

**THE EFFECT OF CRIME IN SCHOOLS ON
A CULTURE OF
TEACHING AND LEARNING**

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**THE EFFECT OF CRIME IN SCHOOLS ON A CULTURE OF
TEACHING AND LEARNING**

By

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Date submitted: January 2010

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis: **The effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning** represents my own work and that all the resources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

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I dedicate this work to:

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- My mother Jane khulumile Madimula
- My dearest wife Judith Nomvula Thabethe
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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning. In this study the researcher employed a survey to achieve the aims of the study, and a questionnaire to obtain facts and opinions about the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning. All children between the ages of 7 and 15 have a right to education. However, this right becomes meaningless unless the Department of Education, principals, educators, parents, children, learners, citizens and community members commit themselves to curbing crime and making the school environment conducive to learning.

Crime has a negative influence on the morale of both educators and learners, as well as the culture of teaching and learning. Each educator and learner has the right to work and play in a secure and safe school environment and neighbourhood. Therefore it is important to do everything possible to eliminate crime in schools and neighbourhoods.

Schools need to create a space where educators can teach and learners can learn. Teaching and learning require a safe and tolerant learning environment that celebrates innocence and values human dignity.

From the literature study it became clear that many of the young people of South Africa will end up as drug addicts, violent criminals and anti-social individuals, rather than being an asset to the nation and the country's economy. According to Shone (2007:27) crime is a "runaway train, reckless, out of control, unpredictably dangerous, picking up speed as it careers down the track towards schools".

For the purpose of the empirical investigation, a self-structured questionnaire for educators was utilized. The data obtained from the completed questionnaires was processed and analyzed by means of descriptive statistics. The findings from the empirical study confirmed that crime in schools has a negative effect on a culture of teaching and learning.

In conclusion a summary of the study was presented and based on the findings of the literature and empirical study, the following recommendations were made:

- The Department of Education must develop a practical formal policy on the safety of schools in collaboration with stakeholders like community structures, local private security companies, the South African Police Service, Social Workers and Psychologists.
- Sufficient human and financial resources must be made available by the Department of Education for the training, supervision and monitoring of the school safety policy.
- The Department of Education must also encourage communities, non-governmental organizations, faith-based organizations, and business, to support school safety initiatives and promote a safe learning environment.
- The school's code of conduct must be consulted when school safety policy is formulated. The code of conduct's primary function is to ensure the safety of learners at school.
- A code of conduct should contain regulations outlining the rules that the principal and the governing body must ensure are included in the code. The code of conduct must, *inter alia*:
 - aim to establish a disciplined and purposeful school environment; dedicated to the improvement and maintenance of a quality learning process,
 - outline how learners who disobey the code of conduct will be punished,

- include a process for protecting the learner and any other party involved in disciplinary proceedings, and
 - include rules relating to school wear (cf.5.4.1).
- For the code of conduct to be functional and successful class teachers must ensure that:
- All learners have a copy of the code of conduct.
 - A copy of the code of conduct is displayed on the notice board in the classroom.
 - Learners follow the regulations as laid down in the code of conduct.
 - A code of conduct is periodically scrutinized by the school safety committee and amended when necessary.
- The school safety policy must have clear and concise directives as to what is expected from the regions, districts, circuits, wards and schools.

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

A school is one of the most important institutions of a society. Schools are established by a society with the aim of fulfilling a number of objectives. Oosthuizen (2003:203) points out that a child is born into a certain religious and cultural milieu which is characterized by particular practices, values and norms. The transmission of religion and culture to the child takes place through the influence of the parent on the life of the child. The parent must make certain that the school life ensures that the child is not exposed to destructive and contradictory religious and cultural influences. Schools exist to educate children to become responsible adults. Zulu (2005:5) says that the basic function of a school is to instill skills, knowledge, attitudes and values in all learners.

To realize its function effectively a school must possess certain characteristics. Among others is that educators and learners must be safe at school. This is in line with The Bill of Rights in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act No 108 of 1996, which states that in the school environment, learners have the right to a clean and safe environment that is conducive to education (Oosthuizen, 2003:39). Security of property, well-cared for school facilities, school furniture and equipment, clean toilet facilities, water and a green environment, absence of harassment in attending classes and writing tests and examinations, all create an atmosphere that is conducive to learning.

Effective teaching and learning can only take place in a safe environment. A safe school is free from crime and violence (Bartol & Bartol, 2005:50-51). However, crime and violence have become part of schools in South Africa. Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:63) are emphatic that educators and learners are both victims of crime in most schools. If crime is not eliminated in schools, the culture of teaching and learning may be difficult to sustain.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Contrary to the idea suggested by Oosthuizen, Rossouw and De Wet (2004:2) that good order, discipline, safety and mutual respect are fundamental issues necessary for security, crime has become part of everyday school life and is eroding the culture of teaching and learning. According to the report by the Centre of Justice and the Prevention of Crime and Violence, crime has infiltrated schools in South Africa (Fourie, 2006:6). In a survey conducted by the centre on the experiences of 4400 people between the ages of 12 and 22 years, the following statistics were released:

- More than sixteen percent (16,8%) of learners are afraid on their way to school.
- More than a fifth (20,9%) of both learners and educators has been threatened or injured at school.
- Nearly a third (32,8%) has been verbally abused at school.

Oosthuizen, Rossouw and De Wet (2004:3) state that research recently carried out in South African schools on behalf of the Laduma Film Factory revealed the total absence of a culture of learning and the presence of a state of insecurity and crime at a number of schools. The major reasons identified in this research for the absence of a culture of learning and teaching are the following:

- The high frequency of drug and alcohol abuse at schools.
- Many schoolboys and educators to whom raping schoolgirls is acceptable.
- Learners who carry dangerous weapons to school and are a threat to the safety of fellow learners and educators.
- Breaches of trust in the relationship and mutual respect between the learner and the educator, which have been replaced by a state of mutual blame for the absence of good order and discipline at schools.

The presence of crime in a school has a negative effect on the learners. According to Van Rensburg (Fourie, 2006:6) crime hampers the concentration of the learner in the

classroom. Learners suffering from the trauma of crime often live in their own imaginary world and do not pay attention in the class or to their schoolwork. Learners traumatized by crime are often perceived as lazy or unintelligent which may further contribute to an already negative self-image and self-esteem. They may well be the most vulnerable age group in a society (Bartol & Bartol, 2005:35).

According to Naidu (2006a:14) learners who have been victims of crime may:

- develop behavioural problems;
- withdraw, or
- suffer from stress.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In essence the problem that will be investigated in this study pertains to the effects that crime has on a culture of learning and teaching in schools. To understand the core of the problem answers will have to be found to questions such as:

- What effect does crime have on the learners?
- How does crime affect the educators in school?
- What effect does crime have on a culture of teaching and learning?
- What strategies can be implemented to reduce crime in schools?

1.4 HYPOTHESIS

According to Neuman (2003:12) a hypothesis is defined as a premise or supposition that organizes facts and guides observations. In the formulation of the hypothesis, an experimental design is utilized in which the difference between the findings from the research sample researcher's sample and the hypothesised value of the population parameters is assessed. If the difference between the researcher's sample statistic and

the hypothesised value of population parameter is zero, this hypothesis is referred to as a “null-hypothesis”.

In behavioural research, the statistical hypothesis is in most instances a null-hypothesis expressed as “ H_0 ”. A hypothesis in which there is a difference between the researcher’s sample statistic and the hypothesised value of a population parameter is known as a “general hypothesis” and is expressed as “ H_1 ”.

For the purpose of this investigation the research hypothesis is formulated as a null-hypothesis (H_0) as follows:

“There is no relation between crime in schools and a culture of teaching and learning.”

1.5 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

1.5.1 Gender

In this study all references to any gender include references to the other gender.

1.5.2 Education

Education is the systematic training and instruction, especially of the young in school. Sivananda (1990:12) suggests that education is training in the art of living. It is a process of drawing out all the positive potentialities latent in the learner. It should refine and evaluate the mind. Education must create a good disposition and correct bad manners that may lead to crime. The right sense of values on which he should found his life has to be revealed to him through education.

Education in its pedagogic form may be defined as the conscious, purposive intervention by an adult in the life of a non-adult to bring him to independence (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein,1994:366). This assistance is the positive influencing of a non-adult, with the specific purpose of effecting changes of significant value.

McBride (1996:166) says that the function of education is to assist the evaluation of man, which is movement towards perfection. The outlook of one’s life should be moulded. The

integral growth of one's personality and the task of developing natural capacities, faculties and talents should all be helped by education (Jacobs, Gawe & Vakalisa, 1996:46).

The National Education Policy Act, Act No.27 of 1996 defines education as any education and training that is provided by an education institution, other than training as defined in Section 1 of the Manpower Training Act, 1981, Act No.56 of 1981 (DoE, 1996:5).

Education is the occurrence whereby social values, socially determined knowledge and life skills are passed from one person to the next (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:417). Education is a consequence of making value judgments about worthwhile knowledge and skills and deciding on the best ways these can be communicated and evaluated. Formal education occurs in pursuing what is worthwhile by the conscious enactment of programmes to achieve desired goals within a social-political context (NCSNET, 1997:27).

1.5.3 Learning

Learning is the process by which changes in behaviour result from experience or practice. Learning occurs more efficiently if a person is ready to learn. Jacobs, Gawe and Vakalisa, (1996:247) maintain that readiness to learn results from a combination of growth and experience. Learning is a mix of intelligence, motivation and psychological factors. It is a process of continual assimilation and accommodation of new information to suit the old knowledge (Sotto, 1994:100).

Hamacheck (1990:219) says that learning does not only refer to that which is manifestly observable, but to attitudes, feelings and intellectual processes. Learning can also be defined as improvement in behaviour in the sense that people become more proficient at whatever it is they are learning.

Learning is the act of gaining knowledge or skills by studying, practicing or being taught. Learning takes place all the time. Sykes (1986:487) classifies learning into four kinds:

- Classical conditioning or respondent learning based on stimulus response relationships

- Instrumental conditioning or operant learning whereby a person learns to perform a response as a result of what happens after the response is made.
- Multiple-response learning occurs when a sequence of simple movement-patterns is learnt first.
- Insight learning which refers to solving a problem through understanding the relationships of various parts of the problem.

According to Hamacheck (1990:223) learning may be categorized into the following patterns:

- The rigid-inhibited pattern. Learners falling into this style of learning do best when given very precise directions and rules to follow.
- The undisciplined pattern. Learners' behavioural characteristics include refusal to do what is asked, a tendency to be destructive, to lie, to steal and to get into fights.
- The acceptance-anxious pattern. The need for approval and acceptance dominates the acceptance-anxious learner.
- The creative pattern. Learners with this pattern are typically confident, and capable of objectively evaluating their performance. They are inclined to think divergently.

Learning is a change in the learner's ability to perform as a result of experience. Effective teaching must always be directed towards targeted changes in performance (Jacobs, Gawe & Vakalisa, 1996:176). Learning should be worthwhile to learners, useful to their own lives and of lasting value. Learning is meaningful when it makes sense to the learner.

1.5.4 Teaching

Teaching is the process of causing children to read and write, to understand the world around them, to grasp and be able to apply fundamental mathematical and scientific principles, to use their developing intelligence and imagination, and to live and work harmoniously with others (Dunne & Wragg, 1994:1). Teaching is the imparting of qualities such as leadership, perseverance, morals, values and decision-making. The child is thus

prepared to be accepted into the community as a responsible adult (Prinsloo, Vorster & Sibiya, 1996:28).

Teaching concentrates on intellectual actualization through knowledge and skills (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:496). According to Van der Westhuizen (1995:54) teaching is an intellectual development of the learner which implies the development of independent thinking. Teaching is a means of educating and teachers are pre-eminently educators, but not all teaching is educative.

There are a number of activities that must be carried out in teaching as it happens in the school and which lies outside the school for effective teaching and learning. Teaching is an action by means of which certain knowledge is systematically conveyed and unlocked so that the learner may be equipped for his calling in life (Sivananda, 1990:13).

According to Duminy, Steyn, Dreyer, Vos and Dobbie (1995:303) teaching is an intentional activity of imparting knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to achieve learning. Teaching is an act of instructing in how to do something, especially in a school or as part of a recognized programme. It is a process of giving instruction in a subject or skill. Teaching is an activity to cause someone to learn by example or experience (Delahunty & McDonald, 2005:703).

McHenry (1993:597-598) is of the opinion that teaching is the process of helping other people to learn. It is one of the most important ways that people relate to one another. Teaching helps people acquire the knowledge they need to become responsible citizens, to earn a living, and to lead useful, rewarding lives. Teaching also transfers information from one generation to the next.

1.5.5 Crime

Crime is a conduct that is prohibited by law and punishable by the state. Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:7) define crime as a sin, an illegal action and behaviour harmful to the individual and to society. Crime occurs when the moral code is broken and is a sign of falsehood. Crime is a conduct or failure to act, in violation of the law forbidding or commanding it, for which possible penalties exist upon conviction.

In support of the idea that crime refers to many types of misconduct forbidden by law, McHenry (2005:736) describes crime as an act whereby subjects offense against morality or social order.

From a legal standpoint, Reid (1994:5) is of the opinion that the following statement qualifies the definition of crime: "Crime is an intentional act or omission in violation of criminal law (statutory and case law), committed without defense or justification and sanctioned by the state as a felony or misdemeanor".

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:8) suggest two versions of the definition of crime, namely:

- the juridical version which views crime as an illegal action committed by an individual who can be blamed for it and can be punished by the authorities. Crime is an illegal, willful, human action that constitutes transgression of the law. Crime bears actions which are legally prohibited and that people perform or fail to perform, and
- the non-juridical version of crime stresses an antisocial action that involves a threat, or an infringement of the stability of a society and its members.

Criminal behaviour is the behaviour in violation of the criminal code. Crime intrigues people by either attracting or repelling them. Crime can frighten if it is believed that what happened to one learner or teacher in the school might happen to all and so hinder the culture of teaching and learning (Bartol & Bartol, 2005:1).

1.5.6 Culture of teaching and learning

A culture of teaching and learning refers to the attitude of teachers and learners towards teaching and learning, the spirit of dedication and commitment in a school which arises through the effect of school management, the input of educators, the personal characteristics of learners, factors in the family life of learners, and school-related and society factors (Calitz, Fuglestad & Lillejord, 2002:239). A culture of teaching and learning is the way things are done in school during the situation of teaching and learning.

Cadwell and Spinks (1992:68) state that things which are done in schools must sustain particular values and beliefs such as rituals, ceremonies, approaches to teaching and learning, operational procedures, rules and regulations, rewards and sanctions, psychological and social supports, and parental and community interaction patterns. A strong culture of teaching and learning can be defined with reference to equity, that is, the belief that all learners must receive an education which enables their full potential to be realized, taking account of particular individual circumstances.

According to Van der Westhuizen (1995:625) a culture of teaching and learning is a force in the school which mobilizes learners and educators to do things. In a culture of teaching and learning things are done at certain times and in certain ways. A culture of teaching and learning, therefore, has a fundamental significance for all those involved. In this way a culture of teaching and learning exerts a significant influence on the quality of the working life of an educator and the learners in the school. Through a culture of teaching and learning the development of human power is advanced (Sykes, 1986:212).

1.6 AIMS OF STUDY

The aims of this study are as follows:

- To conduct a literature review on the effect that crime in schools has on a culture of teaching and learning.
- To do an empirical investigation into the effect that crime in school has on a culture of teaching and learning.
- To investigate whether the measures put forward by the Department of Education to control crime in schools are effective.
- To provide recommendations, based on the findings of the research.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research in regard to this study will be conducted as follows:

- A literature study of available and relevant literature on the effect of crime in schools will be undertaken.
- An empirical survey whereby a self-structured questionnaire will form the basis for data collection.

1.8 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

This research will have the following value:

- It will provide more information on how crime in schools affects a culture of teaching and learning.
- Through the findings from the literature review and empirical study, recommendations will be made which can be of value to assist in preventing crime in schools.

1.9 ANTICIPATED DISSEMINATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

It is anticipated that research findings gathered through this study will be disseminated in the following manner:

- Seminars and workshops at schools and universities will be conducted.
- The research findings will be made available in journals as articles.
- The topic lends itself to further research by interested stakeholders.

1.10 FURTHER COURSE OF THE STUDY

The chapters in this study will be structured as follows:

Chapter 2

In this chapter a literature review on the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning will be conducted.

Chapter 3

In this chapter the researcher will explain the empirical research methodology followed in this investigation.

Chapter 4

The analysis and interpretation of data obtained from the completed questionnaires will be presented in this chapter. The hypothesis formulated in chapter one will be tested.

Chapter 5

This chapter will provide a summary, findings and recommendations.

1.11 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an introduction, analysis of the problem, aims of the study and the values thereof. Operational terms were defined. The research methodology was given and the structure of the study provided.

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The educational crisis in schools exists almost everywhere in South Africa. Thaver (2006:14) reveals that eighty percent (80%) of schools in South Africa are not meeting children's needs. Most parents want a good education for their children and the children want the same. The key to good education is having caring parents who are supportive and involved in their children's education. In today's educational climate it is only with parental support that children can survive in schools (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:406). Crime, violence and sexual immorality are creating serious problems in the schools. Schools are becoming centres of fear and intimidation instead of places of enlightenment. Children see their classmates succumb to drugs, crime and sexual misconduct (Thaver, 2006:16).

A good education is imperative to prepare children to cope successfully with their lives. Some reports in the media say that the problem in schools reflect problems that already exist in the community. One important factor is that strong families give their children the edge at school (Ballantine, 1997:373).

According to Govender (2006:1) violent crime is threatening to turn South Africa's public schools into war zones as assaults against pupils and educators, vandalism and burglary prevail. According to Da Costa (2007:21) the Minister of Education agrees with Govender and says "not all our schools are safe places". Figures supplied by provincial education departments show a total of 498 assaults on pupils during 2005, including 187 sexual assaults. About 1314 cases of vandalism and burglary were recorded in one school district in 2004, resulting in losses of R6-million (Govender, 2006:1).

Many learners are violent, heartless and immoral, typically without conscience of feelings. Sookha (2006a:2) points out that if learner-crime is not brought under control in South Africa, this will have far-reaching consequences. The young people of South Africa will end up as drug addicts, violent criminals and anti-social individuals, rather than being an asset to the nation and the country's economy.

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:84) argue that not only schools but also structures having a stake in education, such as the family, the church and the state, determine the kind of behaviour that is acceptable and what is not. Behavioural rules may rest on moral or juridical grounds. Bortner (1988:6) characterizes the behaviours that are prohibited as:

- unhealthy;
- immoral;
- in poor taste, and
- illegal.

Siegel and Senna (1988:96) maintain that the list of unacceptable behaviours exhibited by learners includes the following:

- truancy;
- smoking;
- fighting;
- theft;
- burglary, and
- murder.

Worrall (1991:122) distinguishes between crimes entailing actions that are immoral in themselves or are wrong, and crimes entailing actions that are either prohibited or compelled by law. To be regarded as a crime, the act or behaviour must be prohibited or compelled by law. The deed must have been committed voluntarily. The person who commits the crime resulting in the destruction of a culture of teaching and learning, must be culpable. Therefore, punishment must be prescribed by law (Allen, 1997:1).

According to Trojanowicz and Morash (1992:20-21) the Criminal Procedure Act and the Law of Evidence which apply to children who become involved in crimes, are in principle the same as those that apply to adult offenders. There is no separate Criminal Procedure Act or Law of Evidence for children (De Villiers, 1998:528). Siegel and Senna (1988:204) however, state that age is taken in consideration in punishment for a crime.

In agreement with Section 290 of the Criminal Procedure Act, Act 51 of 1977, Siegel and Senna (1988:340) place the youth in age groups as follows:

- Children younger than seven years are indisputably without any culpability before the law since they cannot differentiate between right and wrong.
- A minor who is between 7 and 14 years of age is not culpable under the law for his deeds.
- A minor who is between 14 and 21 years is indeed liable for his deeds since he can discriminate between wrong and right.

According to Murrell and Lester (1981:9) offences by juveniles are classified into three types:

- Serious criminal-law offences which include violent crimes such as murder, rape, burglary and assault.
- General forms of juvenile crime having bearing on juvenile acts that constitute less serious punishable acts. They include offences such as smoking marijuana, shoplifting and vandalism.
- Youth-status offences that refer to offences which can only be committed by juvenile delinquents.

Allen (1997:12-13) distinguishes among the following groups of crimes which affect South African schools:

- Conventional crimes or violent crimes. These are murder, rape, robbery and assault, as well as property-related crimes like house-breaking with the intention of committing a crime, theft, arson and vandalism.
- Crimes without victims such as drugs, alcohol and prostitution.
- Crimes that compromise the dignity and good name of the person.
- Youth–status and other less serious offences, including ignoring age restriction, misconduct and truancy.

2.2 CULTURE OF TEACHING

To have a culture of teaching that diminishes crime in a school, the school should provide the flexibility teachers need to be spontaneous and initiate new ideas. According to Ballantine (1997:173) teachers need to feel that they have some control over the environment and that they have some say in school policies. Effective teachers create a good culture of teaching by employing the following practices (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:523):

- by having a sense of control over their classrooms;
- by minimizing lost class time, and
- by reducing interruptions by being good managers that enforce the necessary rules.

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:147) state that a culture of teaching is a critical factor in the development of a child's identity. If a school possesses a good culture of teaching it fulfils an important role as a socializing agent and also in the development of the child. The experience the child has at school impacts immensely on his development, behaviour, hopes and dreams (Sivananda, 1990:235).

The primary goals of a school with effective teaching are the following (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:147):

- To teach values and proper conduct and to promote consistent discipline.
- To provide a curriculum that offers all pupils the opportunity to develop the knowledge, skills and awareness that will equip them for adult life.
- To enhance social conformity that is in line with society styles and needs.
- To support young people at risk in the school and community.

However, Van der Westhuizen (1995:4) and Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:147-148) are of the opinion that the goals of a school with a good culture of teaching are not always fulfilled due to the following factors:

- Crime and violence in schools contaminate the school environment and jeopardize the educational process.
- Structural factors in the school environment, such as large classes and the lack of individual attention.
- Poor, irrelevant instruction, outdated educational material and the presenting of material that does not prepare learners for the labour market.
- Negative evaluation and discipline practices in which learners are often compared with each other using a common criterion and evaluated by using standard achievement tests.
- Practice of grouping learners according to their achievement. In this case learners are classified and placed into either the academic and professional section or the non-academic and low-skill professional section.

2.2.1 Culture of teaching and moral dimension

According to Madaus, Kelleghan and Schwab (1989:282) teaching is a moral understanding. Teachers change the learners for the better by equipping them with knowledge and skills. Effective teaching shapes the development of learners so that they will become better adults and better citizens (Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis, 2007:2). Better citizens always avoid criminal behaviours. The teacher assumes responsibility not only implicitly but also explicitly for any future failing of character.

Socially the teacher shows his responsibility and character as educator by acting as a sober, honest and emotionally stable human being (Pitout, Smith, Windell & Steinmann, 1993:58). According to Madaus, Kelleghan and Schwab (1989:308-309) as a moral being, a person (learner) in a school with a good culture of teaching, is able to make choices and perform actions on the basis of norms and values, thus reducing opportunities of being involved in criminal activities. McKay (1995:69) says that morally independent means that one is able to choose for oneself in a responsible and accountable manner.

Pitout, Smith, Windell and Steinmann (1993:58) point out that a moral dependent person does not waver in implementing the choice, based on the distinction between good and bad, proper and improper, dutiful and undutiful, acceptable and unacceptable.

Madaus, Kelleghan and Schwab (1989:283) outline the following characteristics and tactics that a teacher should possess to enforce a culture of teaching that does not create any room for criminal activities:

- Adopting a parental attitude to his learners, and regarding himself as the representative of those who have committed their children to his charge.
- Being free from vicing himself and refusing to tolerate it in others.
- Letting his discourse continually turn on what is good and honorable.
- Controlling his temper without closing his eyes to faults requiring correction. His instructions must be free from affection.
- Being ready to answer questions and to put them masked to those who sit silent.

- In praising his learners he must be neither grudging nor over-generous.
- In correcting faults the teacher must avoid sarcasm and abuse.
- The teacher should declaim daily himself, without stint, that his learners may take his utterances home with them.
- If his learners are rightly instructed, the teacher should be the object of their affection and respect.

Squelch and Lemmer (1994:94) suggest that morality is necessary because life without orientation is chaotic and meaningless. Morality is essentially related to the reality of life. Allais and McKay (1995:145) state that morality is not only for the preservation of life, but also for a quality of life which is free from crime.

A crisis in schools and societies is due to a lack of morality (Kretzschmar & Hulley, 1998:14). Things have developed to such a stage that an acute personal and social danger is experienced (Govender, 2006:1). Although the rate of violence dropped dramatically during the first democratic elections in April 1994 it has risen again to an unacceptable and very dangerous level in schools. An estimated eighteen percent of the South African population, whose majority is school-going, are directly hit by the crime wave (Kretzschmar & Hulley, 1998:14).

