational change and how it impacted the respondents' choice of corporal punishment was not addressed in this study. The open questions were not subjected to statistical analysis, instead they were used to provide richness of data.

5.15 Conclusion

Pete (1994) points out that the issue of corporal punishment stimulates a great deal of debate that is often mixed with strong emotions. Aspects of this debate are addressed by this study. The call by respondents in this study for the re-introduction of corporal punishment is not new. Pete (1994) states that there have been public calls in the past in Britain and the United States of America for the re-introduction of corporal punishment, particularly where disruptive behaviour is seen as being out of control. This study does show the struggle teachers and schools are going through, a struggle that reflects a transition from a harsh and repressive system of education to an educational system that is more open and democratic. The research shows that the transition is not without its flaws. One major flaw is an inability on the part of education authorities to effectively communicate with and support the people who will be affected the most by these changes, namely, pupils, parents and teachers.

CHAPTER SIX

RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

There are many challenges facing officials of the national education department. They have had to unite a divided education system consisting of 17 different education departments. In addition, they have had to redress inequalities in resources and introduce a common educational philosophy to unite the educational diversity in South Africa into one educational system.

An attempt is made in this chapter to suggest possible ways of managing the change in disciplinary policy in schools. It is hoped that the suggestions offered will empower teachers to cope better with pupils in their care.

6.2 The need for a theoretical model

The need for a theoretical model in schools to address not only organisational change, but also the management of pupils, is needed within South African schools. There are many theoretical models from which teachers can choose to understand and manage pupil behaviour. It is important for teachers to read about a selected intervention. This will provide them with a theoretical understanding of why behaviour occurs and how they can construct an appropriate intervention.

It is the recommendation of the author that schools make use of general systems theory to develop a theoretical understanding of the whole educational system, including disruptive behaviour of pupils. General systems theory would require that teachers view the disruptive behaviour of the pupil as not only originating from within the pupil. The teacher would also have to take into account the influence of other factors that have an impact on the life of the pupil. The disruptive behaviour of the pupil could be influenced by factors outside of the country, within the country, community, peer group, family, school and classroom. Under such an overall

theoretical umbrella more specific interventions based on a variety of theories may be applied.

6.3 Accepting change

In order for schools to make any progress, they would have to come to terms with the notion that education in South Africa is undergoing radical change. Retrenchments have brought about the loss of many experienced teachers. The sizes of classes have not decreased, instead it increased in most cases. The learning support which was to be provided to schools, particularly around outcomes based education and inclusive education, was slow in materialising, resulting in schools not receiving the necessary educational material, training and support. This has given rise to a sense of disillusionment with the direction of education and could be regarded as a significant contributory factor towards the stress levels of teachers and their reluctance to accept change.

The current changes in South African education are attempts to introduce alternatives that are relevant to the South African situation. They challenge the perceived ineffectual practices of the past, such as corporal punishment. Druker and De Jong (1996) and Davidoff et al. (1994) assert that one of the best ways to address change in schools is to embark on organisational development. However, schools need to see themselves as organisations having the potential for development.

It is recommended that schools establish contact with institutions that can act as facilitators to provide training and support in managing educational change. The schools could contact Universities, School clinics and other relevant non-governmental organisations.

6.4 Understanding disruptive behaviour

This research has identified a need for teachers to receive training in understanding the causes of disruptive behaviour. The attribution of the causes of disruptive behaviour to the family and community could be interpreted as teachers not wanting to view the school as a potential source of disruptive behaviour. Maxwell (1987)

makes an adaptation of the locus of control theory to understand this stance of teachers by suggesting that the abolition of corporal punishment has caused teachers to feel a sense of powerlessness and that the power to effect change in pupils lies outside of the school. The teacher would need to see the disruptive behaviour within the context of the pupil's life. The teacher would need to work through a list of variables that could contribute to disruptive behaviour. These variables include the following factors:

- (1) organic, such as deterioration due to injury, illness;
- (2) psychological, such as depression, anxiety, motivation;
- (3) medical, such as side effects of medication, epilepsy, vision, hearing, infection, pain,
- (4) social, such as changes at home, loss;
- (5) cognitive.

