

**AN ANALYSIS OF THE EDUCATOR'S
AUTHORITY IN BLACK SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my father Wilfred Mlondo
my mother, Nokuthula, and to my husband, Mandla,

DECLARATION

It is hereby being declared that the thesis:

"An Analysis of the Educator's Authority in Black Secondary Schools" is my work both in conception and execution. All the sources that I have made use of or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

N. M. Mlondo

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SUMMARY

The aim of this study was to investigate how educators exercise their authority over Black Secondary school pupils. A teacher is an authority by virtue of his being a source of knowledge and his expertise in communicating this knowledge to the pupils. It is on the basis of this knowledgeability that he takes charge of the experiences of the pupil. He becomes morally obligated to control pupils' expenditure of energy.

The depth of the teachers knowledgeability of the learning content was tested by variables like academic qualifications, supplementary reading, frequency and encouragement of pupil questions, and extent of use of short answer items. All these variables yielded negative responses. The epistemic stand of most teachers' authority appeared not to be firmly grounded.

Successful dissemination of knowledge was tested by, among other variables, quality of feedback, rate of pupil absenteeism and testing techniques. Responses showed a lack of follow-up to measure the grasp of the learning content.

Execution of moral authority was measured by inter alia, probing the application and enforcement of school rules, forms of punishment, attitude towards establishing a rationale for values behind rules and punishment. Findings showed a trend of authoritarianism.

OPSOMMING

Die oogpunt van hierdie studie was om te bepaal hoe leermeesters hulle gesag uitoefen oor swart sekondêre skool leerlinge.

'n Onderwyser is uit die aard van die saak 'n gesaghebbende as gevolg van sy kennis en sy vermoë om kennis oor te dra aan sy leerlinge.

Op grond van sy kennis, bepaal hy die aard van die leerlinge se ondervindinge. Hy word dan moreel verplig om kontrole uit te oefen oor die besteding van die leerlinge se energie.

Die omvang (diepte) van die onderwyser se kennis van die leerstelsel inhoud was getoets deur verskeie faktore soos akademiese kwalifikasies, aanvullende lees, die veelvuldigheid (gereeldheid) en aanmoediging van leerlinge se vrae en die omvang van die gebruik van kort vrae items. Al hierdie veranderlikes het negatiewe antwoorde opgelewer. Die kennisleer (epistemologiese stand) van die oorgrote meerderheid van onderwysers se gesag skyn nie stewig gegrond te wees nie.

Suksesvolle uitbreiding van kennis was getoets deur ander veranderlike faktore soos kwaliteit van terugvoering, die voorkoms van afwesigheid onder leerlinge en toets tegnieke. Terugvoering het 'n tekort getoon aan die meetbaarheid van begrip van die leerstelsel inhoud (sillibus).

Die uitvoering van morele gesag was bepaal deur 'n ondersoek van die toepassing en uitvoering van skool reëls, vorme van straf en houding teenoor die daarstelling van deurdenkde redes (rationale) van waardes vrie reëls en straf.

Bevindinge het 'n neiging van outoritarisme getoon.

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1.1 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

It has become a procedure for Black education to be punctuated by disturbances throughout the year. These disturbances usually take the form of unrests and boycotts. Their consequences are expensive in the sense that the damaged schools have to be rebuilt, more textbooks, stationery and furniture have to be supplied to the affected schools. In addition to that lives are lost, time is wasted, physical and educational casualties are incurred, teachers and pupils become demotivated thus giving rise to a low turn over of the quantity and quality of matriculants. Some schools have suffered a brain drainage as teachers move to quieter areas. Grievances as cited by pupils include:

- ° Excessive use of corporal punishment - Bot (1984) adduces a finding that most clinics in Soweto treated an average of nine pupils per day who were severely punished by teachers.
- ° Unrealistic rules - such are rules that are in a conflict with social standards.

- ° Inconsistency of rule application - this is a practice teachers resort to so as to gain popularity from bully transgressors.
- ° Lack of teacher competency - since the majority of Black teachers are underqualified, young and inexperienced they lack confidence and therefore lose respect from pupils. This makes them rely on "authoritaianism, excessive discipline and rote learning, and seldom stimulate creative and independent thinking by pupils, which promotes boredom and resettlessness among them "op cit, pl2)

The bone of contention in the above grievances is the nature of the educator's authority at schools. A school is an agency of society and it is under the control of society. It is an expectation of every society then that the school socializes the individual in such a way that he conforms to its ways (Butler, 1957). Since the school is the intermediary between the family and adult society its foremost duty is to inculcate respect for rules of social life. Schools are therefore rule-governed institutions where teachers have to establish and enforce order. Rules pertain to the explicit and implicit goals of the institution. School rules relate to explicit goals like examinations and to implicit goals that seek to inculcate moral and social

values. It is the duty of the teacher to moralize to children about values, decent behaviour and social relations.

Tattum (1982) cites Weber as seeing schools functioning like bureaucratic organization since there is a specialized division of labour, a hierarchical authority structure, impersonal relations between officials and clients, a career structure within the organization and a formal system of rules and regulations to govern official decisions and actions. Officials maintain objectivity and rationality as they treat cases according to set procedures irrespective of personal feelings or personal involvement in the case at hand.

Rules and roles are related forms of social control. Rules apply when role fails, that is, rules are enforced when the commitment of the institution is no longer well defined. It is proper at this stage to look at the relationship structures of the education situation as mentioned by du Plooy and Killian (1984)

THE RELATIONSHIP OF CONFIDENCE - the child has to trust his educator during their association until he becomes independent. The educator unfolds this association to a relationship of trust so that the educand feels accepted. He has to be accessible to the child and the child's helplessness ought to be the educator's priority. The educator, out of his own initiative intervenes educatively during educating the child so as not to harm the child's dignity and trust in him. The intervention of the adult is solely to reprove. After having been told what is proper the child returns to the association with the adult and act on his own under the guidance of the adult.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF AUTHORITY

The child needs support and encouragement during his ventures into the summoning world. He seeks protection when he senses threatening circumstances. He needs an influential, firm, powerful, protecting and guiding person. His relationship with the person who assists him in all the above circumstances is that of authority. The relationship of authority has the following constituents:

- ° Allowing oneself to be told - The teacher points out the proper course and accompanies the child to adulthood. He exercises his authority when the child does not comply with the demands of the school and the society. The teacher himself is an example of decency and propriety and as a result the child listens with ease when corrected.
- ° Allowing oneself to be addressed - The child is reminded about the standards and demands of life. If the child does not respond willingly to the address the educator artfully repeats his address from a different angle and he stresses something else the child did not master at first.
- ° Obedience - The child is expected to obey rules to consent to demands and to surrender himself to the authority of the educator. The educator is not expected to compel the child to obey his authority, but to let obedience occur in a relaxed atmosphere of love, understanding and compassion. Compelling obedience reduces the effects of educative occurrences.
- ° acknowledging authority - When the child obeys commands of the educator he is acknowledging his authority. The child questions the adult and listens to what he is told to do thereby giving consent to his authoritative company.

- ° allowing to be charged or called upon - The closeness of the adult prompts the child to do what is proper and to venture into new situations, now that he feels safe. The way the adult explains the environment invites the child to explore further and further. The dialogue between them is lengthened.
- ° living up to authority - After having been taught what to do by the educator the child practices that in the absence of the educator. Complying with the demands of propriety on his own means that the child is living up to authority.
- ° subjecting oneself to the authority of norms - It is the educator's duty to inform the child why norms govern our behaviour and our actions, and why is it necessary to take instructions. The child will then understand why and how the authority of norms influences his life.

While constituting these relationship structures the two partners that is, the teacher and the pupil play their different roles. Clarifying roles helps the school authority to define, regulate and instruct all members of its hierarchical structure in its organizational functioning. Role embodies conformity to the expectation of the other

partners. There has to be a common base of operation for role partners since what the other partner expects should correspond with what the other partner does. (Tattum, 1982). Without this common base conflict ensues as soon as the incumbent fails to fulfil the expectations of his role. Once the common ground of expectations has been established expectations as such have to be explicit and certain so that performances are reciprocated without ambiguity. Conflict can also be minimized by strictly controlling the period between theory and practice, in other words, the period between the laying of school rules and procedures, and applying the rules.

Tattum (Op cit) states that the fundamental expectation held by teachers of themselves is class control. They want to achieve and maintain authority so that they succeed in their teaching. Colleagues also assess a teacher's proficiency by the way his pupils are disciplined, by how his pupils behave in the corridors, in the school hall, after assembly and at sports grounds. This is partly because teachers are more concerned about how a child misbehaves than how he achieves academically since misbehaviour disturbs the work and progress of other pupils, and partly because though pupils operate at different intellectual levels they are expected to conform to the accepted behaviour pattern.

Holt (1972) quotes Dennison as speaking of natural authority of adults which is different from the bureaucratic or official authority that lies only in the power to punish. The natural authority of adults comes from the fact that they have greater experience, they are bigger, they have lived longer and seen more, and that they have more skills and knowledge. Such authority cannot be abdicated. Having right to give orders is coercive authority which carries a label. It is easy to abdicate, it depends on the situation and the bearer is authoritative to the extent of the label and as long as the label is there. Coercive authority, Dennison contends, is like being a cop as an adult and it wears the adult out.

According to Harris (1976) authority exists in two distinct but overlapping senses. One relates to beliefs or knowledge and is referred to as epistemic authority. The other relates to decisions or actions and is referred to as moral authority. Epistemic authority is knowing more about a particular subject. To be an authority in this sense means that it is one's business to know about such a thing and to possess credentials which make those of inferior knowledge to accept the views of the authority and to defer to his beliefs even if theirs are contrary.

Moral authority concerns decisions and actions, that is, giving advice about certain facts provided that person is superior on those facts. It involves having the responsibility or right to decide what another is to do, and if need be, to act for him like in the case of a parent and his child or a teacher and his pupil.

Possession of moral authority means having an office or a position comprising of certain responsibilities and rights, and such rights being the areas of freedom necessary for the fulfilment of the responsibilities. The position involves making decisions that constrain, at a superficial level, subjects to accept and to comply with them unquestioningly. The ruling of the authority primarily appears to be overriding opinions of the subjects or those obligated by the authority. In addition to that, authority has the right and responsibility to enforce compliance for instance the parent and the child.

Authority resides within a special office or position that one holds. One cannot as a human being have authority over another person. Parental authority is not based on biological relatedness but on an office delimited by certain rights and responsibilities and such an office may be voluntarily given up. A parent decides for the child when the child grows and matures, the office of parenthood gradually diminishes until it becomes purely honorary

(Op cit p6)

A child complies because the parent knows more and is wise. He accepts the decisions of the parent because the very fact that he has decided implies that the parent possesses some knowledge of the alternatives and has weighed them correctly before taking a resolution. Another reason for compliance is that the parent acts by virtue of his office.

The truth that teachers are acting in loco parentis gives them custodial authority over children. Their authority comes from their role in society, from their being adults among pupils and from their positions within the school system. They have a professional mandate which legitimizes their power to influence and control their pupils (Tattum, 1982). The mandate comes from the fact that since they know more than their pupils they may rightly define and manage the school experience of their pupils. They decide on legitimate

knowledge and behaviour, and inflict punishment at their professional discretion. When they impart knowledge, they assign what is qualitative and prescribe an approved course of action. They categorize pupils as disruptive, obedient, and so on. They even influence the careers of their pupils.

The legitimacy of the teacher's authority depends on how his pupils accept him. It depends on their level of acceptance. Pupils have their own perspective of the teaching situation as well as its standards. The authority of the teacher is effective only if it is in accordance with pupils views, it is seen as fair and respectful to both parties. Absence of a common base of authority between the ruler and the ruled generates different roles for both parties and conflict ensues. The common base for teacher and pupil should be directed towards the attainment of the aim of education.

Tattum (op cit) quotes Metz's study who found that the more intelligent pupils were primarily interested in attaining the best out of education. They regarded the teacher as a disseminator of knowledge and relied on the authority of skill and knowledge from the teacher. The less intelligent group expected the teacher to teach, respect them as pupils and persevere in motivating them to learn.

Schools have to establish and maintain social order because of the different ages and maturity levels of pupils as well as the range and distribution of resources. Younger pupils have to be protected from the bullyism of the older ones. Rules and regulations not only safeguard against personal whims, but ensure the predictability of the actions as well. Rules provide uniformity and consistency by guiding and regulating activities of all members in the organization. In principle rules are there to protect the interest of the pupils and control their actions. Rules and regulations are increased as a problem - solving device, that is, when members complain and appeal.

It is clear then that school rules have to be sound, valid and sensible for pupils to follow. For the authority of the teacher to be justified he must adhere to the rules himself and act correctly for the right reasons (Raz, 1986). Nash (1966) contends that restraint and limitation help us to achieve directions and order in life. Without this directions from limitations and discipline we find ourselves wondering aimlessly, ignorant, mentally and physically sick, lazy and self-indulgent. He quotes Montessori as having asserted that "discipline is a path" (p113). Viewing discipline as a path implies that it is not an end in itself but means toward productive self-fulfilment that can only be achieved through discipline. It plays a part in shaping the personality that leads to self-fulfilment.

Psychological studies on child development confirm that certain limitations are necessary for giving the child enough emotional security before he explores reality. Man must be guided by order so as to be free. Nash (op cit) quotes Locke as having championed the principle that accessibility to freedom lies through law, authority, and order. Family life is important for the security and warmth it gives us as well as order it inculcates in us. These are the foundations of a free personality. The teacher who comes later in the life of the child has to strike the balance

between the need for security and the peril of inflexible overprotection, and between the need for growth and the peril of anxiety.

When school rules are transgressed punishment ensues. When punishing the child the good flowing from the punishment should be greater than the suffering experienced by one who is punished. The positive effect of punishment is that it must, inter alia, reform the individual. It must hinder him from repeating the offence and prevent others from committing the same offence or a similar one (op cit). The reformatory effect of punishment should be such that it changes the wrongdoer's character in a way that he recognizes the wrongness of his deed, he feels remorse for having done it and decides not to do it again. Usually punishment leads to a loss of self-respect, ill-feelings and a resolution to be more careful next time, corporal punishment ought to be conducted by someone who has a genuine warmth and affection for the child.

Holt (1972) writes of three kinds of discipline which a child meets and learns from. First is a discipline of Nature and Reality which occurs when the child explores nature through trial and error. When the child does something wrong he does not get the required result or answer. The giver of the answer is Nature, which is impersonal, impartial and indifferent.

Second is the discipline of Culture of Society) where children find themselves exposed to a cultural setting comprising of agreements, customs, habits, and rules that bind adults together, children conform to the behaviour of adults, as in the case of sitting quietly in church or dancing during rituals.

The third discipline is that of the Superior Force. It pertains to laying down to the child the do's and don'ts , especially if the don'ts are bound to hurt the child so that he avoids danger. If the child does not obey he is threatened with punishment. A threat exposes him to a lesser danger of punishment if he transgresses than to a greater danger of going through being harmed. It is done to protect his life, health, safety, well-being of others, and the destruction of valuable things.

Nash (1966) cites two conflicting aims of education, namely that the child is educated to become what he is, and that the child is educated to become what he is not. Education for what he is involves unfolding the latent potentialities of the child by creating a stimulating environment which will draw out those potentialities to their fullest. Education for what he is not involves shaping the character of the child to the ideal mould. The first aim emphasizes freedom, the second one discipline.

The term discipline comes from the Latin word 'discere' which means to learn. It has the same root as discipline meaning a follower, a pupil, or learner. It can be used in four different contexts - tone or control, punishment, regulation or organization and mental training. The different contexts have one common implication, the restraint on the spontaneity of the child. A child is restrained not for the sake of discipline or order itself but for his physical safety and survival. According to Bot (1984) Black pupils complain about Black teachers being authoritarian. Authoritarianism believes in the value of order for its own sake. Such a teacher demand unquestioning obedience failing which fear is implanted and implanted and severe punishment exercised. Helpless pupil have to obey and follow unquestioningly.

Nash (1966) stresses that it is a human weakness to feel insecure and fearful and seek authority. We find authority in a firm, stern authority that instructs and controls our bad habits. At time students complain about excess freedom and appeal for discipline. They become afraid of their innate undesirable tendencies which might lead to self-destruction and yearn for strong external authority that will curb those tendencies. Nash (op cit) adduces an existentialist theory that man is imbued with a 'dreadful freedom'. He must be prepared for freedom because he is not always ready for it. Teachers must give children free choice and self determination before they are ready for it.

Gradual withdrawal of authority is necessary because prolonged dependence leads to a degeneration of personality in both the ruler and the ruled. The ruler does not mature because he had few equals and he is not exposed to any form of variety. His range of interaction with subjects is limited, it is not fertile enough for personal growth. Authoritarianism prevents the ruler the opportunity of interacting with inferiors on equal basis on everyday terms, making him more and more irrelevant.

The ruled suffers stunted personality development in the sense that since he has been denied decision making for a long period he fails to develop a strong personality that will enable him to exercise freedom when it is offered. It becomes a vicious cycle when he as a ruler evinces the same personality defects as his ruler. The oppression he experienced as the ruled built up and he becomes less equipped to tolerate outer ambiguities and variations, preferring homogeneity and conformity. He favours strength, power, aggression and indulges to cruelty and violence to execute obedience. Such external restriction is only educative if it leads to self-discipline, if the one disciplined internalizes the need for discipline. Disciplined habits can be inculcated by conditioning or militarisation. This is ineffective as it fails children

when they need it most. They behave accordingly only in front of the teacher. Discipline is effective in future behaviour, without the presence of the teacher. In short the effectiveness of discipline lies in the permanent pattern of developed self-control. Frequency of punishment or restraint lessens sensitivity to and acknowledgement of genuine authority. Self - discipline leads to the recognition of the "authority of one's experiences, the authority imposed by the nature of the material in art, the authority necessary for the preservation of community life, and the authority of one's own nature" (Op cit p119).

Children have to be aware that their voluntary submission to appropriate discipline will let them reach a state of self-mastery, self-fulfilment and joy. Self-control involves giving up petty desires, resisting the temptation to bend to easy whims. Mastering the self begins with aspiration, when we want to achieve something.

It involves recognition of standards superior to our own and respect for them. It is willingness to submit to the discipline essential for the satisfaction of our aspirations. Self-mastery aims at personal excellence. It means bringing the gap between our aspirations and our capacity to achieve them. One has to extoll the worthiness of the hardship necessary for success. Self-discipline

reduces in us our enslavement to self-indulgencies and our submissiveness to certain compulsions. We have to restrain ourselves for the pursuit of the highest values.

This work seeks to investigate if educators in Black Secondary schools are really authoritarian, demanding that pupils become submissive for easy administration. If they really are, how much harm is done to personal and intellectual growth of children? This study purports to closely examine the type of adult Black schools are moulding, bearing in mind that the future of every nation is its youth and certain educational aspects are essential in achieving an ideal nation.