If teaching does not cultivate the conviction that the lives of the youth are sacrosanct, the South African society is heading for anarchy. Without a revival of morality, more police, stricter courts and even the re-introduction of capital punishment, the tide of anarchy will not be curbed (Vahed, 2003:5).

2.2.2 Culture of teaching and planning

According to Van der Westhuizen (1995:137) planning is the reflection on the objectives of the organization, the resources as well as the activities involved, and drawing up the most suitable plan for effectively achieving such objectives. Planning is a reflection of a basic manner, policy rules, procedures, strategies, methods, skills and expertise by the teacher to achieve and realize educational aims and objectives through people and resources (Madaus, Kelleghan & Schwab, 1989:320). According to Sykes (1986:647) a

good culture of teaching is sustainable if planning involves setting out information in an orderly fashion and the decision-making process of selecting the best methods to achieve the objective.

Major elements of planning for an effective culture of teaching according to Hargreaves & Fullen (1992:37) are:

- The long and medium-term planning which involves making broad outlines of curriculum plans and setting dates or periods of time for completing different aspects of the work. This planning involves considering how learners should work. It also considers how it is evaluated and how records are kept.
- The short-term planning that involves defining short-term aims and objectives, thinking in detail about how work will be presented.

The purposes of short-term plans necessary for a culture of teaching as specified by Davies and Ellison (2003:82-83) are:

- specifying outcomes;
- involving stakeholders;
- prioritizing tasks and focusing;
- allocating responsibilities;
- allocating resources;
- facilitating change;
- communicating;
- monitoring;
- annual reviewing and evaluating;

- external accountability, and
- recognition.

Consideration of planning in schools affected by crime needs to include an aspect of continuity. Sykes (1986:187) points out that consideration of continuity involves not only thought about how children beginning school have continuity between their home experience and their school, but should involve practical implementation as well.

The following are the aspects of continuity in planning considered for effective teaching as identified by Badenhorst (1995:23):

- The degree to which learners are encouraged to be independent.
- Learner participation in decision-making.
- The use of learner self-assessment.
- The range of teaching methods and resources used.
- The criteria and standards employed for the presentation and content of work.
- The expectation and approaches to assessment.

Arends (2000:43-44) identifies the following consequences of planning that enhance a culture of teaching:

- Planning has a focusing effect on learners and their learning.
- Planning can also have the unintended consequence of causing teachers to be insensitive to learner needs and ideas.
- Careful planning by teachers can lead to smoothly running classrooms with well behaving learners.

Naidu, Joubert, Mestry, Mosoge and Ngcobo (2008:187) suggest the following observable characteristics of an effective culture of teaching:

- Learners show knowledge and understanding, skills and attitudes intended by the curriculum and measured by performance in tests and behaviour.
- Learners exhibit behaviour which indicates a positive attitude towards themselves as learners.
- Learners show behaviour which indicates a positive attitude towards teachers and peers.
- Learners exhibit behaviour which indicates a positive attitude towards the curriculum and the school.
- Learners do not have behaviour problems in class.
- Learners are actively engaged in learning academically relevant material while the class is in session.

Oliva and Pawlas (2001:131) maintain that effectiveness is not only a matter of working in accepted ways but also a matter of personality and personal style. Law and Glover (2000:147) identify the following as characteristics of the effective teacher who would develop a culture of teaching and discourage criminal behaviour amongst learners:

- The teacher should possess desirable personal traits.
- Employs effective teaching methods.
- Creates a classroom atmosphere conducive to teaching.
- Should be a master of a repertoire of competencies.
- Professional decision maker who has not only mastered needed competencies but learned when to apply them and how to orchestrate them.

An effective culture of teaching is characterized by a school whose activities are well thought-out, planned and implemented purposefully. Griessel, Louw and Swart (1995:63) assert that teaching can only be successful if it proceeds in an orderly and systematic manner which will not confuse the learner. Haphazard and unplanned methods lead to the disruption of the relationship which should exist between learner and teacher, with the result that the learner experiences the school as threatening instead of a secure space (Ainscow & Tweddle, 1989:51).

Thorough planning and preparation implies that care is taken to avoid inflexibility as this leads to a disregard of the teacher's initiative and personality when no room is allowed for different approaches. The sensible utilization of a variety of methods in rotation and supplementing each other, is useful in stimulating learner's behaviour and interest (Clark, 1995:120). A culture of teaching is always characterized by an organizational progression. Thorough planning is essential as far as the school time-table, division of work, the curriculum and learning content, classroom practice and extramural activities are concerned (Griessel, Louw & Swart, 1995:62).

Kyriacou (1993:200) concludes that effective teaching is bound up with sound relationships with learners, which includes the strategies used to minimize and deal with learner misbehaviour. The notion of mutual respect and rapport between teacher and learners serves to illustrate the important interplay between the cognitive and affective aspects of learning experiences. In fostering a culture of teaching in schools there is a need to recognize challenges now facing teachers and learners. Such challenges include crime which is rife in many schools (Kyriacou, 1993:201).

2.3 CULTURE OF LEARNING

A culture of learning in a safe school allows learners to develop the capacity to gain awareness of the different facets and dimensions of problems (Allais & McKay, 1995:107). A culture of learning creates a situation which involves an encounter with many different views on how to deal with issues such as crime. A safe school reflects a culture of learning characterized by learning environments that are safe and orderly without being oppressive, and by physical environments that are clean and well maintained (Zulu, 2005:40).

A culture of learning is maintained if a school creates consistency and coordinate a school disciplinary programme. Certain rules and approaches to discipline may be less important than the existence of a generally recognized and accepted set of standards (Naidu, Joubert, Mestry, Mosoge & Ngcobo, 2008:156).

Zulu (2005:41) reveals that a culture of learning succeeds in a place where learners can concentrate on their studies without being concerned about issues of discipline, safety and security. Measures need to be implemented in schools to ensure that this is the case (Griessel, Louw & Swart, 1995:144).

Thurston and Lotto (1990:178) maintain that crime can be reduced if managers and educators work together to create a culture of learning by ensuring that:

- School rules and consequences are clearly defined, communicated and understood by learners, educators and parents.
- Rules are fairly and consistently enforced.
- Classroom and school rules are integrally connected.
- Educators and learners are involved in the development of school rules.
- There is secure support for school rules.
- All staff members support and enforce discipline procedures.
- Problems are confronted quickly and forcefully.
- Support is provided for the management system.
- Educators with discipline problems are supported in the classrooms.

Schools can do much to uplift a culture of learning by enforcing good behaviour (McGuiness, 1993:70). In the light of this statement Wolfgang (2005:85) highlights the following influential issues to be examined in ensuring misbehaviour in schools:

- Task management skills that include well-prepared lessons, materials and apparatus, punctuality and smooth transitions.
- Style of discipline.
- Ability to spot trouble early, and respond non-dramatically.
- Awareness that an intended disciplinary intervention may become an unintended reward to attention-seeking thus sustaining the undesirable behaviour.
- Awareness that stopping the misbehaviour of one child may be interrupting the work of others.
- Awareness that the negative atmosphere created by constant nagging can provoke or perpetuate disruption.
- Learners use teacher behaviour as a model for their own behaviour. The considerate and respecting teacher will draw such behaviour from learners. The violent, aggressive, bitter teacher will be used as a model by learners.

Spinks and Caldwell (1992:92) are of the opinion that for the school to limit incidences of crime, which badly affect a culture of learning, it should have managers who exercise strategic leadership by:

- Keeping abreast of trends and issues, threats and opportunities in the school environment and in society at large.
- Sharing their knowledge with others in the school's community.
- Establishing structures and processes which enable the school to set priorities and formulate strategies which take account of likely and preferred futures.

- Ensuring that the attention of the school community is focused on matters of strategic importance.
- Monitoring the implementation of strategies as well as emerging issues in the wider environment and facilitating an ongoing process of review.

Leaders other than principals can exercise strategic leadership in a self-managing school, especially leaders of programme teams like one that fights crime and violence. The scale of action may have focus on individual programmes, but school-wide considerations are paramount (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:151).

2.3.1 Culture of learning and motivation

Ashcroft and Palacio (1996:29-32) regard motivation as the forces acting on or within an individual to initiate and direct behaviour. Motivation is a factor which closely affects the performance of work and the overall efficiency of the culture of learning (Zulu, 2005:32). Motivation is an inner drive which prompts people to act in a certain way. It involves a number of psychological factors that start and maintain activities towards the achievements of personal goals. All learning processes are of no avail unless members of the staff and learners are willing to contribute some efforts towards the fulfillment of their assigned tasks (Ashcroft & Palacio, 1996:17). These efforts should not be hampered by crime.

An effective culture of learning is characterized by the following factors associated with motivation towards school and learning amongst 11 and 13 year old learners in a school with no criminal activities (Moon & Mayes, 1994:95):

- Interest in school work and lack of boredom.
- Liking for teachers.
- A belief in the value of school and school work.
- Positive perceptions of the school's ethos.
- Positive views of their own ability and perseverance.

- Good behaviour in school.
- A high level of perceived parental support.

The behaviour of people is determined to a great extent by their motives. Educators, learners and the community have different needs and therefore their motives for being involved in school activities differ. A culture of learning depends on the school's ability to differentiate motivation strategies to accord with educators, learners and the community. Since motivation is linked to the establishment of relationships, the motivational activity of school management differs with regard to internal and external motivation (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:386).

Using research on the effect of the level of self-esteem on motivation by McGuiness (1993:72), the following have been identified as recommendations for a successful culture of learning:

- The school's examination policy is developed with the needs of all learners in mind, whatever their ability.
- The school signals clearly to the school community that all learners are valued, regardless of academic skill.
- Prizes can be won by a large proportion of the learners from all groups in the school.
- Learners' work is publicly valued by display, publication or presentation to a wider audience.
- Strong attention is given to matching curricular material to learner ability.
- Teaching methods of all staff are regularly monitored. This should be done in a safe way so that teachers see such monitoring as part of a professionally appropriate stance.
- The school makes its policy on the grouping of learners with due regard for the effects of such policy on behaviour.

- Homework should not be seen by learners as punitive. There is a need for a clear policy on the purpose of homework.
- It should be possible for all learners to establish, maintain and enhance their self-esteem in the academic climate of the school.

Allen (Zulu, 2005:33) cites the following principles that are characteristics of educators who are capable of restoring a culture of learning amongst learners:

- *Principle of participation:* educators are all involved in decision-making and in matters that affect them.
- *Principle of communication:* educators are informed about the objectives and the results achieved.
- *Principle of recognition:* educators receive the necessary recognition and work satisfaction; hence they are inclined to work harder.
- *Principle of delegated authority:* school management is prepared to delegate authority to capable educators.

According to Ainscow and Tweddle (1989:24) a successful culture of learning happens in a school that motivates its learners by providing learning environments and support infrastructure that are conducive to meaningful learning activities.

Sergiovanni (1987:29) maintains that motivated learners display the following patterns of behaviour that reduce chances of participating in criminal activities:

- Learners are relaxed and behave with certainty.
- They go about their work smoothly.
- They are proud of the school and take care of it.
- Learners do not consider educators and school management as burdening them with unnecessary work.

- Rules and regulations are considered fair, and are obeyed.

One of the most important tasks of the teacher is to motivate learners to learn and to achieve. However, it is necessary that he should obtain knowledge and insight into the nature of motivation and into the most important motives or deriving forces which make people act. Motivation involves certain actions by the teacher, aimed at making learners act (Ainscow & Tweedle, 1989:5-6).

People have needs which motivate them to act in order to achieve certain goals. Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1996:84) confirm that motivation is the process by means of which motives are provided by, amongst others, a manager or situation, to bring about certain actions such as learning and thus to achieve certain goals. The right motives will make a person want to act.

The following are motives or basic needs that should be fulfilled in a culture of learning as identified by Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1996:84-85):

- *Physiological needs*: both educators and learners have a need for food and to be kept living.
- *The need for safety and security*: both educators' and learners' lives need to be protected from everything which may threaten them.
- *Social needs*: the need to live together with other people.
- *The need for respect, esteem, appreciation and recognition as a human being*: this is to be treated with respect and to be recognized, appreciated and respected.
- *The need for self-realisation*: every individual has the need for self-fulfillment, to become the person he was intended to be. This also includes the special needs arising from a person's aptitude, interests, background, education and expectations of life.

Motivating learners is a very important management task, since its aim is promoting learning actions and performance in the children. The teacher must know, understand

and be able to apply the art of pupil motivation competently to ensure that a culture of learning prevails (Moon & Mayes, 1994:48).

2.4 CAUSES OF CRIME IN SCHOOL

To view a school as a highly dangerous place in which intruders or learners victimize educators and other learners, vandalize property, and disrupt the culture of teaching and learning has become common in South African schools (Siegel & Senna, 1988:309). According to Reid (1994:176-177) teenagers spend only 25 percent of their time in school, While 40 percent of the robberies and 36 percent of the physical attacks involving this age group occur in school.

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:62) identify the following causes of crime which have a negative impact on the culture of teaching and learning in South African schools:

- Involvement in gang activities.
- Lack of transformation in schools.
- Negative perceptions of crime amongst black, coloured and white learners.
- The presence of guns and other weapons at school.
- The use of cannabis and other substances.
- A lack of counseling services.
- Intolerance towards learners of other races, religion ad gender.
- Parental apathy and the hero worship of criminals and gang leaders.

Most offenders are learners currently enrolled in the school, but in major cities the most common offender is a trespasser or intruder (Siegel & Senna, 1988:310). According to Orr (1987:6) rule and law violators are often truants who come to school late and wander the hallways looking for trouble. Another type of offender is the predator who never belongs to the school community at all. Others are marginal members of the school

community including an angry parent beating up the child's teacher, friends or enemies of enrolled learners, or suspended learners who prefer a warm dry, school building to the streets (Kruger & Van Schalkwyk, 1993:134).

Causes of crime regarded as risk factors create conditions that increase the likelihood that a child or young person will develop one or more behavioural problems in adolescence (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:53).

2.4.1 Conditions in the school

The South African Schools Act, Act No 84 of 1996 (RSA 1996:31) states that the school governing body of a public school must adopt a code of conduct with the aim to establish a discipline and purposeful environment to facilitate an effective culture of teaching and learning in the school. The code of conduct must promote the civic responsibilities of the school and it must develop leadership with the code of conduct's main focus on positive discipline. Therefore, it must not be punitive and punishment orientated but one that facilitates constructive learning (Sookha, 2006a:41).

According to Potgieter, Visser, Van der Bank, Mothata and Squelch (1997:59) educators teach and learners learn best in an orderly and safe environment. Discipline is therefore one of the most important management functions in a school. Principals and educators have a duty to maintain proper order and discipline. To achieve good discipline, every school must have a written code of conduct. The purpose of a code of conduct as suggested by Potgieter et al (1997:59-60) is to:

- Create a well-organised and good school so that effective teaching and learning can take place.
- Promote self-discipline.
- Encourage good behaviour.
- Regulate conduct.

Nevertheless, Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:62) point out that the lack of discipline in schools is a common problem that has not changed since the arrival of the new

democracy in South Africa. Crime and violence appear to be worsening in schools, aggravating the existing lack of discipline and impacting extremely negatively on learners. Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1993:107) stress that an environment with little or no order can lead to the collapse of the teaching and learning culture.

Unstable discipline in schools negatively influences the learning environment and results in huge financial losses. In this regard Kuppan (2006:5) reports that vandals in uMlazi broke into a school, destroyed furniture, doors and windows and caused R15 000 in damage in just one night.

According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:62) both the Department of Education and the parents suffer financially as schools tend to use their minor unscheduled funds to repair damages caused by acts of vandalism. Govender (2006:2) states that there is a large number of cases of armed robbery and many cases of theft of solar panels, cellphones, cars, computers, school fees and food provided for the school feeding scheme for primary schools. While these figures reflect the situation in KwaZulu-Natal, there were 498 assaults on learners in Mpumalanga, Western Cape and Northern Cape, including 187 sexual assaults in 2005. There were 1314 cases of vandalism causing damage of R6million in just one district in the North West in 2005. (Govender, 2006:2).

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:62-63) maintain that vandalism can also be a symptom of an underlying problem such as poverty, where learners steal classroom doors or aluminium from the blackboard to sell in order to buy some food. Seven in ten young people are out of work and they often turn to crime and selling sex to make ends meet (Da Costa, 2007:21). According to Andrew and Sanpath (2007:5) hundreds of learners were forced to return home in the first term of 2007 after ten schools were robbed of their copper water pipes in Chatsworth.

Naidu (2006a:4) suggests that robbers are taking a new route when robbing their victims of valuables. After the school premises had been securely locked on a Friday in Phoenix, for instance, the computer classroom was noticed to have been broken into and computers stolen. The following day a parent was leaving the premises of Eastbury school in the Phoenix area and was in close proximity of the school gates when an unknown male held him at knife point and robbed him of his cellphone worth approximately R800. Teacher union members have reacted with concern after armed robberies at two primary schools in Inanda in a week's time. In both incidents four armed men entered the school premises and demanded valuables from teachers in the following manner as described by (Sookha, 2006b:2):

- In the first incident, the men managed to gain entry into Esikhululiwe Primary School and escaped with two cellphones.
- In a second incident a school clerk was gunned down on the school premises when the four men entered Mandlakayise Primary School. They also demanded cellphones from the teachers at the school.

Crime is out of control in and around most schools. Muggings, stabbings, armed robbery and petty pilfering are a daily occurrence (Naidu, 2006a:2). In many institutions learners and educators cannot be sure if they will reach the schools safely. Once there, it is entirely possible that they will be robbed by unscrupulous criminals who wander through the often unguarded gates to terrorize the learners. And even if they survive the day on the school premises, learners are worried they may not reach their transport without the trauma of being mugged or stabbed (Naidu, 2006b:14).

According to Engelbrecht, Green, Naicker and Engelbrecht (1999:50-51) both learners and teachers are potential victims of crime. Cases of teachers being shot and murdered or robbed on the school premises are reported regularly. Mhlongo (2007:1) agrees with this and says "Another KwaZulu-Natal teacher has been murdered in front of his primary school pupils, less than 24 hours after a Dassenhoek teacher was stabbed by a pupil in her class". The launching of the "safe schools" programme in schools in South Africa, which involves keeping crime off the school premises, is an indication of the problem of violence many schools experience. To worsen the situation, perpetrators are often part of the school community itself (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:63).

2.4.2 Factors in the family

Education for a child is more than institutional provision. According to Munn (1993:27) the relationship of the family or parents to schools should be set in the broader context of parents' role in their child's total learning experience. Schools alone cannot educate children or solve social problems. The family remains the main unit of care for the child by offering the following attributes (Munn, 1993:27-28):

- a source of protection;
- nourishment;
- belonging, and
- education.

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:58) say that the family or parents is usually the first institution a learner interacts with. The importance of the family in socializing young people, teaching them the rules of behaviour in society and taking the appropriate steps to keep them within those rules cannot be overemphasized. The lack thereof creates a risk of coming into conflict with the law. All individuals are potential delinquents and criminal and social controls, not moral values, maintain law and order. Without controls and in the absence of sensitivity to and interest in others, a youth is free to commit criminal acts (Siegel & Senna, 1995:168).

Dentemaro and Kranz (1993:30) maintain that home-learning is a powerful factor both before and after schooling has commenced. School-learning and home-learning are supplemented by transmissions to the learner, for good or ill, from a wider society both through the media and through the local community, including the peer group. Whatever television, newspapers and books a learner encounters are much influenced by parents who also have some impact on a learner's life and with whom there is contact (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:385). Thus community-learning can be filtered by the family. Both parents and teachers can assist children to attain a sense of personal independence not just from the family nest, but also from all other childhood arrangements including schools (Dekker & Lemmer, 1996:157-160).

The following objectives for a programme to influence the attitudes and outlook of parents in a positive way toward the schools as centres of safety and security are formulated by Van der Westhuizen (1995:389):

- To develop an understanding of the school and its activities among the parent component.
- To determine what the expectations of the parents are in regard to the school.
- To cultivate co-responsibility on the part of the parent community with regard to the quality of teaching and learning.
- To instill an awareness in the parent community of the nature of the educational programmes which have renewal as their aim and the attendant needs of a programme of this kind.
- To actively involve the community in the school programme as well as the solution of its problems.
- To support community services in a spirit of sincere co-operation.

Parent participation is of strategic importance in promoting positive attitudes on the part of parents. The following are factors that have an impact on parents' participation in school:

(1) Socio-economic status

The level of stress experienced by the parents is increased by economic deprivation and this, in turn, negatively affects the parents' affective relationship with their children and the quality of parenting (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:58). The latter has a direct impact on antisocial behaviour. Engelbrecht, Green, Naicker and Engelbrecht (1999:177-179) maintain that poor parenting skills are associated with antisocial behaviour occurring both in the home and at school. Family disruption and coercive exchanges between parent and children leads to increased family tension, poor academic performance, and negative peer relations. Parents do not know how to discipline their children in an affective manner (Starratt, 1994:66-67).

Learners may develop a negative self-concept and feelings of inferiority, shame and guilt as a result of a family's low socio-economic status (McGuinness, 1993:43). The most challenging learners are often those whose esteem is most fragile. The symptoms displayed by learners with a negative self-concept such as aggression, withdrawal and school work difficulties are the reactions to (McGuinness, 1993:42-43):

- strains and stresses;
- traumatic experiences;
- disappointments, and
- frustrations that learners have had in earlier life.

Yablonsky (2000:389) suggests that learners with a poor self-concept are the ones more likely to engage in delinquent behaviour and participate in criminality rather than to work to raise their self-esteem.

A learner is unlikely to avoid criminal activity if he comes from the following milieu (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:58):

- A neighbourhood where crime prevails.
- A poverty-stricken family in which the parents are unable to provide for basic needs.
- An environment where friends are involved in and arrested for criminal acts.

According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:59) juvenile arrest rates are higher in economically deprived and socially disorganized communities. Serious criminal behaviour seems to be concentrated in large urban areas, especially among poor, disadvantaged males. Crime rates vary according to season, temperature, and time of day (Maree & Prinsloo, 2002:97-112). Since youth crime seems to be predominant among males in lower-class areas, Siegel and Senna (1995:123) and Reid (1994:17) suggest the following social forces operating in lower-class cultures that account for the relatively high crime rates:

- The poor often reside in deteriorated sections of the largest cities.
- They are deprived of a standard of living enjoyed by most other citizens with good financial status.
- Some become members of a permanent underclass, supported by public welfare and private charity for their entire lives,
- They have no hope of achieving a higher status within the conventional society.
- They attend poor schools, live in substandard housing and lack good health care.

The problems of providing adequate care and discipline to children under the above circumstances in order to cope with learning can be immense (Starratt, 1994:127).

Lower-class environments are the scene of the highest crime and victimization rates. Official youth criminal rates for such crimes as robbery and larceny are much higher in urban schools than in suburban and rural schools (Siegel & Senna, 1995:24). The lower-class youth are most likely to deviate from a culture of learning and commit serious delinquent and criminal acts.

As a result of the following abnormalities a culture of teaching and learning is at stake (Reid, 1994:197-198):

- disrupted family lives, underemployment and despair;

- more than half the families are fatherless and husbandless, headed by a female who is the sole breadwinner;
- about 75 percent of children are born out of wedlock, and
- about 25 percent of all South African families are single-parent households, and 88 percent of these are headed by a single mother.

Living arrangements which are overcrowded are indicative of a low socio-economic status (Frude & Gault, 1984:168-169). Overcrowding leads to inadequate privacy, irritation with one another and children who may tend to wander around and even desert the home (Siegel & Senna, 1995:161). Children in this situation may land in bad company and be tempted to use alcohol or substances which will hamper their potential of learning (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:59).

(2) Incomplete family (single parent family)

An incomplete family refers to the absence of the father or mother. According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:59) homes without both parents, and poverty, are the two main issues that influence the youth's decision to commit crime. Learners from a single headed household, with ruptured family ties and families without a father figure are more at risk of involving themselves in antisocial behaviour. Siegel and Senna's (1995:247) belief that the colder and more distant the father-son relationship, the greater the likelihood that children in the family would be involved in crime is supported by the following factors:

- Lack of a warm, loving, supportive relationship with the father.
- Minimal paternal involvement with children.
- High maternal involvement.
- Broken homes.

There is a close correlation between learners originating from broken homes and families overwhelmed with tensions and their involvement with crime. Galloways, Ball, Blomfield

and Seyd (1982:36) state that a broken home is a strong determinant of a learner's law-violating behaviour. A child is first socialized at home and from the beginning learns appropriate behaviour, values, and beliefs from parents. In a study cited by Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:59), 25 percent of learner-serious offenders reported a background that differs considerably from living with a father and mother. Many learners involved in criminal activities have no father figure at all or are brought up by aunts, uncles, stepparents or grandparents (Cronje, Van der Walt, Retief & Naude, 1987:98).

As the incidence of father absence grows, community disintegration and youth crime will continue to grow. Turner and Peck (2002:72) and Moon and Mayes (1994:78) report that the father accounts for 93 percent of incarcerated parents. Considering the large, mostly male, prison population in South Africa, Reid (1994:198) points out that a great number of learners in South African schools have an imprisoned father, leaving the family incomplete. This contributes to the destruction of a culture of teaching and learning since fatherless learners are likely to be involved in criminal activities.

