

**CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND RESOLUTION  
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU**

**BY**

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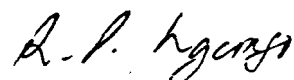
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3. The principals and teachers who co-operated in filling in the questionnaire and in granting me interviews.
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5. My sons, Mthunzi and Phumlani, for their unfailing support.

  
R. P. NGCONGO  
UMLAZI  
JANUARY 1993

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to :

1. My late grandparents, MAGABELA ESTHER and PHILEMON MBATHA.  
I enjoy the fruits of their love and of the opportunities they gave me.
2. All the Black students, teachers and principals in South Africa. May this research be a contribution towards their handling of conflict in schools.

-o-o-o0o-o-o-

## **DECLARATION**

I declare that :

### **CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND RESOLUTION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU**

is my work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of references.



R. P. NGCONGO

JANUARY 1993



## **ABSTRACT**

This research has looked into the methods which teachers and principals use to handle student-student, student-principal and student-teacher conflicts in KwaZulu secondary schools.

It has revealed that teachers tend to use authoritarian and power based methods to manage conflicts with students. Authoritarian methods rely on coercive and position power to force students to comply. They include punishment and force of different kinds. The research has shown that authoritarian and power based methods of managing conflict in schools tend to have short term benefits only.

The study has also found that some principals use competitive and authoritarian methods to manage conflicts which involve students. However, there is a definite effort by some principals to employ problem solving methods such as negotiation to solve conflicts with students. Where problem solving methods were used, positive relationships were enhanced. In some cases new ways of doing things at school were developed.

The extent to which other methods like avoidance and accommodation are used to deal with conflict was highlighted. The outcomes of these in schools were also shown.

The research also indicated that the socio-economic and political history of education for Blacks in South Africa and KwaZulu, has created a great potential for conflict in schools. It was shown that schools in KwaZulu are in a situation where education does not adequately fulfill needs of students. As a result a lot of frustration occurs and students displace their feelings by resorting to socially disapproved means like violence.

Other variables such as clash of values between teachers and students, misperceptions especially by students and lack of student involvement in decision making also contribute to conflict.

According to the observations of principals, students also deal with conflict in aggressive and competitive ways. They demand whatever they believe they are deprived of; they become violent or resistant to school authority.

Further, the study concluded that some teachers and principals increase the potential for conflicts in schools through defective management styles and negative interaction with students. The latter, namely negative interaction with students, was seen to be either part of estranged student-teacher or student-principal relationships or, in some cases, a result of poor communication and interpersonal skills of teachers or principals.

All three parties (namely teachers, students and principals) cloud issues on conflicts by mixing them with emotions and by operating from certain belief systems. Such emotions as uncontrolled anger and resultant violence or beliefs that students cannot or may not participate in decisions at school, often worsened conflicts.

The research discerned that a principal's or teacher's approach to managing conflicts tends to influence the outcomes.

## OPSOMMING VAN DIE NAVORSING

Hierdie navorsing het gefokus op die metodes wat onderwysers, en skoolhoofde in Sekondêre skole in KwaZulu gebruik om konflik tussen leerling en leerling, leerling en skoolhoof en leerling en onderwyser, te hanteer.

Daar is gevind dat onderwysers meesal neig tot outoritêre en gesagsgebaseerde metodes om konflikte met studente te hanteer. Outoritêre metodes hou in dat dwang, soos geweld en straf, en magsposisie, aangewend word om studente te onderwerp aan gesag. Die navorsing het getoon dat die toepassing van hierdie metodes tot konflikoplossing slegs korttermynvoordele inhou.

In die ondersoek is gevind dat sekere skoolhoofde outoritêre en kompeterende metodes gebruik om konflikte met studente te hanteer. Daar is egter beduidende pogings by sommige skoolhoofde om probleemoplossingsmetodes, soos onderhandeling, te gebruik. Waar hierdie soort meganismes wel gebruik is, het dit gelei tot die uitbou van positiewe verhoudings. In sommige gevalle het dit selfs gelei tot die ontwikkeling van nuwe maniere om dinge by die skool aan te pak.

Die mate waarin ander metodes, soos vermyding en akkommodering gebruik word om konflik te hanteer, is belig en die uitkomst hiervan in skole word aangedui.

Die navorsing het aan die lig gebring dat die sosio-ekonomiese en politieke geskiedenis van onderwys vir Swartes in Suid-Afrika en KwaZulu 'n groot potensiaal vir konflik in skole geskep het. Daar is aangedui dat skole in KwaZulu in 'n situasie is waar onderwys nie die behoeftes wat bestaan, voldoende bevredig nie met die gevolg dat 'n gevoel van frustrasie by studente geskep word, wat weer omskep word in sosiaal onaanvaarbare gedrag soos geweld.

Ander veranderlikes soos 'n botsing van waardesisteme tussen onderwysers en studente, wanindrukke, veral by studente, en 'n gebrek aan studentebetrokkenheid by besluitneming dra by tot die konflik.

Volgens skoolhoofde hanteer studente konflik ook op 'n aggressiewe en kompeterende grondslag. Hulle eis dit wat na hulle mening van hulle ontnem is, en hulle wend hulle tot geweld of verwerp die gesag van die skool.

Ten slotte het die ondersoek ook aan die lig gebring dat sekere onderwysers en skoolhoofde die potensiaal vir konflik vererger d.m.v. foutiewe bestuurstyle en negatiewe interaksie met studente. Laasgenoemde word gesien as deel van 'n vervreemding tussen student en onderwyser, of, in sommige gevalle, die resultaat van die swak kommunikasie- en interpersoonlike vaardighede van skoolhoofde of onderwysers.

Aldrie partye, naamlik onderwysers, studente en skoolhoofde, vertroebel vraagstukke oor konflik deur dit te verstrengel met emosies en deur vanuit 'n sekere waardestelsel te oordeel. Emosies soos woede, met gevolglike geweld, asook opvattinge soos dat studente nie 'n aandeel mag hê in die besluitnemingsprosesse van die skool nie, vererger dikwels die posisie.

Die navorsing het duidelik getoon dat 'n skoolhoof of onderwyser se benadering tot die hantering van konflik gewoonlik 'n invloed het op die uitkoms van 'n konfliksituasie.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

### 1.1 ORIENTATION

Conflict is a theme that has attracted the attention of administrators, managers and other analysts in various fields of research, theory and practice. As a result, a number of researchers have attempted to expose and analyse the causes of conflict. Others have concentrated particularly on the process and management of conflict. Some of the authorities that have made contributions in this regard are : Drenth (1984), Filley (1975), Burton (1987), Swindle (1976), Mastenbroek (1987) and Brown (1983).

Some researchers have studied educational conflicts exclusively as opposed, for instance, to conflicts related to politics or industry. After tracing the causes of educational conflicts, they proceed to investigate how these have been managed. These researchers include Gordon (1974), Bybee and Gee (1982), Jones and Jones (1981) and Cronk (1987). However, according to a 1989 University of South Africa computer search, which the writer obtained in 1989, no study had at that time been conducted on conflict management in Black schools in South Africa. The absence of such a study is conspicuous in view of the different forms of conflict that have been experienced by Black schools in South Africa, especially between 1976 and 1991.

Since no academic attention has been given to conflict management in KwaZulu schools, there is no scientific data available as to the operating models of conflict management in these schools. Whatever models are in operation, no research exists as to their effectiveness or ineffectiveness in Black schools. KwaZulu schools function under a different set of circumstances from those

in areas elsewhere where research on conflict has been done. These circumstances will be described in Chapter Two. This research, therefore, looks partly at operating models of conflict management in KwaZulu schools, as well as their effectiveness.

### **1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY**

The researcher observed that secondary schools in KwaZulu, like most Black schools in South Africa, have for a long time experienced conflicts of a diverse kind. She felt it was important to investigate the causes of conflict and to determine the methods which are used to manage it in KwaZulu secondary schools. The researcher was of the opinion that an investigation of this kind can pave the way for improved understanding and management of conflict between various actors in schools. A scientific study of conflict in some KwaZulu schools can provide data which can be used to make constructive recommendations towards the management of conflict.

### **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Conflicts in schools have led to unpleasant relationships between teachers and pupils. Some conflicts have resulted in struggles for power in schools. Such a state of affairs has disrupted teaching and learning. In some instances conflicts have culminated in physical destruction of school buildings and in the loss of lives of certain school members.

Furthermore, conflict management as a component of the syllabus on Educational Management in Colleges of Education for Blacks does not seem to have been given sufficient emphasis. In the Black Primary and Secondary Teachers' Diploma Course syllabus, (1985) under the topic "Management and Control", conflict management is not included. While it can be argued that the topic is implied in the part of the syllabus entitled "The Principal and his School", it is felt that such an oblique reference to a topic so significant in Black school life is inadequate. While the course outline of the Bachelor of Education Degree at the University of Zululand, for example, does have a component on Conflict Management, not

all principals take this degree.

This is not to argue that a lack of qualifications in conflict management explains the widespread occurrence and seeming escalation of conflict in the schools that were studied. However, an absence of training in conflict management is a disadvantage to the people promoted to principalship. The fact that there are a significant number of principals who have had no training in conflict management suggests a shortage of people who can handle conflict in KwaZulu schools. One can argue that, partly as a result of this shortage, there is a pronounced degree of undue suffering by teachers and students as a result of conflict situations. The following illustrates this point:

In one school which the researcher visited for a pilot study in May, 1990, about twenty students gathered around the headmaster's office at 11h30. They shouted that they were tired of waiting for the examination paper they were to write. The paper, it was said, was supposed to have been written at 09h00.

The headmaster came out of the office and angrily told the students that he knew that the paper should have been written at 09h00. He explained to them that the duplicating machine was broken. As he spoke, a few boys howled at him. He responded by insisting that they would write the paper later, whether they liked it or not. This statement seemed to infuriate some students. As they dispersed, they threw stones at some office windows and at the windows of the adjacent class, thus breaking them. Had the headmaster had some experience or training in conflict management, this incident would probably not have taken the turn it did.

While conflict and its management have been studied in this research with reference to KwaZulu schools, these schools cannot be looked at in isolation. They are part of their social, economic and political environments. Certain socio-economic and political issues seem to promote conflict in schools. This point is argued in

Chapters Two and Three of this study. In 1985, for example, Black pupils seemed prepared to sacrifice their education in the belief that it was more important to fight for the 'imminent collapse of apartheid' (Kruss, 1988:7). They did not only retain a conflictual relationship with the Government which did not remove apartheid, but they continuously engaged in boycotts of schools and thus contributed to the disruption of teaching and learning. Nxumalo (1990:2) makes a salient point about school boycotts as a form of managing conflicts. He argues that some people or organisations see boycotts as ends in themselves instead of as means to particular ends.

#### **1.4 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH**

The research sought to study the management of conflict in KwaZulu schools as an example and in Black schools in South Africa, by implication.

It evaluated the effectiveness of conflict management approaches and styles in these schools against a background of certain conflict management theories.

#### **1.5 ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING THE STUDY**

- (a) Principals and teachers in secondary schools in KwaZulu tend to use power-based methods of dealing with students' conflict.
- (b) These methods do not necessarily resolve student-student, student-teacher and student-school conflict.
- (c) Problem-solving as a conflict handling method is rarely and minimally used by teachers and principals.
- (d) Ignoring or accommodating conflict is of uncertain benefit.

#### **1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH**

This study will be of significance to people interested in Black Education in KwaZulu and South Africa. The study presents the methods and patterns of conflict management in some secondary schools in KwaZulu.

Those involved in Black Education who are at micro, meso and macro levels and occupy potentially influential positions, may use the findings to give necessary support



and direction to schools that have to manage conflict. The research sets out the following questions:

- (a) What causes conflict in KwaZulu secondary schools?
- (b) What methods are used in solving conflict in the schools under study and what are the effects of these on problems around which conflicts originate? What is the role and impact of student, teacher or pupil power in managing or resolving school conflict?
- (c) How can conflict be managed without disrupting teaching and learning?

Chapters Seven and Eight address these questions.

### **1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH**

This study has the following limitations : Since schools are part of their social environment, there is a difficulty in distinguishing between school conflicts and social or political conflicts which impact on the school. Further, many situational variables influence conflict management. The climate of the school and teacher-pupil relationships are examples. This suggests a problem when one looks at conflict management across a region, since each school and each conflict case is influenced by unique circumstances and unique issues.

Another limitation is that this research does not take into account personality variables that come into play in conflict management. For example, an approach to a conflict situation and its management will vary according to whether the head teacher is haughty and autocratic or whether he or she is warm, open-minded and takes a democratic stance in dealing with school conflict.

Nevertheless, the research remains a viable undertaking since there are conflicts which do originate in a school setting and which need, as far as is possible, to be managed efficiently for the good of all.

### **1.8 PRELIMINARY COMMENTS ON METHODS OF THE RESEARCH**

In this chapter only an outline of the method used in this study will be presented. A detailed discussion of the

method of study is given in chapter 5.

The required data for this project was collected through questionnaires administered to teachers, and through interviews with principals. Participant and retrospective observations were also used. These terms will be explained in a Chapter on methodology.

The rationale for the employment of these tools and the procedures which were followed in using them are explained in Chapter Five. A literature review on conflict theories as well as on models of conflict management, especially in education, was done.

## **1.9 OPERATIONAL TERMS**

### **1.9.1 Conflict**

Conflict may be seen as a clash either within oneself or between two parties or among people. It is the existence of divergent opposing aims, or goals or interests within a person, between people or groups or within or between organisations. Hence Derr (1972:896) talks of intrapersonal, interpersonal, inter-group or intra-organisational conflicts. Whenever incompatibility of ideas or activities exist conflict results. Bybee and Gee (1982:262) refer to educational conflict as a product of educators, plus the student and the situation. Their contention that educational conflicts result from an inter-play of a variety of factors is held in this research.

Literature on conflict offers varied definitions which are of relevance to this topic. Robbins (1974:362) states that conflict covers a range that includes extremes, from subtle, indirect and highly controlled forms of opposition to overt opposition, such as strikes and riots. Likert and Likert (1976:7) define conflict as the active striving for one's own preferred outcome, which if attained precludes the attainment by others of their outcomes, thereby producing hostility.

To clarify the concept of conflict even further, views about the kinds into which conflict is differentiated follow : Filley (1975:3) distinguishes conflicts which are competitive from those which are disruptive. The emphasis in the former is upon winning rather than on the defeat of the opponent, which is the aim of the latter. It is evident, thus, that conflict does not have to be disruptive. Moore (1988:3) postulates that conflict can have a positive side, one that promotes communication, problem-solving and necessary change. Conflict is thus neither good nor bad. Its consequences in the organisation depend on a number of factors such as the approach to resolving it and the level of its intensity.

Bisno (1988:1) and Moore (1988:3) differentiate conflict into various categories. Bisno identifies what he calls interest conflicts, induced conflicts, misattributed conflicts, illusionary conflicts, displaced and expressive conflicts. Interest conflicts refer to a genuine clash of opposing interests. Induced conflicts are intentionally created to achieve objectives which are not stated. Misattributed conflicts involve incorrect diagnosis of behaviours or causes of issues in conflict. Illusionary conflicts are based on misperceptions or misunderstandings. Displaced conflicts refer to antagonism being incorrectly directed to others who are not offending parties, and expressive conflicts involve a desire to express hostility and antagonism.

Moore (1988:3) on the other hand lists the following categories:

Relationship conflicts : These are described as conflicts caused by negative emotions, misperceptions or stereotypes, or poor communication.

Data conflicts : These occur as a result of inadequate information necessary to make a decision.

They emerge when people are misinformed, when they disagree over data which is relevant or when they interpret information differently.

Value conflicts : These result from perceived or actual incompatibility of belief systems. While people can live harmoniously even if their values differ, value conflicts may occur if one party imposes its values on the other.

Structural conflicts : These are caused by issues in the structure. Role definitions, incompatible goals, time constraints, power sharing, unequal control of resources or limited resources, are some of these issues.

Interest conflicts : These are caused by competition over perceived or actual incompatible needs.

Clearly there are common categories of conflicts in the classifications by Bisno and Moore. Interest conflicts and illusionary conflicts are examples.

Partly related to the structural category of conflicts is Hoy and Miskell's (1987:78) classification. Hoy and Miskell identify role, personality and goal-conflict, plus combinations of these, for example role-personality conflict.

It is clear that conflicts originate from one or more sets of areas. This view is confirmed by Kreidler (1984:11) when he states that in classrooms, conflicts will be of different types; the main ones of which will be those over resources, or over needs, or over values.

Finally, conflict can be latent, perceived or manifest. Bloch (1987:4) refers to latent conflict, which is hidden, subtle and difficult to establish with certainty. Perceived conflict is seen to be in existence where it may not be. Manifest conflict is overt conflict; which may be expressed verbally or

physically. The types of conflict described earlier may be subsumed under any of these categories. This study is to focus primarily on interpersonal and inter-group conflict which may be latent, perceived or manifest, or which may be subtle or fierce.

For the purpose of this study, the definition of conflict in the realm of education is twofold. First the researcher sees conflict as any behaviour which is antithetical to expected norms and values of education or schooling in a particular setting. Such behaviour will range from mild opposition to school or educational norms and values, to extreme opposition. Second the researcher's definition of conflict concurs with that of Gordon (1976:181), namely that conflict occurs where there are incompatible needs and values which individuals are unable to negotiate or resolve harmoniously. In the sphere of education these values are encapsulated in school policies and expectations. The definition by Bybee and Gee (1982:162) that educational conflict is any violation, challenge or questioning of a school rule, policy or expectation, is thus upheld in this research. The definition of conflict just made thus embraces problems of discipline.

Conflict can also be viewed as a state of mind that leads to certain behavioural actions and reactions. As such it results from a feeling that one has been severely threatened or discounted or that one's position is challenged. Thus when a pupil arrives late at school and the reason for his lateness is not accepted by the school, his behaviour is seen by teachers to challenge a school expectation. While the student's behaviour is not conflict, it is defined as such by teachers. Teachers may in defence of their ruling punish a student. Behaviour that generates conflict in one school system may thus not do so in another.

#### **1.9.2 Conflict Management versus Conflict Resolution**

Burton (1987:8) argues that conflict management has

a wide application, from deterrence strategies to propaganda. He maintains that the significant feature of conflict management is that it is an attempt by the status quo to manage the dispute, or to avoid escalation of the conflict, while maintaining control without giving way. Conflict management in this way focuses on the retention of power positions and on keeping conflict under control without necessarily resolving it. There is a distinction between conflict management and conflict resolution. Conflict resolution, on the other hand, seeks to resolve the problem.

Kimbrough and Nunnery (1983:340) see conflict management as understanding and dealing with conflict in such a manner that it serves a functional rather than a dysfunctional purpose. This definition approximates what Burton calls conflict resolution.

The usage of conflict management in this research assumes a continuum from deterrence strategies which Burton refers to on the one hand, to conflict resolution referred to by Kimbrough and Nunnery (1976) on the other. Hence "conflict management" will be used synonymously with "conflict resolution", except when otherwise stated.

#### **1.9.3 Secondary Schools**

Secondary schools will mean all schools with standard six to ten, or eight to ten, in KwaZulu. These schools, historically, admit Black (African) students.

#### **1.9.4 KwaZulu**

KwaZulu is one of the regions in South Africa which are called Homelands. It is inhabited mainly by Zulu-speaking people. It is difficult to describe accurately the geographical boundaries of this region because the region is very fragmented. However, the region stretches from 27°10'S - 31°S and 29°E - 30°30'East. To give an indication of where KwaZulu is, a map of the area appears in the appendices.

The region has 25 school inspection circuits. These have local administrative personnel such as circuit inspectors and inspectors of schools (formerly known as assistant inspectors). Within each circuit, principals of schools are responsible to the circuit inspector.

#### **1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

Chapters in this research are structured as follows :

**CHAPTER TWO** presents the Socio-economic and Political Context of Education for Blacks in South Africa and for KwaZulu schools. This is the background against which conflict management in the schools under study will be reviewed.

In **CHAPTER THREE** theories of Conflict and Their Implications for Conflict Management are discussed.

**CHAPTER FOUR** presents a Review of Literature on Conflict Management and Resolution.

In **CHAPTER FIVE** the Methodology used in the Research is given.

**CHAPTER SIX** is the Analysis of Data.

**CHAPTER SEVEN** is the Interpretation of Data.

**CHAPTER EIGHT** presents Conclusions to the Study and Recommendations.

#### **1.11 CONCLUSION**

This Chapter introduced the theme of the project, namely "Conflict Management and Resolution in KwaZulu Secondary Schools". It presented the background, problems, purpose and proposed research procedure of the study.

The following Chapter will discuss the socio-economic and political context of education for Blacks in South Africa and for KwaZulu in particular.

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## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF EDUCATION IN KWAZULU AND AFRICAN EDUCATION IN COLONIAL AND RECENT TIMES**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In Chapter One an orientation to the research was given. This chapter presents the socio-economic and political background of KwaZulu. Such a background is important to an understanding of factors which promote conflict in black education in South Africa, particularly in KwaZulu secondary schools. The chapter thus serves to place in clearer perspective the arguments in subsequent chapters.

#### **2.2 THE POLITICAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND TO KWAZULU**

Politics influences education in a variety of ways. Through various policies, acts, laws and regulations the Government determines the character of the education system. In South Africa, for example, the existence of separate Education Departments for different racial groups is basically a political decision. Up to 1993, the year of presentation of this thesis, there are eighteen Departments of Education in South Africa. The view that politics influences education is quite widely held, by Sebidi (1988:49) and Mathonsi (1988:7-14) amongst others. Sebidi argues that educational systems universally serve political systems and goes on to state that in South Africa this practice is ensured through the school system which is racially and ethnically divided, and where power rests with the white minority Government. Mathonsi upholds a Marxist concept of the state "as a mechanism which functions in the interests of dominant classes to contain the disruptive effects of class antagonisms" (Mathonsi, 1988, page 7). He maintains that the state reproduces the conditions necessary for the continued dominance of the already

privileged class. The practice of separate schools in South Africa, for example, implies unequal opportunities in education. It also means essentially that certain racial groups such as Blacks do not have full control of their education because the major policy decisions in education are made by a minority White Government.

Economic factors also impact on education in many ways. The adequacy or otherwise of human and physical resources in schools depends mainly on funding. Resources contribute towards the creation of secure environments where effective education is possible. This situation would mean fewer incentives for conflict. Alternatively resources in education can be so meagre that the education situation becomes fraught with dissatisfaction and tensions.

Further, schools are part of society. Society has an effect on how schools operate. Social situations such as harmony or stability impact on schools. The following points illustrate this contention: In South Africa certain movements like the Congress of South African Trade Unions have called for stayaways which have affected the smooth running of schools. Often schools have had to suspend classes. Local feuds between different political or ethnic factions have also sometimes necessitated the closure of schools. The African National Congress and Inkatha Freedom Party have occasionally been cited by the media in connection with such feuds. Clearly social tensions and conflict affect the functioning of schools and often generate conflicts.

The thesis that political as well as socio-economic factors can negatively affect education has been advanced early in this chapter. Such factors often lead to frustration and conflict. This argument will be illustrated first by referring to African education during colonial times and second to the control of Black education in South Africa by Whites in selected periods.

### **2.3 COLONIAL INTERVENTION AND DISHARMONY IN AFRICAN LIFE AND EDUCATION**

Almost all African countries, for example Cameroon, Kenya,

Nigeria, Zimbabwe, experienced colonial intervention at one stage or another, especially between 1880 - 1960 (Shur, 1982; Indire, 1982; Ukeje and Aisiku, 1982).

Colonial governments had tremendous influence in shaping the aims and content of African education both positively and negatively. Since, historically, colonial rule influenced the socio-economic and political setting of conflict in Black schools, its detrimental effects will be the focus of discussion. According to Rodney (1982:241), colonial education had a series of limitations. Rodney cites, for instance, the politico-financial limitation, namely the practice that political policy rather than the actual availability of money, guided financial expenditure. This meant that African education was always underfunded - a situation which contributed to underdevelopment. This resulted in few Africans entering school and contributed to a high percentage of non-achievers.

Colonial times sowed the seeds for conflict in another context, namely the imposition of Western standards on all facets of African life. During the pre-colonial times, Africans had their own social, economic and political structures. Colonial rulers imposed a foreign culture, a new polity and a new life upon Africans. These rulers presented a foreign curriculum, without incorporating the essential traditional values of the people, regarding the content of what was to be taught, to enhance the quality of life. Instead people's values were uprooted and their customs comprehensively condemned. Further, the religions of Africans were labelled heathen and their source of wealth was regarded as a form of retardation. In support of the view that colonialism had a negative effect on African life, Kallaway (1986:9) states that schools negated the common sense knowledge of the colonized. They reinforced the self-image of incompetence and ignorance for those who did not go to school or those who failed. There were no positive suggestions as to how to balance people's original values with those which were being introduced in the new era. Rodney (1982) and Fafunwa (1982) share these views. They maintain that while colonial education offered hope for some educational benefit to Africans, it

simultaneously failed them politically and economically.

Rodney (1982:223-261) argues that colonialism underprovided, exploited, suppressed and disregarded Africans. He refers partly to inadequacies in the economic infrastructure in Africa and in the education of Africans to substantiate his arguments. Fafunwa (1982:21-23), referring to France as an example of colonial intervention in education, argues that the French Government's policy was to make education a close replica of the education system of France. The curriculum, quality, structure and examinations hardly developed and upheld African values, culture and ideals. The French colonial education was 'a means of producing a nucleus of native aristocracy who would eventually propagate French ideals and uphold French ways of life' (Fafunwa, 1982:23). Clearly this position subjected a Black child to conflicting cultural expectations.

Muzoita (1980:91-117) and Parker (1960:72) give detailed accounts of the influence of British policy on former African Colonies. For example, with the establishment of the Chartered Company regime and the passage of the 1930 Land Appropriationment Act which segregated Africans from Europeans in the now Zimbabwe, education was affected. Africans were restricted to rural areas with very inadequate resources for education. Mhlanga (1981:57) shares the view that colonial rule adversely affected African education. He maintains that the development of the European sector in what was Rhodesia during colonial times was a result of the underdevelopment of the African sector in that territory. He further contends that African education, which was segregated from White education, was meant to serve the needs of the settler colonists.

Parker (1960:67) quotes the following statement by a White Rhodesian :

I do not consider it right that we should educate the native in any way that will unfit him for his service. He is and always should be 'a hewer of wood and drawer of water' for his master.

These are more or less the words which Dr. Verwoerd had

used with regard to South Africa in 1955.

Literature on the influence of colonial governments on Africa strongly suggests that Africans were educated to fit into the job market according to the interests of the colonists. Mathonsi (1988:11) also expresses the view that colonists educated Africans for servitude. This attitude by colonial regimes was adopted by White Governments in South Africa, as will be shown later.

In concluding this section it was suggested earlier that while colonial education had some advantage for Africans, it also sowed seeds for conflict. The argument which has just been advanced points out that education for Blacks was planned in such a way that it lacked resources and opportunities for genuine development. It also encouraged frustration and dissatisfaction, as Section 2.5 demonstrates. In Chapter Three the link between frustration and absence of resources on the one hand and conflict on the other, will be shown.

#### **2.4 CONTROL OF BLACK EDUCATION UP TO 1953**

State aid in the 19th Century was made available to schools in the various provinces of South Africa at different times. It was in 1841, for instance, that the Cape Government gave its first grant to aid Black education within its territory. In Natal grants-in-aid were only given after 1857, following the establishment of the Council of Education, a body whose responsibility it was to establish and maintain schools, appoint teachers and authorise grants (Murphy, 1988:60,62). Black Education was initially and essentially a missionary responsibility up to about 1945. It thus suffered from limited funding. This view is supported by Molteno (1986:49-64) who states that during the 19th Century education for Blacks was of a low standard, mainly as a result of poor funding.

Under the Act of the Union of 1910, education for everyone was designated a Provincial matter for five years. Thereafter, Parliament would review the position and make other arrangements for the control of schools. However, Blacks who, by then, seem to have accepted western

education, continued to press for more and better schools. According to Murphy (1973:66), Whites expressed great resentment at Blacks' petitions for more funding, in spite of the fact that the cost per White child was ten times more than that of a Black one. Davis (1986:125) and Thembela (1990:9) discuss the inadequacy of Black education during this period. Davis (1986:125) states that when African schools were under the jurisdiction of the Provinces, Africans attended segregated and sadly underfunded schools, often run under a different set of regulations from White schools. Thembela (1990:7) argues that under colonial rule, schooling for the oppressed classes was inferior and was provided in a manner that ensured that the oppressed were appropriately slotted into the cheap labour market.

Education for Blacks was still of a low quality, even in the late 19th Century (Murphy, 1988:61). Problems which affected the quality of Black Education around this period were the low standard of teaching and inadequate financial support by the Government (Molteno, 1988:49).

Following the Bantu Education Act of 1953, a division of Bantu Education under the Department of Native Affairs was formed in 1954. This Act put an end to the funding of mission schools by Central Government. It ushered in community schools. These are schools which are funded directly by the local communities. The problems of funding for Black schools have continued to this day.

It can be concluded from this historical, economic and political overview that Black education has had a shaky financial background for decades. This background, coupled with other problems, has contributed to dissatisfaction and frustrations, which eventually cause conflict. Blacks have resisted and actively opposed the education offered to them. The next section explains this observation.

## **2.5 RESISTANCE TO EDUCATION OFFERED TO BLACKS : 1658 - 1952**

Resistance and opposition seem to have been a feature in Black schools from as early as 1658 when schooling was introduced for the first time amongst Blacks. Around that

introduced for the first time amongst Blacks. Around that year, slaves in the Cape in South Africa resisted attending school, a practice that had been imposed on them by the colonial order. They ran away and had to be motivated by being given rum and tobacco (Kallaway, 1986:1).

Christie (1986:222) argues that there was resistance to mission schools as well. Some chiefs objected to sending their children to school. Mannikom (1990:2) argues that some chiefs did not want their children to be converted to Christianity. They moved away from mission stations. If they did send them it was to enable them to acquire some initial skills of reading and writing only. It has been assumed by Mannikom (1990:3) that chiefs saw those with school knowledge as a threat to traditional authority and leadership. The chiefs' feelings of being threatened could readily have been encouraged by the enthusiasm of missionaries to introduce the Western form of education, so that they 'civilised' and 'converted' locals. Besides, formal education removed children from responsibilities which boosted the wealth of Africans. Children could no longer herd cattle or participate in ploughing, if they were freely allowed to attend school. These were sources of income in the traditional societies. Thus formal education conflicted with traditional life and induced resistance from the tribal communities.

Between 1920 and up to the time Bantu education was introduced, there was periodic unrest in Black schools across the country. These were directed at perceived inadequate conditions in the mission schools - poor food, compulsory manual labour and severe punishment from teachers.

## **2.6 RESISTANCE TO BANTU EDUCATION AFTER 1953**

Bantu Education, like other apartheid measures, was resisted by Blacks and other people in a number of ways: Carter (1958: 100-102) argues that the United Party opposed it on political and economic grounds, whereas the Conservative Party felt it would lead to the education of more Africans. The Provincial Authorities rejected it because it would eliminate their control of education.

to tightly controlled and politically directed education of inferior quality.

Resistance by Blacks to Bantu Education was expressed in many forms around 1954 - 1955. Mathonsi (1988:12-13) gives a detailed account of how Bantu Education was resisted from 1948 to 1988. In 1954 the African National Congress launched a Resist Apartheid Campaign. Bantu Education was one of the issues in the campaign. There were school boycotts organised by the ANC which planned to withdraw children from schools and to draw up alternative educational and cultural activities. Calls to reject Bantu Education were issued by teacher organisations such as the Cape African Teachers' Association and the Transvaal African Teachers' Association. The calls by the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) in 1990 for teachers to down chalk, are reminiscent of those times.

In the sixties objection to Bantu Education was staged by colleges and universities. Fort Hare students stayed away from lectures on 29 and 30 May, 1961, around Republic Day, in protest against Bantu Education. There was also ongoing school unrest during the sixties across the country, partly as a result of dissatisfaction with Bantu Education.

Opposition to Bantu Education was continued during the late sixties and the seventies. It was then spearheaded by Black Consciousness movements such as the South African Students Organisations (SASO) and the Black Peoples Convention (BPC) (Du Pre, 1990:70).

The 1970's introduced another set of uprisings against Bantu Education. The South African Student Movement was formed in 1972. This was a national organisation for Black secondary school students. This organisation set up an action committee known as the Soweto Students' Representative Committee (SSRC). The mandate of this committee was to take up the issue of the imposition of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction. An instruction had been issued by the Department of Education and Training, that Afrikaans was to be the medium of instruction for half



that Afrikaans was to be the medium of instruction for half the subjects in Black schools. Students resented this. They maintained that it was the language of the oppressor. They also argued that if they must learn Afrikaans, Vorster, the then Prime Minister of South Africa, must learn Zulu.

The SSRC organised protest meetings in Orlando, Soweto, near Johannesburg, in 1976. According to the National Union of South African Students (NUSAS) this was a peaceful protest and all schools in Soweto participated. However, the demonstration turned into a massacre when police shot students (A detailed reaction of the Government to this protest is given under 2.8).

Of importance here is the shift in the focus of the students' protest. The target soon moved from Afrikaans to Black education itself. The following quotation from the SSRC explains the shift :

We shall reject the whole system of Bantu Education whose aim is to reduce us mentally and physically into hewers of wood and drawers of water (Mannikom, 1990:4).

The 1980's once more marshalled a series of protests in schools (Christie, 1986:12). While these are of a multi-causation, issues around Bantu Education played a significant role. In explaining the 1976 revolts and the crisis in Black education in South Africa, Alexander (1988:9) argues that the crisis reflects on the wider crisis in which the education system is embroiled politically, economically and ideologically. A number of political dispensations lend weight to Alexander's point. The dispensation on differentiated funding of education of races in South Africa, for example, gives expression to the apartheid ideology. This ideology is meant not only to separate races, it is also a means of depriving Blacks of equal opportunity in education. This serves to keep Blacks in inferior positions. Realising this, Blacks are resentful of Bantu Education.

To illustrate this issue even further, the protests of some Black students to education in the 1980s will be cited. In 1980 the Western Cape students formulated their grievances against education. These centred on school conditions, such as a lack of textbooks, poor facilities and unqualified teachers. In 1984, Atteridgeville near Pretoria, Eastern Cape and the Vaal Triangle were centres of protest. One of the issues was education. In 1985 the slogan "Liberation now, Education later" represented a precise rejection of Bantu Education. Finally, a move by the Congress of South African Students (COSAS), Azanian People's Organisation (AZAPO) and National Education Union of South Africa (NEUSA) to form the Education Charter campaign was another form of resistance to Bantu Education. The Education Charter was drawn up to make it possible for people to say what kind of education they wanted. Christie (1986:251) states that the Education Charter campaign aimed at building a democratic involvement around educational issues and at working towards alternative education for South Africa. This was followed by the formation of the National Education Crisis Committee of parents (NECC) and the call for People's Education.

While, obviously, not all conflicts in schools can be traced to Bantu Education, a lot of political decisions underlying Bantu Education are conducive to frustration, dissatisfaction and resistance. Nxumalo (1990:3) highlights this point when he says that apartheid is at the core of the problems Blacks experience in education.

## **2.7 SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR CONFLICT IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF BLACK EDUCATION**

Four tables - the per capita expenditure on education, qualifications of teachers in African schools, qualifications of teachers according to phases in KwaZulu and pupil/ teacher ratio in Homelands, provide data on specific problems in Black education. These tables appear on pages 175 - 179 of the Appendix. Statistics on teacher qualifications in KwaZulu also clearly manifest the implications for conflict in the administration of education. This point will be illustrated below.

The per capita expenditure on education as tabled below shows a remarkably unequal distribution. As a result of poor funding, Black education is fraught with serious problems like high teacher/pupil ratio, high rate of non-achievement, and poorly qualified teachers. Tables 2 - 3 illustrate these issues. As just indicated, statistics on teacher qualifications in KwaZulu, also suggest similar problems in education.

While KwaZulu has 1 508 057 students from Substandard A - Standard 10, it has only 24 415 qualified teachers and 6030 unqualified ones (KwaZulu 1989/1990 Annual Report of the Department of Education and Culture).

High numbers in a class make it difficult for a teacher to reach each child as an individual and to facilitate his participation in the learning process. Research on learning, as for example in Oeser (1973) suggests that large involvement in class promotes insightful learning. Student-teacher ratios in KwaZulu thus militate against some of the most important didactic principles, such as the principle of individualisation (Duminy and Sohngé, 1980) and pupil self-activity (Van der Stoep and Louw, 1987). The end result of this situation is frustration, which creates a fertile ground for conflict.

The above problems and consequences of apartheid and the political decisions to enforce it are just the tip of the iceberg of the problems encountered in Black classrooms. Nxumalo (1990) aptly points out other costs of keeping children in large classes where they cannot take risks, venture forth, answer and debate questions. He argues that such a situation produces pupils who have a very low tolerance threshold for other people's ideas, probably because a teacher faced with eighty children to teach within thirty-five minutes can only maximise his/her input by not having other people speak. He/She cannot, under these conditions, call for ideas. Hence pupils grow up to believe that only one viewpoint on an issue is right, and that one is theirs. Whoever differs, is an enemy. Such a situation lowers self-confidence, security and assertiveness, qualities which are essential for children

to learn to stand up for themselves and allow others to do likewise (Nxumalo, 1990).

According to Bot (1984:10), the under-qualified teachers who are faced with overcrowded classes and a very poor support structure as regards facilities and equipment, are bound to lack confidence. They thus show an over-reliance on authoritarianism, excessive discipline and rote learning. Within the confines of their situation, they can seldom stimulate creative and independent thinking by pupils - a problem that promotes boredom and restlessness - and which makes students susceptible to dissension.

The teaching-learning situation in the context described fosters what Freire (1986:57-74) calls the culture of silence, which is certain to bar insightful mastery of content presented. In part because of this, Black schools are a fertile ground for conflicts.

## **2.8 THE HANDLING OF RESISTANCE TO BANTU EDUCATION, BY THE GOVERNMENT AND ITS ROLE IN CONFLICT IN BLACK EDUCATION**

As pointed out above, resistance to apartheid measures in education was made by schools, political movements, universities, teacher organisations and others. It is essential to study the response of the administrators of education to resistance and to assess the impact of this response on conflict, its management and its resolution.

In 1959 Fort Hare students, backed by staff, passed resolutions condemning the extension of apartheid to universities. Christie (1986:232) states that the Government responded by dismissing staff members, and others resigned. Prof. L. C. S. Nyembezi, Mr. Z. K. Mathews and the late Prof. S. B. Ngcobo were some of the staff members who resigned as a demonstration of objection to Bantu Education. The researcher interviewed Professor Nyembezi about the response of Fort Hare staff members to the extension of apartheid to universities. He stated that White members who objected to apartheid being introduced to universities had their services terminated. They were seen by the Government as anti-Nationalist. He reports that Blacks opted to resign. Those who did, lost their

pensions, while Whites who were terminated retained their pensions. The university authorities forced students to sign a declaration accepting the university regulations, or they had to leave.

The past four decades have all seen some aggressive reactions by the Government to the dissatisfactions of pupils, teachers and parents about Bantu Education. When students marched through Soweto in protest against the use of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction, the police opened fire and shot dead one boy, Hector Peterson, on the first day of the protest. Prime Minister Vorster told Parliament that he had instructed the police to maintain law and order at all cost in Soweto. The ensuing fights and skirmishes between the police and protesters continued. The struggle resulted in the banning of all Black Consciousness Organisations. According to Du Pre (1990:70) the Government singled out the philosophy of Black Consciousness as the cause of the Soweto riots. Kruger (the then Minister of Justice) then banned a number of organisations whose philosophy embraced Black Consciousness. The South African Students Organisation (SASO), the Black People's Convention (BPC), the Soweto Students' Representative Council and many others, were banned. Many other people were imprisoned under the Terrorism Act. Biko, the leader of the Black Consciousness Movement was one of those imprisoned. Assessing the bannings, Kane-Berman (1979:9) argues that "these bannings constituted the severest act of political suppression by the State since the outlawing of the ANC and PAC in 1960."