1.2 Elucidation of Major Concepts

1.2.1 Analysis

According to the Oxford New English Dictionary to analyse it to take to pieces, to separate, to distinguish, or to ascertain the elements of anything complex. It is to examine minutely so as to determine the essential constitution, nature or form, apart from extraneous and accidental surroundings. This work will trace the educator's authority to its source so as to unveil its form and its impact on Black children.

1.2.2 Educator

An educator (teacher) is an adult person who associates with the child and moulds him so that he (child) becomes an adult. The educator knows the way to adulthood since he has undergone it himself and also understands the demands of society to which the child is being initiated. He imparts knowledge to the child and in that capacity he is the authority of the knowledge he possesses. He is the medium between the child and the interpretation of reality. This work looks at the relationship of authority between the teacher and the pupil in Black Secondary schools.

1.2.3 Authority

The word authority comes from the Latin terms 'auctor' meaning originator, causer of doer and 'auctoritas' which means authorization, full power, authority, influential person, security and protection. The educator guides and accompanies the child to adulthood. He offers a sympathetic supportive guidance when the child feels insecure during his confrontations with a strange, complex world (du Plooy and Killian, 1984). A parent has authority over his child because he has more experience and knowledge. Raz (1986) cites Sartorius as arguing that the authority of the parent

includes the capacity to give out obligatory directives to his or her children. The obligation to obey a person is the charging to him of a power to bind since the obligation to obey is feasible if the authority commands. Possession of power alone does not imply authority, that is, there should be sanctions against non-obedience. The subject may not resist commands from the ruler. If a medical official, for instance, collects Aids afflicted persons and locks them up in an excluded place he has no authority over them because they may resist.

The teacher, acting in loco parentis, guides and protects the child. His authority also comes from the fact that he knows more than the child. He teaches the child who listens, digests and learns. He must have authoritative utterances that are direct and normative enough to make the subject (child) act because he is told, not because of the need of the action. In such a case the child obeys because his trust in authority is built on the hope that the teacher will discharge his duties properly. A selfless educator inspires co-operation from the pupil for the attainment of good common ends. He does not demand obedience. Instead of exerting his power over the pupil he generates new power with the help of the pupil. He makes the child recognise the need for authority. When the child sees the need for authority the process of self-education begins. The child internalizes the authority of the commitment (Nash, 1966).

1.2.4 Black

- ✓ Black refers to indigenious dark skinned races of Africa. These people were once referred to as Kaffirs but the term became unacceptable when it evolved to possess denigrating implications. It was replaced by Native which referred to people speaking Bushman tongues, Hottentot tongues, Nguni Language, Shangan-Tonga languages, Venda tongues, Pedi,

SeSuthu and Setswana (Cemane, 1984). Native, like Kaffir became unpopular and was replaced by Bantu. Bantu is a term derived from the stem Urbantu, which means people. It is a stem that occurs in all African languages. Since laws and regulations for Bantu were intolerable the term developed a derogatory meaning and it was replaced by Black.

1.2.5 Secondary School

A school is a place for instruction. It is an institution for primary and secondary education, or for teaching of special subjects. Literary speaking it is a building with classrooms, desks and tables where teachers and children are engaged in specific activities.

A school assists the child when he explores the wider macro-reality in which he will have to build his future. The teacher-child relationship is a relationship of trust so that the child finds the school secure and so that the school embarks on its educative task. A school is educative in the sense that the teacher as an adult, is an identification figure whom pupils emulate. It reveals the life-world to the child systematically, guiding the child to adulthood by means of exploration, and gradually withdrawing until he reaches maturity. It extends, formalizes and supplements the primary education within the family situation (Griessel, et al, 1988)

Schooling for Blacks in South Africa is provided in 4 phases. Behr (1975) illustrates the phases as follows :

PHASE	CLASS	YEAR OF SCHOOLING
Lower Primary School	Sub A	1
	Sub B	2
	Std I	3
	Std II	4
Higher Primary School	Std 3	5
	Std 4	6
	Std 5	7
Junior Secondary School	Std 6	8
	Std 7	9
	Std 8	10
Senior Secondary School	Std 9	11
	Std 10	12

Primary education is basically concerned with providing the child with skills of literacy and numeracy. In the junior secondary phase various subjects are offered on differentiated streams according to the educational needs and abilities of individual pupils. At the senior secondary level pupils are prepared for the senior certificate examination (op cit). This work is concerned with the relationship of authority between the teacher and pupil in Black secondary schools, both the junior phase and the senior phase.

1.3 Methodology

This investigation will be executed by employing the phenomenological approach. Its main aim is the direct investigation and description of the phenomenon as it is experienced consciously, regardless of its aetiological explanations. It enables the researcher to see the essence or being of the phenomenon by avoiding external influences or preconceptions about it.

Mncwabe (1987) cites Giergie et al as stating that the phenomenological approach consists of three processes namely, intuition, reflection and description. Intuition refers to the suspension of all preconceptions and presuppositions relating to the problem in question. The researcher has to transcend his own attitude and let data emerge as it is, not manipulating it to advance his argument. Reflection is allowing the phenomenon to represent itself, to let it speak for itself without giving meaning to that which appears.

Description is analysing and attaching meaning to the phenomenon as it appears. The researcher has to ascertain whether his conclusions or pronouncements are universally and generally valid by subjecting them to other phenomena. The recurrent something throughout that process is the essence for the phenomenon being investigated. The next step is proving whether the incessant eidos is a totality itself or part of it.

This method has limitations as it is not easy for one to suspend his philosophy of life. A philosophy of life colours inter alia man's language, actions and conclusions. It stands to the researcher then to work laboriously so that he overcomes these limitations and achieve objectivity the method aims at.

A review of literature with similar situations will help the researcher get a conceptual framework. This will serve as theoretical background for the empirical investigation that will be carried later. The researcher will look at documents, textbooks, periodicals, journals, research works and newspapers with material relating to the nature of the educator's authority. The empirical investigation will be based on the hypothesis that disruption in Black schools correlate with the way educators exercise their authority. A cluster sample of teachers will respond to a self-administered questionnaire. The data will be evaluated and conclusions will be made.

1.4 Composition of the Chapter and their Brief Description

Chapter One - serves as an orientation to what the investigation seeks to disclose. The problem is stated and the basic concepts are defined so that the reader gets a clearer picture of the problem method to be followed are spelled out and the consequent chapters briefly outlined.

Chapter Two - describes the child's transition from home to school, from the informal spontaneous education of the family milieu to the formal setting of the school. The normative pattern of the home, the musts and must nots as well as the authority structure will give the researcher more insight into the extent of the moral induction the child has been subjected to when he moves from home to school. The way the school is organised, as well as the roles and relationships between educators and educands will bring into prominence the bureaucratic nature of the school.

Chapter Three - penetrates to the nature of the problem, the authority of the educator. Answers to the following questions will be attempted:

Is authority necessary?

If yes, what are its parameters?

Is there a relationship between authority and power?

School rules, their types, application and enforcement will be examined so as to detect when the thin line defining the role of authority and the subject disappears, when there is overlapp. Thereafter the purpose of school rules will be diagnosed, that is, how far do they delimit the precincts of the participants and whether they help the school achieve its aims.

Chapter Four - analyses the relationship between discipline and freedom. Such knowledge will highlight how school authority channels the expenditure of the child's energy, how the child internalizes discipline until he masters his self or until he reaches a state of self-fulfilment, and whether subjection to school control does promote quest for knowledge for the sake of liberating the mind. This will bring into proper perspective how the authoritative guidance of the Black educator helps the child pursue excellence.

Chapter Five - comprises of an empirical investigation. The hypotheses that the exercising of authority in Black schools correlates with school disturbances will be explained. The research instrument, the questionnaire and the cluster random sample of Black educators will be described. In Chapter six data will be presented, analysed and evaluated. Findings will then be judged against the de facto authority and the education of the child.

Chapter Seven - is the summary of the study, its pedagogical significance, recommendations and suggestions for further study.

Chapter Eight - comprises of the bibliography showing all the references used and quoted.

1. Summary

This work is concerned with the nature of the relationship of authority between the educator and educand in Black secondary schools. Authority is offering of protective guidance to the child enroute to adulthood. It is in the form of disseminating knowledge to the child, disciplining him and helping him choose the correct path. Black education has been marred by disruptions. It is assumed that these disruptions are related to the exercising of authority and therefore authority deserves analysing so as to redeem the moral character of future Black adults.

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CHAPTER 2: TRANSITION FROM HOME TO SCHOOL

- 2.1 The Normative Pattern of Informal Education
- 2.2 The school as Institution
- 2.3 Roles and Relationships between Educators and Educands
in a school Millieu
 - 2.3.1 Role of Education
 - 2.3.2 Role of the Educand
- 2.4 Role Relationships
- 2.5 Summary
- 2.6 Bibliography

2.1 THE NORMATIVE PATTERN OF INFORMAL EDUCATION

The primary educators of the child are the parents in a family situation. Though the education they offer is informal, in the sense that it is unsystematic, it is not evaluated and the content is not specified, there are certain directive standards that parents adhere to when moulding the child. The child is inducted with authoritative levels of excellence that he has to follow when he acts, thinks and speaks. These levels of excellence guide his behaviour and help him decide whether what he encounters is good or bad, true or false and so on. Since the moral education the child receives at home lays groundwork for formal education, the improper behaviour of some black pupils in secondary schools necessitates that the researcher delves in the pattern black parents follow in fostering morality in their children.

Ruch and Anyanwar (1984) define moral goodness as an "agreement of man's action with the standards of behaviour dictated by the laws of his nature (Natural Law) and ultimately by the intention of God, the creator of the world, in creating this nature (Eternal Law)" (p33). They further assert that moral goodness, according to the mythical view of Africans, has an ontological dimension. Being wrong does not mean to be individually in discord with the order of nature without effectively affecting the order itself, but it means harming and disrupting the order itself. Moral wrongness is more than a mere legal disorder, it is a disruption of the perfect harmony existing in and between the physical, social and religious dimensions of life. The ontological locus of man's conscience becomes overwhelmed by the impact his evil deed has on the group. In other words man's life is intimately and continuously affected by the social order as lived in the family and in the clan.

Blacks, people in South Africa regard virtues as a source of physical blessings, that is, they carry an inherent reward, for instance peace, justice, and generosity are associated with rewards like fecundity, wealth, health and wisdom. The most important virtues for Africans are virtues of the heart, the heart being a central life force that

harmonises and gives personal meaning to other aspects of life (Ruch Anyanwu, 1984). Man is near perfect when he has acquired the following virtues.

- Self-control and humility - marked by prudence, patience, moderation and politeness
- Faithfulness in friendship - this is a bilateral relationship of personal friendship that does not contain legal formalities. It is characterised by virtues like gratefulness.
- Goodness and kindness - marked by rectitude, nobility and magnanimity towards fellowmen. Courage and power is tempered by delicacy and tact.

The above virtues aim to maintain solidarity with the world and fellowman. The core solidarity is the family, not in the sense of the nuclear union of husband, wife and children, but an extended one that includes even the clans of both man and wife. Bearing testimony to this are the rituals of courtship, marriage and those relating to procreation. Zulus say "umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu" like Sothos who say "Motho ~~ke~~ motho ka batho" which means manhood is realised in the context of the group. The moral worth of man's achievements are weighed in the lights of his acknowledgement of his fellowmen. Acculturation, due to mixing with other nations like whites and asians, has not managed to erode this basic black philosophy of life.

Most black parents believe a child is to be seen not heard. They consider a three to six year old's questions as an irritation or as bad manners (Fafunwa, 1967). Such an approach stifles the child's curiosity and it hinders the development of his rationality. According to Hellman (1940) a black child has to accord respect and obedience to his paternal relatives. Maternal relatives are freer, there is less constraint in this relationship compared to the paternal side. Mother's brothers are indulgent and kind to their sister's child. Maternal grandparents tend to spoil their daughter's child.

Father child relationship is characterised by obedience and deference, with a touch of awe. On the other hand mother child relationship is less constrained and at the same time she is cautious not to encourage familiarity and confidence of utmost importance is respect and obedience.

In the traditional black family parents concerned themselves primarily with bearing, manners, honesty and integrity of the child since they did not work outside the home. Character building was inducted by games and interaction with peer group. Other members of the community helped form the character of the child by engaging him in useful activities. Any adult could directly intervene regarding the behaviour of the child. Stories and legends contributed to character formation of the child Moumoni (1968) regards stories as an inexhaustible source of teachings about behaviour of the individual. He says they "describe, laugh at or ridicule certain faults as they praise, glorify or make the child appreciate and love other qualities".(p23).

A child became fully human and fully responsible for his deeds when he had been ritually initiated into adult ways of life. Initiation is a sacramental act which ontologically changes the child (Ruch and Anyanwu, 1984). Most rites performed during initiation bear similarity with baptism like dying to an old childish life only to rise again as a responsible adult. Initiation contributed to the development of morality since children of the same age group took part in the aspects of collective and social life, passing from the world of childhood insouciance to the world of adult care and responsibility (Moumoni, 1968).

Though behaviour patterns stressed authority on the immediate family, the child was not only under the control of his parents but under the control of the wider society. Behaviour patterns complemented each other in a way that the child respected those in authority over him and he in turn received respect from those junior to him (Hellman, 1940). On the other hand Elliot (1970) has this to say about the way Africans accepted authority.

The lowly position of the children had been impressed on them. Young children were sometimes obliged to accept the authority even of other children who happened to be a bit older than themselves (p194)

Elliot (1970) emphasises that at school children accepted authority unquestioningly and restrained their judgement with ease simply because they had been obliged to accept the disguised voices, the masks and all the secrets of their tribal cults. In times of authority failure they seemed bewildered and indecisive. Traces of this unquestioned submission to authority were witnessable during the colonial era when an individual adapted his own intelligence and initiative to authority and was ready to follow its directions, customs and habits. He adapted by ignoring his social, economic, political and cultural aspects. Fafunwa (1967) states that the average colonial Africans native curiosity, inventiveness, initiative and ingenuity were subdued, stifled or discouraged.

The modern Black society is experiencing a loss of tradition customs and values. The economic situation has necessitated that parents have to seek employment and live in urban areas. The urban family consists of husband, wife and children. Relatives live far, if nearby, it is by chance. Kinship bonds have deteriorated because they are not reinforced by local bonds, in other words the practical solidarity of the extended family has been disrupted (Hellman 1940) The fact that the nuclear family is no longer embedded in the web of kinship means parents are responsible for their children's educational, economic and emotional developments.

Cemarc (1984) quotes Durand and Bertelsmann as speaking of lessened parental control since parents are compelled to work for long hours. Parents have little time to protect their children from negative influences in the environment. A child from this surrounding is liable to have limited preparation and aspirations for educational (opcit). In urban areas knowledge is vast and specialised, and the parents are ill-equipped to pass it on to the young. Instead as they have differentweltanschawung from their parents, the young understands it better than the parent.

This has decreased the exemplariness of adults and their authority is both questioned and treated with contempt (Geber and Newman, 1980). In the same work Hunter(1946) is cited as having observed:

the fact that young people have learned more of european ways than their parents makes them feel superior, they understand things which their fathers do not understand therefore they are the wiser. (p49)

Children of working class parents tend to be drawn into the lower class street culture which lessens their chances of succeeding at school. The child learns the rules of the street (Cemane 1984) points to a tug of war which develops when the parents fight the ascendancy of street rules over home rules. The child learns to act accordingly in both places.

Durojaiyo (1976) posted that most African children are rigidly controlled, they have to obey parents without questioning. Values that are heavily emphasised are, inter alia, respect for elders, obedience, to those in authority, generosity, responsibility, willingness to share, and ability to live in peace with others. The father is the main authority and disciplinarian and he exercises sanctions against non-conformity to these values.

In case of disobedience a child may be threatened with a beating by adults, peers or older children. Cemane(1984) points out that articulating virtues like respect for elders, obedience to those in authority and the ability to live peacefully with others may be a good thing but it also has a negative effect in the sense that children tend to regard being not assertive as a virtue and therefore become timid. Such a child will always restrain himself when he feels an urge to express himself, thereby limiting his interpersonal relationships and response.

Children brought up by rigid control during the early years are detected by more conformity, more dependence on adults and exhibition of less masterly behaviour, less competitiveness, less dominance and

less aggression (Eson, 1973). At school these children lack initiative and independence, co-operation, a higher level of creativity, originality and spontaneity, the very attributes that are highly valued at school (Cemane, 1984). It is important for parents to adopt strategies of discipline which rely on reasoning so as to promote the child's cognitive development. Reasoning with the child helps the parent to gain an insight into the child's degree of competency. Raven (1980) mentions that encouraging the child to reason trains him to make use of relevant past experiences, to anticipate the effect of his actions, to consider the reactions of others, and to empathise. He will also make his own observations about how things happen and perhaps invent new concepts in the process.

Reasoning with the parents teaches the child to apply cognitive processes in thinking out what should happen and he derives pleasure in knowing that the authority will listen to the results of his reasoning (op cit). The reward a child gets occurs when he sees the effects of his cognitive processes paying off. He feels entitled to air his views and be attended to., His relationship with authority is bound to be open instead of being underhand.

2.2 THE SCHOOL AS AN INSTITUTION

The term 'school' comes from the latin word 'schola' which refers to formal institutions aimed at educating children for specific purposes. Tyler (1988) defines the school as a "localised administrative entity concerned with the face to face instruction of the young, usually on a single site" (p109). It is a formally organised structure characterised by a face to face encounter between the educator and the learner. Learning occurs at a particular place during a specific period. Its main task is educative instruction which orientates the child with the world of the adults. Though the school is an extension of the home in educating the child, the way its tasks are carried out differs greatly from the relaxed atmosphere of the home. School activities are organised, intentional and serve a particular purpose as opposed to the informal spontaneous activities of the home.

The child is actually helped to understand the learning content. From the home the child enters a systematised time conscious world filled with specific skills like reading, writing and calculating (Steyn et al, 1984).

The organisational structure of the school is its patterned activities. Work is divided into positions and specialist roles (Kogan, 1984). Control is exerted over how work is done, its quality and quantity, and on supervision. Procedures are laid down to regulate activities. The manager decides on issues relating to work and assigns duties to subordinates. The assignment of tasks depends on the qualitative and quantitative nature of the outputs. There are policies which state down the procedures, the controls and limits which people in the institution have to observe.

Jacques (1976) states that tasks are usually initiated in three ways. They may be:

- directly assigned by the manager
- the subordinates own reaction to the needs of others in the institution.
- the subordinates own initiative.

Outputs have to be completed within a prescribed time, within available resources, by employing stipulated methods and procedures.

For the school organisational design to be successful it must state its objectives clearly. Responsibilities of each level and committee should be clearly stated and understood by all concerned. Authority and supervisory relationships between levels has to be fully understood by all concerned as well as the lines of communication between and among positions and committees. To avoid overlap, omissions and duplications of tasks co-ordination between people and among tasks and programmes have to be effected (Gorton, 1976).