People, mostly men, leave their homes to look for work elsewhere, such as the mines. Although the income these fathers raise supports their households and families in rural areas, the absence of a father figure has a negative effect on the socializing process necessary for good behaviour, especially with regard to boys (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:59). The impact of parental influence is minimal when a father does not take part in creating a motivating climate for learning and studying in order to facilitate the teacher's task (Dekker & Lemmer, 1996:169).

In some households in South Africa the mother is absent as a result of work responsibilities. According to Wolfgang (2005:309-310) some mothers are employed a distance from home and so spend many hours travelling. They leave home early in the morning and return late in the afternoon or evening. Others stay in town during the week, near the workplace, away from spouses and families. They often visit their families only one weekend per month (Mohlala, 2007:5).

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:59-60) say that in some households without parents, guardians such as the grandparents or older brothers and sisters have to take care of the younger children. These children lack parental love and care and may show signs of behavioural problems from an early age. Wolfgang (2005:309) maintains that a broken home is significantly related to certain aspects of criminal behaviour. Learners living in homes where both biological parents are absent are more likely to engage in particular law-violating behaviours such as (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:59; Siegel & Senna, 1995:246):

- running away from school and home;
- truancy, and
- becoming involved in gang activities, misbehaviour and crime such as auto theft.

The family can be blamed for the destruction of a culture of teaching and learning in schools since it is closely linked with learners' criminal behaviour. The divorce rate has increased to a point where the ratio is now about one divorce for every two new marriages. Thus single-parent households have become common (Siegel & Senna, 1995:242). The family structure bears the germ of relationship and behavioural disturbances because of divorce. Should a negative affective climate develop after a situational disturbance such as divorce, it may exert a profoundly negative influence on a learner's mental health and his later development may bear the stamp of it (Anderson & Stavrou, 2001:69).

The presence of a step-father may also result in relationship problems with adolescents. The children may consider him as an outsider and disobey his rules and authority (Frude & Gault, 1984:183). Step-relationships can arouse in learners feelings of both rejection and neglect (Cronje, Van der Walt, Retief & Naude, 1987:133).

According to Wicks-Nelson and Israel (1991:161) a single mother experiences many problems as regards the raising of a boy in puberty or the adolescent phase. Not only is the father as an identification figure lost to such a boy, but it also happens that parental exercise of authority in such cases is often weak (Berns, 1985:81). To a great extent the home is problem-solving for the learner. Returning to a normal home from school means safety and security (Pagelow, 1984:15).

A lack of a complete home means a lack of loving guidance in solving problems that may affect a culture of learning. It might unleash strongly negative yearnings in the learners, which may give rise to unconventional behaviour patterns that can be entirely misinterpreted by inobservant educators, and which may occasion a faulty approach to the problem in question by the educators, thus further confusing the learner and causing him to become a good candidate for learner crime (Cloete & Conradie, 1983:47).

The death of parents due to the Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), leaving many learners orphaned, contributes to incomplete families. Many of these learners stay on at their parents' home, mostly an informal dwelling having poor facilities which are not supportive to the culture of learning. Older brothers and sisters, some as young as 14 years old, leave school and seek employment or turn to crime in order to support younger brothers and sisters (Da Costa, 2007:21). Although various non-governmental organizations are involved in the upliftment and financial support of these families, many still do not receive any help or financial assistance, therefore those who still attend school can not cope with their learning (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:60).

Thousands of learners bear a heavy burden in South Africa. The Children's Institute published its yearly Child Gauge Report and paints a worrying picture of child mortality, inadequate social grants and families headed by Aids orphans (Da Costa, 2007:21). An NGO, 'Sinosiso' which provides home-based care in communities ravaged by Aids, reveals that at least 21 of 1300 families are headed by children. These children are among the most vulnerable, because they (Naidoo, 2007:21):

- often drop out of school;
- are evicted from their homes by other community members;
- have no financial security, and
- are often the victims of physical and sexual abuse.

(3) Disharmonious material relations

When tension, discord, distrust and quarrels between husband and wife disturb material relations, it creates an oppressing pedagogical climate which threatens the learner in his affective security and may seriously hamper his normal psychological development. This creates insecurity in the learner and makes him anxious. It is precisely insecurity and anxiety which form the basis of all behavioural problems that inhibit the attainment of education (Deltufo, 1995:6).

Wicks-Nelson and Israel (1991:62) say that learners' observations of parental interactions clearly influence behaviour. If these interactions are hostile, they may contribute to the development of aggression and other aversive behaviours which will, in turn, negatively affect the learner's focus on his school work. Because of his parents' quarrelling, the learner can no longer trust in their ability to protect his small world (Pagelow, 1984:179).

A child seeks clear and consistent rules of right and wrong. When parents quarrel, the ethically normative begins to fade away in the learner's mind. All this gives rise to behaviour patterns at school which an obtuse educator does not always understand and which makes him reach for the cane, thus to beat the learner into juvenile delinquency resulting in a disruption of the culture of teaching and learning (Dentemaro & Kranz, 1993:116).

(4) Lack of parental supervision

A lack of parental supervision correlates with the learner's criminal activity and misbehaviour and has an unintended effect on the culture of teaching and learning in schools. Poor parental supervision and family availability affect adolescent-learners' behaviour, as youths then choose to associate with peers who may display diverse problematic behaviour (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:60). Contrary to Potgieter, et al (1997:18) who emphasize that parents must see to it that a learner attends a school from the first school day of the year until the last school day of the year, Cronje, Van der Walt, Retief and Naude (1987:297) point out that learners from large families encounter irresponsible parenthood, in the sense that couples have more children than they can care for and do not worry when their families do nothing but grow. Parents are not aware of or do not accept their responsibilities to their big families (Pagelow, 1984:469).

Parents are not compelled to provide a particular form of education for their children. The majority of parents choose to exercise their responsibilities by relinquishing power to schools and schoolteachers. They send their children away from home to schools on the grounds that they will benefit more (Chaiken, 2000:7).

According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:60) lack of parental supervision is normally associated with a cold or rejecting attitude on the part of the parent and interferes with the establishment of the positive bond so important for internalizing positive norms. When the children come into the world they are more often than not treated as unwanted objects and are often doomed to neglect. Such irresponsible parenthood, with all the negative emotional-affective implications it entails for the children, should clearly be regarded as an important possible learner-criminal factor (Cronje, et al. 1987:297-298).

Pagelow (1984:184) argues that mothers are assigned the largest share of the childrearing task. They also have the major responsibility for tendering children. When a child suffers from malnutrition, lack of proper clothing and health care, the parent who neglects is the mother. Mothers are the primary abusers and neglectors of children, that is, the parents who most frequently maltreat the children. In this regard Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:60) confirm that a lack of parental supervision is amongst the young mothers who lack parenting skills and fear their own children. These mothers are perpetrators of crime against their own children. Even when the crime is sexual abuse committed by a male, the mother is equally guilty because she does not protect her child as mothers are supposed to do. No matter who actually harms the child, the mother fails to create a safe environment for her child (John & La Valle, 1995:39). The consequences of harm to the child negatively affect the learning process (Cronje, et al.1987:103).

The emotional neglect of children is primarily associated with lack of interest, attention, affection, love, a sense of responsibility and emotional maturity on the part of the young parents and others responsible for promoting the education and personality development of the child who is still dependent on his parents and educators (Cronje, et al.1987:2).

The lack of adult supervision is the probable cause of learner-criminal activities during the hours immediately before and after school. Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:60) identify the following statistics about the lack of adult supervision:

- The vast majority of learners (75%) spend the afterschool hours unsupervised by an adult on one or more days each week.
- Almost half (48%) of learners never receive adult supervision during the afterschool hours.
- Only 23% of learners are being supervised by an adult every day after school.

Learners who receive adult supervision every day after school tend to be less active in crime and misbehaviour.

2.4.3 The learner

McGuiness (1993:40-41) says a negative attitude towards the school is the cause of obstructed goal attainment, defective motivation and a process of labelling. A negative attitude is accompanied by criminal behaviour. Failure at school is caused by poor academic performance, poor attendance, expulsion and dropping out of school. Expulsion is a significant cause of the future criminal behaviour for the learner (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:63). The presence of emotional problems is linked with loss of interest in schoolwork, nature of achievement at school, scholastic lagging behind and failure. Lagging behind on scholastic level accompanies learner-criminal behaviour (Cronje, et al.1987:186).

The probability of becoming involved in criminal behaviour is due to the following reasons that contribute to learners' unsatisfactory scholastic achievement and progress (Burnett & Jarvis, 2004:3-4):

- The development of feelings of inferiority, inadequacy and failure, which is often the effect of a labelling process.
- The negative image which the learner ultimately has of himself undermines his belief in himself.

- To prove his worth to himself and that he can achieve something, he turns to crime, often in gang context.
- Negative orientation towards the school which relates to a dislike of schoolwork.
- Importance of the learner on the intellectual and spiritual level due to demands which the school makes in this regard.
- The educational standards which are on the one hand pursued by the school and on the other hand applied by the family, may not correspond fully or even partially. The consequences is uncertainty, confusion and the eventual inability of the learner to comply with the required standards set by the school and he ends up involving himself in criminal activities.

The unsatisfactory achievement and progress create a basis for self-evaluation, and the frustration that lead to the rejection of legitimate goals and activities which the school upholds, and the substitution of these goals by criminally oriented goals (Cronje, et al.1987:183).

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:64) maintain that leaving school early reduces the chances that learners will develop the social skills that are gained in school, such as learning to meet deadlines, taking instructions and being able to deal constructively with their peers. Ultimately school-leaving is a phenomenon which often accompanies learner-criminal behaviour and is in itself a causal factor. The causes of untimely school leaving are partly to be found in the learner himself and the milieu outside the school, and partly in the school (Cronje, et al.1987:187).

The school is one of the most important socializing agents in society. According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:64) adolescent learners who do not have access or consistent access to school run the risk of becoming involved in antisocial behaviour. Deltufo (1995:16-17) states that the most important causes which contribute to unauthorized absence from school originate in the school itself and may also be found in family circumstances. In these instances, the learner's personality may have so many shortcomings that he stays away from school in order to evade his responsibilities and involve himself in criminal activities. These factors include inter alia the following (Cloete & Conradie 1983:31):

- A realization by the learner that he cannot accomplish what is expected of him. This relates to obstructed goal achievement because of a failure to keep up with his peers.
- The school's failure to motivate the learner successfully. It prevents his involvement in the school and offers him ample opportunity to justify his unauthorized absence.
- Negative perceptions of the school and accompanying lack of interest, failure, under-achievement and defective processes.
- Influencing by friends.
- Attitudes in the family group which enable the learner to misbehave.

The outcome of unauthorized absence from school is cumulative in nature and aggravates the conditions which the juvenile tries to escape. Increasing failure, procrastination and misconduct create a positive breeding ground for more serious misbehaviour and criminality (Cronje, et al.1987:187).

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:64) say that low education levels are associated with high crime levels, particularly crimes of violence, because low education levels result in lower income and unemployment conditions that are prevalent in South Africa. Jansen (2006:14) also warns that the obsession with examinations, pass rates and matriculation symbols are actually dumbing down learners, who become good at memorizing meaningless knowledge, regurgitating archaic formulas and disconnected historical

events and cramming for endless examinations, but they lack the basic skills of reading thoughtfully, writing accurately, speaking fluently and the basic ability to work with numbers. This is a sad indictment on the whole school system because learners are not prepared for out-of-school life, as a result they turn to crime since they cannot be employed (Jansen, 2006:14).

Education may actually raise the attraction of crime because it may open opportunities for an individual to enter higher paying crime industries (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:64).

(1) Peer associations

The first relation in which a human being finds himself is the family. Later he begins to relate to people beyond family context. Of all the many group a growing juvenile comes into contact with, his peer groups is certainly the most important (Cloete & Conradie, 1983:51).

Teenagers and adolescents have a powerful urge to be around their friends at a time of life when the need to affiliate with one's peers and to minimize the importance of relationships with one's parents is great (Vrey, 1990:175). The relationships formed by the learner with other learners also rest on mutual knowledge and are characterized by polarity, such as the following (Du Toit & Kruger, 1994:13):

- Acceptance or rejection.
- Attraction or repulsion.

Vrey (1990:170) says that every learner wants to be accepted by his peer group. The criminological significance of peer groups arises from the non-acceptance of the juvenile by the peer group. This leads to the formation of antisocial peer groups by rejected or non-accepted learners. The influence of peer groups is far-reaching and plays an important role in rejection of the parents and the school (Cloete & Conradie, 1983:30). The causal path of the delinquent youth is from peers to criminal behaviour. The association with deviant peers increases the likelihood that a learner will engage in antisocial behaviour (Vrey, 1990:171).

From the information obtained from the National Youth Survey in the United States, Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:66) reveal that male learners and female learners differ in exposure to delinquent peers, with male learners being more likely than female learners to have delinquent friends and appearing to be more strongly affected by their peers. Most adolescent learners commit offences in collaboration with others (Dalin & Rust, 1996:16). Learners committing acts with others are more likely to commit their most serious personal offences with others than on their own. In addition, most youth committing offences and being arrested with peers, are at the time under the influence of alcohol or drugs (Du Toit & Kruger, 1994:123).

Learners seem to think that cruelty is as natural and widespread as kindness. Bullying comes in many forms, from subtle verbal harassment to physical abuse. It can consist of ignoring individuals as well as drawing overt attention to some physical peculiarity. Bullying is worrying not only because of suffering of the victims but because there is a strong link between bullying in schools and subsequent criminal behaviour in adults (Cullingford, 1995:78).

(2) Gang membership

Young people go through an adolescent stage in which they seek adult status. Societies vary in the quality of aid they give adolescents during this period. When assistance from adults is inadequate, adolescents will provide their own. The development of gangs is one option (Emmett & Nice, 1996:275). Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:66) describe a gang as a group of young people who form an allegiance for a common purpose. Both males and females become members of gangs. Cronje, et al. (1987:247) point out that the gang members usually come from the poorer economic and stratas conditions of the community. The care and disciplining of the juveniles is usually witness to a disorganized and disintegrated family-life and poor and inadequate parenthood. Owing to inadequate relationships children feel insecure and often unwanted, and so seek escape on the streets. Dalin and Rust (1996:16) confirm that gang members usually come from troubled homes, where parents are probably alcoholic, out-of-work, and engage in abusive behaviour.

Moore and Hagedorn (2001:1) suggest that gangs have become increasingly associated with delinquency and crime. Many gangs are highly organized and hold a tight grip on their members. Dalin and Rust (1996:16) identify the following gang types:

- Criminal gangs that engage in theft, extortion and burglary.
- Gangs of violence, that provide a mechanism for young people to act out their frustrations and marginal places in society.
- Undercover business gangs, that engage in legitimate and illegitimate operations associated with drugs, stolen electronics equipment and betting.

Gangs often use the school as a base of communication and membership recruitment. Members of the gang often have unpleasant experiences with school life and turn to gangs as a way to escape the press of schools or as means of striking back at the school (Dentemaro & Kranz, 1993:108-110).

According to Cronje, et al. (1987:260) gang membership and gang-related crime are primarily a youth problem. Gang membership at an early age is strongly associated with future criminal activity. Many gangs exist only for crime. Crime is often committed by gang members with the following objectives (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:67):

- To control the local drug market.
- To extort money for the freedom to walk unmolested to and from school.
- To obtain protection from extortion or being attacked or abused.
- To use certain school hallways, gymnasiums or cafeterias.

Criminal action is not the only result of being a gang member. The following indications of gang membership in South African schools are outlined by Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:67):

- Rumours or more reliable information that a youngster has not been home for several nights.

- Evidence of increased substance abuse.
- Abrupt changes in behaviour and personality.
- Newly acquired and unexplained wealth often showered on or shared with peers.
- Requests to borrow money.
- Hanging around others but not having meaningful discussions with them.
- Evidence of mental or physical abuse.
- A dress style adopted by only a few.
- A particular hairstyle.

As gang members are products of a weak family structure, the gang becomes their family, giving them status, rank and prestige (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:68). According to Griessel, Louw and Swart (1995:84-86) gang members:

- often have a poor self-esteem;
- do not seem to have the ability to understand and cooperate with others outside the gang;
- have a poor school attendance record and are inattentive in class, and
- often exhibit disruptive behaviour.

Male youth gangs are linked to serious crime problems in elementary and secondary schools. There is a strong correlation between the presence of gangs and both guns and drugs in school. The presence of gangs encourages the likelihood of violent crime at school (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:68).

Dentemaro and Kranz (1993:108–112) maintain that female gang members commit fewer crimes than male gang members and are more inclined to property crimes and status

offences. Female gang members are usually involved in gang fights or carrying a weapon. Drug offences are among the most common offences committed by female gang members.

According to Cullingford (1995:95) the culture of teaching and learning is disturbed by those learners who form gangs to annoy and disrupt the educator and the classroom.

(3) Gender

Male learner-criminals completely outnumber female learner-criminals. Official arrest statistics, victimization data and self-reported studies show that female learners are involved in less frequent and serious criminal acts than male learners (Conger, 1991:519). According to Conklin (1995:105) offences for which boys under the age of eighteen are most often arrested are larceny, burglary, simple assaults, vandalism, and disorderly conduct and offences for girls under eighteen, such as larceny, running away from home, simple assaults, liquor law violations, and disorderly conduct.

For all offences except running away, prostitution, and commercialized vice, more boys than girls are arrested. According to the information provided by the Department of Correctional Services in South Africa the number of sentenced youths in custody is 14600 males, compared with 285 females (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:69).

In considering gender as a causal factor of crime in schools, Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:69) focus on characteristics associated with the learner, such as impulsivity, rebelliousness and deceitfulness. Girls do not necessarily experience these variables to a lesser extent, but boys are more exposed to criminogenic factors than girls. Gwynne (1988:63) also adds that female delinquency is affected by the changing patterns of female behaviour. Girls are becoming increasingly involved in traditionally masculine crimes, such as stealing, gang activity, and fighting. Some girl learners even attend school armed. Furthermore, Trojanowicz and Morash (1992:33) argue that women's movements produce even steeper increases in the rate of female delinquency because it is adopting an environment in which the social roles of girls and boys converge.

Male learners generally live in a wider geographic area than female learners, spend more time outside their homes, have greater freedom of physical movement and engage less in adult role activity compared with female learners, and may become engaged in antisocial

activities (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:69). Male learners traditionally enter puberty ill-prepared for the world of aggression and competition they encounter in the activities of their peer groups because of their strong physique. The consequent emotional strain leads them to engage in school criminal activities. Female learners, on the other hand, always maintain traditional, relatively static behaviour patterns that protect them from the pressures of transition into adult world (Conger, 1991:520).

According to Curcio and First (1993:8) the following are examples of serious learner on learner criminal acts:

- rape;
- murder;
- drive-by shootings;
- Discharging fire-arms in the school building or terrain;
- carrying a fire-arm on the school premises, and
- wounding or killing a fellow learner with a knife or sharp metal object.

Most learner on learner acts of aggression are committed by boys, and the aggression is generally directed at other boys (Conklin, 1995:132).

2.4.4 The availability of alcohol and drugs

Searll (2002:145) states that the incidence of substance abuse in South African schools has increased dramatically over the last few years. Newspapers have carried numerous reports about learners taking drugs and dealing in them on school property. These reports reflect an alarming trend among South Africa's youth (Brijlal, 2006:3). Learners in many schools have ready access to a range of harmful street drugs, among them being mandrax, cocaine, heroin and ecstasy. It is very common to find high-school learners who are already chronically addicted to drugs (Sookha, 2006c:5). Close to half of the inpatients under the age of thirty who seek help at Durban's South African National Council on Alcohol and Drug Dependence (Sanca) offices, are younger than 17 years of

age and come from local schools (Sookha, 2006d:2). The increase in drug and alcohol abuse in peri-urban and rural areas is deeply concerning (Kusinitz, 1988:24-27). According to Sanca's 2004/05 annual report, alcohol continues to be the most dominant substance of abuse by learners (Sookha, 2006e:30).

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:56) argue that the high level of substance abuse by learners not only contributes to crime, but the existence of profitable criminal activities also means that the expected loot from crime is more attractive in South African schools. The most important example of profitable criminal activity is the illicit drug trade. The profitable criminal activities also involve the elements of violence and official corruption required for these activities to occur. Learners in need of an income easily fall prey to involvement in drug dealing (Shone, 2007:27).

Mbuya (2002:11) and Gwynne (1988:22) believe that drugs are freely available in many areas, such as clubs, coffee bars, dance halls and youth clubs that schoolboys would be likely to visit. They base their beliefs on the following opinions:

- The more people that learners know have taken drugs, the more likely they (learners) are to take drugs.
- The time learners have been in the company of other boys or girls who have taken drugs the more likely they are to take drugs.

Dependency on drugs and alcohol is expensive and this drives learners to crime as they have no other means of supporting their habit (Perumal, 2006:30). According to Cronje, et al.(1987:227) the following characteristics of drug dependency negatively affect the behaviour and conduct of a learner:

- An irresistible craving for the drug which can be indulged legally or illegally, because drug dependents are so obsessed by having and using the substance that they will do anything, even commit a crime, to obtain it.
- Drug-dependency is coupled with an ever-increasing physical tolerance, which results in the need to increase the dose to obtain the same desired effect.

- A physical and psychological dependency develops in the users until they cannot manage without the drug.

Drug-related violence in schools has increased. There are learners in schools who are dealers and are encouraging other learners to start taking the drugs. The dealers get paid for their services and they use the money to pay for their own habit (Sookha, 2006a:5).

Fourie (2000:33) maintains that property crimes committed by learners are widely associated with an addiction to illegal substances. Drug abuse and even alcohol use directly contribute to violent learner-crime if taken in excess, especially if taken in a group context where there is strong social pressure to conform to the group's rules. In the form of a gang, learners may have certain initiation rituals involving serious crimes of a violent nature such as rape and murder (Conger, 1988:523-524).

Gwynne (1988:9) points out that an acute intoxication with alcohol is related to aggression when an individual is provoked. This heightened aggression happens when alcohol causes changes within a person that increase the risk of aggression from an intoxicated learner or educator. These changes include (Perumal, 2006:43):

- reduced intellectual functioning;
- reduced self awareness;
- selective disinhibition, and
- the inaccurate assessment of risks.

Conger (1991:38-39) argues that the behaviour of a learner influenced by substance abuse depends not only on his level of aggression, but also on the dynamics of the situation and the strength of general, cultural and social control mechanisms.

High doses of alcohol results in the lack of judgment and inhibition which lead to learner crime. In terms of developmental consequences for the adolescent, regular and high doses of alcohol make it impossible to succeed in learning (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1992:395).

The criminal incidents often take place on Saturday afternoons or evenings after liquor off-sales outlets have closed. Murders frequently occur in and around shebeens. In most cases, the perpetrators or the victims or both are learners who are under the influence of alcohol (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:57).

Compared to the abstaining learner, the drinking, smoking, and drug-taking learner is much more likely to be getting into fights, stealing, hurting other learners and educators, and committing other delinquencies (Alkers, 1984:4).

2.4.5 The educator

According to Clark (1995:88-89) educators in chaotic schools get discouraged with the conditions under which they work. Educators' reactions to the unfavourable situation often put learners at risk and contribute to learners' misbehaviour and crime. Some educators despair and stop putting their honest effort into educating the learners, and others quit teaching for other jobs. Some take early retirement while others carry on struggling, but take as many sick-leaves as they are entitled to and also waste teaching hours attending union meetings, and protests. Absenteeism of educators is both a symptom of disorder in schools and a cause of further pandemonium, as it has a negative effect on the culture of teaching and learning (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:64).

Maree (2000:2) maintains that educators share a struggle to control learners' misbehaviour during school hours. Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:65) offer the following reasons for this situation in South African schools:

- The educator-to-learner ration is increasing because of the reduction of staff and the fact that some classes have as many as thirty five to forty five learners.
- Educators complain about the banning of corporal punishment and the lack of an effective alternative thereto.
- The adoption of outcomes-based education with the emphasis on learners' competencies and assessment criteria created a need for educators to undergo further training at school or away from school.

The above factors negatively affect the educator's self-confidence, and create uncertainty and absence from class which is exploited by learners. These factors are regarded as causes of learner criminal behaviour and misconduct (Cronje, et.al.1987:190).

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:65) say that the role of educators no longer commands the respect of learners. Many learners do not recognize their educators as mentors (Clark, 1995:139). While Cullingford (1995:93) maintains that no teacher can do a complete job without enlisting the help of parents, Starratt (1994:86) reveals that parents are becoming less involved in school decision-making and management committees. Educators can not rely on the parents' support to promote a climate of discipline in schools (McGuinness, 1993:68).

Educators are reluctant to perform their duties of monitoring learners when writing examinations, and often inform the authorities that they are not policemen and they are afraid of confronting the misbehaving learners. The educators fear for their own safety, as learners might become aggressive and assault or murder them (Cullingford, 1995:105). Based on the terrifying conditions in South African schools, educators' fears are genuine as some educators have been stabbed with knives, assaulted and robbed during school hours (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:65). According to Du Plessis, Conley and Du Plessis (2007:145) the lack of control by the educator in the classroom situation affects teaching negatively.

