

A STUDY OF THE
RELATIONS OF FAMILY AND SCHOOL ATTACHMENT TO FORMS OF LEARNER
VIOLENCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOL COMMUNITIES IN AMATHOLE
EDUCATION DISTRICT, EASTERN CAPE

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

At

University of Fort Hare

Faculty of Education

by

Mr. Thembinkosi Ncube

(Student number: 200902347)

Supervisor: Dr V. NKONKI

2011

DECLARATION

Student number 200902347

I Thembinkosi Ncube declare that **A Study of the Relations of Family and School Attachment to forms of Learner Violence in Secondary School Communities in Amathole Education District, Eastern Cape** is my own work and that all sources I have cited or used are indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

SIGNATURE

DATE

ABSTRACT

Adolescents in the schools in South Africa have been victims of many social problems such as violence and crime as a result of background influence. They have been both victims and perpetrators of this violence. Problems of attachment to both school and home have always been blamed for the adolescents' deviance. South African schools are affected by this verbal and physical violence which presumably emanates from learners poor connections with school and home. The background of societies such as economic deprivation has also been presumed to have an impact on the way adolescents conduct themselves in schools. There is no research that has verified the correlation between violence and attachment to bases of attachment - home and school in South Africa, especially in the Eastern Cape Province.

A survey was conducted in more than ten schools in the Amathole District where 317 learners' opinions on their observation of cases of verbal and physical violence in their schools, and on their attachment to both home and school were collected through a 40 item questionnaire. The questionnaire had five sections (a) to (e). The first section (a) required learners to enter their biographical information; gender, age, grade, and quintile classification. The second section (b) required learners to rate their attachment to their homes and to their care givers. The third section (c) required learners to rate their connectedness to their schools. The fourth section (d) required learners to supply information on their observation and involvement in verbal violence. The final section (e) with items adopted from section (d) and customised required learners to rate their observation and involvement in physical violence.

Descriptive statistics were used to glean frequencies and the overall levels of attachment and violence amongst learners. The study also looked at significant differences in attachment (both family and school) and violence (both verbal and physical) using gender and socio-economic profiles of the learners and schools (quintile system) as sorting or categorising variables. One major finding which is contrary to most theory and may be as a result of social dynamics is that statistics suggested that gender and socio-economic variables had little bearing on violence and attachment.

Through the use of SPSS, the Spearman's rho correlation coefficients were calculated to answer the sub-questions on the relationship between family and school attachment, and school violence (both verbal and physical). There were notable negative and positive correlations between school attachment and verbal violence; for example there was a positive correlation between teachers making learners hate school and learner-involvement in swearing. There was also a negative correlation between school buildings making learners proud and schools and homes being to blame for the frequency of verbal violence in the schools. There were also notable correlations between attachment to family and verbal violence such as the correlation between the frustration by parents' lack of concern and learners' involvement in verbal violence without any clear reason. With regard to physical

violence there was a negative correlation between parents having time to discuss life with their children and the frequency of physical violence in the schools. There was however a negative correlation between one's pride in one's school and the blame on schools for instigating school violence. From these correlations implications for school violence prevention could be drawn.

The study reveals that a lot needs to be done by the schools, parents, the government, and the community to enhance learner attachment to both school and home. However, for all the stake holders to succeed government must take the leading role in speeding up the process of reducing poverty in the communities. This is premised on the fact that some findings reveal that frequency of violence increases in an environment of frustration and anger. Schools as care-givers can also introduce many interventions such as counselling workshops to equip teachers with professional crisis management. The research may encourage the Department of Education and schools to adopt violence prevention programs implemented in countries (like United States of America's Olweus bullying and violence prevention program) for use in bringing communities together to work against school violence. These findings might strengthen the South African Department of Education's Safe Schools Programs.

ACRONYMS

BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CREATE	Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transition and Equity
DoE	Department of Education
FET	Further Education and Training
HRW	Human Rights Watch
HSRC	Human Science Research Council
PTSD	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
SACB	Southern African Council of Bishops
SGB	School Governing Body
SPSS 18	Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 18
UFH	University of Fort Hare
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USA	United States of America

KEY WORDS

School violence, verbal violence, physical violence, economic deprivation, poverty, adolescent-learner, aggression, quintile system, family attachment, violence prevention, school attachment/connectedness, victims of violence, perpetrators of violence, research ethics, trustworthiness, quantitative research, correlation, relations, chi-square tests,

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I was very fortunate to have licked two brains of highly placed academics who at different intervals were brought in to supervise me; these were Dr Byron Brown (a highly principled and tough academic who helped in laying the foundation for my research) to whom I say, “Cool runnings, Jah bless.”; and the diligent, deep and soft-spoken Dr. Vuyisile Nkonki to whom I say, “Enkosi”.

Dr. Byron Brown set me out to the high seas to deliver a cargo beyond the horizon, and Dr. Nkonki expertly guided me to the port from the stormy seas and helped me off load the cargo without breaking anything. Dealing with these two academics was not an easy task because at times it was like standing before two judges in a court of law- hey these are doctors. However, such challenges sharpened me for the battle.

Without the inspiration of my three children (Thembekile, Nozizwe, and Wandile) I would not have done this. Each letter I added on this thesis added hope to our lives. This study might not make us millionaires but it has set a new academic standard in our family. Never at any time has anyone in our clan ever gone so high.

I acknowledge the help I got from libraries and from individuals who helped me during data collection: Zinzi Kagoro, Christopher Kagoro, Pumla Mpengesi, Mrs Mbata, Ms Roundy Mavuso and many whose names I cannot spell.

I also thank the schools that participated in this research. Without them there would have been no research.

I also salute Professor M.J. Matshazi, “Ubaba uMatshazi” a diligent and revolutionary freedom fighter and scholar from my homeland who urged me to learn and be an example to those of my nation. I still remember his sincere criticism during one of our informal discussions, “Hayi bo Nduna. Sewake welusa? Wawubona ukuthi umfula uhleleke njani? Uyacwebezela usehla uze uyengena lapho othela khona. I proposal yakho kumele ibenjalo izwakale ukuthi iyaphi”.(No. No. No. No young man. Did you ever herd cattle in the forest and got a chance to observe the river as it flows steadily and consistently towards its mouth? Your proposal must have such an order.)

Last but not least I acknowledge my wife, Ruth for supporting me through the programme. This girl and friend has the touch of a genius and truly this Doctorate is

hers. My late mother, Julia and my daughters (Thembekile and Nozizwe) inspired me to get other qualifications but the doctorate was my wife's idea. Her belief in me as a husband by matters of love and senior by birth made me work extremely hard.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to:

- The king of kings Jesus Christ who has given me hope at all times.
- That artist, story teller and historian who safely delivered me to this world to stand before kings and princes but never lived to see me at this height- my late mother Julia Babayo Tshuma.
- My children and inspiration; Thembekile, Nozizwe, and Wandile.
- Children who are in the war - torn regions of Africa who know what real pain is.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACRONYMS	v
KEY WORDS	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
DEDICATION	ix
CHAPTER 1: Introduction	1
1.1 ORIENTATION	1
1.2 Background to the Study	2
1.2.1 The influence of family and school attachment	2
1.2.2 The context of the community	4
1.2.3 Gender issues	6
1.3 Research Problem and Critical Questions	7
1.4 Hypotheses	8
1.5 Purpose of the Study	9
1.6 Significance of the Study	9
1.7 Measures and Definition of Concepts	10
1.7.1 Family attachment	10
1.7.2 School attachment / connectedness	11
1.7.3 School violence	11
1.7.4 Community economic deprivation	11
1.7.4.1 The Quintile System	12
1.7.5 Adolescent-learner	12
1.8 Research Methodology	12
1.8.1 Research paradigm	13
1.8.2 Research design	13
1.8.3 Study sample and sampling procedure	13
1.8.4 Access to respondents	14
1.8.5 Data Collection	14
1.8.6 Data Analysis	14
1.9 Ethical Considerations	14

1.9.1	Informed Consent	15
1.9.2	Voluntary participation	15
1.9.3	Anonymity and Confidentiality	15
1.9.4	UFH Higher Degrees Committee	15
1.9.5	Plagiarism	15
CHAPTER 2: Review of Literature 1: Theoretical Perspectives		16
2.1	INTRODUCTION	16
2.2	School Violence and Trends	16
2.3	The Chaos Theory and the Conditions Promoting Violence	20
2.4	Traditional Theories of Explaining Violence	21
2.4.1	Violence as Reaction Theories	21
2.4.1.1	Theory of Social Discontent	21
2.4.1.2	Frustration-Aggression Theory	22
2.4.2	Violence as Action Theories	22
2.4.2.1	Social Learning Theory	22
2.4.2.2	Cognitive Behavioural Theory	22
2.4.2.3	Strain Theory	23
2.4.2.4	Differential Theory	23
2.4.2.5	Social Control Theory	24
2.4.3	The Attachment Theory: An Emerging Way of Explaining Violent behaviour	24
2.5	Survey of School Violence Overseas	25
2.5.1	Carolinum High School Incident (September, 2009)	26
2.5.2	Don Bosco Technical Institute (15 January, 2000)	26

2.5.3	C.W. Jefferys Collegiate, Canada (27 May, 2007)	26
2.5.4	Elementary School Blast:	27
2.6	Survey of School Violence in Southern Africa	27
2.7	Traditional Emphasis of Research on School Violence	31
2.7.1	Forms of Violence	31
2.7.2	Educator-Targeted Violence	32
2.7.3	Gender-Based Violence	32
2.8	Statistics from Previous Research in the Eastern Cape, South Africa	32
2.8.1	Perpetrators of Violence in the Schools in the Eastern Cape, South Africa	33
2.8.2	Perceptions of Possible Reasons for Learner Violence in the Eastern Cape, South Africa	33
2.9	Perspectives on Factors Reinforcing Negative Behaviour	35
2.9.1	Social Theory	35
2.9.2	Conflict Theory	36
2.9.3	Teacher- Incompetence Theory	37
2.9.4	Learning Restraints Theory	38
2.9.5	The Recapitulation Theory	39
2.9.6	Psycho-Social Theory	40
2.10	Personality Theories and Violence	40
2.10.1	Dispositional Theories	41
2.10.2	Psycho-Dynamic Theories	41
2.10.3	The Behaviour-Learning Theories	42
2.10.4	Humanistic Theories	43

2.11 School Culture, Connectedness and Violence	43
2.12 Psycho-Social Effects of Violence	47
2.13 Theories of Violence Management	49
2.13.1 Belief in Creating an Environment	49
2.13.2 The Existential Theory and the Restoration & Justice Theory (Counselling and Encouragement)	50
2.13.3 Olweus Bullying and Violence Prevention Program	50
2.14 School Safety Programmes in South Africa	51
2.15 School Safety Programmes in the Western Countries	55
2.16 CONCLUSION	58
 CHAPTER 3: Review Of Literature 2: Attachment and Adolescence	 59
3.1 INTRODUCTION	59
3.2 Review Approach	59
3.3 Overview of Violence and Attachment	60
3.4 Context of School Violence in South Africa: Impact of Socialisation (Home and School) On Overall Adolescent School Violence	61
3.5 Attachment in Context/Perspective	62
3.5.1 The Concept of Attachment	62
3.5.2 Detailed Description Of Individual Attachment Patterns/Styles	65
3.5.2.1 Secure Attachment	65
3.5.2.2 Anxious-Avoidant Attachment	67
3.5.2.3 Anxious-Ambivalent Attachment	67
3.5.2.4 Disorganised Attachment	68
3.5.3 Development and Adjustment of Attachment	68