The Government subsequently appointed the Cillie Commission to investigate causes of the 1976 uprisings. The Commission stated that there was considerable dissatisfaction with the standard of Black education, the quality of teaching, school buildings and equipment. It mentioned other sources of the discontent such as influx control laws and the Group Areas Act. It does seem that the boycotts were a rejection of apartheid as a whole.

The Government later, in 1980, requested the Human Science Research Council to conduct an investigation into education

in South Africa and to make recommendations for education policy. One of the Commissions which constituted the main Committee was chaired by Professor De Lange. Among the recommendations of the De Lange Committee, was the proposal that the State endeavours to establish equal opportunities in education, including equal standards therein, for every inhabitant, irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex. The Committee recommended the creation of a single Ministry of Education for determining macro-policy for the provision of education in the Republic of South Africa.

In 1983 the Government published a White Paper in response to the De Lange Report. Whilst the Government accepted many recommendations of the Committee, it was not in favour of education being centrally controlled. It also rejected the establishment of one single Ministry of Education. While one Ministry of Education may not be a panacea for problems in Black education and dissatisfaction about education, the reluctance of the Government to accede to the recommendations of one Ministry appears to be a thorn in the flesh to Blacks who, up to the present, believe that one Ministry of Education will alleviate most problems in their education.

In conclusion, to a large extent, the handling of resistance to Bantu Education is characterised first by confrontation from the Government and second by an absence of satisfactory measures to satisfy the needs of Blacks in education. This pattern seems to have contributed to the creation of a culture of conflict.

## **2.9 THE CURRENT SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL CONTEXT OF KWAZULU**

It is clear from the above exposition of the socio-economic and political background of education for Blacks that KwaZulu, like other Homelands created by White South Africa, was founded upon a situation fraught with problems for education and for stability and harmony therein. Thembela (1985) supports this view that KwaZulu and Natal are faced with problems in education arising from its background. On considering the geographic, social, historical, economic and political issues in KwaZulu, Thembela (1985) concludes that KwaZulu has more adverse

highlights a number of problems that confront the region, problems which it can be argued, impact not only on planning, but also on the lack of stability in the area. He mentions the economic problems the region faces, limited opportunities and socially disadvantageous conditions which sizeable sections of this area face. Highlighting the probable negative effects of such problems for education, Thembela states that:

Exposure to such conditions and limited opportunities for advancement contribute to deviations from the accepted norms of society. This results in a debilitated society lacking in drive and initiative.

The lack of diversity at home, the unavailability of individualised training give the child few opportunities to organise the visual properties of his environment and thus perceptually learn to discriminate the nuances of that environment  
(Thembela, 1985:8).

As a region of South Africa, KwaZulu encapsulates all the educational problems which South African Blacks experience. In 1985, for instance, the Department of Education and Training announced that all schools falling under its jurisdiction would receive free books and stationery, and that no payment of fees would be required. It allocated further grants to Homelands, so that similar measures would be taken. KwaZulu received R57 million. However, this was very inadequate for the enrolment of pupils in KwaZulu schools. Continued disturbances persisted - one of the issues being insufficient books and stationery.

It is argued in this thesis that not all school conflicts will be related to the socio-economic and political context of education. Yet the social, economic and political circumstances surrounding South African Black education, and in particular KwaZulu society and education, make schools susceptible to conflict. Such a hypothesis is supported by Schlemmer (1985:395-411) when, in his analysis of rebellion theories, he concludes that between four to five out of ten Blacks feel violence is justified in opposing the system. A deduction is also made by Schlemmer (1985:406) that a number of Blacks are exposed to norms justifying violence.

Essentially, therefore, the environment and background of KwaZulu education is an important dimension in this study.

## **2.10 CONCLUSION**

This Chapter has briefly presented the social, economic and political setting of Black education, together with its potential for conflict in schools. The history of resistance and counter-resistance as a manifestation of a form of conflict in Black schools has been assessed. While the Chapter emphasises that school conflicts cannot be solely attributed to the socio-political and economic scenario depicted, it serves to contextualise the study of conflict in schools.

The next Chapter will focus on theories of conflict, with special reference to school conflict.

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# CHAPTER THREE

## THEORIES OF CONFLICT, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SCHOOL CONFLICT

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In Chapter One, in the process of defining conflict, some causes of conflict were identified. In Chapter Two it was shown how the historical background of KwaZulu, and African education generally, encourages conflict. In this chapter a detailed review of theories of conflict will be given. Where necessary these theories will be related to the socio-economic and political context of education which was discussed in Chapter Two.

Researchers have advanced different theories to explain the origin of conflict. Swindle (1976), Rahim (1980), Benyon and Solomon (1987), Cronk (1987), Bloch (1987) and others have proposed a wide spectrum of theories to account for the rise of conflict. In this chapter a multi-theoretical approach towards the explanation of conflict, particularly in education, will be given. In this chapter I argue that conflict is a product of many factors. I therefore refer to a wide number of theories in order to explain the beginnings and trends of conflict.

### **3.2 THE HUMAN NEEDS THEORY**

The concept of "Needs" will be used in this section to refer to important requirements for survival and satisfaction.

Maslow (1970) argues that there exists in people a wide range of needs which determine behaviour and motivation. In his Hierarchy of Needs Theory, he postulates that people have physical needs such as a need for shelter and food. People, he also states, have needs for security, for love, for recognition, for esteem and fulfilment.

The theory of needs as driving forces for human action has been advanced by other scholars, such as Adair (1985),

Jones and Jones (1985) and Burton (1987 and 1990). Jones and Jones (1985:66), for example, maintain that failure to satisfy the needs mentioned above, results in frustration, insecurity, withdrawal, and a persistence to fulfil them even in socially unacceptable ways. They postulate that when children feel that their sense of belonging is threatened, they are likely to withdraw and seek attention through unproductive means. Jones and Jones, further, argue that a need like self-esteem is met out of the satisfaction of other needs, such as recognition, security, love and competence. When these needs are not realised, either in the family or in the school, children strive to acquire significance, competence and power by methods which adults disapprove of.

The view that human needs play a vital role in influencing behaviour has been emphasized by Druikers (1972:34-41). Druikers argues that there are subconscious goals that motivate misbehaviour. Such misbehaviour as attention seeking, power and revenge, is seen by Druikers as an indication of needs for belonging, security or warmth which an individual finds problems in satisfying in ethically approved ways.

The Human Needs Theory thus emphasizes that conflict is a product of unsatisfied human needs. Burton sums this theory up succinctly, as follows :

Conflict is not over objective differences of interest that involve scarcity ...  
It is over fundamental values of security and identity ...

(Burton, 1987:136, 139)

Burton (1987:139) goes on to say that there are universal ontological needs that must be satisfied in the sense that individuals will be disruptive if they are frustrated in their pursuit.

The Human Needs Theory of conflict seems related to other theories such as Deprivation and Interaction Theories as will be shown later.

It seems clear that needs for belonging, identity, esteem and fulfilment characterise human beings. It is also obvious that failure to meet these can generate many problems and frustrations. What seems lacking in this theory is the point that the awareness, frustration and tolerance thresholds of individuals is a factor in determining the eruption or otherwise of conflict. Filley (1975:13-14) points out, as will be explained in detail in Chapter Four, that the potential triggers of conflict (what he calls antecedent conditions) only generate conflict when people perceive them and when they feel them.

However, it may also be pointed out that the socio-political and economic dispensation in South Africa does not provide adequately for the needs of the population under study, as Chapter Two indicates, with regard to education. It can also be stated that resistance by Blacks to the type of education offered to them, as was outlined in Chapter II, clearly points out that this education was, and is, not seen as meeting their needs. The frustration, discomfort and conflict which has characterised Black education gives credence to the Human Needs Theory of conflict. This chapter now moves on to discuss other theories of conflict and, where applicable, relates these to the Human Needs Theory.

### **3.3 DEPRIVATION - FRUSTRATION THEORIES**

These theories propose that conflict occurs as a consequence of a number of deprivations. According to Benyon and Solomon (1987:128-31), social injustice, maldistribution of resources and power and inadequate institutions are some of these deprivations. The deprived group clamours for the resources which they do not have, but which the reference group possesses. The conflict ensues when those who have less access to the resource and who desire it, confront those who have it. Conversely, the haves will want to preserve the status quo, for it assures them control, security and peace. The have-nots will initiate change or call for change to be initiated, in the belief that it is through transformation or instability or turbulence that they can gain access to the required resources. It is the tension between wanting to preserve

the status quo, and law and order on the one hand and introducing change on the other, which may cause conflict to erupt. Such conflict can be expressed verbally or physically.

Swindle (1976:80-81) endorses the above argument. He maintains that with respect to any resource pool, there are individuals who have greater or lesser direct distribution prerogative over that resource. The people with limited access to the resource pool are interested in turbulence or in change, for it promises them access to the desired resource. He hypothesizes that the haves will in all likelihood hold on to their position, so that they retain control over the contested resource.

The Deprivation Theory seems to have relevance to the Black schools under study in a number of ways. The schools operate in conditions where a number of deprivations feature, as Tables 1 - 3 show. Inadequate resources such as classrooms and lack of sufficiently qualified teachers are some of the many deprivations that can render these schools susceptible to a number of problems which are likely to lead to conflict.

Most of the students in these schools are faceless, with a pupil - teacher ratio as high as 1 : 45, or sometimes higher. Chances for recognition of the strengths and potential of each child are slim, as are opportunities for fulfilment and growth. This situation, in turn, encourages a high level of frustration and alone, or with other problems, can lead to conflict. If Druikers' (1968, 1972) contention that behaviour, including misbehaviour, is directed towards social recognition is correct, the apparent lack of opportunities for Black pupils to gain recognition in their schools poses problems for harmony.

It is evident from the above that the Deprivation Theory relates to the Human Needs Theory. It appears that deprivation of whatever kind bars the people affected from satisfying their needs. Linked to the Deprivation Theory is the Interaction-Frustration Theory, which will be discussed in the next section.

### 3.4 THE INTERACTION - FRUSTRATION THEORY

The Interaction Theory of conflict argues that the seeds of conflict lie in the process of interaction between parties. Opposing values, perceptions, attitudes and behavioural dispositions of parties are some of the factors that can cause people to come into conflict. To clarify the Interaction Theory of conflict further, reference is made to the views of Gordon (1974), Cronk (1987) and Pollard (1986) on this subject.

Cronk (1987:1-62) discusses at length teacher power and control in student/teacher interaction. He proposes that teacher/ pupil conflict is a result of the failure of teachers and pupils to relate to each other as persons. According to Cronk, teacher/pupil relationships which are founded purely on the existence of formal power create conflict. The absence of an egalitarian system and lack of belief in the morality and trustworthiness of the other party also result in conflict. Conflict is also caused by failure to address classroom problems squarely and to discuss them openly. The issue of control, in relation to education, has been looked at by others as well. Bybee and Gee (1986) and Pollard (1986) are some of the researchers.

According to Pollard (1986:109-113), there is an inherent conflict of interests between teachers and pupils. Writing about what he calls "classroom interests-at-hand" of teachers and pupils, he argues that both these groups maintain a primary concern with the self, their personhood and sense of identity. This goal is undertaken in the midst of a threatening situation for both educators and students. The former are faced with problems such as high enrolments, inadequate facilities and support systems, and the task of educating the students. The latter face evaluation from their teachers while they have simultaneously to contend with their own problems. Both teachers and students are confronted with a threat to their self image as well as a demand to cope with the situation.

According to Pollard (1986), to maintain order in the teacher-student relationship two possibilities exist : a teacher can either impose order using his or her power or

she or he can negotiate it with students, so that a set of social understandings which define order are constructed. Coercion would be characteristic of teachers who feel their interests are threatened and whose negotiation skills are lacking. Such force would tend to produce tension, anxiety and frustration in students. They are likely to see it as the imposition of teacher power founded on injustice. They may thus resist it and come into conflict with the teacher. In his study on teachers' belief system and behaviour, Harvey (1965:373-381) points out that these are influential factors in students' behaviour and learning. The results of his study showed that teachers' resourcefulness correlated significantly and positively while teachers' dictatorialness and punitiveness correlated significantly and negatively with the nature of students' performance.

The issue of control in pupil/teacher relationships is confirmed by Bybee and Gee (1986:163). They see control as a factor in teacher/student conflict. Talking of the role of the school in student violence, they state that there seems to be inadequate access to the decision-making process by students. While these observations relate to the American education system, they seem to apply to KwaZulu secondary schools as well. Lamentably this situation appears to result in a sense of powerlessness, isolation, anonymity, boredom and insignificance for children within the schools. This tends to generate frustration which is a climate for conflict. A study by Ranford (1968:581-591) presents a similar view. He found that isolation, powerlessness and dissatisfaction with those in authority were important factors contributing to participation in the Watts riots in the United States of America. In these riots, Black Americans were objecting to a perceived political exclusion and impotence to bring about change (Tomlinson, 1968:27-31). According to Bybee and Gee (1986) giving students a role in decision-making and offering fair treatment can increase their commitment and decrease the offences against the staff and school. In some conflicts reported in a number of schools in KwaZulu and other Black areas in South Africa, students' requests or demands for participation in decision-making at school are very common (Bot, 1984).

The issue of control seems related to discipline. According to White (1975:369), in America teacher approval drops after second grade, and punishment is used more than positive reinforcement to induce motivation. De Flaminis (1976) argues that 75% of teachers respond to students with either authoritarian or coercive behaviours, followed by manipulation and persuasion. These practices by teachers were shown to reduce self-esteem and to increase disruptive behaviour by students. With reference to the population under study, the issue of control in student/teacher relationships is under debate. Bot (1984) and other researchers on the current disruption and conflict in Black schools, cite teacher control and corporal punishment as a factor in the current disruption and conflict in Black schools in South Africa.

Teachers' excessive use of power tends to generate extra resistance from students. In Bybee and Gee's (1986:111-112) opinion, it forces students to overvalue their freedom, to become concerned about their rights, to counteract the teachers' control or to resign themselves to the teachers' authority. All these responses and behaviours precipitate conflict.

Gordon (1974:250-281) also makes pertinent observations regarding teacher/student interactions. He argues that the degree of teacher effectiveness in establishing a particular kind of relationship with students is crucial in obtaining their co-operation and in securing mutual rewards. He views the role of teachers as mainly that of being supportive, non-critical facilitators, with a total commitment to the rational ability of a child to identify and solve his or her problems. In terms of this perspective, conflict would arise when teachers impose their authority and values and disregard the child's ability to negotiate and settle his or her problems. In a sense, Gordon (1974) concurs with Cronk (1987) and Pollard (1986) above, on the negative effects of the use of teacher power to force students to conformity or teachers' reluctance to connect with students in working out class or students' problems. Such a situation paves the way for conflicts.

The discussion on problems of control in teacher/ student interaction indicates the level of frustration that this relationship can produce. The frustration can also be exacerbated by factors like lack of participation in decision making and problem solving.

Added to these issues in interaction are problems which students encounter in trying to cope with the curriculum. Mastering the curriculum seems to be an overwhelming task for a number of students in Black schools. Both internal and external pass rates indicate difficulties students experience in learning. The Standard Ten results over the last five years are the clearest example of the struggle Black students encounter with their curriculum. Table 5 in the Appendix shows this. Furthermore, because the very curriculum (both intra- and extra- curriculum) is limited, it is doubtful that students learn what they are interested in and can do. According to Bot (1984:6), with reference to extra-mural activities for instance, most Black schools have one soccer field and the other common "sport" is a School Choir, in which a very small percentage of students participate.

Problems in interaction, coupled with a confining curriculum, put children in a very precarious position regarding their threshold level for engaging in conflict. The dangers of this situation are also indicated by the Safe Schools Study in Bybee and Gee (1986). The authors suggest, on the basis of their research of these schools, that violence tended to be higher where students felt teachers were not teaching courses they wanted to learn.

The problems raised above also contribute to students developing a low level of self-esteem and a lack of personal identity. In other words, work does not seem to present a source of fulfilment, nor does it reinforce a feeling of worth. It seems to present an alienating reality. Zimbardo (1969:251) aptly captures another possible problem arising out of this dilemma. According to him, when individuals are confronted with alienating factors which do not foster personal identity, they can undergo a process of de-individuation. This behaviour is



emotional and impulsive and renders a person susceptible to conflict.

Arguing in a similar vein, Glasser (1969:120) maintains that the problem of misbehaviour of most students results from failure of schools to fulfil their needs. He argues that students want success, self-worth and they aspire to learning. However, the obstructions in the schools, such as being lectured to, being given unappealing classroom topics, having to learn by rote instead of experimentally or by discussion, are all factors which precipitate misbehaviour and conflict.

### **3.5 THE STRUCTURAL THEORY OF CONFLICT**

The Structural Theory of conflict accepts the contention that conflict can be part of social interaction. Social interaction can either display co-operation, or competition and tension.

In connection with the element of tension which may be present in social interaction, Mastenbroek (1987:12-18) points out that in a network of relationships in organisations, there is a tension balance between interdependency of members and a desire for autonomy. He observes that there is a conflict between consensus of ideas of a group and preferences for one's own autonomy and viewpoints, between co-operation and competition for instance. In brief, the very existence of relationships and organisational structures holds a potential for conflict.

Various researchers such as Labovintz (1985) and Robbins (1983) have endorsed the view that organisational structures contain a potential for conflict. From literature on this topic, factors like communication, personal behaviour and the nature of organisations can be responsible for disharmony.

Regarding the nature of organisations as a factor in conflict, organisations expect to have people who share different individual goals to pursue similar organisational goals. They want those who are their members to live up to

similar time orientations and management philosophies. Members are expected to integrate their efforts into a cohesive whole, directed towards organisational goals. The problem arises because of the difficulty in absolutely reconciling individual and organisational goals and philosophies.

Callahan and Fleenor (1988:201-202) suggest that a high level of bureaucracy, certain types of personalities, status and desire for personal gains contribute to conflict in an organisational structure. They state that a high level of bureaucracy may lead to frustration and a search for informal ways of completing tasks. The resultant role breaking may lead to conflict with those who enforce the chain of command.

With reference to personality as a factor in conflict, certain personalities are more prone to generating conflict than others. The variables in personalities which determine this tendency are not quite clear. It is assumed that perception and attitude may be some of these variables. Callahan and Fleenor (1988:215) argue that if the stakes of satisfaction in any situation are high, the issue will be important for parties in that situation. This will encourage assertive or aggressive behaviour in the parties and may induce conflict. Alternatively, interests of parties may be incompatible, rendering a situation a zero-sum game, and fostering a perception that there can only be one winner.

In the next paragraph attention is given to the role of communication in conflict. Research on the part played by communication in conflict often cites misunderstandings as a result of semantic difficulties, or of ambiguities in messages, or of language. Information channels are also seen to be capable of introducing bias or distortion in communication.

Another view on the role of communication in conflict is offered by transactional analysis, as set forward in the work of Harris and Berne (1981) and Berne (1964). Transactional analysis argues that people interact with

each other from one of three ego states. These ego states are called parent, adult and child. According to Davis and Newstrom (1989:260), the parent ego state is protective, controlling, nurturing, critical and instructive. The adult ego state tends to be rational, factual and unemotional, while the child ego state is dependent, creative, spontaneous and rebellious.

According to Davis and Newstrom (1989:267) and Dressler (1985:237-329), transactions may be parallel, crossed or complimentary. Complementary transactions occur when the ego state of one party, for example the sender of the message, complements that of the other. On the other hand, statements made by one party may not connect or link with the appropriate ego state of the other party. This would result in a crossed transaction. When this happens, communication is blocked and conflict often follows.

One other perspective on explaining structural conflict, from the communication point of view, is offered by Makin, Cooper and Cox (1989:29). Their view is a development of transactional analysis and concentrates on the existential positions from which people operate.

The diagram below represents these positions :

**FIGURE 1    EXISTENTIAL POSITIONS**

I'm O.K. You're Not O.K.	I'm O.K. You're O.K.
I'm Not O.K. You're Not O.K.	I'm Not O.K. You're O.K.

Taken from Makin et al 1989:29. Adapted from Ernst, F. 1971. The O.K. Corral.

Quadrants 1, 3 and 4 present a potential for conflict. Quadrant 1, according to Makin et al (1989), represents the position where a person says : "I have value as a person,

so are my ideas, so if there is a problem it is your mistake." Quadrant 4 is the opposite of 1. Quadrant 3 denies value of both parties in a communication transaction. All these three quadrants may raise ill feelings, and cause conflict. They all in different ways deny the worth of people.

Quadrant two indicates a position where there is mutual acceptance between parties that are communicating. It sets a climate for harmonious communication, for acknowledgement of the worth and dignity of both parties.

While the discussion on the structural theory of conflict has focused on bureaucracy, divergent personalities and communication, as contributing to conflict, many other structural variables may precipitate conflict. These variables can originate even in other structures which interact with a particular structure; for example political structural problems affect the school structure and promote conflict there.

Two more points relating partly to structure and partly to social interaction in schools, deserve mention. These are the problem of language, particularly English as a medium of instruction, and the competitive nature of learning encouraged in schools. In most schools the researcher has been to, the students have to do work individually soon after the teacher has given instructions regarding how the task should be done. For most of the children who are in the schools under study, English is hardly spoken at home and English books hardly available. For all students in schools, English is their second language. What happens when students do or write work given is that they rely on the language experience they have and this is limited. The problems of understanding and comprehension become acute. This is worse when children may not readily talk about the problem or task, so that they help one another to improve their understanding of instructions before they write tasks. Rousseau (1991) argues that talking about a problem helps children check their interpretation of the instructions or problems. She demonstrates how one instruction has many interpretations, hence talking about

the instruction and the problems improves understanding. This practice is, as said earlier, not common in Black schools. It is argued here that the problem of not understanding tasks alone may create frustration, affect performance and the students' sense of self-esteem. This, in turn, may encourage conflict.

### **3.6 THE MEDICAL AND FRICTION THEORY OF CONFLICT**

The medical model of conflict views conflict as a cancerous growth within an otherwise healthy society (Swindle, 1976). While the presence of conflict may be symptomatic of problems to be attended to in an organisation or society, it does not necessarily mean that the organisation or society is sick. The medical view pre-supposes one way of solving conflict, namely removing it. It does not accept it as part of an organisation.

The friction model postulates that conflict is inevitable in social interaction (Milton, 1981; Swindle, 1976). The friction model further argues that conflict is part of a healthy, changing and growing society. This view maintains that communities are dynamic and act of their own volition. The dynamism of a society is, in other words, seen to hold potential for conflict.

### **3.7 THE CONSPIRACY THEORY OF CONFLICT**

This theory asserts that conflict is caused by outsiders (conspirators). Hartley (1988:81), in discussing perceived causes of conflict in KwaZulu and Natal, states that one of the explanations is that it is the work of outsiders. In the researcher's view the implication of this theory is that the society in question is free from conflict or variables which, at one stage or another, can trigger conflict. One issue which this theory does not address is, how does it happen that 'outsiders or conspirators' are successful in triggering conflict in one society and not in others. Why do they choose a particular society? Finally, this theory does not only assume that the particular society is not prone to conflict, it also assumes that it is highly susceptible to influence.

While this theory also attempts to explain how conflict

occurs, it denies the possibility that a particular society may even, with or without outside influence, be vulnerable to conflicts. Further, it implies that the particular society would be susceptible to outside influence when it has no reason to engage in conflicts. Finally it undermines the maturity and judgement of people who, it claims, would be influenced in the way suggested.

This Chapter is to conclude by looking at the Social Identity and Riff-Raff Theories of conflict.

### **3.8 THE SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY**

This theory postulates that individuals seek positive social identity and positive self-concepts based on their group memberships. It states that groups try to achieve positive distinctiveness for themselves in order to protect and maintain their self-esteem as group members (Stephenson, 1981:20).

According to this explanation, inter-group conflict does not require a clash of values or interests; it may be motivated by a concern for identity. The social identity theory, therefore, argues that in-group versus out-group identification can cause competitive inter-group differentiation, even in the absence of conflict. Such differentiation can graduate into conflict.

It would seem that while identity fosters security, it may also cause an apparently insatiable need for domination. This seems problematic, particularly where identity, affiliation or even nationalism is based on unquestioned solidarity. It would seem that the underlying reason for conflict from the perspective of this theory centres around the need to ensure security. Group identity appears to offer such security, while the other group poses as a threat.

### **3.9 RIFF-RAFF THEORIES**

Riff-Raff Theories see riots as being perpetuated by the most worthless and disreputable people, the riff-raff society. Benyon and Solomon (1987:30) maintain that individuals will wilfully cause riots because they want to

loot or rob or because the behaviour is exciting or is the current, preferred activity in the crowd.

Riff-Raff Theories see inadequacies in human nature which propel men to violence and vandalism. It would seem that in cases where people behave in the manner described, socialisation has either been inadequate or people have not responded to it, and pursued desired values. Alternatively, Riff-Raff Theories could give credibility to instinctual theories of conflict which state that man has retained the primitive instincts which drive him to aggression. However, it must be noted that the qualification of riff-raff is a relative one. The culture of the group to which the people behaving in this deviant manner belong may approve of their behaviour, and all that may be at stake is the clash of values of the sub- and the dominant culture.

### **3.10 A FRAMEWORK TO ASSESS CONFLICT IN KWAZULU SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

The Human Needs Theory is essentially the framework against which conflict may be assessed in KwaZulu. It will also be argued that structural, individual and group factors as well as relationships in the school system may encourage or discourage the satisfaction of human needs.

A schematic presentation of the framework which will be used to explain conflict in this research follows. This framework is an adaptation of the Human Needs, the Structural and the Transactional Analysis Theories.

**FIGURE 2 : A PROPOSED MODEL OF CAUSES OF CONFLICT**

REALITIES EXPERIENCES EVENTS	MEANING/ EXPERIENCE, OR INTERPRETATION OF REALITY/ EXPERIENCE	REACTION/ ACTIONS	THREATENED OR UNSATISFIED NEED
E X A M P L E S			
LACK OF RESOURCES	FRUSTRATION	INSECURITY, VIOLENCE.	SUCCESS, SECURITY AND FULFILMENT.
LACK OF PARTICI- PATION IN DECI- SION MAKING.	LACK OF POWER. FEELING NEG- LECTED, OPPRESSED.	PROTESTS, DEMANDING PARTICIPATION.	RECOGNITION.
FAILING TESTS OR EXAMINATIONS.	LOW SENSE OF SELF WORTH, FAILURE.	WITHDRAWAL. AGGRESSIVE- NESS. ALIENATION.	SELF-ESTEEM.
NAME-CALLING.	HUMILIATION.	ANGER.	RECOGNITION AND DIGNITY.

**3.11 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has presented a wide range of conflict theories. This was essential to understand and appreciate the complexity of the origin and nature of conflict.

I would like to conclude this chapter by pointing out that the Human Needs Theory forms the basis for explaining conflict. This chapter is a background to the next one, which reviews literature on conflict management.

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# CHAPTER FOUR

## LITERATURE REVIEW ON CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter briefly presents a divergence of historical perspectives on conflict management. Against this background, it reviews literature on conflict management. It discusses methods, techniques and stages of conflict management, in various settings generally and in schools in particular. The Chapter is a development of the previous one which examined theoretical interpretation of conflict.

### 4.2 PERSPECTIVES ON CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

The classical period theorists on management such as Taylor (1947), and the humanistic theorists such as Likert (1976) and Herzberg (1966), saw conflict as destructive to the life of an organization, and as disruptive to well ordered efforts towards conducting activities that led to goal attainment (Robbins, 1983; Owens, 1981).

Classical theorists believed in, among other things, conformity to scientific principles to ensure work efficiency and effectiveness. They proposed that conflict could be handled by tightening rules and exercising rigid control within an organization (Tausky, 1978:128). A classical mode of managing conflict during this period was dominance or suppression (Hanson, 1979:170).

Humanistic thinking on the other hand, viewed conflict as evidence of an inability to develop appropriate norms. It also regarded it as a symptom of a breakdown of healthy and normal interactions among groups and within the organization.

The humanists such as Likert (1976) and Mayo (1933) were, in other words, shifting a focus of management. They were objecting to a management philosophy that exalted the interests of the organization above those of the individual. They were arguing for the importance of interpersonal relations and of the individuals in the organization, a stand which was a departure from the machine model or the classical period.

According to Robbins (1983:333) during the Humanistic period it was maintained that conflict was a dysfunctional outcome resulting from poor communication and lack of openness and trust between people. Conflict was also viewed as an indication of a failure of managers to be responsive to the needs and aspirations of their people.

Tausky (1978:90-91) remarks that classical theory believed that the individual and the organization's interests were in opposition. The Humanist theorists, on the contrary, believed that the individual and the organizational objectives in the work setting could actually be reconciled. This observation explains the suppressive tendency of dealing with conflict by the machine model. It also accounts for the perception of the Humanistic thinking that conflict was an abnormality, a deviation from a normal state of co-operation (Callahan and Fleenor, 1988). Humanistic thinking also saw conflict as failure to balance organizational goals and worker needs.

In summing up the two philosophies, it can be stated that whereas the classical theorists managed conflict by altering the technical system, Humanistic theorists dealt with it by a focus on, for example, developing happy and congenial relationships. Humanists attached importance to individual participation in the organization and on emphasizing a supportive work environment.

Robbins (1976:103) argues that the view which states that conflict can be purged or eliminated is simplistic. His perception is shared by Milton (1981:426-427) and Swindle

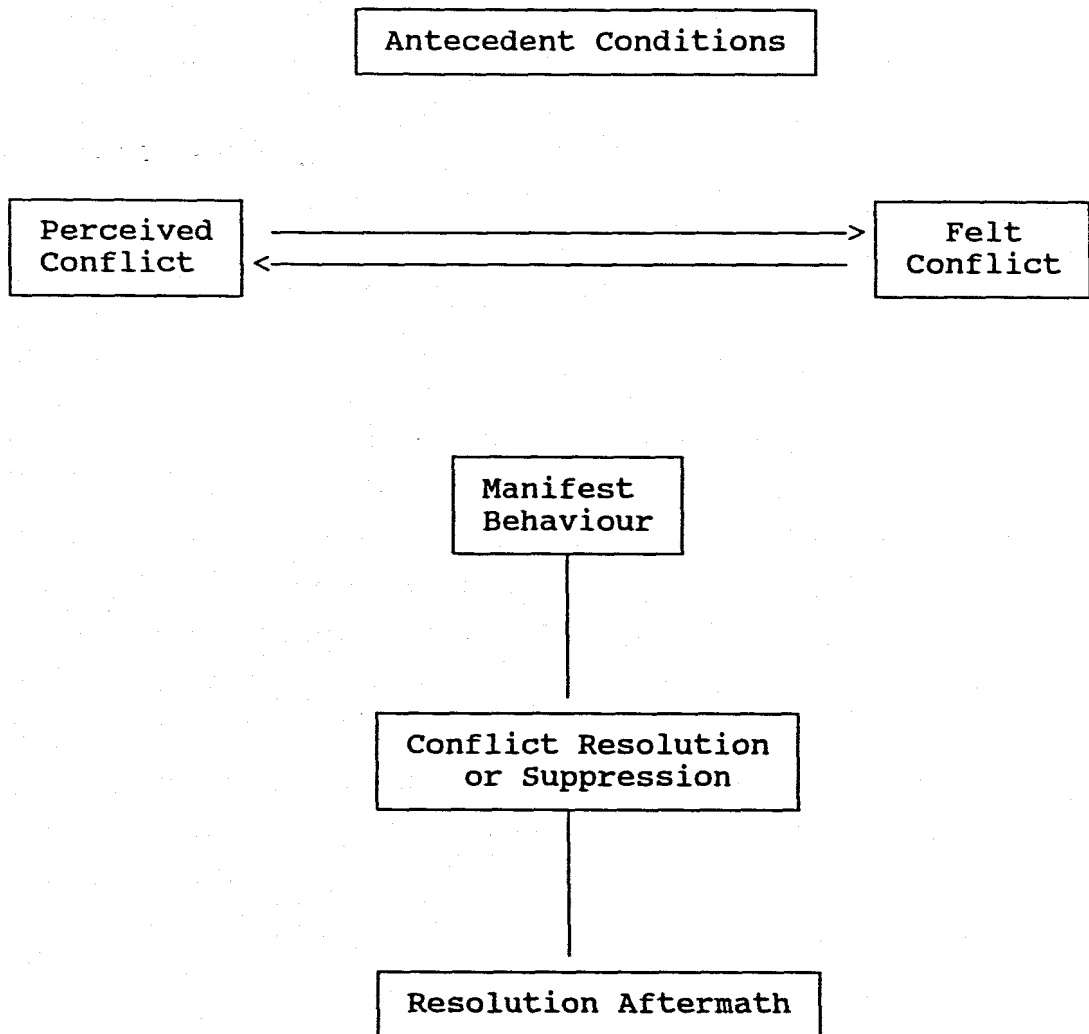
(1976:62-63) who contend that conflict is inherent in the life of any organization, as Chapter I of this project explains. Robbins (1976) and Milton (1981) argue that conflict is neither functional nor dysfunctional; it is the type of conflict and the manner of handling it which matters. Literature on conflict since the post-Humanistic period abounds with styles and approaches of managing and resolving conflict, as will be shown later.

One other view of conflict management that deserves mentioning is the interactionist one (Robbins, 1976). The interactionists accept conflict as inevitable. However, they go beyond this point by *explicitly* encouraging it on the grounds that too much harmony and peace in any organization can lead to apathy and a lack of dynamism. This perception is backed by Milton (1981:421). This view of conflict is, firstly, an extreme departure from the ones discussed earlier and is, secondly, an encouragement to managers to maintain an on-going level of conflict, enough to keep the organization viable, self-critical and responsive to the needs for change and innovation. The argument on stimulating conflict will be pursued in greater detail, when conflict management is further reviewed below.

#### **4.3 STAGES OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT**

Filley (1975), Pondy (1967), Dressler (1986) and De Villiers (1985) see conflict as a process. De Villiers (1985:49) states that there is the pre-conflict stage, the period when the potential for conflict is latent, then there is the actual conflict and the after-conflict period. Filley (1975:8) also sees conflict as a process. The diagram of the conflict process by Filley (1975:8) is as follows :

**FIGURE 3 : THE CONFLICT PROCESS**



**SOURCE : FILLEY 1975:8**

If conflict can be construed as a process, so can conflict management. In the next section conflict management as a process is discussed.

#### **4.4 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT PROCESS**

##### **4.4.1 Preventive Conflict Management**

Bisno (1988:70) states that preventive conflict management is founded on the assumption that the outcomes of conflict may not be conducive to gaining the objectives of parties or of the organization. De Villiers (1985:49) sees preventive conflict management as encompassing the whole spectrum of understanding the dynamics of the potential for

conflict in people. De Villiers does not explicitly point out the significance of such understanding. To the extent that he also uses the concept pre-care as synonymous with conflict prevention, it is deduced that he sees such understanding as essential in preventing conflict.

Literature on conflict management suggests a number of techniques to prevent conflict. The following are some of the techniques.

**(a) Collaborative Goal Setting**

Divergent and opposing goals were cited in Chapter I, as one of the causes of conflict. Caldwell and Spinks (1988:187-188) motivate for collaboration in goal setting in an organization. They argue that openness and interaction in the process of setting goals allows the expression and sharing of individual and group preferences. Collaboration is, therefore, seen as reducing the chance of misunderstanding - for all parties are presented with information on which preferences of colleagues are based. The argument is that this reduces the extent of making uninformed judgements by any of the parties.

Duke and Meckel (1980:96-106) while motivating for mechanisms of addressing disciplinary problems make pertinent views about collaboration. They argue that students, administrators, teachers and parents should collaboratively decide on school and classroom rules. They should deliberate also on consequences of breaking these rules. Duke and Meckel see collaborative goal setting as significant in promoting commitment and harmony in other school related issues as well.

Caldwell and Spinks (1988:36-38) on discussing the role of a mission statement in a school, advocate a collaborative way of designing it, on the understanding that collaboration will promote commitment and reconcile different views. Bybee and Gee

(1982:139-140) also see collaboration as significant in preventing conflict.

Some writers, however, take issue with collaborative management and collaborative goal setting. According to Bush (1986:63-64), the decisions in collaborative interactions may be made by people who lack relevant experience and expertise. Furthermore, Bush argues that collaboration may be difficult to sustain in view of the fact that teachers and principals are also accountable to other groups, whose expectations and policies may be antithetical to the process of and ideas emanating from collaborative interactions. Bush (1988:64) sums this dilemma as follows :

participation represents the internal dimension of democracy. Accountability may be thought of as the external aspect of democracy

The question one can ask from this will be : *Will the democracies be reconcilable?*

Interesting arguments for or against collaborative goal setting are powerful. Nevertheless, it is discussed as an option to consider in preventive conflict management.

**(b) Appropriate Specification of Responsibility**

Arnold and Feldman (1986:231) suggest clarity in the assigning and co-ordinating of work activities among people, as a way of preventing conflict. A clear specification of responsibility seems to be a development of the 'Division of Work' principle of Classical thinking referred to earlier. Its proponents argue for it on grounds that it provides scope to reduce conflict related to autonomy. In this direction, standard steps of planning, determining who will do what, when, how and why, are seen as helpful. Various authors on the administrative process of planning, organizing, supervising and control concur with this view.

In line with specification of responsibility, Laferla (1988:29-32) mentions awareness of the role of

colleagues and co-ordination as a means of reducing conflict. Laferla recommends neutralising inter-dependence of activity, that is, implementing a well-established system of communication whereby individuals and departments know how their activities relate to or affect others, and whereby they are provided with an opportunity to develop appreciation of problems which face their colleagues.

Specification of work and awareness of what colleagues do, seem vital. The emphasis given to job description in industry and tertiary institutions, as well as in other contexts, bears testimony to the role of this technique. Advertisements for posts in Universities and companies in South Africa often place emphasis on job descriptions. It appears that unless there is division and specification of work, any work belongs to anybody and nobody. It would also seem that the absence of job description allows workers to define sought productivity randomly. This is a situation which may be giving people a '*blank cheque*'. Thus it may pave the way for a conflict of expectations. Clearly a job description and the resultant job specification is valuable only if it does not stifle worker creativity.

Further it is essential to communicate a job description clearly, especially where the role incumbent did not participate in formulating it. Gorton (1980:315) recommends that a job description must be communicated regularly to all groups concerned. He also argues that it plays a major role in preventing conflict.

**(c) Early Identification of Latent Conflicts**

It has been argued in the preceding chapters that conflict is inherent in the life of organizations like schools. Developing sensitivity to the existence of conflict and using different mechanisms to detect it, have been suggested by Flipppo (1980) as useful in preventing it. Flipppo (1980:358-360) mentions creating a grievance procedure or suggestion

box, establishing an open door policy and allowing free expression of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Bisno (1988:37) agrees with Flippo on letting people express their dissatisfaction. He refers to institutionalised dissension, a technique whereby organizational or group members are allowed latitude to express objection to a given situation or policy. By making dissension part of the norm in a school, researchers such as Flippo (1980) and Bisno (1988) maintain that some conflicts can be better handled before they become intense. Apparently this technique is seen to allow for catharsis which has a calming effect on people. The technique paves the way for an appreciation of issues which, if ignored, could lead to serious conflicts. This technique is related to (d) below.

(d) Exposure of differences before they become serious conflicts

This skill involves presenting both sides or all sides to an argument and engaging in ways of legitimising the argument. Bisno (1988:64-65) as well as Duke and Meckel (1980:79) advocate this view. Duke and Meckel, when writing about school conflicts, motivate for negotiation of a solution between teachers and students in a conflict, before the conflict becomes too serious.