Trojanowicz and Morash (1992:115-116) maintain that educators' failure to reprimand misbehaving learners results in the high level of instability in some schools. The learners' lack of respect for educators contribute to the drop in educator morale, thus decreasing the educators' motivation to control learners' misbehaviour (McGuinness, 1993:41).

Conklin (1995:548) says that the manner in which learners are handled at school, i.e. without understanding or being compassionate, might be the causal factor for non-compliance to school rules. Some prejudices harm the learner's life and may even turn him to criminal activities (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:65).

2.5 THE EFFECT OF CRIME ON LEARNERS

2.5.1 Behavioural problems

Kauffman (1992:417) states that crime in schools makes learners develop school phobia. It is more than likely that traumatic incidents of crime in school will induce fear in learners. When school becomes threatening or aversive, the learner may seek refuge and protection at home or with peers. This situation adversely affects his learning experience.

Criminally victimized learners often feel abandoned and lack the security of being part of the school. According to Bartollas (1993:278) crime has a negative impact on the emotional development of the learner. This leads to truancy and disruptive behaviour in school, and generates so much pain that alcohol and drugs are viewed by the victimized learner as a needed means of escape. Some criminal acts of learners cause so much self-rejection, especially for victims of incest, that these learners may vent their self-destructiveness through prostitution and may even commit suicide. Criminal acts on learners create so much anger that victimized learners sometimes later commit aggressive acts against others (Bartollas, 1993:278). According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:29) the majority of sexual offenders have been the victims of crime themselves, specifically sexual abuse.

Bartollas (1993:278-279) views the following characteristics as associated with learners affected by crime:

- They have low self-esteem.
- They have considerable feelings of guilt.
- They have high anxiety levels.
- They have mild to serious depression.
- They also have high internal conflicts.

Learners who have been abused frequently through crime run away from home and school. Running away becomes a way of coping with the pain created by criminal acts,

such as neglect, physical abuse and sexual abuse. Learners often see running away as the only way to manage an unmanageable problem (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1995:143).

According to Gwynne (1988:19) abused learners as victims of crime often feel that they have nothing to lose by taking drugs, for they are concerned only with forgetting their insecurity, anxiety, and lack of confidence. Love and trust relationships that these learners have never had with people before, sometimes develop through substance abuse. They can eventually belong, experiencing closeness and security with peers who are also involved in substance abuse (Emmett & Nice, 1996:285).

2.5.2 Stress

Stress is experienced when a learner subjectively responds to a criminal situation or event. Stressors which are perceived to be specially threatening create a fear response that leads to sickness, anger and absenteeism from school and decreased levels of a learner's performance (Thanyani, 2003:6).

Powell (1997:7) points out that the prevailing crime in schools results in learners developing stress which has the following effects on their learning:

- Learners experience difficulty in concentrating.
- They experience difficulty in making decisions.
- They develop forgetfulness.
- They experience increased sensitivity to criticism.
- They develop negative self-critical thoughts.
- They develop distorted ideas.
- They show more rigid attitudes.

Learners affected by crime in schools reflect behavioural, learning and social problems. Many of these problems are the result of stress and depression. Learners are exposed to

situations, e.g. gun violence in which they are the victims, turn out to be an extremely traumatic affair (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:34). The experience of trauma results in the learner being too stressed to cope with learning.

Stress is one of the major psychological effects of crime on learners (Gopie, 2003:25). According to Chazan, Laing and Davies (1994:174) the severe consequences of crime-induced stress could be expressed in a variety of physical and emotional signs of stress which include:

- headaches;
- muscle tension palpitations;
- panic attacks;
- low self-esteem;
- depression;
- fatigue;
- eating disorders;
- excessive drinking or smoking;
- sleeping problems, and
- obsessive behaviour.

For learners who, due to crime in school, are stressed out, in pain, and struggling for survival, drug abuse may be a solution (Galas, 1997:28). Drug taking is also a criminal related activity (Click, 1995:35).

2.5.3 School work

From the fact that the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education minister, Ms. Ina Cronje, calls for the support of different stakeholders to make schools safe for the learners and educators, it is obvious that criminal activities taking place in schools prevent learners from doing their school work successfully (Zuma, 2007:5). This is supported by Kuppan (2007:16) when she states that two grade 12 learners were gang-raped by four men at an Umlazi school on the eve of Good Friday. The girls had been part of a study group and were getting in some extra study time when the incident occurred.

According to Mahlobo (2000:25) crime which is rampant in schools, could have a negative impact on the academic achievement of learners. A nineteen year-old learner and drug addict got so caught up in the drug spiral that he had to abandon his studies when he was in grade 12 (Sookha, 2006e:30).

Gopie (2003:24) points out that a significant number of learners are unable to resume their customary activities at school and on the playground after being involved in criminal acts. They remain lonely, worried and unhappy as they continue to experience difficulty in classrooms and on the playground. A weekly newspaper, the Phoenix Tabloid (Govender, 2006:3) confirms that on the 31st of August 2006 at approximately eight o'clock, two men entered Highstone Primary in Whetstone and found their way into a classroom where they attempted to rape a grade seven learner.

Being confronted with crime-related experiences in school leads to the learner's frustration, loss of self-esteem and problematic behaviour. If a learner enters a classroom already showing some emotional disturbance, this may well interfere with his scholastic learning (Chazan, Laing & Davies, 1994:5). Whether emotional and behavioural difficulties are primary or secondary factors in learning failure, the interaction between emotional disturbance and learning blockage tends to increase both behavioural and learning difficulties (Cronje, et al. 1987:150).

Gopie (2003:25) says that more than the human brain is involved in the process of learning. Though learning has strong cognitive components, it presupposes a stable affective base. This implies that a learner who is emotionally disturbed or upset may experience problems with effective learning and scholastic achievement, as may be the case with the learner who is affected with crime.

Learners who have also become criminals through drug-related crimes tend to be more careless, lazy, inattentive, and irresponsible in school. These learners may be further affected by their relationships with classmates and teachers (Bartollas, 1993:302). It appears that the more problems adolescent learners have in school, the more likely they will turn to peers for support and acceptance. Conversely, the more learners have become affiliated with a delinquent subculture, the less receptive they tend to be to the process of academic education (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:209).

2.6 EFFECT OF CRIME ON EDUCATORS

Learners are not the only victims of crime in schools. Bartollas (1993:341) stresses that extortion and victimization of educators take place frequently in public schools. Crime has a variety of negative repercussions on educators which include the following (Singh, 2006:45):

- fear;
- decreased morale;
- career impact symptoms;
- physical symptoms, and
- emotional symptoms.

According to Singh (2006:45) eighty percent of educators experience crime-related violence at school. Furthermore, fifty six percent of this violence occurs in full view of the learners. Educators occupying higher positions face a higher risk of being victimized. The trauma of the Sinyambothi Primary School principal's death would stay fresh in the minds of his colleagues and learners, who witnessed the crime, for a very long time. It is clear that the educators who were exposed to this criminal act in the sanctity of their school environment will never recover from this violence (Peters, 2006:13).

In certain parts of KwaZulu-Natal, educators have to abandon their classes in fear after many robberies and hijackings on the school premises. Several learners take guns to

school and are later involved in shootings that leave other learners and some educators injured (Mhlongo, 2007:1).

Violent crimes and drug trafficking by gangs are of great concern in educators' working conditions. Gang activity has been reported in schools in many large cities, and in-school robberies and assaults on educators frequently involve youths acting in groups, thus prohibiting educators from doing their work effectively (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1996:119).

Robbery, a crime that brings a threat of sudden, anonymous death and injury into every school, terrifies the educators. Its rise has created a sense that an entire way of teaching is being destroyed (Altbeker, 2007:29).

Kuppan (2006:16) maintains that it is difficult to concentrate on teaching because a school environment characterised by crime is not conducive to teaching and learning. Educators are under strain and have to be social workers and even healthcare workers to learners who are traumatized by crime. Furthermore, Mokgato (Kuppan, 2007:16) says "Today we talk about teenage pregnancy, gunfights, and killings in our schools and not issues relating to education".

The survey by Lyon and Douglas (Singh, 2006:46) examined the effects of crime on teaching as a career, as well as emotional and physical effects. Between sixty and eighty percent of respondents report that some sort of career, physical and emotional symptoms occur in educators affected by crime. Over half of the participants report decreased job satisfaction and also acknowledge that crime and violence lead to poorer job performance and absence from work. Over sixty percent of the respondents point out that criminally affected educators display physical symptoms such as sleep disturbances, fatigue and headaches. Eighty four percent reveals that the emotional impact of crime on educators include frustration, stress and anger (Emmett & Nice, 1996:225).

2.7 SUMMARY

The literature review in this educational research study provided the researcher with the means of getting to the frontier in his particular field of knowledge. The results of the literature survey actually provided the data used in the research project. Literature review on school crime formed the foundation upon which the researcher built his work. The

review of literature on the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning helped the researcher in reaching a number of important specific goals, *inter alia*:

- To sharpen and deepen the theoretical framework of the research.
- To familiarize the researcher with the latest developments in the area of research.
- To identify gaps in knowledge, as well as weaknesses in previous studies.
- To discover connections, analogies or other relations between different research results by comparing various investigations.
- To identify variables that must be considered in the research, as well as those that must prove irrelevant.

The researcher used primary resources, such as the Journal of Educational Research, and secondary sources in education, for example, textbooks, educational encyclopedias and / or dictionaries, research reviews, and yearbooks.

CHAPTER 3

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CHAPTER 3

PLANNING OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter a literature review on the effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning in schools was conducted. From the literature study it was clear that for the school to achieve its main goal of ensuring a sustainable culture of teaching and learning it should be free from crime. The causes of crime in schools were also delineated by means of literature research.

It was essential to undertake an empirical survey so that the findings in the literature review would be investigated and verified. Data was gathered through administering a self-structured questionnaire to educators to establish their perceptions on the effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning in schools.

The planning of the empirical research will be discussed in this chapter. The focus will be on the questionnaire as research instrument and the processing of data.

3.2 PREPARATION FOR THE RESEARCH

3.2.1 Permission

Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (2002:439) emphasize that before sending out the questionnaire, the researcher should obtain permission from the highest authority in each unit to contact respondents. In line with this a letter requesting permission from the Circuit Manager (Annexure-B) and letters to the Principals of schools (Annexure-C) to conduct research were sent. In the letters the importance of the study, the purpose of the study, time envisaged to complete the study, guarantee for confidentiality and guarantee for strict anonymity of respondents were stated. Letters granting permission were received from the Circuit Manager (Annexure-D) and the Principals of schools (Annexure-E). The necessary arrangements to administer the questionnaires were made.

3.2.2 Selection of respondents

(1) Population

The empirical investigation was conducted in KwaMashu and the surrounding areas because of the easy accessibility to the schools in these areas. Many schools in KwaMashu are affected by crime.

For the purpose of this study 20 primary schools and 10 secondary schools were randomly selected as the research sample. The researcher randomly selected 10 educators from each school which constituted a research sample of 300 educators. Each school was supplied with 10 questionnaires, a copy of the letter of permission from the Circuit Manager of Mafukuzela-Gandhi (KwaMashu) circuit, together with a letter to the principal. Two hundred and eighty five (285) completed questionnaires were returned reflecting a response rate of 95%. This return may be considered an adequate sample for reliable data analysis.

(2) Sample

A sample is the element of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study. It can be seen as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which one is interested. A sample is a small portion of the total set of objects, events or persons, which together form the object of the investigation (De Vos, 1998:191).

The major reason for sampling is feasibility (Perumal, 2006:54). It is often impossible to identify all members of a population of interest. The use of samples may result in more accurate information than might have been obtained if one had studied the entire population. This is because, with a sample, time, money and effort can be concentrated to produce better quality research, better instruments, more in-depth information and better trained interviewers or observers (De Vos, 1998:191).

The size of the sample is influenced by the relative homogeneity or heterogeneity of the population and the desired degree of reliability for the purposes of the study (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:93-94).

The size of the sample required for a study depends on at least one or more of the following factors (Wimmer & Dominick, 1994:75):

- project type;
- project purpose;
- project complexity;
- amount of error willing to be tolerated;
- time constraints;
- financial constraints, and
- previous research in the area.

In simple random sampling, a sample of a population is drawn in such a way that each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. All possible samples of fixed size have the same probability of being selected.

According to the new demarcations, the Mafukuzela-Gandhi Circuit has 294 schools. The schools in this circuit are scattered over a large area as the former KwaMashu, Inanda, Phoenix and Tongaat circuits have merged to form one big circuit. This merge makes the circuit to be large enough to produce a population which represents the whole of South Africa. In agreement with this (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:84-87), concur that the sample should be relatively large in order to be representative of the population. This was adhered to as much as possible in this research.

Mafukuzela–Gandhi circuit is generally classified as an urban area, but includes schools from rural areas. Data was collected from a sample of both primary and secondary schools in the circuit since it is believed that all schools are effected by crime.

3.3 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The written questionnaire was used as a research instrument because it is best suited to serve the needs of the study. According to Gillham (2000:22) a questionnaire is a way of getting data about people by asking them rather than by observing and sampling their behaviour. However, the self-report approach incorporated in a questionnaire does present certain problems (Gillham, 2000:8):

- Respondents must cooperate when completing a questionnaire.
- Respondents must tell what is, rather than what they think ought to be or what they think the researcher would like to hear.
- Respondents must know what they feel and think in order to report it.

The survey involves asking questions or obtaining information from a carefully selected sample of people with an intention of describing the nature of existing conditions (Wiersma 1991:16). Gillham (2000:81-82) concurs with Wiersma (1991:16) when he states that the survey attempts to measure what exists without questioning the cause, and questions asked in the survey are information gathering questions. Pring (2000:37) says that surveys often take the form of questionnaires which, because of their usefulness as a technique, are often used. With this understanding of a survey, the questionnaire was used to obtain data regarding the existing condition concerning the effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning in schools.

The questionnaire was also used as a baseline to draw a profile of the nature, causes, impact and perceptions of crime in schools. This information was further categorised to draw conclusions based on gender, age and years of teaching of educators. The data from the interviews were used to gain deep insight on how crime has impacted on the lives of both the educators and the learners.

3.3.1 The questionnaire

The questionnaire is a prepared question form submitted to certain persons (respondents) with an aim of obtaining information. It is a scientific instrument for measurement and collection of particular kinds of data (Nichols, 1991:126). The questionnaire in this project

was used to collect data because, if properly constructed and administered, it is the best available instrument for obtaining information from a widely spread source.

The rationale of using a questionnaire in this study was to obtain educators' perceptions about the effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning in schools. This gives the educators an opportunity to comment confidentially on their experiences of crime and its effect on education. Gillham (2000:11) states that the questionnaire serves to translate the research objectives into specific questions, the answers to which will provide the data necessary to test or to explore the area set by the research objectives. Mahlangu (1997:82) and Bell (2003:119) point out that questionnaires are used by researchers to convert the information directly given by people into data by providing access to what is inside somebody's mind.

The questionnaire incites the respondents to communicate the required information. The questionnaire is used to measure what the persons know, what they like or dislike and what they think. This information is then converted into quantitative data by counting the number of respondents who give a particular response, in this way generating frequency data. The questionnaire as a research instrument affords a good measure of objectivity in requesting and coding the responses of the population sample.

3.3.2 Construction of a questionnaire

Babbie (1990:36) maintains that constructing a questionnaire that will be utilized to elicit precise information is important. If a questionnaire is drawn up haphazardly, respondents may draw different meanings which are sometimes not expected by the researcher. Grimm and Wozniak (1990:238-239) maintain that considerable care and attention need to be devoted to the construction and revision of a questionnaire. Well worded questions not only obtain the information sought but also enable the respondent to complete the research experience in a straightforward and satisfying manner.

The questionnaire that was administered to educators to form the quantitative aspect of this research study was divided into four sections, (Annexure-A). In these sections two types of questions were used, namely, structured or closed-ended questions and unstructured or open-ended questions, as suggested by Grimm and Wozniak (1990:236).

A distinction is generally made between open-ended questions, or questions in which response categories are not specified, and fixed-alternative or closed-ended questions in which the respondent selects one or more of the specific categories provided by the researcher.

(1) Closed-ended questions (structured questions)

Most of the questions were closed-ended and only a few open-ended questions were employed on the educator questionnaire. Neuman (2003:278) advises that researchers must aim at using as many closed-ended questions as possible, although there will always be information which is difficult to generate by closed-ended questions, thus open-ended questions are unavoidable in those cases. Closed-ended or structured questions gave the respondents a statement that states certain positions. The respondents were given three alternatives to choose from and were required to give their responses by putting a cross (X). The order of alternatives is as follows:

Agree: was crossed when the respondent felt that such statement happens often.

Disagree: was crossed if the respondent felt that such statement happens seldom / not at all.

Uncertain: was crossed when the respondent is unsure of the right answer. This option was included with the aim of limiting chances of guessing by the respondent. Thus, the respondent could give his perception about the effect of crime on the culture of teaching and learning without being forced to select from the expected alternatives.

Closed-ended or structured questions would be easier for the respondents to respond to. Therefore a questionnaire would not discourage respondents from completing it as it would take not much of their time. Options were in coding only, and in this way semantic and synthetic misinterpretation was minimized. Hence it would be easy to analyze the questionnaire as these could be captured to a statistical analysis system.

Closed-ended questions, however, never gave an opportunity for the respondents to express the situations in their own words and therefore limited the scope for the researcher to know more about the topic at hand, either than the statements he gave. To avoid this, both closed and open-ended questions were included.

(2) Open-ended (unstructured) questions

The open-ended questions were employed to make it possible to explore variables that were unknown to the researcher. An open-ended question has advantages when a variable is relatively unexplored or unknown to the researcher. In such a case the open-ended questions would enable the researcher to explore the variable better and obtain some idea of the spectrum of possible responses (Babbie, 1990:45).

For the open-ended questions, the respondents had to freely express their feelings by explaining and giving examples of their experiences. The open-ended questions were included in order to offer respondents an opportunity to express themselves about what they wish to be done about crime that negatively affect a culture of teaching and learning in their schools.

Open-ended questions sometimes take too long to respond to and might cause delays in return of questionnaires. When misinterpreted by the respondent, he might give answers that are not relevant to the topic and its aims, thus not be useful in the analysis of the problem. To minimize this challenge only a few open-ended questions were included.

3.3.3 Characteristics of a good questionnaire

In constructing the questionnaire, the researcher was guided by the characteristics of a good questionnaire as formulated by Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:190):

- A questionnaire must be as short as possible, but long enough to get the essential data. Long questionnaires are normally not answered.
- It seeks only that information that cannot be obtained from other sources.
- It has to deal with a significant topic. The significance should be clearly and carefully stated on the questionnaire and on the accompanying letter.
- A questionnaire should be attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly printed.

- Directions for a good questionnaire are clear and complete and important terms are clearly defined.
- Each question deals with a single idea and is worded as simply and straightforward as possible.
- Objectively formulated questions with no leading suggestions render the desired responses.
- Different categories provide an opportunity for easy, accurate and unambiguous responses.
- Questions must be presented in a proper psychological order, proceeding from general to more specific and sensitive responses.
- An orderly grouping assists respondents to organize their own thinking so that their answers are logical and objective. It is preferable to present questions that create a favourable attitude before proceeding to those that are more intimate or delicate in nature.
- Data obtained from questionnaires are easy to tabulate and interpret. It is advisable to pre-construct a tabulation sheet, on anticipation of the data, before the final form of the questionnaire is decided upon. This working backwards from a visualization of the field analysis of data is important for avoiding ambiguity in a questionnaire. If computer tabulation is planned it is important to designate code numbers for all possible responses to permit easy transference to a computer programme's format.

As the questionnaire was to be self-administered, the design of the questionnaire had to be appealing and brief, in order to elicit the necessary information.

3.3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire

According to Perumal (2006:63) data can be collected by means of a structured questionnaire in, *inter alia*, the following ways:

- a written questionnaire that is mailed, delivered, or handed out personally;
- personal interviews, and
- telephone interviews.

Specific advantages and disadvantages of each mode were evaluated for their suitability to the research question. The specific target population being investigated, as well as the related cost were also considered.

(1) Advantages of a written questionnaire

The advantages considered in the construction of the questionnaire are the following (Zulu, 2005:48-50):

- A questionnaire ensures anonymity of the respondent, especially if the questionnaire is arranged in such a manner that the responses given are representative of the beliefs, feelings, opinions or perceptions of the respondents without being identified. It will also increase the return of the questionnaires.
- Possible interviewer bias can be precluded. Using the written questionnaire, the possibility of respondents being influenced by factors such as the interviewer's experience, and interaction with the respondent by asking leading and probing questions, is eliminated completely resulting in honest responses from the respondents.
- The respondent has time to reflect on the questions before giving answers without being pressurized to give answers. Own or personal time in a more relaxed atmosphere is used to complete the questionnaire.
- With the written questionnaire, a large sample population can be reached.

- Standard questions and instructions are given. The more instructions are repeated to assist the respondent, the more accurate the responses will be from all the respondents.
- Questions that require more time for consideration and possibly consulting with resource materials, would be answered more readily on a written questionnaire than when the respondents is 'confronted' by an interviewer.
- Questionnaires can obtain information that is not always possible through other sources.
- The respondent in a private environment rather than in the presence of an interviewer would answer questions of a more personal, or an embarrassing nature, more readily.
- Through written questionnaires any possibility of interviewer errors (which could lead to incorrect interpretation of data) are avoided.
- Information obtained through a written questionnaire is more readily transferable for analysis and interpretation, than information obtained through personal interviews.
- Affordability is the primary advantage of written questionnaires because it is the least expensive means of data gathering. By using electronic technology, the cost factor could be reduced even further.
- The administering, coding, analysis and interpretation of data can be done without much training or experience if the basic guidelines are followed.

(2) Disadvantages of a written questionnaire

A written questionnaire has the following disadvantages, as cited by Gillham (2000:8):

- Questions can be answered only when they are sufficiently easy and straightforward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions. To minimize this situation, it was ensured that the questions were simple and short.

- Answers to mail questionnaires must be seen as final. Rechecking of responses cannot be done. There is no chance of investigating beyond the given answer for a clarification of ambiguous answers. To overcome this shortcoming of a questionnaire, ambiguous statements were avoided as much as possible.
- Questionnaires do not provide the flexibility of interviews. In this case, open-ended questions were included in order to give the respondents the opportunity of free expression.
- Written questionnaires do not allow the researcher to correct misunderstandings or answer questions that the respondents may have. Respondents might answer questions incorrectly or not at all out of confusion or misinterpretation. A pilot study was conducted to overcome this shortcoming.
- Not all questionnaires are returned by the respondents. If all questionnaires are returned, the picture may be slightly different.
- In a written questionnaire, the respondent examines all the questions at the same time before answering them and the answers to the different questions can therefore not be treated as “independent”.
- Researchers are unable to control the context of question-answering, and specially, the presence of other people. Respondents may ask friends or comment on their answers, causing bias if the respondent's own private opinions are desired.
- Most questionnaires are returned within two weeks, but others trickle in up to two months later.
- A researcher cannot control the conditions under which a mail questionnaire is completed. A questionnaire completed during a drinking party by a dozen laughing people may be returned along with one filled out by an earnest respondent.
- No one is present to clarify questions or to probe for more information when respondents give incomplete answers.

- Someone other than the sampled respondent (e.g. spouse, new resident, etc) may open the mail and complete the questionnaire without the researcher's knowledge.
- Different respondents can complete the questionnaire weeks apart or answer questions in a different order than that intended by researchers.
- Incomplete questionnaires can also be a serious problem.
- Researchers cannot visually observe the respondent's reactions to questions, physical characteristics, or the setting.
- The mail questionnaire format limits the kinds of questions that a researcher can use.
- Questions requiring visual aids (e.g. look at the picture and tell what you see), open-ended questions, many contingency questions, and complex questions do poorly in mail questionnaires.
- Mail questionnaires are ill suited for the illiterate or near-illiterate in English. Questionnaires mailed to illiterate respondents are not likely to be returned; if they are completed and returned, the questions were probably misunderstood, so the answers are meaningless.

3.4 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Two important characteristics of measurement that should be considered in establishing the appropriateness and usefulness of measurement instruments are reliability and validity (Wiersma, 1991:274). Validity and reliability are very important to the effectiveness of any data collecting means (Grimm & Wozniak, 1990:165). Validity and reliability are two different concepts that are interrelated. Grimm and Wozniak (1990:165) say that the validity of measurements is not entirely independent of its reliability.

Zulu (2005:51) points out that questionnaire designers rarely deal consciously with the degree of validity and reliability of their instrument, which is one reason why so many questionnaires are lacking in these two characteristics. The questionnaire has a very

limited purpose and is often used only as one time information collecting with a very short life span, administered to a limited population.

Neuman (2003:331) and Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2004:72) maintain that it is feasible through a variety of statistical treatments to quantitatively assess the reliability and validity of psychological tests and inventories. It is more difficult to determine these qualities for some other data gathering instruments or procedures, such as observation, interview, or the use of the questionnaire, in which responses are more qualitative and yield data that are not always readily quantifiable.