3.5.3.1 Development of Attachment at Adolescence	68
3.5.3.2 Adjustment of Attachment at Adolescence	69
3.6 School and Attachment In Adolescence	70
3.6.1 Factors Associated With School Bonding	71
3.6.2 Motivation to Learn	71
3.6.3 Sense of Belonging to the School	71
3.6.4 Positive Peer Relations	72
3.6.5 Safety and Security	72
3.7 Factors Influencing Attachment	72
3.7.1 Parenting and Attachment in Adolescence	72
3.7.2 Gender and Attachment in Adolescence	73
3.8 Ecology of the Child and Attachment	74
3.8.1 Micro-system And Attachment	76
3.8.2 Meso-systems And Attachment	77
3.8.3 Exo-system And Attachment	78
3.8.4 Macro-systems And Attachment	79
3.9 Aggression	80
3.9.1 The Concept	80
3.9.2 Controversies on Aggression	81
3.9.2.1 Perspectives on Drive Theories	81
3.9.2.2 Perspectives on Social Learning Theories	82
3.10 Factors Leading To Aggression	82
3.10.1 Observation of Aggression Model	82
3.10.1.1 Receiving or Expecting Payoffs Following Aggression	83
3.10.1.2 Stopping Aggression by Others	84

3.10.1.3 Getting Praise or Status or Some Other Goal by Being Aggressive	84
3.10.1.4 Getting Self-Reinforcement and Private Praise	85
3.10.1.5 Reducing Tension	85
3.11 Implications of Aggression on Attachment	85
3.12 Impact of Domestic Violence	86
3.13 Abused Children and Attachment	88
3.14 Hormonal Changes, Aggression, and Attachment	89
3.15 Peer Pressure	90
3.16 Self Concept and Home and School Attachment	91
3.17 Economic Deprivation and Attachment	92
3.17.1 Poverty	92
3.17.2 Economically Deprived Children	94
3.17.3 Less Deprived Children	95
3.18 Current Studies on Home and School Attachment and Correlates	96
3.18.1 Correlation with Cigarette Smoking, Alcohol and Marijuana Use	96
3.18.2 Correlation with Male Sex Offenders	96
3.18.3 Correlation with Teacher Influence	97
3.19 Implications of Attachment on Education	97
3.19.1 Violence and Disruption	97
3.19.2 Academic Performance	97
3.20 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	98
CHAPTER 4: Methodology and Approach to Research	99
4.1 INTRODUCTION	99
4.2 Society, Social Research and Problems	99

4.3 Philosophical Foundations and Research Paradigms: A Comparative Study	100
4.4 A Contrast of Paradigms: Positivist, Interpretivist, and Phenomenological Paradigms	101
4.5 Attributes of Positivist Research	103
4.5.1 Philosophical Assumptions and Qualities of the Positivist Paradigm	104
4.5.2 Positivist Research Techniques	104
4.5.2.1 Experimentation	104
4.5.2.2 Surveys	105
4.6 The Interpretivist Paradigm	105
4.6.1 Interpretivist Research Techniques	106
4.6.2 Descriptive/Interpretive	106
4.6.2.1 Focus Group	106
4.6.2.2 Action Research	106
4.6.2.3 Ethnographic Research	106
4.6.2.4 Grounded Theory	106
4.6.3 Common Characteristics of Interpretivist Techniques	107
4.6.4 Interpretivist Data Processing	107
4.7 The Phenomenological Research Design	107
4.7.1 Characteristics of Phenomenological Data	107
4.8 The Post-Positivist Paradigm	108
4.9 The Paradigm That Guided This Study	108
4.9.1 Research Design	110
4.9.2 Why Do A Survey?	110
4.9.2.1 Uniqueness	111

4.9.2.2 Non-Probability and Probability Sampling	111
4.9.2.3 Standardization of Measurement	111
4.9.2.4 Analysis Needs	111
4.9.2.5 Convenient Sample Size	111
4.10 Sample and Sampling	112
4.11 Access to Participants and To the Research Site	113
4.12 Data Collection	113
4.12.1 Questionnaire	113
4.12.2 Structure of the Questionnaire	114
4.12.3 Section A: Biographical Information	115
4.12.4 Section B: Family Attachment	115
4.12.5 Section C: School Attachment	115
4.12.6 Section D: Verbal Violence	115
4.12.7 Section E: Physical Violence	116
4.12.8 Administration of the Questionnaire	116
4.13 Pilot Survey	116
4.14 Measures to Ensure a High Response Rate	116
4.15 Data Analysis	117
4.15.1 Questionnaire Data	117
4.15.2 Editing	117
4.15.3 Coding	118
4.15.4 Classification	118

4.16 Quality Criteria	118
4.17 Statistical tests employed	119
4.18 Ethical Measures	120
4.18.1 Informed Consent	120
4.18.2 Voluntary Participation	120
4.18.3 Disclosure Of Researcher's Identity	120
4.18.4 Anonymity and Confidentiality	121
4.18.5 University of Fort Hare Higher Degrees Committee	121
4.18.6 Plagiarism	121
4.19 SUMMARY	121
 CHAPTER 5: Data Presentation	 122
5.1 INTRODUCTION	122
5.2 Questionnaire Distribution and Response Rate	122
5.3 Structure of the Questionnaire and Justification	122
5.4 Analysis	123
5.4.1 Responses by Quintile	123
5.4.2 Gender	124
5.4.3 Age Distribution Of Respondents	125
5.4.4 Analysis Of Respondents By Grade	125
5.5 Question By Question Analyses	126
5.5.1 Section B: Home Attachment	126
5.5.2 Section C: School Attachment Items	131
5.5.3 Section D: Verbal Violence	136
5.5.4 Section E: Physical Violence	141

5.6 Significant Correlations	147
5.6.1 The Relationship between Attachment to School and Verbal Violence	147
5.6.2 The Relationship between Attachment to Family and Verbal Violence	152
5.6.3 The Relationship between Attachment to School and Physical Violence	153
5.6.4 The Relationship between Attachment to Family and Physical Violence	156
5.7 Significant differences According To Gender	158
5.7.1 Gender differences in family attachment	158
5.7.2 Gender differences in school attachment	159
5.7.3 Gender Differences in violence	160
5.7.4 Explanation to No differences	161
5.8 Significant Differences According To Social Backgrounds	161
5.8.1 Quintile differences in School Attachment	162
5.8.2 Quintile differences in family attachment	163
5.8.3 Quintile differences in verbal violence	164
5.8.4 Quintile difference in physical violence	165
5.9 Implications for Violence Prevention in Secondary Schools	166
5.9.1 Drawing from the School and School Violence	166
5.9.2 Drawing from the Family and School Violence	167
5.10 CONCLUSION	167

CHAPTER 6: Discussion of Findings and Their Alignment to the Question

6.1 INTRODUCTION	169
6.2 GENERAL SURVEY OF CONCERNS	169
6.3 Prevalence of Violence	170
6.4 School-Attachment	170
6.5 Home Attachment	171

6.6 Results According To Gender	172
6.7 Results According To Social Backgrounds	173
6.8 New Areas of Research	173
6.9 CONCLUSION	174
 CHAPTER 7: Findings, Recommendations, and Conclusion	 175
7.1 INTRODUCTION	175
7.2 Findings	175
7.2.1 The Relationship between Attachment to School and Violence	175
7.2.2 The Relationship between Attachment to Family and Violence	176
7.2.3 Results According To Gender	177
7.2.4 Differences According To Social Backgrounds	177
7.3 Implications for violence prevention in secondary schools	178
7.3.1 Drawing from the school and school violence	178
7.3.2 Drawing from the family and school violence	179
7.4 Recommendations	179
7.5 Limitations	181
7.6 Conclusions	182

REFERENCES	183
APPENDICES	197
Appendix A: Letter of consent	197
Appendix B: Learners' questionnaire	198
Appendix C: UFH Letter of permission to conduct research	203
Appendix D: Eastern Cape DoE Letter	204
Appendix E: SPSS 18 Printouts	205

TABLES

TABLES	TOPIC	PAGE
TABLE 2.8.1.1	Perpetrators of Violence in the Schools in the Eastern Cape	33
TABLE 2.8.2.1	Perceptions of Possible Reasons for Learner Violence in Eastern Cape	33
TABLE 4.4.1	A Contrast Of Paradigms: Positivist, Interpretivist, And Phenomenological Paradigms	101
TABLE 4.4.2	The Difference Between The Positivist, and the Phenomenological Paradigms	102
TABLE 5.4.2.1	Respondents by gender	124
TABLE 5.4.3.1	Respondents by age	125
TABLE 5.4.4.1	Respondents by grade	126
TABLE. 5.5.1.1	My parents are always there for me	127
TABLE 5.5.1.2	My parents always have time to discuss life with me	127
TABLE. 5.5.1.3	I always look forward to going home	128
TABLE. 5.5.1.4	My home is the safest place for me	128
TABLE. 5.5.1.5	My parent only seems to notice me when I am angry.	129
TABLE. 5.5.1.6	I often feel angry with my parents without knowing why	129
TABLE. 5.5.1.7	I get annoyed by my parent because I have to force him/her to love me.	130
TABLE. 5.5.1.8	I am confident that my parent will listen to me.	130
TABLE. 5.5.1.9	I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can.	131

TABLE. 5.5.1.10	It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my parent.	131
TABLE. 5.5.2.1	My teachers are always there for me in everything	132
TABLE. 5.5.2.2	My teachers make us hate school	132
TABLE. 5.5.2.3	Our school buildings make me proud of my school	133
TABLE. 5.5.2.4	Our school rules protect us from violence and abuse from other learners.	133
TABLE. 5.5.2.5	Teachers act when we tell them that we have problems	134
TABLE. 5.5.2.6	Teachers show bias towards children from rich families.	134
TABLE. 5.5.2.7	School is the safest place for me.	135
TABLE. 5.5.2.8	I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why.	135
TABLE. 5.5.2.9	I get annoyed by my teachers because I have to force them to love or care for me.	136
TABLE. 5.5.2.10	It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my school.	136
TABLE. 5.5.3.1	I saw learners swearing and teasing at school in the last 3 months.	137
TABLE. 5.5.3.2	I have sworn and teased in the last 3 months.	137
TABLE. 5.5.3.3	I witnessed more than 5 cases of verbal violence in the last 3 months.	138
TABLE. 5.5.3.4	The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months.	138
TABLE. 5.5.3.5	Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months.	139
TABLE. 5.5.3.6	Learners have fought verbally in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them.	139
TABLE. 5.5.3.7	Cases of verbal violence at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home.	140
TABLE. 5.5.3.8	Those who got involved in verbal violence in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school.	140

TABLE. 5.5.3.9	Some learners have been involved in verbal violence without any clear reason in the last 3 months.	141
TABLE. 5.5.3.10	Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3 months.	141
TABLE. 5.5.4.1	I saw learners fighting physically at school in the last 3 months.	142
TABLE. 5.5.4.2	I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months.	142
TABLE. 5.5.4.3	I witnessed more than 5 physical fights in this school in the last 3 months.	143
TABLE. 5.5.4.4	The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months.	143
TABLE. 5.5.4.5	Our school rules have been reducing the occurrence of physical fights in the last 3 months.	144
TABLE. 5.5.4.6	Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them.	144
TABLE. 5.5.4.7	Physical fights at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home.	145
TABLE. 5.5.4.8	Those who fought physically in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school.	145
TABLE. 5.5.4.9	Some learners have fought physically without any clear reason in the last 3 months.	146
TABLE. 5.5.4.10	Schools and homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months.	146
TABLE. 5.7.1.1	Gender differences and Family attachment	159
TABLE. 5.7.2.1	Gender differences in school attachment	160
TABLE. 5.8.1.1	Quintile differences in school attachment	162
TABLE. 5.8.2.1	Quintile differences in family attachment	163
TABLE 5.8.3.1	Quintile differences in verbal violence	164
TABLE 5.8.4.1	Quintile differences in physical violence	165
TABLE 6.2.1	General survey of concerns	169

FIGURES

FIGURES	TOPIC	PAGE
FIG. 5.4.1.1	Responses by quintile	124

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 ORIENTATION

School violence, committed by learners, is a serious form of learner deviance (Bandura, 1977; Brown, 2009). School violence is pervasive in many South African schools – both at primary and secondary school level. Popular media reports and empirical investigations have documented the nature and magnitude of school violence over the years (cf. Dunne et al, 2003; Prinsloo, 2006; Naser, Ovens, van der Merwe, Morodi, Ladikos, & Prinsloo, 2004; Brown, 2009; Prinsloo, 2006; de Wet, 2006; Daily Dispatch, 7 February 2008:3; Drum, March 2005:18; Sunday Times, 26 March 2006:1; You, November 2005:12; Cape Argus, 29 May 2007; Daily Dispatch, 9 February 2007; Pretoria News, 28 May 2007).