Tyler (1988) sees schools as not wholly bureaucratic as they are characterised by non-routine activities and unpredictable events. This may be due to the unpredictable behaviour of pupils. He cites McKay's study of thirty one Canadian high schools on the relationship between the hierarchy of authority and school effectiveness. The hierarchy of authority was constituted by teacher autonomy in the classroom, concentration of routine decisions on the principalship, presence of a chain of command and the existence of the principal's veto. School effectiveness was tested by the pupil performance on standardised external examinations. Results revealed a negative relationship between hierarchy and teacher satisfaction. Such evidence demonstrates that bureaucracy suppress innovation and creative change.

On the other hand Tyler (op cit) contends that teachers do expect a degree of bureaucratic control for their own protection. Slackening of bureaucratic control makes a teacher feel anxious, uncertain and uncared for. Woods (1979) writes of survival strategies available to teachers like command, punishment, manipulation, temper and appeal. When a teacher resorts to command, punishment and temper he is comporting a general strategy of domination. A strategy of negotiation takes place when he resorts to manipulation and appeal. It is the relaxation of the rule so as to eliminate bad behaviour. In a different vein Coleman (1961) adduces that teachers manipulate pupils with the promises of passing grades while pupils interests are bent to the extra-curriculum and the non-academic culture of fun and conformity.

Most black schools are following a traditional form of administration where rules and procedures for teachers are fixed. Pupils have to conform to school rules which embody acceptable conduct and aspects of decorum, uniform, and teacher-pupil relationship. Conformity to social norms is inducted by morning devotions, greeting teachers and other pupils sporting activities, politeness and punctuality. The seniority ladder is as follows: principal, deputy principal heads of department experienced teachers ordinary staff prefects monitors senior pupils ordinary pupils. Jackson(1972) writes of a hidden

curriculum of rules, regulations and routines teachers and pupils have to obey so that the total balance of the school is not disturbed. The hidden curriculum is what is not stated explicitly at school but what pupils pick up from the organisation of the school. Cemane(1984) avers that according to the traditional Black society children do not air their views but are expected to obey what their elders tell them unquestioningly. Doing a thing because elders say so is submitting to authority pronouncements for their own sake. The child is denied the opportunity to evaluate such pronouncements and to deliberate whether their utterers are moral counsellors with imitable moral records. If that opportunity is given the child submits to authority after assessing the moral quality of the utterance and by doing that he is making an moral appraisal of that authority.

Morality in authoritative proclamations resides in rules pertaining to orderly behaviour, neatness, cleanliness, politeness and truthfulness. Authority per se is only accoladed for maintaining these rules. Pupils resent teachers who discourage non-compliance to rules by metting out punishment. Viewing discipline as punishment is narrow because it is aimed at punishing the body, not the mind. It creates an unhealthy relationship between the teacher and the pupil.

2.3 ROLES AND RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATORS AND EDUCANDS IN A SCHOOL MILLIEU

Educands and educators encounter each other in an educational situation. The educator is an authority figure in his capacity as inter alia, a disseminator of knowledge, a leader, and a guardian. The child lends himself open to be taught. Both parties enter into a role relationship with each other. A role is what a person does and how he behaves as a result of a social position or status. Roles do not exist independently of role relationships since relationships exist between roles (Jaques, 1976). A relationship is an integral part of the role itself.

2.3.1 THE ROLE OF THE EDUCATOR

Madsen and Madsen (1981) list three views of the child at birth. They are that the child is born good, the child is born bad and that the child is neither born good or bad. The view of being born good is based on the assumption that nature might corrupt man and the onus lies on the teacher not to taint the nature of the child. The problem that faces the teacher here is that there are different levels of how a good child is. Behaviour is said to be good only if it bears moral significance and involves moral considerations like the pursuit of justice, consideration of other people's interests, and the promotion of human happiness and welfare (Straughan, 1982).

If the child is viewed as being born bad the teacher's duty is to eliminate the bad element inherent in the child so that he becomes good. Like good there are different notions of what can be classified as bad behaviour. It also depends on the tolerance level of the teacher. In the same vein Hargreaves (1967) has it that the 'good' child is one who meets the teachers expectations. The 'bad' one is the deviant. A child who is not outstanding in either the good or the bad category is a mediocre. He is not easily recognised, his actual names are learned later and a teacher may have difficulty in connecting the name and the face.

Regarding the child as neither bad nor good means the teacher has to start where the child is. The causation of undesirable behaviour is ignored as the teacher tackles the existing problem. Behaviour is relative to the situation a person finds himself in, therefore searching for causation is a futile exercise. What might cause one person to be angry might excite another person. It is up to the teacher to find where the child stands academically and socially.

Pupils are the audience before which teachers perform. They watch how he moves, they comment on his dress and appearance and compare him with his colleagues. Their expectations and their reactions to his actions regulate his behaviour (Tattum 1982) writes of a study where headmasters classified poor teachers as weak, lazy and ineffectual

in their classroom organisation. They lack commitment to the welfare of their pupils. Good teachers were classified as hard workers, having a good rapport with pupils and able to handle their priorities and practices with professional attitude. They diffuse potential conflict situations easily while poor ones are usually involved in such situations.

In 'difficult' schools Metz (1978) observed that competent teachers overcame the situation by employing the three behaviour patterns listed below:-

- Clearly structured classroom activities, firm direction and a brisk tempo in conducting lessons.
- Confidence and competence in the handling of the subject matter.
- Treating students with politeness and respect.

Treating students with respect had a reciprocal effect since students are bound to abandon their aggression if teachers are not aggressive. A teacher becomes confident and competent in his teaching if he has thoroughly prepared his lessons. This authority is based on personal and professional foundations rather than on bureaucratic backing.

Tattum (1982) asserts that teachers perceive the learner's role as passive. Pupils on the other hand expect teachers to teach, keep order and to be friendly. They (pupils) regard schooling as an instrument to get an access to palatable living. That schooling is a necessity is undisputable, what remains of the teacher is to make it enjoyable. Children from underprivileged background do not value schoolwork for its own sake but they value the nature of the relationship under which work takes place (op cit). Such a relationship has to be tolerable so that work is not burdensome. Work counts if teachers are human, if they show such qualities as warmth, kindness and fairness.

Pupils seem to expect teachers to care about their personal lives, not just to be instrumental and impersonal dispensers of knowledge. For

some adolescents the school's instrumental purpose does not appeal, so they look for expressive satisfaction elsewhere. They may resort to delinquency, the stage that may predispose them to regard teachers, schoolwork and school buildings as symbols of oppression. Some teachers do not care because they feel vulnerable should pupils take advantage of the personal relationship. Others rely on institutional authority because they lack effective bonds with their pupils. Institutionalised authority relies on formality and social distance whereas personalised authority relies on empathy and understanding. The teacher's relationship with the pupil should not be purely contractual, that is, a client-practitioner relationship typified by varediedd bonds of affectivity. A subject like Educational and Vocational Guidance helps the teache to consider all the needs of a growing child.

The teacher's tolerance level determines whether to take action against a pupil who violates a rule. Rule specification and rule application varies from teacher to teacher. Some have many rules, others few, some apply them strictly, other less so, some apply sanctions to offenders, others do not. Each teacher has an ideal model pupil and all model pupils contain in them educational principles and standards as well as behaviour expectations which vary from teacher to teacher and which will usually embody middle class values.

THE ROLE OF THE EDUCAND

The role of the teacher is based on an occupational choice, and he is paid to do it. The educand has no choice, he occupies his position by virtue of his knowledgeability and age. His role is defined by the adult. When the teacher defines the pupil role, he considers himself a more decisive participant in the performance and he expects the pupil to be more receptive. Proper learning requires that the child becomes more active and that he not only meets the expectations of the teacher but should transcend them. This role should incorporate his hopes and aspirations.

Calvert (1975) perceives the role of the pupil from the child point of view. A child is immature. He is young, weak, ignorant, incapable and lacking in power and status. He has to yield to the superior knowledge, skills and judgement of adults. He is bound to obey them and accept their prescription of moral values. At times he is given licence to behave irresponsibly, for instance, when courts hold them less responsible for some offences. If he is found guilty he is pitied for he is a victim of poor heredity or poor environment.

A child lacks status. There are times when he is considered less important than adults like giving priority to adults when seats are scarce, waiting for adult consent before voicing an opinion during a discussion. He is expected to go away and play when adults are busy but that play may be interrupted anytime an adult deems it necessary to do so.

Children are delicate. They are more easily damaged than adults. Their behaviour is guided by what adults think is good for them. They are protected from situations like physical hardships, from harsh realities of war and death. At the same time they are the future generation which has to be preserved for the survival of the human race in times of crisis.

The role of being a child is ambiguous since adult control is gradually slackened from babyhood to the toddler stage. The child is encouraged to become independent as soon as possible, but when he reaches adolescence he is almost prevented from assuming independence. The result is confusion in both parties, especially to parents who reluctantly withdraw their control until their child is married.

Calvert (op cit) adduces that the main function of a teacher is controlling his pupils before he teaches them, for order is a prerequisite for successful teaching. Pupils must first submit to the teacher's authority. Controlling pupils is enforced by routine activities like morning devotions, observing certain protocol relating

to entering and leaving the classroom, moving from room to room and to the playground; standing and sitting at prescribed times - like when addressing a teacher or when the headmaster enters the classroom, seeking permission before talking or moving about the classroom, engaging in prescribed work, and being ready to take instructions.

Teachers evaluate pupils according to how much they conform to obedience, industry and motivation, and politeness. Each teacher gives a different weight on these areas, pupils therefore stress the area a particular teacher values most Tattum (1982) cites Merton's five modes of adaptation to the school. These modes refer to role behaviour.

These modes are conformity innovation ritualism retreatism rebellion. The nature of the social context during interaction makes the individual shift from one alternative mode to another. They are not discreet but overlap as they are relative to social circumstances, that is, as they vary from teacher to teacher and from lesson to lesson.

- Innovator: This is the child who observes the schools achievement goal but he is prepared to cheat in examinations or to copy someone else's work so as to obtain a favourable academic or behavioural image. He disregards the immorality of his actions so long as the end is achieved.
- Ritualist: This is a child who internalises the achievement of goals of the school to the extent that though he does not achieve highly, he attends school out of routine and habit. Schooling to him has ceased to be an act of commitment and hope.
- Retreatist: This fellow is withdrawn and usually absent from school. He tends to avoid certain teachers and some subjects. He envisions characteristics of withdrawing from the whole institution.

- Rebel: A rebel renounces the goals and values of the school as well as its institutionalised means of achievement or its legitimate means and ends. He questions authority and employs his own behavioural patterns and objectives. He disrupts classes, resorts to violence and malice, and antagonises teachers.

- Conformist: This role fits well into the teachers mode of the ideal pupil. He makes the teacher feel rewarded since he learns a lot. Teachers are inclined to wait longer for answers from cleverer pupils than from the less able ones. A higher performance level is demanded from bright pupils whereas minimal performane level from low achievers tends to be satisfactory. More praise is usually given to pupils who perform well than those who don't.

Tattum (1982) writes of a gap between how teachers actually behave towards pupils and how they think they behave or wish to behave. Classrooms are arenas of interaction, cues and messages are given off by teachers in subtle and covert ways. Pupils intepret these and assess the teacher's priorities in such a way that they fit into the teacher's pupil profile. That is one of the reasons why bright pupils fulfil the teacher's self-esteem and accept his authority with ease. The teacher himself sees not need to resort to bureaucratic devices to protect or support his position. Use of intimidation by a teacher is a sign of failure.

Hargreaves et al (1975) mentions a process of three stages whereby teachers typify pupils. These stages are specultion, elaboration and stabilization. They are separate. Speculation occurs when the teacher meets the pupil for the first time. Stabilization happens when the teache has a clear and a stable conception of identity of his pupils. It is when he understands the child and able to predict this actions. Between these two stages elaboration sets in. It occurs when the teacher swings from extreme ratings towards the positive end of his typification continuum.

Hargreaves (1967) contends that pupil typification is reinforced by gossip among staff. During discussions about pupils teachers bring their own interpretations and preconceptions about children, a practice which is perilous for the teacher who has no direct contact with the child in question. At times teachers disagree about the behaviour of a particular child, but such disagreements only occur between teachers who have a direct contact with the child.

Docking (1982) cites Rogers personality theory which stipulates that each one of us has his self concept which comprises of our past experiences and how we think other people perceive us. It is based on the evaluations significant others have of us. Teachers tend to disregard a child's self concept and label him as troublesome on the basis of slender evidence. Labelling causes some pupils to learn to become deviant. A child conforms to the label and commits further acts of deviance whereas deeply he knows the tag is false and deeply he hates the labellers especially as they have power over him.

Docking (op cit) quotes Eggleton as having identified mechanisms whereby teachers create deviance thus:

- Overt labelling: Pupils are labelled directly by means of nicknames and some undesirable terms.
- Covert labelling: occurs through the "hidden curriculum", when children pick up messages about their worth as individuals by the type of learning opportunities given to them at school.
- Teachers make assumptions about a child's normality or his predictable behaviour from their knowledge of the child's home background.
- Pupils are identified through their failures eg. the 'hopeless' in certain difficult subjects.

The labelling mechanisms listed above imply that some pupils are denied status and the likely consequence is that they may demand it by challenging the teacher's authority.

According to Cemane (1984) when pupils come to school they bring different tastes, experiences and prospects and they will want to satisfy different needs. Black pupils come from culturally deprived homes, lacking in privacy, nourishing food and decency. Such poverty means the child will not have the necessary school requirements like uniform and books. Since both parents work the child is exposed to street culture which teaches him foul language, bad habits, aggressiveness, intoxicating drinks and drug abuse. He lacks time & consciousness as most of his activities are not regulated by the clock. At school, therefore he will seldom be punctual. These practices are not acceptable at school. If there is conflict between school values and home values the child is bound to disassociate himself from the school. School values are similar to those of the middle class. Tattum (1982) emphasises that the model of an ideal pupil comes from the middle class. The lower class is less ideal, less easy to teach, more difficult to control, hostile towards school and less morally acceptable to teachers.

2.3.3 ROLE RELATIONSHIPS

Hargreaves (1975) defines role as referring to behavioural expectations linked to a position. It is behavioural prescription of the role incumbent. Each position has a complementary role which is related to the position in question, for instance, a doctor is linked with a complementary position of a patient, a teacher is linked to a pupil, a bride to bridegroom. Expectations of the complementary role define behavioural boundaries of the role associated with the position, like the expectations of the pupil which define the teachers behaviour. This happens because:-

- the role incumbent directs his performance towards role complementor.

- role complementor controls role incumbent's behaviour by either rewarding or punishing him if his performance conforms or deviates from his expectations.
- the nature of role relationships between both parties is bound in a special way. Duties or obligations of the other are rights of the partner as in the case of a teacher who has to teach the child and the child has a right to be taught. Furthermore the teacher has a right to expect the pupil to learn.

Elliot (1976) avers the above definition when states that role relationships occur in a social context in which the parties involved constrain or limit their idiocratic behaviours so that they come to a mutual understanding. It sets precincts of interaction. The parties involved behave freely within the precincts, they make decisions, assess each others behaviour and evaluate each others responses. Elliot (op cit) likens these social boundaries to layers of interaction. The three outer layers are cultural determinants. They constitute a broad background of social interaction.

The first of the outer layers is the cultural zone containing all the cultural constraints which individuals learn during socialization and which make up the folkways like behavioural ways in social greetings, manners and customs.

The second layer is the legal zone which bears a framework of laws which bind the behaviour of the participants.

Third comes institutional layer in which interaction occurs within institutionalized environments like the church and the school.

The two inner layers last as long as the interaction taking place. They refine interaction taking place in the three outer layers. The first of the inner layers is the inter-subjective layer. It is a layer of mutual understanding between the participants of the parameters of their relationship. Such an arrangement is dynamic as it flows,

fibrillates, readjusts to the nature of the interaction. The second inner layer relates to individual persons. It is the subjective zone where behaviour boundaries of each person highlights the personality of each participant in the interaction. In essence it is part of a person's public identity.

At times it becomes difficult for one partner to perform his role well. Role strain is a conflict between the self and the role since roles form part of a person's self image (Hargreaves, 1975). Role strain occurs when a person occupies two incompatible roles simultaneously as in the case of a police constable making an arrest and finds that one of the suspects is his own son. He has to be warm and personal in his relationship to his son, but as a police constable he must be rude towards a suspect. Another instance of role strain occurs if there is a lack of agreement among the expectations of partners differ with one another, or when expectations are unclear, the actor being not clear about how to behave. Ambiguity manifests itself when a person assumes a role for the first time, like a school beginner. Another instance of role ambiguity may come from the personal qualities of the actor which may militate against his role performance like a tiny police commander.

A solution to role strain is to conform to the expectations of the partner with the greatest power, the partner who can conjure up several sanctions since it is costly to ignore him. Another solution is to insulate role performance against being observed by conflicting role partners (op cit).

The school as an organisation has to restrict and pattern the behaviour of persons in it by defining their various roles. Teacher's and pupil's behaviour has to be regulated in order to be predictable. There is pressure to conform coming from expectations of others and it is reinforced by rewards and sanctions. The problem with teacher-pupil roles is that they are unequal partners. The teacher, by virtue of his being adult, exercises authority. He commands respect from those who look up to him, he is listened to when he exerts his influence.

He can change the behaviour of his pupils and redirect their wills. Pupils, on the other hand, are powerless and are not expected to direct their teachers at will. The teacher possesses knowledge, which he transmits to the pupil. The child renders himself available and receptive to that knowledge.

Both the teacher and the pupil are bearers of equal human dignity. The teacher accepts the child as a being with dignity demanding respect, as a separate person free to express his feelings. The child on the other hand, should not exert his dignity to the same extent as the teacher because he is not yet fully responsible for his task.

Peters (1966) distinguishes between liking pupils and respecting them as persons. Liking pupils is found when teachers find some pupils that are easier to get on than others. Respecting the child as a person involves regarding him as a "distinctive centre of consciousness, with peculiar feelings and purposes" pp58-59. It entails valuing his aspirations, viewpoints and his successes. When a teacher realizes this and cares he is respecting the child as a person. The problem that faces the teacher is that the horizons of the centres of consciousness of his pupils are dynamic. He has to make the child air his views so as to guide him. At the same time he has to guard against premature censure. Though the child has to be respected as a chooser, the adult has to beware of being permissive.

Docking (1982) cites Entwistle as stating that it rests upon the teacher to develop a love relationship with his pupil. This relationship is long-suffering, patient, modest, kindly, seemly, enduring, hopeful and incapable of rebuff. It is a relationship that transcends personal rapport.

When a teacher and a child encounter each other they express themselves by words, gestures and facial manipulations so that the other receives his impressions. Their expressions are raw data on which the other creates an impression through selection, inference and attribution.

A wrong impression is created if one partner misinterprets the other partner's expressions.