One should attempt to improve the reliability and validity of the procedures, but precise determination of the degree to which they are achieved is often elusive, particularly in the case of validity. Basic to the validity of a questionnaire is asking the right questions phrased in the least ambiguous way. In other words, the items should sample a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation. Terms must be clearly defined so that they have the same meaning to all respondents (Zulu, 2005:51).

It cannot be guaranteed that an educational or psychological measuring instrument measures precisely and dependably what it is intended to measure (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:198). It is important, therefore, to assess the validity and reliability of these instruments. It is expected for the researcher to include in his research report an account of the validity and reliability of the instrument he has used. Therefore researchers should have general information as to what validity and reliability are and how one goes about validating a research instrument and establishing its reliability (Zulu, 2005:52).

(1) Validity of the questionnaire

Validity refers to the degree to which it actually measures the concept it is supposed to measure. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2004:62) point out that validity is the extent to which a test correlates with some criterion external to the test itself. Validity is the appropriateness of the interpretation of the test or inventory, and it is specific to the intended use. A test may be highly valid for some situations and not valid for others (Wiersma, 1991:276). Validity is regarded as an indispensable characteristic of measuring devices.

Validity involves the following concepts (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002:298–302; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:80; Neuman, 2003:186):

- internal validity is the concept of validity whereby the extent to which the results can be accurately interpreted;
- external validity being the concept of validity whereby the extent to which the results can be generalized to populations and conditions;
- measurement validity is the extent to which the constructs in the research question are successfully operationalised;
- interpretative validity is the extent to which the appropriate conclusions are drawn from the data, and
- statistical validity is the extent to which the study has used an appropriate design and statistical methods of analysis.

Validity of research is always a matter of degree. Wiersma (1991:6) points out that it is practically impossible to attain perfect internal and external validity in a study. In this study attempts were made to attain a balance so that results could be interpreted with reasonable certainty and still have some useful generalizability.

The validity of the questionnaire reflects the sureness with which conclusions can be elicited. It refers to the extent to which interpretations of the instrument's results can be ruled out (Zulu, 2005:53). Cooper (1989:120) states that establishing validity requires the researcher to anticipate the potential arguments that sceptics might employ to dismiss results of the research.

Wimmer and Dominick (1994:59) and Babbie (1990:133-135) distinguish among the following different types of validity used in educational and psychological measurement:

- **Criterion-related validity:** it is sometimes called predictive validity and is based on some external criterion. To establish this type of validity, measures from one instrument are compared with measures on a related task. It is most often a concern of association studies in which performance on one measuring device is

used to predict performance on a second measurement. The criterion must be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination.

- **Concurrent validity:** it is the procedure which relates performance on the test with performance on another, well-reputed test. Concurrent validity of a test can also be established to compare characteristics or performance as assessed by that test to the characteristics or performance as assessed by another procedure, such as human judges.
- **Content validity:** this concerns how well the instrument measures the objectives or content of the variable studied in the research problem. More specifically, content validity directly influences the representativeness of the results as a measure of the variable. It requires the careful analysis of an instrument to be sure that the content is both representative and suitable for the purpose of the project.
- **Construct validity:** the question of whether an instrument measures the concept it claims to measure is referred to as its construct validity. A construct is a hypothetical idea such as motivation, aggression, intelligence, or test anxiety. Such words are sometimes used to explain what is meant by several related behaviours.

The questionnaire was used as an indirect method to measure educators' perceptions of the effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning in schools. Due to the complexity of the respondents' attributes one would not be certain that the questionnaire devised would actually measure what it purports to measure. From the interpretation of the data obtained and the certainty with which conclusions could be drawn the researcher is convinced that the questionnaire, to a great extent, did measure what it was expected to.

(2) Reliability of the questionnaire

Reliability is defined by Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:126) as the extent to which measurements reflect true individual differences among respondents. Grimm and Wozniak (1990:166) agree with Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:126) when they point out that reliability refers to the degree to which a measure is consistent in producing the same reading when measuring the same things. A demonstration of reliability is necessary but there is no conclusive evidence that an instrument is valid (Welman & Kruger, 2003:138-139). In this study the questions were formulated in such a way that they would be

analyzed by means of frequency distribution which complies with what Grimm and Wozniak (1990:166) and Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:26) mention above.

According to Bell (2003:103) researchers want to use instruments whose measures are consistent time after time. This means dependability from one data collection to another, from one part of the instrument to another part, or from one form of an instrument to another form. Reliability is estimated by correlating two or more sets or measurements. To establish the reliability of an instrument, one set of scores is correlated with a second set, giving a coefficient, usually r , that ranges +1.00 to -1.00. The closer the coefficient is to +1.00, the less error variance in the measurements (Wimmer & Dominick, 1994:57).

Reliability refers to the extent to which measurement results are free of unpredictable kinds of error. It is difficult for the researcher to guarantee reliability as this will be affected by the following factors (Mulder, 1989:209; Kidder & Judd, 1986:45):

- Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of fatigue, illness, recent good or bad experiences, and differences amongst group members being measured.
- Differences in scoring and interpretation of results and the problem of respondents who give answers to questions without thoroughly considering their measuring.
- Variations in the conditions of administration between groups. These range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as omissions in verbal instructions.
- Random effects by respondents who guess or check off alternatives without trying to understand them.

Welman and Kruger (2003:139-141) classify the most commonly measured qualities of reliability as follows:

- *Stability*: a measure of the stability of scores is calculated with a test-retest method. A group of participants is given an instrument, and after a predetermined period of time, the same instrument is administered again. The two sets of scores

are then correlated to give an estimate of the stability of the scores over the time between administrations of the instruments. Instruments that show stability are appropriate in relatively long term projects or in any other project in which stability over time is important.

- *Equivalence*: a measure of the equivalence of scores can be calculated by the equivalent forms method. A group of participants is given an instrument at one sitting, followed closely by a second instrument that is similar in construction, length, difficulty, and other characteristics. The two sets of scores are correlated, with the resulting coefficient indicating how well both forms are measuring the same aspects of behaviour.
- *Internal consistency*: this can be estimated by the split-half technique. Using the split-half method, responses from half the items (usually the odd-numbered items) are correlated with responses from the other half (even-numbered items). The resulting correlation coefficient is usually corrected to estimate the reliability of the full length instrument.

In administering the questionnaire the researcher was concerned with estimating the reliability of instruments prior to using them in data collection because he wanted to be sure if his observations were accurate. Since decisions about his research hypotheses would be based on data collected from subjects, the reliability of the observations directly influences the credibility of the results.

3.5 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study serves as a “dry run” for a project. It is a small-scale study using a few subjects who are similar to those a researcher plans to use in his project (Wiersma, 1991:177). A pilot study is a pre-testing of the questionnaire, and deficiencies may be uncovered that were not apparent by simply reviewing the items. The group used for the pilot run need not be a random sample of prospective respondents, but the members of the group should be familiar with the variables under study and should be in a position to make valid judgments about the items (Bell, 2003:128).

Many researchers agree that piloting a questionnaire is a prerequisite. Neuman (2003:181-182) confirms that if questions are to be used to measure variables in an

investigation, they must be pre-tested, refined and subjected to the same criteria of validity, reliability and objectivity.

For the purpose of this study a pilot study was conducted as a starting point to collect data. Ten educators from ten nearby schools comprising five primary and five secondary schools were targeted for this purpose. They were requested to complete the questionnaire. The aim of this pilot was to evaluate the extent to which the following purposes of a pilot study as stipulated by Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2004:298-299) were achieved:

- It supplies the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study.
- It permits a thorough check of the planned statistical and analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating the data.
- It greatly reduces the number of treatment errors because unforeseen problems revealed in the pilot study results in redesigning the main study.
- It saves the researcher major expenditure of time and money on aspects of the research that would have been unnecessary.
- Feedback from other persons involved is made possible and leads to important improvements in the main study.
- The approximate time required to complete the questionnaire is established in the pilot study.
- Questions and instructions that were misinterpreted are reformulated.
- It permits a preliminary testing of the hypotheses that leads to testing more precise hypotheses in the main study.

The following is a list of some of the findings accumulated through the responses from participants of the pilot study, some of which were encouraging and some that had to be attended to before the actual study was attempted:

- The researcher was encouraged by a warm and receptive response to the questionnaire, with educators believing that the time had come that the issue of crime in schools is tackled.
- The list, on the causes and effects of crime, was expanded based on the inclusions from participants.

The pilot study was useful in that it pointed to certain minor adjustments which had to be made. It also strengthened the focus of the research technique to be used and paved the way for the project to commence.

3.6 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This section focused on the procedures for sending out a questionnaire and following it up. According to Bell (2003:129) the questionnaire must be accompanied by a cover letter explaining the nature and the purpose of the research project and enlisting the respondent's co-operation. The cover letter is a critical part of the initial distribution because it must establish the legitimacy of the study and the respectability of the researcher (Delamont, 1993:81). The cover letter should also highlight the name of the investigator, his signature, the level of study as well as an opportunity for debriefing.

With the above-mentioned intentions of the cover letter in mind, the following practices are recommended (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002:404-406):

- The appeal in the cover letter must be tailored to suit the particular audience;
- neither the use of prestigious signatories, nor appeals to altruism, nor the addition of handwritten postscripts after response to a postal questionnaire;
- a direct reference should be made to the confidentiality of the respondent's answers and the purposes of any serial numbers and coding should be explained;

- a pre-survey letter advising respondents of the forthcoming questionnaire has been shown to have substantial effect on response rates; and
- a short cover letter is most effective; aim at no more than one page.

If properly administered the questionnaire is the best available instrument for obtaining information from widespread sources or large groups simultaneously (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002:385). Questionnaires were delivered to the selected schools and collected after completion.

After data gathering had been completed, the next step, that of processing the data, was dealt with.

3.7 PROCESSING OF DATA

Once data was collected, it was captured in a format that would permit analysis and interpretation. This involved the careful coding of the 285 questionnaires completed by the educators. The coded data was subsequently transferred onto a computer spreadsheet using Microsoft Excel in Office 2000. The coded data was analyzed using the same programme in order to interpret the results by means of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics.

3.7.1 Descriptive statistics

According to Cohen and Manion (1994:67) and Sowell and Casey (1982:303) descriptive statistics serve to describe and summarize observations. Frequency tables, histograms and polygons are useful in forming impressions about the distribution of data.

Frequency distribution is a method to organize data obtained from questionnaires in order to simplify statistical analysis (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2004:101-105). A frequency table provides the following information:

- It indicates how many times a particular response appears on the completed questionnaires.

- It provides percentages that reflect the number of responses to a certain question in relation to the total number of responses.
- The arithmetic mean (average) can be calculated by adding all the scores and dividing it by the number of scores.

3.7.2 Inferential statistics

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:154) inferential statistics concerns itself with inferences that can be made about population indices on the basis of corresponding indices obtained from samples drawn randomly from the population. Inferential statistics are values calculated from a sample and are used to estimate the same value for the population (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:84).

According to Picciano (2004:10) research always begins with one or more questions or hypotheses. Questions are posed about the nature of real situations, while hypotheses are statements about how things can be. Hypotheses are always in declarative sentence form and they relate, either generally or specifically, to variables (De Vos, 1998:115):

- Hypotheses should make statements about the relations between variables.
- Hypotheses should carry clear implications for testing the stated variables.

This implies that hypotheses statements should contain two or more variables that are measurable or potentially measurable and they should specify how the variables are related (Cohen & Manion, 1994:164). Hypotheses are seen as the most powerful tool to achieve dependable information. Negative feelings are sometimes as important as positive ones, in that they encourage further investigation.

3.7.3 Chi-square test

According to Welman and Kruger (2003:203) a chi-square test can assess differences between two or more independent groups with frequencies ranging from moderately small to very large. It can perform operations with frequency data that are analogous in function and complexity to a single-factor as well as multiple factor analysis of variance. The chi-

square is a commonly employed test statistic for frequency differences (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2004:119).

The chi-square test is a test of significance that takes the form of a ratio between observed frequency differences and random error differences (Wimmer & Dominick, 1994:239). The formula for the chi-square test is a simple one, viz:

$$\text{Chi-square } (X^2) = \sum \frac{[(o - e)]^2}{e}$$

Where, o represents the observed frequency in some particular group or category on nominal scale and e refers to the expected frequency in the same group, meaning the frequency that could result from chance. Thus, for any one group, x represents observed minus expected error frequencies squared, divided by expected error frequencies. The summation sign (Σ) appearing in the formula indicates that x can be used to assess significant differences among as many different groups and categories as needed, simply by adding the $o - e / e$ ratio associated with each group (Perumal, 2006:77).

3.7.4 Application of data

The questionnaire (Annexure–A) was designed to determine whether crime affects a culture of teaching and learning in schools. In order to obtain the information needed for the purpose of this study the questionnaire was subdivided into four parts:

- Section–1 focused on the biographical data of the respondents. It included items 1.1 to 1.10.
- Section–2 required the information regarding the causes of crime in schools.
- Section–3 gathered information about the impact or effect of crime on educators.
- Section–4 comprised open-ended questions and concentrated on the information regarding educators' perceptions of the effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning in schools. It also required respondents to comment on whether crime was increasing or decreasing, the role of the Department of Education, the manner in which criminal incidents are handled and possible solutions.

3.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following are the factors that constrained the investigation:

- The timing of this investigation was problematic because the approval of the questionnaire was done very late in October 2008. The study had to be conducted in October / November of the which was the time of writing examinations. The target group of this study comprised educators who were supposed to conduct examinations during this period.
- Timing was also against the researcher because educators were involved in a recovery plan after the longest ever public sector strike action. Thus, some participants regarded this exercise as a disturbance since they had to concentrate on their catch-up programme.
- The sensitive nature of items in the questionnaire might have drawn false and misleading responses and influenced the reliability of the results (Zulu, 2005:59).
- Another limitation was that of the language as cited by Chetty (1998:144) as she states that a shortcoming of the research design is that of overlooking the fact that a large number of respondents were English second language speakers.

Despite the above limitations, it was found that the advantages of the questionnaire far outweighed the disadvantages.

3.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Ethical considerations require respecting the anonymity of respondents. Hatch (2002:66) points out that the matter of ethics is an important one for educational researchers. Because the researchers' subject of study is the learning and behaviour of human beings, often children, the nature of such research may embarrass, hurt, frighten, impose on, or otherwise negatively affect the lives of the people who are making the research possible by their participation. To deal with this problem, different researchers have written about codes of ethics outlining the behavioural standards that the researchers must follow as they conduct research (Pring, 2000:142).

The codes of ethics relate to the following basic principles as suggested by Wimmer and Dominick (1994:400-401) namely:

- Maintenance of privacy.
- Use of samples rather than complete populations so that fewer persons are inconvenienced.
- Informing respondents of the possible negative effects and securing their permission (informed consent).
- Objectivity and honesty in reporting.
- Promise of confidentiality and anonymity of participants.

In conducting this study, the codes of ethics as enumerated above were complied with.

3.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter the research methods employed in conducting the study were discussed. The preparation and design of the research which included permission and selection of respondents were highlighted. The questionnaire as a research instrument, the pilot study and the processing of data were also discussed. An overview of the limitations of the study was also outlined. Lastly ethical considerations were highlighted.

The next chapter will deal with the empirical investigation. It will describe how the fieldwork was carried out and scale administered.

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CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the data that was collected from the questionnaires completed by two hundred and eighty five respondents. The data will be analysed and interpreted. The analysis of the data involved coding of the questionnaires and transferring the coded data on a computer spreadsheet. The hypothesis formulated in chapter one is tested in this chapter.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Research can be defined as the systematic process of collecting and logically analyzing information for some purpose (Perumal, 2006:82). According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:59) the descriptive method in research seeks to describe the situation as it is, thus there are no interventions on the part of the researcher and therefore no control. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:42) say the purpose of research is to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or person.

Descriptive research is one of the methods of research used to study a person or persons scientifically in the educational situation. It is concerned with the description and/or summarization of the data obtained for a group of individuals. Data may be described or summarized by tabulating or graphically depicting them. The purpose of descriptive statistics is to reduce large amounts of data physically, in order to facilitate the drawing of conclusions about them (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:355).

According to Perumal (2006:82-83) descriptive studies describe the distribution of variables rather than set out with the intention of testing hypotheses about relationships.

In this investigation homothetic descriptive research was employed with the aim of describing the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning. The researcher was primarily concerned with the nature and degree of existing situations in schools.

4.2.1 Gender of the respondents

Table 1: Frequency distribution according to the gender of the respondents.

	Gender	Frequency	Percentage
1	Males	85	30%
2	Females	200	70%
	Total	285	100%

Table 1 shows that in the research sample there are forty percent (40%) more female educators than male educators. The following are possible reasons for this finding:

- The majority of the teaching corps in South Africa consists of female educators. This is supported by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC), Resolution 1 of 2005 which confirms that schools in KwaZulu-Natal are overstaffed by 1500 female educators in post level one (ELRC, 2005:1).
- Statistical data of the Department of Education indicates that seventy percent (70%) of the teaching staff at schools are females (Zulu, 2005:61).
- Females may view teaching as an occupation that affords them time in the afternoon to attend to their household chores and spend time with their children and to assist them with their homework (Maharaj, 2004:103).
- Many females are not sole breadwinners and therefore may see teaching as a second or additional family income (Perumal, 2006:84).
- Males may be seen as more demanding in terms of discipline than females. Schools have more female educators than male educators and this may have contributed to the steady increase of crime amongst learners (Perumal, 2006:84).
- Many males have taken up more lucrative opportunities outside the public service (Singh, 2001:58).

- More female educators apply for vacancies in primary schools since they find teaching in primary schools less stressful than teaching in a secondary school (Manese, 2001:3).

4.2.2 Age of the respondents

Table 2: Frequency distribution according to the age of the respondents.

	Age in years	Frequency	Percentage
1	20-25	14	5%
2	26-30	30	11%
3	31-35	36	13%
4	36-40	88	31%
5	41-45	66	23%
6	46-50	28	10%
7	51-55	10	3%
8	56-60	7	2%
9	Older than 60	6	2%
	Total	285	100%

According to Table 2 most of the respondents (31%) who participated in the research are in the age group of 36 to 40 years while (54%) of the respondents are between 36 and 45 years old. The frequency table also shows that almost a third (29%) of the respondents is younger than 35 years. Younger educators have more to offer in terms of time, energy and productivity in the teaching profession. The younger the educator, the longer he may stay in the education profession and thus gain more experience (Smith, 1994:55). Older educators have more experience in exercising discipline and thus prevent crime. The following factors may contribute to the latter finding that only 17% of the educators are 46 years and older (Engelbrecht, Green, Naicker & Engelbrecht, 1999:70):

- The salaries of educators do not compare favourably with that from the private sector.
- Rationalisation and redeployment of educators do not offer much confidence in the teaching profession as a permanent, substantive profession.

- Prospective students in the teaching profession are frightened off by the increasing workload of educators as perceived by them.

4.2.3 Racial grouping

Table 3: Frequency distribution according to racial grouping of the respondents.

	Race	Frequency	Percentage
1	African	160	56%
2	White	20	7%
3	Indian	100	35%
4	Coloured	3	1%
5	Other	2	1%
	Total	285	100%

Fifty six percent (56%) of the respondents (Table 3) in the research sample are African. Schools selected for the research are mostly from the previous system of Bantu education. African learners are more likely than white learners to be arrested for serious offences (Buizedenhout & Joubert, 2003:42). According to Siegel and Senna (2000:54) African teachers are more likely than white teachers to reside and work in areas characterized by the following: poor housing, limited employment opportunities, social conflict, high crime rates, the presence of transient individuals (i.e. persons who do not settle in an area for long), opportunities to engage in criminal behaviour or form juvenile gangs, and high levels of crime.

Table 3 generally paints a picture of African teachers being exposed to higher levels of crime. It also indicates that the other racial groups including whites, Indians and coloureds together form forty three percent (43%) of the sample. Therefore, with age and population taken as the only risk factors, the number of perpetrators should follow according to the position of the population groupings: black, Indian, white and coloured (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:42).

4.2.4 Post levels of the respondents

Table 4: Frequency distribution according to the current post levels of the respondents.

	Post Level	Frequency	Percentage
1	1	200	70%
2	2	50	18%
3	3	20	7%
4	4	15	5%
	Total	285	100%

Table 4 confirms that the majority (70%) of the respondents are post level one (PL 1) educators. This is consistent with the composition of educators in most schools. Generally post level one educators comprise a little more than seventy percent of the teaching personnel (DoE, 2002:2-8). Post level one educators are most likely to be affected by crime due to the increased workload and bigger class sizes which affect their abilities in identifying and assisting learners with criminal behaviours (Perumal, 2006:91).

4.2.5 Years of teaching experience of the respondents

Table 5: Frequency distribution according to respondents' years of teaching experience.

	Years of teaching experience	Frequency	Percentage
1	0 – 5	54	19%
2	6 – 10	28	10%
3	11 – 15	84	29%
4	16 – 20	88	31%
5	21 – 25	20	7%
6	26 - 30	6	2%
7	More than 30	5	2%
	Total	285	100%

According to frequency Table 5 more than seventy percent (71%) of the respondents that partook in the research have more than ten years teaching experience and 42% have more than fifteen years of teaching experience. The more experienced educator might be able to identify learners who are involved in criminal behaviour and may be better equipped to assist such learners with their problems. Experience as well as adequate training is needed for the responsibilities and demands imposed on educators (De Witt, 1993:21). The more experience and training educators have, the more confidence and expertise they will acquire to be more effective (Perumal, 2006:86).

4.2.6 Location of the school

Table 6: Frequency distribution according to the location of the school.

	Location of the school	Frequency	Percentage
1	Urban area	160	56%
2	Semi-urban area	95	33%
3	Rural area	20	7%
4	Privately owned land	10	4%
	Total	285	100%

Table 6 reflects that more than eighty percent (89%) of the respondents in the research sample come from urban areas and eleven percent (11%) are from rural and privately owned or farm schools. This was expected because the research sample was randomly selected from urban and semi-urban schools. Against the background of conditions in schools, a clear distinction can be made between urban and rural schools in South Africa. Urban schools have better facilities, sufficient numbers of books, highly qualified teachers and parents that pay school fees, whilst at rural schools there might be a lack of upgraded facilities, shortage of books and qualified teachers. Because of poverty and unemployment not all parents can afford to pay school fees (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:63).

Urban schools experience more crime. Children who live in crowded city tenements could not be assigned the types of daily work so readily available in rural settings. Their idleness, lack of ambition, and neglected moral training pave the way for criminal behaviour (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1996:73).

4.2.7 Type of employment

Table 7: Frequency distribution according to the type of employment of the respondents.

	Type of employment	Frequency	Percentage
1	Permanent educators	98	34%
2	Temporary educators	94	33%
3	SGB paid educators	93	33%
4	Total	285	100%

Table 7 represents educators in three different categories according to the type of employment. In research done by Mwahombela (2004:49-50) it was found that educators who are permanently employed are more subjected to elevated levels of crime because they are perceived to earn more money.

4.2.8 Size of the school

Table 8: Frequency distribution according to the size of the school.

	Size of the school	Frequency	Percentage
1	Less than 500 learners	52	18%
2	500–1000 learners	180	63%
3	More than 1000 learners	53	19%
	Total	285	100%

Table 8 reflects that the majority of schools (63%) in the research sample have between 500–1000 learners. Learners expect only minimal consequences for anti-social behaviour, which basically teaches them that authority is 'bunk' and encourages self-destructive behaviours (Mwahombela, 2004:50). According to Kauffman (1993:235-236) large numbers in schools have made learners inaccessible to educators. Educators cannot physically reach learners in many cases to monitor their behaviour hence they turn to criminal activities.

School crime increases with factors such as school size, the number of learners taught by each teacher and the extent to which teachers have access to the materials needed for

teaching (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:62). Taking these factors into consideration, large city schools are more prone to victimization, followed by small city and then suburban schools.

4.2.9 Qualifications of the respondents

Table 9: Frequency distribution according to the qualifications of the respondents.

	Qualifications	Frequency	Percentage
1	Academic only	50	18%
2	Professional only	168	58%
3	Academic and professional	67	24%
	Total	285	100%

Table 9 reveals that more than half (58%) of the respondents in the research sample possess professional qualifications only. The contents of teaching diplomas and certificates are more practical than theoretically orientated courses and therefore more appropriate for teaching in primary school (Perumal, 2006:87). Continuous personal development assists educators to keep pace with the change in knowledge, advancement of technology and increasing demands imposed on them (Du Plessis, Conley, & Du Plessis, 2007:100).

Less than a quarter (24%) of the respondents possess academic and professional qualifications. The quality of education depends, to a large extent, on the quality of the educator. With adequate professional and academic qualifications educators will be able to promote efficiency in the classroom (Rogers, 1996:138-139). Educators in possession of academic degrees and professional qualifications are perceived as better qualified for the teaching profession than those with only diplomas and/or certificates (Naidoo, 2001:96). The more empowered and qualified educators are, the easier it will most probably be to identify and to assist with learner misbehaviour. In order to be an effective educator a person should have obtained the most suitable qualifications (Zulu, 2005:65).