By using the above as a guide, the teacher would use a systems approach to understand pupils, thereby developing more appropriate interventions.

6.5 The need for a policy on maintaining discipline

This research demonstrates a lack teacher confidence in the ability of the school to cope effectively with disruptive behaviour, reflecting, in part, the need for an effective discipline policy in schools. Schools therefore need to formulate and adopt an effective policy to deal with discipline problems. In order for any school to function, there would have to be rules that regulate the management of the school. The basis of these rules is contained in legislation which offers prescriptive guidelines on how the school ought to be managed. The nature of the relationship between pupils and teacher can be codified in the form of rules, but it is important that all stakeholders share in the formation of these rules. It can be seen in this study that it was primarily teachers who formulated the behaviour policy of the schools. This could have contributed to the failure of the discipline policies since all stakeholders had not been equally represented in the formulation of the discipline policy. The respondents acknowledged that the causes of behaviour problems originated in the family and community. From a general systems perspective, it would be vital to obtain the input

of the parents and pupils. The information and feedback between the two systems will be more effective.

Research by Paul (1998) shows that disruptive behaviour within certain schools in the United States of America dropped significantly when these schools implemented a comprehensive approach to behaviour management. The model that Paul (1998) postulates is similar to the model by Wilson and Cowell (1990) which is summarised as follows and can be used as a guide by schools:

- (1) teachers need to be clear about the nature of the business being conducted at school;
- (2) the rules that would enable the school to accomplish its business need to be discussed with pupils and parents;
- (3) pupils need to abide by the rules that they have helped set up;
- (4) teachers must maintain these rules vigorously;
- (5) Pupils need to be provided with opportunities to gain the necessary experience to grasp the rules.

Paul (1998) and Wilson and Cowell (1990) indicate that there are additional factors that also have to be present in order for the model to be implemented effectively. Firstly, they stress the importance of consistency in that the behaviour of the teacher must be consistent and predictable. This will help children to feel safe. Pupils cannot risk learning new skills if they are in constant fear of the world in which they learn. Secondly, structure in the environment also provides predictability, dependability and security. Thirdly, expectations must be clear and concise in relation to what is expected. The rules should not change. All staff should apply the rules consistently in order for pupils to develop a sense of trust in adults. The important lessons that pupils learn are that they can learn to deal with their problems, that there are ways of controlling their world in a positive manner, that they will experience positive emotions in relation to achievements and to take responsibility for their own behaviour (Paul, 1998). From a general systems theory perspective, the formulation of the discipline policy must include parents, pupils and parents in order to facilitate the feedback of information and to provide for joint ownership of the discipline policy.

General systems theory also provides a useful framework in which a teacher can

construct an intervention based upon a detailed understanding of the pupil. An example of an intervention recommended by the author is a behaviour management model, introduced under the systems umbrella. The intervention has its roots in behaviour theory. The teacher must first concentrate on establishing desired classroom conditions. This is followed by a process of systematically applying positive and negative reinforcement. The primary aim of the behaviour management model would be to strengthen desirable behaviours and to eliminate undesirable ones. This process would require teachers to take the following steps as outlined by MacNaughton and Johns (1991):

- (1) the teacher must emphasise that behaviour that prevents teaching, stops learning or does not promote the best interest of the class, the individual or the teacher, will not be tolerated;
- (2) pupils must be instructed clearly with regard to behaviours that will and will not be allowed;
- (3) the teacher must plan positive and negative consequences for predetermined acceptable or unacceptable behaviour;
- (4) the teacher must plan positive reinforcement for compliance. Reinforcements could include verbal acknowledgement, notes to parents, free time for talking and any other appropriate rewards;
- (5) a sequence of steps must be planned to punish noncompliance. These could include writing notes to parents, calling parents in, referral to the school counselor or referral to senior staff.

Such a behavioural model should nevertheless be applied in a manner which conveys an understanding of the inner life of the pupil, that is, a person centred approach.