Docking (op cit) cites Hargreaves as having stated that the teacher should define the situation before the pupils define it in a way that suits them. If the teacher does not establish his own dominance pupils regard him as a yielding and underserving of respect. There are dangers associated with dominance. It can lead to being domineering. Pupils may comply to domineering so as to avoid punishment when they obey simply because of fear they harbour and underlying resentment for the teacher.

A relationship based on dominance may remain permanent or may become rewarding to a teacher who lives by exploiting others. The solution to the problem is that the teacher, after the initial definition, should redefine the situation by becoming more personal basing his power on respect and admiration his pupils accord him.

Striving for dominance might tempt the teacher to think of control as of primary importance in teaching and the subject matter as of secondary importance. A class is actually controlled by the way it is taught.

2.4 SUMMARY

The above exposition gave an insight into the way the black child was inducted with norms during the informal traditional education. The whole community saw to it that education aimed at character building. It emphasised honesty, integrity, manners, respect and communalism, changes like acculturation and a pro-western life-style, have set in. Parents are working, therefore, the child is more exposed to street culture than to inimitable adults. Loss of moral values like respect for elders, responsibility and obedience, has ensued a conflict between values of the child and those of the parent.

A parent-child relationship provides a pattern for later authority relationships, therefore, an unhealthy one where the child's desires are thwarted, predisposes the child to harbour resentment for the parent. Such a resentment shakes the basic permanent emotional ties between the parent and the child. It is easier to express hatred to a teacher than to a parent as such hatred can find institutional outlets through time-honoured rituals pupils share. Some outlets may take the form of open defiance like questioning the teacher's disciplinarian capacity, or they may appear as blatant refusal to learn as in the case of truancy. The hypothesis of this work is that pupils disrupt classes because they resent authority.

2.5

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CHAPTER 3 THE AUTHORITY OF THE EDUCATOR

- 3.0 Introduction
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- 3.2 The Bounds of Authority
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3.0 INTRODUCTION

The term "authority" refers to a source, an originator, an interpreter or enforcer of rules. It originates from the latin word 'auctoritas' which means the originating and inventing of opinions, counsel and command. It is also applicable where there is an appeal to a special person as a source. In institutions it implies a rule governed form of life, some normative order that has to be promulgated, maintained and perpetuated. It is the use of speech, symbolic gestures, and rituals by means of which verdicts, commands and pronouncements which lay down what is correct are formally stated and vested with significance (Peters 1966). Persons in authority get their right to decide, proclaim, judge, order and pronounce from the procedural rules which they lay down.

3.1 The Necessity of Authority

Holt (1972) states that adults have a natural authority to tell children what to do. They possess this authority because they have been in the world longer and have seen more of it. They have more skills more knowledge and more experience. Teachers as adults have to protect other pupils from those who steal, destroy, write on the walls, punch others or smoke in lavatories. Teachers themselves need the security of being told what to do by headmasters, advisors, inspectors and parent committees. In the classroom children feel secure if the demands of authority made on them are predictable and safe. Obedience to authority does not end at school. In the world beyond there is some form of authority to be obeyed, as in the case of the work situation. Schools prepare children for demands, stresses and obligations of the outside world. At the same time it is up to children to change the outside world. In other words, their deference to authority should be justified on dynamic grounds.

Man needs authority to abide by the rules. He needs to be bound by some moral authority so as to be secured from bribery and threats. Rules are followed because of the respect and authority they possess. They bind everyone as for instance even the head of state obeys traffic rules and other rules that he himself is responsible for.

All man's activities are guided by the authority of standards of the correct and wrong way of doing things. Smith(1985) insists that this authority of standards keeps us in the right track. It is independent of the person holding the office of authority as it helps the performance of the subjects to transcend his vision. It enables subjects to act for the right reasons. Rationalising protects the ruled from power abuse by authority. The rightness of rules transcends pronouncements of any person. Historically speaking, Smith (opcit) further argues that heroes are people who disobeyed orders of higher authorities and sacrificed their lives simply because they displayed allegiance to principles of a higher order. There are, therefore, some immutable, eternal standards or laws of the highest order against which people judge the orders of those in authority over them.

The authority of the teacher is based on the rational basis of his employment ie. his academic and professional qualifications, his references and competence to prove that he can exercise authority. He is appointed to an office. It is expected that he will act with reason and circumspect. This authority is justified if his pronouncements are reasonable and based on adequate grounds. Children learn best when they understand what is said to them they need reasons for doing things. Authoritarianism is incompatible with learning as it is not based on reasons. There are different levels of understanding and understanding as such, improves if it is tested by public

criticism. Authoritarian utterances are limited to the utterer's personal vision. Avoidance of challenge and discussion tempts the officer to rely solely on his position.

Authority as source of knowledge is indispensable. The known interpretation of reality has to be imparted by an educator to a child so that the child can attach meaning to his encounters with ease. The authoritative guidance of the educator therefore, helps the child to gain access to reality.

3.2 The Bounds of Authority

Peters (1966) justifies the authority of the teacher on two grounds, namely, in terms of social control and in terms of knowledge. He performs social control by providing security, freedom and fairness to his charges. As disseminator of knowledge there are reasons to support the claim that he knows. He employs public procedures to verify the knowledge he possesses.

Smith (1985) denies that a teacher is an authority because he knows more than his pupils. He argues that pupils are not 'barbarians at the gates of knowledge who must put their trust in the teacher's cognitive authority before they can be admitted to learning (Opcit, P53). When the child comes to school he already possesses some knowledge and concepts, and he is capable of understanding the content the teacher imparts. The teacher's being an authority in his teaching depends on his ability to explain to his pupils. He must help pupils make connections between the old and the new pieces of knowledge so that they will utilize as much as possible of it to make sense. In other words he must have an insight into how the child thinks.

A teacher may be an authority in a certain sphere of knowledge, but he may fail to pass it on. Of utmost importance is to be an expert on means, that is, on methodology rather than an expert on ends. Peters (1966) puts this view succinctly when he states that a teacher must be an expert on teaching methods, child development, forms of learning and on social background of children. As a custodian of culture he must frequently examine the aims of the education. This main task is to get pupils to identify themselves with the aims of the school. Pupils need guidance lest they learn that things are worth working at if they are of some obvious use. They should be led to appreciate the intrinsic values inherent in subjects, not facts that they will soon forget and competences that are shortlived.

Learning involves determination to grasp what has yet to be comprehended (Bantock, 1952). The learner is directed to respect the unknown, to revere the unattained. He must have faith that knowledge is dynamic. He must have respect for the authority of the subject and the teacher, the authority of the teacher being derived from the subject and other related factors of life as demanded and practised by society.

The authoritative capacity of the teacher extends to his right to maintain social control at school. As an adult he has to tell the child the right things to do and punish him or cause him to be punished if he does not obey. Pronouncements of authority in terms of social control are not questionable. It is the right of a person to issue them that is queried. Peters (1966) stresses that a rule or an utterance may be silly or wicked but its rational basis is not questioned. He cites Hobbes as saying "It is authority not wisdom that make the law". A rule or an order is challenged by questioning the person's right to issue it. When it comes to knowledge it is the pronouncement that is challenged as the pronouncer might be in

error. Such a person is likely to be right because of his special training or is an expert or authority in his field of knowledge. (Opcit).

The usual control devices for a teacher are commands and requests. Commands are regulatory utterances for which no reasons are given. They are uttered by a person or persons explicitly given the right to control. In most cases commands are either status orientated or task orientated. If they are directed towards status they come from the personal whim of the officer in question, whereas if they are directed towards the task they are necessitated by the situation. Requests are polite forms of commands. They are moral and prudential appeals and as such they are morally educative.

Smith (1985) contends that there is an allowance for authority to be questioned before being obeyed since the person giving orders may not be intelligent enough to defend his orders or he might be impatient to give reasons. Weighing orders against rationality saves the rulers face when he loses authority. His pronouncements have to outlive his term of office. This means that the parents can be obeyed even after death if their authority was defensible. There are times when questioning rationality of orders is out of question as in the case of following instructions of a war commander or following instructions of a traffic cop if there is an accident, so as to prevent chaos and further accidents such commands in such situations are urgent and mandatory. They involve life and death, a rare phenomenon in a classroom situation.

Flathman (1980) points out that the subject surrenders his judgement if orders come from the correct authority. These orders are regarded as done by right, that is they come through the correct channels. The acceptance of such orders does limit

the subjects judgement. In the case of an authority or an experts pronouncements, the subject surrenders his judgement if he has an interest in the authority's field of knowledge. The subject, however, can pursue the validity of the expert's pronouncements and gain more knowledge than the expert.

The pronouncement of the expert is accepted as true on the grounds that he is an authority in that aspect like in the case of a scientist. An order from a control authority is considered obligatory if the subject falls within the jurisdiction of the person's authority and if the order falls within the scope of that authority.

Docking (1982) cites Werthman as having observed that gang members operate on the following criteria to reject or accept a teacher's authority:

- The teacher must have a good reason to stop inattentiveness in class. His right to punish for talking, reading comics, turning around and chewing gum should not be taken for granted.
- It is beyond the teacher's jurisdiction to make official pronouncements about pupil's dress, race, hair style and mental capacities unless some of these have been agreed upon previously.
- The awarding of marks should be fair, that is fairness must correlate with the pupil's level of intelligence and understanding of the subject as perceived by himself. Furthermore the awarding of marks should not be a penalty for unacceptable behaviour or should not be a bribe if the teacher feared the pupil.

- Scores should be calculatable. If classmembers demand an explanation for marks allocated the way the teacher responds is of crucial importance. When the pupil is dissatisfied with the allocation of marks, the authority of the teacher is at stake.

Discontent about a teacher is expressed in the following manner:

- a hand would not be raised before talking in class, so as to ignore a teacher's right to decide who may speak.
- frequent lateness in lessons
- a teacher would not be addressed as 'Sir' or 'Miss' as that would be deferring to his authority.
- Aloofness and resorting to provocative body posting like walking too slow, wearing a hat indoors or having a hand in the pocket whilst addressing a teacher

Since the above situations test the teacher's authoritative capacity, his reaction may encourage or discourage discontent. If he satisfies the criteria of being an authority as stated above, he is least likely to experience deviant behaviour. He should have, in addition to the subject matter, a working knowledge of psychology and sociology.

3.3 Authority and Power

Power is the ability to do something, to control or influence others, or to impose one's will on others. According to Peters (1968) power consists of ways an individual subjects others to his will by means of physical coercion like inflicting pain, or by psychological coercion like withholding privileges, or by

moderate forms of sanctions and rewards as in the case of manipulating access to material resources and rewards. Power differs from authority in the sense that authority pertains to an impersonal normative order or to a value system which regulates behaviour. It may be supported by power.

Wrong (1979) quotes Bertrand Russell as having stated that power is the production of intended effects. He sees power as the capacity of some persons to produce intended and foreseen effects on others. To this end Wrong (op cit) gives the following forms of power:

- Authority - this form becomes evident when a subordinate complies because of the content of communication after having evaluated and accepted it. In the case of authority compliance is not induced by the content of communication but its source.
- Coercive Authority - This is the most extensive form of power as it requires minimum communication and understanding between the power holder and the subordinate to compel obedience of the latter. Coercion needs costly expenditures of material and human resources to further it. A person brandishing a weapon for instance, is easily obeyed. The power holder also has to maintain constant vigilance so that his subordinates do not rebel against him. He has to be informed of their activities because if they obey as a result of fear of punishment they will deviate when not watched.
- Authority by Inducement Compliance of the subordinate is obtained by offering rewards. These rewards are employed to induce obedience on the subject instead of threatening him with negative sanctions.

- Legitimate Authority - In this case the powerholder has a right to command and the subject has an obligation to obey. The latter obeys the source of the command not the content. This form of power is based on shared norms in the sense that norms prescribe the context of commands so that obedience is within limits. The shared norms not only apply to the two power relation parties, but to the larger community. Submission to authority is then voluntary. It is based on consent.

- Competent Authority - The subject obeys out of belief in the authority's superior competence that the authority has the needs and interests of the subject at heart, as in the case of adhering to the medical practitioner orders.

Clegg (1975) believes that power resides in management of institutions. An institution is composed of specialised sub-units with specific duties needing certainty. The locus of power is attached to the concept of uncertainty, uncertainty being a lack of information about future events. There needs to be predictability. Power is the probability that one member of the social relationship will be in a position to carry out his will despite resistance. It is a probability that a command with a given specific content will be obeyed by a group of persons.

Clegg (1979) argues that power cannot be possessed and exercised. It is fallacious to think of power as a kind of substance that one can have in one's pocket in the same way as money. As money is a medium of the economic process in the same way power secures the performance of binding obligations. Such power is derived from authority. It does not stand on its own. Authority legitimizes power in the sense that power not derived from authority usually involves force.

Power relations evolve around two elements, namely asymmetric dependence and the difficulties of escape (Martin 1977). The degree of dependence and avenues of escape correlate with compliance. If dependence is great and escape is easy, compliance is bound to be based on coercion since the subordinate has little access to the relation, the power holder uses coercion to protect himself and to maintain the relationship with the subordinate. In cases where dependence is great and the possibility of escape is little, the relationship is based on authority because the subordinate maintains his self-respect by complete compliance. The power holder resorts to authority as it is a cheaper and more effective means of obtaining compliance than coercion. Coercion is a form of insurance against breakdown of authority. If there is a balance between dependences and open avenues of escape for subordinates, power is likely to be based on authority as the relationship is preserved with the consent of the subordinate (Op cit).

Authority is valid if it is recognised by some people. The person in authority does not only enjoy recognition, he exercises power over his subjects. Power is exercised to achieve the aims of the institution. It is embedded in rules of the institution so as to sanction issues that affect the organisational control of the education process.

3.4 School Rules

A rule is code of regulations that must not be transgressed. It is a general command and a command is an "expression of desire that others behave in a particular way, backed by the power and will to enforce that expression in the event of disobedience" (Dworkin, 1977 p32). In the same work Austin is cited as having defined legal rules as general commands the sovereign or person

in authority has extended, the sovereign being a person who is not in the habit of obeying anyone else.

Austin's model has loopholes. One authority or group can have ultimate control of the whole community. Political control is pluralistic and shifting in the present complex societies. It is based on compromise, co-operation and alliance.

The other loophole is that there is something authoritative that forces subjects to obey his orders, that is, there is a difference between commands from a gangster and those from an authority. Orders from an authority have strictures and sanctions that obligate subjects to comply. It is not just the commander's ability but his office that matters.

Hart (1961) distinguishes between being obligated to do a thing and being obliged to do it. One is obligated if he is bound by a rule to do what it provides, not because he'll be subjected to some physical harm should he disobey. A rule is viewed as a standard of behaviour that constrains the subject in itself, regardless of the threat to enforce it. It becomes binding to a group of people if they accept it. They practice it because it is accepted. A rule operates in an all-or-nothing fashion. One follows a rule or ignores it and is disqualified as in a game.

Dworkin (1977) states that the difference between rules and principles is that principles have a dimension of weight. Rules don't. They are referred to as functionally important or unimportant. One rule may be more important than the other if it has a greater or more important role in regulating behaviour.

Rules serve to combat indiscipline and disruption. The traditional response to disruption is to create more rules more

surveillance and stiffer penalties. Such state of affairs is proven to be a harbinger of conflict. Another function of rules is to co-ordinate activities of members of an organisation and thereby reduce uncertainty (Tattum 1982).

Duncan (1979) has it that man is the best of all animals when he reaches the perfection of virtue. He needs rules and regulations in his life for without them he would become 'the worst of all brutes' (p80) Duncan (Op cit) further argues that man differs from other animals because 'he has the weapon of reason with which to exploit his base desires and cruelty, and at no time is there more evidence of this than during his school days' (p80).

Children are born into the world of norms and the school as an intermediary between the family and society to inculcate in the child respect for rules of the social order. Rules embody accepted values they are guides to an integrated society. The child learns rules through socialisation.

Rules regulate behaviour of both the teacher and the pupil. Tattum (1982) cites Gouldner as saying rules are created and invoked as a response to breakdown in social interaction. It becomes a tug of war when the lower participants seek to widen or maintain their limits of discretion and senior participants seek to reduce discretion through imposition of rules.

Rules are not fixed and immutable. They are open to interpretation, negotiation and modification. It depends on the social process or situation. That the rule is appropriate depends on the reaction of the person who violates the rule and the one who sees to it that it is being adhered to. Teacher-pupil relationship is negotiated, it^s an ongoing process as both participants interact and redefine the situation. Since human behaviour is dynamic, compliance is not guaranteed.

The way rules are applied and maintained give new meaning to values. Rules protect values and can be used as instruments for their pursuance. Values are vague and general while rules are specific and operate in identifiable situations. Applying rules makes an allowance for alternative courses of action since a particular teacher may not value what is embodied by certain rules.

Schools usually hold middleclass values, like the emphasis on individual enterprise and self-reliance, rationality and planning, delayed gratification, virtues of success, ambition and drive, inculcation of intellectual and social skills, control of physical aggression and respect for property. Rules of conduct, performance and appearance comprise the hidden curriculum (OP cit). The hidden curriculum may be a mechanism of social control as, for instance, the school's organisational life with its constraints and controls and prepares pupils for the industrial and bureaucratic workplace. Schools may be educating for docility and obedience, subservience to hierarchical authority and awareness of one's place in the social ladder.

In the same vein Duncan (1979) states that social scientists have found correlation between poor background and bad behaviour. Poor behaviour and learning disabilities usually correlate with bad housing and broken homes or single parenthood. This argument does not hold as many pupils from such backgrounds excel in academic and disciplinary records.

Teachers require rules so as to determine the authority they exercise over pupils. School rules give them the province of applying their right of domination and control, that is, they provide the context of application. The authority of the teacher gives him the right to limit freedom of action while

rules circumscribe contextual limits like, for instance forbidding liquor at school though a teacher cannot reprimand a pupil if he sees him drink after school hours.

3.4.1 Types of School Rules

Hargreaves et al (1975) classify rules as: legal/quasi-legal rules, organisational rules, context rules, personal rules and relational rules.

- Legal/Quasi-legal Rules - these are pertaining to regular attendance, skipping lessons, punctuality, bringing a letter from parents explaining absence from school, and corporal punishment. The category also includes rules regulating dress and general appearance like wearing a school uniform, not wearing jewellery, stating length and style of hair, as well as footwear. Once the pupil enters school gates, the teacher has a right to intrude into all these matters, though they seem to be personal. These are usual areas of conflict. For pupils dress and appearance are expressions of individuality and style but the school regards non-compliance as an outrageous act of defiance. The school views uniform as a symbolic expression of its authority as pupils are standardised and identified easily whereas to pupils uniform is an imposition they cannot question. It denies them their self-identity. Rules pertaining to uniform should foster neatness decorum and style so that pupils identify those values even after they have left school.