4.2.10 Phases being taught by the respondents

Table 10: Frequency distribution according to the phases taught by the respondents.

	Phases being taught	Frequency	Percentage
1	Foundation/Intermediate	100	35%
2	Intermediate/Senior	185	65%
	Total	285	100%

Table 10 shows that the majority of respondents (65%) teach in the intermediate and senior phase. This is an expected finding because the researcher selected a random sample from mainly primary schools.

Both Pelsier (2001:15) and Van der Westhuizen (1999:4) suggest that violent crimes such as murder and serious assault are a given in almost all South African schools whether primary or secondary schools. Perpetrators of violence are becoming increasingly younger because older learners intimidate the younger ones to rebel against authority.

4.2.11 Causes of crime

Table 11: Frequency distribution according to the factors that contribute to crime in schools.

	I PERCEIVE THE FOLLOWING FACTORS AS CONTRIBUTING TO CRIME IN MY SCHOOL:	NEED	AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTAL
2.1	Both parents are working (e.g. learners who lack home supervision tend to misbehave).		45	90	285 100%
2.2	Absence of a father figure (e.g. boys from fatherless family are at risk of engaging in anti-social behaviour).	165 58%	90 2 32%	30 10%	285 100%
2.3	Influence of gangs (e.g. learners are involved in criminal behaviour in order to qualify for gang membership).	79%	0 0%	60 21%	285 100%
2.4	Abuse by parents (e.g. learners involved in criminal activities are themselves victims of abuse in their families).	210 74%	60 21%	15 5%	285 100%
2.5	Substance abuse (e.g. learners engage in misbehaviour, while they are under the influence of drugs and alcohol).	255 89%	0 0%	30 11%	285 100%
2.6	Socio-economic background (e.g. learners from poor homes may land in bad company, and commit crimes).	165 58%	75 26%	45 16%	285 100%
2.7	Inadequate security measures at school (e.g. learners bring weapons such as guns, knives, box cutters, razors, screwdrivers, forks and blades).	225 9%	15 5%	45 16%	285 100%
2.8	Lack of effective disciplinary measures (e.g. learners do not take verbal warnings seriously).	255 90%	15 5%	15 5%	285 100%
2.9	Banning of corporal punishment (e.g. learners have become more unruly).	210 4%	15 5%	60 21%	285 100%

2.10	Learners' rights (e.g. learners misuse their rights to participate in socially undesirable behaviours).	240 4%	15	30 11%	285 100%
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The identification of causes of crime is one of the goals in criminology, especially in view of its value and the belief that such identifications are useful when seeking to correct or control criminal behaviour (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:52). According to Delahunty and McDonald (2005:106) the concept "cause" is something that brings about an effect or a result. For example, a person with criminal intent or a situation (such as a dysfunctional family) can bring about an action (criminal behaviour) which eventually affects the culture of teaching and learning in school.

Working Parents (2.1)

More than fifty percent (53%) of respondents in the research sample indicated that learners whose parents are both working lack adequate supervision from their parents. Working parents experience stress in trying to maintain their parenting roles accordingly. "Lax" supervision is a result of the parents' reaction to a personality disorder on the part of the youth which is, in turn, the cause of the criminal activity (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:60).

Inadequate supervision and discipline at home have been commonly cited to explain criminal behaviour. The rate of delinquency increases with the incidence of mothers' employment outside the home (Bartol & Bartol, 2005:59). According to Bartollas (1993:269) the type of discipline employed in the home have an effect on criminal behaviour, for both strict and lax discipline and unfair discipline are associated with high rates of criminal activities.

The lack of warmth between parents and children appears to be a very strong factor that contributes to children with antisocial outcomes (Bartol & Bartol, 2005:59).

Fatherless family (2.2)

The larger percentage (58%) of the respondents that partook in the research revealed that learners from families without a father are more at risk of engaging in criminal activities.

The increase in single parents has influenced the extent of family involvement in violent and criminal behaviours. Kratcoski and Kratcoski (1996:128-129) state that ninety percent (90%) of single parents are women who frequently do not get proper financial support. Child-support payments / grants are not enforced regularly, which then creates a class of poverty among the single parents. Poverty may cause children to get involved in criminal activities to obtain money. The absence of a father in the family creates a situation whereby a mother as a single parent becomes poor, and probably has a slightly greater risk of abusing her children. An abusive parent cannot maintain attachment to her children. If the child is alienated from the parent, he will not develop an adequate conscience, thus easily be tempted to do criminal practices (Hampton, 1993:211).

As the incidence of father absence grows, community disintegration and crime, especially youth crime, will continue to grow (Bartol & Bartol, 2008:321-325).

Influence of gangs (2.3)

More than three quarters (79%) of the respondents that participated in the research claimed that learners are largely involved in criminal behaviour due to the influence from gangs.

Bartollas (1997:322) cites the following conditions resulting from the influence of the gangs:

- The greater the organization of the gang is, the less likely it is that deviation from gang norms will be permitted.
- The more gangs become involved in drug trafficking, the greater is the likelihood that they will use violent measures to protect their business interests.
- The more disorganized and impoverished an area is, the greater is the likelihood that gangs will emerge.

- The more adults become involved in street gangs, the more violent and criminogenic these gangs will become.
- The less the community is involved in a gang prevention and control model, the less likely it is that this model will reduce gang involvement and behaviour.

Most criminal behaviour, especially the more violent forms, is committed by groups (Bartollas, 2000:87). According to Anderson and Stavrou (2001:71) the association with deviant gang members increases the likelihood that a young person will engage in antisocial behaviour. Most adolescents commit offences in collaboration with others.

Abuse by parents (2.4)

The majority of the respondents (74%) indicated that most learners involved in criminal activities are themselves victims of abuse in their families.

According to Hampton (1993:2) child abuse is mostly perpetrated by family members. In ninety percent (90%) of reported cases of abuse perpetrators were parents or other relatives (Bartol & Bartol, 2005:302). Child abuse is always a misuse of power by a person with greater physical, cognitive, and/or emotional power and authority which controls a child in a way that does not contribute to the child's growth and development. Child abuse is due to a variety of factors that include (Gestwicki, 2004:552), *inter alia*, the following:

- the examples of adult control absorbed in their own childhoods;
- the cultural messages of the individual community about the responsibilities and styles of "good parents";
- the lack of child development knowledge and skills;
- the church teaching that children are inherently evil and must be broken in spirit;
- the isolation of a family that has moved too many times to develop supports to remove isolation, and

- a rigid and demanding personality in a parent or a difficult child.

Abuse is insidious and continues in the fabric of families for generations as abused children become abusive adults or the victims of other abusers later in their lives.

Abuse is an infection colouring the feelings and attitudes of families, and it destroys normal relationships for the entire family (Gestwicki, 2004:553).

Substance abuse (2.5)

More than eighty percent (89%) of the respondents that partook in the research confirmed that substance abuse affects most learners' behaviour in schools. This is the case in spite of the fact that there are laws that prohibit the possession, trade in, use, growing, or manufacturing of certain drugs (Click, 1995:350).

The relationship between the use of drugs and crime is a multidimensional, well-documented given (Click, 1995:350-369). Drugs serve as a catalyst for a large number of violent crimes, which have an organized dimension, and are often committed by drug addicts for the sake of satisfying their expensive dependency (Tshwete, 2001:3). Compared to the abstaining teenager, the drinking, smoking, and drug-taking teen is much more likely to be getting into fights, stealing, hurting other people, and committing other offences (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:26).

Substance abuse is associated with crime and misconduct that disrupt the maintenance of an orderly and safe school atmosphere conducive to learning (Bezuidenhout, 2004:122). Learners who abuse substances create a climate of apathy, disruption and disrespect for others. They transform schools into a market place for drugs and alcohol, which is associated with the destruction of school property and classroom disorder, which may affect a culture of teaching and learning (Perumal, 2006:46).

Socio-economic background (2.6)

Most of the respondents (58%) agreed that learners from families with low socio-economic status may land in bad company and be tempted to commit crime.

Poverty influences the family in many ways, not the least of which is the impact on parents' behaviour towards children. The stress caused by poverty in urban settings diminishes parents' capacity for supportive and consistent parenting (Bartol & Bartol, 2005:54). This situation may lead to coercive and highly aggressive ways of child control.

Parenting that uses aggressive and violent tactics often provides models that promote the cycle of violence in the next generation. Living in disadvantaged environments may also lead to the belief that economic survival and social status depend greatly on being aggressive and violent to others (Bartollas, 1993:80).

If learners' basic needs such as food, shelter, and medical care are not met in their poverty-stricken homes, they may leave home at an early age. Living on the margins of society, these high-risk children do not learn the necessary skills to participate successfully in the educational system. They are functionally illiterate, alienated from school, prone to drug and alcohol, and are involved in early delinquent activities (Bartollas, 1993:54). Children from homes with low socio-economic status are often identified in schools as slow learners, aggressive and truants (Berns, 1985:89).

Inadequate security measures at school (2.7)

Close to eighty percent (79%) of respondents in the research sample said that security measures are inadequate at schools. Carrying a fire-arm by learners to school, which is regarded as an important factor contributing to criminal acts, occurs either on a very regular or regular basis at schools (De Wet, 2003:171).

Deliberate destruction of school property costs hundreds of millions of rands each year. Destructiveness and violence against people are often linked, and both are on the increase. The typical response of school administrators and justice officials to violence and vandalism is to tighten security measures and provide harsher punishment (Kauffman, 1993:358). On the other hand, Bartol and Bartol (2005:57-59), argue that punitive measures may only aggravate the criminal behaviour of learners.

Vandalism in schools appears to be a response to aversive environments. Learners tend to be disruptive and destructive when school rules are vague, discipline is punitive, punishment is rigidly applied regardless of learners' individual differences, relationships between learners and school personnel are impersonal, the school curriculum is mismatched with learners' interests and abilities, and when learners receive little recognition for appropriate conduct or achievement (Kauffman, 1993:358).

Lack of effective disciplinary measures (2.8)

A safe school is characterized by its discipline. School discipline is the responsibility of school governors, principals and teachers. Every school must adopt a code of conduct to ensure effective discipline (Potgieter, et al. 1997:63).

The majority of respondents (90%) confirmed that there is a lack of disciplinary measures in schools. If these measures are only conveyed to learners verbally, they are usually taken for granted.

According to Green (1999:18-19) the purpose of disciplinary rules (a code of conduct for learners) is:

- To focus on discipline that is not punitive and punishment orientated but facilitate constructive teaching and learning.
- To ensure that all stakeholders in a public school agree to the establishment of a disciplined and meaningful school environment to achieve and maintain quality education in such a school.
- To equip learners with the expertise, knowledge and skills that they would be expected to evince as responsible adults.
- To assist learners in learning the standards of conduct acceptable in society.
- To acquire characteristics of a positive nature, such as self-control and persistence.
- To secure stability of the social order within which the young learners may achieve security and maturity.
- To aim at promoting the civic responsibilities of the school and develop leadership in the community.

According to Jones (2003:5) disciplinary breakdowns such as poor attendance, confrontational behaviour and deliberate flouting of the rules may indicate underlying problems such as demoralized learners constantly involved in various forms of crime.

Banning of corporal punishment (2.9)

There is an awareness of the dilemma of the use of corporal punishment in the schools. There are educators who are in favour of the use of corporal punishment because they believe it is a means of discipline and it is impossible to run a school without it. On the other hand, some educators are not in favour of corporal punishment because they are aware of the banning of corporal punishment (Potgieter, et al. 1997:62). Corporal punishment is to be replaced by effective measures to enforce order and discipline in schools. A school with good discipline has less incidents of criminal activities. Schools are expected to manage misconduct and criminal behaviour of learners, and principals to be skilled in measures designed to deal with problems of discipline. Schools must provide stability and normalize a situation as soon as possible (Smuts & Dorrington, 2003:23). An atmosphere conducive to learning must prevail.

The majority of respondents (74%) in the research sample said that learners are becoming more unruly since the banning of corporal punishment. The following are some offences associated with unruly learners that hamper a culture of teaching and learning (Jenkin, 1999:57):

- conduct which endangers the safety and violates the rights of others;
- possession, threat or use of dangerous weapons;
- fighting, assault or battery;
- immoral behaviour or profanity;
- theft or possession of stolen property including test or examination papers prior to the writing of tests or examinations;
- unlawful action, vandalism, or destroying or defacing school property;
- disrespect, objectionable behaviour and verbal abuse directed at educators or other school employees or learners;
- repeated violations of school rules or the code of conduct;

- criminal and oppressive behaviour such as rape and gender based harassment;
- victimization, bullying and intimidation of other learners, and
- knowingly and willfully supplying false information or falsifying documentation to gain an unfair advantage at school.

Learners' rights (2.10)

Eighty four percent (84%) of respondents agreed that learners misuse their rights to participate in socially undesirable behaviour. According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:166) rights are social norms that protect the best interests of the overall population. They support the need for society to set up laws and rules to maintain social order, as well as consequences for non-compliance.

Learners sometimes do not adhere to school and classroom rules (Jenkin, 1999:55). In most schools where crime is rife learners are concerned only about their personal interests resulting in a higher likelihood of criminal behaviour such as conflict and unrest. Such learners do not recognize a need for an overarching social order comprising laws and rules that everyone should be required to respect and obey (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:166).

4.2.12 Effect of crime

Table 12: Frequency distribution according to the consequences of crime on effectiveness of educators.

	CONSEQUENCES OF CRIME ON EDUCATORS' EFFECTIVENESS	AGREE	DISAGREE	UNCERTAIN	TOTAL
3.1	Poor classroom management (e.g. an educator struggles to control learners' misbehaviour)	135 47%	90 32%	60 21%	285 100%
3.2	No job satisfaction (e.g. he quits teaching for other jobs).	200 70%	15 5%	70 25%	285 100%
3.3	Low morale (e.g. learners' disrespect decreases educators' motivation to control their misbehaviour).	210 74%	15 5%	60 21%	285 100%
3.4	Fear of victimization (e.g. an educator becomes afraid to confront misbehaving learners).	195 69%	30 10%	60 21%	285 100%
3.5	Stress (e.g. an educator becomes stressed due to crime).	210 74%	15 5%	60 21%	285 100%
3.6	Low self-esteem (e.g. educator's self-esteem is affected and he is left with a feeling of uselessness).	165 58%	60 21%	60 21%	285 100%
3.7	Frustration (e.g. an educator who is obstructed from achieving his goals experiences frustration).	240 85%	30 10%	15 5%	285 100%
3.8	Inadequate productivity (e.g. he cannot pay attention to his work).	185 65%	30 10%	70 25%	285 100%
3.9	Depression (e.g. he cannot control unpleasant emotions).	150 52%	45 16%	90 32%	285 100%

3.10	Lack of empathy (e.g. he cannot display sympathy).	150 53%	60 21%	75 26%	285 100%

Educators in South Africa share a worldwide struggle to control learners who are involved in criminal activities in schools. This situation largely contributes to the drop in educator morale, which in turn decreases educators' effectiveness (Bezuidenhout, & Joubert, 2003:65). According to frequency Table 12 the majority of respondents are of the view that the success of educators to ensure a culture of teaching and learning is largely affected by crime.

The above is substantiated by the responses to the following statements in Table 12.

Poor classroom management (3.1)

Classroom management is aimed at the establishment of certain conditions in the classroom in which effective teaching and learning can take place (Kruger & Van Schalkwyk, 1993:11). In a classroom in which the conditions promote teaching and learning, a learner is able to learn and his full potential can be developed. Classroom management is thus a means by which the effectiveness of education and teaching is enhanced.

The larger percentage (47%) of respondents in the research sample agreed that educators experience difficulties in controlling learners' misbehaviour in their classrooms due to crime. When classroom management as a means is not successful, then education, teaching and learning cannot succeed (Kruger & Van Schalkwyk, 1993:11).

No job satisfaction (3.2)

The majority of respondents (70%) that partook in the research said that educators experience no job satisfaction at all as a result of crime in schools. This is supported by Cooper and Rayne (1994:148-149) who say that educators in disorderly schools get

discouraged with the circumstances in which they work. Educators' reactions to the situation may put the learners at risk and contribute to youth misbehaviour and crime.

Some educators may stop putting forth the considerable effort required to educate the young. Others quit teaching for other jobs. Some take early retirement while others carry on grimly, but take as many days off as they are entitled to (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:64). Absenteeism of educators is both a symptom of disorder in the school and a cause of further disorder. It is not only the psychological well-being of the learner that must be monitored within the school system, but also the job satisfaction and psychological well-being of each staff member (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:328).

Low morale in educators (3.3)

The need for recognition, security and a sense of belonging is more important in determining an educator's morale and productivity than the physical conditions under which he works (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:297). Educators are activated mainly by the strength of their motives. The latter can be defined as an individual's drives, needs or impulses.

The school should create a working environment that encourages educators to give of their best and to derive satisfaction from the work that they do (Clarke, 2007:39). In line with the following findings, there are things which are disincentives such as criminal activities, which produce a working environment in which educators become dissatisfied and demotivated.

The majority of respondents (74%) confirmed that educators' morale is adversely reduced by learners' disrespect. The abdication of control by an educator in a classroom situation affects teaching negatively. Learners often will not do their homework, but spend their time roaming the streets or becoming involved in gang activities (cf. 2.4.5). Low educator morale and motivation can have an impact on an educator's morbidity and absenteeism.

Fear of victimization (3.4)

Educators are singled out for the cruelty of misbehaving learners in schools. Educators' violent victimization is significantly associated with learners' criminal behaviour.

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:58) identify the following consequences of educators' exposure to criminal violence at schools:

- elevated psychological distress;
- low self-esteem;
- a heightened risk of displaying trauma-related symptoms;
- lower social competence, and
- poor work performance.

The larger percentage of respondents (69%) affirmed that educators are afraid of being victimized at schools. Consequently educators downplay their disciplinary role. Educators fear for their own safety, as learners might become aggressive and assault or even murder them (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003:64).

Stress (3.5)

Stress is a psychological and physiological response to criminal events in schools that upset educators' personal balance in some way. Stress is an undesirable situation such as threat, death of a family member or work colleague, inability to cope with work, which results in the body's defenses kicking into high speed in a rapid, automatic process known as the "fight-or-flight" response (Cooper & Payne, 1994:242). According to Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1993:181) stress is an additional demand made on the educator's body as a result of the influence of tense or dangerous situations.

Nearly three quarters (74%) of the respondents indicated that educators are severely stressed due to crime. Van der Westhuizen (1995:332) points out that educators affected by crime show the following symptoms of stress:

- The physical symptoms that range from continual tiredness, and a low resistance to illness.

- The psychological symptoms which include an impenetrable sceptism concerning their career.
- The behavioural symptoms that include chronic absence and resignation out of the profession.

Low self-esteem (3.6)

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:206) describe self-esteem as the degree of positive or negative feeling that one has on the assessment or evaluation of oneself.

There is general agreement among researchers and clinicians as to the vital importance of self-esteem in personality development and psychological functioning (Chess & Thomas, 1994:279). Self-esteem in the case of the educator, is a feeling of being at home in his body, a sense of knowing where he is going and an inner assuredness of anticipated recognition from those who count at the workplace (Siegel & Senna, 1991:166-168). More than half (58%) of the respondents confirmed that educators develop a low self-esteem as they are being negatively affected by crime at school. Affected educators are left with a feeling of uselessness.

Frustration (3.7)

Frustration is an aversive internal state of arousal that occurs when one is prevented from responding in a way that previously produced rewards. It is a reasonably reliable symptom of stress which has continued for too long and has further reached a dangerously high level in educators' lives (Reilly & Lewis, 1993:263).

The impact of crime on educators paints a very stark picture of a downward spiral in the education system (Kauffman, 1993:319-320). Educators are crucial components in the larger scheme of delivering quality education in the country. The baggage of crime that educators carry has to be addressed within the context of the crime that they are exposed to. Educators perceive that crime in schools increases their levels of frustration, and this can be linked to decreasing the culture of teaching and learning.

An educator's main source of frustration may, for example, be the prevalence of criminal incidents in the school where he works. The majority of respondents (85%) agreed that educators that are obstructed from achieving their goals experience anxiety and

frustration which then make them lose their sense of purpose and they become demoralized.

Inadequate activity (3.8)

To be productive an educator needs to work in a secure and safe school environment and neighbourhood. Therefore, it is important to do everything possible to remove crime from schools and neighbourhoods in order to safeguard a culture of teaching and learning (Ayers, 1997:50).

The larger percentage of respondents (65%) confirmed that inadequate productivity is the result of crime on educators. The more pronounced effects of crime on Black educators must be seen within the context of the higher levels of crime that they are exposed to due to their schools being historically used as sites for violence, and the primarily disadvantaged communities that they serve (cf.2.4.2.1).

Depression (3.9)

More than half of the respondents (52%) acknowledged that crime causes depression in educators. Depression is a mental state or depressed mood characterized by feelings of sadness, despair, and discouragement (Cooper & Payne, 1994:395). Depression ranges from normal feelings of 'the blues' through minor depression to major depression. Depressed educators are characterized by the following feelings (Clayton & Carter, 1995:7):

- low self-esteem;
- guilt and self-reproach;
- withdrawal from interpersonal contact, and
- eating and sleeping disturbances.

Educators affected by crime show the following symptoms of depression (Delahunty & McDonald, 2005:183):

- Social withdrawal.
- Lack of interest in usual activities.
- Frequent tearfulness.
- Belief that no one cares.
- Feelings of hopelessness.
- Beginning or increasing use of alcohol or other drugs.
- Sudden drop in work performance.
- Very high or very low energy level.

Lack of empathy (3.10)

Empathy is the ability to see, feel and understand from within another's experience. Empathy involves actually sharing the other's cognitive field (Delahunty & McDonald, 2005:222). More than fifty percent (53%) of respondents confirmed that the prevalence of crime in schools makes educators fail to empathize with learners. An educator who cannot empathize with learners will not be in a position to understand their motives and cannot teach them accordingly (Reilly & Lewis, 1993:277).

4.3 EDUCATORS' PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME

Understanding the pervasive element of a culture of teaching and learning in terms of crime is very much an elusive and difficult domain. This section attempts to make a breakthrough by tapping into the perceptions of educators to gain an understanding of what shapes their perspectives on the nature and type of crime affecting them.

4.3.1 Qualitative data

Qualitative data obtained by means of open-ended questions can be voluminous and sitting down to make sense out of long sentences can be overwhelming (Neuman,

2003:16). According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:112) data analysis is eclectic, in other words there is no 'right way' with regards to the interpretation and presentation of qualitative data.

The analysis of qualitative data is based on data 'reduction' and 'interpretation'. Voluminous amounts of information have to be reduced to certain patterns, categories and themes and then interpreted according to some schema. However, despite the variation, usually two aspects of a study are presented as data:

- the context, and
- the quotations of the respondents' language.

The actual responses of the people to the open-ended questions represent their contributions of their life-world, the meanings they give to social situations and events. The researcher's task is to arrange these views in a logical manner, making the respondents' meanings as clear as possible.

(1) Open-ended questions (cf.3.3.2).

Open-ended questions leave the participants / respondents completely free to express their answers as they wish, as detailed and complex, as long or as short as they feel is appropriate. No restrictions, guidelines, or suggestions for solutions are given.

The researcher was unknown to the respondents selected for this study. This eliminated any bias or influence from the researcher conducting the study. Initially, respondents felt uncomfortable and embarrassed to share their experiences. However, as the respondents involved themselves with the questions, they began to feel more at home as better rapport developed with the researcher and respondents and the latter were more willing to share their experiences. Some of the respondents lacked the ability to adequately express themselves in telling about some of their experiences. In such cases the researcher had to focus on the meaning of the responses in relation to the topic "the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning".

The study focused on a very sensitive issue concerning the relationship between crime and a culture of teaching and learning. The questions asked to respondents were related

to the aim of the research, namely what effect does crime in schools have on a culture of teaching and learning.

(2) Reduction and interpretation of data

The data obtained consisted of respondent responses to open-ended questions concerning crime in schools. In order to obtain answers to the research questions it is necessary to interpret the responses. This was done by analysing the responses of the respondents and identification of themes. This method of data analysis is inductive because the identification of one theme led to the identification of a further theme or category.

The responses of the educators were included in the discussion of the themes. The respondents' answers to questions were directly quoted in order to give the lived-experience of the educators first hand. The fact that the quotations appear to be incoherent, illogical or confused in some instances, is an indication of the respondents' inability to express their experiences and feelings in words. The questions were formulated in English which is a second language to the respondents.

(3) Emergence of themes

A theme analysis describes the specific and distinctive recurring qualities, characteristics, subjects of discourse, concerns, etc. expressed during interviews. The researcher reflectively analyses aspects of human actions and events that illustrate recurring themes (O' Leary, 2004:196-197). The complexity and the interrelationships of the events and human lives are emphasized. In this study the themes were identified by the individual case studies and thereafter the themes were synthesized across the cases. The themes that emerged provided an explanation of the situations as experienced by educators affected by crime in schools.