The question of handling differences before they become major conflicts has some validity. However, it is felt that the technique needs to be applied with discretion since some differences may be too minor to warrant attention. Of interest here is the question of what could make nipping differences in the bud a viable skill to prevent conflict. In responding to this, one has recourse to the literature on perception. Sources on perception such as De Bono (1986:10) argue that the way a person behaves is a logical progression from the manner he or she sees his/her world, and the environment.



Therefore, co-operation in tackling differences seems helpful in so far as it can afford people time to adjust their perceptions and presumably and consequently, their behaviour. Such adjustment may then bring about harmony.

(e) **Establishing Hot Lines**

Using the hot line or open door policy is seen by some researchers as an informal and quicker way of communication. Laferla (1988:30) supports the idea that hot lines are seen as allowing clarification of issues and possible misunderstanding which could generate conflict.

(f) **Diffusion of Conflict Management Skills**

Faconti (1987:26-27) comments on an experiment to teach conflict management skills at Mt. Diablo in the United States of America. The purpose of the experiment was to teach students skills of managing conflict collaboratively. Faconti advocates the idea of familiarising teachers, students and any other school constituents who are accessible, with conflict handling skills. The status and worth given to interpersonal skills, including conflict handling skills in the literature on personnel management, bears testimony to the validity of the view raised by Faconti.

(g) **Modification of the Work Environment**

According to Gordon (1974:156) teachers can prevent many unacceptable behaviours of students with relative ease, simply by modifying the classroom. They need to confront the physical and psychological characteristics of the classroom, and not necessarily the student. This view is held by Everston and Emmer (1982) and Duke and Meckel (1980). One view underlying this technique is that a drab, barren and uninspiring learning environment helps create situations where behaviour problems are more likely to occur. Such problems may lead to conflict.

Jones and Jones (1981:71-74) and Good and Brophy (1984:70) uphold the importance of modifying the work and social environment. They suggest the development of functional classroom norms that support academic achievement and desirable social behaviour. They also recommend establishing positive student-student and student-teacher relationships. Finally, using teaching methods that facilitate effective learning has been suggested as helpful in preventing conflicts in class.

(h) **Practising Effective School Management**

This technique may contribute significantly to harmony in class. Duke and Meckel (1980), have as shown in 4.4.1 (a) touched on it. A number of steps can be taken to effect harmony in class. Some steps include tactics such as establishing a positive climate for learning, and development of high levels of engagement in academic tasks. Everston and Emmer (1982:20-32) suggest producing patterns of learning-orientated behaviour, setting norms in favour of tasks and co-operation and developing student accountability in order to reduce conflict.

Calhorn (1967:250) makes special reference to personnel-management-related factors. Calhorn suggests better training in understanding behaviour, in integrating task requirements with individual growth and in affording greater responsibility to the individual. He also proposes impersonality in establishing task objectives and in reviewing rewards and punishment systems.

These views have been supported by other writers on personnel management, not only because they promise a potential for preventing conflict, but also because they relate to effective management. Herzberg (1960), for example, in his Two-Factor Theory on Motivation in (Hunsacher and Cork, 1986:163) argues that job challenge, recognition, achievement, opportunity for advancement and responsibility are motivators. Further, the theory of management by

objectives, advanced in literature on organizational behaviour, emphasizes among other things, objectivity in reward and punishment systems.

It would, therefore, seem that effective task and personnel management, among other things, reduces the chances for conflict.

#### **4.4.2 Management of Existing Conflict**

##### **(a) Identification and Diagnosis of Conflict**

Identification of conflict has been named as one of the steps towards conflict management. According to sources such as Bohmers and Peterson (1982) and Burton (1987), the definition and identification of conflict is an essential step in the exercise of conflict management.

Brown (1984:230) and Feldberg (1975:158) support the view that diagnosis is a crucially important phase of conflict management. Brown suggests that a manager needs to identify a few factors before a conflict is dealt with. He or she needs to determine the nature of conflict. A manager must also decide what his/her role is in a conflict and must be aware of the nature of relations among conflicting parties. The issues raised by Brown suggest that there is a relationship between conflict diagnosis and conflict management. In diagnosing a conflict situation, principals or teachers would need to be able to be objective. For them to be seen as objective, they must earn trust from disputants, otherwise the latter may not co-operate. Alternatively, the principal or teacher himself or herself also acts as a facilitator of trust, as he or she diagnoses the conflict. The significance of establishing a relationship of trust is pointed out by a number of researchers on conflict management. The section on negotiation below illustrates this point. Without this it is difficult to see how parties in a conflict would be open to share their feelings and views.

(b) Considerations Governing Conflict Management and Conflict Handling Styles

Thomas (1976:145) comments on considerations governing conflict resolution. He states that the resolution of conflict is influenced by: the degree to which an attempt is made to satisfy the other party's concerns (co-operativeness) and the degree to which effort is exercised to satisfy one's interests (assertiveness). These dimensions, namely co-operativeness and assertiveness, give rise to distinct conflict management behaviours such as competition, avoidance, accommodation, compromise and problem solving.

Alkire (1988:19-21) seems to agree with Thomas on issues which underlie conflict management behaviours. He suggests that the desire to satisfy one's interests or the other party's interest influences the outcomes of conflict management.

Recent literature on conflict such as Burton's (1987) and (1990) seems to concur with the observations of the other writers. However, there are slight variations, as will be shown in pages that follow. This section is now going to move to discussing conflict handling behaviours.

The first behaviour to be discussed is competition or coercion. Coercing is an attempt to satisfy one's own concerns at the expense of the other party. Alkire (1988:19) states that this style emphasizes the accomplishment of one's position, goals or interests. The feelings of others as well as their interests are disregarded. The style is characterised by dominance and aggression. Filley (1975:26) associates such a style with the perception that conflict management is often seen in zero-sum terms. In other words the practice of this style reflects that in a conflict there are winners and losers only.

Qualifying these behaviours, Spinks and Caldwell (1988:189) observe that competition is characterised by high assertiveness and low co-operativeness. Proponents of this style seek to satisfy their concerns at the expense of others if needs be.

The next behaviour is accommodation. This style seems to satisfy the concerns of the other party at one's expense. Therefore conflicts are managed through surrender or acquiescence.

Low assertiveness and high co-operativeness is the norm in accommodation behaviour. Accommodation is meant to appease.

One other style is avoiding conflict or withdrawing from it. Low assertiveness and low co-operativeness characterise avoidance. Arnold and Feldman (1986:224) aptly qualify this as a 'no behaviour' one. This absence of behaviour neither meets one's concerns nor the other party's.

The fourth strategy is compromise. It aims at meeting one's own interests and partially the other person's.

The last behaviour is collaboration. This is concerned with addressing the concerns of both parties to the conflict and with focusing on the problem. High assertiveness and high co-operativeness are the basis of collaboration.

Clearly each style of conflict management has its strengths and limitations as Hellviegel and Slomm (1989:589-595) and Arnold and Feldman (1986:223-224) indicate.

It will be useful to discuss when each style of managing conflict may be helpful. However, before that is attended to, attention will be given to variations of conflict management behaviours. Arnold and Feldman (1986:224-227) group the strategies of

conflict management into conflict diffusion ones, conflict management ones and conflict confronting ones.

In conflict diffusion strategies, managers may choose smoothing over the conflict. They may point out to the group that differences are not major and may highlight similarities. Stoner and Wankel (1986:390) see smoothing as a way of dominance, or a suppression of conflict. Alternatively, conflict can be defused by appealing to a superordinate goal. Here management diverts attention from the current conflict to the over-reaching aims both groups share. Smoothing, in the view of the researcher, is aligned to avoidance or suppression.

The other set of conflict management behaviours, which is called containment, does not seem to focus on the problem either. Compromise and bargaining are examples of conflict containment strategies as Arnold and Feldman testify (1986).

Finally there is the conflict confrontation category. Filley (1975), Stoner and Wankel (1986) and Arnold and Feldman (1986) identify integrative problem solving and consensus as examples of conflict confrontation. Obviously, this classification of conflict management behaviours is more or less the same one which Thomas (1976) identified, as discussed earlier. The main difference is in the grouping of styles rather than in the philosophical considerations governing them.

Attention is now given to the appropriateness of the different styles of conflict handling behaviours, to various situations. First, there is no best behaviour for all situations. Spinks and Caldwell (1988) as well as Thembela (1988) hold this view. Nevertheless, certain behaviours are seen to be more appropriate than others to certain situations.

Callahan and Fleenor (1988:216-217) refer to a study

conducted with a group of executives on their use of the five conflict management styles, with special attention to when they would use each of the strategies. Competition was found to be appropriate when, for example, quick decisions were needed or when an unpopular decision had to be implemented. Williams (1985:36) agrees with Callahan and Fleenor that competition is used when there is an emergency or when the solution is pre-determined.

While these are advantages of competition, the researcher believes that competition may also strain relationships and lead to lack of support. This view is backed up by Cawood and Gibbon (1980:90). They state that this strategy may encourage the defeated to sabotage the success of the winners.

With regard to accommodation, the report of the executives referred to earlier, stated that accommodation is useful when, for instance, one party wants to allow a better position to be heard. It also found out that accommodation helps when issues are more important to the other party or when one wants to build social credits for later use (Callahan and Fleenor, 1988). Gordon (1983:323) agrees with this view. However, it is also noted that while yielding has important strengths, it also has potential limitations, such as causing a lot of suppression of one's feelings, particularly if the one who yields is correct.

As far as avoidance is concerned, Callahan and Fleenor (1988) state that their study found it useful when, for example, an issue is trivial or when there is no chance of success in pursuing one's concerns. Yet avoidance does not seem to solve the conflict. This is confirmed by Gorton (1980:324) who states that avoidance techniques do not really resolve conflict, but rather circumvent it. However, Gorton concedes that avoidance techniques may be necessary in situations in which the other party clearly possesses authority, power or influence to force his

or her will. It may also be necessary, Gorton continues, when negative consequences would result from a more active or aggressive approach.

Callahan and Fleenor (1988) see compromise as helpful if the nature of a settlement is beneficial to all parties, or when both parties are of equal power. Compromise also works when there is concern to arrive at expedient goals. Filley (1975:90-92) disagrees with the view that compromise leads to winning.

Finally, a look is taken at collaboration. Research from the study discussed by Callahan and Fleenor (1988), states that this strategy is useful when, for instance, an integrative solution is sought. Collaboration was also found appropriate where the concerns of both parties are too important to be compromised. It is remarkable that other terms used in literature as synonyms for collaboration, are integrative decision making or problem solving (Filley, 1975 and Pondy, 1967).

Williams (1985:36) maintains that a collaborative style occurs only when the participants are genuinely trying to reach a solution to a difficult problem. This view is shared by others such as Gordon (1983). To the extent that collaboration calls for fact finding and systematic decision making, as will be illustrated later, it can only be used when both the parties believe each can contribute to the solution of the problem. According to Alkire (1982:19) collaboration also seems possible when there is readiness for growth and change. However, it may not be applicable when an immediate solution is needed, because the process of getting to a joint agreement is long. This point is to be discussed in detail later - when characteristics of Win-Win Models are reviewed.

#### **4.4.3 MODELS OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT**

According to Filley (1975), Gordon (1983) and Gorton (1980) the following approaches to conflict



management exist : Win-Lose, Lose-Lose and Win-Win. However, other writers such as Neustrom and Davis (1989) argue that rather than 3, there are in fact 4 approaches to conflict handling : Win-Lose, Win-Win, Lose-Lose and Lose-Win. In the former classification, it seems Win-Lose and Lose-Win approaches are grouped together.

In Filley's opinion (1975), when one party sets out to win and defeat another, the Win-Lose model is in operation. Competition and dominance are popular styles here. In the Lose-Win Model, a party may be accommodative and give the other scope to win. Davis and Neustrom (1989) also maintain that parties in a conflict may avoid it and may both find themselves worse off than before, regarding the particular conflict. This then would be the Lose-Lose method. Yet when parties focus on goals as well as ends and both aim at solving the problem or the conflict, the Win-Win model is in operation. In the next section a review is made of the characteristics of various models of conflict management.

**(a) Characteristics of Win-Lose and Lose-Lose Models**

It has been stated above that compromise, accommodation and competition tend to result in Win-Lose models of handling conflict, while avoidance is associated with the Lose-Lose approach.

Filley (1975:25) presents a few, very pertinent characteristics of Win-Lose and Lose-Lose models. He states that :

- (i) There is a clear we-they distinction between the parties, rather than a we, versus-the-problem orientation.
- (ii) Energies are directed towards the other party in an atmosphere of total victory or total defeat.
- (iii) Each party sees the issue from its own point of view, rather than defining the problem in terms of mutual needs ...

- (iv) The parties are conflict orientated emphasizing immediate disagreement, rather than the relationship ...

Gordon (1974:174-249) supports Filley's contention, at least as far as Win-Lose models are concerned. In talking about what he calls *Methods I and II* of managing conflict by teachers and students, he identifies problems of win-lose methods.

According to Gordon (1974:179-249), teachers who employ Method I to manage or resolve student-student, or student-teacher conflict, rely on power based authority to coerce students to conform. They punish or reward students physically or verbally. Students react by engaging in coping mechanisms whereby they appear defeated. They may rebel, resist, defy, lie, sneak or gang against teachers. Alternatively, the reverse may happen. Students may solve their conflicts with others, teachers included, by being set on winning. Teachers may then react by becoming bitter towards, or submissive to, or avoiding of students. Students may be using what Gordon calls *Method II*, the reverse of *Method I*. Both methods I and II suggest behaviours where the focus is purely on satisfying one's interest, to win a conflict.

Bisno (1988) suggests a series of behaviour, verbal and non-verbal, which are examples of Win-Lose and Lose-Lose methods. He refers to what he calls the covert (silent) means of managing conflict (Bisno, 1988:80-81) and cites strategies such as passive resistance, verbal or unexpressed negativism, non-compliance and stone-walling (Bisno, 1988:80-81). Managing conflict by covert means may, according to Bisno, also extend to manipulation, which is symbolised by such techniques as divide and rule, deceit and seduction. All these are applications of Win-Lose, or Lose-Lose Models.

(b) Characteristics of Win-Win Models

Contrary to Win-Lose or Lose-Lose models, Win-Win

methods are I (We) and you, that is We-versus the problem. Both parties in a conflict attempt to stand together and resolve the conflict (Filley, 1975 and Gordon, 1974). In Win-Win models like consensus and integrative decision making, which are to be discussed shortly, parties in a conflict seek essential points of difference rather than determine who is wrong or right. Callahan and Fleenor (1988:207) maintain that through communication and a sharing of feelings, the problem is mutually defined. Similarities are emphasized and the participants consider a full range of alternatives towards solving the problem. The process of problem solving is to be discussed in the following section.

Burton (1987:145) concurs with the views stated above on the nature of Win-Win models. He argues that problem solving implies exploration whereby, through an analytical approach, an option is discovered that satisfies the interests and needs of all parties who face the problem. Put differently, problem solving or a Win-Win model is a Human Needs theory of managing conflict. This is so when one accepts the Human Needs theory of conflict (as explained in the preceding chapter) which argues that basic to all conflicts are unmet needs like security, identity, fulfilment, recognition and love. When a Win-Win model is used, it is most likely that whatever need exists will be met.

However, Burton adds that in problem solving, there is the guidance of an experienced third party, familiar with the problem solving process. He or she can be employed as a negotiator or, preferably, as a facilitator to enable parties in a conflict to resolve the problem. Duke and Meckel (1980:168) concur with this view and suggest a trained resource person in situations where conflict cannot be resolved at the classroom level between teachers and students. This resource person will be available to hear both sides of the issue and assist in negotiating a settlement. The role of a mediator in

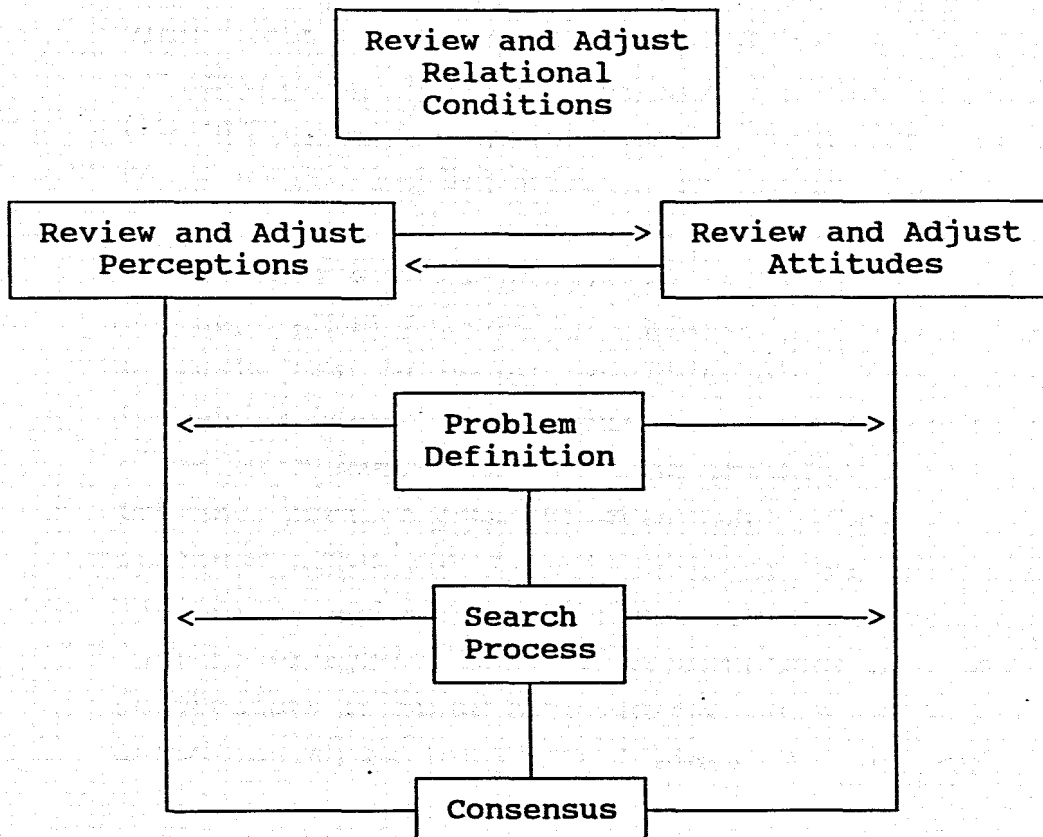
conflict resolution is reviewed in 4.4.4 (b) below.

In the remainder of the discussion on Win-Win models, a survey of kinds of collaborative methods is made. This is followed by a review of literature processes like negotiation and mediation which are used in conflict management or resolution.

- (i) Kinds of Win-Win Models : According to Filley (1975) and Schuimick, Runkel, Arends and Arends (1982), integrative decision making and consensus are common methods of Win-Win models. However, other writers such as Stoner and Wankel (1986:391) see consensus and confrontation as part of integrative decision making. The debate is not relevant to this project. Suffice to state that they are all techniques of Win-Win models. Below is a review of integrative decision making, consensus and confrontation.

Integrative decision making is a process. It starts from the definition of the problem stage to the solution of the problem. It is similar to group problem solving and decision making. Stoner and Wankel's (1986:391) exposition of the concept also hold this view. According to Filley (1976:94) the process of integrative decision making is as follows :

**FIGURE 4 : THE INTEGRATIVE DECISION MAKING PROCESS**



**SOURCE : FILLEY 1975:94**

**Review and Adjustment of Relational Conditions:**

The validity of the role of this step in solving conflicts is implicitly acknowledged by Schumick et al (1982:197-214) when they talk of setting the stage for problem solving. This step is defined by Filley (1975:94) as identifying conditions antecedent to conflict, then adjusting them to promote co-operation and to avoid conflict.

**Review and Adjustment of Perceptions and Attitudes :**

This implies that parties in a conflict review their perceptions and attitudes, to try and adjust them.

In Chapter I, the role of perceptions and attitudes in conflict was highlighted. It is, therefore, logical that review of perceptions and attitudes be an integral part of Win-Win models. Where conflict

is resolved through mediation, review and adjustment of perception can be facilitated by the mediator. Coupled with the review of perceptions and attitude is the review of facts. Gorton (1976) supports this view when he states that whatever 'factual' information each party presents, particularly about the other, may only constitute facts for him/her. Hence validating information is essential.

The technique of validating perceptions is supported by Ray (1986:288-289). However, Gorton (1976) suggests that since parties to a conflict are likely to have a negative attitude, it is recommended that a mediator meets with each separately first. This prevents parties from attacking each other. Separate meetings allow for time to help groups behave more rationally and see each other more positively. The researcher agrees that the crucial step of reviewing perceptions is important. However, the mechanisms of doing so can be left to individual situations.

The next step in integrative decision making according to Filley (1975) is problem definition (Filley:1975). Burton (1990) upholds the step of problem definition in conflict resolution. After the problem is defined, the search process for an alternative solution is made. According to Filley (1975) and Burton (1990), the emphasis in this exercise is a focus on goals and ends, as well as on mutual needs. In other words, conflict resolution through integrative decision making makes it possible for parties to have a problem solved without sacrificing their objectives and needs.

Integrative decision making is a collaborative process where a problem is converted into a joint problem solving situation. Collaborative systematic problem solving and decision making are used to arrive at solutions.

Before the review of integrative decision making is concluded, a few assumptions underlying the process

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Before the review of integrative decision making is concluded, a few assumptions underlying the process

need to be highlighted. Collaborative conflict resolution is premised on a very high balance of efficient handling of task and maintenance needs. The methods within this model are pinned on the assumption that there will be adequate focus on information-seeking, on gathering and clarifying relevant facts (Moore, 1988:29-33 and Filley, 1975:25-27).

Integrative decision making is further founded on the assumption that the atmosphere between the parties will be warm, friendly and conducive to openness and responsiveness. The method assumes that the group will attempt to harmonise, reconcile differences and create an atmosphere where members can freely air their views and feelings.

Collaborative conflict handling suggests that symmetrical power relations between teachers and students will be encouraged. It assumes that in junior-senior or leader-follower conflicts, like pupil-teachers or pupil-principal, there will be least resort to power to manage conflict.

To conclude on examples of Win-Win models, a review of consensus and confrontation in relation to integrative decision making is made. As indicated above, consensus is either seen as a method of Win-Win models in its own right or as part of integrative decision making. The view upheld in this project as far as the topic is concerned, is that there is an overlap between consensus and integrative decision making.

The distinction by Filley (1975:26) between consensus and integrative decision making is, however, helpful. Filley (1975) states that in consensus there is no polarised conflict among the parties involved. The method is used to solve judgemental problems of selecting from a variety of solution strategies. He sees integrative decision making, on the other hand, to be more useful when parties are polarised. The



difference between the two is in degree rather than in kind. One more interesting distinction of consensus is offered by Schumick et al (1982:324). Here they state that, among other things, in consensus those who doubt or disagree with the decision are nevertheless prepared to give it a try for a given time, without sabotaging it. The rigour in consensus and integrative decision making may not be equal, but both honestly consider needs and feelings of all parties.

Finally, there is confrontation. According to Stoner and Wankel (1986:391), in confrontation the opposing parties state their respective views directly to each other. They examine the reasons for the conflict and methods of resolving it are sought. It is the view of this researcher that confrontation is part of integrative decision-making as described above.

#### **4.4.4 SOME PROCESSES USED IN CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND RESOLUTION**

In the next section a brief discussion of negotiation and bargaining, mediation and arbitration will be presented. This will be related to the conflict management models referred to above.

##### **(a) Negotiation and Bargaining**

Negotiation has been defined in many ways. Moore (1988:13) states that it is a problem-solving process where two or more parties voluntarily discuss differences and attempt to reach a joint decision on their common concerns. This definition is held and clarified by Mastenbroek (1987:85).

Mastenbroek (1987:85) sees negotiation as possible when individuals' interests are opposed, but when there is also a high degree of dependence on an agreement that has advantages for all parties. This view of negotiation is confirmed by Lowe and Pollard (1989).

A comparison between negotiation and bargaining will

further clarify negotiation. Nieuwmeyer (1988:7-9) offers a few definitions of negotiation and also contrasts it with bargaining. She maintains that negotiation is co-operative and bargaining is competitive. Moore (1988:24,29), however, offers another definition of bargaining. He sees bargaining as having two facets : interest based bargaining and positional bargaining.

Interest based bargaining is, according to Moore, a strategy that focuses on satisfying as many interests or needs as possible for all negotiators. Then there is positional bargaining which is competitive and sees the other negotiator as an opponent, hence the goal is to win, and defeat the opposition.

It can be concluded, therefore, that negotiation can be synonymous with bargaining, only if the latter is viewed as a co-operative enterprise. It is also clear that negotiation is more comprehensive than bargaining. Negotiation is discussed further below to determine its nature as a process.

Negotiation as a conflict handling tool involves dialogue. The role of dialogue in negotiations and conflict management is acknowledged by Walton (1987:87-107), Freire (1972) and Alschuler (1980:63-70). Alschuler (1980) argues that dialogue involves mutual respect and trust in working out the rules that govern relationships.

Dialogue, according to Alschuler (1980) and Freire (1972) makes it possible for negotiators to realise that they both have legitimate needs. This realisation tends to soften tones of voice and increase respect for the other person. It also supports the search for mentally satisfying positions. The role of dialogue in conflict resolution is further endorsed by Kreidler (1984:82-103). Kreidler emphasizes communication skills such as observing, being aware of perception and what affects it, listening carefully, clarifying

perceptions and understanding communication blocks. It is apparent that dialogue is the means to get negotiators together. It keeps them in the same world of communication and ensures that the process of negotiation is maintained and is fruitful.

Further, negotiation demands exhaustive preparation in addition to dialogue. This view is held by many writers such as Moore (1988) and Nierenberg (1968:45-60). Nierenberg argues that negotiation calls for thorough preparation such as knowing the rules and being familiar with the negotiation technique. Both Moore and Nierenberg suggest a series of steps in preparation for negotiation. Some of these steps are: evaluating and selecting a strategy to solve the problem, contacting the other party to state the desire to negotiate, working out the venues and times and designing a negotiation plan.

Fisher and Brown (1987:107-108) further state that part of the elements of a working relationship in negotiation is trustworthiness, without being wholly trusting. They also list rationality, understanding, communication and acceptance as important in negotiations. This view is held by Moore (1988:36). Moore comments that building trust and co-operation means focusing on dealing with relationship needs and promoting a climate for negotiation. It also means developing strategies to cope with strong feelings and emotions, and to check perceptions.

The steps in the negotiation process reflect similarities with integrative decision making and consensus. This view is held by English when he says:

The management of conflict means establishing the conditions by which conflict can lead to mutual explorations and new levels of consensus in problem solving.

(English, 1975:163)

(b) Another pair of tools used in conflict handling is mediation and arbitration. Arbitration and mediation involve third parties in managing conflict. Nieuwmeyer (1988) defines mediation as a process through which disagreements are reached with the aid of a neutral third party. The third party should have no decision making powers and have no interest in either of the two parties. He/She is a communication and problem solving catalyst. The final assessment rests with the conflicting parties. Kimbrough and Nunnery (1983:544) assert that mediation and arbitration are two of the three intervention processes by third parties, the third process being what they call fact finding.

Mediation, according to Kimbrough and Nunnery, is the first step a third party takes to help the disputing parties reach a settlement. If it fails, they argue, fact finding follows. In some instances, arbitration is resorted to. Arbitration is seen as the last process in the sequence of application of the three processes.

In Kimbrough and Nunnery's view, fact finding and arbitration are alike. In both cases a third party who is mutually chosen conducts hearings, takes testimony and renders a decision on the issue. On the other hand mediators do not take decisions about how the conflict is resolved. They merely facilitate the conflict resolution process.

The researcher finds it difficult to conceive of professional mediation without fact finding, in the sense of establishing an objective picture. It would be expected rather that there is an overlap between fact finding and mediation and fact finding and arbitration. Further, in education, one would think that arbitration will be the last resort. From the researcher's knowledge of and experience in Black education, mediation as defined above is not yet common. Its possible role and usefulness is worthy of future research.

In paragraph 4.4.4 (b) reference was made to two conditions for mediating. These were that mediators must be neutral and have no decision making power. While neutrality of mediators seems essential, it is difficult to envisage mediators without decision making powers in conflict in schools in which the research is done. At the moment, personnel who act as mediators in Black schools are teachers and principals. Whether and how these can relinquish their decision making powers, is not yet clear.

In the remainder of this chapter, a few techniques of managing current conflicts will be identified and reviewed.

#### **4.4.5 SOME TECHNIQUES OF MANAGING CURRENT CONFLICTS**

- (a) **Expanding Resources** : The technique of expanding resources has been suggested in literature on conflict as one way of dealing with conflict. Milton (1981:435) also recommends this technique as one of the means of handling structural conflicts. Spinks and Caldwell (1988:88) argue that resources will often be scarce and competition for scarce resources is virtually inevitable. They recommend careful budgetting to minimize conflict over limited resources. However, in the opinion of the researcher expanding resources has restricted value where resources are seen to be unavailable or are not adequate.
  
- (b) **Altering the Human and Structural Variable** Callahan and Fleenor (1988:208) and Robbins (1974:72-73) suggest altering the human and the structural variables as conflict handling techniques, where applicable.

Callahan and Fleenor (1988:208) see altering the human variable as a means of influencing human attitudes. Altering the human variable is a technique which is used to help people expand knowledge and understanding of issues in their situation. This understanding paves the way for co-

operation. The discussion earlier on review and adjustment of perceptions endorses this thinking.

Altering the structural variable has been suggested by authors such as Milton (1981), Schumick et al (1982) and others, as a consideration in conflict emanating from structural factors. Callahan and Fleenor (1988:208) also recommend the technique of effecting structural changes to manage conflict.

Improving communication channels and promoting organisations as communities are examples of altering structural factors Kreidler (1984) and Ngcongo (1991).

Thus far a series of conflict handling techniques for current conflict has been reviewed. Without exhausting all, the section now looks at ways of dealing with potential conflict.

#### **4.4.6 STIMULATING CONFLICT AS A CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STRATEGY**

The models and techniques of conflict management discussed above, refer particularly to conflict that has erupted or is out in the open. However, some conflicts may be hidden. They may not surface. These may need to be exposed in order to be resolved.

Bisno (1988:76) and Robbins (1974:109) argue for stimulating conflict as a model of managing conflict that has not surfaced. Bisno (1988) goes on to explain that generating conflict is an appropriate approach when non-conflictual means are ineffective in promoting professional or social goals intended, or when the influence of power to conduct conflict is available or when it is estimated that the costs of not engaging in conflict would be high. Stoner and Wankel (1986:388) as well as Milton (1981:428) endorse the view that there is sometimes a need to induce conflict. Milton (1981) maintains that constructive conflict is necessary for new challenge, for stimulation of problems and solutions, for

successful adaptation to change and for survival.

It does seem that a measure of conflict is essential and it behoves management to encourage the necessary amount of conflict (Stoner and Wankel, 1986:387-388). Below are some of the techniques for stimulating conflict.

(a) Generating Conflict Management Capabilities

Enabling others to realise their power in confronting conflict and effecting change is essential. Freire (1972), Alschuler (1980), and Bisno (1988) support this view.

Alschuler (1980:85) argues that one way in which people can position themselves to deal with conflict is to develop what he calls consciousness of oppression. This enables them to move from "magical transforming" and "naive-reforming" stages of wanting change, to a critical transforming stage.

In the magical transforming stage, according to Alschuler, difficulties are seen as inevitable and unchangeable facts of existence. The analysis of facts is magical; the causes of these facts are seen to be beyond explanation. It would seem that conflict, from the magical transforming perspective, is managed by accommodation, resignation and the like.

In the naive transforming phase, problems are seen to lie in individuals who deviate from the idealised rules, roles, standards and expectations. People either blame others or themselves for problems experienced.

In the critical transforming stage, people in a conflict exercise their skills in critically identifying the rules and roles in the system. The system may be the classroom, school or political one. Whatever it is, it creates unequal power. A diagnosis and analysis of the situation is made to

determine the rules and roles that generate conflict.

Particular attention is paid to how the affected people have colluded in supporting the conflict-producing rules and roles. Everybody concerned acts to transform those aspects of the system.

The above exposition made by Alschuler (1980) is held by Freire (1972:119; 1985; 1986). Freire (1985 and 1986) maintains that human beings emerge from the world, objectify it and in so doing can understand it. From there the involved parties transform the undesired reality with their labour. Thembela (1983) and Nxumalo (1990) concur with the view that the human mind has the capacity to perpetuate problems or transform undesired realities. The thrust of this argument seems to revolve around placing significance to dialogue and, particularly, problem solving as a model of dealing with conflicts.

- (b) Bisno (1988:76-79) also mentions three other techniques of stimulating conflict. These are developing confidence in conflict management, exposing a false consensus and providing opportunity for the articulation of significant difference.

Developing confidence in conflict management and providing opportunities for handling significant differences were shown to be useful in dealing with existing conflicts as well.

Stimulating conflict may prove to be a very sensitive and demanding exercise. Gordon (1976) cautions that there is likely to be an error in calculating outcomes. He maintains that administrators must consider all of the possible ramifications before initiating conflict. He also mentions the demands of this exercise such as extreme calmness and rationality.

The chapter will now turn to dealing with conflict aftermath.



#### **4.4.7 MANAGING CONFLICT AFTERMATH**

Milton (1981:434) acknowledges the conflict aftermath stage. He maintains that it is the consequence of the conflict resolution method used. Milton does not take up a clear position on the method of managing this stage.

De Villiers (1985:31) also posits that when conflict has been resolved, there is a need to de-emotionalise the situation and re-establish relationships. This prevents the emotional residue from increasing or from creating further potential for conflict.

This chapter will end with a reviewing of ideas by scholars who have researched specifically on conflict in schools.

#### **4.5 OTHER SCHOLARS' VIEWS ON TEACHER-STUDENT, PRINCIPAL-STUDENT AND STUDENT-STUDENT CONFLICT**

Researchers on conflict in schools have suggested various methods of managing it. Some of these methods are useful in dealing with conflict in any setting besides schools. Transactional analysis is one example of these methods (Harris, 1969).

Raths, Harmin, Merrill and Simon (1966), Harris (1969) and Gordon (1974) believe in an underlying cause of misbehaviour and of conflict. They recommend that conflicts with students can be solved by appealing to a child's reasoning. They advise that a child who is involved in conflict must be helped to clarify his or her values. According to Raths et al (1966) and Gordon (1974) a teacher's role in assisting students to manage conflicts is to affirm the student, to acknowledge him or her as a capable person. The teacher is essentially a facilitator in a child's efforts to solve conflict.

Druikers (1968) and Glasser (1975) like Gordon (1974) and Raths et al (1966) believe in an underlying cause for conflict. However, they do not agree that appealing to the child to choose the right value is sufficient to help in managing conflict. These researchers maintain that, in

managing conflict with students, teachers must take more command. While these authors agree with Gordon (1974) and Rath et al (1966) that students must take responsibility for their actions to solve their problems, they add that teachers must clarify, delineate and enforce boundaries. Teachers can delineate and enforce boundaries by, for example, determining students' 'faulty goals' and working out a clear plan to assist students solve the problems which generate conflicts (Druikers, 1968:44). Examples of faulty goals which students may pursue are power, control or revenge.

Canter and Canter (1976), Madsen and Madsen (1974), Dobson (1974) and Engelman (1969) maintain that in solving differences with students, it is essential for teachers to manipulate external stimuli to cause students to behave as desired by the school.

Unlike Gordon (1974) and Rath et al (1966) these researchers do not believe solely in the inherent rationality of the child to manage discipline problems and conflicts.

#### **4.6 CONCLUSION TO THIS CHAPTER**

In this chapter, various perspectives on conflict management were discussed. A review of methods, techniques and stages of conflict management was also conducted. Finally, an appraisal of ideas on conflict management in schools specifically was made.

The next Chapter, on methodology of the research, follows.

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

#### 5.1 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS USED AND A RATIONALE FOR USING THEM

This is a descriptive research which has made use of questionnaires and interviews. Ndaba (1975:32) mentions an essential value for this kind of research. He argues that the primary objective of descriptive research is to investigate the present status of phenomena, to uncover the nature of factors involved in a given situation and to determine the degree to which these factors exist. Descriptive research also shows the relationship which exists between phenomena (Ndaba, 1975).

Sidaki (1987) and Dumisa (1989) are some of the researchers who have used interviews and questionnaires and provided valuable contributions. Through her research entitled : The Teaching of Zulu as a First Language with Special Reference to Spoken Language, the Written Language and Grammar in KwaZulu Junior Secondary Schools, Sidaki identifies the problems which beset the teaching of Zulu as a first language. She also makes valuable recommendations towards improving the teaching of Zulu as a first language. In his study entitled : An Investigation into the Relevance and Effectiveness of the Primary Teachers' Diploma Music Syllabi, Dumisa shows how the Primary Teachers' Diploma syllabi is relevant to Black needs. At the same time he demonstrates the existence of imbalances between the prescribed work and allocated time in this music syllabus.

Both interviews and questionnaires have significant advantages. When questionnaires are used, for example, all respondents get questions phrased in exactly the same way. This eliminates inconsistency in the way questions are asked. Interviews allow researchers the opportunity to question areas of enquiry. Turney and Robb (1972:135) maintain that interviews permit greater depth of respon-

siveness and allow the researcher to get information concerning feelings and emotions in relation to certain questions.

However, interviews and questionnaires also have disadvantages. One disadvantage of questionnaires relates to poor returns. Sax (1979:245) states that poor returns increase the likelihood of biased sampling. There can also be a problem in using questionnaires if respondents are illiterate.

Regarding interviews, a lot of time is necessary to administer them. Sax (1979:245) also states that where interviews are unstructured, they may not be completely circumscribed. Respondents are thus free to interpret questions as they see fit. Hence problems may arise when responses must be summarized, categorised and evaluated.

The disadvantages of interviews and questionnaires were counteracted in this investigation. The researcher personally delivered the questionnaires. In this way, she created an opportunity to establish rapport with the teachers, to explain the purpose of the research and to ensure that all respondents had the same understanding of each item. Delivery of questionnaires allowed for 100% returns.

The researcher also prepared a structured interview for the principals. This was useful in categorising and evaluating responses. However, during the interview, some principals initially showed unwillingness to supply the researcher with a case which manifests conflict. The researcher gave examples of what she was looking for. She also asked follow-up questions whenever possible to get details. Further, the researcher attempted to build a relationship of trust with the principals. Measor (1985:57-58) emphasises establishing a relationship of trust with interviewees as a prerequisite to getting honest responses. In the context of this relationship each principal talked as freely as possible about a case of student-student, student-teacher or student-school conflict.

In addition to interviews and questionnaires, the researcher used participant and retrospective observation.

Through participant observation the researcher observed incidents where there was conflict between students and teachers or students and the school or students and students. Retrospective observation was used when there was no conflict at school, at the time of the researcher's visit. Through retrospective observation principals were requested to recollect one case of conflict between students, or between students and teachers or between students and the school. The recall period for conflict cases was three months.

## **5.2 PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE RESEARCH**

Permission to conduct the investigation was secured from the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, from the Circuit Inspectors and from principals of schools.

**5.2.1 PERMISSION FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE** was given following submission of the proposal for the study and of the testimonial required by the Department from the study supervisor.

### **5.2.2 PERMISSION FROM THE CIRCUIT INSPECTORS**

Letters were written to circuit inspectors asking for permission to conduct research in their circuits. Mention was made in the letters of the fact that the approval of the Department of Education and Culture to visit the circuits for the purposes of the research had been obtained. A certified photocopy of the permission letter from the Department was attached to the letter to circuit inspectors. Some circuit inspectors responded and gave their permission in writing. Follow ups, telephonically, were made to inspectors who did not respond after a month. Eventually all circuit inspectors contacted gave their approval.

### **5.2.3 PERMISSION FROM PRINCIPALS**

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### **5.2.3 PERMISSION FROM PRINCIPALS**

Letters were also written to principals to request their permission. However, principals in the Umlazi

area were approached personally by telephone because the Umlazi circuits are close to where the researcher works and lives. A letter from the circuit inspector and the Department of Education and Culture, whereby the researcher was granted permission to conduct research, was shown.