6.6 In-service training for teachers - INSET

In order for teachers to become acquainted with a theoretical model of pupil management, in-service training for teachers would need to become an integral part of the strategic planning of the school. However, in order for INSET to be successful, Newton and Tarrant (1992) indicate that the training would have to impact on teachers' attitudes, skills and behaviour. This is the type of approach that would be needed in order for a paradigm shift to be experienced by teachers. Newton and

Tarrant (1992) warn that the impact of INSET could not be guaranteed when; it occurred as a one off event, the course provider lacked credibility, the course content did not motivate the participants to attend, the course is seen as being unrealistic for implementation, or a lack of practical examples exist. In addition, INSET must be linked to the formulation of policy concerning the management of pupil behaviour in schools into which all teachers have input and which they understand. The formation of a discipline policy would have to take into account the separation of discipline and punishment and how the school understands the nature of discipline, as applied to its context (Rogers, 1990). This would promote ownership of the policy by teachers and it would thereby facilitate the process of organisational change.

6.7 Suggestions for further research

Further research could be conducted in the application of corporal punishment in relation to customary law and the constitution of the country. There is also the need for the recording of a simplified version of systems theory that could be made available to schools. Schools require guidance in the formulation and utilisation of policy. An instructional step by step guide would prove to be invaluable to schools.

6.8 Conclusion

Creating safe and secure learning environments for pupils should be a concern for all teachers and a goal, which ought to be embraced. Where teachers choose to use corporal punishment as a means of managing the behaviour of pupils, they have failed to create a safe learning environment. For some teachers, discarding old practices might be very hard and will require a change in attitude and approach. However, it is a change in which all, that have an interest in education must participate. All must join together to establish boundaries, standards and limits within schools and to agree on language and actions that are consistent with maintaining and modeling appropriate behaviour for pupils. Hopefully, with this shift in thinking a healthy and fertile environment for change would have been developed to build educational components necessary to meet the academic, emotional and behavioral needs of pupils by implementing comprehensive interventions that will provide all pupils with opportunities to grow and learn.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Could you please provide the following information

Male or Female	
Age	
Training Institution eg. College	
Years of Teaching Experience	
Subjects Taught	
Grades Taught	

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer the following questions by simply making a cross (x) in the block opposite your response.

Please note that for each question you must ONLY MAKE ONE (x).

1 Do you consider discipline in schools today to be:

Extremely important	
Important	
Not very important	
Extremely unimportant	

2 Do you consider punishment in schools today to be:

Extremely important	
Important	
Not very important	
Extremely unimportant	

3. What form of punishment do you consider to be the most effective on pupils today?

Positive disciplinary strategies (eg. demerit system, token rewards)	
Verbal punishment	
Corporal punishment	
Verbal and corporal punishment	
Self discipline	
Other methods of punishment	

4. What form(s) of punishment do you consider to have been effective on you while you were at school?

Positive disciplinary strategies	
Verbal punishment	
Corporal punishment	
Verbal and corporal punishment	
Self discipline	
Other methods of punishment	

5. Which methods, prior to the banning of corporal punishment, was effective in making pupils comply with instructions or tasks?

Positive disciplinary strategies	
Verbal punishment	
Corporal punishment	
Verbal and corporal punishment	
Self discipline	
Other methods of punishment	

6. Did the education department consult teachers with regard to the banning of corporal punishment?

Yes	
No	
Uncertain	

7. In your opinion, corporal punishment

Should be un-banned	
Should remain banned	
Should be used as a last resort	

8. Does your school have a clearly formulated and clearly understood disciplinary policy!

Yes	
No	

9. Is the disciplinary policy of the school clearly understood by both staff and pupils and is adhered to?

Yes	
No	

10. By whom was the disciplinary policy of the school drafted?

The teachers	
Teachers and pupils	
Teachers, pupils and parents	
The governing body of the school	
Other	

11. In your opinion, has the disciplinary policy of your school been effective in achieving its aims?

Yes	
No	
Uncertain	

12. Do you have a clear understanding of the reasons for disruptive behaviour by pupils?

Yes	
No	

13. Since the banning of corporal punishment, was training to understand and deal with disruptive pupil behaviour provided by:

Western Cape Education Dept.	
Your school	
Non Governmental Organizations	
School clinic	
Universities	
Other	
No training received	

4. Pupils who display disruptive behaviour are dealt with by

The principal	
Other senior staff	
Yourself	
Guidance teacher	
School clinic	
Other	

15. Could you please rate the level of effectiveness of your school's present methods of punishment to deal with disruptive behaviour.