As a deviance, school violence has been categorised in past research into three groups, namely: verbal violence, physical violence, and sexual violence (Brown, 2009; Twemlow, 2002; de Wet, 2006). Scholars have questioned the logic though of separating the physical and sexual violence, arguing that sexual violence is a form of physical violence (Brown, 2009). Within the Amathole Education District in the Eastern Cape, verbal and physical violence in schools are two recognised forms of adolescent deviance, especially in secondary schools (HRW, 2001).

Various measures have been implemented in secondary schools across the Amathole District, and elsewhere in the country, to stem school violence as a deviant behaviour among learners (Klonsky, 2002; Prinsloo, 2006), but much of these measures have not impacted significantly on the problem (Simpson, 2001). Violence in school remains one of the biggest challenges that educators and learners face in the educational setting. It is of interest to note that the Amathole District reflects a concoction of settlement patterns, with communities ranging from informal settlement and industrialised areas to residential suburb (www.amathole.gov.za). Violence is endemic in the informal settlements, which are outgrowth of apartheid era segregation policies (Naser, Ovens, van der Merwe, Morodi, Ladikos, & Prinsloo, 2003). Informal settlement lifestyle has encroached upon suburban communities,

particularly around the towns and cities (Nzimande & Thusi, 1998). This is the kind of context in which schools are situated.

Measures to reduce school violence hinges upon, inter alia, a clear understanding of the forces which sustain violence (Twemlow, 2002). Despite the wealth of research on school violence in the South African context, the emphasis has largely been on causes of violence (de Wet, 2006) and sexual harassment and violence (Prinsloo, 2006). Whether or the extent that family- and school-related factors relate with verbal and/or physical violence as types of adolescent deviance remain essentially an unanswered question.

In other words, previous research has not considered whether learners' (as adolescents) attachment to two social contexts (Dornbusch et al, 2001) – attachment to the family and attachment to school – relate to each type of violent behaviour (verbal and physical violence). The unique contribution of this study therefore would lie in providing insights into each of the two types of learner/adolescent deviance as follows: (a) its overall frequency, (b) its prevalence (the proportion of learners engaging in that behaviour at least once during a given period), and (c) its frequency/intensity among those who are engaging in that type of violent behaviour. Further insights lies in exploring differences in the positive influence of family and school attachment by the level of economic deprivation in learners' communities by gender.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.2.1 THE INFLUENCE OF FAMILY AND SCHOOL ATTACHMENT

Secondary school learners are typical adolescents by virtue of their age range (age 12-19yrs). There is substantial evidence that adolescents, particularly early adolescents, are more likely than children or young adults to engage in developmentally problematic behaviours (Lohman et al, 2007; Dornbusch et al, 2001), and that adolescent problem behaviours are related to later adult deviance (Lohman et al, 2007; Dornbusch et al, 2001; Sampson & Laub, 1994). There are numerous environmental and individual factors that shape the likelihood of a learner

or adolescent's involvement in problem behaviours such as violence or aggression (Bushman & Anderson, 2001; Landberg, 2005; Mills, 2001; Sullivan et al, 2004).

There is some evidence in largely European based studies that features of the school that are similar to features of the learner/adolescent's family promote positive outcomes and deter negative outcomes (Kerns & Stevens, 1996). One such feature is the individual's attachment to each of these environments.

Developmental psychologists have shown that strong affective ties between adolescents and their parents tend to reduce adolescent deviance including acts of aggression/violence (Bushman & Anderson, 2001) and educational researchers have shown that adolescents with positive feelings toward their school are less likely to be deviants/aggressors (Kerns & Stevens, 1996. Bushman & Anderson, 2001). Both of these approaches fit within a broader sociological theory, namely Hirschi's (1998) theory of social control. In this control perspective, acts socially defined as violent or deviant are more likely to occur when an individual's bond to conventional society is weakened or broken (Hirschi, 1998). **Attachment** to the **family** and the **school** are aspects of that social bond or cohesion.

Within the family, evidence suggests that a mutual attachment between adolescent and parent insulates the adolescent-learner from delinquency and violent behaviours (Kerns & Stevens, 1996). In this case, a mutual attachment is defined as the "affectional bond that the learner as adolescent and his/her parent form with one another" (*cf. 1.5.1 definition of concepts*). This suggests that there are two important components to mutual attachment between child and parent: (a) the child's emotional connection to his or her parents, and (b) the parent's feelings of emotional closeness to his or her child.

Considerable research shows that an adolescent's (or adolescent-learner's) perception of emotional support and identification with his or her parents is related to less substance use and fewer delinquent activities (Kerns & Stevens, 1996). Parent's attachment to their child (ren) is given less attention in the literature on adolescent deviance or aggression. But research with younger children (age before adolescence) indicates that parental attachment is linked to children's regulation of

emotions and behaviours (Cooper et al, 1998; Fonagy et al, 1997). In terms of adolescent-learners, it seems it might be useful to explore both adolescent perception and parental perception of the degree of attachment to determine the influence of attachment on violent deviance at school.

Another factor that facilitates psychosocial well-being is the adolescent-learner's attachment to school. Research indicates that a child's sense of belonging at school is positively associated with academic and social competence and negatively correlated with psychological distress and classroom misbehaviours (Karavasilis et al, 1999; Fonagy et al, 1997; Kerns & Stevens, 1996). Research on adolescent-learner violence or other forms of deviance generally has focused on such school factors as school achievement, academic motivation, school failure, and class size (Sullivan et al, 2004) and less attention has been paid to adolescent-learners' connectedness to educators and to other learners at school.

1.2.2 THE CONTEXT OF THE COMMUNITY IN WHICH ADOLESCENT-LEARNERS LIVE AND SCHOOL IN THE AMATHOLE DISTRICT

In examining the influence of family and school attachments on forms of adolescent-learner violence as deviance at school, one needs to consider the context of the community in which each adolescent lives and is being schooled. The Amathole Education District has over 500,000 learners, 130 primary schools, 79 secondary schools two universities, and three Further Education and Training colleges (Brown, 2009). The main language used by majority of the people is IsiXhosa, but other language speakers include English and Afrikaans. An estimated 94 percent of secondary schools identified school violence as a serious learner deviance (Brown, 2009; De Wet, 2006).

The context of the communities where many adolescent-learners hail from and where they attend school is one defined by different forces of stress and tension. There are many challenges facing the traditional family unit of wife, husband and children: single parent families, child-headed families, cohabitation, violence, economic distress, and gay or lesbian families (Brown, 2009; De Wet, 2006; Klonsky, 2002). In general, the Amathole District (and the wider South Africa) is a place defined by

poverty and affluence (http://www.amathole.gov.za/about_amathole), by informal settlement in townships on the one hand and by expensive mansions in suburbs, on the other hand (Smith, 2004; HRW, 2001).

Violent crimes have been on the increase since 1994/95 (Nzimande & Thusi, 1998), and evidence suggests violence is endemic in many communities, particularly those communities defined by townships and informal settlements (Carrim, 1998). The violence in schools is thus not confined to the educational setting but is also reflected in the wider society.

Carrim (2008) states that many communities across South Africa remain sites of conflict, but the most dramatic feature of post-apartheid South Africa, is that the major sites of conflict are not chiefly along lines of race and class. In their reading, and as borne out by several surveys, the major site of conflict in communities is in family and between friends (Carrim, 1998). Eighty percent of violent crimes in informal settlement and township communities occur between people who know each other. Most of the learners who live in the Amathole District experience such situations because they come from these kinds of communities.

Poverty lies at the root of a number of problems affecting the structure and stability of the family across the country. It is estimated that at least 22 million people in South Africa live in poverty (Simpson, 2001). Even though the situation in the Amathole District is not as bleak as in the rest of the country, for poor South Africans in the district it remains a dehumanizing life-style. Poverty is most clearly seen among rural black African families, where it impacts on all aspects of life; the physical, spiritual, social, cultural and personal (Simpson, 2001). Poverty encompasses material conditions, *and an* economic position of low income and limited resources; a social position characterized by a lack of entitlement, dependency and social exclusion; and finally, absolute poverty where people eke out mere subsistence, the minimum standard needed to live.

Thus, simple observation indicates that the Amathole District is characterized by a situation whereby many adolescent-learners go to school in circumstance of being in poverty. Hence poverty contributes significantly to family dysfunction as members of

the family often resort to abuse, crime, or suicide. Despite these challenges - and sometimes precisely because of them - the family in general remains an institution of importance.

The wider social background of adolescent-learners cannot be separated from their school context. Learners are carriers of their cultures and when they go to school they take their cultures and lifestyle with them. Consequently, schools are microcosms of their wider communities because school inputs are drawn from these communities (Sullivan et al, 2004).

Research has suggested that economically disadvantaged communities, characterised by high poverty, high concentration of single-parent families, and high unemployment, threaten different aspects of the family and school environment of the adolescent-learner and produce greater risk of negative outcomes (Karavasilis et al, 1999; Fonagy et al, 1997; Kerns & Stevens, 1996).

But not all adolescent-learners in school commit violence. Furthermore, not all adolescent-learners live in communities that are high in economic deprivation, or in single parent families. Given the argument about family and school attachment above, it is reasonable therefore to explore how these factors might shape the adolescent-learner violence in school.

1.2.3 GENDER ISSUES

In 1966, Sutherland and colleague reported that the single best demographic predictor of criminal behaviour is being male (Sutherland & Cressey, 1966). This finding persists to the present day (Fonagy et al, 1997). The gender differences in rates of deviance involving violence does not necessarily imply that males and females differ in the processes that lead to deviance (Dornbusch et al, 2001). In at least one early study, lack of attachment to parents was related to delinquency within both genders (Kerns & Stevens, 1996).

Previous research on school violence in South Africa illustrates that female adolescent learners are as much perpetrators of violence as are male adolescents

(Brown, 2009; De Wet, 2003, 2006; Prinsloo, 2006). Given this reality, it seems the gender dimension of adolescent-learners needs to form part of the overall investigation.

The literature cited above suggests the question of attachment to the family and to the school is clearly a critical factor in examining issues of school violence as adolescent-learner deviance. But the research on school violence in the Amathole District and wider South African context has yet to explore this dimension to the problem in schools. The central problem arising from this context and on which this research is based is further elaborated below.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND CRITICAL QUESTIONS

Violence remains a serious challenge for education practitioners in many secondary schools, not only within the Amathole District but in many schools elsewhere across the country. Across South Africa, much of the school violence has been verbal and physical, and adolescent-learner violent behaviours in schools such as knife fights, gun-shootings, and acid attacks have led to the death of many learners and educators, and the injury of others (Dunne, Humphreys & Leach, 2003; De Wet, 2005; Daily Dispatch, 7 February 2008:3; Drum, March 2005:18; Sunday Times, 26 March 2006:1). Apart from the human cost of school violence, teaching and learning also suffer.

Available school violence research in the Amathole District and indeed the wider South African society has given much attention to the nature and magnitude of the violence and measures to prevent violence (Brown, 2009; De Wet, 2005; Dunne, Humphreys & Leach, 2003). Amidst this literature, whether or the extent that family- and school-related factors decrease violence (verbal and/or physical violence) as a form of adolescent deviance, is often denied attention. Yet adolescent-learner attachment to family and to school could provide insights into these problem behaviours. Thus, the critical question for investigation is:

What are the relations of family and school attachment to dimensions of adolescent-learners' violent behaviours (verbal violence and physical violence) at school?