### **5.3 SAMPLING**

The research necessitated three samples, namely a sample of circuit, a sample of principals and one of teachers.

#### **5.3.1 Sample of Circuits**

Five circuits were chosen out of twenty-five circuits in KwaZulu. This represented 25% of the circuit population. Two circuits were metropolitan, two were semi-metropolitan and one was non-metropolitan. The circuits selected were Umlazi North, Umlazi South, Mpumalanga, Umzinto and Madadeni.

#### **5.3.2 Sample of Schools**

Lists of secondary schools were obtained in each chosen circuit from the respective offices. Each circuit has between thirteen and thirty-six secondary schools. A sample of ten schools was chosen in each circuit. This represented 30% or more of the school population in each circuit. Gay (1976:66) recommends 10% as a minimum sample size. The principals of the schools which were chosen were interviewed.

#### **5.3.3 Sample of Teachers**

In the schools chosen, four teachers of those who had been employed for a year or more at that school were selected randomly. Hitchcock and Hughes (1991:81) define random as a procedure whereby the sample ... 'is chosen purely randomly from the identified population'. Random sampling is based on probability theory that is, it assumes that each individual or element within a target population has an equal chance of being chosen to be interviewed or to fill in a questionnaire. The researcher believed that teachers with less experience of their particular schools would not be familiar with the school policy

and practice regarding conflict management in their schools.

#### **5.4 LOCATING SCHOOLS**

The researcher did not know the exact location of all schools chosen. The physical location of the schools was thus determined by area or street maps and through local persons familiar with the area.

#### **5.5 ADMINISTERING THE INTERVIEWS AND QUESTIONNAIRES**

##### **5.5.1 The Pilot Study**

This was conducted with five schools at Umbumbulu circuit. The purpose was to check the clarity of items, to determine how data would be analysed and to detect any problems which would need attention when the actual study was done.

##### **5.5.2 The Actual Study**

After securing the necessary permission from the respective inspectors and principals, the researcher went to each circuit and stayed for about five to eight days. She would, as stated earlier, get a list of the teachers who had a year's experience or more in a school. The researcher would then have a brief meeting with the respondents to discuss the questionnaire. The teachers would, thereafter, be left to complete the questionnaire at a time they found convenient. The questionnaire would be collected at a time which was agreed upon by both the teachers and the researcher.

The researcher interviewed principals during the period she spent in each circuit. She asked each principal to share with her a case of conflict, either between students or teachers and students or students and the school. Where a principal did not have an example of a current case of conflict, she or he was asked to give an example of conflict which had occurred in the school at any time during the previous three months.



Each principal was asked to state the nature of the conflict case and the problem which had given rise to it. Principals were also to describe how the conflict was managed and what was the outcome.

In addition to conflict data which was collected through interviews and questionnaires, three cases were obtained through participant observation.

## **5.6 MANNER OF ANALYSING DATA**

### **5.6.1 DATA FROM QUESTIONNAIRES TO TEACHERS**

Firstly, from the two hundred responses from teacher respondents, methods used by teachers to deal with student conflict were identified and categorised into the following :

- A.(i) Punishment or Discipline students corporally.
- A(ii) Defend Teacher Authority.
- B. Would like to punish students, but do not because .....
- C. Ignore students' conflict
- D. Advise students
- E. Other
- F. No Response
- G. Investigate

The categories of handling conflict are also plotted in a graph with regard to each item. Regarding category E, namely 'other' methods of handling student conflict were itemised during the analysis of data.

Secondly, the impact of each of the categories on dealing with student-student, student-teacher and student-school conflict was evaluated. This was done by studying teachers' comments on the degree of the occurrence of the conflict behaviour following the use of the chosen method to deal with that conflict. The following categories were designed to assess the impact of each method of handling conflict by teachers.

- A. Conflict behaviour stops.
- B. Conflict behaviour decreases.
- C. Conflict behaviour remains the same.
- D. Conflict behaviour becomes worse.
- E. Conflict sometimes lessens, sometimes increases.
- F. Conflict behaviour stops as the mechanism in question is used, but it (conflict) resumes, when the mechanism we use to deal with it, is not used.
- G. No response.
- H. Unusable response - These are responses which did not throw any light on what happens when a particular method is used to deal with student conflict. Responses such as "I do not know", "Only serious students listen" and "Students must learn to be responsible", are examples of unusable ones.

#### 5.6.2 RESPONSES FROM PRINCIPALS

Items one - five are also plotted on graphs.

An analysis of conflict cases was also made. (The conflict cases themselves are in Appendix 9). In the analysis of the conflict cases, the nature and apparent source of each case was given, and the techniques used to handle each case was identified. The outcome or result of each conflict is determined. The key used to identify techniques used to solve conflict is the following :

Aggression, Force, Competition	= AG
Avoidance	= AV
Resistance	= RES
Problem Solving or Collaboration	= PS
Compromise	= COMP
Information Sharing & Communication	= INFO
Stimulating/Generating Conflict	= ST
Negotiation	= N
Other Techniques	= O

Each of these keys is prefixed by S if it was used by students, T if it was employed by teachers, P if used by Principals and PR if used by parents.

The numbering of cases of conflict in the analysis corresponds to that used in Appendix 9. This was done to simplify reference to the details of each case.

Further, in the analysis of cases of conflict, three categories are used. These are student-school conflict, student-teacher conflict and student-student conflict.

(The summaries of techniques used by all actors in the school to resolve or manage conflict was made).

Once the data was analysed in Chapter Six and interpreted in Chapter Seven, it was then determined whether the questions raised in Chapter One in the research and the assumptions stated in Chapters One and Seven could be accepted or rejected.

## **5.7 CONCLUSION**

In this Chapter a description of the research instruments which were used to collect data was made. The Chapter also discussed sampling procedures followed as well as the manner in which data was analysed. The next Chapter analyses data.

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# CHAPTER SIX

## ANALYSIS OF DATA

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter, only a documentation and analysis of data is done. Certain significant features of the respondents' reactions are highlighted. This chapter is different from the next one which interprets data. Before data is analysed, assumptions of the study will be re-stated. Assumptions are as follows :

### **6.2 ASSUMPTIONS**

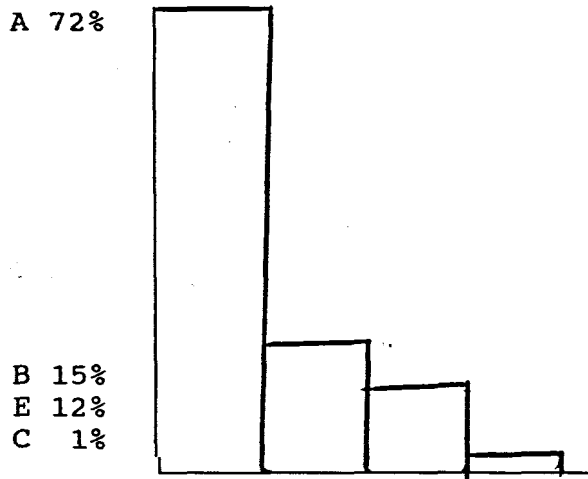
- 1(a) That principals and teachers in secondary schools in KwaZulu tend to use power-based and authoritarian methods to deal with students' conflict.
- (b) That these methods do not necessarily resolve student-student, student-teacher and student-school conflict.
2. That problem-solving as a conflict handling method is rarely and minimally used by teachers and principals.
3. That ignoring or accommodating conflict is of uncertain benefit.

Below is an analysis of data.

### **6.3 CATEGORIES OF METHODS OF DEALING WITH CONFLICT**

#### **(a) Item 1 - Latecoming**

With regard to this form of student conflict, teachers' responses are as follows :



Where

A = Punish students.

B = Would like to punish them, but do not for the reasons to be given below.

E = Use other methods, (which are also tabulated hereunder) and

C = Ignore this offence.

Of those who would like to punish students, but do not, the following are reasons :

5% state they fear student retaliation.

2,5% maintain students assault them.

2,5% state that there is no transport to take students to school on time; taxis which often transport kids are either unreliable or sometimes unaffordable to some students.

2% of teachers fear retaliation by students' friends who are not scholars.

,5% the Department of Education plus parents, they say, have forbidden punishment.

,5% state children have demanded that punishment should not be used.

,5% report that students prefer punishment to be meted out by their own disciplinary committee.

,5% report that principals prefer to mete out punishment to students, rather than allowing teachers to do so.

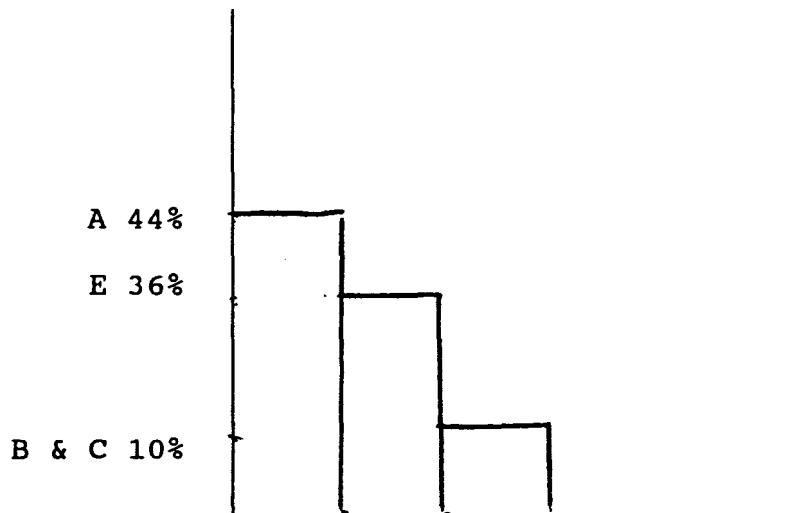
- ,5% state that students carry dangerous weapons like knives and guns and thus it might not be safe to punish them.
- ,5% argue that punishment makes students more delinquent.

With reference to other techniques used to deal with latecoming, the analysis is as follows :

- 3,5% make students clean premises.
- 1% negotiate solution with or without parents.
- 1% contact parents and seek joint counselling.
- 1% keep students outside classrooms until the end of the period.
- ,5% not applicable.

(b) Item 2 : Absenteeism for an unacceptable reason

Responses to this item were as follows :



Where

- A = State they punish students.
- B = Would like to punish students, but do not because of reasons supplied below.
- C = Ignore absenteeism.
- E = Use other methods to be listed below.

The following are the 'other' methods used :

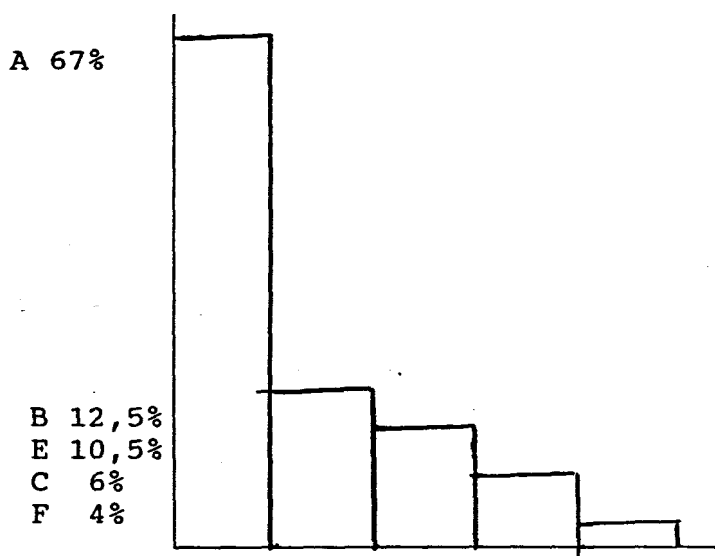
- 16% warn and threaten students with punishment.
- 9% request letters from parents or students guaranteeing that the student will not be absent in future for trivial reasons.
- 5% investigate reasons behind absenteeism and advise students against it.
- 4% counsel students against absenteeism.
- 1% give students the duty to seek information he or she missed during absenteeism.
- 1% record the offence and confront students at the end of the week or month.

The following are reasons why some teachers do not punish students, even if they would like to :

- 3,5% report they do not punish students for this behaviour because students do not accept punishment and schools are simply abnormal.
- 1% state they cannot notice absent students as there are too many students in class.
- 1% report that students are forced to be away during stayaways.
- 1% maintain that certain political organisations ruled that punishment be abolished.
- 1% state that they do not punish students for this problem because parents are responsible. They send students on home-errands during school time.
- ,5% allege that students attend tribal camping.
- ,5% claim that there are no guidelines for punishment.
- ,5% state that class teachers seldom see their classes to notice absenteeism.
- ,5% allege students retaliate if punished.
- ,5% maintain punishment without knowing reasons is futile.

(c) Item 3 : Truancy

Responses to this item are as follows :



#### Where

- A = Teachers report that punishment is meted out to students for this behaviour.
- B = State that they would like to punish students for this offence, but do not for reasons which will be stated shortly.
- E = Report that they use other methods to handle student conflict.
- C = They maintain that they ignore this problem.
- F = They did not respond.

Of those teachers who want to punish pupils, but may not the following are impediments :

- 4% report that students are not willing to take punishment.
- 2,5% say they now fear students.
- 1,5% feel punishment does not help them.
- 1,5% maintain parents are protective and students are not punished at home.
- 1% state corporal punishment is not allowed.
- ,5% state students prefer to use their own disciplinary council.
- ,5% say students carry dangerous weapons and punishing them might be inviting trouble.
- ,5% believe students purposely leave school and return to school, later, drunk.
- ,5% want to find reasons first.

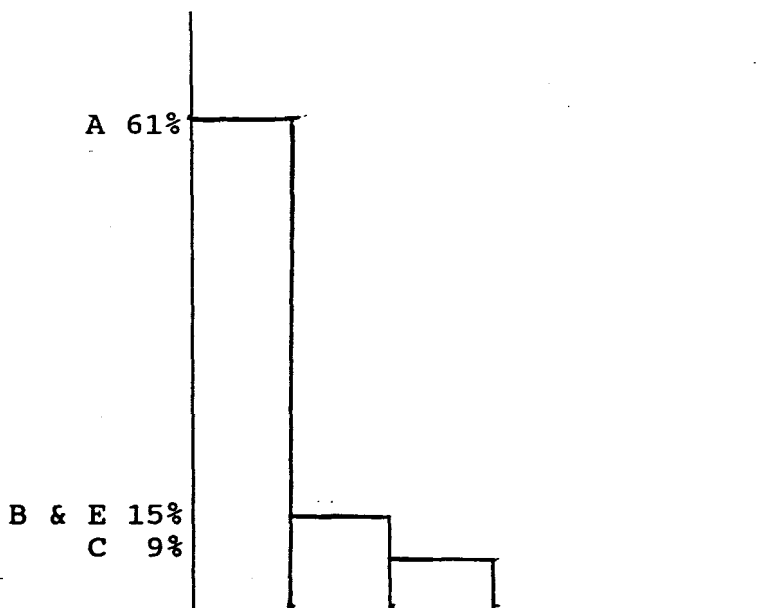


The following are 'other' methods used by teachers :

- 5% advise students privately or in conjunction with parents.
- 2% investigate and punish students.
- 1,5% motivate students to attend school by telling them of the importance of school.
- ,5% threaten to punish.
- ,5% encourage students to read the Bible and learn to be good.
- ,5% try to make the classroom an interesting and inviting place for students.
- ,5% give pupils manual labour.

(d) Item 4 : Students' refusal to do homework or classwork

Responses to this item are as follows :



Where

- A = Teachers punish students for this behaviour.
- B = They would like to punish students, but do not for the reasons to be tabulated below.
- E = They use other methods which are also given here.
- C = They overlook this problem.

Of those who want to punish students, but do not, the following are reasons :

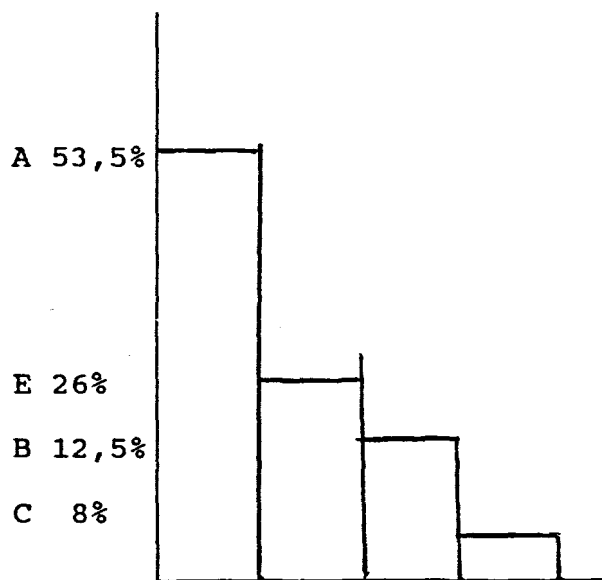
- 2% state students do not have enough books.
- 2% say students threaten to retaliate.
- 2% feel family conditions, for example slums, make it impossible for students to do homework.
- 1,5% report that students feel intimidated by punishment and refuse it.
- 1,5% maintain students have to go on camp, on chief's instruction.
- 1,5% maintain that students seem to see certain subjects as irrelevant to their interests. Afrikaans and Good Citizenship were examples cited.
- 1,5% state refusal to do homework is sometimes disguised - for example, homework is done haphazardly.
- 1% maintain that parents do not give students time to do homework.
- 1% feel it does not help to punish students, for those who dodge homework are too many.
- ,5% simply feel it does not help to punish them.
- ,5% state that students have valid reasons (like lack of books) for not doing homework.

Of those who use other methods :

- 6% state they motivate students by telling them they should do their work.
- 4,5% send students to principal for advice, warning or punishment.
- 3% say they give students a second chance to do the work.
- 1% argue they overlook this problem.
- ,5% maintain they attend to co-operative ones and forget unco-operative ones.

(e) Item 5 : Students copying classwork or homework

Responses to this item are as follows :



Where

A = Punish students.

E = Use other methods.

B = Would like to punish students, but do not for reasons to be tabulated below.

C = Overlook this behaviour.

The following is the spread of the 'other' methods used :

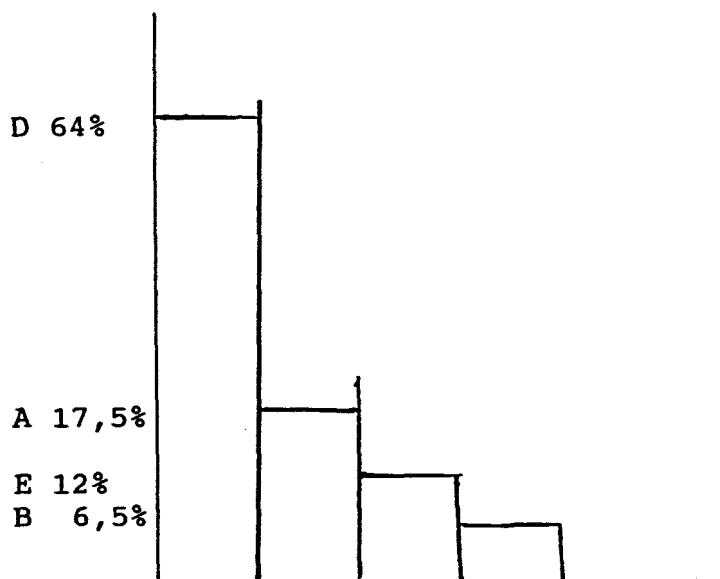
- 8% advise students against copying and encourage independent study.
- 5% ask the guilty students to rewrite the work under supervision.
- 5% show students disadvantages of copying.
- 2% make students rewrite work about 10 times.
- 2% subtract marks from copied work.
- 2% do not mark copied work and ignore the student.
- ,5% send students out from class.
- ,5% do not mark the work until a student reveals the source from which he or she copied.
- ,5% investigate the reason and usually punish.
- ,5% state the problem does not apply. They give oral homework.

Of the teachers who would like to punish students, but do not, the report is as follows :

- 3% say they cannot easily find 'culprits' for there are too many students in class.
- 2% say they fear revenge from students.
- 2% argue that they do not catch students red-handed and students often deny they copied, even if there is evidence.
- 1,5% maintain there is not sufficient reference material for students to do work properly.
- 1,5% say that punishment is not allowed.
- 1% say they choose to separate students who copy.
- ,5% argue there is not enough time to punish students who copy.
- ,5% state there is no method of preventing copying.
- ,5% say copying is a sign that students do not understand.

(f) Item 6 : Students making noise in the absence of teachers

Responses to this item are as follows :



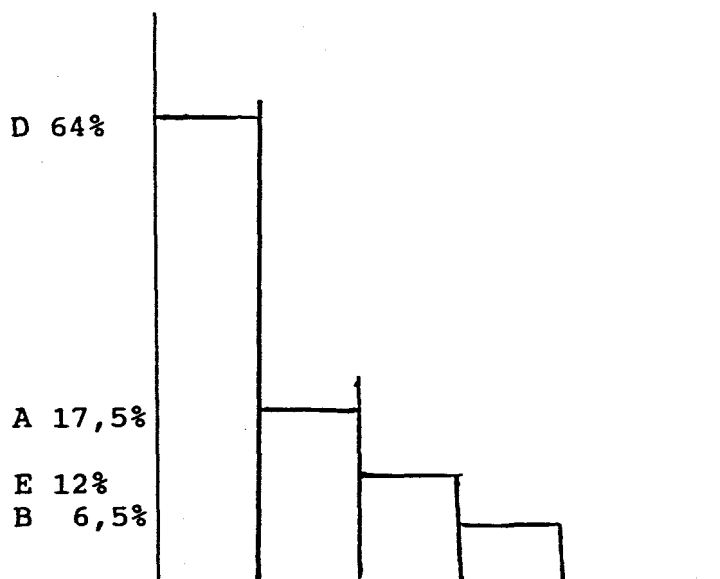
Where

- D = Teachers state they advise students to study and be quiet.
- A = Teachers state that they punish students for this behaviour.
- E = They maintain that they use other methods, which will be tabled below.
- B = They state that they would like to punish students, but do not for reasons to be given.

- 3% say they cannot easily find 'culprits' for there are too many students in class.
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- 2% argue that they do not catch students red-handed and students often deny they copied, even if there is evidence.
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Of those teachers who use other methods, the range is as follows :

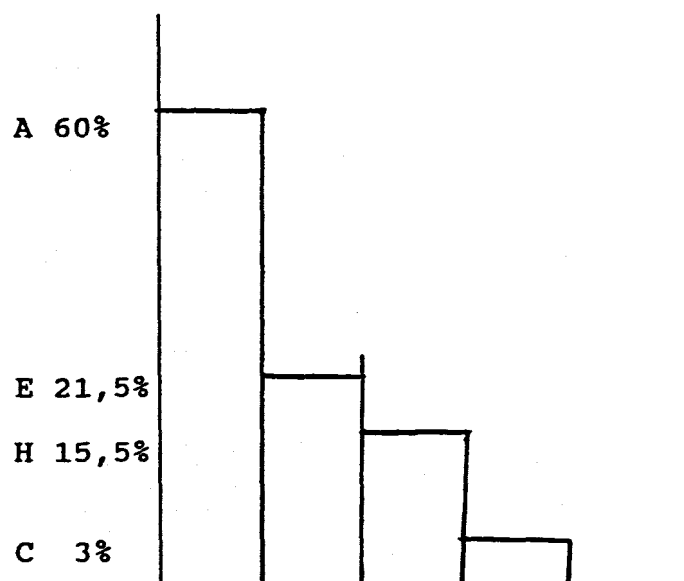
- 5% report that in their schools free teachers are allocated to occupy students.
- 4% give students classwork to do.
- 2% motivate students to have self-discipline. They report they advise students to exercise self-control.
- 1% Send students out to clean school grounds.

Of those teachers who wish to punish students, but may not, the reasons are as follows :

- 3% of teachers maintain that if students make noise when teachers who should be in classes are not, teachers are to blame, not students in this case.
- 2% say students are too many to be punished.
- ,5% say they are not allowed to punish students.
- ,5% state they let students make noise, students must learn to work in the absence of a teacher.
- ,5% maintain that they encourage students to talk, but to keep their voices low, otherwise students would feel imprisoned.

(g) Item 7 : Students bullying others

Responses to the question are as follows :



Where

A = Teachers punish students.

E = They use other methods which are to be given below.

H = They establish reasons and respond in the ways which are tabled below.

C = They overlook this behaviour.

The following constitute the range of the other methods used :

12% send children who bully others to the principal for punishment.

2,5% talk to guilty students about the unacceptability of fighting, failing which they call parents.

2,5% invite parents to school straight away and request them to warn their children against fighting.

1% send fighting students to disciplinary council.

1,5% give students a warning, or the school suspends a student or expels them.

1,5% give a bullying child work to do.

,5% ignore the problem.

Of those teachers who maintain they establish reasons for students bullying one another, the range is as follows :

10% report that they advise students not to bully others.

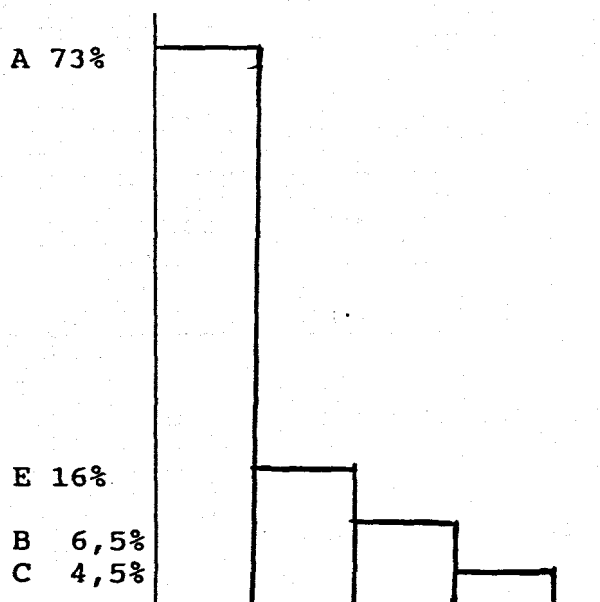
2,5% say they send the guilty students home to fetch parents with whom the student's offence is discussed.

2% report they punish the guilty.

1% give the guilty work to do.

(h) Item 8 : Students' abusiveness to others

Responses to the question are as follows :



#### Where

- A = Respondents say they punish students for this behaviour.
- E = State they use other methods, which are to be detailed shortly.
- B = Teachers report they wish to punish students, but do not for reasons which are to be presented.
- C = They ignore the problem.

Of the teachers who say they use other methods :

- 6% reprimand or punish students.
- 4,5% report that they invite parents when students abuse others or refer the matter to the principal.
- 2,5% state they advise students strongly against this behaviour.
- 1% maintain they not only advise students, they require them to write that they agree not to abuse others.
- 1% state that the Students' Representative Council deals with students.
- ,5% report that they make students stand in class for some time.
- ,5% promise or threaten students with expulsion from school.



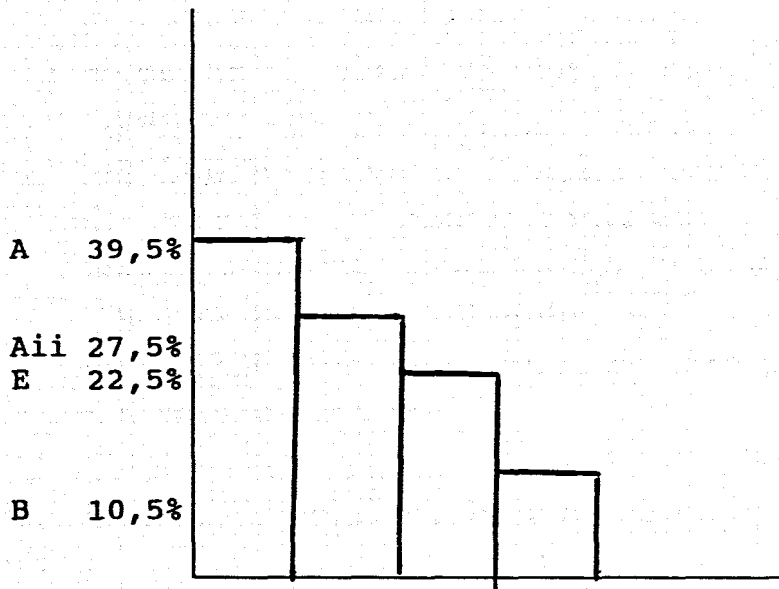
Of those teachers who would like to punish students,  
but may not :

4% state they fear students' resistance.

2,5% state students prefer to be punished by the  
Students Representatives' Councils.

(i) Item 9 : Students who are insolent to their  
teachers

Responses to this item are as follows :



Where

A = Teachers punish students for this behaviour.

Aii Teachers respond to students' insolence by  
disciplining them (students) corporally.

E = Teachers use other methods, to be detailed  
below.

B = Teachers would like to punish students, but  
they do not because of reasons given below.

Of the 22,5% teachers who argue that they use other  
methods to deal with students who are insolent :

6% tell students to respect teachers.

6% state they accommodate this behaviour by  
students, otherwise students will humiliate  
them.

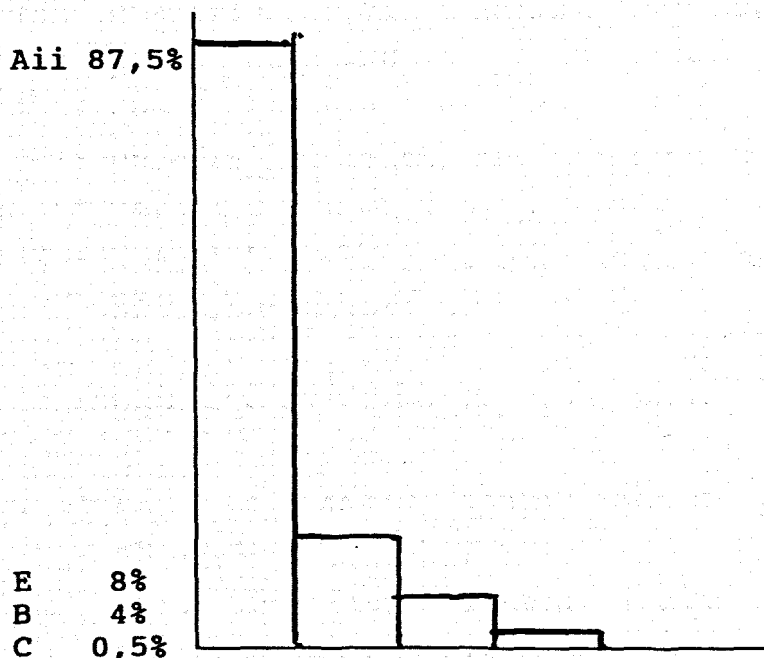
- 4% state they teach students correct behaviour.
- 3,5% maintain they punish students.
- 1,5% report that they leave 'guilty' students in the hands of Student Representative Councils to be disciplined.
- 1% establish reasons and eradicate these.
- ,5% send students out of class until they apologise.

Of the teachers who want to punish students who are insolent, but do not, the following is a set of reasons :

- 3,5% report that they are not allowed to punish students.
- 2,5% say punishment encourages this behaviour.
- 2% say they fear students' retaliation.
- 1,5% report students are only disciplined by their Students Representative Council.
- 1% maintain that students want to show others they can defy teachers.

j) Item 10 : Students challenging teacher authority

Responses to this item are as follows :



### Where

Aii Teachers report that they remind students who they are by disciplining them and/or defend teachers' authority in ways given below.

E = Teachers use 'other' methods which are to be detailed below.

B = They wish to punish students, but do not for reasons given below.

C = They overlook this behaviour.

Of those who state that they defend teachers' authority :

44% enforce discipline through punishment.

16% say they make students realise the age gap between them and students.

18% remind students of their positions.

7,5% take students out of class or refuse to teach them.

2% defend teachers' authority by being diligent.

Of those who use other methods besides the ones just listed, the following picture emerges :

2% make students aware that they are children.

2% counsel, but if this behaviour continues, they punish students.

1,5% chase students out of class.

1,5% counsel students and explain to them that teachers act in loco parentis.

1% report that they do not give students a chance, they punish them.

Of the 4% who want to punish students, but do not :

1,5% say punishment might encourage a power struggle.

1% state they fear for their lives.

,5% say students are backed by their parents.

,5% maintain punishment is not allowed.

,5% feel they are not protected by the community.

Before the above data is interpreted, I have tabled below an analysis of the responses by teachers on the effectiveness of each given method of handling student conflict. The effectiveness of methods used by teachers to deal with student conflict is presented along the categories given in Chapter Five.

#### **6.4 THE EFFECTIVENESS OF METHODS USED BY TEACHERS TO DEAL WITH STUDENT CONFLICT**

##### **6.4.1 The Effectiveness of Punishment**

Of the teachers who use punishment to deal with student conflict, the following picture emerges :

##### **(a) With regard to Item 1 : Namely Latecoming**

53,47%	say latecoming declines.
13,19%	state it sometimes gets better.
9,02%	argue it remains the same.
3,47%	state it stops.
2,08%	say it becomes worse.
1,38%	maintain it stops and starts.
3,47%	did not respond.
7,63%	gave responses such as students accept punishment, they know they are children, or, if they are wrong they must be punished.
5,32%	commented that students become bitter and negative when they are punished, even if they comply and accept punishment.

##### **(b) With regard to Item 2 : Namely - Absenteeism for unacceptable reasons**

63%	state it declines with the use of punishment.
10,26%	say it declines sometimes.
8,55%	state it remains the same.
7,69%	say it becomes worse.
7,69%	report it stops.
1,71%	say it stops and starts.
1,1%	did not respond.

(c) With regard to Item 3 : Namely - Truancy

35,82%	state that truancy declines.
17,91%	say it stops and starts.
11,91%	state it declines sometimes.
11,18%	say it becomes worse.
9,77%	report it remains the same.
4,47%	maintain it stops.
2,23%	of teachers did not respond.
6,71%	gave unusable responses.

Of the above responses, 5,22% comment that students react negatively to being punished for truancy.

Teachers report that students seem to stop playing truant only because they are afraid of being caned. They stop playing truant if the memory of punishment is fresh. However, some teachers say it is punishment that makes students play truant. Of the teachers who made a comment on this item, 3% maintained that truancy is higher in schools with large numbers.

They also state that students do not dodge all subjects. They attend one subject and do not attend for others. Two respondents from different schools say if one form of punishment fails, teachers apply another or increase the intensity of the same one.

Further, they said truancy is higher during sports time or when teachers are not present. Two other respondents report that truancy does not abate even if punishment is used because it (punishment) is not severe enough.

(d) With reference to Item 4 : Namely - students' refusal to do homework or classwork

41,80%	argue that punishment makes this behaviour decline.
18,10%	report that this behaviour remains the same.
18,03%	state this behaviour declines sometimes.

4,91%	maintain it becomes worse.
4,91%	report that it stops.
4,07%	say it stops and starts again when pupils are no longer punished.
3,27%	did not respond.
4,91%	gave unusable responses.

Of the 41,80% teachers who report that student failure to do homework declines with punishment, 10% state that students are favourably disposed to punishment if punishment is reasonable.

(e) Regarding Item 5 : students' copying of classwork or homework :

44,85%	say punishment makes this behaviour decline.
15,04%	report that this behaviour sometimes declines with punishment.
9,34%	argue that punishment makes copying stop and start.
8,41%	state punishment makes copying stop.
8,40%	maintain punishment is not effective for this offence, the frequency remains the same.
5,60%	did not respond.
7,47%	wrote unusable responses.

Of the 44,85% of respondents who maintain that punishment makes copying decline, there are the following comments : students who are caught may stop, but those who are not continue. Further, students copy before school starts and each time they are out of sight of teachers. Some respondents say students copy so that they are not punished.

(f) Regarding Item 6 : That is students making a noise in the absence of teachers :

28,57%	say punishment makes this behaviour decline.
25%	argue that punishment does not have any effect on the occurrence of this offence.

14,28%	say punishment makes this conflict decline sometimes.
8,57%	state that this behaviour stops and starts again.
5,71%	maintain that this behaviour becomes worse with the use of punishment.
3,57%	report that punishment makes this offence stop.
8,57%	did not respond.
5,71%	gave unusable responses.

Of the 25% who maintain that punishment by teachers does not have any effect on students making noise, 5% say students prefer to be punished by their own Students' Representative Councils than by teachers.

(g) Regarding Item 7 : Namely students bullying of others :

48,86%	state that punishment makes this behaviour decline.
15,83%	say it makes it decrease sometimes.
8,33%	report punishment makes bullying stop.
8,33%	state that the occurrence of this behaviour is neither reduced nor increased by the use of punishment.
8,33%	argue that punishment makes this offence worse.
5,03%	report that this behaviour stops and starts again.
2,5%	did not respond.
2,5%	gave unusable responses.

(h) Regarding Item 8 : Namely students' abusiveness to others

42,85%	of respondents state this behaviour declines with punishment.
24,65%	report punishment reduces this sometimes.
11,64%	say punishment neither causes this to decline nor to increase.
6,16%	report that punishment makes this worse.
5,47%	argue that punishment puts a stop to this offence.

4,10% did not respond.  
4,79% gave unreasonable responses.

Of the respondents who say students' abusiveness declines when punishment is effected, 4,79% of those comment that students do not take kindly to being punished for this offence. They also state that abusiveness is not necessarily eliminated by punishment. 2% of these respondents suggest talking to students and punishing students only if talking fails.

(i) Regarding Item 9 : Namely students being insolent to teachers

52,72% of respondents state that punishment makes this behaviour decline.  
22,93% report that punishment reduces it sometimes.  
5,45% argue that punishment makes it worse.  
5,45% report that punishment makes it stop.  
3,63% say that punishment makes it stop, but starts again.  
5,45% did not respond.  
3,63% gave unusable responses.

Of the 52,72% of teachers who report that punishment makes the behaviour in question here decline, 5% say they solicit each others assistance and jointly punish students. Some say some students find ways of retaliating, for example by writing insults in toilets. Some students leave school or resist punishment. It would appear that in cases where students write insults against teachers on toilet walls, the reason is that students cannot or may not always openly retaliate against teachers for punishment they object to. The insults, not easily printable, are degrading of teachers. A comprehensive interpretation of this phenomenon is given in the next section.

7,27% of the 52,72% respondents comment that unacceptable or deviant student behaviour declines if



the Students' Representative Council talks to or punishes students.

Of the above respondents, some comment that students sometimes feel guilty and apologise if confronted by teachers for answering them back. Some teachers report that they often take students who answer them back to the principal for punishment. Some students are alleged to become stubborn and do not participate in class, subsequent to their being punished in the office. (If the method of soliciting data from teachers had been the interview and not the questionnaire, it would have been interesting and useful to know how the behaviour of students normalises again, and who plays a role in its normalisation).

(j) Regarding Item 10 : Namely students challenging teacher authority

51% of respondents state that punishment makes this behaviour decline.

20% report that punishment decreases this behaviour sometimes.

15% argue that punishment has no effect on this behaviour.

5% state that punishment makes this behaviour stop and start.

5% did not respond.

3% gave unusable responses.

Of the respondents who say punishment has an effect on the behaviour in question, 5% report that students resist punishment, or swear at teachers or begin to hate teachers.

**6.4.2 The Effectiveness of Ignoring Student Behaviour which is in conflict with School Norms**

(a) Item 1 : Latecoming

50% of respondents to this item state that avoiding dealing with this behaviour makes it worse.

50% report that avoiding it makes it neither better nor worse.

(b) Item 2 : Absenteeism

50% of the respondents to this item report that avoiding dealing with this behaviour makes it neither decrease nor increase.

20% argue that avoiding it makes it worse.

10% state that avoiding it causes it to stop.

10% maintain that avoiding dealing with latecoming decreases it.

10% gave unusable responses.

Of those who report that not handling this behaviour does not make it better or worse, 10% comment that even if they punish students for latecoming, students do not stop the habit, so teachers have decided to ignore this.