- Organisational Rules - Such are bureaucratic rules necessary for the smooth running and good order of the school. They control movement of all pupils and definite times. They state forbidden places and behaviour so as to ascertain that everyone is doing the right thing at the right time at the

right place. They relate to litter, graffiti, handling of school property marking of registers, collection of monies, filling in of reports, giving of homework, evacuating of classrooms at break-times, use of toilets and cloakrooms, behaviour during morning assembly and on the playground.

- Contextual Rules: these relate to contextual variations experienced by pupils as they move from room to room, from activity to activity, for an example from a science laboratory to the woodworkshop or domestic science room. They are situational rules revolving around five themes, namely, talk, movement, time, teacher-pupil relationships and pupil-pupil relationships. Each theme has relevant rules like not interfering with science equipment except when instructed by the teacher. Rules for subjects differ from subject to subject and from teacher to teacher. A pupil labelled deviant in a Biology class can be a good pupil in a language class. It depends on contexts and situations of application.

- Personal rules: personal rules relate to the nature of the interaction between the teacher and the pupil. Pupils put each teacher to test so as to try and work out the personal rules of each. Teacher testing is a social process of interaction where the pupil teases the teacher in order to facilitate the present and the subsequent encounters, like asking questions unrelated to the subject. At times pupils bait the teacher, which is a vicious and damaging activity as the pupil deliberately consorts to undermine a teacher's authority and status.

During all encounters with the teacher, especially the first one, pupils explore the social parameters of acceptable behaviour so as to know the teacher's tolerance limits. Personal and relational rules need to be negotiated anew

when a teacher faces a partially defined situation which demands that he gives it substance. Pupils test the teacher to know him as a person, how he relates to them and how he cares. Teacher testing is an accumulative and a comparative exercise that takes some time as the teacher reveals himself in different relationships. Pupils also want to know how strictly a teacher applies rules.

Tattum (Op cit) quotes Marsh et al as distinguishing between rules of interpretation and rules of prescription. Interpretation rules pertain to understanding situations. Rules of prescription determine the course of action to follow in the light of his definition of the situation. Both the rules of interpretation and those of prescription are interactive, they are not independent of each other, since prescriptions presuppose interpretations.

In the same work Wertham is cited as having listed the following criteria for determining legitimacy to rules a teacher applies during classroom interactions:-

- how he handles inattentiveness
- how he acts on personal matters like race, dress, hairstyles, and mental capacities.
- whether his authority style is dictatorial in ordering and directing pupils.
- the basis on which he awards marks, that is, whether they are fair or not, that they are not bribes, or allocated randomly.

If pupils interpret teacher's prescriptions as unfair they employ a variety of strategies to demonstrate non-acceptance of his authority. Previous studies reveal that students prefer a strict teacher. Such a teacher has clearly defined boundaries, is predictable and consistent.

- Relational Rules: These rules regulate the interpersonal interactions between teacher and pupils and between pupil and pupil. The teacher dictates the tone of the interaction and he controls informality by a word of warning or a quick cessation of the discussion. There is a point where teacher testing is at the relational level, where pupils search to see how a teacher will allow them to be in their modes of address, personal questions, and jokes. In such matters the teacher decides on the social distance between himself and individual pupils.

Teachers hold essential relational rules like obedience, politeness and respect. Rules covering action pertain to defiance, refusal to co-operate, rudeness and disrespect, dishonesty, physical violence or threat of it. Verbal rules cover answering back giving cheek, arguing or dissenting, abuse, swearing and mouthing off. Pupil to pupil relational rules extend to consideration of others and care, as in the case of bullying, physical or verbal abuse, theft, and cheating.

Maintaining dignity and control over pupils when provoked renders teachers vulnerable because the equilibrium is very thin and it occurs daily. Refraction of relational rules can easily be taken as a personal affront. Colleagues judge a teacher to be capable if he maintains good cover when he works under pressure when maintaining discipline as his actions are public and his decisions should be immediate but just. He works hard not to lose face.

3.4.2 Application and Enforcement of School Rules

Haigh (1979) writes of a W.C. Field's syndrome which is characterised by a tendency to be nervously aggressive towards children long before they err. A teacher may give a stern warning to a class long before pupils start any trouble simply because he anticipates they will. The syndrome deepens and broadens until the person in charge of the children sees them as potential revolutionaries. Every peccadillo is dealt with severely until it becomes clear who is in charge. A teacher may be annoyed by the unknotted tie leaning against the wall and failing to greet.

Rules can result in undesirable consequences that can be dysfunctional. Dysfunctional rule-related trends to include an over-rigid adherence to rules, secrecy over decision-making, and reluctance to face charges. Tattum (1982) recommends that schools as person changing institutions should examine their person-management methods and involve all members in decision-making matters of authority relations.

It is important that teachers and pupils be involved in the creation and review of rules so as to get a better understanding of control mechanisms and the consequences thereof. What should be considered is whether acts of discipline are a reaction against existing inappropriate rules and regulations. To many rules present teachers with problems of enforcement. Pupils involvement may take the form of a body of representatives or prefects from senior pupils.

Rules should be communicated to teachers, pupils and parents. This helps to reduce uncertainty and to publicise the rules. It also ensures a uniform application of rules by teachers as they are better understood and improved. After the rules have been communicated teachers must subject themselves to these rules.

They should model the type of adult they expect pupils to be. As professional models they should not come late to school and for lessons, they should not leave school early, lessons should be thoroughly prepared, written work should be marked and returned in time. In short they must avoid the "Do as I say and not as I do" saga.

In order to be effective rules have to be enforced. At times rule enforcement affects teacher-pupil relationship. A teacher as a rule enforcer may label a pupil as deviant because the pupil has shown disrespect to him as an enforcer, not that he has broken any rule. In that case the enforcer of the rule has personalised the problem.

When it comes to rule enforcement pupil's rights are often unprotected. It becomes difficult for the principal to take the side of the pupil against the teacher if the teacher is wrong. The whole staff would not support the actions of the principal, and he might be accused of undermining the authority of the teacher.

The teacher has the privilege of always being right. The pupil is brought to the principal guilty until such time that he proves his innocence. It is up to the pupil to explain why he is facing a trial.

The principal is the final arbiter of a case between the pupil and the teacher (Dworkin, 1977). He has, by virtue of being the highest authority in the school, a final discretion even when a clear rule is in point. The term 'discretion' is used in special contexts. It is used when a person has to make decisions subject to standards set by authority, like when a teacher makes a decision subject to the orders of the principal. Discretion is also used to mean that a certain official has final authority to make a decision which cannot be reversed by any other official. The soccer referee, for instance, depends on the linesman whether the would be scorer is off-side or not,

the corner judge decides which runner finished first. Whoever uses his own discretion must apply relevant certain standards of rationality, fairness, and effectiveness to avoid criticism.

Newell (1972) stresses that teachers punish pupils by virtue of their being in loco parentis to the child. The school is then an extension of the home and the punishment inflicted by the teacher should be viewed in the same way as if it is done by a reasonable parent. Parents delegate their powers of discipline to the school authority by the mere fact of sending their children to school. The parent temporarily surrenders his exclusive right to direct or control the child and entitles the teacher to be at liberty to enforce school rules to the child.

According to the South African Child Care Act of 1983, chapter nine paragraph fifty three, the parent or guardian of any pupil who has under the Act placed the custody of his child to an institution, shall be divested of his right to control over his child. This includes right to punish and exercise discipline.

Peters (1966) defines punishment as being a purposefeul infliction by a person in authority on a culprit who has breached some rule. Smith (1985) believes that punishment is an intentional infliction of unpleasantness by an authority on an offender for having voluntarily committed wrong. He further contends that teachers do not at first establish whether the child committed the offence voluntarily or not. A child may not have done homework because home conditions were unbecoming. Probing for voluntaries might be time consuming and teachers do not have resources for investigations like the enforcers of criminal law.

Punishment in schools differs from judicial punishments in the sense that the latter is incurred for an offence against laws or rules that are stated in statute books and elsewhere.

In schools pupils are punished for offences that are explicitly forbidden by rules. There is a choice of committing an offence in the case of judicial punishment. Increasing school rules so that all offences are stated explicitly leads to moral immaturity where pupils cannot see beyond rules to the reasons for them.

Smith (Op cit) justifies punishing without explicit rules having been broken, in two ways. Children are punished because they are less mature and less rational, thus they are punished differently from adults, that is, they are punished because they have deliberately broken the rules that aimed at them knowing the correct standards in future. In this sense punishment has an educative role.

Established routines take the place of rules and so contravening a routine is a punishable act. Routines serve as judicial punishment since infringing or not infringing them helps bring predictability and security to the pupil. The difference between rules and routines is that routines are not written down. Punishment, if properly understood, minimizes resentment on the part of the pupil. On the other hand enforcing a rules through punishment does not make a rule to be perceived as sensible or just.

Peters (1966) points out that the aims of punishment are questionable. The punished rarely reforms for the better. Punishment usually brings about estrangement. It is warranted if breaches of rules interfere with educational activities to proceed for an example in classroom discipline, or if the offender engages in legally prohibited activities abhorred by the society like stealing, lying, injuring a person, and damaging property. Infringing rules is also punishable if it disturbs the smooth running of the school, like running in the corridors and staying at toilets while lessons are on.

Rules are followed willingly if they are perceived to be appropriate. If one is told there is no alternative, rules are followed under manipulative compulsion. If there are threats of punishment or some undesirable consequence for non-compliance, it means rules are followed under punitive coercion (Smith, 1985).

Punishment preserves order. The teachers dilemma is that he may punish the child as a preventative measure knowing well that punishment won't reform the individual child. He has to be impartial and at the same time he must try to understand the individual offender. There should be room for reparation and re-establishing of the offender in the community.

Tattum (1982) lists the range of teacher reactions when a pupil misbehaves as:

- Ignore the act.
- Disapprove by look or gesture, but do communicate meaning to the offender.
- Withhold privileges.
- Give lines.
- Send pupil to stand away from class.
- Use physical punishment.
- Send the pupil to the head or senior member of staff.
- Send for parents.

- Refuse to teach pupil or demand severe measures to be taken, like for instance, corporal punishment, suspension, transfer to a special centre or involvement of other agencies.

Gorton (1976) states that corporal punishment is not effective in reducing behaviour problems because schools that use corporal punishment have more behaviour problems. He cites Hamilton as having suggested that corporal punishment be exercised in proportion to the gravity of the offence. It should not be too excessive. Age, sex and physical strength of the offender should be considered. Corporal punishment should be used to enforce a reasonable rule.

Corporal punishment, if conducted unlawfully can lead to offences like assault, battery if the child is harmed physically. If the physical harm is serious the charge is assault occasioning bodily harm or it may be assault leading to grievous bodily harm. If death results the charge is manslaughter or murder (Newell, 1972).

According to the South African Government Notice R1143 of May 1984 a child needs disciplinary measures if he conducts himself in a way that harms the continuation of the work of the school in such a way that the good name of the school is tarnished. The offender may be punished by imposition of work by the principal or any authorised person, privileges may be withheld, corporal punishment may be conducted and in serious cases the offender may be expelled from school.

It is further stated that corporal punishment should not be conducted to a girl. Even to the boy it should be conducted in cases of gross neglect, truancy, insubordination, wilful damage to property, flagrant lying, theft, dishonesty, assault, bullying or indecency. Only the principal usually in the office in isolation may conduct corporal punishment. If the principal

delegates this duty to another teacher, he should be present when that teacher punishes. Corporal punishment is only administered on the buttocks with a cane or not more than 75 cm long and 1,2 cm in diameter, or a leather, or a leather strap of not less than 2,5 cm in width, and age and physical condition of the pupil should be considered and recorded in the logbook together with "crime" committed.

The number of strokes should not exceed four in any one day. If the pupil has a serious physical disability he should not be subjected to this form of punishment. Any punishment inflicted is entered in a punishment register. This register reflects the name of the pupil, the nature of the offence, type of punishment imposed, number of strokes and instrument in the case of corporal punishment, name of the person who conducted such punishment and the name of the person who was supervising if applicable.

If a report is received by the higher management of the Department of Education and Training concerning the illegal administering of corporal punishment, a civil claim for damages may be brought against the teacher for injuries, medical expenses and pain and suffering. Should the Minister of Education and Training be sued as an employer of the teacher for such matters, the teacher will not get legal aid. He will face the civil claim in a personal capacity. A charge of misconduct may be laid against the teacher in terms of section 22 of the Education and Training Act, 1979 even if he is not guilty of a criminal offence. If he is guilty of misconduct his services may be terminated.

Newell 81972) quotes Cockburn as saying thus of corporal punishment.

If it be administered for the gratification of passion or of rage, or if it be immoderate and excessive in its nature or degree or if it be protracted beyond a child's power of endurance or with an instrument unfitted for its purpose and calculated to produce danger to life or limb, in all such cases, the punishment is excessive, the violence unlawful, and if evil consequences to life and limb ensue, the person inflicting it is answerable to the law (p45)

Physical punishment is addictive. The user becomes conditioned to use it often. In order to be effective it should be administered while the wrong is actually taking place because while it is delayed it will be the circumstances in which the punishment occurs that will be remembered influenced, not the misdemeanor as such. Usually children remember the person who punished or the details of punishment not the reason why they were punished. Ritchie (1981) points out that after conducting punishment parents tend to feel guilty, regret their action and regard it as a personal failure or as incompatible with loving parenthood. Other parents come to believe that beating a child is caring.

Docking (1982) quotes Wilson as stating that pain is an evil if it is inflicted for no good reason. Punishment confirms for the child the existence of a moral order. It is more related to discipline than to control. Discipline is a compulsion to which it is right to submit. It is where both the teacher and pupil submit to rules because they are valuable in themselves. As discipline involves a willingness to correct one's mistakes and seek truth for oneself, punishment involves willingness and concern to see faults suffer their correction. When a teacher exercises control he imposes his personal will on a pupil irrespective of whether the pupil acknowledges the point of adhering to the demanded behaviour. When control breaks down penalties are resorted to instead of punishment. Penalty

are paid for breaking rules as in the case of a fine for disobeying road signs.

When administering corporal punishment the first predictable side effect is anger. It is accompanied by pain and later on anxiety or apprehension. Hitting again produces anxiety and fear that the child may be hit again (Ritchie 1981). The most likely natural response to anger and pain is to hit back. Though the child may not do it openly he may still feel like hitting back or may seek hidden ways of retaliation. The more punished the child is, the more aggressive he becomes since he is getting both the motive and the model of doing it. He might withdraw from active participation in class or he might break off eye contact, sulk or become quiet.

Beating interferes with learning, reduces the chance of remembering or establishing behaviour patterns. Learning is best when pupils want to satisfy a spirit of enquiry, when they are rewarded by praise from the adult they respect, or by the satisfaction of acquiring a skill, a process, or understanding and idea. Frequent beating leads to desensitisation, to emotional flattening, and to failure to read. It teaches the child that the adult is hostile. Instead of adopting an attentive stance, the child becomes emotionally blunt.

On the question of punishment and morality, punishment falls on the offenders, not the innocent. That alone implies that punishment is meted to stress what is just and fitting. It ensures greater obedience to laws and rules deterring offenders as well as the would be offenders. It brings security to the innocent and they take more responsibility of their lives.

Smith (1985) argues that there is no point in punishing the offender if he is aware of the wrongness of his deed. Punishment educates morally if the offender is ready to see it as punishment for interfering with the moral order not as revenge.

or reprisal. Docking (1982) on the other hand asserts that punishment differs from retaliation or vengeance in the sense that such acts are not necessarily executed by an authority figure on the transgressor.

In the same work Kant is cited as affirming that it is justifiable to punish an offender on the grounds of moral desert, not in relation to the consequences of our punishing. When an offender is punished it is his behaviour that is penalized, not his values or thoughts. There is no guarantee therefore, that he will feel guilty after being punished. Punishment does not teach the underlying values.

Punishment confirms the moral order. It fosters in the child that his intuitions about right and wrong are correct and that there is security in the morally predictable world. The problem is that there is nothing like a fixed moral order. There are moral conflicts, uncertainties and grey areas. Children's ages vary and so their knowledge of what is right and wrong is not equal. It is up to the teacher to know their stages of moral development.

Smith (1985) distinguishes between retribution in distribution and retribution as a justifying aim. Retribution in distribution is based on the notion that punishment should be inflicted only on the offenders. Retribution as a justifying aim is a step further in that it holds that punishment has some intrinsic good beside being a deterrent or reformatory. The good is that the wrong doer does not flourish while his victims suffer. Retribution then compensates and gives satisfaction to the victims. It does not work in schools where a late comer is asked to dig a trench because he is compensating no one. In such cases the child is only inconvenienced so that he may not get away with it. The same applies to the teacher's anger over not being obeyed. His punishing the child is not justified.

3.5 SUMMARY

A teacher is an authority in his capacity as a source of knowledge he imparts to children. He is a holder of issues and statements characterised by qualities like truth, correctness, validity, profundity and exceptional grace. He may prove his authority in times of epistemological disputes by representing an authoritative performance. He is in authority by virtue of the office he occupies. Such authority is exercised by making, interpreting, applying and enforcing rules that have to be accepted and followed by pupils. Rules are negotiated. They are not imposed to the pupil, in order that a common understanding is arrived at.

Rules express values. Infringing them is immoral and the offender warrants punishment. At times rules can be trivial, self-contradictory or foolish in which case it can be wrong to punish pupils for breaking them. Forms of punishment vary from a mild rebuke, to withholding of privileges, physical punishment to expulsion. Physical punishment is the most commonly used form of punishment in Black schools. Besides being painful, the offender becomes stubborn as he gets used to it. The hypothesis of this work is that unrests in Black schools are caused by irregularities in the way teachers exercise their authority. Having delved into the authoritative capacity of the teacher the next chapter looks at the relationship between discipline and the pursuit of knowledge for the liberation of the mind.

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CHAPTER4:**DISCIPLINE AND FREEDOM**

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Norms of Discipline -
- 4.3 Relationship between Freedom and Discipline -
- 4.4. Self-Discipline and the Liberation of the Mind -
- 4.5 Education and Excellence -
- 4.6 Conclusion -
- 4.7 Bibliography -

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter defined the authority precincts of an educator. The educator is an authority in his capacity as a source of knowledge and by his ability to educate the child in such a way that the latter is invited to pursue more knowledge for living life a free from ignorance.

The educator is in authority when he controls the activities of the child. He prescribes rules for the child to follow. The matter of concern here is the degree and mode of control the educator exerts on the child. Does he see discipline as:

- character training?
- educative?
- a tool for conformity?
- an avenue for free thining?

This chapter will attempt to answer all the above questions.

CHAPTER 4:**DISCIPLINE AND FREEDOM****4.2 NORMS OF DISCIPLINE**

The concept 'discipline' refers to a branch of instruction or learning, a mode of life in accordance with rules, subjection to control or mortification by penance. Tanner (1978) cites Webster as stating four common meanings of discipline namely:

- ° training and development of self-control and orderly conduct.
- ° result of that training
- ° acceptance of authority and control
- ° treatment that corrects or punishes.