The critical question posed above presupposes several sub-questions for investigation. The **sub-questions** are as follows:

- a) Does attachment to ***school relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***verbal*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- b) Does attachment to ***family relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***verbal*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- c) Does attachment to ***school relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***physical*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- d) Does attachment to ***family relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***physical*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- e) Does the pattern of results at (a) to (d) differ for adolescent-learners of different *gender*?
- f) Does the pattern of results at (a) to (d) differ for adolescent-learners from different *social environments* (i.e. economically deprived communities and less economically deprived communities)?
- g) What are the implications of the results above for violence prevention in secondary schools?

1.4 HYPOTHESES

The research was guided by the following hypotheses:

- a) There is a correlation between attachment to school and the overall, prevalence, and frequency of verbal violence by adolescent-learners.
- b) There is a correlation between attachment to family and the overall, prevalence, and frequency of verbal violence by adolescent-learners.
- c) There is a correlation between attachment to school and the overall, prevalence, and frequency of physical violence by adolescent-learners.
- d) There is a correlation between attachment to family and the overall, prevalence, and frequency of physical violence by adolescent-learners.
- e) Responses on the correlation between either school or family attachment and the overall, prevalence, and frequency of either verbal or physical violence by adolescent learners differ for adolescent learners of different gender.
- f) Responses on the correlation between either school or family attachment and the overall, prevalence, and frequency of either verbal or physical violence by adolescent learners differ for adolescent learners of different social backgrounds.

1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Based on the critical questions posed for investigation above, the purpose of this study is twofold. Firstly, to examine and ascertain whether attachment to the family and to the school is correlated to two forms of adolescent-learner violence, including the overall level, prevalence, and frequency of each problem behaviour. Secondly, the study is to also determine whether these attachments are related to acts of various degrees of violence among adolescent-learners from different levels of communities' economic deprivation, and gender.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study stands to make a significant theoretical contribution to the way we understand school violence, and to the way we seek to prevent it. Currently,

researchers have tried to explain school violence either in terms of conflict between victims and perpetrators (Dunne, Humphreys & Leach, 2003) or as an outcome of historical forces grounded in social learning (Prinsloo, 2006; Bandura, 1977). But prevention measures taken from these perspectives have not decreased school violence. Quite the contrary, school violence persists (*cf. Introduction*) and might have even worsened. Less attention has been paid to adolescent-learners' connectedness to their social contexts – be it home and/or school – as possible explanations for the problem behaviour at school. In this sense, this study is poised to address this gap, particularly as it relates to the South African literature on school violence. School violence is an educational leadership and management issue in schools.

Of equal significance and importance is the issue of educational policy and practice. My thesis in this regard is that educational practice is informed by theoretical development. Thus, the outcomes of this research hold important implications for practices and policies regarding violence at the school level. The outcomes of the study can guide decision making about school violence prevention and can form the springboard for more in-depth longitudinal investigations.

1.7 MEASURES AND DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.7.1 FAMILY ATTACHMENT

This will refer to the degree of affection between child and his/her parents. Two indicators of the affective bond between adolescents and their parents will be used to operationalise mutual family attachment: one from (a) learner reports, and the other from (b) parent reports. Resnick and colleagues (1997) developed a scale consisting of 13 items to measure family attachment. This scale measures the adolescent-learner's perception of closeness to parents.

This scale was customised to this research to measure adolescent-learner's closeness to parents only. The scale is useful because it takes into consideration situation whereby an adolescent-learner might not reside with their mother and/or

father. It was hoped that a composite for family attachment would be developed from this scale.

Based on the research questions, the adolescent-learner closeness to the parent was also measured. A scale was developed around an in-depth literature review on the concept and work on antisocial behaviour by Grotevant and van Dulmen (1999).

1.7.2 SCHOOL ATTACHMENT / CONNECTEDNESS

This refers to the extent to which adolescent-learners feel connected to their school, educators, and classmates (Fonagy et al, 1997). A scale was developed around an in-depth literature review on the concept and work on *Protecting Adolescents From Harm* by Resnick and colleagues (1997).

1.7.3 SCHOOL VIOLENCE

Violence is defined as actions that harm or kill people (De Wet, 2006) or as harm brought to a person's body, dignity, autonomy, and freedom (Prinsloo, 2006). School violence reflects a particular form of learner deviance, and in this study information on this would be derived from self-reports although one problem with self-reports is that a person may not answer sensitive questions honestly. But compared to other means of getting data (e.g. official statistics, which only record those who are caught) on this topic, self-reports remain the best option. Only two forms of violence were of interest: verbal and physical.

Items were developed from a literature review. These items were constructed so as to determine the prevalence, frequency and overall level of learner involvement in and observation of verbal and physical violence.

1.7.4 COMMUNITY ECONOMIC DEPRIVATION

An economically deprived community is characterised by high incidence of poverty, unemployment, and single-parenting (Bowen & Chapman, 1996). This research sought to make use of this information on the background of learners through an

analysis of societies that are catchment areas of sampled schools. Catchment areas of schools usually affect the character of the school and the behaviour of its learners. Hence the economic background of the schools and the understanding of the schools' quintile system was thought to be very important to this research.

1.7.4.1 The Quintile System

The quintile system is a method of classifying schools adopted by the South African government to address imbalances affecting education in South Africa (RSA Constitution Act 108 of 1996: Section 29 (1): Section 9 (2; 3; 4; 5); South African schools Act, 1996). As a result the quintile system rates schools as either poor or least poor. The rating runs from 1 to 5, with 1 as the poorest and 5 as the least poor and not deserving government assistance.

The rating is informed by the annual household survey and the national census data for school catchment area calculated based on incomes, unemployment and literacy rates (HSRC, 2010). According to the Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE) (2010) 40% of South African schools are extremely poor and designated as 'No fee schools'. Hence the quintile system (despite its failure to demarcate between the real poor and the real rich) is still the only reliable system of assessing learners' economic backgrounds.

This data was drawn from the learner questionnaire's biographical section.

1.7.5 ADOLESCENT-LEARNER

An adolescent generally refers to a young person who has undergone puberty but who has not reached full maturity; a teenager (McNeely et al, 2002; Rasmussen et al, 2002). In this study, an adolescent-learner refers to an individual aged between 12 and 19 years, and enrolled in school.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.8.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM

This research adopted a positivist paradigm which would enable the researcher to adopt a survey design (*cf. chapter 4*).

1.8.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research also adopted a survey design. This design would enable the use of questionnaire as data collection instrument and the inclusion of a broad sample adequate for statistical analysis (*cf. chapter 4*).

1.8.3 STUDY SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The sample included only one group: (a) adolescent-learners. For ease of statistical analysis, it was anticipated that the sample size would be in excess of 100. Data was collected from these respondents to answer research sub-questions (a) to (d) above. Sub-questions (e) to (g) were determined by the overall results and trends in (a) to (d). It was anticipated that more than 10 schools in the Amathole district would participate.

The study schools, like the respondents therein, were sampled conveniently – through a non-probability sampling procedure. Schools were selected based on their economic background or location. The state of an area's deprivation would be judged based on the area's poverty levels.

At the same time senior learners within the selected schools were possible respondents. Participating learners were selected from all grades in the most senior grades in order to get responses from a broader cross section of age groups. Since the study sought to understand the prevalence and frequency of each form of violence, a learner's history of violence would not be used as the basis for selecting the sample.

Time constraint limited the sampling procedure to the suggested non-probability method mentioned. A key sampling criterion for selecting adolescent-learners was:

- their socio-econo
- enrolment in school and
- their understanding of school violence.

Schools located in different community contexts (e.g. economically deprived community and less economically deprived community, judged in terms of the criteria at 6.1.4 above) would be included (*cf. chapter 4*).

1.8.4 ACCESS TO RESPONDENTS

The Education District officers responsible for the oversight of schools in a local district were used as the gatekeeper to access the schools. Permission to undertake the research was sought through the local education district office. The school principals were used as gatekeepers to access the learners (*cf. chapter 4*).

1.8.5 DATA COLLECTION

The only data collection instrument was a questionnaire. This was developed for the sample group based on the research questions. For reliability and validity purposes, the questionnaire was piloted (*cf. chapter 4*).

1.8.6 DATA ANALYSES

Various statistical procedures were applied in the data analysis process, including descriptive and inferential statistics: mean, and Chi square tests for sub-questions (a) to (d).

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2005) define ethics as moral principles or rules and behavioural expectations of one conducting research. A researcher deals with

respondents and these need fair treatment. The following were considered during the course of the research (*cf. chapter 4*):

1.9.1 INFORMED CONSENT

Adolescent-learners were used in the research. Since these individuals are minors their educators, acted in loco parentis, to consent to their participation. Educators are more accessible to give permission (*cf. chapter 4*).

1.9.2 VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

All participation in the study was voluntary. Respondents were informed about the nature of the study and given a choice to choose to participate or not. Only individuals who volunteered were allowed to participate (*cf. chapter 4*).

1.9.3 ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

Privacy and confidentiality of participants was guaranteed. The identity of the respondents and the research sites were not revealed in the reporting of the findings. To identify respondents the researcher gave individual schools a code number, which only the researcher understood. Thus, personal details from respondents remained anonymous (*cf. chapter 4*).

1.9.4 UFH HIGHER DEGREES COMMITTEE

The research had to get a clearance from the Higher Degrees Committee before its commencement.

1.9.5 PLAGIARISM

The researcher acknowledged all sources used to further this investigation.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that school violence is real in the schools in the world including in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Africa. The review acknowledges that violence has become a topical problem to researchers and policy makers. Hence, extensive research has been and must still be done by many scholars to determine the real causes of this violence and to determine effective interventions. Many concepts have been looked at including the latest American ideological approach that equates school violence with terrorism; only a few commit it to smaller groups with the intention of drawing the attention of many (Baum, 2005). This means that school violence has reached national state security concern in USA and other places in the world. However this brings us to the idea that school violence is a social statement which deserves serious attention and response. Hence this review argues for emphasis of attachment to home and school as a way of regulating prevalence of violence in order to achieve safety in schools. The review analyses several traditional theories of understanding violence; Social control theory, differential theory, Strain theory, Cognitive behavioural theory, Social Learning theory, and recently the attachment theory. The emphasis on the attachment theory is brought by the realisation that most problems in schools could be as a result of attachment problems.

2.2 SCHOOL VIOLENCE CONCEPT AND TRENDS

The definition of school violence is as complex as the precipitants of violence themselves because school violence is a problem that encompasses psychological, environmental, family and situational factors and it makes it very difficult to come up with an appropriate universal definition. The definition of violence usually depends on the context one is looking at. Hence the psychological perspective would not define violence in the same way the sociological perspective does. While social scientists define it as action or reaction to social stimuli, psychologists define it as a trauma. For

example the definition that is going to be used for this review will only have to do with action or reaction related to family and situational factors because violence is more of a process than a specific act or sets of acts. There is stimulation and response in violence and the stimulation is more societal than it is natural.

Etymologically the word 'violence' is derived from a Latin word 'violentia' meaning 'carrying physical, verbal, or emotional force towards something' (Professor Degenaar in Centre for Intergroup studies, 1990). It must be understood that this force could be carried as a reaction stimulated by poor attachment to or bonding with caregivers in the arenas of socialization such as home or school (Lohman et al, 2007).

Because of the systematic processes that contribute to violence, McCann (2002) defines violence loosely as aggression that occurs among humans. Also because of school violence's complexity Furlong and Morrison (2000: 71) express the following belief about it: "... school violence is a multifaceted construct that involves both criminal acts and aggression in schools, which inhibits development and learning, as well as harming the school's climate." Hagan (2000) defines school violence as the exercise of power over others in school-related settings by some individuals, agencies, or social processes. When a socially accepted process denies learners their right and harms them it becomes school violence.

While aggression is instinctive, violence is a premeditated or calculated act of aggression with a criminal element and it is driven by complex societal factors such as frustration, past or current environmental complexities. Hence, according to social control and regulatory theories like the attachment theory violence is an act of deviance from normal behaviour. Social norms in various cultures criminalise individual obsession by a tendency to indulge or glorify violence in favour of the controversial group violence which is treated with lenience because of its organised nature.