(c) Item 3 : Truancy

75% argue that ignoring handling truancy does not make it better or worse.

17% say ignoring truancy makes it decrease.

8% gave unusable responses.

(d) Item 4 : Students' refusal to do homework or classwork

78% of respondents to this item report that ignoring dealing with this behaviour does not make it better or worse.

17% state ignoring this problem decreases it.

5% gave unusable responses.

(e) Item 5 : Students' copying homework or classwork

52% of respondents report that ignoring dealing with this behaviour does not make it better or worse.

30% say ignoring it makes it worse.

12% report that ignoring copying sometimes makes it decrease, sometimes makes it increase.

4% maintain that ignoring this behaviour definitely makes it increase.

2% gave unusable responses.

(f) Item 6 : Students making noise in the absence of a teacher

There were no "ignore" responses on this item. There were however other responses which are placed in relevant categories.

(g) Item 7 : Students bullying others

43% say ignoring this behaviour does not make it worse or better.

23% report that ignoring the behaviour actually decreases it.

17% state that ignoring it makes it stop.

17% did not respond.

(h) Item 8 : Students' abusiveness towards other students

67% of respondents state that ignoring this behaviour does not make it better nor worse.

22% state that this behaviour stops if it is ignored.

11% say that this behaviour decreases if it is ignored.

Of those who say overlooking this behaviour makes it stop, 5% maintain that students correct one another better, so if teachers overlook this behaviour, other students chip in and correct it. The respondents also state that students get tired of abusing others or the abused ones assert themselves thus putting an end to this behaviour.

(i) Item 9 : Students challenging teacher authority

55% of respondents maintain that this behaviour does not become better or worse if it is ignored.

36% say it decreases if it is ignored.

9% did not respond.

- (j) Item 10 : There were no "ignore" responses to the item where Teachers were asked how they deal with Students who challenge their Authority

It is remarkable that teachers do not ignore the behaviour in question. In chapter 7 we make further comments on this situation.

#### 6.4.3 The Effectiveness of wanting to punish Students and yet not doing so

- (a) Item 1 : Latecoming for no reason

Of the respondents who want to punish students, but who do not do so for various reasons :

36,33% report that this decision makes latecoming neither worse nor better.

20% say that this stand makes it worse.

13,33% say this decision sometimes helps to reduce the problem, but sometimes does not.

20% did not respond.

10% gave unusable responses.

- (b) Item 2 : Absenteeism for unacceptable reasons

30% of the respondents to this question report that the decision not to punish students for this offence, even if one would like to, does not make the behaviour increase or decrease.

20% say the stand referred to decreases absenteeism.

15% say this stand exacerbates absenteeism.

25% did not respond to this question.

10% gave unusable responses.

Of the 20% who say the stand in question reduces absenteeism, 8% say if teachers talk to students and convince students about the wrongness of the behaviour, students gradually abandon it.

(c) Item 3 : Truancy

- 24% say wanting to punish students for this behaviour and not doing so makes the problem worse.
- 20% say this stand neither makes truancy better nor worse.
- 8% report that this stand helps sometimes to reduce truancy.
- 4% state that it makes truancy stop.
- 24% did not comment on the effect of this strategy of dealing with student conflict.
- 20% gave unusable responses.

(d) Item 4 : Students' refusal to do homework

- 39% say wanting to punish students for this behaviour and yet not doing so neither improves the problem nor makes it worse.
- 26,66% report that the stand in question makes the behaviour worse.
- 13,33% maintain that the decision not to punish students for not doing homework, even if one would like to, sometimes helps improve the problem.
- 10% say the stand in question definitely decreases the problem.
- 10% did not respond.
- ,66% gave unusable responses.

(e) Item 5 : Students copying work from others

- 40% argue that wanting to punish students for this behaviour and yet not doing so, neither improves nor exacerbates the problem.
- 12% say this stand makes the problem worse.
- 12% report that this decision sometimes makes the behaviour improve.
- 8% maintain that this decision decreases copying.
- 20% did not respond.
- 8% gave unusable responses.

(f) Item 6 : Students making noise during class time during the absence of a teacher

45,96% of respondents say wanting to punish students for this behaviour and yet not doing so, neither improves nor worsens the problem.

15,58% argue that taking this stand makes the behaviour worse.

7,69% say this stand actually decreases the making of noise by students if students are asked to keep their voices low.

30,40% did not respond to this question.

(g) Item 7 : Students bullying others

There were no responses to this item in the category being discussed.

(h) Item 8 : Students' abusiveness to other students

23,07% of respondents to this question report that wanting to punish students for this offence and yet not doing so makes this behaviour worse.

7,69% say this decision sometimes alleviates the problem.

7,69% say this decision definitely decreases the problem.

7,69% maintain that this stand makes the problem stop.

38,46% did not respond.

15,38% gave unusable responses.

Of those who maintain that the stand under discussion decreases student conflict, half comment that guidance to students by teachers and the principal eventually helps students stop being abusive.

(i) Item 9 : Students being insolent to teachers

60% of respondents maintain that wanting to punish students for this behaviour and yet not doing so decreases the problem.

- 20% state that this decision makes this behaviour neither better nor worse.
- 10% state that this strategy makes the behaviour worse.
- 10% did not respond to the question.

Of the first set of respondents (namely the 60%) about half maintain that talking to students and reasoning with them about the merits and demerits of answering back, tends to stop the habit. A quarter maintained that students become serious and abandon fights with teachers if lessons are made interesting.

- (j) Item 10 : Students challenging teacher authority
- 50% of respondents to this item state that wanting to punish students for this behaviour and not doing so, does not improve or exacerbate the conflict.
  - 37,5% state that doing so makes the behaviour worse.
  - 12,5% gave unusable responses.

#### 6.4.4 The Effectiveness of Advice

Two items, namely Items 6 and 7, had "advice" as a category. With regard to Item 6, namely students making noise in the absence of teachers :

- 28,13% of the respondents to this item state that advice makes students stop making noise for a while, but afterwards they start again.
- 26,57% report that advice decreases noise-making by students.
- 17,96% state that it does not help, students continue to make noise as before.
- 17,19% say students sometimes stop making noise if advised, sometimes they do not.
- 8,59% say advice helps to make students stop making noise.
- 1,56% did not respond.

Comments accompanying responses to this question are:

Telling students to study and stop making noise is not helpful, unless there is a teacher in class to occupy them or unless there is work they are interested in doing. Further, about 5% of those who say advice does not help state that all students do when teachers advise them to stop making noise is to pretend to listen. Sometimes they write letters to their friends.

Of those who say students stop making noise, 3% comment that students accept constructive advice and work on their own if they are shown how to do so.

Regarding item 7, that is students physically bullying others, responses indicate that advice takes the following forms : giving students information on correct channels if there is inter-student conflict or telling students about the wrongness of bullying others.

The impact of advice on the offence of students bullying others is as follows :

- |        |   |
|--------|---|
| 58,06% | of respondents state that students' tendency to bully others decreases with advice. |
| 35,48% | say that the behaviour in question only sometimes decreases if advice is given.     |
| 6,45%  | report that this behaviour remains the same even if advice is used.                 |

Of those who maintain that bullying is sometimes reduced or remains the same with advice, 19,35% state that students these days do not listen to teachers.

#### **6.4.5 The Effect of other Methods used to deal with Conflict**

As is evident from the analysis of methods used to deal with student conflict, there is a diverse range



within the category of 'other methods' used to deal with student conflict.

Of relevance to this section is the fact that as a result of this diversity in the range of methods within the 'other' category, the effect of these methods on student conflict cannot be determined as a single category. The methods are too different from each other for a common assessment to be made of their impact on students' behaviour which is in conflict with the norms of the school. However, a comment on these methods will be made by way of interpreting data. This will be done in the next chapter.

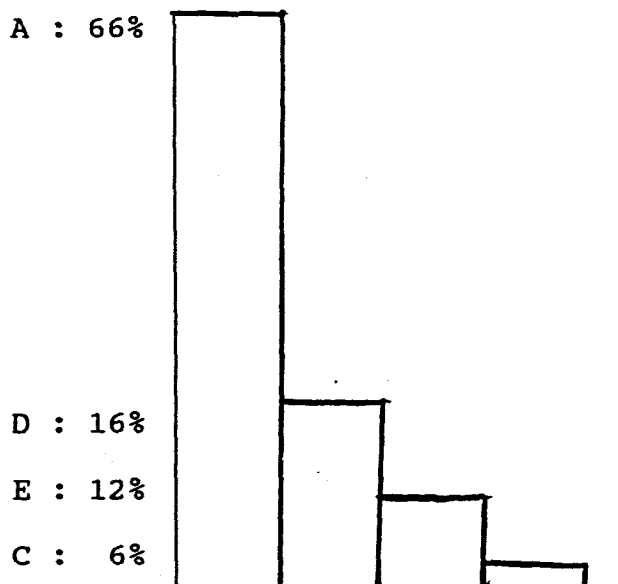
In the next section responses from principals will be analysed.

#### 6.5 DOCUMENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES FROM PRINCIPALS : ITEMS 1 - 5

Principals' responses to Items 1 - 5 are as follows :

The ordering of explanations for each category of responses, follows the ordering in graphs.

##### (a) Item 1 : Truancy



Where

A = Punishing students.

D = Determining reasons, and responding in ways to be given.

E = Using other methods of dealing with student conflict.

C = Wanting to punish students, but not doing so for reasons to be given.

Of those who chose C, the following are reasons for not punishing students :

2% say political conditions do not allow for punishment.

4% say students and parents reject punishment.

Of those who chose D, the following are responses :

14% give advice, if the offence is repeated students are punished.

2% invite parents to discuss the problem.

Of those who chose E, the following emerge :

2% look at causes of conflict and fight these.

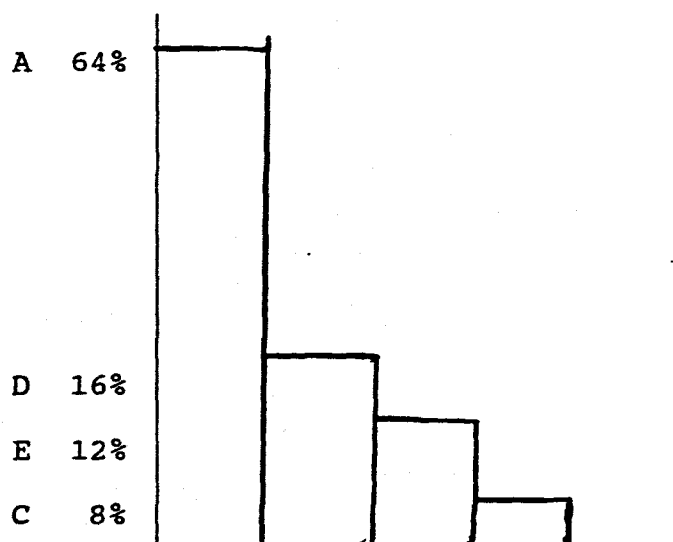
2% call parents' attention to the misbehaviour.

2% make school work pleasant and attractive to students.

2% punish cases brought to them.

4% call parents and punish children, with parental approval.

(b) Item 2 : Students copying from others



Where

A = Punishment.

C = Determine reasons for copying and respond in ways given below.

E = Other methods.

Of those who chose C, the range is as follows :

8% deduct a certain percentage of marks from the students.

2% argue that they ask teachers to do introspection, stating that teacher laziness could be the cause of students copying.

4% seek to find out the students' problems.

2% separate students who copy.

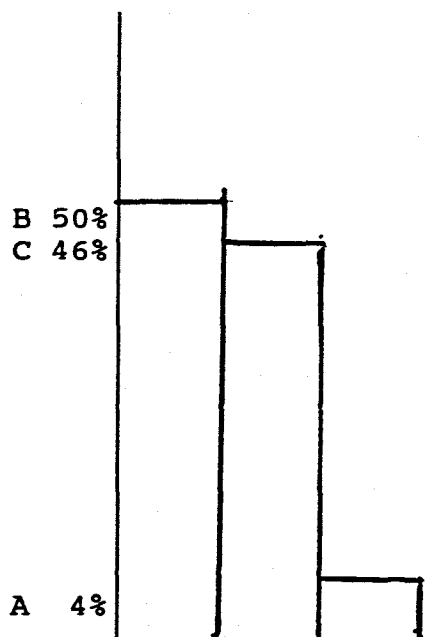
2% tell students of the wrongness of copying.

Of those who chose E :

2% encourage students to study independently.

2% give students more time to do written work.

(c) Item 3 : Students' Demand for a different hair style from the one the school approves of



Where

B = The school punishes students who style their hair as they please.

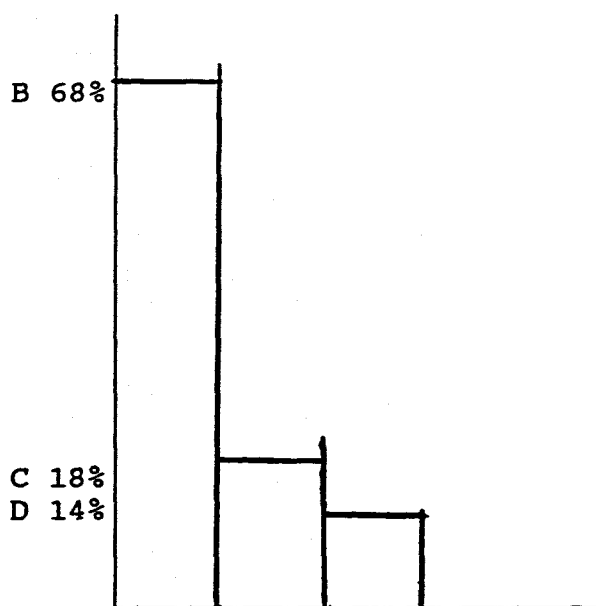
C = The school deals with this demand in ways which are given below.

A = The school allows students to style their hair as they please.

Of those teachers who chose C :

- 14% cut students' hair if students do not keep to a hairstyle approved by the school.
- 12% encourage students to keep traditional ways of styling hair.
- 10% encourage students to cut their hair. If the students refuse, their hair is cut by the principal.
- 4% call parents for joint advice.
- 4% send students away until they shorten their hair.
- 2% issue a rule at the beginning of the year that students cut their hair short. If they violate the rule they are punished.

(d) Item 4 : Students' Demand for Students' Representative Councils : SRC's



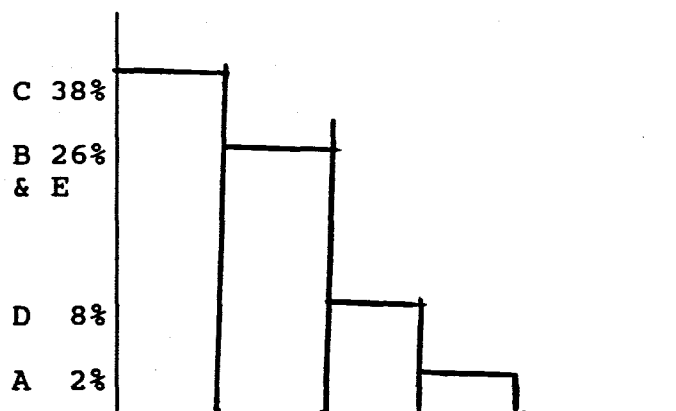
Where

- B = The school does not allow a Students' Representative Council, for it chooses prefects and captains on its own.
- C = The school allows students to have a Students' Representative Council, on condition that the students provide the school with a Constitution.
- D = The school deals with this demand in other ways, which are tabled hereunder.

Of the ways used in D, the details are as follows :

- 4% state they do not allow SRC's for these become too radical.
- 2% report that they declare an open door policy. Each student takes his/her problem to the principal.
- 2% say that students in their schools neither have SRC's, prefects nor captains. Teachers negotiate on students' behalf.
- 2% state that they allow captains chosen by the school only.
- 2% of respondents say they cannot allow SRC's. The Department of Education, they feel, is not favourably disposed to these.
- 2% report that students choose SRC's in the way they (students) want to.

(e) Item 5 : Students' Failure to wear Uniform which is approved by the School



- Where
- C = The school punishes children if they fail to wear a uniform which it approves of.
  - B = The school unwillingly condones this behaviour.
  - E = The school uses other methods, which are also given below.
  - D = The school establishes reasons and responds in ways to be tabled below.
  - A = The school ignores this behaviour.

Regarding D, the following are categories of responses :

- 4% insist that students put on uniform.
- 4% write letters to parents calling for support.

As far as E is concerned :

- 16% of respondents state that they motivate students to wear uniform.
- 8% condone the behaviour in question because certain outsiders pressurise students not to put on uniform. If students do, the uniform is ripped off them and torn to pieces.
- 2% reach a new agreement with students regarding a new uniform which can be worn.

The next section is an analysis of cases of conflict which were obtained from principals.

## 6.6 ANALYSIS OF CASES OF CONFLICT FROM PRINCIPALS

6.6.1

### STUDENT-SCHOOL CONFLICT AND CONFLICT RELATED TO SCHOOL WORK

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
1.	DEMAND FOR REFUND OF FEES.	AGGRESSION BY STUDENTS (SAG).  INITIALLY AVOIDANCE BY PRINCIPAL AND LATER SUBMISSION (PAV, PSUB)	FEES RETURNED. UNDERLYING ISSUES NOT IDENTIFIED.
2.	DEMAND FOR FEES PAID, APPARENT MISTRUST AND SUSPICION BY STUDENTS.	TEACHERS SUBMIT OUT OF FEAR (TSUB), AGGRESSION AND INTIMIDATION BY STUDENTS (SAG). TEACHERS RE-ASSERT AUTHORITY THROUGH STRICTER SUPERVISION IN EXAMINATION (TAG).	FEES RETURNED. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS STRAINED. TEACHERS RESENTFUL.
3.	DEMAND OF FEES.	FORCING REFUNDS BY STUDENTS (SAG).  COMPROMISE AND SOME PROBLEM SOLVING BY PRINCIPAL (PCOM) (P PS).	POTENTIAL FOR THE DISSOLUTION OF CONFLICT CREATED. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN STUDENTS AND PRINCIPAL FAIR.
4.	DEMAND OF FEES PAID.	FORCE BY STUDENTS. (SAG). BARGAINING INITIALLY BY PRINCIPAL. (SO). LATER RATIONAL PROBLEM SOLVING ATTEMPTED, FOR EXAMPLE RE-MARKING SCRIPTS (PPS).  RE-MARKING SCRIPTS TO PROVE WHETHER STUDENTS HAD PASSED OR FAILED (PPS).  APPARENT COLLABORATION AT THE END (PPS).	PROBLEM SOLVED. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENTS AND PRINCIPAL FAIR.

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
5.	DEMAND FOR FEES WHICH HAD BEEN PAID. (ALLEGATION THAT STUDENTS ARE INCITED TO DEMAND FEES).	PRINCIPAL WITH PARENTS ATTEMPT TO SOLVE PROBLEM (PPS).  PRINCIPAL COMMUNICATES WITH STUDENTS (INFO). THREATS BY PRINCIPAL TO PUNISH STUDENTS WHO DO NOT COMPLY WITH THE DECISION TAKEN BY PARENTS (PAG).	COMPLIANCE BY STUDENTS.
6.	DEMAND FOR FEES PAID. MISUNDER- STANDING ON HOW FEES AT SCHOOL ARE SPENT.	PRINCIPAL SHARES INFORMATION ON SCHOOL EXPENDITURE WITH STUDENTS. (PINFO).  COMPROMISE BETWEEN STUDENTS AND THE PRINCIPAL ON FUNDS (P & S COMP).	RESTORATION OF HEALTHY CLI- MATE AT SCHOOL. BUDGET ADJUSTED ACCORDING TO THE NEEDS PERCEIVED BY PRINCIPAL AND STUDENTS.
7.	DEMAND OF FEES PAID.	PUPILS USED FORCE (SAG). PRINCIPAL EVENTUALLY SUB- MITTED, REFUNDED STUDENTS (PSUB). PARENTS AGGRES- SIVE TOWARDS PRINCIPAL (PAG).	APPARENTLY NO RESOLUTION.



CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
8.	DEMAND FOR FEES AND FOR PRINCIPAL TO RESIGN.	STUDENTS AGGRESSIVE, FORCED PRINCIPAL OUT OF THE SCHOOL (SAG). PARENTS IMPOSED A SOLUTION ON THE ISSUE (PRAG). PARENTS AVOIDED INVESTIGATING CAUSES OF THE CONFLICT (PRAV).	CONFLICT NOT RESOLVED.
9.	DEMAND FOR FEES AND FOR CHANGE IN THE SCHOOL.	PRINCIPAL COMMUNICATED WITH STUDENTS (PINFO). COMPROMISE BETWEEN STUDENTS AND THE PRINCIPAL (S & P COM P) ON, FOR EXAMPLE, HAIR STYLE, AND ON NOT METING OUT PUNISHMENT.	CONFLICT APPEARS TO BE RESOLVED.
10.	DEMAND FOR THE RETURN OF FEES AND FREE SUPPLY OF BOOKS.	STUDENTS RESISTED COMMUNICATING WITH THE PRINCIPAL AND TEACHERS (SPRES). SCHOOL SUSPENDED STUDENTS I.E. USED SOME FORCE (PAG).	CONFLICT NOT SOLVED. TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP STRAINED.
11.	STUDENTS ALLEGED TO HAVE BEEN FORCED BY OUTSIDERS TO DEMAND REFUNDS.	PRINCIPAL SHARED INFORMATION WITH STUDENTS ON SCHOOL BUDGET AND ON EXPENDITURE (PINFO).  COMPROMISE REACHED ON FEES TO BE PAID (S & P, COMP)	CONFLICT SOLVED REASONABLY WELL.

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
12.	DEMAND TO HAVE FEES REDUCED.	SOME COLLABORATING PREFECT TO CONTROL FUNDS (S & P PS). COMMUNICATION BETWEEN STUDENTS-PARENTS AND PRINCIPAL (S, P & PR. INFO).	CONFLICT DIFFUSED. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENTS AND PRINCIPAL HEALTHY.
13.	CONFLICT OVER PAYMENT OF FEES. PERCEIVED INJUSTICE OF THE STATE.	COLLABORATION BETWEEN PRINCIPAL AND STUDENTS (S & P, PS).	ENHANCED TEAM SPIRIT AT SCHOOL.
19.	STUDENT HAS PROBLEMS IN HER SCHOOL WORK.	COUNSELLING BY TEACHER OR BY CLASS MATES.	PROBLEM SOLVED. TEACHER NEEDS MET.
24.	CONFLICT OVER WEARING OF SCHOOL TIES.	SCHOOL POSES OPTIONS RE SUPPLY OF TIES (PPS)	CONFLICT RESOLVED.
39.	STUDENTS DISCOVERED TO HAVE COPIED IN THE EXAMINATION.	SCHOOL REFUSED TO ADMIT THEM (P O).	REASON FOR COPYING NOT ADDRESSED.

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
27.	SCARCE RESOURCES.	STIMULATING CONFLICT BY STUDENTS OVER THE ISSUE. (SST).  FORCE BY STUDENTS (SAG).  COMPROMISE BY PRINCIPAL (P COMP).	SOME STATIONARY OBTAINED.  RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENTS AND THE SCHOOL STRAINED. CONFLICT SMOOTHED.
29.	CONFLICT OVER DETAINED SCHOOL MATE.	EXPLANATION ABOUT DETENTION OF SCHOOL MATE (P INFO)	PUPILS GAINED NEW PERSPECTIVE AS A RESULT OF THE EXPLANATION. CONFLICT DIFFUSED.
30.	CONFLICT OVER FEEDING SCHEME.  HEALTH VALUE OF FOOD QUESTIONED BY STUDENTS.  ISSUES: FOOD, FEES.	STIMULATING CONFLICT BY STUDENTS (SST).  FORCE BY STUDENTS AND IMPOSED SOLUTION (SAG).  PRINCIPAL READY TO USE FORCE TO DISCIPLINE STUDENTS (PAG).  SUBMISSION BY THE SCHOOL; FEES REFUNDED (P SUB).	CONFLICT DIVERTED, BUT NOT SOLVED. RELATIONSHIP STRAINED.
31.	FEEDING SCHEME NOT WANTED.  DEMAND BY PUPILS FOR REFUND.	SUBMISSION BY THE SCHOOL (P SUB).	ISSUES DIFFUSED. CAUSE OF CONFLICT NOT IDENTIFIED. CONFLICT NOT RESOLVED.

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
32.	CONFLICT OVER PUNISHMENT.	COMPROMISE BETWEEN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS ON USE OF PUNISHMENT. (S AND T COMP).	CONFLICT DIFFUSED.
33.	STUDENTS DISAPPROVE USE OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.	STIMULATED CONFLICT. (SST)  INCITED OTHERS (SST).  TEACHERS STOP PUNISHING STUDENTS	CONFLICT RESOLVED.
34.	STUDENTS QUESTION EFFECTIVENESS OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.	STUDENTS DO NOT ATTEND CLASSES (SPRES). FORCE BY THE SCHOOL TO DISPERSE STUDENTS (PAG).  SUBMISSION BY STUDENTS - ATTEND CLASS (S SUB).	ISSUE RESOLVED. UNDERLYING CAUSES OF CONFLICT UNATTENDED.
35.	DEMAND TO BE RE-ENROLLED AT SCHOOL.	FORCING SUPPORT FROM OTHER STUDENTS (SAG).  SCHOOL OFFERS ALTERNATIVE SOLUTION TO STUDENTS' PROBLEM. (SAG).	CONFLICT PARTLY DIFFUSED.  TEACHER-STUDENTS' RELATIONSHIP STRAINED.

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
26.	DEMAND FOR BOOKS AND FOR ADMISSION OF SOME STUDENTS.	STUDENTS THREW STONES (SAG).  PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTED STUDENTS TO GO TO CLASS.  PRINCIPAL READY TO SJAVBOK STUDENTS.	CONFLICT CONTAINED.
36.	PARENTS ALLEGED TO INCITE PUPILS TO CAUSE CONFLICT.  ISSUE - LOCAL STUDENTS NOT ADMITTED.	VIOLENCE BY STUDENTS. (SAG)	PROBLEM OF ADMISSION NOT SOLVED.  STUDENT SCHOOL RELATIONSHIP STRAINED.
37.	BOYS GIVE THEMSELVES RESPONSIBILITY TO REGULATE STUDENT ENROLMENT.	STUDENTS FORCED IDEAS TO THE SCHOOL (SAG).  TEACHERS SUBMITTED. (T SUB).	PROBLEM OF ADMISSIONS SOLVED.
38.	DISSATISFACTION ABOUT DURATION OF SCHOOL DAY. CONFLICT ARISING FROM MISPERCEPTIONS.	RESISTANCE BY STUDENTS TO ATTEND CLASSES. (S RES).  PRINCIPAL ENCOURAGED DISCUSSION ON THE ISSUE, AMONG STUDENTS (P INFO).  COMMUNICATION BETWEEN STUDENTS AND PRINCIPAL ON THE ISSUE, ONGOING (P AND S, INFO).	CONFLICT RESOLVED.

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
40.	STUDENTS WANTED TO SMOKE ANYWHERE IN SCHOOL PREMISES. ISSUE : CONFLICTING VIEWS BETWEEN STUDENTS AND THE SCHOOL.	EXPLANATION AND DISCUSSION. (P AND S INFO).	ACCEPTANCE OF TEACHERS' VIEWS. SUBMISSION TO TEACHERS' VIEWS.
41.	STUDENTS NOISY.  TEACHERS OFTEN NOT PUNCTUAL.	STUDENTS DEMAND TEACHERS TO TEACH. (SAG).  PRINCIPAL THREATENS TO TAKE TEACHERS TO TASK (PO)	CONFLICT CONTAINED.
42.	STUDENTS FORCE OUT-GOING TRIP. CONFLICT OF INTERESTS BETWEEN STUDENTS AND PRINCIPAL.	PRINCIPAL IMPOSES A RULING. STUDENTS WILL NOT GO ON TRIP (PAG).	ISSUE WON BY PRINCIPAL, RELATIONSHIP WITH STUDENTS STRAINED.
43.	STUDENTS UNHAPPY WITH MATHS TEACHER.	STUDENTS CHASED TEACHER AWAY (SAG)  PRINCIPAL AND PARENTS RESOLVE NOT TO ASSIGN ANOTHER TEACHER FOR MATHS (P & PR RES). LATER STUDENTS APOLOGISED (S O)	CONFLICT DIFFUSED.
44.	STUDENTS DISSATISFIED WITH PRINCIPAL. WANTED FEES BACK.	ATTACKED PRINCIPAL (SAG).  RESISTED PAYING FEES (S RES).	PRINCIPAL AND TEACHERS DEMORALISED. STUDENTS' LEARNING AFFECTED.
45.	PERCEPTION THAT THE PRINCIPAL MISAPPROPRIATES SCHOOL MONEY.	ATTACK BY STUDENTS ON PRINCIPAL (SAG).  RETALIATION BY PRINCIPAL TO STUDENTS. (PAG).  FURTHER ATTACK BY STUDENTS (SAG).	PROBLEM OF ALLEGED MISAPPROPRIATION OF MONEY NOT ATTENDED TO.
46.	CONFLICT OVER SCHOOL BUDGET. APPARENT MISTRUST OF PRINCIPAL	RESISTANCE BY PRINCIPAL TO REFUND STUDENTS (P RES).	PROBLEM NOT SOLVED. STUDENTS DID NOT GET INFORMATION THEY NEEDED.

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
47.	OBJECTION TO SCHOOL RULES BY STUDENTS. DISSATISFACTION WITH SOME TEACHERS.	RESISTANCE TO ATTEND CLASSES. TEACHERS UNWILLING TO TEACH (T RES).	PROBLEM NOT SOLVED.
48.	STUDENTS DEMAND IN- VOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL BUDGET.	TEACHERS REFUSED STUDENTS TO PAR- TICIPATE IN DEC- ISION MAKING IN BUDGETTING (T RES)  STUDENTS REFUSE TO GO TO CLASSES (S RES).  STUDENTS FORCE PRINCIPAL TO GIVE THEM REFUNDS ON FEES PAID (SAG).	NEED TO BE INVOLVED IN BUDGETTING - NOT ATTENDED.
49.	STUDENTS DEMAND TO FORM AN EDUCATION COMMITTEE AND TO HAVE FEES REFUNDED.	STUDENTS BOYCOTT CLASSES AND ABUSE PRINCIPAL VERBALLY (SAG).  PRINCIPAL IGNORES STUDENTS' REMARKS (PAV).  PRINCIPAL PRODUCES FULL FINANCIAL REPORT, WITH SUP- PORTING DOCUMENTS (P PS).	CONFLICT RE- SOLVED. PRIN- CIPAL FELT RESPECTED.
50.	CHALLENGE TO THE SCHOOL REGULATIONS.	STUDENTS WANT TO BE PROMOTED IN BLOCK (SAG).  TEACHER ASSERTS HER AUTHORITY (TAG).	UNKNOWN.
51.	STUDENTS WANT REPORT.  PRINCIPAL NOT IN- TERESTED IN STU- DENTS' REQUEST.	PRINCIPAL EVADES ISSUING REPORT (PAV).  PRINCIPAL ACCUSING STUDENTS OF INSO- LENCE (P O).	NO UNDERSTAND- ING BETWEEN STUDENTS AND PRINCIPAL.

## 6.6.2 STUDENT-TEACHER CONFLICT

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
16.	TEACHER HAS RELATIONSHIP WITH A FEMALE STUDENT. STUDENTS FEEL THEIR GROWTH NEEDS ARE THWARTED.	STUDENTS REFUSED TO OPENLY TALK ABOUT ISSUE TO THE PRINCIPAL. (S RES)  STUDENTS ATTACKING PRINCIPAL VERBALLY (SAG).  SUSPECTED PHYSICAL ATTACK TO THE TEACHER BY THE STUDENTS (SAG).	PROBLEM NOT SOLVED, BUT TEACHER LEFT.
17.	NAME-CALLING BY THE TEACHER.  STUDENTS OBJECT.	REFUSAL TO GO TO CLASS BY STUDENTS (S RES).  AVOIDANCE BY THE TEACHER TO DEAL WITH STUDENT COMPLAINTS (T AV).  APOLOGY BY TEACHER (T O).	STUDENTS EVENTUALLY RETURNED TO CLASSROOMS.
20.	STUDENT ATTACKED TEACHERS.	SUSPENSION OF STUDENTS. STUDENTS CHARGED (PAG). STONING SCHOOL BY STUDENT. POLICE INTERVENTION (SAG).	NO RESOLUTION. SCHOOL-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP POOR.
21.	THREAT TO PERSONAL DIGNITY AND SECURITY OF TEACHER.	RESISTANCE IN ACCEPTING TEACHER AUTHORITY BY THE CLASS (S RES).  PRINCIPAL ARBITRATED IN THE MATTER (P O).	RESULT IN TERMS OF STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS UNKNOWN.
22.	TEACHER'S-STUDENT LOVE RELATIONSHIP.	THREAT OF VIOLENCE BY STUDENTS (SAG). WITHDRAWAL FROM RELATIONSHIP AND APOLOGY BY THE TEACHER (T O).  ARBITRATION BY PRINCIPAL (P O).	CONFLICT DIFFUSED.



CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
14.	GROUPS OF GIRLS FIGHT LADY TEACHER.	<p>NON-CONFORMITY BY GIRLS (S RES).</p> <p>PUNISHMENT OF THE GIRLS BY PRINCIPAL (PAG).</p> <p>INITIALLY AVOI- DANCE OF THE PROBLEM BY THE MALE TEACHER CON- CERNED (TAV).</p> <p>LATER SUBMISSION TO SCHOOL (T SUB).</p>	<p>RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LADY TEACHER AND STUDENTS STILL STRAINED.</p> <p>WIN FOR LADY TEACHER - LOSE FOR GIRLS.</p>
15.	CONFLICT OVER WHICH EXAM PAPER TO WRITE.	COMPROMISE ON THE ISSUE (P AND S COMP).	CONFLICT SOME- HOW DIFFUSED.
23.	TEACHER PERCEIVES STUDENT AS INSOLENT.	TEACHER SUGGESTS THAT STUDENT IS PUNISHED (T O)	TEACHER- STUDENT RELATIONSHIP POOR

### 6.6.3 STUDENT-STUDENT CONFLICT

CONFLICT CASE NO.	NATURE/SOURCE OF CONFLICT	TECHNIQUES USED	RESULT
18.	A BOY COMPLAINS TO HIS CLASSMATE THAT HE CAN'T SEE ON THE CHALKBOARD.	VERBAL ATTACK BY THE BOY WHO WAS WRITING NOTES (SAG).  PHYSICAL ATTACK BY COMPLAINANT (SAG).	PROBLEM OF COMPLAINANT NOT SOLVED.  DEATH OF COMPLAINANT.
25.	GIRL-BOY CONFLICT.  DIFFERENT PERSONAL NEEDS.	THE BOY USED FORCE OVER THE GIRL. SCHOOL PUNISHED THE BOY (SAG).  NOT CLEAR WHETHER THE BOY WAS PUNISHED FOR FORCING THE GIRL TO GO WITH HIM OR FOR HAVING AN AFFAIR WITH HER (PAG).	CONFLICT SUPERFICIALLY RESOLVED.

(a) STUDENT-SCHOOL CONFLICT AND CONFLICT RELATED TO SCHOOL WORKAggression or Competition

SAG	20
PAG	7
TAG	2
PRAG	<u>1</u>
TOTAL	<u>30</u>

Sharing Information

S P and PRINFO	1
P and S INFO	2
P INFO	<u>6</u>
TOTAL	<u>9</u>

Avoidance :

SAV	
PAV	3
TAV	
PRAV	<u>1</u>
TOTAL	<u>4</u>

Stimulating Conflict

SST	4
PST	-
TST	-
PRST	<u>-</u>
TOTAL	<u>4</u>

Compromise :

P COMP	5
T COM	1
P and S COM	<u>4</u>
TOTAL	<u>10</u>

Problem Solving

SPS	
PPS	7
S and PPS	2
TPS	
PRPS	-
TOTAL	<u>9</u>

Submission :

P SUB	4
S SUB	1
T SUB	<u>3</u>
TOTAL	<u>8</u>

Resistance

S RES	5
P RES	2
T RES	2
PR RES	<u>1</u>
TOTAL	<u>10</u>

Other

P O	3
S O	2
T O	<u>1</u>
TOTAL	<u>6</u>

(b) STUDENT-TEACHER CONFLICTAggression or Competition

SAG	4
PAG	<u>2</u>
TOTAL	<u>6</u>

Avoidance

PAV	-
TAV	<u>2</u>
TOTAL	<u>2</u>

Compromise

S COM	
T COM	
P and S COM	<u>1</u>
TOTAL	<u>1</u>

Submission

S SUB	
P SUB	
T SUB	<u>1</u>
TOTAL	<u>1</u>

Resistance

S RES	4
T RES	<u>2</u>
TOTAL	<u>4</u>

Other

T O	2
P O	<u>2</u>
TOTAL	<u>4</u>

(c) STUDENT-STUDENT CONFLICTAggression or Competition

SAG	3
PAG	<u>1</u>
TOTAL	<u>4</u>

## **6.7 CONCLUSION TO THIS CHAPTER**

This Chapter has analysed three categories of conflict within schools. These forms of conflict include conflict about school work and other school issues, interpersonal conflict between teachers and students and between students and students. The Chapter also identified techniques which appear to be used by teachers, principals, students and, to a small degree, parents to manage conflict. The methods which are used by parents and students to deal with conflict are based on the observations of principals.

The researcher now proceeds to the interpretation of data.

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# CHAPTER SEVEN

## INTERPRETATION OF DATA

### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this Chapter, the researcher makes interpretations based on data analysed in Chapter Six. She will determine methods which are used by secondary schools in KwaZulu to manage conflict. She will also indicate factors which impact on the management of conflict in schools which were researched. Essentially this Chapter attempts to answer questions raised in section 1.6 in the first Chapter.

In the interpretation of data, the researcher will pay attention primarily to the analysis of cases of conflict and to the highest, the mid-range and the lowest percentages from the graphs in the preceding chapter. The researcher will also refer to the framework on the causes of conflict, which was suggested in Chapter Three, section 3.10. In this framework the investigator posits that conflict is a result of unmet human needs. She suggests that factors like organisational structures, lack of resources, nature of interaction, can pose a problem for the satisfaction of human needs.

Three categories have been designed to interpret data. These are :

- (a) Conflict arising from school work and from students' challenging of the expectations and norms of the school. In this category the researcher will also refer to the analysis of data on student-teacher and student-student conflict.
- (b) Student-school conflict and conflict related to school administration.

(c) General interpretation.

It will also be determined whether assumptions stated in chapters one and six can be accepted or rejected on the basis of responses given by teachers and principals.

Below is the interpretation of data :

**7.2 CONFLICT RESULTING FROM SCHOOL WORK AND FROM STUDENTS CHALLENGING OF THE NORMS OF SCHOOLS**

(a) Teachers do not seem to adequately diagnose conflict in school

Responses by teachers on how students' conflict is dealt with rarely indicates a specific diagnosis. From the responses given, it appears that teachers do not determine whether conflict is caused by the psychological, academic or emotional problems of students. If a proper diagnosis of factors which precipitate conflict is made, reasons for the conflict between students and teachers will be clear.

The view espoused in this research, as shown in chapter three, is that conflict is caused by many factors. Dealing with all conflicts in mainly the same way overlooks this point. The researcher posits that diagnosis of conflict is an indispensable step in conflict resolution. Gordon (1976), Gorton (1976) and Burton (1990, 1991) endorse this view. We refer to Chapter 4 in this regard.