The term is associated with disciplining and being a disciplinarian with implications of a rigid and circumscribed regime that can be capricious and cruel. It is also related to disciple and disciplined thinking that refers to civilized behaviour necessary for a style of living which distinguishes man from the rest of the animal kingdom (Docking, 1982).

Little children regard the world of adult as something sacred and as worth unquestioned obedience. With age this belief becomes less and less. As they grow, so grows their capacity to judge a situation by particular circumstances, and they need reasons for whatever they do. Tanner (1978) suggests that discipline should be matched with developmental phases of children as distinguished by Piaget (1932). Piaget (op cit) identifies four changes of intelligence a child undergoes as he matures and experiences the world. They are quoted as:-

- ° Sensory-motor phase (from birth to two years). The child explores the surrounding world and learns to control perception in his dealing with objects and language.
- ° Preoperational phase (two to seven years) - The child is mainly egocentric. He perceives the world from his own point of view. He is unable to accommodate other people's ideas except the adult. The teacher is always right and good. He sees rules as emanating from the authority of the adult.
- ° Concrete Operations phase (seven to eleven years) - The child learns that teachers' rules vary and that there are inconsistencies even in the same teacher's rules. At this point he wants to know which means can accomplish which end. He observes how behaviour is related to its consequences. The adult should explain the relationship between means and ends and guard against encouraging blind obedience to authority as doing such impairs intellectual growth and language development.

The child is now able to accommodate other people's point of view. He can share ideas sympathise and co-operate with others to improve a situation. Morally speaking, he is in a phase of reciprocity, that is, he can understand the point of view of others and act upon this understanding. He is able to socialize. It is easy for the teacher to promote reciprocity by following the principle of restitution, that things out to be put right. Since the child can understand that rules are means of achieving mutually valued goals, he has to be taught that desirable behaviour is necessary to achieve classroom goals.

Formal Operations Phase (late childhood to adolescence)
Thinking of the child goes beyond his or her immediate social situation. He can reflect on human relationships in general and he is able to formulate his own principles in dealing with them. His thinking has proceeded from the concrete to the abstract. He can hypothesize. This phase is also characterised by autonomy, that is, self-direction. Arriving at this phase is not automatic but it depends on a proper environment both at home and at school. The child needs guidance in developing specialized skills and a code of values.

From these foundational ideas of developmental psychology Tanner (1978) bases three stages of discipline. The first stage is the Basic Disciplinary stage during which the child listens and follows directions. He asks questions when he fails to understand concepts and procedures. The teacher should elucidate these concepts and procedures, encourage asking of questions and help pupils relate behaviour necessary for the performance of tasks at hand.

The Constructive stage correlates with the concrete Operations stages. The child recognises the needs and rights of others. He can co-operate. The teacher has to explain the basis for organizational rules because the child can now understand that. The child can select and develop procedures for accomplishing an objective. It rests upon the teacher to give him an opportunity to participate in constructive activities.

The Generative stage correlates with that of Formal Operations. It is when the child has acquired autonomy. When he is faced with a problem he generates possible solutions and tests them. He is capable of making choices. He ought to be provided with opportunities of leadership and be encouraged to develop moral principles and values. In most cases he is self-directing which is the goal of discipline.

✓ The above stages are not distinctly demarcated. The rate of their occurrence may overlap and it all depends on the unique experiences of each child. They serve as a guide to the maturation trend of the child.

✓ The teacher is the key person in interpreting and implementing school rules and regulations concerning student behaviour. Deviant behaviour is less likely to occur if his preparations, teaching techniques, personality and other classroom aspects are up to date. He should seek to maintain only those disciplinary procedures that have an educational purpose, are administratively feasible, and are legally enforceable.

Docking (1982) views the concept discipline from three angles, namely as an element in socialization and character training, as control that facilitates teaching and as educative.

DISCIPLINE IN RELATION TO SOCIALIZATION AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Children must develop rule-following and law-abiding habits so that they abide by the general social expectations of the 'mainstream culture'. They have to obey the basic attitudes and beliefs of society. In this sense schools are regarded as a training-ground where social rules embodying behavioural values of the dominant culture are inducted to children. Their behaviour ought to be compatible with the expectations of the society. Rules relating to orderly behaviour are usually less explicit and not clearly defined where teaching is child-centred. They are flexible, directed towards the development of discipline that suits the child.

There is difference between a teacher who regards discipline as means for facilitating class activities to proceed and one who regards discipline as a habit to be developed or as a constituent of character. The latter type is more significant as discipline is a product of mutual understanding between him and his pupils. It is not confined to school life since children accept discipline as a condition of life after leaving school. The child is helped to develop an adjusted personality and an emotional security.

A disciplinary environment like the school has a pervasive quality of transmitting the hidden curriculum with values that are efficient for the functioning of bureaucratic organizations and maintenance of social order. Such values include obedience, rule-following, loyalty, industriousness, punctuality, regular attendance, quietness, group orderly work, adhering to the time table, tolerating monotony, flexibility and ignoring personal needs in the interest of the task given.

Training by unpunitive firm guidance usually promotes an adjusted personality and a positive self-concept. Training for society may lead to subordination in which case teachers use their disciplinary authority to satisfy some unfulfilled needs within themselves, and come to view children as means rather than as ends (op cit). In the same work Nash is cited as stating that there are many people willing to obey and submit to those who command and wield absolute authority. It is further stated that there is a temptation to seek security and silence our fears by looking for authority that will tell us what to do and how to control our more dangerous tendencies.

Imposing an inflexible moral code to children makes them docile. This discourages them from developing the ability to reason about appropriate behaviour. Instead of making children follow ready made choices in the society, it is better to educate them to make rational choices. If children are allowed to chose they accept responsibility rather than being docile. They should be involved in discussions about social behaviour so that they learn how to cope with the consequences of making inappropriate choices and decisions in life as a whole.

Discipline need not suppress the creative potential of children. The school should provide experiences that prompt children to respond both rationally and imaginatively to any situation. They should be taught to revere authority while at the same time maintaining an intelligent and flexible attitude towards routines. This will check against educating for rigidity.

DISCIPLINE AS CONTROL

Discipline may also mean a general restraint of pupil behaviour or how a teacher controls his classroom. Docking (op cit) quotes Ausubel et al as fusing the terms 'discipline' and 'control' thus.

By discipline is meant the imposition of external standards and control on individual conduct... When the external controls are internalized we can speak of self-discipline, it is clear nonetheless, that the original source of these controls, as well as much of their later reinforcement is extrinsic to the individual (p 25).

In the same time work discipline is viewed as related to democracy. Democratic discipline provides explanations, permits discussion. Children are invited to participate in the setting and enforcement of standards whenever they are qualified to do so. Such discipline ensures respect for the dignity of the individual, appeals to self-control and places the child to a level where he can communicate freely. It denounces harsh abusive and punishment as well as intimidation, threats, and ridicule. Threatening or harming the child for not believing something does not take him anywhere nearer to the truth of the belief. Such a method is irrational as it does not provide a moral reason for action. It only provides a momentary reason. Overemphasis of maintenance of order, punitive sanctions and the interpretation of pupil misbehaviour in moralistic terms tends to make teachers ego tistical and to prefer non-intellectual to intellectual activities.

Discipline as control is based on the assumption that the teaching content is of itself unable to generate sufficient interest to command undivided attention. Disciplinary problems are therefore anticipated to arise. Another factor that contributes to stricter control is that usually a teacher's competence is judged by his classroom being silent and there being no movement. He is usually rebuked if his pupils talk or move about in the classroom. That is why most teachers ban movement and talking.

Discipline as ends can be witnessable even in the way questions are set. Docking (op cit) cites Stenhouse's two examples where questions restrict freedom. One example is of a History teacher who sets questions requiring short answers. He does this because it becomes easier to dominate and control the class. Another example is that of the questions - strategy in the classroom. Teachers usually deliberately direct many questions at children who do not know the answers so that the teachers sense of control is reinforced. Educative learning occurs by encouraging a variety of responses from children.

DISCIPLINE AS EDUCATIVE

Children tend to think about behaviour when they are being controlled, that is, in the instrumental sense, in relation to rewards, sanctions, pleasing the teacher, and avoiding teacher's displeasure. Discipline becomes educative when children view their behaviour as right or wrong when they can disapprove of inappropriate behaviour.

Practices like standing up when a teacher enters the room stress an 'upward' respect rather than a mutual one. It promotes respect for authority and no heed is paid to pupils behaviour towards each other. Most school routines emphasize this upward respect. Educative discipline helps children get behind the rules of behaviour and to meditate on the place of authority in the teaching-learning situation. It is also leading children to see the needs to submit to thinking which characterise certain forms of thought as required by disciplines of humanities, science, maths, etc. It is based more on the child's cognitive understanding of rules than his outward behaviour.

Discipline is also educative if children develop interest in the learning activity. Interest measures the depth of the grip the child has on the subject. Understanding is possible if the learning impinges upon the children's interest and forms a link between what they already know.

A teacher is an authority if he perceives and understands what will appeal cognitively to pupils of different social backgrounds. He can only promote learning if he matches what children find interesting with what is in their interest. A disciplined teacher-child relationship occurs when both parties submit to the educative order of the task in question. In the same vein Nash (1966) stresses that education should help youth develop strong lines of interest, not to bring up youth that can be persuaded to do something that he has not real desire to do. Excessive external discipline produces people with immature interest, people who have a weak will and are easily led. Also, educators should guard against capturing the child's temporary interests, and producing people who are attracted by "dramatic tricks or colourful gimmicks" (p 132).

Tanner (1978) points out that discipline can be static or dynamic. It is static when it is interpreted as emphasizing self-control and orderly conduct since the energy of the child is being used to teach self-control and orderly behaviour. This type of discipline is incompatible with the aims of education as it does not help children to be self-directing. The energy of the child should be directed towards the learning goals so that children realise their potentials. A child is an agent of his own destiny. He needs guidance to learn that the pursuit of educational goal goes hand in hand with certain modes of behaviour.

4.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FREEDOM AND DISCIPLINE

Freedom refers to the state of being unbound, unhampered boldness or personal liberty (Chamber's Twentieth Century Dictionary). Man is free to do those things he would do if he chose to do them. He is free to act intentionally and remains responsible for the consequences of his actions. Willing, trying, intending and choosing are mental acts performed before actually doing a thing (Davidson, 1973) What man does intentionally is what he is free to do and has reason for doing.

All activity of human consciousness involves self-consciousness, the self being not what has been constituted by all significant experiences, past decisions and character traits acquired in the past (Paul Satre, 1979). This self is a function of consciousness. It sets up a gap or distance between the conscious being and its objective world. Consciousness can be equated to freedom as it has the power to affirm or deny whatever the conscious being wishes, it has freedom to imagine whatever is not the case, freedom to doubt and to plan. Satre (op cit) further states that "the essence of the human being is suspended in his freedom... there is no difference between the being of a man and his being free" (p 435).

Freedom is relative to a situation. It exists in a situation and a situation only exists through freedom. Man exists in a free continuous process of self-making. The teacher should therefore regard the child as openness, whose unfolding is a never ending process. He must be encouraged to explore further and further. The educator should not pressurise or persuade the child in any way that makes the child think he has to behave in a certain sort of way. The child should be led to appreciate what Sastre (op cit) refers to as the transcendence in his consciousness freedom beyond the causal order of the world. He should not be led to deterministic patterns.

Peters (1966) writes of two main components of the concept 'freedom'. Firstly it connotes possible wants or decisions, and the second component is the absence of constraints upon them. Education is a situation in which constraints are placed on children's wants. School attendance for instance, is compulsory since parental pressure makes it contradictory with freedom of choice.

Learning takes place in a controlled situation. There are rules that govern the establishment of the school. Though children are encouraged to follow their own interests, order is maintained so that even in large numbers pupils can work at the same pace in a small place. Conditions of order depend on the ages of children, their numbers, what they learn and the amount of space available. Without this order there would be chaos, some would exercise their freedom at the expense of others.

Only that which is educational and promotes learning is allowed. There should be no weapons, pornography, horror comics, and drugs. These are constraints placed on children's wants. The educator's duty is to transform children's wants in quality and stability. Transformation is effected by constraining children's wants, that is worthwhile contents of education are geared to existing wants by using existing wants to develop new ones. The idea behind is the promotion of what is good.

Absence of authority's rules does not mean that children do as they please. They are subject to bullies and peer pressure. When left to themselves, children rule others sternly. Children are not free to do as they please simply because they are enforced. Freedom of choice is not between laissez-faire and being constrained, it is between subjecting oneself to different types of constraints (op cit). Restrictions imposed on children should promote what is good. Schools should aim at promoting moral autonomy and independence in children so that they make their own choices and stand on their own feet. Autonomy is the ability and determination to regulate one's life according to rules one has accepted, the reasons of such rules being conspicuous and convincing.

Choice is impossible unless one has been subjected to the alternatives. If there are no alternatives one opts on the basis of what is immediately attractive. Choosing in the real sense means children must be exposed to a predictable environment so that they can make realistic assessments of the consequences of their choices. Predictability is impossible without a rule of law. The capacity of choice is therefore dependent upon subjection to a rule of law.

Advocates of autonomy like the existentialists maintain that it is virtuous to choose between conflicting rules. Perception of such conflicts depends on the acceptance of rules as binding. The individual must internalize rules, live them and experience conflicts, then the strength of character and independence will develop.

The teacher can interpret the subject matter in the way he likes. He has a freedom of thought as he can express his views about controversial matters. His expressions of opinion, however, is limited by his role as an educator and the fact that he is dealing with immature minds. With university teachers it is easy because students can sift, assess and criticize their own views. University students are exposed to many ideas. Pupils have a limited exposure to ideas.

Smith (1985) sees freedom as decisively connected to the giving of reasons. Reasons need not be distinctly stated and they should not be authoritative in such a way that they end a discussion. Deliberating about reasons involves stepping back from the situation and from the self. One reflects and scrutinizes engagements and motives, and examines reasons for actions. Stepping back also helps one not to be influenced by natural whims like wants.

Being free correlates with developing self identity. When faced with a problem of choice we deliberate until there is no choice, until we come to an obvious decision. During deliberation one considers one's personality, one's goals in life, and the ends one have. Freedom does not lie in making arbitrary choices, but in the capacity to reflect on those ends and goal on which one's identity rests. Perception of choices comes from the type of person one is. According to Smith (1985) acting rationally is the "achievement of freedom - the freedom of the mind to realize its true nature" (p 117).

Discipline leads to freedom if it is gained by learning the means of effective investigation and inference (Nash, 1966).

Appreciation of education comes after undergoing the process of education. It is wise to subject a child to discipline, to let him experience it, so that he chooses freely thereafter. Granting unrestricted choice to an immature child cuts him off from some chances of future freedom.

An adult is an intermediary through whom the child can get 'ideal norms' like the inescapable realities, the inexorable truths and laws, respect for which is the beginning of freedom. Exposure to freedom helps the child develop a sense of responsibility necessary for self-discipline.

4.4 SELF-DISCIPLINE AND THE LIBERATION OF THE MIND

External discipline is only educative if it leads to self-discipline. External discipline refers to control devices imposed on the child. Usually the child is energetic, ebullient and intolerable. His energy needs to be channelled to worthwhile activities. When the child has internalized the correct standards of behaviour he is self-disciplined. Discipline is successful if it changes future behaviour in the absence of the teacher. In other words the child should develop a permanent pattern of self-control.

Mischel and Mischel (1977) write of varieties of self-control like, among others, delay of gratification and self-evaluation. When delay is imposed by external conditions it is referred to as frustration. When it is self-imposed it is called 'voluntary delay'. Voluntary self-refusal of immediate gratification as well as endurance of self-imposed delays of rewards has will power as its basis. It is essential to wait for desired outcomes and to anticipate expected consequences so as to achieve long-term goals. Children need to be taught to defer their impulses and express them under special conditions of time and space. One chooses among actual alternatives that vary in delay time and value in realistic situation like choice between smaller immediate rewards and larger delayed rewards. It depends on the expected outcome, personal experience and observation of behaviour of social models like peers, parents and teachers.

People judge and evaluate their own behaviour. They congratulate themselves for their own characteristics and action, they praise or abuse their achievements, they administer social and material rewards to themselves. Self-praise and censure, self-imposed treats and punishments bear testimony to the fact that it is a human tendency to assess and monitor oneself. Feeling odd or bad, happy or sad, influences one's interpersonal reactions like charitability and generosity. Positive feelings, for instance, encourage greater generosity and altruism and more concentration on one's personal assets than on one's weaknesses.

Self-discipline, if it is not sought as an end in itself, releases one from egocentric bonds (Nash, 1966). An egocentric pupil is insensitive to others as he is preoccupied with himself. Self-discipline as means makes us more useful and harmless to our fellowmen. Mastering the self frees the individual from driving compulsions that lead us to abuse others to feed our obsessive needs like rape. The child can be made aware of the need for self-control, for overcoming petty desires, resisting temptation to submit to easy whim and to establish personal relations with others.

Self-discipline makes us stripped for action. It prepares us for opportunity and performance. Nash (op cit) stresses that it is within man to strive to bridge the gap between his aspirations and his capacities to achieve them. Ceasing to strive leads to stagnation whilst overworking to close the gap leads to a mental breakdown. Education strikes the balance, it shows the path to self-mastery that brings performance nearer to perfection. A self-disciplined individual will be aware of the range between common achievement and the quality of genius. His pursuit of knowledge will develop his mind, and in so doing will promote the good life. Hirst (1972) contends that deep knowledge promotes the

development of creative imagination, judgement, thinking and communicative skills. Acquiring knowledge is learning to experience the world in a different way. It is 'coming to have a mind in a fuller sense' (p 12). In other words it is coming to have experience in a conceptual schema.

Education frees the mind from inaccuracy and false sense impressions. It provides clearer and finer distinctions of experience. Ducasse (1965) defines the mind as a well integrated set of capacities. Its existence is based on those capacities being exercised. If the capacities are not exercised the nature of the mind is conceivable but it does not exist. That means mind exists in terms of it having a history. There should be a series of events of what the capacities have been exercised to do.

Bakan (1980) sees the human mind as a non-material container that accepts, stores and processes information. The mind organises the brain and directs all man's activities. It focusses by projecting through the body senses like, for instance, touching, seeing and listening. It projects so that the object is specified. The mind is the centre of perception. Bakan (op cit) sees it as the essence of human selfhood. Arendt (1971) avers when she stresses that the life of the mind is characterised by man being by himself, that is, without company of others, and having an intercourse with himself. Thinking is the soundless dialogue between the I with itself.

Thinking, willing and judging are three basic mental activities. We think so as to arrive at some reasons. The inner impulse of thinking actualizes itself in speculation. Thinking always transcends the sheer givenness of what may have triggered its attention and transforms it into an experiment of the self with itself (op cit). When we think about something we single it from an inexhaustible glut of possible other thoughts.