Very effective	
Effective	
Average	
Below average	
Poor	

16. Since the banning of corporal punishment, the staff at your school has received training in alternate methods of pupil and classroom management from:

Western Cape Education Dept.	
School clinic	
Non Governmental Organizations	
Other	
No training received	

17. A thorough preparation in the legal aspects of education such as the right to use or not to use corporal punishment was given to you by:

Your training institution	
Western Cape Education Dept.	
School management	
Non Governmental Organizations	
Other	
No training received	

18. As a teacher, do you regularly receive opportunities to develop your skills to better manage your class through;

Workshops		
Seminars		
Short courses		
Other		
No significant training		

19. These opportunities for further development are financed by

Yourself		
The school		
Western Cape Education Dept.		
Non Governmental Organizations		
Other		

20. Can you indicate the level of interest displayed by the senior management of your school to encourage teacher development

High level of interest		
Low level of interest		
No interest shown		

Could you please answer the following questions, providing some detail

21. What effect does corporal punishment have on pupils?

22. What do you regard as positive discipline strategies?

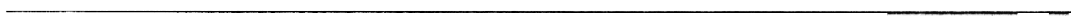
23. What is your opinion with regard to positive disciplinary strategies as opposed to corporal punishment?

24. Comment on the effects that the banning of corporal punishment has had on you as a teacher.

25. What effect has the banning of corporal punishment had on pupils?

26. What is your understanding of why some pupils act in a disruptive or ill-disciplined manner?.....

27. What are some of the typical problems that pupils give that has to be dealt with through punishment?



APPENDIX B: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17 Bellville 7535 South Africa Telegraph: UNTBELL
Telephone: (021) 959-2282/2648 Fax: (021) 959-2647 Telex: 52 6661
E-mail: nderby@education.uwc.ac.za

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
DEPARTEMENT OPVOEDKUNDIGE SIELKUNDE

Ref./Verwys

11 November 1998

The Director
Western Cape Education Department

Re: Permission for research for Mr. A. Gradwell, M.Psych (Education) student.

Dear Sir/Madam

Mr Gradwell's research is focusing on teachers attitudes about discipline in schools since the introduction of the South African Schools Act in 1996. The research will greatly contribute to the development of positive discipline in schools at present. This research is highly recommended by the University and we hope that the Western Cape Education Department will approve this research.

The questionnaire has been approved for this research.

Thanking You

Linzi Fredman (Supervisor)
Prof. S. Lazarus
Chairperson
Dept. of Educational Psychology

Hendrik Jeremy Mentz

Telefoon
Telephone
(Foni) 403-6023

Faks
Fax
(Feksi) 403-6370

Verwysing
Reference
(Salathiso) 3/2/10



PROVINSIALE ADMINISTRASIE WES-KAAP

Onderwysdepartement

PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION WESTERN CAPE

Education Department

ULAWULO LWEPHONDO LENTSHONA KOLONI

ISEBE leMfundo

Mr R. Gradwell
25 Medway Road
Plumstead 7800

Fax: 705-3423

Dear Mr Gradwell

RESEARCH PROJECT: TEACHERS' ATTITUDES ABOUT DISCIPLINE IN SCHOOLS SINCE THE INTRODUCTION OF THE SA SCHOOLS ACT IN 1996

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in Primary and High schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. The principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. The principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. All arrangements concerning your investigation should be made by yourselves.
4. A photocopy of this letter is to be submitted to the principal of each school where the intended research is to be conducted.
5. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations should be provided to the Director: Curriculum Management (Research Section)
6. The Department also requires that a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis be sent to:

The Director: Curriculum Management (Research Section)
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag 9114
CAPE TOWN 8000

We wish you success in your research.

Yours sincerely

Hennie Mouton

P.R. HEAD: EDUCATION
DATE: 21.01.99