(b) Punishment ranks highest as a technique teachers use to manage conflicts

From the analysis of Items 1 - 5 and 7 - 10, punishment ranks highest as a method used by teachers to deal with conflict involving students at school. It is not absolutely clear from the data gathered in this research why teachers use punishment to this degree. However, according to the traditional culture of Africans in South Africa, it is not uncommon for children to be expected to conform unquestioningly to parental authority or authority of elders. Item 10 testifies to the significance

teachers attach to the authority of elders. Sixteen percent of teachers maintain that they defend teacher authority by making students realise the age gap between them and students; and 18% remind students of teachers' position. Failure by children to conform to teacher or parent expectation is often seen as a serious transgression in African culture. Children who deviate are corrected mainly through punishment. The researcher suggests that teachers who have grown up in Black society have seen their role models such as parents and teachers deal with student conflict through punishment. They thus become socialised into the same way of handling conflict with their students. Holdstock (1987) goes on to argue that the whole South African education system is geared to the use of punishment.

Further, conflict very often tampers with one's sense of control of any situation. It would seem that when students challenge teachers' expectations or school norms, some teachers take this personally. They feel that their sense of control is challenged. One way of maintaining control of students is to punish them. The focus of control, however, does not seem to be on the process of teaching and learning; it appears to be students themselves. This is evident from the predominant behaviour of teachers when faced with student conflict. Instead of examining problems in teaching or learning, teachers punish students. In Items 3 and 5, 67% and 53,5% respectively of teachers mete out punishment when students play truant or when they copy homework or classwork. The responses of teachers who examine problems behind such students' transgressions are few. Only 2% say teachers investigate reasons for truancy, for example. Among those teachers who say they do not punish students, 15% in Item 3 still wish to, but may not for different reasons. One of these is teachers' fear of student revenge.

Such teachers' reactions to student transgressions give an impression that the student is seen as a



problem, causing a conflict. The logical teacher behaviour in this line of thinking would be to control the student and bring his or her behaviour into harmony with school values or norms. This orientation brings about a dynamic of power in teachers' ways of managing conflict. Teachers want to assert, through punishment, their power.

It would also seem that most teachers, consciously or unconsciously, operate from a philosophy that child development is readily influenced by external forces, such as punishment or being told what to do or being coerced into compliance. In Item 6, for example, 64% of teachers advise students to stop making noise. There is no mention of whether reasons for making noise are examined and, if so, how the causes are dealt with. The second highest number of responses for this Item is 17,7%. This represents those who punish students for making noise. In Item 7, 60% of teachers punish students for bullying others. Of those who use other methods, 12% send students to the principal for punishment.

Without giving an unnecessarily detailed explanation concerning the tendency of teachers to punish students, one other point needs to be made. This is the observation raised by Bot (1984) and explained in Chapters Two and Three. Bot (1984:6) maintains that most teachers in Black schools resort to punishment as a way of coping with an overwhelming and threatening environment in class.

(c) Teachers use a variety of punishment measures to deal with conflict related to school work

Besides corporally punishing students, teachers discipline students in other ways such as making students re-write work ten times (Item 5), subtracting marks (Item 5), taking students out of class and refusing to teach them (Item 10), or making them clean premises (Item 5).

While these methods may bring about short term

student compliance they also reflect a strong belief in extrinsic motivation to produce behaviour that harmonises with school norms. These methods suggest a lack of interest by teachers in students' potential to reason and develop intrinsic motivation towards acceptable behaviour.

(d) Teachers' belief in punishment is deep-seated and invites aggression from students

The first part of this observation is confirmed by the degree to which punishment is used and by the variety of punishment measures administered to students. The second part is borne out by the reasons given for why teachers do not punish students. In Item 1, for example, 5% of teachers say they do not punish students because students retaliate and 2,5% state students assault them. Two percent maintain students' friends retaliate when their peers are punished. In Item 2, 3,5% of teachers do not punish students because the latter do not accept punishment. It is only ,5% of teachers who state that punishment without knowing the reasons is futile.

To conclude the discussion above, reference is made to the category of 'other methods' teachers use to solve students' conflicts. Responses such as students are warned and punished or they are sent to the principal for punishment are common. These responses confirm a strong belief by teachers in punishment.

(e) Punishment suppresses rather than resolves student conflict

Statistics in 6.4.1 indicate that the highest number of teachers in all items point out that punishment causes various offences to *decline* only. Only 3,47% in Item 1, 7,69% in Item 2, 4,47% in Item 3, 4,91% in Item 4, and 5,03% in Item 7, for instance, state that the students *stop* the offence in question when punishment is used. Otherwise there is a definite indication that punishment does not solve the

problems. In Items 1, 2, 3, 4 and 7, 9,02%, 8,55%, 5,22%, 18,10% and 8,33% respectively state that the deviation in question does not abate with the use of punishment.

(f) Punishment generates resistance from students and induces a challenge to teacher authority

This is borne out by comments such as 'students are not willing to take punishment' (Item 3), 'students threaten to retaliate' (Item 4) or 'students refuse punishment' (Item 2). What students perceive of teachers and themselves when they are punished, is apparently that teachers attack them. They then sabotage the teachers' victory or set about to win 'against' teachers by, for instance, retaliating. This view is in agreement with what Thembela (1988) says of the possible disadvantage of competition and dominance. As shown in Chapter 4, Thembela argues that competitive methods of dealing with conflict create, among other things, a feeling of defeat for those who have not won. The losers may then sabotage the gains of the winners. This view is endorsed by Gordon (1974) and Gorton (1976). Gordon calls teachers' tendency to solve conflicts by winning against students Method I, and the inverse Method II. However, like Gorton and Thembela, he argues that these methods generate resentment in a defeated party. Besides the battle over power which punishment may unleash, it is clear that very often punishment does not address the problem around which conflict evolves. Indeed, as an example of a competitive method, it lends itself to what Thomas (1976) calls high concern over own interest, least concern over the other's interest and we add, less concern over the problem.

As shown in Chapter 3, competition and dominance tend to be I (we) versus You rather than I (we) and us versus the problem. Point (h) below will take up this argument.

However, while punishment generates negative feelings

and while it seems to result in an I (we) versus You relationship, there is another dimension to consider in this study. This dimension is discussed in (g) below.

(g) Some students accept punishment

Data analyzed in Chapter Six indicates that not all children resist punishment. While it is clear that some students resist punishment, other respondents do say that certain students accept punishment. It is deduced here that some children may accept being punished as 'the way it should be' when they have deviated from school norms. This view could emanate from a belief that the authority of teachers and elders should not be questioned by children (Item 10). It could also rise from the perceptions that teachers act in loco parentis and, therefore, children need to accept being disciplined by them as they do accept being disciplined by parents. Further, when the researcher complimented some principals from the non-metropolitan areas on apparent order in their schools, the principals would respond, for instance, by saying that the students still "listened", meaning they were still obedient or compliant. They were not 'zintombi' (grown-up girls) or 'zinsizwa' (grown-up boys) who objected to punishment. Perhaps the less dynamic nature of non-metropolitan life fosters compliance. Compliance could actually contribute to retaining a status quo in terms of the balance of power between students and teachers or between students and principals.

Some principals, for example, would state that non-metropolitan students did not behave like urban students who challenge teacher or principal authority. Clearly, with certain students, there is an element of compliance to punishment. This could be a result of a culture that demands conformity to authority. However, from the researcher's experience, most children do not object to reasonable punishment. That reasonable punishment may be acceptable concurs with the argument by Engelman

(1969) and Dobson (1970). Essentially, Engelman and Dobson argue that if punishment is used modestly it is acceptable.

(h) Management of conflict sometimes reflects a we - they relationship between students and teachers

This point has been implied above. It is, however, developed here. In a number of items, such as in Items 3, 8 and 9 students prefer that their behaviour which deviates from school norms be dealt with by their Students' Representative or Disciplinary Committees. They would rather give this responsibility to these structures than to teachers. It is assumed here that this decision by students could be a symptom of a lack of identification with teachers or even a lack of trust in teachers. Students seem to identify more with other students. This situation may feed rather than alleviate student-teacher conflicts. This state of affairs seems to support a theory raised in Chapter 3 that conflict can be caused by a feeling of identity amongst members of one group. Such identity encourages one group to develop cohesion and to create inter-group conflict. However, it would be interesting to investigate reasons behind students preferring to be disciplined by their peers to being controlled by teachers.

Further, from Items 9 and 10, some respondents report that teachers sometimes jointly punish students and they state that this helps students fear the staff room. While this technique may help teachers quell untoward behaviour by students, its effectiveness seems limited. For one thing it encourages a we-versus-them relationship. For another, it is most likely to affect student-teacher team spirit. Teachers themselves state that while some students conform, others retaliate by, for instance, writing insults against teachers on the toilet walls. Such behaviour by students confirms what Filley (1975), Bisno (1988) and Thembela (1988) say about authoritarian methods of resolving conflicts. These writers

state that such methods tend to make students rebel, resist, defy or simply be negative. We refer to Chapter Four in this connection.

- (i) Some of the punishment related forms of conflict management which teachers use seem to have a potential for defeating the purpose of teaching and learning

Such techniques as making a student repeat work he or she did not do 10 times, or not marking his or her work, can affect teaching and learning. Causing students to repeat work without a clear purpose is meaningless. Not marking students' work deprives them of the opportunity to know their mistakes. It seems these strategies have a potential for making students feel guilty, but it is not clear how they help students learn to correct the problem. Bisno (1988:87) makes mention of stimulation of guilt as a technique of managing conflict. He states that creation of guilt is 'frequently based on the premise of an unfulfilled obligation in a relationship'. The use of the technique of making another party guilty suggests a need by those who impose it to keep the balance of control in a relationship. It is not clear how the technique solves the problems.

- (j) Teachers do not seem to normalize the climate of learning after a conflict incident

There is no indication that teachers assist to normalize the climate of learning after conflict. Responses like : 'we do not mark copied work', 'we ignore the student' (Item 4) and 'we send the student to the principal' (Item 5), do not indicate what is done thereafter. Dealing with conflict aftermath is an important step of conflict management as was shown in chapters three and four in the review of literature (Filley, 1975; Gorton, 1976 and De Villiers, 1985). This step is useful to clear feelings of hurt and anger and to put the teacher-student relationship on a healthy footing. Further, from the Cases of Conflict - such as Case Numbers seven, eight and twenty where the conflict aftermath was not attended to - there appeared to be no culture of teaching and

learning, after the conflict incident.

(k) Teacher-student interaction during conflict does, on its own, sometimes compound conflict

From the argument above, in (h) and (i), it is clear that student-teacher conflict can be fuelled by the ways in which both teachers and students interact generally, but particularly when they are in a conflict situation. That interaction between people can fuel conflict is mentioned by Cronk (1987) and Gorton (1986), as was shown in Chapters Three and Four.

Gorton (1976) maintains that in a conflict situation, the problems of lack of trust of the other party and of allocation of blame, are acute. Cronk (1987) states that lack of trustworthiness between teachers and students or failure to bring classroom problems into consciousness and discuss them openly can generate conflict. Such problems deprive teachers and students of the opportunity to truly negotiate and search for mutually satisfying positions. The importance of dialogue in conflict is endorsed by Fisher and Brown (1987) and Filley (1975) and others, as presented in Chapter Four.

Of interest also on the subject of apparently problematic student-teacher interaction in conflict is the question : What factors influence such interaction? It is deduced here that a lack of trust and of review of relations, perceptions and attitudes of each other and failure to adjust these positively, will affect the positions from which people interact. It will also influence the atmosphere of interaction. This is confirmed by Filley (1975) in his analysis of Integrative Decision Making and by literature on interest based negotiation. We refer to Chapter Four in this connection.

Essentially Filley, as well as writers on integrative decision making and on interest based negotiation, point out that relations, positions, attitudes and

perceptions have to be reviewed and adjusted for conflict to be truly resolved. Mutual trust is seen by Filley (1975) as an important factor for parties in conflict to work with each other against the problem.

However, the researcher observes that there is another dynamic in teacher-student interaction which may exacerbate conflict. This is the nature of communication. It is noticed that a practice like 'name-calling' which it is reported teachers and students use (we refer, for example, to conflict cases 17 and 18), does not acknowledge the dignity of students. Students' insults to teachers, a phenomenon already commented on, also devalues teachers. In other words, negative student-teacher interaction during conflict is sometimes patterned along what transactional analysts label quadrants 1, or 3 or 4. Essentially, these patterns of communication foster, as was shown in Chapters Three and Four, crossed transaction. They stimulate frustration and compound rather than alleviate conflict.

- (1) The nature of motivating students by teachers does not seem adequate for developing skills which students might use to behave in harmony with school norms

In Items 1 and 4 those teachers who motivate students do so by, for example, telling students of the importance of school or by sending them to the principal for a warning. In other Items, teachers motivate students by advising them that they should do their work. Telling students what they should do, as a motivational means, is mentioned in other Items such as 9. While guiding students will always involve giving suggestions or telling them different things, a few issues will be raised here regarding the above.

Giving advice or instructions does not generate creative problem solving. It may not appeal to the inner rationality of students. In other words, the motivation teachers seem to exercise is extrinsic.



This observation confirms an earlier one made in (b) above that teachers incline most to external motivators to solve conflicts with students. Further from the review of literature in Chapter Four on the role of management and motivation in conflict resolution, a few other issues warrant a comment. On talking of motivators, Herzberg (1966) mentions job-enrichment, achievement and recognition as sources of motivation. Job-enrichment, comprehensively defined, means development or increase in a repertoire of skills which a person uses to handle and master a job. Achievement is only possible when people have been shown how to achieve and have the opportunity to develop the necessary skills. People can gain recognition more readily when they have skills to contribute. The practice of motivation by teachers does not indicate any clear ways as to how students are to be empowered to gain skills they can use to manage conflicts. Put differently teacher motivational methods seem to lack intrinsic motivators.

(m) Teacher-student intimate relationships introduce a negative dynamic into school life

Teachers who have intimate relationships with students seem to be seen as intruders by students. Alternatively, students who have "affairs" with teachers seem to feel too special and develop a kind of superiority complex, against perceived competitors, namely those who compete for the love of a teacher, as the student does.

It would seem that when students have affairs with teachers, their perceptions of their status changes. They perceive themselves as qualifying for the same rights and privileges as the women teachers who could be the male teachers' lovers. This generates conflict over power.

(n) Copying by students seems to be partly an attempt to save one's ego and a sense of self-esteem

Where copying obtains, a student's aim is probably to

save face. Where students are discovered, a student's ego gets bruised. This, coupled with punishment, may explain some forms of students' defensiveness and negative reactions, like violence. If this assumption is correct it tallies with Bybee and Gee's (1982) contention, explained in Chapter Four, that where students fail to achieve within approved reward systems, they may seek achievement in deviant ways. Violence can be a way of working oneself to recognition. It can also be a reaction to barriers towards achievement.

### **7.3 STUDENT-SCHOOL CONFLICT AND CONFLICT RELATED TO SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION**

#### **(a) Lack of resources encourages conflict**

In Item 4, 2% of teachers say students cannot do homework because they do not have books and 2% say family conditions such as slums make it difficult for students to do school work. In Item 5, 3% of teachers say they cannot address the problems of students who copy because students in class are too many. In the cases of conflict such as those numbered 1, 2, 3, 12, 13, 24 and 26 one of the causes of conflict is money or lack of books. Tables 1 - 4 at the end of this dissertation clearly indicate the shortage of resources in KwaZulu schools. Lack of resources can encourage conflict. This observation supports the thesis raised in Chapter 3 that deprivation of resources can generate frustration, which in turn precipitates conflict. This view is further confirmed by the protests staged by Black students from different circuits in KwaZulu schools, since 1985 to 1990. The problem of resources is further highlighted by Ilanga (April 4 - 6, 1991). Ilanga reports that one of the greatest iniquities perpetrated by the apartheid ideology against the KwaZulu Government and people in the region is the inadequate finance made available for education. Further a number of organisations and individuals have objected to different education systems because these ensure inequality in the distribution of

resources. The National Education Committee and the now disbanded African Teachers' Association of South Africa are examples.

(b) The manner in which some teachers and principals use power in schools contributes to conflict

While teachers want co-operation from students, the tendency to assert teacher power is obvious. Teacher inclination to rely on coercive power is illustrated by their use of punishment. Some principals use their coercive and position power to manage conflicts with students. In Item 5, for example, 50% of principals punish students for styling hair in ways different from those approved by the school, 14% cut students' hair if the students' hair style is not what the school approves of. Conflict cases 23 and 26 are examples of teacher and principal use of coercive and position power.

Use of teacher coercive and position power does not go unchallenged by students. With regard to punishment, some teachers state that students resist punishment (Items 2 and 5). Some of the reasons why teachers do not punish students even if they want to, are that students carry dangerous weapons and teachers fear student retaliation. Conflict cases 26 and 42 are examples of students' challenge of principal power. The problems of using coercive and position power is highlighted by De Flaminis (1976) as shown in Chapter Three. De Flaminis concluded from his research that authoritarian or coercive teacher behaviours reduce student self-esteem and increase student disruptive behaviour. Demands by students for their Representative Councils to act as disciplinary bodies and students' retaliatory efforts to teachers testify to this. Bybee and Gee (1982), Gordon (1974) and Cronk (1987) support the view that students tend to react in these ways when excessive power is used against them. We refer to Chapter Four. Further, the call for Students' Representative Councils, chosen by students themselves and not teachers, is seen by the researcher as a challenge to

the old order in the governing of schools. It is also a call for a review of the distribution of power. This may have its toll in affecting student-school relations, at least temporarily.

Further, that power struggles seem a contributory source of conflict behaviour in schools is seen at a meso- and macro level as well, not only at micro (school) level. Four illustrations clarify this. First are rulings by some parties such as the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) that there be stayaways on certain days to force the Government and business to change its mind about discriminatory laws (Sached, 1989: 221-242; South African Race Relations Survey, 1987/1988: 684). While such organisations clamour for power against the Government and its perceived agents, capitalists, in South Africa, students are caught in the battlefield. They absent themselves from school on forced stayaway days. Secondly, the instructions by some traditional chiefs that students go on camp during times of fights, so that they are all to be part of the regiment, is another dimension of the power struggles which students get caught in. Hence, students under such chieftaindoms either do not go to school or cannot do school work well, because of sheer physical exhaustion. Thirdly, between about 1983 and 1986, some political organizations in South Africa called for students to have as their priority the liberation struggle first and education later - Ilanga, (April 4 - 6, 1991) and Kruss (1988:7). While the hope was to make the Government review apartheid laws, it required students to engage in behaviour which conflicted with school norms. Students' absenteeism from school and ungovernability of schools because of disruptions posed a serious problem for teaching and learning. Fourthly, and finally, the apparent desire by some communities to have principals who are local people sometimes creates conflict. We refer, for instance, to Conflict Case No. 45. It would seem that such communities want to exercise their position power,

namely the right of being there as communities. It is not clear whether the exercise of this right takes into consideration any merit-related selection criteria for principals.

Whatever the communities' motivation, pushing for local principals and sometimes using students to do so, creates a conflict of values between parents and the inspectors who make appointments. Inspectors (presumably) appoint principals on some basis of merit; parents in Case No. 45 which is cited, want principals appointed because they are local people. As said earlier, position power can create a conflict of interests.

(c) The curriculum in Black schools under study is a factor in conflicts students engage in

Some respondents maintain that certain school subjects and homework based on these are irrelevant to students' needs and interests. Further, the comment on truancy (Item 3) - that it is higher during sports time - highlights the problem of inadequate curricula in Black secondary schools in KwaZulu.

As pointed out in Chapter Three, sport facilities in most of these schools are a problem. In most schools only one soccer field and one netball field are available. With an average enrolment of 500 students in schools, it is clear that most students do not participate in any sport. It can, therefore, be concluded that an unsuitable curriculum poses a great threat to satisfying students' interests, and their need to boost their ego and fulfil themselves. This, coupled with problems of intra-mural setting, like high numbers in class, little individual attention and a limited choice of subjects, make it difficult for students to succeed.

Curricula in Black schools do not sufficiently promote students' sense of self-esteem, security and fulfilment. If Burton's theory (1987) that conflict

results from frustrated needs, is correct, and in Chapters Three and Four it is argued that this theory has legitimacy, then students in Black schools are in a situation which encourages frustration and conflict. As argued in Chapter Four, unsatisfied need generates frustration and leads to conflict. Further, the research on the Safe Schools Study in Bybee and Gee (1982) confirms this view. It will be recalled that this study concluded that violence tended to be higher in schools where students felt teachers were not teaching courses they wanted to learn. In other words a limited curriculum like the one found in Black schools threatens opportunities for students to self-actualise themselves, to succeed and develop their sense of esteem, to feel secure and grow.

- (d) Students' approach to handling conflicts with schools and sometimes among themselves is characterised mainly by aggressiveness and militancy

Students' behaviour during conflicts is characterised by aggression and militancy. This is illustrated by techniques they use to manage conflicts with principals. The analysis of cases of conflict points out that aggressive and competitive methods are the highest of all techniques students use to deal with conflict. Besides the physical aggression like stoning buildings, the language which principals allege students use reflects militant attitudes. In almost all the incidents where students wish to be refunded the money they have paid to the school, they are said to have demanded fees. Conflict cases 1, 2, 3 and 5 and others are examples. Other incidents, like closing gates to keep teachers out, indicate students' aggressiveness.

An understanding of the apparently characteristic approaches students use to handle conflict would be helpful, particularly as a start to improving the situation.

First: it would seem that students believe that being aggressive and confrontational solves problems. Second: it would also appear that the environment in which students live offers them the message that domineering and competitive styles of managing conflicts are useful. From the analysis and interpretation of data from teachers' responses, it is clear that competitive methods of solving conflicts are used most commonly by teachers. Further, the current violent forms of handling conflicts in South Africa, particularly among a number of Black communities, present violent models of handling conflicts to students.

Besides, violence alone creates insecurity and uncertainty, both of which encourage irritability. Robertson (1991:135) endorses this view, when he talks about the influence of violence on children. He states that violence is traumatizing and it encourages insecurity and tension. It is alleged here that the insecurity experienced, alone, may lower a student's perseverance threshold and may promote aggressive tendencies.

Thirdly: students tend to want solutions to be arrived at quickly. Competitive and aggressive methods of solving conflict are thus appealing to the youth. Literature review on competitive methods of handling conflict suggests that they can be seen as useful when answers are needed quickly. Chapter Four pointed this out.

There is a fourth possible explanation of students' inclination to confrontational methods of handling conflict. This relates to the apparent lack of team spirit between students and teachers. As Thomas (1976) and Filley (1975) show, competitive and aggressive methods of handling conflict have, as a primary consideration, one's interests. Least consideration is given to the interests of the other party. This point is explained in Chapter Four. It is, therefore, logical to conclude that where there

is polarisation between teachers and students, the approach to conflict reflects an interest in winning, or in defeating the other party. This ensures that one's concerns are satisfied. The interests of the other party are not thought of. The one reason for this is that relationships are adversarial.

Without exhausting reasons for students' aggressive tendencies in conflict management, one more point will be made. This point draws from the Conspiracy Theory as a framework for explaining conflict. It will be recalled from Chapter Three that, according to this theory, conflict is the outcome of instigation which is engineered from outside the group, by conspirators. Some principals, for instance, allege that students are incited from outside to demand fees they have paid to the school. Conflict Case 2 supports this point.

In Chapter Three it was submitted that the Conspiracy Theory can be valid as one framework to explain conflicts. The point is: it would seem that conspiracy and instigation are effective when those incited are vulnerable or susceptible to it. From the discussions on the background and situation in Black schools in Chapter Three and in other parts of this research, it is felt that conditions in Black schools create a high potential for student conflict. This is exacerbated when student-teacher relationships are strained.

In concluding the discussion on student aggressiveness in solving conflict, one further comment is appropriate. It is the researcher's view that competitive styles of solving conflict do, in some cases, contain a conflict or a problem. Yet, unless they are supplemented and followed with conflict resolution methods, such as those discussed under the heading 'Win-Win Methods' in Chapter Four, conflict may not be effectively dealt with. Gorton (1976), Gordon (1974) and other sources in Chapter Four, hold this contention.



- (e) Some decisions principals make are not subjected to regular evaluation to determine whether or not they need adjustment

Conflict cases 12 and 13 suggest that sometimes principals do not review decisions regarding fees, to determine whether these still serve the needs and interests initially set. If principals had reviewed decisions in the cases cited, there would have been alternative decrees regarding what students have to pay, for what and why. In some cases principals have been subjected to reviewing decisions on fees by students.

The issue of decision making in the cases referred to seems linked to an apparent linear problem solving pattern which is found in some schools. It would appear that once solutions to problems are found (for example collecting R20,00 from each child to pay two teachers), there is no regular or subsequent review of the situation. Obviously many factors and circumstances could militate against a review of decisions. However, the point to note is that linear decision making and problem solving are a departure from patterns of decision making advocated by literature on the subject. Stoner and Wankel (1988) as well as Gorton (1976), for example, strongly suggest continuous evaluation of decisions. Further, if decisions are tools to handle a complex and often unpredictable situation, then in Black schools linear decision making should have a minimal role.

- (f) Principals' reaction to conflicts seems to influence the trend a conflict takes

Principals react to conflict around the fees in generally two ways; namely, offering an explanation to students regarding the school budget, or with counter-aggression. Where principals explain and analyze the budget to students, the latter respond positively. An example of the influence of explanation is one in which both students and the school agreed to reduce fees for other students, but increase them for Home Economics students. In almost

all the cases where teachers responded to students' concern that fees are misused, by explaining, students seem to have cleared their concerns. Conflict cases 3, 29, 38, and 49, for instance, illustrate the point.

It would appear that explaining clears misperceptions. It would also seem that the principals who worked through the cited conflicts kept the focus on the underlying reasons for the conflict. They did not get bogged down in fights with students - that is they did not react to students' aggressive tendencies with counter-aggression. This seems to have contributed to positive student-school relationships.

Likewise, where principals and parents respond with counter-violence, problems and conflicts appear to have been quelled, but uncertainty and lack of trust between teachers and students results. The case of a community member who brought along to school a sjambok to beat students for demanding money, illustrates this point. Students reacted by physically removing the man from school and promising to assault him if he challenged them further.

The observation, regarding identifying students' basic reasons for getting into conflict, could relate to Druicker's (1969) theory raised in Chapter Four. Druicker argues that it is essential to identify a student's goal in a conflict. He then states that teachers' counter-aggression can exacerbate students' faulty goals such as power and revenge.

(g) Principals' perceptions and understanding of a conflict influence the way they solve the conflict

The role of perceptions in causing conflict has been acknowledged in this research. Perceptions of an existing conflict determine how it is handled. Those principals who see the demand for the return of fees as a concern to know about the school budget, offer explanations and often clear misperceptions. Those who see such demands as a challenge to their

authority react with anger and aggression. In most cases, the latter approach further strains relationships. That aggression can strain relationships is supported by Robbins (1980) and Thembela (1988) as stated in Chapter Four. The view that perception influences conflict handling, suggests the importance of a thorough diagnosis of conflict to ensure that what is perceived is the accurate picture. The significance of diagnosis of conflict has been discussed in Chapter Four and at the beginning of this Chapter. Filley (1975) and Gorton (1976) also highlight the role of review of perceptions in conflict resolution.

- (h) Some student-principal, or student-school conflicts are caused by misperceptions and lack of information from the students' side.

It is evident from allegations students make about misappropriation of money, that some conflicts are caused by lack of information. This creates misperceptions which generate conflicts. This observation concurs with Moore's (1988) theory, that some conflicts arise out of misperceptions. We refer to Chapters One and Four in this connection. Where students are provided with information on the income and expenditure of school fees, conflict abates. Conflict cases 6, 12 and 13 among others, illustrate this point.

- (i) Students do not have a sufficient stake in decision making in the schools under study

Demands for Student Representatives' Councils is evidence in support of this observation. While some principals' contention is that outside elements instigate students to be ungovernable and that Student Representatives' Councils become radical, students' need for participation in decision making in schools exists. It has been shown, in the analysis of data from teachers, that lack of participation by students in decision making at schools creates a feeling of isolation and frustration, both of which precipitate conflict.

(j) There is a perception by students in some schools that teachers have a problem executing some of their duties : when students take over fellow students' admissions and tell teachers what to do, there is an implication that teachers are inefficient to do the job.

(k) Accommodation of students' demands by principals and teachers, without dealing with the demands creates resentment in teachers and principals

Where, for example, the school merely accommodates students' demands for the return of fees, without any explanation regarding the usage of these, teachers particularly seem to harbour resentment against students. Teachers' morale, as well as their trust of students, become low. Conflict cases 1 and 7 illustrate this point.

From the study of accommodation as a conflict handling style in this project, it is concluded that the style is useful, at best, only to contain the conflict. It could be a stop gap method, to be used along with a more effective method. Further, that accommodation tends to create resentment in teachers is understandable when one considers that accommodation gives priority to the needs and interests of the other party in a conflict. The accommodating party may harbour ill feeling because his or her needs and interests are not attended to through this style.

#### **7.4 GENERAL INTERPRETATION**

(a) Unsatisfied students' needs seem to be a serious factor in school conflicts

Students' need for recognition and participation have created conflicts about student involvement in decision making. Further, other unmet student needs have caused conflict. The needs of matrices who want

to repeat the class to learn and succeed have, for example, motivated them to demand re-admission to school. It would, therefore, appear that identifying an underlying need behind a conflict and facilitating the fulfilment of this is useful in the resolution of conflict. Cases 2, 6, 11 and 12 point this out.

(b) In some schools students are politicised in a manner that affects their learning

The problem of political party affiliations and of vying to canvas or consolidate political membership seems to be a feature in some schools. These affiliations present one version of politicising schools.

While there is an argument in some circles, as in Ngidi (1988:48), that the Government first politicised education through apartheid and various laws, the current operative mode of politicising schools presents another set of problems. Firstly, students' allegiance to their political parties takes precedence over their common allegiance as students of a school. Students who belong to other parties are seen as outsiders and this encourages a fight over dominance and power. Secondly, political party affiliation encourages a zero-sum perception of political stakes (whatever they are). It promotes a perception that there are only winners and losers ; a dominant party and a defeated one or no party. Finally, these problems seem to augur poorly for the harmonious co-existence which students need in order to learn. It will be recalled from Chapter Three that the zero-sum orientation to conflict tends to promote a we-they dichotomy between parties in a conflict. Filley (1975) and Burton (1990) support this view. Such a perception of conflict resolution among students is seen here to be a factor in exacerbating conflicts over political membership in schools.

- (c) There are many antecedent conditions for conflict in Black secondary schools

These are either in the socio-economic or political environment of the school, or in the structural context of the school. They may lie in the student-teacher, student-principal interaction. This observation concurs with most theories on conflict in Chapter Three, such as the interaction theory, the deprivation-frustration theory and the structural theory. It also supports the view that the Human Needs Theory offers a comprehensive explanation for conflict.

- (d) Generating conflict sometimes brings about functional outcomes

Generating conflict by addressing legitimate frustrations and grievances has helped students in some cases. In one incident on the issue of books, it was helpful in forcing the principal to attempt to do his share towards organizing some books. Stimulating conflict has assisted some teachers to review their use of punishment. In the researcher's view generating conflict actually means refusing to be a party in a problem. It is about making a choice and taking a stand to clear a conflict, and problems giving rise to it. It is somehow aligned to what Alschuler (1980) calls a critically transforming stage in conflict resolution. This means re-examining and reviewing rules and roles that bring about conflict. We refer to Chapter Four in this regard.

- (e) Students want democratic ideals but seem to lack democratic means

The conflicts between students and the schools and students and headteachers suggest that students place value on democracy in schools. However, they lack democratic means. The problem of political intolerance to other students who are members of another political party, illustrate this. Perhaps the issue of students' "political intolerance" is a reflection of the current political intolerance in Black communities in South Africa. At the time of

presenting this thesis some Black political parties such as the African National Congress and the Inkatha Freedom Party show very little political tolerance to each other.

(f) There are techniques which are helpful to reduce conflict in schools

From the category of other methods which teachers use to solve conflict with students, there are techniques which are reported by teachers to be useful in solving conflicts in schools. As far as teachers are concerned some of these techniques are encouraging students to study independently, inviting parents for joint counselling and guiding students to correct behaviour. It would seem that interacting with students in these ways helps them develop a sense of commitment to values the school wishes them to adopt. In this way, motivation becomes a skills or value developing exercise.

As far as principals are concerned, maintaining communication with students, even during crises, listening carefully and locating the source of the problem seems important. Conflict cases 9 and 11, for example, illustrate this.

(g) Conflict resolution can bring about improved relationships and growth

The cases where conflict has been resolved and problems underlying the conflict attended to, illustrate the above contention. Conflict cases 12, 13 and 49 support this view. Clearly, the process of working through such conflicts has been long and uneasy. That conflict resolution can bring about better relationships and that it can introduce the necessary growth and change, has been suggested by other sources such as Robbins (1983, 1974) and Leas (1990).

## **7.5 INTERPRETATION OF DATA WITH REFERENCE TO :**

(a) Assumption 1: Principals and teachers in secondary schools in KwaZulu tend to use power-based and

authoritarian methods of dealing with student conflict.

These methods do not necessarily resolve student-student, student-teacher and student-school conflict.

From the analysis of data in 6.3 and in 6.6.1 in the preceding chapter, as well as its interpretation in 7.2, we accept Assumption 1.

- (b) Assumption 2: Problem solving as a conflict handling method is rarely and minimally used by teachers and principals.

From the analysis and interpretation of data, it is clear that problem solving is rarely used to manage conflicts with students. This assumption is thus accepted. Examples of problem solving are integrative decision making and consensus.

As far as teachers are concerned, it has been observed that punishment is a commonly used method. Even where teachers do not punish students for deviating from school norms, a high percentage would like to. In Items 1, 3 and 4, for example, the percentage of teachers who would like to punish students is second to the percentage of those who actually do.

In Items 2, 5, 8 and 10, the percentage of teachers who would like to punish students, but may not for various reasons, ranks third in the set of methods used to handle student conflict. The point being made here is that besides a majority of teachers who use punishment to deal with student conflict, there is still a significant number who do not use problem solving related methods either. Further, there are responses by teachers which confirm the point that they rarely use problem solving to handle students' conflict. Teachers, for instance, report that they do not punish students for fear of student retaliation, or student assault. They also state that they do not punish students because the latter do not accept punishment, or because certain political



organisations have ruled against punishment. We refer to Items 1 - 5, for example, in this regard. In other words, for these teachers the decision not to punish students is not related to a conviction that problem solving or Win-Win methods are an option to handle conflict in schools.

Finally, punishment measures seem to be practised in different forms such as making students rewrite work 10 times. Students are also sent to the principal for him or her to punish them. Sometimes students are also made to clean premises. These methods, it is submitted, may deter students from engaging in behaviour which conflicts with school norms. They may also instil fear of punishment and ensure the necessary compliance. However, used alone, they do not guarantee the solution of problems and conflicts.

The data from principals on Items 1 - 5 also suggests that principals tend to use coercive and punitive measures to deal with student conflict. However, according to principals' observations, students also use aggressive methods to handle conflict with the school.

The question is: Why are problem solving methods seldom used in managing conflicts in some Secondary Schools in KwaZulu? From the research it is clear that schools are faced with high numbers of students and a complex set of problems. There does not seem to be enough time at their disposal to use problem solving methods, which require time. Further, as said earlier in 7.2(b) teachers have themselves been socialised into using punishment to deal with student problems and conflicts.

(c) **Assumption 3: Ignoring or accommodating conflict is of uncertain benefit.**

This assumption is accepted. Two styles of dealing with conflict will be commented on here.

(i) Accommodating Conflict

For teachers to want to punish students and yet not do so, hardly results in a situation where teachers and students win. The conflict does not abate. Data on Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 10 from teachers bears this out. In fact, in four Items where the technique in question is used, conflict becomes worse.

It seems, in most instances, that a teacher's decision not to punish students is not replaced by any initiative as to how to handle conflict. This is not surprising if the reasons for not punishing students are recalled. The chief reason is that a particular body has ruled against punishment. Such a body could be a political party, or parents or the department. Sometimes teachers do not punish students for fear of retaliation by students.

What appears to happen is the creation of inertia in the control of student-teacher relationships. Teachers seem to feel forced to abdicate the exercise of control through a method they know, namely punishment. Being barred from using this method, there seems, for most teachers, to be no alternative method that addresses behaviour by students which conflicts with school norms. In this case, what is seen to be happening is that conflict is accommodated, rather than actively dealt with. The benefits of this stand are not always positive. This is understandable when one considers the implications of accommodation. As discussed in Chapter 4, accommodation implies that teachers give in to students' concerns and interests, and students are made to win the conflicts. Teachers as losers resign themselves to the situation and mostly harbour anger.

(ii) Ignoring Conflict

It is not apparent when overlooking conflict is

best and when not. Two Items, namely students bullying and abusing others, have the highest percentage of scores which indicate that students' conflict stops when overlooked. In Item 7, 23% of respondents state that overlooking students' bullying of others decreases student-student conflict. Seventeen percent say ignoring students' bullying of others makes bullying stop. In Item 8, 22% of respondents report that ignoring students' abusiveness to others, stops the problem. Eleven percent state ignoring students' abusiveness of others decreases the problem. Yet there is no basis to conclude when 'ignoring' is the best strategy to deal with student conflict and when not. Callahan and Fleenor's view (1988), as stated in Chapter Four, is that overlooking conflict is best when the issue is trivial and there is no chance of success in pursuing one's concern. However, there is no evidence that students abusing and bullying others is, in the schools under study, trivial. In my view one plausible explanation of when overlooking abusiveness is best, may come from the Social Discipline Theory. This theory was discussed in Chapter 4. What happens when overlooking conflict works is that a student's faulty goal is not encouraged.

From the discussion above, the benefits of accommodation conflict seem to be limited. The outcomes of ignoring conflicts are also not clear.

#### **7.6 CONCLUSION TO THIS CHAPTER**

From the interpretation of data in this Chapter, it is evident that most teachers use power based and authoritarian methods to manage conflicts with students. Imposed solutions and different kinds of punishment measures are used to deal with conflict involving students.

It is also clear that teachers' beliefs in the coercive methods are deepseated. This was shown by the high responses on the use of punitive measures as well as by the variety of these. Teachers' reliance on coercive and authoritarian strategies to manage conflict reflects a belief that external factors are capable of motivating students to behave harmoniously with school norms. There do not seem to be many teachers who appeal to the rationality of students and who jointly work with them to create solutions to conflict.

Where teachers cannot use coercive and authoritarian ways to manage conflicts with students, they mostly accommodate conflict. Accommodation is accompanied with anger towards students and with loss of morale in teachers. This, obviously, affects the teaching and learning situation.

Many teachers are not familiar with other styles of managing conflicts, besides those that are authoritarian, accommodating and avoiding. According to this research, few teachers are able to work co-operatively with students to deal with conflict.

From the interpretation of data, it is clear that the KwaZulu school system does not adequately provide for the satisfaction of basic human needs of students. This is largely attributable to factors like lack of resources, high pupil-teacher ratio and a limited curricula.

Another problem that fosters conflict is lack of community between teachers and students and inadequate communication channels. These problems were found to create a series of misperceptions about the school administration.

According to principals' responses, students manage conflicts with teachers and the school aggressively as well. They demand things or destroy property. They use the power of numbers to fight the school.

The culture of problem solving does not seem to be established in the schools studied. Not many teachers use problem solving methods to manage conflict with students.

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According to principals' responses, students manage conflicts with teachers and the school aggressively as well. They demand things or destroy property. They use the power of numbers to fight the school.

The culture of problem solving does not seem to be established in the schools studied. Not many teachers use problem solving methods to manage conflict with students.

Finally, the approach of a principal to managing conflict and to dealing with students, was found to be critical. It influences the success or failure of the conflict managing process.

At this point, the researcher will draw conclusions from the whole study, and make recommendations. This, she does, in the next chapter.

\*\*\*\*\*

# **CHAPTER EIGHT**

## **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **8.1 INTRODUCTION**

This study has focused on the patterns of the management and resolution of student-teacher, student-principal and student-student conflicts in KwaZulu secondary schools. The aim was to determine the methods used for resolving interpersonal conflict between the parties mentioned. The research also sought to establish the effect of these methods on the resolution of conflict.