In chapter one of this work it was stated that one of the grievances often quoted by Black pupils is that their teachers wield authoritarianism. An educator who is an authoritarian stifles the intellectual development of his children. They learn to accept things as they are. Since they do not question, they rarely think critically about what is taught. Critical thinking involves scepticism, or suspension of assent towards a given statement or an established norm of doing things. Scepticism considers alternative hypotheses and possibilities, and in that manner may detect fallacy or prompt a decision not to apply a well established rule (McPeck 1981). Difficult problems are solved that way. Common procedures need reviewing as they may be found fruitless when compared to other alternatives.

Arendt (1971) sees thinking as a de-materialised quintessence of being alive. Since life is a process its quintessence can only lie in the actual thinking process, not in any solid result or specific thought. One can live without thinking but such a life fails to develop its own essence. In the same work such a life is likened to sleepwalking, meaning it is life that is not fully alive.

An educator who moulds children in order that they conform to the status quo stunts their judgement potential. Judging, the ability to pronounce the wrongness of a thing, differs from thinking in that the latter deals with invisibles, with representations of things that are not present. Judging deals with particulars and things that are close at hand. Thinking, the silent dialogue between the mind and the self, is realised in judging.

Willing, the third basic function of the mind, is concerned with project, the future availability of an object. Desire is concerned with getting hold of the desired object. Will transforms desire into an intention. It is doubtful whether a child brought up to conform and to suppress his wants, will strive to surpass the present level of achievement. Reflecting upon and deciding about one's wants as well as knowing specific wants, goes together with the capacity to communicate one's desire, to ask questions and criticise if we are misguided. Desires may be formed as a process of criticism so that one has a reason for wanting to act in a certain way.

4.5 EDUCATION AND EXCELLENCE

Educators have to show children that their voluntary submission to appropriate discipline will help them achieve self-mastery, self-fulfilment and joy. Mastering the self starts with aspiration. It is human nature to wish to achieve something in the sphere of human relations, art, knowledge, skill or conduct (Nash, 1966). Man aspires to achieve standards superior to his own. He has an urge to rise above his surroundings, to overcome his difficulties.

Man is free when, through study, he comes to know his best self and act according to its demands. Education for freedom encourages the individual to act according to the inner law of his own being when he is at his best. He is taught to act from his centre out, to be led by conscience rather than the environment. That needs a self-disciplined person with a strong sense of morality.

Education is aimed at uplifting the individual to the level where he can distinguish excellent from second-rate, the lasting from transient and the authentic from the phony. The pursuit of excellence is costly as it involves sacrifice of ease and comfort as well as exposure to difficulty and challenge (op cit).

Reus-Smith (1979) defines excellence as:

a life of sensitive confrontation with the crucial issues of a time. It involves great passion, a zeal for change and an enormous compassion for men and women caught up in forces which they do not, perhaps cannot understand. It involves an intellectual rigour which does not modify the passion nor is modified by it, but which stands with it in symbolic partnership. It leads to a great commitment to one's work, but not an over-commitment of the sort that will not recognise when the time has come to relinquish a project and hand it new minds (p 290).

In short, excellence means great merit, a quality of a high degree. The child should be educated in such a way that he strives for the highest standards attainable. He should stay out of the shell of present performance. Perfecting one's performance measures one's relevant talent and energy in executing the task at hand. Reappraisal of the self helps one achieve personal excellence. A child taught to obey authority unquestioningly and to take things as they are given is not likely to be so disciplined that he expends his energy to perfect the present good.

Education prepares the individual to participate in an uncoerced grouping of autonomous persons who come together when they are ripe for experience. Authority comes from within them, It is self-assumed. Such an individual must be able to live freely with others without being self-centred, to be other-centred out of one's own directing, and to be free from the domination of other peoples's wills, yet to give oneself fully when it comes to insight, sympathy and talents. Associating with other people helps because it widens the

scope of reasons, since they can assess your feelings and identify your purposes. Man discovers his identity, his central goals and purposes through interaction with others. Interaction is incompatible with authoritarianism because the latter does not accommodate dialogue.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter gave a clearer meaning of discipline especially that discipline is educative if, inter alia, it directs the pupil's interest to the learning activity. Children should be disciplined to submit to due authority. This means they should submit to the discipline imposed by the learning content. It is the very content that binds both the teacher and the pupil, the teacher leading the pupil to strive for the unknown and to respect it. Discipline, seen in this light, frees the child from immediate temporary gratifications, and from temporary ignorance. He acquired a wider source of reference and his learning endeavours steer a clear course.

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CHAPTER 5:**EMPIRICAL WORK****Table of Contents**

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Sampling Method
- 5.2 The Research Instrument
- 5.3 Administration of the Scale
- 5.4 Research Hypotheses
- 5.5 Summary
- 5.6 Bibliography

5.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters reviewed studies related to how educators exert their authority in secondary schools. This review of literature was carried out using books, reports, government gazettes, research articles as well as from unpublished materials like dissertations, papers and theses.

This chapters details procedures for the executions of the empirical part of this work. In this research a survey method will be used to collect data. These data will enable the researcher to explore the relationship between authority and school unrests. A pilot study will be conducted to test for the validity of the questionnaire. It will help in the actual wording of the questions so that the researcher may identify ambiguities and reword the questions. Other areas that will be tested will be the ordinal position of multiple responses, that is, whether people tend to pick the first or second or last items, the timing of each section of the questionnaire, and analysis. The pilot study will involve respondents similar to those of the main inquiry (Oppenheim, 1966)

5.1 SAMPLING METHOD

The most appropriate type sampling design for this research is a cluster sample. Two cluster samples will be selected. Within each cluster, teachers will be selected. The aim of the study is to find out about the nature of the relationship between authority and unrests, so the above subjects fit perfectly as teachers are in authority over pupils. The nature of responses obtained from such samples will approximate those of the whole population because a cluster sample has all the known elements of the population. Each cluster is therefore heterogeneous but clusters are homogeneous in terms of geographical distribution.

There are twelve secondary schools within the Durban Area office of the Department of Education and Training. There are nine senior secondary schools and three junior secondary schools. There are five inspection circuits under the jurisdiction of the Durban area Office, namely, Durban North, Durban Central, Umzinto, South Coast and Empangeni. The researcher intends visiting two secondary schools in the Durban North inspection circuit and another two in the Empangeni inspection circuit. These two inspection circuits constitute cluster sampling designs.

Each cluster is heterogeneous in the sense that each inspection circuit has many characteristics in common with other circuits. By sampling one or two of these circuits the researcher will have captured the characteristics of all Department of Education and Training (D.E.T.) schools in the Natal Region. All teachers will be taken in the schools to be visited.

5.2 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

A self-administered questionnaire will be used. It will be constructed in such a way that items probe into how teachers exert their authority over pupils. A self-administered questionnaire is preferred to the mailed questionnaire because of the following advantages:

- ° It is flexible as the researcher may probe for more specific answers and repeat questions in cases of misunderstanding.
- ° The response rate is higher than that of the mailed questionnaire. Respondents may discuss their opinions, some prefer talking to writing.

- ° The researcher can observe nonverbal behaviour and assess it.
- ° The researcher can record spontaneous answers. Such answers are more informative and less normative.
- ° The respondent cannot cheat by getting answers from others or letting other people complete the questionnaire.
- ° The questionnaire is likely to be completed and the researcher can ensure that respondents answer questions logically.
- ° The questionnaire will be structured in such a way that it includes both close-ended and open-ended questions, will yield standard, comparable answers. Answers are easier to code and analyse, therefore they save time and money. Even sensitive questions dealing with numbers are answered, like income which is *intervally* measurable. The respondent does not have to possess superior writing skills or a better verbal expression of feelings, he merely chooses a category.

Open-ended questions will be used to draw out free responses and data that goes beyond factual material like hidden motivations lying behind attitudes, interests, preferences and decisions. Another advantage of open-ended questions is free expression and creativity on the part of the respondent.

The questionnaire will begin with easy to answer questions so as to put the respondents at ease. It will consist of four parts or sections. Section will test the level of knowledge a teacher has of the subject content he teaches (epistemic authority). Section B will test teacher's competency in the impartation of this subject content (epistemic authority). Section C will detect the competence of the teacher in channelling pupil's energy towards learning (moral authority). The last section will consist of items examining attitudes teachers have on disciplinary pupils.

5.3 ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCALE

The researcher will administer the questionnaire personally. First, the purpose of the inquiry will be explained to the group of respondents and then they will be left to complete the questionnaire. A self-administered questionnaire ensures a high response rate, an accurate sample and a minimum of interviewer bias. The interviewer stands a chance of explaining difficult questions though he may not interpret them (Oppenheim, 1966).

5.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The aim of this work is to establish whether educators in Black secondary schools are really authoritarian, educating for docility and subservience. The major hypothesis is that school unrests in secondary schools are related to the way educators render their authoritative guidance to pupils. The literature review has revealed the following:

- ° There is a correlative between the epistemic authority of educators and the way they encourage questions and discussion in their pupils. A limited knowledge of the learning content may tempt the educator to resort to authoritarianism.
- ° There is a close link between the imposition of school rules on pupils and the promotion of unquestioned obedience to authority or the rejection of authority.
- ° Teachers at times do not establish whether the child committed the offence voluntarily or not before punishment. The rationale for punishment is perceived as time consuming and is therefore not established.
- ° Punishment meted out on offenders is limited to corporal punishment. Regular use of corporal punishment correlates with pupil dissatisfaction.
- ° There is a close relationship between the attainment level of pupils and authority enforcement by teachers.

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CHAPTER 6:

ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF DATA

- 6.0 Introduction
- 6.1 Presentation and analysis of Data
- 6.2 Discussion
- 6.3 Conclusion
- 6.4 Bibliography

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the analysis of data that was collected. Pilot work was carried out with a sample of twelve secondary school teachers. Some items of the questionnaire were dropped, others were added. Letters were then written to principals of schools to be visited so as to get permission to consult teachers.

SECTION A

1. List of subjects taught, the standard in which subjects are taught, and the highest qualification the teacher holds in the subject.

SUBJECT	STANDARD	NO. OF TEACHERS	STD 10	COLLEGE SPECIALIZATION	UNIVERSITY COURSES
Afrikaans	8	10	8		Praktiese Afrikaans (1) Afrikaans I (1)
	9	8	6		Praktiese Afrikaans (1) Afrikaans I (1)
	10	4	2		Praktiese Afrikaans (1) Afrikaans II (1)
Mathematics	8	7	5	1	Statistics I (1)
	9	5	5		
	10	4	2		Statistics I (I) Maths III (I)
Physics	8	5	4		Chemistry II (I) Physics III (I)
	9	3	2		Chemistry II (I)
	10	3	2		Chemistry II (I)
Accountancy	8	5	3	2	
	9	3		3	
	10	3		2	Accountancy

The researcher picked only those subjects whose teaching pupils usually complain about.

Though respondents teach standards 6 to 10, only those teaching standards 8,9 and 10 are reflected above. The reason for omitting standards 6 and 7 is that these classes seldom complain about the teachers knowledgeability of the subject matter. According to the table no teacher has a university major in Accounting, Afrikaans, Maths, Chemistry and Economics. The table reflects that the epistemic authority of secondary schools teachers is not well grounded. A university major in a subject guarantees that the teacher has enough knowledge to teach senior classes.

3. Teachers who have subject advisors in their subjects:

Yes: 81 - 67,5%

No : 53 - 44,2%

Teachers sometimes teach more than one subject therefore the number of responses totals more than 120.

When this research was conducted there were no subject advisors for Zulu, History, Accounting, Economics & Business Economics in the Natal Region.

4. Frequency of help from the subject advisor:

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	OCCASSIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER	TOTAL
	15	21	22	62	120
	12,5%	17,5%	18,3%	51,7%	100%

Teachers who teach more than one subject had to refer to the help they get in the subjects they teach most. Help from subject advisors appears to be limited. Subject advisors offer guidance in lesson planning, teaching resources, work programmes and teaching methods. They visit schools about twice a year on the average.

5. Attendance of In-Service Training

4 times a year	7	5,8%)
times a year	9	7,5%)
2 times a year	13	10,8%)45,8%
Once a year	26	21,7%)
Occasionally	24	20%	
Never	41	34,2%	
Total	120	100%	

45,8% of teachers reported having attended in-service training at least once a year. 34,2% had never attended in-service training. In-service courses help in clarifying specific methods for teaching specific parts of the syllabus, techniques of testing and giving assignments are discussed. A teacher is an authority in a subject if, besides knowing it extensively, he teaches it successfully.

6. Teachers bothered by pupils questions after a lesson:

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER	TOTAL
0	0	18	35	67	120
0	0	15%	29,2%	55,8%	100

Only 15% of teachers indicated that pupils occasionally ask questions after a lesson. 29,25% indicated that they are rarely asked while 55% get no questions at all. Rarity or absence of questions by pupils may imply a good grasp of the lesson, a low level of interest in what was taught, ignorance, or fear of asking a wrong question.

7. Teachers who encourage pupils to ask questions in class:

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER	TOTAL
6	35	73	6	0	120
5%	29,2	60,8	5%	0	100

A majority of teachers don't often encourage pupils to ask questions in class. When considering the table preceding this one it is apparent that pupils are not encouraged to ask questions. Questions by pupils reveal their comprehension of the subject matter so that the teacher may fill in information gaps. Questioning leads to critical thinking.

8. Short answer items as the best form of testing:

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
62 51,6%	26 21,7%	18 15%	11 9,2%	3 2,5%	120 100%

A majority of the teachers agreed that short answer items are the best form of questioning. Reason are that such questions are easy to score, they are fast and objective. Docking (1982) quotes Stenhouse as saying short answers make it easier for the teacher to dominate and control his class.

SECTION B

9. Frequency of less preparation:

	VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER	TOTAL
A week before teaching	13 10,8%	0 0	6 5%	83 69,2%	18 15%	120 100%
A day before teaching	17 14,2%	91 75,8%	12 10%	0 0	0 0	120 100%
Same day in the morning	0	26 21,7	62 51,7	19 15,8	13 10,8	120 100%
After presentation	0	0	10 8,3%	69 57,5%	41 34,2%	120 100%
During free time	0	8 6,7%	61 50,8%	26 21,7%	25 20,8	120 100%

81,7% teachers reported that they prepare daily lessons a day before teaching. They seldom prepare after presentation. The pedagogic implication is that they teach while the subject matter is still fresh in their minds.

10. Lesson preparation as an unnecessary formality:

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
31 25,8%	35 29,2%	36 30%	18 15%	0 0	120 100%

55% teachers felt lesson preparation is an unnecessary formality. Only 15% felt the contrary. Some teachers prepare twice. They first prepare on a required file that is submitted to the head of department or principal for control. The second preparation is usually done on a piece of paper just before teaching and it is not controlled.

11. Way of assessing whether pupils have grasped lesson content.

Questioning them
Giving a short test
Giving written exercise
Giving homework
Other (Assignment)

93	77,5%
11	9,2%
13	10,8%
59	49,2%
6	5%

The total sum of responses is more than N=120 because a teacher uses different ways of measuring pupils grasp of the subject matter. Questioning seems to be the most popular (77,5%), followed by giving homework (49,2%). When considering responses in items 6 and 7 it becomes conclusive that questioning is a one way-process. It appears that it is the teacher who asks, pupils hardly take the initiative. 49,2% teachers give pupils homework to do, a poor measure of pupils understanding of the lesson since very few pupils in a class actually do homework on their own. Some merely copy it from those who have done it, others don't do it at all.

12. Pupils the teacher point most to test whether the lesson has been understood or not:

Dull ones	73	60,8%
Bright ones	18	15%
Inquisitive ones	27	22,5%
Other (Randomly)	2	1,7%
	120	100%

Most teachers (60,8%) indicated that they direct concluding questions to dull pupils. Docking (1982) states that directing concluding questions mostly to dull pupils reinforce the teacher's sense of control perhaps because he remains the source of facts. Questioning pupils should provoke a variety of responses.

13. Frequency of experiencing deliberate absenteeism:

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER	TOTAL
26 21,7%	33 27,5%	49 40,8	12 10%	0 0	120 100%

49,2% respondents reported that pupils often deliberately stay away from classes. 40,8% stated that they sometimes experience deliberate absenteeism. Pupils usually stay away from classes when they are not interested or when they fear pending punishment. If they do out of lack of interest the epistemic authority of the teacher is questionable. He does not adequately develop pupils' interest in the learning activity. If absenteeism is due to fear of punishment the frequency suggests that teachers do not exercise their moral authority educatively.

14. Pupils teachers find easier to communicate with:

Dull ones
Bright ones
Average ones
Friendly ones

7	5,8%
16	13,8%
28	23,3%
69	57,5%
120	99,9%

The table shows that dull pupils are the least approachable (5,8%). 57, 5% teachers indicated the they communicate easier with friendly pupils.

15. Pupils easier to motivate

Dull ones
Bright ones
Average ones
Friendly ones

11	9,2%
72	60%
13	10,8%
24	20%
120	100%

It is apparent in this table that most of the dull pupils are doomed to remain so. A majority of teacher seems unable to accommodate low achievers. It has also been found that teachers tend to wait longer for answer from bright pupils than from dull ones.

16. Monthly Tests as Time consuming:

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
37 30,8%	41 34,2%	24 20%	6 5%	12 10%	120 100%

65% teachers agreed that monthly tests are Time - consuming. 20% were uncertain while 15% disagreed. Work programmes are set in such a way that at the end of the month a teacher should have taught a sufficient amount of work that can be tested. The Department of Education and Training requires that within a year pupils should write eight monthly tests per subject.

17. The best time to write tests:

End of the month
End of the quarter
When the teacher has taught sufficient amount
of work

Total

9	7,5%
39	32,5%
72	60 %
120	100%

A majority of teachers felt regular testing unnecessary

SECTION C

18 Importance of school uniform:

VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	UNIMPORTANT	UNDESIRABLE	TOTAL
81 67,5%	26 21,7%	13 10,8%	0 0	120 100%

Though 89,2% teachers felt it is important for pupils to wear school uniform, the presence of the 10,8% of those who felt it is not important implies a lack of consensus among teachers about the value of the school uniform.

19. Preferred girls hair style:

Permed	8	6,7%
Braided	3	2,5%
Plaited	16	13,3%
Styled (Relaxed)	0	0
Short (Natural)	40	33,3%
Long (Natural)	36	30%
It doesn't matter	17	14,2%
Total	120	100%

63,3% of the teachers indicated that they would like to see girls' hair natural. Others prefer permed (6,7%), Braided (2,5%), Plaited (13,3%) hairstyles some don't mind whatever the hairstyle girls wear. This reflects a wide range of values which tends to influence rule interpretation, application and reinforcement. Pupils often cite irregular punishment as a grievance (Bot, 1984)

20. List of Forms of punishment according frequency of application:

Verbal Reprimand
 Exercise corporal punishment
 Withhold privileges e.g not going out during recess
 Send pupil out of class
 Let pupil stand on one leg for few minutes
 Give pupil odd job e.g. digging a trench, cutting grass

103	85,8%
86	71,7%
64	53,3%
58	48,%
29	24,2%
19	15,8%

Verbal reprimand comes first in the list because it is the first thing a teacher does when a child has done wrong. It usually serves as a warning or as actual punishment. Corporal punishment is the second most frequently applied. It is also a common grievance among pupils (Bot, 19)

21. Corporal punishment as the quickest form of punishment

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
92 76,7%	17 14,1%	8 6,7%	3 2,5%	0 0	120 100%

90,8% of respondents agreed the fastest form of punishment is corporal punishment. That may be one of the reasons why it is frequently applied.