Despite its varied definitions and its cultural contexts (Skolnick, 1969) violence is universally understood as having qualities of hurting and depriving weaker individuals of their freedom within school grounds, classrooms, and anywhere where learners gather for school purposes e.g. during trips far away from the school ground. School

violence is also defined as a way learners exert on each other physical force to injure or destroy, accompanied by anger and hostility (Dolan, et al, 1993) . Most of this anger and hostility come from frustrations from the bases of socialization. Hence it is an indicator of social problems; either at home or at school (Rasmussen et al, 2005). That is why it is possible to link this violence to attachment disorders. It must be understood that the argument of this review is against the blame of violence on the individual all the time. The society, especially the home and the school have a role to play.

It must be noted that all forms of violence are disruptive and the impact of violence goes against commonly held expectations and values of personal, family and societal wellbeing (McKendrick & Hoffman, 1990; Degenaar, 1990; Dolan,et al, 1993). Commonly held societal expectations include peaceful relations between individuals in any given group or groups. Individual relations extend to intergroup relations. The power of individuals to achieve comes from attachment styles created by the relations the person has with social institutions that are directly responsible for their socialisation (Lohman et al, 2007). In short violence affects negatively the way people live regardless of any praise names it can get from society. It disrupts the course of usual life and creates hostilities in as much as it can displace people from their natural places of living (Degenaar, 1990).

While various theories of social and school violence acknowledge the involvement of social complexities in causing deviant behaviour, nothing is written in South Africa on how attachment to home and school can be instrumental in reducing acts of physical and verbal violence. Mainly exposure to violence and frustrations at home and school presents a wide range of psychological and physical symptoms that can be long term in duration. One of the long term psychological and physical symptoms can be violence itself.

When dealing with violence and safety in schools one must understand that violence exists in two ways; either as relational violence or predatory violence. Relational violence occurs only in the context of family and friends. For example in schools violence occurs within peers and it can be relational (Capozzoli & McVey, 2000). Predatory violence is directed towards obtaining a goal or material gain. Usually this

is the popular form of violence because it is unprovoked violence. Both forms of violence can be either verbal (swearing, foul language, insults, name calling, provocation, threats, and written messages) or physical (hitting, pushing, assault, causing physical injury, injuring with a weapon, threatening with a weapon). This concurs with Klewin et al. (2003), and de Wet (2007) who state that all the academic debate on violence in schools is, to a large extent, concentrated on three clearly distinguishable categories of behaviour by learners:

- i. Physical compulsion and physical injury
- ii. Verbal aggression and mental cruelty
- iii. Bullying.

Most information on violence in both South Africa and overseas has been gathered through educator ratings of learner behaviour and through self-reporting learner questionnaires (Holt & Keyes, 2004; Juvonen, 2003; Pakaslahti & Kelikangas-Järvinen, 2000). These are very reliable or dependable methods of gathering data on school violence as this information comes directly from observers, victims, and perpetrators of violence themselves. These different informants complement each other as they observe violence from different angles. However, the human element can distort the validity of most data as people tend to either deny or falsify facts.

Van Oostrum (2006) states that the rate of acts of sexual violence, and acts of verbal and physical violence involving firearms rose in South African schools between the years 1999 and 2006 . Most of these acts although had been occurring in other periods, went unreported in many areas. However, given the high statistics of violence in South African communities, violence in the schools comes as no surprise at all. This same violence is imported from the communities into the schools. Hence most of the violence in South African schools is learned violence. Learners reproduce the violence they observe everyday in their homes and schools (Bennett, 2000). Also given the high statistics of domestic violence in South African communities, violence in the schools comes as a direct repercussion. The micro-system is riddled with violence producing individuals who have no patience with the social code of conduct.

Another argument is that teachers as products of the micro-system themselves tend to carry violence to learners in the schools (Mwamwenda, 2004). There have been reports of teacher-to-learner violence in the schools. Teachers have inflicted pain on learners and possibly contributed to the rising learner drop-outs from school citing demoralisation and victimisation by both teachers and bullies (de Wet, 2006). The problem with violence from teachers is that it turns schools into torture chambers eroding the respect the learner has for these caregivers.

2.3 THE CHAOS THEORY AND THE CONDITIONS THAT PROMOTE VIOLENCE

To explain the nature and occurrence of violence in a school set up Sullivan et al (2004) present a theory called 'the chaos theory'. It states that:

- a) There is no order in which violence can occur.
- b) No one can predict when an act of violence is going to happen in a school set up.
- c) The number of perpetrators and victims is never fixed and
- d) No one can really know who the real victims and perpetrators are.

This means that there is no distinct pattern or exact order in which violence occurs. Prediction is mere speculation. Despite the contradiction it offers to efforts put in many school safety programmes, the chaos theory advocates for alertness all the time one has to deal with violence. Many school safety programmes formulated after the Columbian shootings in the USA (Wikipedia, 2009; Christie et al, 2005; Pottinger, 2007; Wasley et al, 2000; Twemlow, 2002; Klonsky, 2002) advocate for predictions of violent behaviour. Drawing from the chaos theory these programmes advocate for prevention more than reversing violence.

The chaos theory also implies that anyone in a violent society can be either a victim or a perpetrator at any given time. Violence is not restricted to race, class, and gender. Violence in most of the time is unpredictable because the most unsuspected can turn violent any time.

Sullivan et al (2004) identifies three groups that constitute the violence triangle;

- a) the bystanders or passive observers,

- b) victims or survivors
- c) Perpetrators.

Most victims and observers never report to an adult because of the fear of further retribution (Sullivan et al, 2004; Kinnear, 1995; Mills et al, 2001). This contributes to the unpredictability of acts of violence and there perpetual cycle because no one will know where and when violence will occur.

2.4 TRADITIONAL THEORIES OF EXPLAINING VIOLENCE

There are two types of theories that explain the occurrence of violence or aggression within an individual and society; these are violence and reaction theories and violence and action theories. These explain triggers of violence and their nature.

2.4.1 VIOLENCE AND REACTION THEORIES

2.4.1.1 THEORY OF SOCIAL DISCONTENT

The theory of discontent analyses society and class struggles. It tries to link social problems with political and economic frustrations (Muro-Ruiz, 2002). This theory claims that people's actions are driven by socio-economic disillusionment. If people are dissatisfied they are bound to speak through action such as violence. Hence Muro-Ruiz (2002) argues that violence must be regarded as a symptom of disillusionment and frustration rather than a problem itself. The years of apartheid and colonialism in South Africa and the whole of Africa saw the use of violence as a reaction against colonialism. The current years are seeing the disillusionment of the people by the liberators who claimed they would resolve all the problems that the black man was facing. People are still unemployed and living in informal settlements. According to the Household Survey (2009) 20% of the population still cannot afford basic food. It is such disillusionment and frustration by care-givers that lead to violence.

In apartheid years violence in the schools was blamed on socio-political problems. Like in the apartheid years violence is still imported into the school from the frustrated larger society. Children from economically-deprived families cannot be expected to

have the same temperaments with children from families that are economically able (Nzimande and Thusi, 1998).

2.4.1.2 FRUSTRATION - AGGRESSION THEORY

The frustration-aggression theory (Muro-Ruiz, 2002) explains how instinctively frustration precedes violence. Like the social discontent theory this theory emphasises that violence is a reaction to frustration. Despite its assertion that violence is born of nature more than it is born of nurturing, this theory acknowledges the impact of social complexities as a factor that produces frustration. Children frustrated by poor backgrounds and poor school performance are bound to be more aggressive than those that are academically gifted and those that come from backgrounds without socio-economic strains. This theory is explained in detail with special reference to home and school attachment (*cc-chapter 3*).

2.4.2 VIOLENCE AND ACTION THEORIES

2.4.2.1 SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Social Learning theorists (Bandura, 1973; Mwamwenda, 2005; Collishaw et al, 2004; Mohr, 2006) believe that violence is action that is learnt through observation (*cc-chapter 3*). They emphasise on violence as action brought by mere conscious or unconscious aping of violent tendencies of those who are role models in the society (Muro-Ruiz, 2002). These can either be parents at home or teachers or peers at school. Media has also been brought by media theorists as responsible for changes in the behaviour of adolescents. Bandura (1983, 2001) argues that violence can be reinforced by various stimuli in society in as much as it can be reduced by the same. This theory helps to explain why some adolescents are prone to violence while others are not. It also does explain the impact that the environment has on an individual.

2.4.2.2 COGNITIVE BEHAVIOURAL THEORY

This theory emphasises on individual interpretation and adoption of certain behaviours as norms (Allen et al, 2003). People perceive situations differently and make decisions from different frames of references. Those from violent cultures might regard violence as an instrument of achieving self-esteem while those from non-

violent societies might regard it as rebellion. Violence is regarded as an action that comes from various cognitive processes.

This theory's weakness is in its assumption that cognitive processes are independent of social pressures. People's reasoning is guided by trends and beliefs in the society. Homes and upbringing shape people's reasoning and actions. People reason in a way they were taught to reason; hence society's bases of socialisation play a major role in shaping people's cognitive processes.

2.4.2.3 STRAIN THEORY

This theory popularised by Robert Merton (1938) stresses that by nature people have a tendency to try achieving the good of society through means that are usually socially unacceptable because of the mere existence of clear contrasts in society; riches and poverty are juxtaposed just as injustice and justice are. Hence, violence is used by many as a cross-over mechanism. Some might harm those whom they perceive as economically able merely as a way of attaining self-fulfilment.

However, the weakness of this theory is that it assumes that members of society are always worrying about the future achievement and social struggles. Another assumption is that violence always has a point; most violence in our schools is pointless or unprovoked. This theory ignores other factors that influence learners' behaviour such as the influence of home and school.

2.4.2.4 DIFFERENTIAL ASSOCIATION THEORY

The differential association theory is a brain child of Sutherland (1974). In this theory Sutherland states that violence is a product of social interaction as people strive to attain group acceptance. Many adolescents use violence as initiation into social grouping. This tendency is common with boys who believe that violence is either a way of being 'cool' or an initiation into manhood (Klewin, Tillmann & Weingart, 2003).

This theory assumes that learners exist only in the peers' society. It does also ignore macro issues that control people's attitudes; homes, schools and cultures play a major role in people's lives.

2.4.2.5 THE SOCIAL CONTROL THEORY

Hirschi, et al (2005) claim that norms, involvement, and beliefs are social instruments for controlling individuals' tendencies to deviate from social norms. It proposes that people's relationships, commitments, values, norms, and beliefs encourage them not to break the law. The theory emphasises on people being taught the importance of social values as a way of controlling their criminal behaviour. Hence, the social control theory defines deviance as action caused by the absence of strong social mechanisms (Bergen, 2008). It argues that attachment to strong social institutions like home, school, and church, can enhance conformity to conventional morality. Usually schools with institutions like Scripture Union tend to have learners who conform to conventional morality.

The problem with this theory is that it assumes that all social norms and beliefs are static. Cultures and their norms are dynamic and there is no way in which individuals can be bound or regulated by continually changing norms. What restrained people from deviance many years ago cannot be as effective today as it was long ago (Daniel, 2000). That is why the rigorous and disciplinarian methods of mission schools can no longer curb the prevalence of deviance in the schools.

2.4.3 THE ATTACHMENT THEORY: AN EMERGING WAY OF EXPLAINING VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR

The attachment theory emphasises the importance of caregivers in a child's life (Kobak & Madsen, 2008). It proposes the strengthening of bonds between the child and the caregiver. The theory states that the bond between the child and the caregiver regulates the prevalence of acts of deviance. Attachment styles (cc. Chapter 3) are determined by how close the child is to the caregivers (Allen et al, 2003). These caregivers can be either parents or schools. The theory assumes that those children who are not securely attached tend not to be committed to social institutions that socialised them (Main, 1999; Kobak & Madsen, 2008). There is a close relationship between the Social Control Theory and the attachment theory. They both assume that social institutions have power to regulate people's behaviour.