### **8.2 CONCLUSIONS**

8.2.1 As shown in Chapter Six, teachers mostly use power-based and authoritarian methods of dealing with student conflict. These are methods of control which reflect authoritarian leadership. They include coercion, violence, and resistance.

These methods require unqualified obedience to teacher authority. They do not support students to generate solutions to their problems with teachers. While they may induce compliance from students, they are not necessarily problem directed.

8.2.2 It was also revealed, on the basis of principals' observations, that students resort to the exercise of power and to violence too, to manage conflicts especially with teachers and principals. A number of conflict cases illustrated this.

A few reasons for students' use of power based methods to handle conflict were felt to be : the culture of violence and aggression that characterises a number of areas in South Africa,



and the lack of trust between students and teachers in some cases. Teachers themselves were observed to be socialising students into authoritarian and power based ways of handling conflict. This they do by excessive use of punishment and other confrontational methods of dealing with student conflict.

**8.2.3** The research also concluded that accommodation of student aggression by teachers creates problems. Where teachers accommodate students' demands without solving conflicts, teachers show resentment and anger against students. This tends to encourage teacher apathy and to decrease teacher morale. These attitudes were found not to be supportive to normalising student learning after conflicts, especially disruptive ones.

**8.2.4** Win-Win methods of resolving conflicts were found to be least used by teachers and students. Examples of these would be consensus and integrative decision making.

However, it was concluded that where Win-Win methods were used, the problems from which conflicts emerged were solved. Further, interactions between disputing participants in the conflict are normalised.

**8.2.5** The study concluded that conflicts in some Black secondary schools in KwaZulu are largely caused by unmet needs and power struggles between students and teachers or students and principals. Some conflicts are over values.

**(a)** Regarding conflicts over unsatisfied needs : Students strive and struggle to satisfy needs such as success, achievement, participation and identity. They do not always seem able to do so within approved means and circumstances at their schools. They do, however, push to satisfy these in 'deviant' ways, for example, copying or

choosing their students' representatives even where teachers do not take kindly to these.

(b) **Regarding power struggles** : It is concluded that conflicts over power feature where there are standing dissatisfactions, especially on the part of students, and where the level of trust between students and teachers is low.

(c) **Regarding conflicts over divergent values** : It was noted that these related to deepseated problems such as problems in the structure of the school or the environment of the child. Where students copied, for example, it was sometimes as a result of the unavailability of books which did not enable students to do school work. It would seem that certain factors within the structure of the school cause students to develop value systems that are antithetical to ethical student behaviour in education. Examples of these are values expressed in statements like "Pass one, pass all", or in copying or in forging reports.

**8.2.6** Dialogue with students even during the times of conflict appears to be helpful. It seems to diffuse a situation and paves the way for the restoration of trust between the school and students. The significance of dialogue in conflict is shown through conflict cases 3, 29, 38 and 49, among others.

**8.2.7** From the broad perspective it was deduced that conflicts in Black schools are not a new phenomenon. There have been conflicts over inadequate resources and conflicts about the nature of education offered to Blacks for decades. The difference between earlier conflicts and conflicts since the seventies is that, in the latter case, violence features often and intensely.

**8.2.8** It emerged from the study that most teachers

believe that authoritarian ways of solving conflicts are the only methods. Where teachers have been forced not to use these, there is a feeling of powerlessness and apathy.

- 8.2.9 Finally, the handling of resistance to Black education by the Government has intensified the potential for conflict in education. The Government has either been aggressive in dealing with dissatisfied groups or it has provided inadequate measures.

From these conclusions, as well as interpretations in Chapter Six, the following recommendations flow.

### **8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **8.3.1 RECOMMENDATIONS DIRECTED TO TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS**

- (a) Teachers and principals should, through their teacher associations, establish resource centres. In these centres, a facilitator or mediator of conflict should be employed, together with other specialists like curricular ones. A facilitator specialising in conflict resolution and management will assist principals, teachers and students to manage and resolve conflicts. He or she could also be involved in the running of management courses for teachers. He or she could also be conducting research into school management.
- (b) Principals and teachers could, in addition to (a), make use of the skills of conflict resolution facilitators from agencies like the Education Foundation. This could be done where there is no local (school) expert to help resolve conflicts.
- (c) Where teachers need the principal's support in handling student conflict, principals should not do so alone. They could resolve the conflict with teachers, or facilitate the process. Otherwise, teachers lose control of their classes if

principals take the job of managing class conflicts away from them.

- (d) Teachers and principals need to initiate ways of creating a culture of We-versus the problem in schools, rather than let the culture of teachers-or principal-versus students reign. In this exercise, teachers and principals need to solicit students' participation.

As part of the above, both principals and teachers need to develop schools as communities and strive for a climate of team spirit with students.

- (e) As part of staff development and self development, principals and teachers should develop a wider range of methods for solving problems which give rise to conflicts. Methods such as consensus, interest based bargaining, negotiation and integrative decision making are examples.

Principals should initiate school based or circuit based in-service programmes on class and school management and on conflict resolution.

- (f) Principals and teachers should try to keep communication channels open between them and students at all times. Where communication flows freely it is easier to detect conflict before it erupts into unsafe proportions.

Further, open communication is one way to safeguard trust and clarify misperceptions, even during conflict.

- (g) If teachers have to use corporal punishment, they must do so to a minimum extent. They should also supplement it with methods that encourage students to reason solutions to conflict and to be intrinsically motivated to behave correctly. If children come late to school, for example, the

principals take the job of managing class conflicts away from them.

- (d) Teachers and principals need to initiate ways of creating a culture of We-versus the problem in schools, rather than let the culture of teachers-or principal-versus students reign. In this exercise, teachers and principals need to solicit students' participation.

As part of the above, both principals and teachers need to develop schools as communities and strive for a climate of team spirit with students.

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- (g) If teachers have to use corporal punishment, they must do so to a minimum extent. They should also supplement it with methods that encourage students to reason solutions to conflict and to be intrinsically motivated to behave correctly. If children come late to school, for example, the

teachers should establish reasons for unpunctuality with the child and help the child to achieve solutions rationally, rather than punishing him/her. Besides, corporal punishment appears to have negative outcomes. Scott (1986) writing in the Sunday Tribune of September 21, cites extensive research which indicates the harmful effects of corporal punishment. The research Scott refers to suggests that corporal punishment is associated with later social violence. Although corporal punishment appears to bring about short term compliance, in the long term it may be counter-productive and may exacerbate problems.

- (h) Student admissions and the delegation of teachers to handle these, needs to be well prepared for by principals. Expectations from feeder schools, from current students and from parents regarding admissions must be communicated clearly and in time to all concerned. The duties and responsibilities of teachers regarding admissions should be co-ordinated by principals. Students should then be told which teacher to go to and when, as they register. Such steps will alleviate conflicts created as a result of poorly managed admissions.
- (i) Principals and teachers could exercise preventive conflict handling as much as possible. This they can do through effective management of classes and schools. This can be brought about through responding to recommendations (a) and (e).
- (j) Teachers and principals need to motivate students to tolerate the views of other people, especially those which differ from theirs. This can start at a class level where teachers would encourage debate and a challenging of the views of others, including theirs (teachers'). They need to encourage students to realise that a debate over an issue is not synonymous with attack on those

who raise different opinions.

- (k) In view of the frequently made request by students that they need pupil representative councils, principals should involve students in decision making. However, principals could determine the extent to which pupils can be involved. Where pupils cannot be involved in decision making, principals need to provide pupils with the necessary information. Budgets are an example of issues about which students at secondary school level need to be informed.

**8.3.2 RECOMMENDATIONS DIRECTED TO COLLEGES OF EDUCATION AND TO THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE**

- (a) Colleges of Education should introduce a component on conflict management for teachers. This could be part of the School Administration Course. In teaching the component on conflict management, case studies from conflicts in schools should be used. This would infuse a practical component into theories of conflict. Case studies would help to contextualise the course, and ground it in a Black South African setting.
- (b) A mandatory course for principals on conflict management could be organised by the Department of Education and Culture. This could be an integral part of Management Courses.

**8.3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS DIRECTED TO THE GOVERNMENT AND ALL OTHER STAKEHOLDERS IN BLACK EDUCATION**

- (a) All those with a stake in education, particularly Black communities, have to press for the introduction of alternative education by the Government. The new education system should respond equally to the varied needs and interests of all students in the country. It should be education that has a comprehensive curriculum. Black communities should continue to seek active

involvement in the suggested education.

- (b) The Government in South Africa needs to introduce a new policy in Black Education. The policy recommended here should make it possible for Black education to be provided for equally with education for any racial group in the country. Further, the Government has to ensure that such a policy allows for the planning of education that meets the educational needs of Black students.

#### 8.4 CONCLUSION

The complex nature of conflict warrants a multi-dimensional approach to managing it. Hence, in this Chapter, an attempt has been made to provide a comprehensive set of recommendations which can be useful in managing conflict in schools.

The Chapter has indicated that schools have a pertinent role in preventing, diagnosing and managing conflict continuously and creatively. The researcher also suggests that conflict management at school level is also part of effective leadership and management by teachers and principals.

Since conflict in schools also originates from other sub-systems or structures related to the school, the researcher has made recommendations addressed to these structures.

Whether students' lives thrive or falter, whether teachers educate joyously and productively and whether principals lead schools to worthy goals, will all in some way be determined by how conflict is handled.

\*\*\*\*\*



# TABLES

TABLE I

## PER CAPITA EXPENDITURE IN EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

PER CAPITA EXPENDITURE : 1988/89

	INCLUDING CAPITAL EXPENDITURE	EXCLUDING CAPITAL EXPENDITURE
AFRICANS (IN THE WHITE-DESIGNATED AREAS ONLY)	764,73 ( 28%)	655,96 ( 30%)
COLOURED	1 359,78 (-10%)	1 221,47 (- 5%)
INDIAN	2 227,01 ( 11%)	2 066,85 ( 11%)
WHITE	3 082,00 ( 13%)	2 882,00 ( 14%)

RACE RELATIONS SURVEY 1990/91

**TABLE II**  
**PUPIL - TEACHER RATIOS IN NON-INDEPENDENT HOMELANDS**

	GAZANKULU	KaNGVANE	KWA NDEBELE	KWAZULU	LEBOYA	QWAQWA
<u>PRIMARY LEVEL</u>						
NO. OF PUPILS	219 970	146 606	86 768	1 067 963	590 525	53 627
NO. OF CLASS- ROOMS	2 849	1 934	1 491	17 433	9 059	1 413
<u>RATIO</u>	<u>77 : 1</u>	<u>76 : 1</u>	<u>58 : 1</u>	<u>61 : 1</u>	<u>65 : 1</u>	<u>38 : 1</u>
<u>INTER- MEDIATE LEVEL</u>						
NO. OF PUPILS	459	N/A	N/A	21 754	994	16 982
NO. OF CLASS- ROOMS	10	N/A	N/A	357	25	285
<u>RATIO</u>	<u>46 : 1</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>61 : 1</u>	<u>40 : 1</u>	<u>60 : 1</u>
<u>COMBINED LEVEL</u>						
NO. OF PUPILS	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	260	N/A
NO. OF CLASS- ROOMS	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	14	N/A
<u>RATIO</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>19 : 1</u>	<u>N/A</u>
<u>SECON- DARY LEVEL</u>						
NO. OF PUPILS	66 110	48 139	34 112	303 669	268 291	30 061
NO. OF CLASS- ROOMS	1 452	775	641	5 808	4 036	655
<u>RATIO</u>	<u>46 : 1</u>	<u>62 : 1</u>	<u>53 : 1</u>	<u>52 : 1</u>	<u>66 : 1</u>	<u>46 : 1</u>

**RACE RELATIONS SURVEY 1989/90**

T A B L E   I I I

**QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS IN AFRICAN SCHOOLS EXCLUDING  
\*TRANSKEI, VENDA, BOPHUTHATSWANA AND CISKEI**

	WHITE DESIG- NATED AREAS	%	NON-INDE- PENDENT HOMELANDS	%	TOTAL	%
<b><u>PROFESSIONALLY QUALIFIED WITH</u></b>						
STD. 6	2 508	4,7	1 514	2,2	4 022	3,2
STD. 8	14 980	27,9	12 763	18,2	27 743	22,4
NATIONAL TECHNICAL CERTIFICATE	2	-	5	-	7	-
STD. 10 WITH PRIMARY TEACHERS' CERTIFICATE	13 484	25,0	19 608	27,9	33 092	26,7
STD. 10 WITH JUNIOR SECONDARY TEACHERS' CERTIFICATE	2 460	4,6	3 161	4,5	5 621	4,5
STD. 10 AND 3 YEARS' TEACHER TRAINING	10 604	19,7	13 076	18,6	23 680	19,1
DEGREE	2 240	4,2	2 978	4,2	5 218	4,2
<b>SUB-TOTAL</b>	<b>46 278</b>	<b>86,1</b>	<b>53 105</b>	<b>75,6</b>	<b>99 383</b>	<b>80,1</b>
<b><u>NON PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION BUT WITH</u></b>						
STD. 8 OR LOWER	4 084	7,6	3 763	5,4	7 847	6,3
NATIONAL TECHNICAL CERTIFICATE	84	0,1	24	-	108	0,1
SENIOR CERTIFICATE OR MATRICULATION	3 055	5,7	13 129	18,7	16 184	13,1
DEGREE	246	0,5	249	0,3	495	0,4
<b>SUB-TOTAL</b>	<b>7 469</b>	<b>13,9</b>	<b>17 165</b>	<b>24,4</b>	<b>24 634</b>	<b>19,9</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>53 747</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>70 270</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>124 017</b>	<b>100</b>

**RACE RELATIONS SURVEY 1989 / 90**

\* TRANSKEI, VENDA, BOPHUTHATSWANA AND CISKEI ARE FULLY INDEPENDENT HOMELANDS.

T A B L E I V

TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS IN KWA ZULU ACCORDING TO SCHOOL PHASE

SCHOOL PHASE	U N Q U A L I F I E D				
	STD. 8 & LOWER	TECH.	STD. 10	DEGR.	SUB- TOTAL
PRIMARY TEACHERS	2 087	1	2 905	2	4 975
SECONDARY TEACHERS	3	7	930	118	1 055
TOTAL	2 090	8	3 835	120	6 030

SCHOOL PHASE	Q U A L I F I E D							
	STD 6	STD 8	TECH CERT	STD 10 + PTC	STD 10 + 2 YR	STD 10 + 3 YR	DEGR.	SUB- TOT.
PRIMARY TEACHERS	930	3 502	1	9 145	391	3 059	108	17 136
SECONDARY TEACHERS	0	47	2	1 309	1 171	3 320	1 430	7 279
	930	3 549	3	10 454	1 562	6 379	1 538	24 415

Source of Information : Masterplan for the Provision of Suitably Qualified Teachers for KwaZulu: Final Report. Part 1, p. 12. 1989/1990.

# T A B L E V

## STANDARD 10 EXAMINATION RESULTS OVER THE LAST TEN YEARS

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1981	37 718	4 830	12,8	15 314	40,6	20 144	53,4
1982	60 108	6 336	10,5	24 205	40,3	30 541	50,8
1983	72 168	7 072	9,8	27 785	38,5	34 857	48,3
1984	75 271	8 656	11,5	29 055	38,6	37 711	50,1
1985	71 589	8 949	12,5	15 222	36,6	35 150	49,1
1986	89 235	11 690	13,1	34 712	38,9	46 402	52,0
1987	137 600	39 354	28,6	38 115	27,7	77 469	56,3
1988	170 966	27 355	16,0	70 780	41,4	98 134	57,4
1989	190 081	17 553	9,2	56 696	29,9	74 249	39,1
1990	247 556		7,45		33,56		36,4

1. = TOTAL NO. OF STUDENTS REGISTERED.

2. = MATRIC EXEMPTIONS.

3. = % OF MATRIC EXEMPTIONS.

4. = PASS SENIOR CERTIFICATE.

5. = % SENIOR CERTIFICATE.

6. = TOTAL PASS.

7. = % TOTAL PASS.

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**University of  
Universiteit van  
Zululand:**



Private Bag X10  
Privaatsak  
ISIPINGO 4110  
031 9075055  
6-28081 SA

**UMLAZI** EXTRAMURAL DIVISION  
BUIITEMUURSE AFDELING

Ref /Verw

20 June 1990

The Chief Education Planner  
Department of Education and Culture  
ULUNDI  
3838

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN KWAZULU SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Five years ago, I conducted research for a Masters Degree in your schools. I enjoyed undertaking the project. Once more I express my gratitude to your Department for granting me permission to do the field work.

I am currently conducting research for a Doctoral Degree. The title of the study is Conflict Management and Resolution in Secondary Schools in KwaZulu. Enclosed is the research programme and proposal.

May I please Sir, be granted permission to interview principals and to administer questionnaires to teachers, in the sample circuits.

Yours sincerely

*R. P. Ngcongco*  
R P NGCONGO

University of Zululand  
Umlazi Campus  
Private Bag X10  
ISIPINGO  
4110

03 October 1990

The Circuit Inspector  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Dear Sir

re: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR CIRCUIT

The Department of Education and Culture, KwaZulu, granted me permission in August this year to conduct research for a doctoral degree on Conflict Management and Resolution in Secondary Schools in KwaZulu. However, I still need to ask for your permission to visit your Circuit, for this purpose.

My research involves interviewing Secondary and High School Principals in KwaZulu, in the chosen Circuits. In each Circuit, I am to interview 10 principals. I shall then ask forty teachers from different schools to fill in questionnaires.

Once I receive your approval, I will then contact the samples of the population to make the necessary arrangements.

I would like to start at the beginning of February in 1991.

Yours sincerely

REJOICE P. NGCONGO

University of Zululand  
Umlazi Campus  
Private Bag X10  
ISIPINGO  
4110

..... 1991

The Principal

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Dear Sir

re: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT AN INTERVIEW WITH YOU AND TO ADMINISTER  
A QUESTIONNAIRE WITH FOUR OF YOUR TEACHERS

I am undertaking research on Conflict Management and Resolution in Secondary Schools in KwaZulu. The research is for a Doctoral thesis.

Will you please grant me fifteen to twenty minutes of your time for a scheduled interview with you on this topic. May I suggest that I meet you at your school on ..... 1991 or ..... 1991.

Further, I request to select four of the teachers who have taught at your school for more than a year.

I shall choose these on arrival at the school and will leave questionnaires for them to complete. These questionnaires will be collected from you at a date and time which I hope will be convenient to you and the teachers.

The Department of Education and Culture, KwaZulu, and your local Circuit Inspector, have already granted me permission to conduct the fieldwork. Copies of their letters are attached.

I look forward to hearing from you regarding a date suitable for the requested appointment.

Yours sincerely

REJOICE P. NGCONGO



YANGOWEMF... D  
ASIKO



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
AND CULTURE

DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN KULTUUR

Ucingo	Isikhwama Seposi	X04	Ucingo
Public Address: INKANYISO	Private Bag	Ulundi	Telephone
Private Address	Privaatsak		Telefoon
			0352-203609
es: T.A. GUMA	Usuku		Inkomba
	Date	29.08.1990	Reference
	Datum		Verwysing

Mrs. R.L.P. Ngcongo  
University of Zululand  
Private Bag X10  
ISIPINGO  
4110

Dear Mrs Ngcongo

RESEARCH CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU

Subsequent to posting the letter of 23 August 1990, I received communication from your supervisor / promoter.

The Department has great pleasure in granting you permission to conduct research. However, in doing so, the Department will expect you to observe the following:

- i) Work through the Circuit Inspectors of the area from which you will select your sample;
- ii) Ensure that information elicited be treated as confidential;
- iii) Make a copy of the research findings available to the Department if requested to do so.

Best wishes to you for a successful research project.

Yours sincerely,

*T.A. Guma*

T.A. GUMA (DR.)  
CHIEF EDUCATION PLANNER

TAG/ltd

UMULU ENI WAKWAZULU

ZS6

KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICE

KWAZULU-REGERINGSDIENS

Ikhehlo Lociingo:  
Telegraphic Address:  
Telegrafiese Adres:

IHOVISI LIKA  
OFFICE OF THE  
KANTOOR VAN DIE

Inkamba:  
Ref. No.:  
Verw. No.:

Dept. of Education & Culture  
Umlazi North Circuit  
Private Bag X03  
UMLAZI NORTH  
4031

Ucingo:  
Tel. No.:

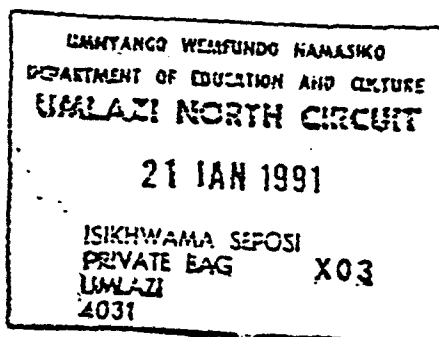
21 January 1991

TO ALL PRINCIPALS OF POST PRIMARY SCHOOLS  
UMLAZI NORTH

RESEARCH CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU.

1. Permission has been given to Mrs R.G.P. Ngongo to conduct the above research project in some of our Post Primary Schools.
2. Principals are requested to assist and co-operate with her so that she gets all information she needs.
3. Your co-operation will be appreciated.

CIRCUIT INSPECTOR: UMLAZI NORTH  
EMK/c'm



## PHASE I

### PRELIMINARY COMMENTS : QUESTIONS TO TEACHERS

You are kindly asked to fill in the following Questionnaire, which is on mechanisms of coping with conflicts in schools. You will complete the Questionnaire by choosing only one response that best characterises what you, as teachers in this school, commonly do when confronted with each specified situation.

You are also asked to comment on the frequency and intensity of the student problem and conflict in each question, following the use of the coping mechanism ticked.

Specifically, please state whether the conflicting student behaviour :

Stops or  
Declines or  
Becomes worse or  
Remains the same ..... and so on

as you apply the ticked mechanism of dealing with it.

There is no right or wrong answer to the questions. However, you are please requested to give an honest response to each question. Please note that the information you give will not in any way incriminate you. Do not, therefore, fill in your name or the name of your school.

Once you have completed the Questionnaire, kindly put it in the envelope provided, seal it, then hand it to your headmaster or headmistress, who will ensure that all Questionnaires in his or her school are sent back.

Permission has been granted by the Department of Education and Culture, KwaZulu, and by the local Circuit Inspector, to conduct this research.

Your co-operation in this regard is fully appreciated.

R. NGCONGO

QUESTIONNAIRE TO TEACHERS

QUESTION	POSSIBLE RESPONSE	TICK
1. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN THIS SCHOOL DEAL WITH LATECOMING ?	A. STUDENTS ARE PUNISHED FOR LATE COMING. B. WE IGNORE LATE COMING. C. WE WOULD LIKE TO PUNISH STUDENTS FOR THIS OFFENCE, BUT DO NOT BECAUSE : ..... D. WE OPT FOR OTHER MEASURES, SUCH AS : .....  COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES. ..... ..... .....	
2. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN THIS SCHOOL DEAL WITH ABSENTEEISM FOR WHICH THERE IS NO ACCEPTABLE REASON ?	A. WE PUNISH THE STUDENT. B. WE IGNORE ABSENTEEISM. C. WE WISH TO PUNISH STUDENTS FOR THIS OFFENCE, BUT MAY NOT BECAUSE : ..... ..... D. WE GENERALLY : ..... ..... .....  COMMENT ON THE INTENSITY AND FREQUENCY OF THIS BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS FOR GUIDELINES. ..... ..... .....	
3. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN THIS SCHOOL DEAL WITH TRUANCY ?	A. STUDENTS ARE PUNISHED FOR THIS. B. WE IGNORE THIS PROBLEM. C. WE WOULD LIKE TO PUNISH STUDENTS FOR THIS OFFENCE, BUT DO NOT BECAUSE : ..... ..... D. ANY OTHER : ..... .....  COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES.	

QUESTION	POSSIBLE RESPONSE	TICK
	<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>	
4. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL HANDLE STUDENTS' REFUSAL TO DO HOMEWORK ?	<p>A. WE OVERLOOK THIS PROBLEM.</p> <p>B. WE PUNISH STUDENTS.</p> <p>C. WE WISH TO PUNISH STUDENTS FOR THIS OFFENCE, BUT MAY NOT BECAUSE :  .....  .....  .....</p> <p>D. WE USUALLY : .....  .....  .....  .....</p> <p>COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES.  .....  .....  .....</p>	
5. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL DEAL WITH STUDENTS' COPYING OF HOMEWORK OR CLASSWORK ?	<p>A. WE PUNISH THEM.</p> <p>B. WE WISH TO PUNISH THEM, BUT DO NOT BECAUSE : .....  .....  .....</p> <p>C. WE IGNORE THE PROBLEM.</p> <p>D. ANY OTHER : .....  .....  .....  .....</p> <p>COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES.  .....  .....  .....</p>	
6. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL HANDLE STUDENTS WHEN THEY MAKE UNPRODUCTIVE NOISE IN THE ABSENCE OF TEACHERS ?	<p>A. WE ADVISE THEM TO STUDY.</p> <p>B. WE PUNISH THEM.</p> <p>C. WE WISH TO PUNISH STUDENTS FOR THIS OFFENCE, BUT MAY NOT BECAUSE :  .....  .....  .....</p> <p>D. ANY OTHER : .....  .....  .....  .....</p> <p>COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES.</p>	

QUESTION	POSSIBLE RESPONSE	TICK
	..... ..... .....	
7. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL DEAL WITH STUDENTS WHEN THEY BULLY OTHERS ?	A. WE PUNISH STUDENTS. B. WE OVERLOOK THE PROBLEM. C. WE ESTABLISH REASONS AND USUALLY RESPOND BY : ..... ..... D. ANY OTHER : ..... ..... ..... COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES. ..... ..... .....	
8. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN THIS SCHOOL DEAL WITH STUDENTS' ABUSIVENESS TO OTHERS ?	A. STUDENTS ARE PUNISHED FOR THIS OFFENCE. B. THIS OFFENCE IS IGNORED. C. WE WISH TO PUNISH STUDENTS FOR THIS OFFENCE, BUT MAY NOT BECAUSE : ..... ..... ..... D. ANY OTHER : ..... ..... ..... COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES. ..... ..... .....	
9. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN THIS SCHOOL DEAL WITH STUDENTS WHEN THEY ARE INSOLENT TOWARDS THEM ?	A. WE PUNISH STUDENTS. B. WE REMIND STUDENTS WHO WE ARE. C. WE OVERLOOK THIS BEHAVIOUR. D. WE WISH TO PUNISH STUDENTS FOR THIS BEHAVIOUR, BUT DO NOT BECAUSE : ..... ..... ..... E. ANY OTHER : ..... ..... ..... COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED :	

QUESTION	POSSIBLE RESPONSE	TICK
	REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRE-LIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES. ..... ..... .....	
10. HOW DO MOST TEACHERS IN THIS SCHOOL DEAL WITH STUDENTS WHEN THEY CHALLENGE TEACHER AUTHORITY ?	A. WE DEFEND TEACHER AUTHORITY BY : ..... ..... ..... B. WE OVERLOOK THIS PROBLEM. C. WE DO WANT TO REACT TO THIS PROBLEM, BUT OFTEN DO NOT BECAUSE : ..... ..... ..... D. ANY OTHER : ..... ..... ..... COMMENT ON STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR FOLLOWING THE USE OF THE COPING MECHANISM, TICKED : REFER TO PARAGRAPH 2, ON PRELIMINARY COMMENTS, FOR GUIDELINES. ..... ..... .....	

**QUESTIONS TO PRINCIPALS FOR SCHEDULED INTERVIEW**

PROBLEM	POSSIBLE RESPONSE	TICK
1. TRUANCY	A. The school punishes students for truancy. B. The school overlooks this offence. C. The school would like to punish students for this offence, but does not because : ..... ..... ..... D. We determine reasons and usually respond by : ..... ..... ..... E. Any other : ..... ..... .....	
2. STUDENTS COPYING WORK FROM OTHERS	A. We ignore this. B. We punish students. C. We study the reasons for copying and usually respond by : ..... ..... ..... D. We would like to bring offenders to order, but do not because : ..... ..... ..... E. Any other : ..... ..... .....	
3. STUDENTS' CALL FOR A DIFFERENT HAIR STYLE FROM THE ONE THE SCHOOL APPROVES OF.	A. The school lets students do as they please regarding hair styles. B. The school punishes students for styling hair in an unapproved manner. C. Any other : ..... ..... .....	
4. STUDENTS' DEMAND FOR STUDENTS REPRESENTATIVE COUNCILS ELECTED BY THEM	A. The school lets students choose Students Representative Councils (SRC's) in the way they like, no matter how unhappy it is with the way students choose SRC's. B. The school does not allow these because it has prefects and captains it has chosen.	



PROBLEM	POSSIBLE RESPONSE	TICK
5. STUDENTS' REFUSAL TO PUT ON UNIFORM WHICH IS APPROVED BY THE SCHOOL	<div>C. The schools allow students to have SRC's on condition they provide the school with a constitution.</div> <div>D. Any other : ..... ..... ..... .....</div> <div>A. The school ignores this behaviour.</div> <div>B. The school unwillingly condones this behaviour.</div> <div>C. The school punishes children if they do not put on uniform.</div> <div>D. The school establishes reasons for students not wanting to wear uniform and usually respond by : ..... ..... ..... .....</div> <div>E. Any other : ..... ..... ..... .....</div>	

In the space provided below, please give one conflict case (other than the ones listed above) which the school has had with students. State each case in detail, then discuss how you managed it and what the effects of managing it were, firstly on the problem and secondly on the relationship between the school and the students.

6. (a) CONFLICT CASE

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6. (b) WHAT WAS DONE

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6. (c) WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS OF THE SOLUTION TO THE CONFLICT

(i) On the Problem

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(ii) On the Relationship of the School with the Students

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**APPENDIX 8**  
**RESPONSES FROM TEACHERS IN RAW SCORES**

(a) Item 1

144 teachers state that they mete out punishment.

30 say teachers would like to punish students, but they do not. Reasons they gave are recorded in Chapter Six.

24 teachers use other methods to deal with latecoming. These methods are also itemised in the relevant section in Chapter Six.

2 ignore latecoming.

(b) Item 2

88 teachers say they punish students.

72 say they use other methods, which are itemised in Chapter Six.

20 would like to punish students, but they do not.

20 say they ignore students' absenteeism.

(c) Item 3

134 say teachers punish students.

25 would like to mete out punishment, but do not for reasons given in Chapter Six.

21 say they use other methods which are given in Chapter Six.

12 state that they ignore truancy.

8 teachers did not respond to this question.

(d) Item 4

122 state teachers mete out punishment.

30 would like to punish students, but do not because of reasons given in Chapter Six.

30 report use of other methods which are itemised in chapter six.

18 say they ignore students' refusal to do homework.

(e) Item 5

107 state teachers punish students who copy work from others.

52 report teachers use other methods given in Chapter Six.

25 say that teachers would like to punish students, but they do not because of reasons given in Chapter Six.

16 state that teachers ignore students' copying of homework or classwork.

(f) Item 6

128 state that teachers advise students to study.

35 report that teachers punish students.

24 say teachers use other methods which are recorded in Chapter Six.

13 state that teachers would like to punish students, but do not. Reasons are given in Chapter Six.

(g) Item 7

120 say that teachers mete out punishment.

43 report that they use other methods. These are given in Chapter Six.

31 state that they investigate the problem.

6 maintain that they ignore the incident.

(h) Item 8.

146 teachers say that in their schools students are punished.

32 say that they use other methods. These are given in Chapter Six.

13 report that they wish to punish students, but do not. Reasons are given in Chapter Six.

9 maintain that they ignore students' abusiveness to other students.

(i) Item 9

79 teachers say that they punish students.

55 report that they remind students who they are by disciplining them.

45 report that teachers use other methods which are given in Chapter Six.

21 would like to punish students, but do not. Reasons are given in Chapter Six.

(j) Item 10

175 report that teachers punish students or discipline them corporally.

16 say that they use other methods which are explained in Chapter Six.

8 report that teachers wish to punish students, but do not because of reasons which are given later.

1 reports that teachers overlook the problem in question.

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## APPENDIX 9

### A DOCUMENTATION OF CASES OF CONFLICT

#### (A) CONFLICT ARISING FROM SCHOOL FEES

##### CONFLICT CASE 1

Students complained that the school fees of R36,00 a year each was too much. They, therefore, demanded half the fees back. This half (R18,00) was given back after some resistance by the school and the school committee.

However, after the money was given back there was some chaos at school. Some students did not want to learn. Teacher morale also became low.

The relationship between the school and the students is cool. (The researcher asked the principal why students did not want to learn, since the issue of money had been solved. She stated that it would seem students had other expectations. The principal believed that students were instigated by those who wanted to disrupt schools).

##### CONFLICT CASE 2

Pupils demanded back school fees paid. They wanted to kill teachers and alleged they are sharing the money with the principal. They let teachers come to school and close gates and started "Toyi Toying", intimidating teachers 'till we refunded them. Parents were called to a meeting and they sided with their children, and also alleged that moneys were mismanaged.

We refunded pupils without consulting the parents because we wanted to save our lives.

The school continued normally without further problems.

The relationship between students and school was mild, but teachers resolved that students should be strictly supervised in the final examinations. Student-teacher relationships are tense.

### CONFLICT CASE 3

The pupils demanded the refund of fees paid. Each child had paid R55,00.

The first strategy was to apply delaying tactics by suggesting that the school committee will have to be given a chance to address the issue. This was totally refused by this pressure group which also pointed out very rudely that the parents should also not be called in to mediate.

There was a lot of pressure on the principal, plus the staff, such that no negotiation could be arranged. The principal and the chairman of the school committee, with the staff concurring, agreed to refund the money. The situation was explosive. When the circuit office was consulted he felt that the principal had done the right thing.

I met with the students again. The students agreed to pay only R4,00 per pupil to take care of the school expenses. I explained that R4,00 was not enough. The pupils agreed that they would pay money to cover other extra expenses, like stationery for tests or examinations and fares for trips to organised places.

They further demanded that a Student Representatives' Council be involved in the running of the school, in the budgeting of school money in particular. That was agreed to.

Although there are still problems, the tone of the school is not as bad as during the time of the conflict.

### CONFLICT CASE 4

Some boys refused to pay school fees and tried in vain to stir trouble, but could not get support. On the closing date they were not given reports. They began to influence other students to stone the school. On seeing that they were after trouble, I allowed them to have their reports on condition that they take their reports and never come back. I promised them that if they did come back, I would handle them.



Their names were noted. Unfortunately, they had all failed and they complained that they had been failed and wanted to see their scripts. To satisfy them that was done. In some cases some marks had been moderated and more marks given because teachers had not finished the syllabi as a result of unrests. The students left school.

After seeking admission in other schools unsuccessfully, they came back and apologised sincerely and paid the required amount and said they were prepared even for punishment for their offence. They asked to be allocated to different sections. They then told the principal problems they had experienced seeking admission elsewhere.

Teachers were asked by the principal not to have a reactionary negative attitude. The students are now of assistance to the school. They are also very happy with their school. There is a tremendous improvement in their performance.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 5**

The students demanded to have their school fees back. I called a parents' meeting. Parents stated that no monies would be refunded to pupils. They felt pupils were incited by outsiders.

I subsequently called a students' meeting and communicated to the students the parents' decision. Some students agreed with this decision. The rest were neutral.

I think the relationship between the students and the school is good. Those who do not agree with the parents' decision will be "handled properly".

The students have to learn and right now are in classes. If they give problems, we will handle them. (When asked how students would 'be handled' the principal stated that they would be punished corporally).

#### **CONFLICT CASE 6**

It was at the beginning of the year after the pupils had paid school fees. They were paying R65,00 each. We used

some of the money to buy material to erect new buildings. It was after that, that they demanded refunds. I tried to explain to them that the money had been used to buy building material, but they couldn't understand. I convened the parents' meeting, but it was unsuccessful. I then divided the money available with the number of payees. The problem was that the money available was not enough for them all. Therefore, each pupil who had paid R65,00 would receive R36,00 back. There was another controversy regarding students who had not paid R65,00.

They were seen to benefit from money they had not paid. The question was if the school could survive on payments made by only some of the students, why were all students required to pay R65,00. The fees had to come down. Students said that those who had not paid any fees must pay at least R5,00. I promised to have the question of payment reviewed. Students are relatively calm now, but demanded involvement in the financial administration at school. (When the principal was asked whether he reviewed the question of fees as promised he said he had. He reported that lessons were going on well. The atmosphere at school was also healthy, he said).

#### CONFLICT CASE NO. 7

Students demanded the fees they had paid. The principal called an emergency parents' meeting. Parents unanimously stated that they had paid school fees NOT the children so no child would be refunded.

Kids confronted the principal and wanted to know whether their parents' names or theirs were written on the receipts issued to them earlier. They went on to say that if their names were there, the principal knew whom to refund.

The principal 'phoned a few parents and asked for direction. Two parents came, one with a sjambok, and promised children a hiding if they continued with what he called nuisance. Children approached the man, lifted him high and told him that this was a warning of what was to come. He had better go home.

Later the principal refunded whatever money had not been used. (The students at the time of the conflict hardly had any teaching going on. Judging by the number of students who streamed in and out of classes during teaching time, there was very little teaching going on).

#### CONFLICT CASE 8

Students wanted representation in matters regarding the administration and control of school fees. The school yielded to this demand. This gave no positive result, for the students then demanded me to go away. They accused me of being authoritarian and misusing their money. In no time they actually ejected me and closed the school gate when I attempted to get back into the school.

The local Councillors of the tribe believe the students are influenced to be violent by political parties in the community. They have, therefore, made a ruling that no political organisation will be allowed to have members from the student body. (The principal reported that students who belong to one political party had just before the arrival of the researcher at school, organised a meeting. They were sjamboked by members of the community and, in fear, had left the school).

The atmosphere in the school is uncertain and the school-student relationship fluid.

#### CONFLICT CASE 9

The students during the month of March this year demanded a 'change' in the school. They said they wanted a Student Representatives' Council and they wanted school fees to be reduced and no to have their hair cut short. They stated that they believed that the hair had nothing to do with the brain and, therefore, were at liberty to have different hair styles in school. They also did not want to wear any school uniform besides black skirts or black tunics and white shirts or blouses. In connection with punishment they said that strokes or lashes should not exceed three.

All this was said in the morning assembly and there was chaos. Seeing the state of affairs, I told them to send

twelve representatives to me and the staff. They strangely decided to send fifteen representatives of both sexes. They voiced their grievances.

I told them that I was new in the school and everything was done by the parents and the school committee. I was going to take their grievances to the parents and the committee. I approached the Circuit Inspector. The classes were suspended until the school committee and parents convened a meeting. This happened on Monday. A parents' meeting was called and it was scheduled for the following Sunday. The parents were totally against acceding to these demands.

They agreed to my idea of a meeting with Students' Representatives. In this meeting we were able to influence the students not to ask for refunds. They have not asked for refunds ever since. The teachers solved the punishment problem. They acceded to students' requests regarding punishment.

Parents said students must not change their hairstyles. However, students have kept to their new hairstyles. We have not been able to control this.

Regarding the Student Representatives' Council (SRC), I told them I was still to consult with the Department.

Students are still demanding Student Representatives' Councils. I have a problem with these because they become radical.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 10**

The pupils did not want to pay the school fees the previous year, 1990. They wanted almost everything from the Department, even school books. They refused to listen to teachers who urged them to wait patiently for Departmental books and in the meantime buy some books themselves. A heated disagreement over books resulted between teachers and pupils, and the latter threatened to attack teachers who were seen as sell-outs.

Students were suspended from school for some weeks. They were to come back when they were willing to pay school fees.

They started late to learn and that increased a number of failures at the end of the year.

A tense atmosphere in the school still prevails.