22. Teacher's reaction if homework is not done:

Worry a lot
Worry little
Hardly ever worry

41	34,2%
45	37,5%
34	28,3%
120	100%

There seems to be a lack of concern when it comes to the practical application of the teaching content. In question '11' 48,2% teachers indicated that they test whether pupils have understood the subject matter by giving them homework. The degree of worry is not sufficient to sustain interest in learning.

23. Pupils as immature to be consulted when schools rules are formulated.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
39 32,5%	62 51,7%	10 8,3%	6 5%	3 2,5%	120 100%

84,2% of teachers did not agree that pupils be involved when school rules are formulated. Pupil involvement during rule formulation decreases the possibility of rule infringement as pupils get to know the values and reasons behind rules. Pupil involvement also ensures the same level of role interaction between teacher and pupil and minimizes pleas.. ignorance.

SECTION D

24. Opinion about culprits being allowed to explain why they did wrong

Yes
No

22	18,3%
98	81,7%
120	100%

Reason: Yes - Culprit might have erred because of circumstances

No - 1. Culprit will lie
2. There is no need

Probing for reasons for committing a wrong helps the teacher to detect if the culprit erred voluntarily or not. If the wrong was committed purposefully the exercise of punishment is absurd, if wrong was unvoluntarily committed punishment might not be educative.

25. Opinion whether a teacher should state reason for punishment before he exercises it.

Yes	74	61,7%
No	46	38,3%
Total	120	100%

Reason: Yes - In order to that the child understand mistake

No - Children break rules knowing what they are doing

Explaining to the child the wrongness of his deed makes him realise its interference with the moral order. It helps the child see the value of punishment and minimizes resentment on the part of the child.

26. Importance of treating pupils with respect:

VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	UNIMPORTANT	UNDESIRABLE	TOTAL
9 7,5%	38 31,7%	63 52,5%	10 8,3%	120 100%

Teachers attitude on treating children with respect seemed to be negative. Children have to be treated with respect so that they in turn learn to respect elders. Respecting the child as a person is valuing his aspirations, viewpoints and successes (Peters, 1966). Both teacher and child bear equal dignity though their level of education is not equal (du Plooy and Killian, 1984)

27. Frequency of Request:

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER	TOTAL
	31 25,8%	40 33,3%	38 31,7%	11 9,2%	120 100%

28. Frequency of Commands:

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER	TOTAL
	42 35%	22 18,3%	29 24,2%	27 22,5%	120 100%

Tables 27 and 28 show that the use of commands exceeds that of requests. Commands are orders for which no reasons are given. Requests are polite forms of commands which are both prudential and morally educative. Frequent use of commands may degenerate a teacher's moral authority to authoritarianism.

6.2

DISCUSSION

The major hypotheses was that school unrests are related to the manner teachers (educators) apply their moral and epistemic authority on pupils. Epistemic authority is the extent of knowledge a teacher possesses as well as his ability to impart it to the pupil. Items in section 'A' tested the indepth knowledge a teacher has of his subjects. It was found that the academic qualifications of most teachers are poor. Their knowledge of the subject matter is limited.

Suitable academic qualifications do not guarantee clarity in the subject. It was probed whether teachers do supplement their present knowledge. Most teachers were found to be satisfied with the knowledge they possess.

The help of subject advisors appeared be insignificant. Subject advisors help teachers in planning lessons and work programmes. They give resources and teaching techniques. For some subjects like Accounting, Business Economics, Economics, Typing, History and Zulu, there were no subject advisors in the Natal Region when this work was undertaken.

Items 6 and 7 tested the extent of people questions. It was discovered that pupil questions are suppressed since a majority of teachers interviewed admitted not often encouraging pupils to ask questions in class. It can be concluded that pupils are not motivated enough to develop an interest in the subject. The hidden curriculum they learn is to accept things as they are given. Critical thinking, a sceptical stance above superficial presentation of knowledge remains untapped. This state of affairs might nurture pupils who are good followers as adults. At times questions are suppressed to avoid being unable to provide satisfactory answers.

Most teachers prefer short answer items, which may be an indication of an inability to cope with a variety of responses. Short answer items do not promote higher mental qualities e.g. originality. Short answer items do not promote higher mental qualities e.g. originality. Short answers stress rote learning. Pupils don't learn with insight (Duming and Sönghe, 1986). They don't make facts their own and apply them in other contexts.

Being an authority in a field of knowledge does not end with possessing that knowledge, it extends to the expert's capacity to impart that knowledge successfully to educands. Items in section B tested that part of epistemic authority. It was found that the second most preferred method of assessing pupils' understanding of the subject matter is by giving homework. Giving homework is a poor method of getting feedback unless a teacher can guarantee that the child did homework on his own.

60,8% teachers indicated that they point mostly dull pupils to test whether the lesson has been a success. Answers from such pupils are likely to be irrelevant or stereotyped. Bright pupils give a variety of thought provoking responses. It is not implied here that questions should not be directed to low achievers, but that all intelligence levels should be questioned. According to Docking (1982) directing questions to dull pupils strengthens the teacher's sense of control.

Successful teaching was also measured by establishing the rate of absenteeism. It was found that most teachers often experience the problem of pupils who deliberately stay away from classes. If the learning content interest the pupil he becomes determined to learn what is yet to be taught. The pupil should revere the unknown and respect both the authority of the teacher and the subject (Nash, 1966). Personal experience has taught that it is usually pupils who dodge classes who take the lead during unrests.

Hypothesizing that there is a close relationship between the attainment level of pupils and authority enforcement by teachers was confirmed by responses to question 15. Teachers usually demand higher performance from brighter pupils than from low achievers.

Items 16 and 17 found that the attitude of teachers towards monthly tests is negative. They agreed that monthly tests are time-consuming and indicated that the best time to write tests is when the teacher has taught a sufficient amount of work. It appeared they are not eager to measure pupils' progress.

Section C tested the hypothesis that there is a probability of teachers not executing their moral authority accordingly. The hypothesis was confirmed by responses to items 18-25. Responses to items 18 and 19 revealed that teachers do not share the same values for pupil's physical appearances. The implication of diverse opinions is that rule application and enforcement might not be at the same degree. Irregular punishment breeds discontent among pupils.

Items 20 and 21 probed the extent of exercising corporal punishment. The hypothesis suggesting that teachers conduct corporal punishment excessively was confirmed. Such punishment promotes hostility and a bitter relationship between the teacher and the pupil. Corporal punishment is the outward symbol of an authoritarian school system. It is preferred by teachers who have been conditioned by personal experience to accept no other form of punishment (Newell, 1972). Also, there is no guarantee that the offender feels guilty after being punished. Other forms of punishment, if used educatively can have the same deterrent effect on offenders. Smith (1985) argues that teachers feel other forms of punishment do not contain "sufficient terror to cow the diehards" (p.87).

A hypothesis proposing that teacher do not involve pupils when formulating school rules was confirmed by responses to question 23. Most teacher agreed that pupils are immature to be involved when school rules are formulated. School rules are imposed upon pupils for unquestioned obedience. Pupils are deprived the opportunity of active participation in an issue directly affecting them. Involving the prefects or the SRC (Students' Representative Council) decreases the possibility of rule infringement since these pupils co-operate better in publicising and enforcing adherence to rules. They get to know reasons and values behind rules.

Section D probed teachers' attitudes towards giving reasons for punishment or for committing an offence. Responses to questions 24 and 25 showed that teachers seldom establish whether the child voluntarily committed an offence. It is unreasonable to punish a child who did not purposefully commit a wrong, also it is useless to punish a child who erred deliberately. Discussing the offence before punishment is morally educative since the child sees the wrongness of his behaviour. It is less likely that he will resent the teacher.

Most teachers were found to prefer commanding pupils to requesting them. Commands are not accompanied by reasons for action as it is the case with requests. Frequent issue of commands or orders, predisposes authority to authoritarianism, a morally uneducational state. All school activities should be based on right reasons which pupils ought to know.

6.3 CONCLUSION

This study has revealed that Black secondary schools educators are not exerting their authority educatively. The basis of their epistemic authority is shaky as their knowledge of the subject is limited. About half of the sample were improving their qualifications when this research was conducted. As far as the actual teaching is concerned it was found that the learning experiences pupils are exposed to do not kindle much interest in pupils. It was observed that pupils rarely ask questions, some of them stay away from classes and that tests tend to promote rote memorization. Such experiences do not prompt them to respond imaginatively and rationally during their learning activities.

The teachers authority starts from his knowledgeability of the subject matter to his successful impartation of that subject to the extreme end of disciplining or channelling pupils energy towards learning goals. Smith (1985) contends that a teacher is morally authoritative if he states grounds for his actions, decisions and assertions as he would do in stopping bullying, thieving and praising honesty. This gives him a right to be heard, it backs his moral stand. Empirical investigation revealed that Black Teachers seldom give reasons for their actions, rules are imposed upon pupils, punishment is not conducted educatively. That pupils are not given a chance to discuss matters affecting them denies them the opportunity to learn to cope with consequences of making inappropriate decisions. On the whole a majority of Black Secondary school teachers do wield authoritarianism.

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**CHAPTER 7: SUMMARY, SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR
FURTHER STUDY**

7.0 Introduction

7.1 Summary of the study

7.2 Pedagogical significance

7.3 Suggestions and Recommendations for Further study

7.4 Bibliography

7. SUMMARY, SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

7.0 This work sought to establish whether educators in Black secondary schools do wield authoritarianism and expect unquestioned obedience and docility from pupils. The literature review gave a theoretical background and broadened the scope for the empirical work that was carried later on. A summary of findings is given below.

7.1 Summary of the Study

This study investigated authority related causes of unrests. The writer was prompted by the nature of grievances pupils often cite. The essential qualities of the educator's authority was defined, delimited and analyzed. The review of literature revealed that the educator is an authority in his capacity as disseminator of knowledge, he imparts this knowledge to the child in such a way that the child not only respect the authority of the teacher, but that of the subject as well. The pupil is motivated to pursue further knowledge and to revere it.

By virtue of him being knowledgeable the teacher is in authority over the child, that is, he controls the atmosphere and environment under which education takes place. He induces the child with the knowledge of values behind rules of behaviour and guides him to contemplate on the place of authority in the teaching-learning situation. The emphasis is on the child's cognitive understanding of rules rather than the apparent behaviour he displays.

An educator in his moral authority exercises power over pupils so as to achieve aims of the school. His power is embedded in school rules. In this study it was found that rules are imposed on pupils so that they (pupils) follow them without question. Rule infringement is a punishable act. Involving pupils during rule formulation helps them to be responsible individuals and to suffer the consequences of their choices. It was also found that Black teachers exercise corporal punishment excessively. Corporal punishment does not reduce behaviour problems (Gorton, 1976). Beating disturbs learning and reduces chances of remembering or establishing desired behaviour patterns. If it is frequently applied, it predisposes the victim to desensitisation and emotional flatterings. It does not promote a spirit of enquiry since it suppresses the creative potential of children.

Discipline that is fostered is not educative as it does not make children develop interest in the learning activity. That interest in the subject is not developed, is witnessable in the findings that the amount of pupils questions is minimal and that pupils at times stay away from certain lessons, as well as the teachers' popular choice of short answer items. Short answers promote rote memorization. Though considerable amount of knowledge has to be retained, proper learning is learning with insight so that the child understands the functional meaning. Another short-coming of epistemic authority was that most teachers' academic qualifications were poor therefore the extent of their knowledgeability of the subject they teach was limited.

7.2 Pedagogical Significance

In this study it was acknowledged that a majority of educators are not well balanced authorities in the subjects they teach. If an educator's knowledgeability is shallow, it is not likely that he will impart deep knowledge to the child, knowledge that will fertilise creative imagination, judgement and communicative skills.

Suppressing pupil questions and avoiding essay type answers suggest that educators might be educating for conformity. They might be moulding individuals whose ability to judge is dubious as they have become used to accept what is taught , who do not question or criticise, keep quiet even if misguided. Furthermore, their conative aspects like aspirations, will, aims and drives are likely to be underdeveloped, a condition which disposes them to the domination of other people's wills.

Imposing strict rules to pupils as it was found in this study, makes them docile as such an act discourages them from developing rationalization about appropriate behaviour. It deprives them of the opportunity of making rational choices. Rule application and rule enforcement helps children abide by the general social expectation. It is the educator's duty therefore to mould the behaviour of his pupils so that they fall in line with the expectations of the society. It appears discipline in Black secondary schools is not democratic as the absence of explanations showed. Seeking for explanations and encouraging discussions in moral issues ensures active participation in the setting and enforcement of moral standards.

7.3 Suggestions and Recommendations for Further Study

The researcher has the following suggestions:

- ° Attention should be paid to the quality of teachers in the field. It should be seen to it that they improve their academic qualifications.
- ° There should be subject advisors for all subjects, and one subject advisor is not enough for the whole region as the average, two visits a year to a school does not give enough time to attend to teachers' problems. An increase in the number of subject advisors will help them pay more attention to the teaching of each subject.
- ° Teachers should aim at developing creative thinking in their pupils. They should encourage questioning as they are dealing with young searching minds. When teaching teachers ought to conceive their roles as facilitators to the discovery of knowledge so as to kindle pupils' interest in the learning activity. A teacher is an authority if he channells pupils' interest and energy towards the learning activity.

- ° The exercise of corporal punishment should be decreased. Other forms of punishment must be taught to pupils as few offences warrant corporal punishment. Of utmost importance is for teacher to adopt an educative attitude towards punishment, to explain to the child the effect of his wrongness and to give him a chance to air his views on the matter.

The reseacher recommends that a similar study be carried out in schools in the homelands since this study was carried out in Natal schools under the Department of Education and Training. In Natal alone the quality of teachers in the Department of Education and Training is not equal to those in KwaZulu's Department of Education and Culture. In the latter there are unqualified teachers which is not the case in the former department.

A descriptive survey on how teachers teach the methods they employ and the testing techniques applied in secondary schools will give a clearer picture on how teachers demonstrate their authority in the teaching-learning situation.

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A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BLACK SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Aim: The aim of this questionnaire is to detect setbacks that disturb teachers when they teach and discipline pupils.

Directions: Please complete this questionnaire by either making a cross in the appropriate box or by giving the required information as the case may be. Please note that there are no correct or wrong answers. Respond as faithfully as you can since the information you will give will be treated confidentially. do not sign or write your name.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Sex: Male

Female

1
2

2. Marital Status: Single

Married

Separated

Windowed

Divorced

1
2
3
4
5

3. What's your age in years:

20 years and below

Between 21 - 30

31 - 40

41 - 50

51 - 60

61 and over

1
2
3
4
5
6

Level of Education

Std 10 plus teaching qualification

1

Undergraduate University course

2

Degree plus teaching qualification

3

Honours / its equivalent qualification

4

Masters / its equivalent qualification

5

Doctorate

6

Other (specify)

7

5. Teaching Experience in years

Under 1 year

1

1 - 5 years

2

6 - 10 years

3

11 - 15 years

4

16 - 20 years

5

21 - 25 years

6

26 - 30 years

7

31 - 35 years

8

36 and over

9

SECTION A

1. List the subjects you teach, the standard in which you teach it and the highest qualification you hold in it. If you teach the same subject in more than one standard use different lines.

£

SUBJECT	STANDARD	HIGHEST QUALIFICATION IN SUBJECT
---------	----------	----------------------------------

2. How often do you do the following activities.

Attend in-service courses

Read journals, magazines, books, etc.

Further reading (university courses

Seek help from superiors

Other (specify)

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	SOME- TIMES	RARELY	NEVER

3. Do you have the subject advisor in your subject area?

Yes

No

4. How often do you get help from the subject advisory services.

Very often	Often	Occassionally	Rarely	Never

5. How often do you receive in - service training in your subject area?

4 times a year

1

3 times a year

Twice a year

Once a year

Once in 2 year

Other (specify)

2
3
4
5
6

6. How often do pupils bother you with questions after a lesson.

Very Often	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never

7. Do you encourage pupils to ask questions in your class.

Very often	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never

8. Short answer items are the best form of testing.
Indicate your approval.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

SECTION B

9. Lesson preparation is an unnecessary formality.
Mark your degree of approval.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

10. How often do you prepare your lessons.

	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
a week before teaching					
a day before teaching					
same day (in the morning)					
after presentation					
Other (specify)					

11. How do you assess whether pupils have grasped what has been taught?

By questioning them

1

Giving a short test

2

Giving a written exercise

3

Giving homework

4

Other (specify)

5

12. In order to test whether the lesson has been understood which pupils do you point most

Dull ones

1

Bright ones

2

Inquisitive ones

3

Other (Specify)

4

13. Some pupils, especially boys, deliberately stay away from certain classes. How often do you experience this problem.

Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

14. Which pupils are easier to communicate with?

Dull ones

1

Bright ones

2

Mediocre

3

Frindly ones

4

Other (specify)

5

15. Which pupils do you find easier to motivate ?

Dull ones

Bright ones

Mediocre

Friendly ones

Other (specify)

16. Monthly tests are time consuming:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

17. When do you think it is the best time to write tests?

Answer:
.....
.....

SECTION C

18. Wearing of school uniform by pupils is:

Very Important	Important	Unimportant	Undesirable

19. School girls should wear their hair

Permed	1
Braided	2
Plaited	3
Styled / Relaxed	4
Short (natural)	5
Long (natural)	6
It doesn't matter	7
Other (specify)	8

20. List forms of punishment you apply to culprits. List according to frequency of application .

Verbal reprimand

Withhold privileges (e.g. not going out during recess)

Send pupil out of the class

Exercise corporal punishment

Let pupil stand on one leg for few minutes

Give pupil odd job e.g. digging a trench, cutting grass

Other (Specify)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

21. Corporal punishment is the quickest way of punishing a pupil:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

22. Some pupils are lazy to do homework. How do you feel when this happens in your subjects?

Worries me a lot

Worries me little

Hardly ever worries me

1
2
3

23. Pupils are immature to be consulted when school rules are formulated:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

SECTION D

24. In your opinion should culprits be allowed to explain why they did wrong ?

Yes	1
No	2

Why ?
.....

25. Should a teacher explain to the child why he(she) punishes him

Yes	1
No	2

Why ?
.....

26. Do you think teachers should treat pupils with dignity ?

Very Important	Important	Unimportant	undesirable

27. How often do you request a pupil to perform a task ?

Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

28. How often do you command a pupil to perform a task

Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