Hence this study will relate to the attachment theory as both a regulatory and social control theory.

2.5 SURVEY OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE OVERSEAS

Studies in the United States have identified a rapid rise in aggression and acts of violence amongst adolescents (particularly in grades 9 to 12) in the year 2009 (CDC, 2010). 11.1% of the sample reported being in a physical fight on school property in the 12 months preceding the survey. 15.1% of male students and 6.7% of female students reported being in a physical fight on school property in the 12 months preceding the survey. 5.0% did not go to school on one or more days in the 30 days preceding the survey because they felt unsafe at school or on their way to or from school. 5.6% reported carrying a weapon (gun, knife or club) on school property on one or more days in the 30 days preceding the survey. 7.7% reported being threatened or injured with a weapon on school property one or more times in the 12 months preceding the survey (CDC, 2010b).

Anderson et al. (2001) also state that less than one percent of all homicides in the United States occur either on school grounds, or on the way to and from school. More than half of the incidents were preceded by either verbal or physical threats right on the school ground. The Centre for Disease Control (2008) adds that between the years 1992 and 2006, 116 learners were killed in separate incidents all over USA. Despite the fact that this was a great decrease compared to other periods, the rate was significantly higher for male students in secondary schools, and students in central cities (CDC, 2008).

Most school-associated homicides between 1999 and 2006 included gunshot wounds (65%), stabbing or cutting (27%), and beating (12%) (CDC, 2008). 31.5% of adolescents reported being in a physical fight in the 12 months before the survey; the prevalence was higher among males (39.3%) than females (22.9%). 17.5% of adolescents reported carrying a weapon (gun, knife or club) on one or more days in the 30 days preceding the survey. 5.9% of adolescents carried a gun on one or more days in the 30 days preceding the survey. Males were more likely than females to carry a weapon (27.1% versus 7.1%) on one or more days in the 30 days preceding the survey. Males were also more likely than females to carry a gun on one or more days in the 30 days preceding the survey (9.8% versus 1.7%). This brings the

concept that being male is a predictor of violence in most schools in the Western and Africa societies.

Hence juveniles in the USA accounted for 16% of all violent crime arrests and 26% of all property crime arrests in 2008 and at least 1,280 juveniles were arrested for murder, 3,340 for forcible rape, and 56,000 for aggravated assault (Puzzanchera, 2009).

Wikipedia (2010) and Angels of Columbine (2010) have reported more than ten incidents of extreme physical school violence which occurred in the USA, Europe, and Asia between 2009 and 2010. These have exposed the impact of the failure by home and school to combat adolescent violence. The following are sampled anecdotes from a report by the Angels of Columbine.

2.5.1 CAROLINUM HIGH SCHOOL INCIDENT (SEPTEMBER, 2009).

In Ansbach, Bavaria, Germany, a boy attacked and wounded a teacher, several eighth grade learners, and a grade ten girl with an axe after his Molotov chemical explosives he threw at them failed to explode. The incident was stopped by the police after a tip off by another learner who pulled off a fire alarm. They shot the boy five times on the chest and wounded him when he confronted them with his axe.

2.5.2 DON BOSCO TECHNICAL INSTITUTE/HIGH SCHOOL (15 JANUARY, 2010)

In Rosemead, California, on the 15th January, 2010, a fifteen year old boy at Don Bosco Technical institute, a catholic institution, stabbed the principal with a pocket knife during a meeting the principal had with the boy. The boy was taken into custody.

2.5.3 C. W. JEFFERYS COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, CANADA (MAY 27, 2007)

Two Canadian boys aged 17 were accused of murdering a 15 year old boy by shooting him in the school premises.

2.5.4 SADR CITY (BAGHDAD) ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BLAST

A bomb exploded and killed six learners in an elementary school in Sadr City in Baghdad, Iraq. The perpetrators could have been learners themselves.

2.6 SURVEY OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

There are reports of school violence in most countries in Southern Africa (i.e. South Africa, Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe (de Wet, 2007). South Africa is one of the countries with the highest records of school violence in the world. According to statistics published by the South African Institute of Race Relations (2009) on school violence, South African schools are the most dangerous in the world. The data for the survey was drawn inter alia from several media reports on shootings, stabbings, rapes, and robberies. As a result of this growing number of cases of violence in the schools South African schools have been ranked last in school safety. The statistics were based on a survey done in South Africa and in schools in Europe, USA, Asia, and Australia. Only 23% of South African learners said they are safe at school. Citing the Department of Education statistics, the institute states that 24% of schools in South Africa have no burglar bars, 35% have no security gates, and 80% have no alarms; meaning schools are not protected from unpredictable violence.

Many scholars (De Wet, 2006; Brown, 2006; Prinsloo, 2006; UNESCO Courier, 2001; De Wet, 2003; Vally et al, 1999; Finsterlin, 1999; Nzimande, 1993; Van den Aardweg, 1987) have written to confirm this violence in rural and urban South African schools. Most of the violence occurs in schools situated in economically deprived areas such as townships and informal settlements (De Wet, 2006; Brown, 2006; Prinsloo, 2006). Some places that are also fast catching up with these areas are rural areas. It has become clear that this violence could be a product of poor upbringing, poverty, and poor school conditions (Nzimande, 1993). Considering the state of families in South Africa attachment disorders can be related to the violence in the school system (Karcher & Lee, 2002).

Neser et al. (2003) found that 60.9% of the 207 respondents in a 2003 survey conducted in Gauteng indicated that they experienced violence during the 2002 school year. According to the survey, boys in most schools in Gauteng are more

likely to fall victim of threats, robbery, and assault than girls whereas girls are likely to be sexually abused at any given scenario (The Mercury, 21 August, 2008; Prinsloo, 2006; Dunne et al 2003; Gender Equity Task Team, 1997).

Teachers and learners report high incidence of violence in several South African schools every year (De Wet, 2003; De Wet, 2006; Nzimande, 1993). The media has also been reporting a lot of incidents of violence in the schools. A case in point is that of the sword attack of a 16 year old learner by another learner at a Krugersdorp high school near Johannesburg (The Mercury, 21 August, 2008). This incident confirms that school violence transcends boundaries of poverty to affect all schools.

In the Western Cape a principal was shot on the school premises by unidentified assailants (Despatch, 2009). This could have been done by children who lacked connectedness to school. Teachers too are assaulted by learners in the school premises. This indicates clearly that some learners do not care much about school (De Wet, 2006). In most cases half of the cases of violence in schools across the country go unreported (Elliot et al., 1998; Peltzer, 1999). Victims of school violence are always afraid of either reporting or interacting freely with others lest this attracts more violence on them (Byrne, 1994; Elliot, 1991). Like the victims, the perpetrators of violence, and the passive observers remain in a 'code of silence' (Byrne, 1994; Elliot, 1991).

Social relations among learners become strained on the school ground and classrooms as a result of tensions probably caused by poor attachment to school and home. Researchers like Espelage, et al (2000) and Finsterlin (1999) further state that those students who fear attack at school are more likely to drop out of school before time. Consequently, the learners' performance drops (Cairns and Neckarman, 1989. Grissom and Shepard, 1989). All this begins as a feeling of disconnection from school either as a result of lack of safety and security from perpetrators of violence or as a result of perceived hatred from teachers and from the significant other (Hallinan, 2008).

KwaZulu-Natal has the highest number of incidence of school violence and the Eastern Cape has the lowest statistics (Nzimande, 1993; The Mercury, 21 August, 2008). Coincidentally this is the region with the highest HIV infections in the country making it the region with either the highest number of single parents or orphans (The

Mercury, 21 August, 2008). This however contradicts Corene de Wet (2003) who states that Eastern Cape has the highest incidence of school violence in South Africa. According to the Dispatch (2008) there are some isolated schools in the Eastern Cape that have found themselves ranked in the top ten dangerous schools in South Africa. One such school is Kei Road High School in the Amathole District. Stabbings and shootings have been reported in this school. This school has been on national news on various occasions.

De Wet (2003, 2006) has conducted a lot of research on violent schools in the Free State and in the Eastern Cape. She has reported alongside others (Baloyi, 2002; Somniso, 2001) on incidence of rape, stabbings, torture, and killings in the schools. Learners have been reported as the main perpetrators of this violence (Burton, 2008).

Although the majority of boys are the usual victims and perpetrators of violence (Neser et al., 2003) the report on gender violence (Wolpe, 1996) states that most of the violence experienced in South African schools is directed at girls. This assertion makes sexual harassment and violence the most common problem in educational institutions in South Africa (Wolpe, Gender Equity Task Team, 1996). The Gender Equity Task Team (GETT) (1997) also reported that one in every three school girls in Johannesburg has experienced sexual violence at school. The UNESCO Courier (2001) further states that one out of every four girls has been sexually abused or raped in most Western Cape schools.

This violence seems to cut across racial and cultural lines forcing many girls to drop out of school to escape the violence (Human Rights Watch, 2001). However only 36% of the school girls that experience violence at school report their cases (Rape Crisis Statistics: www.rapecrisis.org.za, Human Rights Watch, 2001).

Girls are attacked in school toilet facilities, in empty classrooms, on corridors, in hostel rooms and dormitories (Prinsloo, 2006; Dunne et al, 2003; The Mercury, 21 August, 2008; CADRE/Department of Health, 2003; Human Rights Watch, 2001). This makes the girl child the major victim of school violence. To make it worse most of this gender violence in the developing world like South Africa goes unreported (Dunne et al, 2003). These girls are subjected to physical, emotional, and verbal

abuse in the schools leading many to poor performance, trauma and isolation (Brown, 2006; Prinsloo, 2006).

As a result of sexual violence HIV and AIDS is increasing in the schools in South Africa to epidemic proportions (Prinsloo, 2006; Department of Education, 2000; CADRE/Department of Health, 2003). The Department of Health (2003) identified sexual violence (forced sex) as being responsible for the rising infection rates among learners in schools in South Africa. The incidence rate among girls and young women is more than three times that of boys and men (Wolpe, 1996). This violence in the schools undermines the efforts of government to 'emancipate women' (Nelson Mandela in Prinsloo, 2006). However there have been very few reports on this violence to the South Africa Police (Neser et al, 2003). Researchers have to rely mainly on the media. However the interest in researching on violence and bullying in the schools has been increasing since the year 2000 (Booyens, 2003; Olivier, 2003; Smit, 2003; Bezuidenhout, 2002; Vorster, 2002).

This gender violence in the schools might be a direct result of the increasing domestic violence currently being experienced in South African homes. Probably young boys learn the violence from their homes and then carry it to schools. Hence this proves that deviance is a result of poor attachment to both school and home (Cant, 2006; Lohman et al, 2007; Rasmussen et al, 2005).

As a result of the prevalence of violence in the South African schools, the Department of Education (1998) has put its weight behind campaigns for safe schools by stating as a matter of policy that every learner has the right to "non-violence and the freedom and security of person". This has been a way in which the government of South Africa has admitted that there is violence in the schools. Probably this is the time the department and central government considered total social construction to rectify problems of school violence; taking a holistic approach to deal with societal problems at large to solve school violence.

Using a sample of 280 learners in Lesotho schools de Wet (2007) found that there are reports of stabbings and physical fights mainly among boys. Some high school witnesses cited in de Wet (2007)'s Lesotho school violence survey which uses an adapted version of Joshi and Kaschak's (1998) violence and trauma questionnaire

for adolescents, narrate tales of student fatal fights and stabbings over soccer balls and over rival soccer teams like South African Kaizer Chiefs and Orlando Pirates.

The Swaziland Global School-based Student Health Survey (2003) reported that in Swaziland 26% of adolescents got involved in physical fights every year. 36% were bullied at school every month.

The Zambian Global School-based Student Health Survey (2004) reported that around 67% of Zambian learners experience violence in schools every month. 55% get involved in physical fights and sustain serious injuries every year.