#### CONFLICT CASE 11

Students wanted to be refunded money paid by their parents. They claimed that they were threatened by outsiders for not demanding a refund. Once they told me that there were people who went about checking whether they had asked for a refund. Therefore, they also asked to be refunded. They sent twelve students to represent them on this issue.

I called them to explain the need for paying school funds. I gave them a clear understanding on how a community school functions. Members of the school committee were brought in. Ultimately, a parents' meeting was called. I had to analyze the receipt received by each student and explain why it was necessary to pay such fees. We came to the agreement that certain funds had to be cut down, and a refund of R11,50 was given to each parent/pupil.

Students were satisfied and those doing Home Economics and Typing had to pay more. The conflict was solved and students again co-operated smoothly until the end of the year.

Pupils realised the need for payment after receiving an explanation. There was a spirit of goodwill and they abided by the rules of the school.

#### CONFLICT CASE 12

The students demanded that their sports fund be reduced from R3,00 to R1,50 per student at the beginning of 1989. Apparently, they believed that they were not deriving the best benefit from the R3,00. I told them that even R3,00 per pupil was not enough. However, students became

militant and I referred the matter to the school committee for attention.

A special parents' meeting was convened. However, the parents resolved unanimously that the sports fund should be deposited in a separate school account and then be controlled by prefects. The prefects were to introduce their own budget of income and expenditure, subsequent to which they were compelled to give a financial report to the parents (bi-monthly) on how they utilized money.

Finally, the students were addressed by parents on this aspect.

I, as a principal, refused to be involved because the relationship between me and the students was becoming tense as a result of the allegations.

This solution developed a strong bond between the school and students later. To a great extent, it helped me in the orderly management of the school generally.

### CONFLICT CASE 13

Students refused to pay school fees. They said the Government is not supposed to charge them school fees. They said the money which they paid was also misappropriated by the teachers.

I organised a parents', students' and teachers' meeting. At this meeting I analyzed on the board the various funds paid to the school, for example Private Teacher Fund (PPT Fund), Sport Fund, Building Fund and School Fund.

I explained that the PPT Fund is not compulsory. It is a fund that is suggested by their parents to pay additional teachers who are not subsidized by the Department. The parents felt that these teachers should be employed in order to teach their children who are more than the number of subsidized teachers in that particular school. In cases of schools where there is no overcrowding of students, there is no PPT Fund paid. I involved them in the discussion until we arrived at the solution that private

teachers should not be employed and, therefore, the PPT Fund is not necessary.

We discussed the sports fund issue and arrived at the decision that if they feel they are O.K. with sports attire, it must not be paid too.

The building fund was also discussed. We arrived at the conclusion that if they feel the school buildings are enough and up to the standard it is not necessary to pay a building fund.

Regarding the school fund, I explained to them that the school fund issue is not easy to avoid because it is the money that is paid to maintain the school, namely buying stationery, duplicating machine and ink, typing machine and other resources which will help to facilitate their learning. Without a school fund it will not be easy for the school to operate. This was discussed and we arrived at the conclusion that a school fund should be paid.

It was brought to the notice of parents and students that because they feel teachers misappropriate the money, it is better to involve the parents and students in handling the school fund issue.

We formed an association comprising the Principal, Teachers and Students (PTSA) which was going to be responsible for the handling of monies. This was agreed and confirmed.

Students are paying the fees agreed upon and they are involved in the collecting of the money.

From this exercise students are becoming aware that it is not an easy game to collect school monies. They realise the amount of time wasted going from class to class collecting money.

**(B) CONFLICTS AROUND RELATIONSHIPS**

**CONFLICT CASE 14**

A male teacher had an affair with a female teacher and later a schoolgirl as well. The girls in the class where the girlfriend of the teacher was, refused to take instructions from the female teacher. When it was her duty to supervise cleaning, the girls did the work haphazardly or would not turn up in the morning for extra-mural duties. Before I knew what the cause was for this I punished them a few times, but only a small number of students improved.

The girl's performance in class generally was not good. Eventually she failed the final examination, but the male teacher issued her a false report so that she would go away to another school. Unfortunately, the report was noted on admission in another school and the case was sent back to me. At this time, I was aware of the relationship.

After reading the report, the staff were notified about it and I suggested that the person concerned should come forward before I take any action.

The teacher came to my office later and owned up. I pointed out the danger facing the teacher. The girl was given a true report and advised to go and enrol elsewhere.

The relationship between the friends of the girl and the female teacher is still strained, but both the male and female teachers have been asked to treat the girl impartially. The male teacher has been asked to sever his relationship with the student. He says he has.

**CONFLICT CASE 15**

A teacher left to study in the United Kingdom without submitting an examination paper for her classes. This was in October. I then requested another teacher to set the paper. Just when the other teacher had set the paper, the teacher who was in the United Kingdom faxed the examination paper. This was before the students wrote the examination.



I decided to tell the students that they were to write a paper set by the other teacher. I told them how irresponsible their teacher had been regarding the submission of an examination paper. The students became wild and accused me of being a liar.

They said their teacher had set the paper before she left.

I then gave them an option either to write their teacher's paper or the other teacher's. Out of 225 students only 45 wanted to write their teacher's paper. The problem was solved, but some students who failed, claimed they would not have been unsuccessful if they had written their teacher's paper. These students are among those who wrote the other teacher's paper. The students still have a negative attitude to the teacher and me.

#### CONFLICT CASE 16

Students reported to me that they did not want their Accountancy teacher. Although I do not know accountancy, when I looked at the teacher's preparation book I thought he did his work well. I asked the students to state what is it that they do not like this teacher for. They did not tell me. They simply said they do not understand his lessons. I then promised that I would sit in on some of his lessons and see.

This teacher lived a few houses from mine so I usually gave him a lift to school.

Before I could successfully attend to the problems students had with the said teacher, students alleged that I supported the teacher and yet he was not a good teacher. Again I asked them to tell me in what way he was not good and in what way did I support him. Students did not come out. This happened to be a class which I also taught. There was some tension in this class, but I noticed that one boy made comments which gave me the feeling he was angry about something. One day we were talking about professions and I was asking them to imagine themselves ten years hence. He blurted a remark like : How can we be

anything, when they will thwart us even before we get there. He refused to explain what he meant.

When I returned to my office, I wanted to call this boy and talk with him, but as I entered my office his mother was waiting for me. The mother had come to say that her daughter had been away from home for about four days and the accountancy teacher should know where the girl is because she is his girlfriend. She went on to say that her son and even the whole class have told me that the teacher is not good, but I don't investigate this - I am protecting the teacher. She then swore to put the school straight, unless the teacher stops messing up with her daughter and unless we stopped protecting the teacher.

I explained to the woman that the students had not spelt out specifically the problem, otherwise we would have responded appropriately.

The teacher was called and denied the allegations. A few days later the teacher was attacked in the evening by people he did not know and left the school.

#### CONFLICT CASE 17

Students complained that they had enough of being called names like "Osikhotheni" (trash, good for nothing) by teachers. They also objected to the fact that some teachers punished them cruelly. They then refused to go to classes and stated they would not do so unless I sent the responsible teachers away or gave them some punishment as well.

I promised the children that I would talk to the teachers about alleged misconduct. I then called the teachers mentioned and pointed out the unethical remarks they were said to be making. One teacher admitted he was guilty and promised to stop. One said the students are lying, but refused to go with me to them for evidence. The following day he was absent from school. I went back to the students that afternoon and gave a report.

Students wanted the teacher who had apologised to do so to

them. I told them that the teacher had asked for pardon through me. They felt that this was not enough. The girls understood, but the boys did not.

However, the following day the students returned to classes.

We still have to see how happy they are with this teacher now.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 18**

A teacher asked a student to write notes on the chalkboard for other students while he was out. As the boy was writing, one of his classmates told him that he could not copy the notes properly. He could not see the board because the boy who was writing on the board was standing in the way. The boy who was writing the notes replied by saying to the complainant "Udakiwe, uyahlanya." "Anikwazi ukuma. Laba abanye babona kanjani?" ("You are drunk, you are mad. Can you not wait, how do the others see on the board?")

The other boy got angry and threatened to beat the boy. The boy who was threatened, the one writing notes, told the complainant he had kicked quite a few loud-mouthed brats like him. The complainant stood up, went towards the other boy and took out a knife from his pocket. As he was doing so the other boy took out his and stabbed his assailant fatally.

The surviving boy was suspended from school. The school told the parents that all children were, by school regulations, bound not to carry dangerous weapons. The boy did not want to be expelled, but his parents encouraged him to leave.

The friend of the boy who complained wanted to avenge his friend. Luckily, he was sent away from school.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 19**

The conflict case I experienced was that of a child not

willing to do his school work. If class work was given he would start mumbling, grumbling and passing bad remarks, disturbing the class. When trying to talk to him, making him aware of the importance of co-operation and trying to find his problem, he would not respond at all.

To solve this problem, I used the method of isolation. It was applied very carefully and meaningfully. He was asked to leave the class to a place of isolation for sometime. This was applied a number of times, but it could not solve the problem. I had to involve his friend each and every time he was taken outside. They had to go together. The friend would be of paramount importance in telling him about the importance of doing his school work.

Gradually his problem was solved. After a few days of application this method worked. He came and asked for an apology and joined the class. His performance thereafter was even better than that of other pupils.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 20**

A boy attacked a teacher at school and was subsequently suspended until the matter was discussed by the committee.

The teacher also laid a charge at the police station.

Three quarters of the boys in his class refused to come to class and said they wanted the expelled boy back. The boy's offence was made known to them. They said the teacher should forgive the boy. They argued that teachers beat children and children forgive teachers.

I refused to have the boy back. The boys then stoned the office. Police came to our aid and quelled the violence.

Students now attend school, but there is mistrust between them and us. The expelled boy was not brought back.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 21**

A teacher reported to me that a boy in class threatened to shoot her. On investigating it came out that the teacher

had been in class teaching, and a girl played with a typewriter. The teacher got upset and slapped the girl.

Immediately thereafter a boy in class produced a gun and put it on the desk, then typed. The teacher ordered the boy out of class. Half of the class walked out with the boy and the boy swore to fix the teacher.

Later the matter was brought to my office. The boy was called to the office. As he sat down, a knife protruded from his pocket. I asked the boy what the problem was. The boy stated that the teacher's lessons are boring. She is also in the habit of attacking the class verbally. He stated that he was carrying the knife and revolver for self-defence. He was coming from an area where there are tribal fights.

I explained to him the negative effects of carrying a dangerous weapon and suggested that they and the teacher forgive each other. At this stage, I am not certain whether the relationship of the said teacher and the students has improved.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 22**

Students accused some male teachers of having affairs with girls and threatened violent action against the teachers if the school did not stop them from this.

The matter was reported to the committee and the students were asked to identify and give names of teachers who were in love with the girls. One name was given.

The girl who was in love with the teacher was invited with her parents to a committee meeting. The teacher was told of the possible consequences of his behaviour. He apologised and promised to end the relationship with the girl.

The students were happy that the matter was handled properly. The teacher concerned regained respect, after some time.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 23**

On the way to school, a teacher commanded a pupil to run to school because he was late. The pupil refused to run saying the teacher should run also because he too was late. He wished to know whom would he find at school if he ran. Who would teach him? The teacher reported to the principal that the pupil was insolent and requested that the principal punish the pupil. The principal refused to punish the pupil and recommended that the teacher be punished as well for coming late.

The teacher was later advised by some of her colleagues to apologise for coming late to school. She, however, felt that she had lost face to the students. The teacher has now reported that this student laughs each time she passes. The principal has told the teacher to sort this matter out herself.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 24**

The conflict was on the wearing of navy ties as an additional unit to the uniform.

The school demanded that pupils wear navy ties in February. Pupils claimed that they did not have money after payment of school fees, book fees and other expenses. They thus refused to wear ties. The school supplied ties on credit to the pupils. The pupils are wearing the ties. The use of ties was poor at the beginning, but when the school supplied the ties on credit it improved. The relationship between the school and students is normal.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 25**

One boy forced a girl to go with him to his home by taking her books. The girl returned to the school and reported the problem. The boy was persuaded to return the books and to stay away from that girl. He was prevented from attending the class and instructed to call his parents to the school. The parents and I recommended punishment. Thereafter, he had to make a choice, either to take the punishment or to leave the school. He decided to take the punishment.

The problem was solved. We never had any similar case either from the responsible boy or any other student. The relationship of the school with the student remains sound. (The Principal was not sure whether the boy had severed his relationship with the girl or not. He, the boy, had stopped harassing the girl).

(C) CONFLICT AROUND A DEMAND FOR BOOKS

CONFLICT CASE 26

Students demanded books from me. I told them that we do not have enough books for all the students.

Earlier on, students had demanded that I admit pupils who for one reason or other had had to drop from school since 1985. I refused to admit those students and told the student body they cannot be students and decision-makers of the school at the same time. I emphasized to them they cannot be actors and referees at the same time.

One morning, during assembly, students threw stones at us teachers as we left the assembly. I soon called a staff meeting and told teachers that war had to be declared on students to discipline them. I asked them to bring sjamboks the following day to beat the students, should they attack. I then called students to assemble again and asked them if stoning teachers would bring books. I told them of the stupidity of their actions and left them to disperse.

The following morning I suggested to lady teachers that they go and sit in the staffroom. I then went to the students during assembly and informed them that all those who want peace must go to class and warlords must remain. I told them that there might be war on that day if the warlords wanted it. I told them that if there was war, there would be casualties.

Students went to class, first girls, then boys in groups. I then went to the staffroom and urged teachers to go to class immediately and teach.

It was registration time for Standard Tens. I went to their class, distributed entry forms and they filled them in.

(When this principal was asked how he felt when he solved this conflict this way, he said his motto was like President Bush's when America attacked Iraq. He had to act quickly, swiftly and decisively. During the time of the visit of the researcher to the school, the incident had happened a day before, so the principal was not in a position to see if there were after-effects of this conflict.)

#### **CONFLICT CASE 27**

The school had not been supplied with enough exercise books and books, and pupils refused to go to classes until they were given enough books.

I went to address them and called the boys aside, because they were violent. They were beginning to throw stones at the school buildings.

I promised I would report the matter urgently to the Department of Education and Culture, via the Circuit Inspector. I then asked them to go back to classes. Only about half went back, others toyi toyed outside. They then threatened those who were in class who refused to join them. I then called the police who came and dispersed the toyi, toying students.

I then got some exercise books from neighbouring schools which had some left. Most students eventually went back to class and lessons are going on.

The incident dampened excitement at school, but we are going on. Student-school relations are satisfactory.

#### **(D) CONFLICT AROUND POLITICAL MEMBERSHIP**

##### **CONFLICT CASE 28**

The conflict was a political one between students of two political groups, namely Inkatha and the African National



Congress. Those following Inkatha were allowed to hold meetings at school while the ANC group was refused because of departmental ruling. In fact, officially, Inkatha was allowed to hold meetings as a cultural movement.

The two groups were brought together and advised that the Education Department had definite school rules to be followed by the schools within its jurisdiction. Initially the forbidden group held their meetings outside the school premises, but later forced other students to join them in their violent struggle. Police had to quell this.

Seeing that the police did not take sides an amicable spirit amongst the students prevailed. Students who were not allowed to hold their meetings stopped fighting. Students in our school who did not belong to Inkatha were urged by their opponents to leave the school, for a school which is dominated by their political organizations.

The remaining group told those they drove away that the school supported them. The ANC group began to threaten teachers and the principal for alleged partiality.

A parents' meeting was called. It was explained to parents that the school is apolitical. The purpose of a school is to promote education. Children should not be deprived of education for political purposes. The allegation that the school supported one political party was also denied and emphasis made of the apolitical nature of the school. The problem gradually diminished, even though not quickly as many students left school because of that problem.

Some students realised that teachers did not take any side in the inter-party strife that affected them. However, the teachers' argument was not convincing to most students. They alleged that the subject Good Citizenship is meant to promote the Inkatha Freedom Party. Unfortunately, I do not know how I can stop teaching Good Citizenship, because the school is in KwaZulu. The relationship between the students and myself, as well as between the two groups, is a bit strained on this subject.

### CONFLICT CASE 29

Last year, about the month of March, boys in the school would not attend classes because one of their "A" team members was detained in a police station. Initially they were just asked to go back to class, without any discussion. They refused. Later I told them that the news of their mate's detention was new to me, but they should go back to class. The vice-principal and I would investigate the matter. Indeed the boy was detained for taking part in a fight between feuding parties from two areas in the area. One boy eventually lost his life.

We met the striking boys and explained to them that the detained boy may be detained for his own safety. He may be detained because he had committed a crime. We explained to them that by not going to classes they are making things worse for the boy. Police might suspect they are into violence and recommend the continued detention of their mate. The boys rather returned to classes.

## **(E) CONFLICT AROUND FEEDING SCHEMES**

### CONFLICT CASE 30

Students wanted their feeding scheme money back, but before they actually said so, they brought plates of food onto the verandah, opposite the office, and told me to eat it all. The food was rice and some bean soup. They said the bean soup was rotten and if the school wanted them to eat that food, teachers and I must eat it as well.

I tasted the food, it seemed O.K. to me. They said I was fooling them and some howled at me. I told them that if they wanted to fight I was ready, got in my office to 'phone the police quickly and took off my tie. When I got out, I challenged a few that were outside the office. The police van came quickly.

We subsequently called a parents' meeting and parents said students must be given the money that was available. This was done and the feeding scheme was thereafter stopped.

The problem seems to be over, but ever since the relationship between some of those boys and I is strained.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 31**

The pupils demanded that a feeding scheme be terminated at school. They were contributing towards this scheme. On the other hand the school thought the feeding scheme was of benefit to the students and was not keen on agreeing with the students. Students then became violent and threatened to beat the principal.

Teachers were consulted by the principal regarding this problem. They, together with the principal, attempted to find reasons from pupils why the feeding scheme was to be terminated. Pupils were not keen to give reasons. Teachers and I felt impatient with pupils and then called a parents' meeting. Pupils' representatives were called to the meeting. They then motivated their case. They stated the food was not satisfactory and the money assigned for food was not well spent by the school. Parents decided that the feeding scheme be stopped at school. I did not feel that this was sensible, but went along with the parents' decision.

The pupils then demanded that the money they had paid for feeding be refunded to them and not to the parents. They were refunded.

The pupils felt that they were the champions and became unruly. They failed dismally at the end of the year. The relationship of the school with the pupils became poor.

#### **(F) CONFLICTS AROUND CORPORAL PUNISHMENT**

##### **CONFLICT CASE 32**

The conflict case that the school has had was on the use of corporal punishment extensively by teachers. The students had a feeling that this should be completely abolished. What the school did was to open discussion with the students. Eventually a compromise was reached where it was agreed that presently there can be no proper control or

discipline if corporal punishment is completely abolished. The principal should be responsible for this.

Talks between students and teachers were held and debates were organised on this topic. Parents were also consulted on the same issue to get their general opinion.

Firstly, the teachers became discouraged as they claimed that the allegations were unfair and they started ignoring some of the wrongs done by the students. Secondly, the discipline of the school went down.

Relationships were affected in that this was not well received by the teachers. They, therefore, relaxed and neglected their responsibilities.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 33**

A boy incited others to boycott classes. The reason for the boycott was that they did not approve of corporal punishment. The boy was called and was sent to call his parents. They suggested heavy punishment (manual work).

The school instead called the boys and discussed reasons for meting out corporal punishment, but promised that it would never be given harshly.

The incident was an eye-opener to the school. Teachers use corporal punishment sparingly now, only when there is a real need.

#### **(G) CONFLICTS OF MISCELLANEOUS ORIGIN**

##### **CONFLICT CASE 34**

Boys did not attend morning assembly one day. These boys were doing what was generally being done in the schools. They wanted me as Headmaster to receive a copy of their complaints about how the school was run.

The saving grace in this action was that the Standard Ten boys did not join the rest of the boys in the school.

On the morning in question all boys except Standard Ten assembled on the soccer field. We conducted prayers with the girls. Thereafter I asked five male teachers to take canes and to drive them back to the classes. The teachers drove most boys to the classrooms. Only one boy remained and was said to be the ringleader. He was brought to my office and handed over to the police.

The effect of this action by teachers produced wonderful results. All the boys agreed that they were misled. They later stated that they would not listen to any student who was misleading them again, for they had come to school to learn.

The relationship between the school and the students became good. What actually made them realise that what they did was wrong was that the Standard Ten students refused to join them. They felt they were there at school to learn and not to seek confrontation with the school authorities. (The principal was asked what offence had the said ringleader committed. He responded by saying that he was inciting other boys to attack the school).

#### **CONFLICT CASE 35**

The Standard Tens of the previous year who had failed and could not be accepted back at school because of lack of accommodation demanded to be accepted back. They took out pupils from the classrooms and demanded to address them. These ex-Standard Tens were called into the office and shown how wrong their strategy was.

It was decided that they would be given private tuition by the teachers in the afternoon.

At a meeting between the principal and members of the school committee on the one hand and the pupils and their parents on the other, it was decided that the pupils would be given private tuition until they wrote their supplementary examinations in May - June.

The problem was partially resolved - partly because the pupils wanted to return as full-time pupils. They felt part-time tuition would not help them.

Because the pupils were rude and threatening, the relationship between the pupils and teachers is rather strained. Some teachers are even unwilling to help.

#### CONFLICT CASE 36

In March this year, the students indirectly protested against the failure by the school to admit all the local students. They stoned the teachers (lightly) and damaged their cars. When asked to give reasons they said that they did not want to be detained at school until 4.30 p.m., neither did they want to talk English during school hours. They also stated that they do not want to be punished.

The classes were suspended for one week. Parents were called into a special meeting, and also the Inspectorate. The Chairman of the school committee was later asked to address the students.

There was no co-operation between the teachers and the students. The teachers discovered that the students were actually sent by some parents to cause chaos. The problem was left unaddressed until the following year.

The relationship that existed at the school was very abnormal or unusual, namely it was full of hate and vengeance on the part of teachers. The students did not want to pay respect to the teachers. (The researcher asked the principal why he thought parents would send pupils to cause chaos. The principal responded by saying that many parents felt the school was not admitting local students. It gave preference to students from other areas. On being asked whether this was true he denied it, but said that the school took students from outside that community if their performance was good. He also said that parents in the area did not like him, they preferred a local man as principal. He was not a local person).

### CONFLICT CASE 37

Certain boys nominated themselves as student representatives and declared that they would help teachers in admitting students. As the principal of a school I was totally against their nomination. I shared my unhappiness over this with teachers, but teachers were afraid of attack.

On the second day of school the students came to me and said they would not allow more students to come to school. They demanded that teachers seat all students who had been admitted properly so that it would be clear the school was full. Teachers complained, but felt powerless and complied.

On the third day, all students who came to school looking for admission were turned back by these student representatives. The students were told to seek admission in other schools.

Teachers and I are anxious and threatened by the power of student representatives, but at the same time feel they have helped in the problem of admission. The relationship between teachers and students is guardedly smooth.

At present seating arrangements in classrooms are much better than would have been. Control and discipline has resulted. The situation is better than it would have been if more students were admitted.

### CONFLICT CASE 38

In April about 50 boys refused to go to class because they were not happy about the school hours, that is from 7.30 a.m. to 4.00 p.m. They wanted a school day to start at 7.45 a.m. and finish at 3.00 p.m. I asked them to send representatives to my office to discuss this matter. This was not accepted because, according to them, it was not negotiable.

I gave them permission to hold a meeting on the school grounds and allowed other students to attend. After that I addressed all the pupils and gave reasons why it was

necessary that the school should stick to 7.30 a.m. to 4.00 p.m. Among others, I told them that they did not have enough time at home to do school work. Some of them had been condoned to the next class and required more time.

Most of the pupils realised they needed more time at school and accepted my explanation. Some of the instigators came to my office and apologised. They promised to work hard in future.

There was a healthy relationship between the school and the pupils. The pupils co-operated fairly well with the school.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 39**

Students whose performance in class was poor suddenly performed well in an examination. On investigation, it was discovered they had copied. They were refused admission the following year. They mobilised with outsiders and stoned the school. The school solicited help from the police to expel them from school.

The relationship between these students and the school became poor, but fortunately they decided to leave the school early.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 40**

The students wanted to smoke at random within the school premises, but the teachers were unwilling to accept that point. Then conflict started. The teachers called the Student Representatives' Council. The disadvantages of smoking were put forward by the teachers and culturally it was unacceptable that schoolboys must smoke anyhow.

That problem was solved and the boys accepted that they will not smoke again anywhere within school premises.

The relationship was enhanced because they felt that their interests and health was considered.



#### **CONFLICT CASE 41**

Students made noise in three classes in the mornings. Teachers in those classes were not in, they had not arrived. This was not the first time that these teachers had come late to school. Two of the teachers who came late offered an excuse and this was that they were delayed by the third teacher. They were getting a lift from him and had paid him. He did not pick them up at times which had been agreed upon.

I told them that whatever the reasons which made the teachers come late, nothing justified their behaviour. We disagreed with them on this point. The first and second time these teachers were not in, I had gone to the classes and asked the students to do some work to keep themselves occupied. They did some work and were quiet, temporarily. On the third occasion when students made noise, I again asked them to do some work. They complained that the work done earlier had not been marked. They demanded that teachers come on time. The teacher from whom the two teachers got a lift was also told that if he failed to come to school on time he had better not offer lifts. He stated that he had to take his daughter to pre-school, which is 35km. from where he lives. I replied by informing him that whatever his problem was, he had to be at school on time or else I would record his name in the log book (and report him to the inspector).

#### **CONFLICT CASE 42**

Students wanted to go on a trip to Port Elizabeth. At the time, Port Elizabeth was experiencing violence. I convinced the students and the sports organiser, a teacher, that it was not safe to go to Port Elizabeth then. The students accused me of being a dictator and said I was overruling the decision of the sports committee that the school go to Port Elizabeth. I told them, and the sports organiser, that I was the principal of the school and accountable for their welfare.

I refused to approve of the trip; students threw stones at my office and punctured two wheels of my car.

The students did not go to Port Elizabeth. The relationship between some students and I was cool. I know the teacher was behind the whole thing. The teacher and I are on talking terms, somehow.

#### CONFLICT CASE 43

Students chased away the maths teacher from the classroom. The students were not satisfied about the way in which the teacher was teaching. They commanded the teacher to go out of the classroom. Immediately after this they told the principal to get another teacher.

Parents were called to the school, together with the school committee. After a long discussion we came to the conclusion that they must not be given another teacher as they were demanding. They must suffer for being silly.

After one month the pupils came to the principal's office and apologised for what they did. Students were called to a hall and I told them that next time they have a problem they must report to the class teacher. The class teacher must report to me so as to maintain a good relationship between the school and the students.

#### CONFLICT CASE 44

(This case was reported to the researcher by the Acting Principal).

Students went to the school Chairman's house in February, 1990, and said they did not want the principal in the school. The Chairman promised to hold a meeting and invite students' representatives to state their problem about the principal.

In March, students demanded that they be refunded money which their parents had paid towards school fees. They also demanded that no fees should be payable for the year saying that they could, however, pay R2,00 per student per year.

It was in view of the above that the principal called a parents' meeting. The principal explained the whole

situation to the parents. The parents resolved that the money must not be refunded.

The students, however, arrived at the meeting and demanded that they be allowed to participate. The local township councillor, who happened to be at the meeting, asked that their representatives (students) be allowed in, but they should be accorded observer status only.

The parents became divided on the issue; some saying there was nothing wrong in going on with their meeting with the students present and other parents pointing out that this would lead to a disruption of the meeting. Some parents then left the meeting in protest, before any students could be allowed in. Finally, the students demanded that they had a right to attend the meeting. All the interested students then attended the meeting.

One student, apparently their leader, demanded to talk. When he was allowed to talk, he not only called for refunds and no payment of fees, but he also accused the principal of working with the police against the students. The second speaker, another student, alleged that the principal lied to them when he (the principal) said that money was needed to buy things like chalk and dusters because at the beginning of the year these materials did become available at the school without them having paid a cent.

The students eventually took over the meeting. It seemed that they had rehearsed their role very well, because one after another had something to say tantamount to attack on the principal and the school committee chairman. All of them seemed to be making the point that the principal and the school committee should resign.

The meeting was disrupted because the parents, the school committee members and the principal were not allowed to talk, and when they talked against the popular opinion of the students, they were heckled.

Most of the parents left the meeting. They said that the meeting was no longer a parents' meeting, but that of the

students. The meeting, however, adjourned without any physical outrage.

The meeting, therefore, did not resolve the question of fees. The principal found himself unable to function the following week because of threats against him. The school was temporarily closed. When it re-opened, only the staff and the vice-principal came back. No fees were refunded, but no fees were collected. The student-teacher relationship became very poor. Teachers were not keen to teach. Students, too, lost interest in learning.

#### CONFLICT CASE 45

(The writer of the case is an acting principal).

The principal was a newcomer to the school. He then bought a van two months after he came to office in the school. The students accused him of using fees to buy his car. Later, members of the community also alleged that he had misappropriated school money.

About the end of March, a group of kids attacked the principal as he arrived at school in the morning. The principal retaliated and shot one student to death. That night the cottage where the principal stayed was burnt down.

The principal then went on study leave. On his return he was transferred to another school in a different circuit. The local Circuit Inspector then appointed a local man to the school. It came out that the kids were manipulated by a group of community members to fight the first principal.

#### CONFLICT CASE 46

A group of students approached me and wanted to know how much money is spent on stationery. I told them they should ask their parents. I told them that income and expenditure details are discussed with parents.

As I talked to that group of students, another group stoned the roof of the office. I tried to 'phone the police, but the telephone had been cut by the students. Fortunately,

a parent who lived nearby 'phoned the police. The students alleged that I misuse their money.

(When this principal was interviewed, the incident had happened 3 days before. When he was asked if there was anything he planned to do, he responded by saying that students are used by radicals who wanted to make the schools ungovernable. When he was asked how he would handle the situation, he showed the researcher a revolver and said he is a man like those radicals. Finally, it was enquired whether the climate was conducive to learning. He replied by saying he told the students to learn if they want to or fight if fighting is their aim. The principal appeared to feel very tense and angry. As a matter of fact, the researcher waited for the interview for two hours.

#### CONFLICT CASE 47

Students approached their lady principal and suggested to her that she allows girls in the school to leave their hair long. The lady principal said she would consult with other teachers.

Before she gave feedback to students the kids did not go to classes the following day. They said that they were tired of innumerable rules in the school. They stated that the length of hair has nothing to do with the brain. They also added that time was wasted in the school beating students who had long hair. Some suggested that the headmistress must beat teachers who did not teach.

The headmistress explained that she was concerned about the allegation that there were teachers who did not teach and promised to investigate the allegation. She let the kids style their hair as they pleased.

The kids refused to go to class and said they would resume classes only if certain teachers were expelled. The school was temporarily closed for three weeks. At the beginning of the second term, when schools opened, some teachers were reluctant to teach. A climate of apathy and low morale

prevailed at school. However, the teachers whom students did not want are still at school.

#### **CONFLICT CASE 48**

Students approached me and wanted to know who decides on what should be bought at school. I told them that the teachers decide. They replied by saying that they are not pre-primary kids. They want to decide what they want to be bought.

When I told the teachers, some said they cannot be dictated to by students. This is not a township where students do what they want. The next day following my meeting with teachers, students refused to go to class. They toyi-toyed and demanded fees back.

I called a parents' meeting. Parents said kids must not be refunded any money they had paid. On the Monday following the parents' meeting, the kids confronted me and forced me to give them their money back. That week I refunded them whatever money was left.

Some teachers accuse me of being a coward. The students also behave very rudely now. They feel superior to teachers. Teachers are not keen to teach them any more.

#### **CONFLICT CASE NO. 49**

Students, together with about five ex-students of the school, approached me and said they wanted to form an education committee. I asked them what this was for. They said they wanted a body that would represent them in meetings and would inform them of decisions that affected them. I told them that parents represented them. They howled at me and called me a sell-out. I then decided to control myself and told them we would meet the following day to discuss the idea.

The following day, students boycotted classes and wanted all the money they had paid as school fees. Each student had paid R25,00. A mob of students surrounded my office and called for their money back. I told them the money would be refunded. I, however, asked them to meet me at

the school hall the following day, so that I could give an explanation of how the money at school was used. Some students were very rude and passed insulting remarks to me. I decided to ignore those then.

The next day I presented a statement of income and expenditure. I also produced receipts. I told them I had no objection to an Education Committee being formed. They needed to check with the Department of Education and their parents about that. Lastly, I produced a bank statement, with a balance to date.

Kids then began to be divided. Some said "Nidlala ngesikhathi bafowethu asiyofunda" ("You are wasting time, brothers. Let us go to classes). Some continued to ask questions. At 3.00 p.m. I told the students it was time to go, especially because some students had to board buses which left at 15h15. I informed them that they could raise other problems later.

(On being asked whether the concern of the students was met, the principal felt students wanted to know whether their money was well spent. The idea of an Education Committee was a front. He also stated that this meeting actually helped him earn respect from most kids. The explanations he gave, he felt, assured the kids that school money was used well).

#### **(H) CONFLICTS PICKED DURING VISITS TO SCHOOLS**

##### **CONFLICT CASE 50**

In one school the teacher commented on a writing which was on the chalkboard which read as follows :

Pass One, Pass All

She said that this was the height of students' insolence. Students, she argued, thought they could just pass. She then wrote underneath :

Pass those who study hard, not that nonsense

(The following morning, when the researcher went to pick the questionnaire up from teachers in this school, the principal was attending to a case of students who were said

to have rubbed off what the teacher had written and wrote:

Pass All

in bolder letters.

The students were to be caned for their insolence.

#### CONFLICT CASE 51

A pupil came to the headmaster's office, just as the headmaster was responding to the scheduled interview. He was attending the school the previous year and on this day, February 12, 1991, wanted his December report for the examination he wrote in December 1990.

The principal stated that all reports had been posted to students. The student told the principal that he had not received his. The principal replied by telling the student he would not issue a new report. The student had to go to the post office to find out what the problem was. The student said the post office would not consider that kind of enquiry. The principal then informed the child that he could help him by telling him verbally whether he had passed or failed.

The student angrily told the principal that all schools want written reports and stated that no school could admit him if he did not have any written document to testify whether he passed in Standard Seven. The principal told him to look for any teacher who could help him. The child went to ask for a teacher. Apparently he did not tell the teacher what he was asking him to do. He made him aware of his request when the teacher was in the office. Then the teacher stated that he was not in a position to write his report, seeing that he was not his class teacher the previous year. The teacher then walked out.

The principal, who was responding to the scheduled interview and attending to other students at the same time, like writing transfer letters for those who came to ask for them, then appeared to remember that he had not resolved the boy's problem. He suddenly asked the boy what he wanted then. The boy recounted what the teacher had said



and insisted the principal write a report.

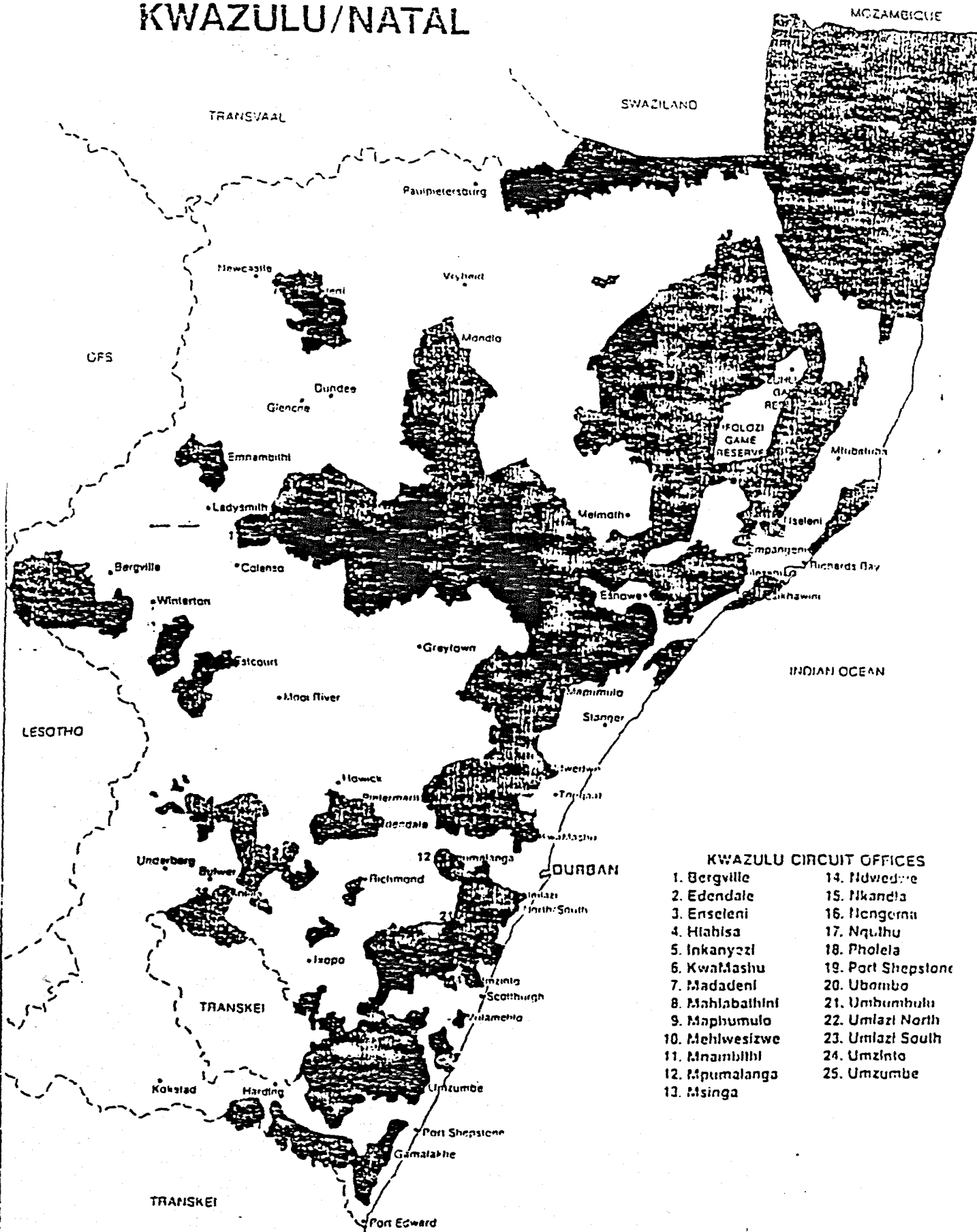
The principal told the boy he was not behaving properly that day, to which statement the boy responded by asking what he had done. The principal told the boy he was coming to ask for a report on 12 February, and schools opened on 23 January. The boy stated that he could not come earlier because he did not know whether he could return to school. His mother was not working and his father was dead.

In the meantime the principal continued filling in one other form which was brought by another student. The student who wanted a report then said (translated) "I want a school, I can't be out of school and be left behind by peers".

The vice-principal, who was in and out of the office, then intervened. He told the child to look for his last year's school teacher, then request the class teacher to see him. As the boy went out the principal stated that he suspected the boy was a loafer. He then gave attention to the researcher again. The interview was completed after 1 and a half hours and the researcher left.

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# KWAZULU/NATAL



- KWAZULU CIRCUIT OFFICES**
- |                 |                    |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. Bergville    | 14. Ndwendwe       |
| 2. Edendale     | 15. Nkandla        |
| 3. Enseleni     | 16. Nongoma        |
| 4. Hlabisa      | 17. Ngqulu         |
| 5. Inkanyezi    | 18. Pholela        |
| 6. KwaMashu     | 19. Port Shepstone |
| 7. Madadeni     | 20. Ubombo         |
| 8. Mhlabathini  | 21. Umbumbulu      |
| 9. Mphumulo     | 22. Umlazi North   |
| 10. Mhlabathini | 23. Umlazi South   |
| 11. Mhlabathini | 24. Umzinto        |
| 12. Mpumalanga  | 25. Umzumbe        |
| 13. Msinga      |                    |

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