Increased level of crime in schools (4.1)

The majority of the respondents claimed that the level of crime in schools has increased drastically over the past years. It has become common to view school as a highly dangerous place in which intruders or learners victimize educators, vandalize property, and disrupt the culture of teaching and learning in schools (Siegel & Senna, 1991:319).

One disturbing trend has been the carrying of weapons on the school grounds, ranging from pocket knives to guns (cf.2.4.1). This is authenticated by the following replies:

“Carrying of dangerous items has increased and improved from knives to guns. Incidents of breaking in are a norm during week-ends. Substance abuse is rife in schools. Sexual abuse happens on daily basis.”

“Learners especially the older boys are becoming uncontrollable. Dagga is easily available to learners since it is planted at their homes. After smoking dagga the youngsters are capable of doing anything that causes a lapse on a culture of teaching and learning.”

Victimization of educators by crime in schools (4.2)

The majority of respondents indicated that they had been victims of crime in many ways. This is also supported by the following responses:

“While in the classroom my bag was snatched by an unknown boy.”

“Two boys entered the school gate having a gun, looking for a certain boy whom they claimed had been abusing their nephew, by taking his expensive soccer ball. When seeing that happening inside the school yard, I was traumatized. I did not know whether they were looking for me or not.”

The above is supported by Siegel and Senna (1991:320) who confirm that educators are also victims of crime in the school setting. A poll taken by the National Education Association had about 5 percent of educators who were physically attacked and 29 percent had property stolen or damaged in a twelve-month period (Siegel & Senna, 1991:320).

Control of crime in schools by the SGBs (4.3).

In schools with major safety and security problems, the School Governing Body (SGB) should form a school safety committee (Clarke, 2007:348). Most of the schools do not have school safety committees as sub-committees of the SGBs, and even if they are

there in some schools, they are not familiar with their duties which include the following (Clarke, 2007:349):

- reviewing the effectiveness of school safety measures;
- identifying potential hazards and potential major incidents at the workplace;
- examining the causes of incidents at the workplace;
- investigating complaints by educators relating to their safety at schools, and
- inspecting the school safety measures already employed in the school.

An inadequate functioning of the SGBs in schools is supported by the majority of the respondents who confirmed that SGBs do not play any role with regards to curbing crime in schools. This is authenticated by the following responses:

“The SGB does not work closely with the school. Reports are given to them, but they show no interest in trying to solve problems of crime in the school.”

“SGBs should play a vital role together with community structures in curbing crime in school. SGBs must take a crucial role in educating the communities about the importance of crime free schools.”

Control of crime in schools by the DoE (4.4).

The majority of the respondents revealed that the Department of Education (DoE) is not doing enough to reduce crime in schools. This is supported by the following responses:

“No clear alternative ways have been put forward by the DoE which are better than corporal punishment.”

“The department needs to supply schools with security guards, fencing, burglar guards and security gates. Searching should be conducted in schools by police since some learners carry weapons and drugs to school.”

The Department of Education should meet the educator's need for security and safety. An educator who feels insecure and unsafe, and who is rejected or has to work in unstable circumstances experiences fear, anxiety and insecurity, and consequently cannot perform his duties well to sustain a culture of teaching and learning (Kruger & Van Schalkwyk, 1993:88).

4.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:154) state that inference is the process of generalizing findings from a sample to a broader population from which the sample was drawn. Statistic is a numerical value which summarizes some characteristic of the sample (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:156).

The calculations in inferential statistics are used to make inferences about variables, and not simply to describe the data that are captured from the sample (Borg & Gall, 1999:338).

4.4.1 Variables

According to Best and Kahn (1993:137) variables are the conditions or characteristics that the researcher manipulates, controls, or observes. The term variable refers to any aspect of an organism, or of the environment to which different values can be described, for example, age, gender, income, educational level, and the number of responses to a questionnaire survey. Variables can be described as independent or dependent (Du Plooy, 2006:71).

(1) Independent variables

The independent variable is referred to as the treatment, experimental, causal or stimulus variable. The variable that is hypothesized as the cause of an effect, is the independent variable. It is under the direct control of the researcher, who may vary it in any way he desires (Gay, 1992:107-108). For the aim of this study the researcher selected the following as independent variables:

- Gender of the respondents.

- Age of the respondents.
- Years of teaching experience of the respondents.
- Qualifications of the respondents.

(2) Dependent variables

The dependent variable is that factor which the researcher observes and measures to determine what effect the independent variable has on it. It is that fact which appears, disappears or varies as the researcher introduces, removes, or varies the levels of the independent variable. It is the dependent variable that will change as a result of variations in the independent variable (Welman & Kruger, 2003:14).

For the purpose of this study the researcher selected the following dependent variables:

- The causes of crime in schools.
- The consequences of crime on educators.
- The educator perceptions of crime.

4.5 THE HYPOTHESIS

According to Gay (1992:66) a hypothesis is a tentative explanation for certain behaviours, phenomena, or events that have occurred or will occur. A hypothesis states the researcher's expectations concerning the relationship between the variables in the research problem. It is the most specific statement of a problem. A hypothesis states what the researcher thinks the outcome of the study will be.

In behavioural research, the statistical hypothesis is almost always a null-hypothesis, that is, "no difference" statistical hypothesis in which the parameter in question is hypothesized to be zero. The hypothesis to be tested is referred to as the null-hypothesis, because it states that the difference between the researcher's sample statistic and the hypothesized value of the population parameter is "null". Therefore, it is a statement about an unknown parameter.

For the aim of this investigation the research hypothesis is formulated as a null-hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 1 (Table 11)

The respondents' perceptions concerning the causes of crime have no relation to their:

- gender;
- age;
- years of teaching experience, and
- qualifications.

Hypothesis 2 (Table 12)

The respondents' perceptions concerning the consequences of crime have no relation to their:

- gender;
- age;
- years of teaching experience, and
- qualifications.

4.5.1 The Chi-Square (X^2 statistical test of significance)

The chi-square is a test that applies only to discrete data, counted rather than measured values. It is a test of independence, the idea that one variable is not affected by, or related to, another variable (Best & Khan, 1993:357).

The chi-square test is merely used to estimate the likelihood that same factor other than chance accounts for the apparent relationship. It merely evaluates the probability that the

observed relationship results from chance. Observed frequencies are obtained empirically and expected frequencies are based on hypotheses or theoretical speculation. The following independent variables have been identified:

- gender of the respondents;
- age of the respondents;
- respondents' years of teaching experience, and
- qualifications of the respondents.

The aforesaid independent variables were cross-tabulated with the dependent variables, which were the question items concerning the pre-requisites for the effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning (2.1-2.10; 3.1-3.10; 4.1-4.4). The chi-square (χ^2) and P-value have been calculated and the results tabulated, followed by an analysis.

For each table representing the cross-tabulation, research hypotheses can be formulated. Each one of the research hypotheses can be further formulated in a number of null-hypotheses in accordance with the questions stated in each Table. According to the chi-square (χ^2) and P-value of each question in the Table, the null-hypotheses can be accepted or rejected as follows:

- If the value of $P < 0.05$, the relationship is statistically significant.
- If the value of $P < 0.01$, the relationship is statistically highly significant.
- If $P > 0.05$, the relationship is statistically insignificant.

Critical values for χ^2 are taken at the 5% level.

4.5.2 The statistical relation between the respondents' gender, age, years of experience, qualifications and their perceptions of the causes of crime in school.

Hypothesis 1

The respondents' perceptions of the causes of crime in school have no relation to their:

- gender;
- age;
- years of teaching experience, and
- qualifications.

Table 13: The statistical relation between the respondents' gender, age, years of experience, qualifications and their perceptions of the causes of crime in school.

		GENDER	AGE	YEARS OF EXPERIENCE	ALIFICA-TIONS
		χ^2	χ^2	χ^2	χ^2
		P-value	P-value	P-value	P-value
2.1	Both parents are working	2.282 0.424	3.334 0.810	3.831 0.814	1.906 0.871
2.2	Absence of a father figure	2.062 0.458	3.696 0.821	11.238 0.116	3.335 0.605
2.3	Influence of gangs	0.712 0.701	5.567 0.473	3.942 0.685	10.492 0.033*
2.4	Abuse by parents	4.205 0.122	5.161 0.523	7.391 0.286	6.161 0.187
2.5	Substance abuse	3.147 0.218	1.194 0.988	4.336 0.632	16.556 0.004* *
2.6	Socio- economic background	3.156 0.217	10.316 0.113	10.298 0.112	10.031 0.040*
2.7	Inadequate security measures at school	2.152 0.351	3.128 0.794	3.764 0.710	4.094 0.395

2.8	Lack of effective disciplinary measures	1.004 0.605	6.113 0.411	2.914 0.820	6.263 0.180
2.9	Banning of corporal punishment	0.304 0.959	9.399 0.158	6.398 0.391	2.291 0.801
2.10	Learners' rights	0.935 0.631	10.954 0.094	15.827 0.013*	2.646 0.546

**** P < 0, 01 * P < 0, 05**

Table 13 above shows four statistically significant relations where $P < 0, 05$. A statistically significant relation exists between the qualifications of respondents and their perceptions of the causes of crime in school:

- influence of gangs;
- substance abuse, and
- social-economic background.

A statistically significant relation also exists between the years of teaching experience of the respondents and their perceptions that learners' rights are the cause of crime in school.

To obtain the level of significance between the dependent and independent variables (Hypothesis 1) in Table 13, chi-square (χ^2) values were calculated (c.f.4.6, 3.7.2). The calculation was done on the 0.05 level of significance. This means that if $P < 0,05$, there is a ninety five percent chance that the results are the influence of the independent variable and not by chance. If $P > 0.05$, there is a lesser chance that there is a statistically significant relation between the dependent and independent variables which is the case in the majority of relations in Table 13.

Failure to reject most of the null-hypotheses in Table 13 due to no significant statistical relations between the dependent and independent variables, might be attributed to the following sampling errors:

- Non-response of the respondents in the chosen sample. Eighteen percent (18%) of the questionnaires were not returned.
- The sample may not have been adequately representative of the population.
- The sample was too small.

Considering the above, most of the null-hypotheses formulated for Table 13 will be accepted because there is no significant statistical relation ($P > 0,05$) between the dependent and independent variables (cf.4.5.1). Educators' perceptions of the causes of crime have no relation to their gender, age, years of experience and qualifications.

Table 13.1 Contingency table to show the cross-tabulation of the frequencies for the combination of the respondents' years of teaching experience and their perceptions that learners misuse their rights by participating in socially undesirable behaviours (question 1.5 and 2.10).

YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE		AGREE	DIS-AGREE	UN-CERTAIN	TOTAL
0 – 10 years	Count	83	0	2	85
	% within years of teaching experience	98%	0%	2.3%	100%
	% of total	29.1%	0%	0.7%	29.8%
11 – 20 years	Count	92	0	10	102
	% within years of teaching experience	90.1%	0%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of total	32.2%	0%	3.5%	35.7%
21 – 30 years	Count	58	14	16	88
	% within years of teaching experience	65.9%	15.9%	18.2%	100.0%
	% of total	20.3%	4.9%	5.6%	30.8%

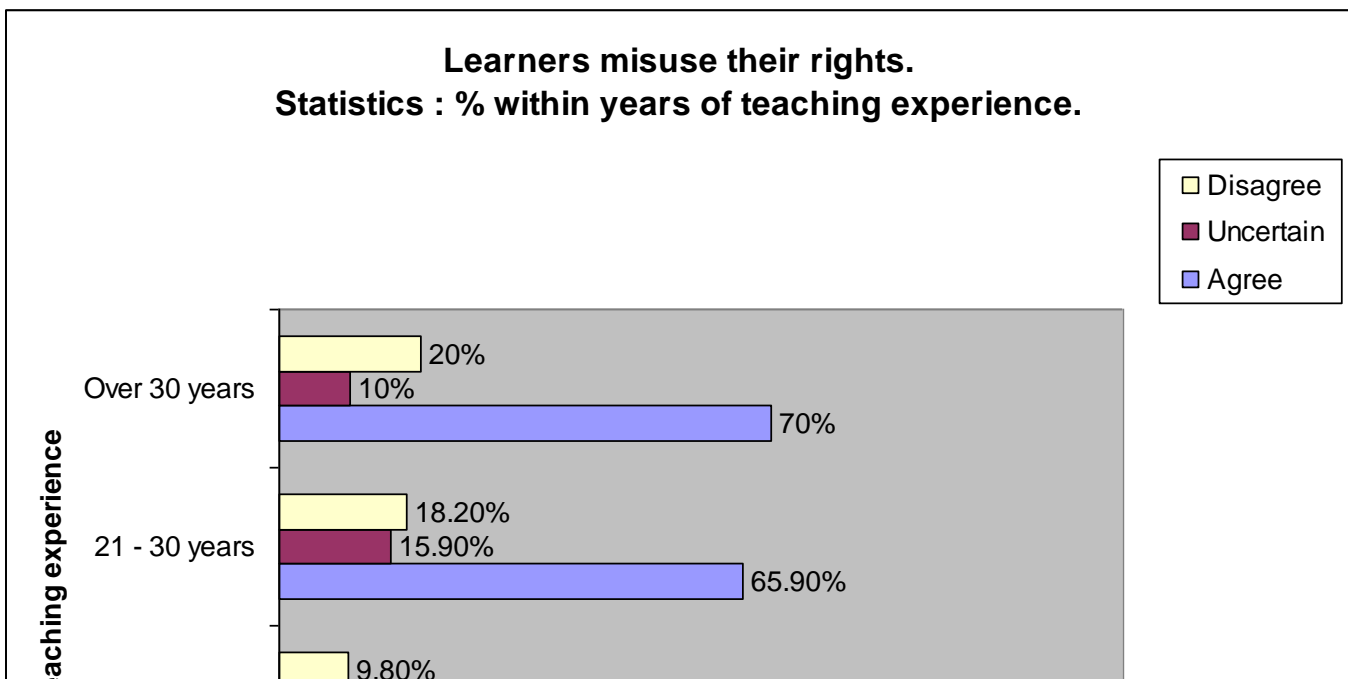
Over 30 years	Count	7	1	2	10
	% within years of teaching experience	70%	10%	20%	100.0%
	% of total	2.4%	0.3%	0.7%	34%
Total	Count	240	15	30	285
	% within years of teaching experience	84,2%	5.2%	10.5%	100.0%
	% of total	84.2%	5.2%	10.5%	100.0%

$\chi^2 = 15,827$ $P = 0.013$. The P-value ($P < 0,05$) means that there is a statistical significant relation between the respondents' years of teaching and their belief that learners misuses their rights by participating in social undesirable behaviours (questions 1.5 and 2.10).

Table 13.1 illustrates how the P-values in Table 13 were calculated. The Table displays the frequencies used for carrying out the chi-square test (c.f. 3.7.3).

In Table 13.1, the proportion of responses in each response category, that is, agree, disagree and uncertain, shows the different categories of respondents' years of teaching experience. The total proportions are reflected in the last column

Figure 1. The following graph shows the relation between the respondents' years of teaching experience and their perceptions that learners misuse their rights by participating in socially undesirable behaviours (Questions 1.5 and 2.10).



4.8 The statistical relation between the respondents' gender, age, years of experience, qualifications and their thoughts on the consequences of crime on educators' effectiveness.

Hypothesis – 2

The respondents' thoughts on the consequences of crime on educators' effectiveness have no relation to the:

4.5.3 The statistical relation between the respondents' gender, age, years of experience, qualifications and their perceptions of the consequences of crime on educators' effectiveness.

Hypothesis 2

The respondents' perceptions of the consequences of crime on educators' effectiveness have no relation to their:

- gender;
- age;
- years of teaching experience, and
- qualifications.

Table 14. The statistical relation between the respondents' gender, age, years of teaching experience, qualifications and their perceptions of the consequences of crime on educators' effectiveness.

		GENDER	AGE	YEARS OF EXPERIENCE	QUALIFICATIONS
		χ^2 P-value	χ^2 P-value	χ^2 P-value	χ^2 P-value
3.1	Poor classroom management	1.861 0.492	8.015 0.247	9.087 0.159	2.616 0.634
3.2	No job satisfaction	2.459 0.284	9.586 0.144	11.103 0.070	2.773 0.514
3.3	Low morale	1.078 0.585	5.667 0.473	3.992 0.678	1.300 0.879
3.4	Fear of victimization	0.898 0.672	3.402 0.656	4.729 0.692	1.747 0.664
3.5	Stress	10.650 0.005**	9.328 0.216	9.912 0.129	2.266 0.678
3.6	Low self-esteem	1.601 0.459	6.504 0.368	6.009 0.433	1.050 0.902
3.7	Frustration	3.867 0.146	5.992 0.335	4.547 0.717	2.636 0.611
3.8	Inadequate productivity	4.359	5.966	9.084	4.872

		0.107	0.527	0.178	0.313
3.9	Depression	4.886	4.012	9.412	2.073
		0.082	0.675	0.144	0.824
3.10	Lack of empathy	3.485	5.047	12.178	2.226
		0.192	0.629	0.066	0.611

According to Table 14 above there is only one highly statistically significant relationship ($P < 0,01$) between the respondents' gender and their perceptions that crime in schools causes stress on educators.

To achieve the level of significance between the dependent and independent variables (Hypothesis 2) in Table 14, chi-square (χ^2) values were calculated (cf. 4.6; 3.7.3). The calculation was done on the 0,05 level of significance. The latter means that if $P < 0,05$, there is a 95% chance that the results are the outcome of treatment or influence of the independent variable or a combination of independent variables and not by chance. If $P > 0,05$ there is a lesser chance that there is a statistically significant relation between the dependent and independent variables which is the case in the majority of relations in Table 14.

The failure to reject most of the null-hypotheses in Table 14 because of no significant statistical relations between the dependent and independent variables might be attributed to the following sampling errors:

- Non-responses of the respondents in the selected sample. Eighteen percent (18%) of the questionnaires were not returned.
- The sample may not have been adequately representative of the population.
- The sample was too small.

The finding that only one of the null-hypotheses formulated for Table 14 is statistically significant means that the rest of the null-hypotheses must be accepted, because there is no significant statistical relation $P > 0,05$ between the dependent and independent variables (cf. 4.5.1). The respondents' perceptions of the consequences of crime in

schools on educators' effectiveness, have no relation to their gender, age, years of experience and qualifications.

Table 14.1. Contingency Table showing the cross-tabulation of frequencies for the combination of the respondents' qualifications and their perceptions that crime in schools develops low morale in educators (questions 1.9 and 3.3).

QUALIFICATIONS		AGREE	DISAGREE	UNCERTAIN	TOTAL
Academically	Count	35	0	2	37
	% within qualifications	94.6%	0%	5.4%	100%
	% of total	12.3%	0%	0.7%	13%
Professionally	Count	177	1	2	180
	% within qualifications	98.3%	0.6%	1.1%	100%
	% of total	62.1%	0.4%	0.7%	63.2%
Academic/ Professional	Count	65	2	1	68
	% within qualifications	96%	3%	1.0%	100%
	% of total	23.7%	0.7%	0.3%	24%
Total	Count	277	3	5	285
	% within qualifications	97.1%	1.1%	1.8%	100%

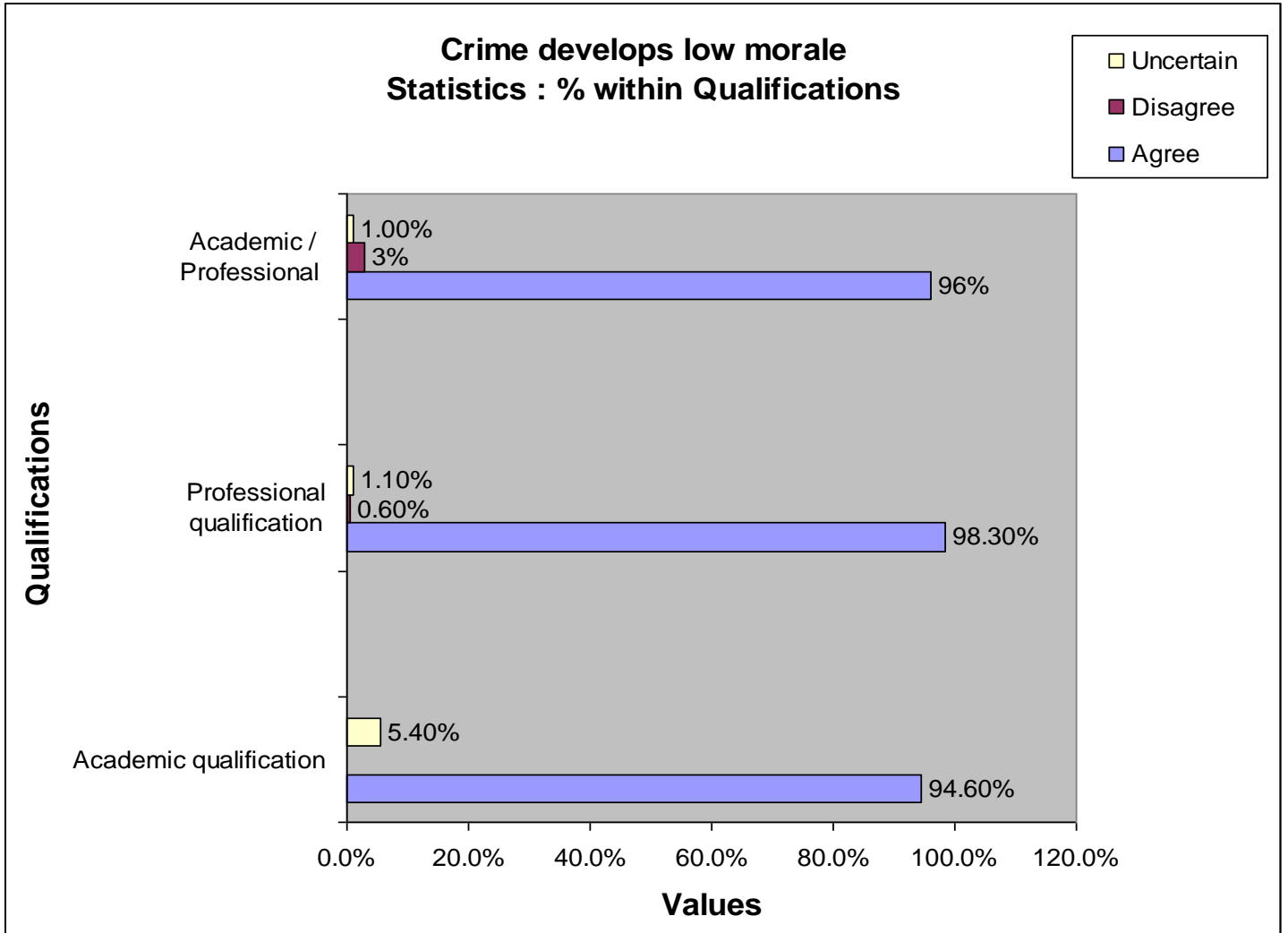
	% of total	97.1%	1.1%	1.8%	100%
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$\chi^2 = 1.300$ $P = 0.879$. The P-value ($P > 0,05$) means that there is no statistical significant relation between the respondents' qualifications and their perceptions that crime in schools develops low morale in educators (questions 1.9 and 3.3).

Table 14.1 is an example to illustrate how the P-values in Table 14 were calculated. The Table displays the frequencies utilized for carrying out the chi-square test (c.f.3.7.3).

In the Table above (Table 14.1) the proportion of responses in each response category (agree; disagree; uncertain) is shown for the different categories of respondents' qualifications. The total proportions are shown in the last column.

Figure 2. A graph showing the relation between the respondents' qualifications and their perceptions that crime in schools develops low morale in educators.



4.6 TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

From the findings reached in the inferential statistics it can be concluded that the null-hypotheses as stated in (cf.4.5.1) must be accepted. An acceptance of these hypotheses has a chi-square value of $P > 0,05$ which indicates that there is no significant statistical relationship existing between the dependent and independent variables.

4.7 SUMMARY

This chapter attempted to give some order to a range of information gathered from the respondents' answers to the questions in the questionnaire. Some information was of a

biographical nature which enabled the researcher to establish a broader profile of the sample selected for this study.

Data collection regarding the effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning in schools was organized in frequency distribution tables to simplify statistical analysis. Analysis, interpretation of the responses and the findings were discussed in this chapter.

The next chapter will provide a summary, findings and recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters dealt with an investigation of the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning. The analysis and interpretation of data collected by means of a literature review and an empirical study were presented. In this final chapter a summary of the previous chapters will be given and some of the most important findings from the research will be followed by recommendations and criticism that emanated from the study, and a final remark.

5.2 SUMMARY

5.2.1 Statement of the problem

The problem that has been addressed in this investigation revolved around the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning. A higher proportion of learners and educators in some schools are victimized, and the fear of crime and disruption to a culture of teaching and learning pose serious threats to the learning process. In the literature study and through empirical research it was established that:

- There are undesirable consequences of crime in schools.
- There are numerous factors that contribute to crime in schools.
- Certain strategies must be implemented to reduce or curtail crime in schools.