2.7 TRADITIONAL EMPHASIS OF RESEARCH ON SCHOOL VIOLENCE

Many scholars have done research on violence but they have concentrated on different aspects of school violence such as forms of violence, educator-targeted violence, gender based violence and causes and effects of violence. These different aspects have shaped different definitions of school violence. These perspectives have become as many as the interventions. None of these aspects consider the problem of home attachment and school bonding as being a driving force in triggering or regulating violence.

2.7.1 FORMS OF VIOLENCE

Corene de Wet (2005 and 2006) as well, has researched extensively on bullies in the Free State Schools and identified various forms of violence. Corene de Wet goes into detail on the aspect of violence as having impact on individual students' social lives, and in general anxiety-withdrawal disorder (Coie & Dodge, 1998; Woolfolk, 2005). She also dwells much on identifying forms of school violence like Neser et al (2004) do. These only list types of violence in the schools and say nothing about the correlation between various forms of violence and attachment to home and school.

Scholars like de Wet (2006) speak about bullying as having a negative impact on the school climate. According to Prinsloo (2005) the school climate should allow every learner to have the right to human dignity. The human dignity also includes the right to associate with anyone and the right to participate in the governance of a school

(by being monitors, prefects, captains, e.t.c). Within the educational environment there are many perpetrators of violence (teachers included) and many defenseless people. Unless the victims are protected, they will be isolated socially, and excluded from participating in the daily school activities. However, it is not clear to what extent this can happen.

2.7.2 EDUCATOR-TARGETED VIOLENCE

Prinsloo (2005) and Fontana (1995) have dealt at length with educator targeted bullying while Varnam (2001) has researched extensively on educator –on- learner bullying. All these have analyzed statistics on either the causes of violence, the nature of violence or the psychological impact of violence on perpetrators and victims. However, there has been silence on the relations of attachment to home and school to various forms of violence.

2.7.3 GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

Dunne et al (2003) in 'Gender and violence in schools' have written extensively on gender-based violence in schools. They identify the types of violence and its perpetrators. They identify girls and lady teachers as the only victims of this violence and boys and male teachers as the usual culprits. Again these researchers are silent on the correlation between attachment to home and school and gender-based violence.

2.8 STATISTICS FROM PREVIOUS RESEARCHES IN THE EASTERN CAPE, SOUTH AFRICA

This is based on the statistics gathered by Professor Corene de Wet in her 2003 research on forms of school violence in the Eastern Cape. This research was only using teachers as sources of information and not based on observation. Hence there might be bias on the side of the informants as this research could have been misinterpreted as a threat to their nationalism. Corene de Wet is a white professor in the University of Free State and the informants are Xhosa. The influence of apartheid

is still clear in some quotas in South Africa and this can interfere with results of any research conducted among black people by a white person and vice versa.

2.8.1 PERPETRATORS OF VIOLENCE IN THE SCHOOLS IN THE EASTERN CAPE

TABLE. 2.8.1.1 PERPETRATORS OF VIOLENCE

PERPETRATOR	FREQUENCY %
EDUCATORS	5.70
LEARNERS; BOYS	50.78
LEARNERS; GIRLS	4.66
NON-EDUCATOR STAFF	8.81
OUTSIDERS	30.05
TOTAL	100

(de Wet, 2006)

Table 2.1 shows the perpetrators of violence in a given school in the Eastern Cape.

Table. 2.1 indicates clearly that the leading perpetrators of violence in the Eastern Cape are learners with a total of 55.44 % followed by community members. This implies that more than 55% of violence in the schools in the Eastern Cape is committed by learners.

2.8.2 PERCEPTIONS OF POSSIBLE REASONS FOR LEARNER VIOLENCE IN EASTERN CAPE

Table. 2.8.2.1 REASONS/CAUSES OF VIOLENCE

REASON	FREQUENCY %
Drug and alcohol abuse	68.37
Poverty	66.51

The breakdown of family life	65.58
The criminal justice system is too lenient towards perpetrators of violence	54.89
Educators' attitude towards learners	62.79
Low learner self-esteem	59.07
Inadequate learner participation in school rule making	65.12
Peer pressure	54.88
Lack of discipline in our schools	60.93
The availability of weapons	58.14
Emotional problems of learners	53.95
Gang influence	55.35
Inadequate learner participation in school rule making	60.46
Learner frustration associated with learning disabilities	53.02
Influence of television	54.88
Political conflict	46.98
Autocratic management style of the school principal	41.86
Incompetent teachers	44.18
The legacy of apartheid	37.67
a) School is too large	40
Just for the fun of it	25.12
Revenge against an educator(s)	33.49

De Wet (2006)

This is a thorough analysis of individual causes of violence and their magnitude as variables independent of each other.

2.9 PERSPECTIVES ON REINFORCEMENT OF NEGATIVE BEHAVIOUR

2.9.1 SOCIAL THEORY: HOW SOCIAL PROBLEMS REINFORCE NEGATIVE BEHAVIOUR AND RELATIONS

Grand and Gomez (1990) attribute the violence of children at schools to socio-economic distress. Their assertion is based on the old adage that a hungry man is an angry man. The sociological theory states that children learn through observations and imitation (Berton & Stabb, 1996; Van den Aardweg, 1987). Children do what they always see. Those from frustrated and violent environments will always reflect the frustration and the violence of their communities right in the classrooms.

Social pressures like poverty make children feel inadequate and violence then comes as compensation for their losses by fighting those who provoke them. Grand and Gomez (1996) writing on American children state that violence is symptomatic of failure by home and schools to attend to real needs of the children. They cite issues such as broken families, illegitimate births, drastic drop in hours of parental care, poverty and general academic failures as main causes of distress among teenagers. Single parenthood creates a feeling of insecurity and isolation in many children leading to unruly behaviour (Vally et al, 1999).

When governments and families fail to make reasonable investments in children, children rebel (Haveman and Wolfe, 1994). This rebellion has been identified as violence. Learners take their frustrations out on other learners and on teachers. Their violence is a way of seeking attention from those in authority (Vally et al, 1999; Mwamwenda, 1995). At times it is a way of seeking approval by those they perceive are trend setters. This will explain why generally well behaved children would all of a sudden vandalize property or turn on other children and hysterically assault them.

Hence, if violence is an expression of dissatisfaction or a learned behaviour learners can still learn it from other learners in the school. As a result of this perceived frustration all the groups in the school (passive observers, victims and perpetrators) are in danger of learning and relearning violence from other learners. The school ends up with gangs that want to experiment with violence and those that want to defend themselves (Azrin et al, 1965). Most of those who want to defend themselves do not believe that teachers can do anything to stop the cycle of violence (Sullivan et al, 2004). In short, those that learn violence from wider society bring it to the school

society which in turn learns it and relearns it. Unless a meaningful intervention is brought up by the schools or researchers the frequency of school violence in schools will continue increasing.

2.9.2 CONFLICT THEORY: HOW SOCIAL CONFLICTS REINFORCE NEGATIVE BEHAVIOUR RELATIONS

Perold and Butler (1990) writing on the state of apartheid education in South Africa, present the conflict theorists' claim that schools cannot be reformed without a drastic social change. Without changing attitudes and socio- economic disorders in the greater society, problems in the schools (in this case violence) can never be solved. This assertion although seemingly pessimistic, suggests that violence in the schools is imported from the greater society (Berton & Stabb, 1996; Besag, 1989; Mwamwenda T, 1995; Vally et al, 1999).

The theory argues that societies with ghetto gangs usually create schools with gangs. Conflict theorists like Perold and Butler (1990) argue that schools themselves are to blame for the violent conflicts in society because they perpetuate them. Schools create class conflicts by creating achievers, under achievers, bankers, lawyers, general workers and other ranks of society. In short, these argue that answers to the question of violence will come from the school system. The school stakeholders must devise a system of control to deal with violence and other issues (Van der Westhuizen, 1991).

This theory also does explain that the school is a stratified society. There are classes and different levels. There are prefects or students representatives and other learners. Most of the times these perpetrators of violence are rebelling against the school society and its stratification. They are communicating disapproval through violence. They send fear to other learners to prove that social structures can not control them. These learners attack those in positions of authority by either picking a direct quarrel with them to embarrass them, or by directly abusing those the prefects are supposed to protect. Their supporters regard them as 'freedom fighters' and these are the supporters that will never risk their lives by being witnesses (Berton &

Stabb, 1996. Sullivan et al, 2004; Mills et al, 2001; O'Connor, 1992; Morgan et al, 1988).

Conflict theorists like Perold and Butler (1990) advocate for a total change of social structures in favour of those that bring 'people power' and justice. May be that is the reason why there has been a drive towards the removal of the prefect system in government schools in South Africa in favour of Students Representative Councils (DoE, 2009). Prefects are imposed on learners by teachers whereas the SRC is elected by the learners themselves to express people power and learner-involvement in the running of the schools.

However, Perold and Butler's proposed change is just a semantic change because we will always have leaders in the society. Socialist leaders themselves are a class on their own. Hence, if social stratification causes violence then there will never be an end to violence in our society.

2.9.3 INCOMPETENCE THEORY: HOW INCOMPETENCE OF THE EDUCATOR REINFORCES NEGATIVE BEHAVIOUR AND RELATIONS

Kerns and Stevens (1996) state that incompetence of educators and their awkward behaviour creates questions in the learners. When Learners sense these inadequacies among educators they defy the authority of these teachers causing tensions and hostilities (Mwamwenda, 1995). Relations become tense in the school.

Disruptive behavior always follows after the defiance of the authority of incompetent educators. The school or class remains divided with some learners backing the 'rebels' while others are backing the educator. As a result of this division social relations are affected. Friends are lost and regular physical clashes are witnessed in the school (Kerns and Stevens, 1996; Landberg, 2005). Some innocent bystanders become targets of both groups as the recruitment drive gathers pace. Those who refuse to align themselves are regarded either as 'weak' or 'traitors' (Kerns & Stevens, 1996). Most of the time those that are regarded as weak are targeted for victimization. Some victimization includes isolation from the peer groups (Landberg, 2005).

Landberg (2005) states that teachers must display competence and knowledge of their fields of study to reduce resistance and incidence of protest violence. Most

cases of violence on educators have arisen after an argument with the learners over the method of solving a problem.

Autocratic behaviour by the educators (which is usually caused by incompetence or lack of crisis management skills) can also lead to resistance and violence on them (Prinsloo in Landberg, 2005). Worse still, if educators openly show that they love some learners more than others, there is bound to be perpetual violence in the schools. Other learners will declare war on teachers' 'favourite' learners by either assaulting them or isolating them. In other ways the educators' conduct and credentials have an impact on learners' bonding to the school and to their social relations.

Hence it is important for educators to adopt a human relations approach in dealing with learners to encourage an environment of collaboration and cooperation (Grand and Gomez, 1996). This will promote peace in the schools by stopping violence. This will more than anything else promote school bonding. The knowledge of this approach by teachers can guide the creation of intervention programmes in the schools. This is based on the assumption that learners who are violent are trying to reach out to anyone who can listen.

2.9.4 LEARNING RESTRAINTS THEORY: HOW LEARNING RESTRAINTS REINFORCE NEGATIVE BEHAVIOUR AND RELATIONS

Kapp (1991) states that children with learning restraints like disability or dyslexia normally end up having behavioural problems. Their constant failure to measure up with other students makes them lose self-confidence. When children lose self-confidence they develop poor interpersonal relationships and deviate from the norms (Van den Aardweg, 1987). Most of these children disconnect from the school and its activities because of perceived isolation. Usually these children also resort to self-centered personal philosophies to preserve themselves. Some learners turn to weird religions like Satanism and occult to get acceptance (Kapp, 1991).

Psychologists like Gibson, (1978) state that in most cases perceived isolation and abuse can lead to sexual pervasion as some learners seek to deliberately become antisocial; he claims that some adolescents become involved in gay relationships

either to spite social institutions or to appease those who are perceived to be strong and influential. Violence becomes a way of sending a message to those they perceive are interfering in their domain. Their victims could be either educators or other students. At times violence becomes a way in which they force members of any social group to accept either them or join them (Kapp, 1991).