5.2.2 Aims of the study

The aims of this investigation were formulated to determine the course of the study (cf.1.5). A variety of sources were consulted as a form of literature study to achieve the objectives set in the study. A questionnaire consisting of structured and unstructured questions as an empirical survey, and a literature study were utilized to establish the causes of crime in schools as well as its effect on a culture of teaching and learning. The formulated aims were achieved by means of a literature and empirical investigation.

5.2.3 Planning of the research

In this study the research design was employed in the empirical survey. A questionnaire constructed to collect information concerning the research problem was used. The questionnaire is the most appropriate source of collecting data. The questionnaire is easily adapted to a variety of situations and the data could, timeously and less costly, be more easily and efficiently obtained. The composition, administration and analysis of the questionnaire were dealt with.

The data obtained through the questionnaire enriched and consolidated information that had been collected from the literature review. Out of three hundred and forty six (346) questionnaires that were distributed two hundred and eighty five (285) were returned and analyzed.

The aim of the questionnaire was to collect data regarding the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning. The questions were constructed to establish what educators perceive about crime in schools and to understand the following:

- Causes of crime against educators and learners.
- Consequences of crime on educators' effectiveness.
- Educators' perceptions about crime in schools.

5.2.4 Presentation and analysis of research data

Chapter four was dedicated to the presentation and analysis of research data collected from the completed questionnaires. The data was presented as a frequency distribution. A frequency distribution is a list of each score on a measure and the number of individuals who earned each score. For example, in this study the method used to organize the data was to calculate the number of responses to each question according to the codes assigned to the questions and then transforming them to frequency distribution tables, which indicate by means of percentages the number of times each code was attained.

Data collected reflected the biographical information and the effect of crime on educators' performance and learners' achievements. It also comprised information about the causes

of crime against educators, consequences of crime on educators' effectiveness and their perceptions about crime.

5.3 FINDINGS FROM THE RESEARCH

5.3.1 Findings from the literature review

From the literature study it was found that a culture of teaching and learning in schools is adversely affected by crime in many different ways. The following represent some significant findings from the literature review:

- Crime in schools makes learners develop school phobia. It is more likely that traumatic incidents of crime in school induce fear in learners. When school becomes threatening or aversive, the learner may seek refuge and protection at home or with peers (cf.2.5.1).
- Criminally victimized learners often feel abandoned and lack the security of being part of the school. Crime has a negative impact on the emotional development of the learner. This leads to truancy and destructive behaviour in school, and generates so much pain that alcohol and drugs are viewed by the victimized learner as needed means of escape (cf.2.5.1).
- Some criminal acts of learners cause so much self-rejection, especially for victims of incest, that these learners may vent their self-destructiveness through prostitution and may even commit suicide (cf.2.5.1).
- The majority of sexual offenders have been the victims of crime themselves, specifically sexual abuse (cf.2.5.1)
- Learners affected by crime in schools reflect behavioural learning and social problems. Many of these problems are the result of stress and depression. Learners are exposed to situations where gun violence in which they are the victims turn out to be an extremely traumatic affair. The experience of trauma results in the learner being too much stressed to cope with learning (cf.2.5.2).

- Stress is one of the major psychological effects of crime on learners. The severe consequences of crime-induced stress could be expressed in a variety of physical and emotional signs of stress (cf.2.5.2).
- A significant number of learners are unable to resume their customary activities at school and on the playground after being involved in criminal acts. They remain lonely, worried and unhappy as they continue to experience difficulty in classrooms and the playground (cf.2.5.3).
- Being confronted with crime-related experiences in school leads to the learner's frustration, loss of self-esteem and problematic behaviour. If a learner enters a classroom already showing some emotional disturbance, this may well interfere with his scholastic learning. Whether emotional and behavioural difficulties are primary or secondary factors in learning failure, the interaction between emotional disturbance and learning blockage tends to increase both behavioural and learning difficulties (cf.2.5.3).
- It appears that the more problems adolescent learners have in school, the more likely they will turn to peers for support and acceptance. Conversely, the more learners have become affiliated with a delinquent subculture, the less receptive they tend to be to the process of academic education (cf.2.5.3).
- In certain parts of KwaZulu-Natal, educators have to abandon their classes in fear after many robberies and hijackings on the school premises. Several learners take guns to school and are later involved in shootings that leave other learners and some educators injured (cf.2.6).
- Violent crimes and drug trafficking by gangs are of great concern concerning working conditions. Gang activity has been reported in schools in many large cities, and in-school robberies and assaults on educators frequently involve youths acting in groups, thus prohibiting educators from doing their work effectively (cf.2.6).
- Robbery, a crime that brings a threat of sudden, anonymous death and injury into every school, terrifies educators. Its rise has created a sense that an entire way of teaching is being destroyed (cf.2.6).

- It is difficult for educators to concentrate on teaching because a school environment characterized by crime is not conducive to teaching and learning. Educators are under strain and have to be social workers and even healthcare workers to learners who are traumatized by crime (cf.2.6).
- Some sort of career, physical and emotional symptoms occur in educators affected by crime. Crime and violence lead to poorer job performance and absence from work. Criminally affected educators display physical symptoms such as sleep disturbances, fatigue and headaches and emotional impact of crime on educators include frustration, stress and anger (cf.2.6).

5.3.2 Findings from the empirical study

The following represent some of the more relevant findings from the empirical study:

- A larger percentage (58%) of the respondents confirmed that learners from families without a father are really at risk of engaging themselves in criminal behaviour. Single parenting has influenced the extent of family involvement in violent and criminal behaviours (cf.4.2.2).
- The majority of the respondents (79%) indicated that learners are largely involved in criminal behaviour due to enormous influence from the gangs. Most criminal behaviour, especially the more violent forms, is committed in groups. The association with deviant gang members increases the likelihood that a young person will engage himself in antisocial behaviour. Most adolescents commit offences in collaboration with others. (cf.4.2.3).
- More than eighty percent (89%) of the respondents in the research sample confirmed that substance abuse affects most learners' behaviour in schools. Drugs serve as catalyst for a huge number of violent crimes that are characterized by an organized dimension, and are often committed by drug addicts for the sake of satisfying their expensive dependency. Substance abuse is associated with crime and misconduct that disrupt the maintenance of an orderly and safe school atmosphere conducive for learning (cf.4.2.5).

- Almost eighty percent (79%) of respondents revealed that security measures are inadequate at schools. Carrying a fire-arm by learners to school that is regarded as essential factor contributing to criminal acts, takes place either on a very regular or regular basis at their respective schools (cf.4.2.7).
- The majority of respondents (90%) confirmed that there is a lack of disciplinary measures in schools. If these measures are only conveyed to learners verbally, they are usually taken for granted. A safe school is characterized by its discipline (cf.4.2.8).
- Eighty four percent (84%) of respondents revealed that most criminal practices are aggravated by learners misusing their rights by participating in socially undesirable behaviour. In most schools where crime is rife learners are concerned only about their personal interests, resulting in a higher likelihood of criminal behaviour such as conflict and unrest (cf.4.2.10).
- More than fifty percent (70%) of the respondents confirmed that most educators experience no job satisfaction at all because of crime in schools. Educators' reactions to this situation may put the learners at risk and contribute to youth misbehaviour and crime (cf.4.3.2).
- The majority of respondents (74%) confirmed that educators' morale is adversely reduced by learners' disrespect. The abdication of control by educators in a classroom situation affects teaching negatively. Learners often will not do their homework, but spend their time roaming the street or becoming involved in gang criminal activities (cf.4.3.3).
- Sixty nine percent (69%) of respondents affirmed that educators are afraid of being victimized by crime at schools. Consequently educators downplay their disciplinary role (cf.4.3.5).
- To be productive enough an educator needs to work in a secure and safe environment. The larger percentage of respondents (65%) confirmed that inadequate productivity is the main impact of crime on educators (cf.4.3.8).

- An educator's main source of frustration could be the prevalence of criminal incidents in the school where he works. The majority of respondents (85%) revealed that educators that are obstructed from achieving their goals experience anxiety and frustration which then make them lose their sense of purpose and they become demoralized (cf.4.3.7).
- In a classroom in which the conditions promote a good culture of teaching and learning, a learner is able to learn and his full potential can be developed. Proper classroom management is thus a means by which the effectiveness of education and teaching is enhanced. The majority of respondents (47%) confirmed that educators experience some difficulties in controlling learners' behaviour in their classrooms due to crime (cf.4.3.1).

5.3.3 Findings from the inferential statistics

- The results of statistical calculations in Table 14 (cf.4.3.3) indicate that there are four statistically significant relations where $P < 0,05$. A statistically significant relation thus exists between the qualifications of the educators and their thoughts on the causes of crime against educators:
 - Influence of gangs;
 - substance–abuse, and
 - social-economic background.

A statistically significant relation also exists between the years of teaching experience of educators and their opinions that learners' rights are the cause of crime against educators.

When considering the above situation, most of the null-hypotheses formulated for Table 14 (cf.4.3.3) will thus be accepted because there is no significant statistical relation ($P > 0,05$) between the dependent and independent variables (cf.4.3.1). The educators' opinions on the causes of crime against educators have no relation to their gender, age, years of experience and qualifications.

According to Table 15 (cf.4.3.4) only one statistically significant relationship ($P < 0,05$) exists between the respondents' gender and their opinions that crime in schools causes stress in educators. The finding that only one of the null-hypotheses formulated for Table 15 is statistically significant means that the rest of the null-hypotheses must be accepted, because there is no significant statistical relation ($P > 0,05$) between the dependent and independent variables (cf.4.3.1). The educators' opinions on the consequences of crime in schools on educators' effectiveness, have no relation to their gender, age, years of experience and qualifications.

- The results of statistical calculations in Table 16 (cf.4.3.5) show statistically significant relations ($P < 0,05$) between the following dependent and independent variables:
 - The age of the respondents and their opinions that the level of crime in schools has increased drastically over the past twelve years.
 - The respondents' years of teaching experience and their opinions that crime in schools negatively affects educators:
 - makes them fearful;
 - decreases impact symptoms, and
 - causes the development of emotional symptoms.

According to the above most of the null-hypotheses formulated for Table 16 will thus be accepted because there is no significant statistical relation ($P > 0,05$) between the dependent and independent variables (cf.4.3.1). The respondents' opinions on the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning on the educators' perceptions of crime have no relation to their gender, age, years of experience and qualifications.

5.3.4 Acceptance of hypotheses

The findings from the inferential statistics (cf.4.3.3; 4.3.4; 4.3.5) indicate that most of the null-hypotheses formulated for Tables 14, 15 and 16 will thus be accepted because there

is no significant statistical relation ($P > 0,05$) between the dependent and independent variables (cf.4.3.1).

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

These recommendations are based on the findings of the research. It is imperative for policy makers, educators, parents, learners and the entire community to address the problem of crime in schools.

5.4.1 Initiatives on crime prevention.

(1) Motivation

The lack of school safety is often a critical obstacle to learning. Crime, violence and abuse affect all aspects of the community, and schools are not always free from fear, intimidation or victimization. The number of intervention and prevention programmes that have been attempted in schools to reduce crime runs into the thousands. Very few programmes, however, have demonstrated success or significant effectiveness in reducing delinquency or crime (Bartol, 1999:43).

Although policies are in place to address issues of crime in schools, many obstacles are experienced because of the following reasons (Singh, 2006:146):

- Managing discipline in schools is now cast within a legal framework.
- The policies cannot be unpacked by managers because they are too vague with many loopholes.
- Schools do not have the financial muscle to implement some of the safety and security measures proposed by the Department of Education therefore making them unrealistic.
- There are no monitoring mechanisms to ensure that effective roll-out plans are operational.

The governing bodies of schools are mandated by the South African Schools' Act, Act 84 of 1996 to promote the rights of freedom and security by ensuring a safe school environment within their functions and means (Mwahombela, 2004:8). It is the responsibility of the school governing body to develop and implement a policy concerning the safety of the school. Many governing bodies find great difficulty performing the duties assigned to them by the South African Schools' Act. Although some of them are empowered, they remain incapable of doing what is expected of them. It is suggested that stakeholders like community structures, local private security companies, South African Police Service, Social Workers and Psychologists be involved in the developing and implementation of safe school policies.

An initiative taken by Tongaat–South African Police Service to run a “safer schools” programme to educate learners about the safety at schools emphasizes the need for a dress code and discipline as the basis for a safe school environment (Govender, 2008:1).

In 1999, the Secretariat for Safety and Security, the Department of Education and the National Youth Commission developed a joint framework document called “Tirisano Towards an Intervention Strategy to Address Youth Violence in Schools”. In this document school safety is highlighted as a critical obstacle in learning. Reference is made to learner on learner criminal acts, male on female criminal acts as well as criminal acts from the youth outside the school (Singh, 2006:47).

No reference is made to learner on educator violence. The entire “safe school” initiative is driven by giving support and guidance to the youth. In providing a safety net for the youth, the safety and dignity of educators have been sidelined. While educators are being made accountable for dealing with crime in schools through broad guidelines given by the Department of Education, no categorical commitment is made to safeguard the educators. The aggressive and violent backlash of the youth that has been highlighted in the media recently (Govender, 2008:1) due to increased learner rights being implemented is an area on which the DoE is silent.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendations are that:

- The Department of Education must develop a practical formal policy on the safety of schools in collaboration with stakeholders like community structures, local private security companies, South African Police Service, Social workers and Psychologists.
- Sufficient human and financial resources must be made available by the Department of Education for the training, supervision and monitoring of the school safety policy.
- The Department of Education must also encourage communities, non-governmental organizations, faith based organizations and business to support school safety initiatives and promote a safe learning environment.
- The school's code of conduct must be consulted when a school safety policy is formulated. The code of conduct's primary function is to ensure the safety of learners at school.
- A code of conduct should contain regulations outlining the rules that the principal and the governing body must ensure are included in the code. The code of conduct must, *inter alia*:
 - aim to establish a disciplined and purposeful school environment, dedicated to the improvement and maintenance of the quality learning process;
 - outline how learners who disobey the code of conduct will be punished;
 - include a process for protecting the learner and any other party involved in disciplinary proceedings, and
 - include rules relating to school wear (cf.5.4.1).
- For the code of conduct to be functional and successful class teachers must ensure that:

- All learners have a copy of the code of conduct.
- A copy of the code of conduct is displayed on the notice board in the classroom.
- Learners follow the regulations as laid down in the code of conduct.
- A code of conduct is periodically scrutinized by the school safety committee and amended when necessary.
- The school safety policy should be well formulated and must have clear and concise directives as to what is expected from the regions, districts, circuits, wards and schools.

5.4.2 Workshops

(1) Motivation

Statistics depict a tremendous concern about the availability of drugs, alcohol and weapons on school premises (cf.2.4.4). The incidence of crime in South African schools has increased drastically over the last few years. Drugs are freely available in many areas where schoolboys would be likely to visit (cf.2.4.4). Dependency on drugs and alcohol is expensive. Learners, therefore are driven to crime as means to support their habit. Research has found that learners in schools have become drug users or even drug dealers for a variety of reasons. The most important reasons include, *inter alia*, the following (cf.2.4):

- Learners in need of an income easily fall prey to involvement in drug dealing.
- The more people learners know who have taken drugs and alcohol, the more likely they are to take drugs and alcohol themselves.
- The time learners have been in the company of other boys or girls who have taken drugs and carried weapons the more likely they are to do the same.
- An incomplete family where an authority figure is absent.

- Poor family relationships.
- Lack of discipline at home.
- Banning of corporal punishment.
- Over-crowded classrooms.

The educators must be able to:

- Identify other staff members as well as learners who are affected by crime.
- Be aware of the reasons why some learners are involved in criminal activities.
- Sensitize learners and other staff members about crime in school.
- Apply preventative measures in order to protect learners, school property and other school personnel including educators.
- Learners should be encouraged to assist other learners who are victims of bullying or sexual abuse.

(2) Recommendation

The Department of Education (DoE) together with other organizations such as the South African Police Service (SAPS), the Department of Social Welfare, teacher unions,

principals' associations and school management teams (SMTs) should address and work with learners, parents and School Governing Bodies (SGBs) to conduct workshops for educators and learners in which the following issues concerning crime in schools, among others, will receive attention:

- How to identify learners and educators who are affected by crime.
- Reasons why learners are involved in criminal activities.
- How to empower learners, especially girls, in schools to change the culture of silence so that the girls can feel free to reveal all incidents of sexual harassment.
- Procedures to follow in dealing with a learner who is suspected of criminal behaviour.
- How to involve learners in the decision-making process such as creating a vision for the school, setting the rules for the school and classrooms, and solving discipline problems.
- How to develop interventions to minimize and reduce crime in schools.
- How to help learners understand acceptable behaviour in the school and in society, and be aware of the consequences of inappropriate behaviour.
- How to educate and encourage learners to actively participate in their school and community.
- How to encourage communities, non-governmental organizations, faith based organizations and businesses to support school safety initiatives and promote a safe learning environment.

Research has found that one of the most important contributory factors towards achieving low levels of crime and violence in schools is a well-managed school (cf.2.4). Schools that have clear rules and consequences, fair procedures, and involve all members of the

community (educators, parents, learners, principals, administrators, and community services) are less likely to have a high level of crime or violence.

5.4.3 Further research

(1) Motivation

During investigation and time spent gathering information on the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning, the researcher realized that there are still many areas that need to be addressed regarding the safety of schools. Some reasons for the spread of crime in schools may not have been discovered. Some respondents may not have been open enough to reveal their experiences of crime in fear of victimization by people responsible for the same criminal horrors they themselves endured.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendation is that further research of a quantitative and qualitative nature must be undertaken into the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning. Research needs to be conducted to encourage the continuous building of relationships between the principal, school management, educators, parents and learners, and ensure open communication. Research must also be done to assist in maintaining a referral system to appropriate services and make use of community partnerships to support educators in building school safety.

5.5 CRITICISM

The criticism that emanates from this investigation includes the following:

- Educators from only one district, that is, the Pinetown District in the Ethekwini Region were used in the investigation. Therefore, the sample population was reduced. If the investigation included a wider area, the results may have been different.
- Timing of this study was problematic because it was conducted in October / November which was the time for writing examinations.

- The research sample was restricted to educators only. A broader perspective would have been possible if parents and learners were included.
- Not all questionnaires were returned. If all responses were received a different picture would have emerged.

5.6 FINAL REMARK

This chapter has covered the summary, findings, recommendations, criticism and recommendations for further research. The study was initiated to explore the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning. It is hoped that the recommendations that were generated could be useful in eliminating crime in schools. It is further trusted that the recommendations formulated in this study will offer some form of guideline, which would be useful to policy-makers, parents, educators, learners and the entire community.

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RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

You have been selected to participate in a survey about crime in schools. The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate “The effect of crime on a culture of teaching and learning in schools”. As an educator, your experiences and comments about how you perceive crime in schools are important.

All information submitted will be treated with respect and confidentiality.

Instructions to respondents

Indicate your choice by making a cross (X) where applicable. Some questions are open ended, and will require a more detailed response.

Section 1: Biographical information

1.1 Name of school

1.2 Gender

		Code
Male		1
Female		2

1.3 Age

	Code
Under 20 years	1
20 – 25 years	2
26 – 30 years	3
31 – 35 years	4
36 – 40 years	5
41 – 45 years	6
46 – 50 years	7
51 – 55 years	8
56 – 60 years	9
Over 60 years	10

1.4 Racial group

	Code
African	1
White	2
Indian	3
Coloured	4
Other (please specify)	5

1.5 Current post level you are holding

	Code
Post level 1	1
Post level 2	2
Post level 3	3
Post level 4	4
Post level 5	5

1.6 Total number of years of teaching

	Code
0 – 5 years	1
6 – 10 years	2
11 – 15 years	3
16 – 20 years	4
21 – 25 years	5
26 – 30 years	6
More than 30 years	7

1.7 Location of your school

	Code
Urban area	1
Semi urban area	2
Rural area	3
Privately owned land (e.g. a farm school)	4

1.8 Type of your employment at school

	Code
Permanent educator	1
Temporary educator	2
School governing body paid educator	3

1.9 Size of your school

	Code
Less than 500 learners	1
500 – 1000 learners	2
More than 1000 learners	3

1.10 Qualification (s) you have

	Code
Academic only	1
Professional only	2
Academic and professional	3

1.11 Phase (s) you teach

	Code
Foundation \ Intermediate	1
Intermediate \ Senior	2

Instructions to respondents

Following hereunder is a series of items which contain a set of three alternative answers. The answers form a continuum from one extreme at the left to the other extreme at the right end. Kindly respond to each statement by crossing one response that reflects your view from the three possible responses. Some items are open-ended, and need you to express your own feelings, please do so concisely on the spaces provided.

Example

Crime in schools negatively affects learners' progress	1 Agree	2 Uncertain	3 Disagree
If you agree with the statement	X		
If you are uncertain about the statement		X	
If you disagree with the statement			X

Section 2: Causes of crime

The following factors contribute to crime against educators in your school		1 Agree	2 Uncertain	3 Disagree
2.1	Both parents are working (e.g. Learners who lack constant parental supervision tend to misbehave).			
2.2	Absence of a father figure (e.g. Youth, especially boys from family without a father are at risk of engaging in antisocial behaviour).			
2.3	Influence of gangs (e.g. Learners are involved in criminal behaviour in order to qualify for gang membership).			
2.4	Abuse by parents (e.g. Most learners involved in criminal activities are themselves victims of abuse in their families).			
2.5	Substance abuse (e.g. Most learners engage in misbehaviour, while they are under the influence of drugs and alcohol).			
2.6	Socio-economic background (e.g. Learners from homes with low socio-economic status may land in bad company, be tempted to use alcohol or substances).			
2.7	Inadequate security measures at school (e.g. Learners bring weapons such as guns, knives, boxcutters, razors, screwdrivers, forks and blades).			
2.8	Lack of effective disciplinary measures (e.g. Learners do not take verbal warnings seriously).			
2.9	Banning of corporal punishment (e.g. Learners have become unruly).			
2.10	Learners' rights (e.g. Learners misuse their rights by participating in socially undesirable behaviours).			

Section 3: Effect of crime

The following are the consequences of crime		1 Agree	2 Uncertain	3 Disagree
3.1	Poor classroom management (e.g. An educator struggles to control learners misbehaviour).			
3.2	No job satisfaction (e.g. He quits teaching for other jobs).			
3.3	Low moral (e.g. Learners' disrespect decreases educator's motivation to control their misbehaviour).			
3.4	Fear of victimization (e.g. An educator becomes afraid to confront misbehaving learners).			
3.5	Stress (e.g. An educator becomes stressed due to crime).			
3.6	Low self esteem (e.g. Educator's self-esteem is affected and he is left with a feeling of uselessness).			
3.7	Frustration (e.g. An educator who is obstructed from achieving his goals experiences frustration).			
3.8	Inadequate productivity (e.g. He cannot pay attention in his work).			
3.9	Depression (e.g. He cannot control unpleasant emotions).			
3.10	Lack of empathy (e.g. He can not display sympathy).			

Section 4: Educator perceptions of crime

4.1 Has the level of crime in your school over the past twelve years increased?

YES		1
NO		2

If yes describe

.....
.....
.....
.....

4.2 Have you ever been a victim of crime in your school?

YES		1
NO		2

If yes describe

.....
.....
.....
.....

4.3 Does the School Governing Body play any role with regards to curbing crime in your school?

YES		1
NO		2

Support your choice

.....

.....

.....

.....

4.4 Do you think that the Department of Education is doing enough to curb crime in schools?

YES		1
NO		2

Explain.....

.....

.....

.....

Your contribution is highly appreciated.

B. M. Thabethe

ANNEXURE - A

ANNEXURE - B

ANNEXURE - C

ANNEXURE - D

ANNEXURE – E

7 Brentwood Gardens
Woodview
PHOENIX
4068
1 October 2007

The Circuit-Manager

Mafukuzela-Gandhi Circuit
Private Bag x 018
KWAMASHU
4360

Sir \ Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I kindly request your permission to conduct research in some of the schools within your jurisdiction. I am investigating “The effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning.”

This research is towards completion of my D.Ed – degree and is being carried out under the supervision of Professor M.S Vos at the University of Zululand.

Information gathered during the process of this research will be treated as confidential and anonymity will be ensured.

As a researcher, I offer to share my findings with interested parties and trust that they will find them to be useful to other end-users and prospective researchers alike.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely

.....

BHEKUMUZI, M THABETHE (Mr)

7 Brentwood Gardens
Woodview
PHOENIX
4068
9 October 2007

The Principal

Tholamandla Senior Primary School
Private Bag x 09
KWAMASHU
4360

Sir \ Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

At present I am conducting a research study on “The effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning”, and educators from your school have been selected to participate in this research programme. I have received written permission from your Circuit-Manager to enlist the assistance of your educators to complete a questionnaire.

I hereby seek your help in administrating this questionnaire to any of your educators. I am fully aware that in asking for your co-operation I am adding to your already considerable responsibilities and workload. However, I hope that this exercise will make a meaningful contribution towards educators’ understanding of the effect of crime in schools on a culture of teaching and learning.

Arrangements for collection of completed questionnaire will be made with you in due course.

Thanking you in anticipation for your co-operation and kind assistance.

Yours sincerely

.....

BHEKUMUZI, M THABETHE (Mr)