2.9.5 THE RECAPITULATION THEORY: HOW ADOLESCENCE REINFORCES NEGATIVE BEHAVIOUR IN RELATIONS

The recapitulation theory, a brainchild of Stanley (1846-1924) blames all deviant behaviour on the emotional and biological aspect of adolescence which he calls 'time of storms and stress'. This is the period between thirteen and twenty years of age. During adolescence there is a lot of emotional confusion. These 'storms and stresses' are responsible for the violence in the schools. However, this theory whose main blame for adolescent violence is on hormonal and emotional changes does not make it clear why other adolescents do not get unruly or disruptive since they are also going through the same stage (Kerns & Stevens, 1996).

Violence becomes a symbol of initiation into adulthood. These learners begin to battle for control of various territories in the school. Most of the violence is related to gender and sexual violence (Dunne et al, 2003; Mills, 2001; Prinsloo, 2006; Africa Policy E-Journal, 2001). Males will clash to impress the opposite gender and some influential girls tend to align with macho males for protection and prestige (Mills et al, 2001; Sullivan et al, 2004). In simple terms the qualification to get the best of the girls in the school is perceived by boys to be violence. The weaker of the boys serve the macho as armour bearers.

This is similar to the Freudian Theory, which states that violence is done to promote a specific sexual ego in the individual. In short, violence is driven by individual pride (Mwamwenda, 2004). Hence, in high school there are two extreme males; the violent (domineering) and the calm (passive). The domineering male is regarded as strong and as a hero, whereas the calm is regarded as weak and scared. The majority of the girls would like to date the domineering male (Mills et al, 2001; Sullivan et al, 2004). He sets the trends in the school and provides security to those who appease. To be

safe in the school one must appease him; bring him lunch or buy him anything at the school tuck shop.

2.9.6 PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY: HOW HEREDITY AND SOCIAL PRESSURES REINFORCE NEGATIVE BEHAVIOUR AND RELATIONS

Psychosocial theorists like Erik Erikson (1959) and Mwamwenda, (2004) believe that maturation interacts with the environment to produce human development. In short, personality traits and social influence contribute toward the development of a social character. Many children of an aggressive nature get an approval from society to go ahead. If society values violence as a strength that every man must have, the naturally aggressive meet the criteria without a problem.

This is where the influence of mass media comes in (Bennett, 2000). Heroes in television and film inspire the naturally violent to perpetrate violence in the schools (Berton & Stabb, 1996; Mwamwenda, 2004). This theory states that there is atavistic nature in every individual and violent social norms nurture this nature by accepting it as normal (Mills et al, 2001). For example the belief that men should be strong is perceived by many to mean men must be violent (O'Connor, 1992; Morgan et al, 1988.). This is why violence in the schools can never end because society accepts the violence that boys commit as normal proof of manhood (Mills et al, 2001; O'Connor, 1992; Morgan et al, 1988). However social control theories like the attachment theory stress the importance of orienting adolescents towards bases of socialization and social norms. The social norms and code of conduct can guide an individual and reduce the occurrence of violence in the communities.

2.10 PERSONALITY THEORIES AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE

To understand why learners behave differently even though they experience similar pressures at home and at school one has to study various models of personalities to understand why and how individual learners conduct their lives and even relate with other people the way they do. These personality theories explain why individuals do what they do under various situations such as social pressure (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982). Meaningful interventions can only come as a result of understanding each individual in the school and at home. Personalities are the centre of any behavioural

problem. Rectification of any problem must begin from the personality. Sibaya et al (1994) identify four groups of personality theories:

- a) Dispositional theories
- b) Psychodynamic theories
- c) Behaviour-learning theories
- d) Humanistic theories

2.10.1 DISPOSITIONAL THEORIES

These theories claim that personalities are inborn or inherited. They claim that genetic contribution plays a big role in character development (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982). This implies that aggressive people never learn aggression but inherit it from their parents. This is also similar to trait theories that state that physique is directly related to character. This is where the belief that tall people and short people are likely to be bullies comes from. This is related to the assertions that children with a disability are bound to be vindictive to whoever they perceive is deriding them for what they are (Sullivan et al, 2004; Mills et al, 2001; Morgan et al, 1988).

To explain why learners behave in different ways Allport (1924) one of the proponents of this theory states that personalities although in- born are dynamic. Depending on age and stimulus each personality may change. People do not remain aggressive all their lives. Bullies or aggressors in a school usually outgrow their aggression. If one does not outgrow it one usually becomes worse. If an aggressive trigger is present the aggressive nature becomes worse.

These theories suggest that no child can learn violence if it is not in him or her. However there are two traits that these theories emphasise; common traits and individual traits (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982). Common traits are those traits that are shared by many members of a group whereas individual traits are those traits unique to an individual. While violence can be a usual trait to high school adolescents individual adolescents may be violent in different ways.

2.10.2 PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORIES

This school of thought was championed by Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) who stated that personality is determined by unconscious mental life and conflicts. The conflict

lies in individual feelings leading to internalised pride which usually explode as aggression in individuals. This conflict comes as a result of the existence of three personality structures; the id, ego and the superego (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982). These are influenced by five inevitable psychosexual stages;

- i. the oral period,
- ii. the anal period,
- iii. the phallic period,
- iv. the latency period,
- v. the genital period

In this theory sexuality and inner conflicts play a great role in the development of the personality (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982). Despite its failure to explain practical behavioural problems, this theory provides an understanding of the stage of adolescence and the violent behaviour that comes with it (Woolfolk, 1995). According to Freudian theorists (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982; Woolfolk, 1995) all violence in any individual can be linked to the inherent atavistic or instinctive nature of beings (Bushman & Anderson, 2001) and sexual pressures. These two are dynamic and they make personality dynamic as well. Hence, some individuals either out grow some tendencies or become worse depending on the type of stimuli or triggers around them (Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence, 2007; Hilgard, et al, 1979).

2.10.3 THE BEHAVIOUR-LEARNING THEORIES

These theories base their argument on the study of real observable human behaviour (Sprinthall et al, 1994). They argue that human behaviour is learnt through observation. Society teaches the young to respond to any given stimuli (Hilgard, et al, 1979). Society also has ways of reinforcing any behaviour it considers desirable. If violence is a desirable norm or means of social mobility, members of the group grasp it without a problem. For example if the learners in the school community have violent heroes either at home or at school, many take to violence and relations become strained more often than not because of the tension that violence creates. According to the behaviour- learning theories there are three elements that lead to the development of personality (Hilgard, et al, 1979):

- i. stimulus,
- ii. response, and
- iii. reinforcement

This implies that there is always a social pressure that frustrates children causing them to respond with violence. The violence can then be reinforced by culture or praise from friends. From reinforcement behaviour can be habit. Hence this theory makes it easy for the school partnership to formulate school safety programmes that will stimulate positive responses from the learners.

2.10.4 HUMANISTIC THEORIES

These theories argue that personality is unique because each person perceives things differently from other people. Hence behaviour is an outward manifestation of how individuals perceive life. Personality is a result of individual perception of reality (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982). Each individual has a unique concept of self and concept of morality. To humanists like Carl Rogers (1986) human nature is 'inherently good and every one strives for self-actualisation'. This means that no matter how violent a learner can be deep-down, he or she is striving for acceptance (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982). Hence there is morality in every action.

Humanist theories make it easy for the schools to understand every individual and group to avoid labelling others as 'rebels' and others as 'saints and angels'. There is neither rebel nor saint; all people are normal and deserve to be given a chance (Van Niekerk & Prins, 2001; Bourne & Ekstrand, 1982).

2.11 SCHOOL CULTURE, CONNECTEDNESS AND VIOLENCE

The concept of school culture and climate are based on the broad concept of corporate organisational culture. There is no doubt in saying that every school is an organisation and each organisation has a culture. These schools have various members and groupings such as learners, educators, parents, and the Department of Education. All these partners as members of the school organization live by the same norms, values, assumptions and beliefs. Hence these schools as organisations exert influence on the learner forcing them to either be more or less connected to the school. However school culture aims at enhancing learner connectedness to the school.

Culture is also defined as a sum total of values, norms, beliefs, behaviours and assumptions of members of an organisation (McNamara, 2000; Hall & Hord, 2001). Owens (1987) also describes organisational/school culture as either the norms that inform people what is acceptable and what is not or the philosophy that guides the organisation in dealing with its employees, its clients and its problems.

School culture is also defined as emotional and intangible, individually and socially constructed, evolving over many years, and easily developed and learnt by members of the organisation (McNamara, 2000; Hall & Hord, 2001). In an organisation like a school people are bound together by different mission statements and goals embodying many common aspects which unite the group in many ways; psychology, attitudes, experiences, beliefs, and values that have been passed down for over many years (Mulvaney-Day et al, 2006).

In as much as organizational culture can unite a group through values, norms, and assumptions, it can split a group especially if there are differences in approaches of handling a problem such as school violence.

These values, norms, and assumptions that all these members have in common are good for the organisation. Hence social phenomenon such as violence can only be caused by a feeling of not belonging to the school. As both an internal and external threat to the school as an organisation violence must be managed or controlled effectively (Mulvaney-Day et al, 2006).

However, members of one group should share a similar identity, thought patterns, perceptions and stories (McNamara, 2000). A problem can only arise if deviant behaviour blends in with school culture and lies undetected over the years.

Organisational culture also includes micro politics which is what people in all social situations either think about and compete or manipulate each other for (McNamara, 2000; Hall & Hord, 2001). People have a tendency to compete directly or indirectly for space and influence. In a school staff members and learners compete for positions of power and influence. Bitter battles are waged in the school and most of these battles although normal spill over to the running of the school.

There are some schools that have more tensions than others and they carry this identity throughout their years of operation. Hence school culture is also defined by

Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991) as “the procedures, values and expectations that guide people’s behaviour within an organisation”. If procedures of operation and values of the school do not promote peace there is bound to be a tense climate in the school.

Organisational/school culture is also regarded by the Westminster Institute of Education (1998) as synonymous to school climate although Owens (2004) and McNamara (2000) argue that climate must only be defined in relation to the following register: atmosphere, personality, tone, ethos, and morale. Hence the definition of climate in any school is determined by social relation experiences of all members of the school. Hence social problems as violence in a school can influence social relation experiences of learners in a school by creating tense climates.

Indeed some organisational culture and climate are directly responsible for many negative social problems like violence. Some schools are known for being ‘military’ academies and this attracts rebellion to learners who normally respond with violence to either each other or against the administration. At times learners do not rebel but they learn the violence from the institution and direct it on other learners in the school (Haveman, 1994; Haveman & Wolfe, 1984). Climates that have a lot of distrust always spill over to the learners.

In schools there are various strategies of personal elevation put in place to pursue various interests in the offices and classrooms as well as in the play ground (Owens, 2004). Some of these strategies are formal and some are not. Those that are not formal normally lead to various expressions and conflicts. Aggression or violence is one expression of such strategies used to elevate certain groups above others. Aggression or violence seems to be a way of maintaining social order among many people as it is for the animal kingdom (Card et al, 2008; Bushman & Anderson, 2001).

However, Haplin & Croft (1963) argue that school culture is dynamic and messy and it shifts continually without any distinct order. Hence behaviours in the schools are bound to be different in one given school depending on the phase the school is going through. For example different leadership and different enrolments might influence a change in culture. That is why the degree of violence in any given school differs from stream to stream over the years (Elliot, 1991).

Owens (2004) also argues that organisations are made up of networks of meanings that are both shared and contested. It can be unpredictable considering that most of what culture is, is hidden as an iceberg (Rousseau, 1990; Wilkins & Patterson, 1985). Briefly most aspects of school culture are invisible. They only come in the open during various crises (Hellreigel et al, 2001) and how a school addresses its problems indicates how strong its culture is. Hence all the unforeseen things in an organisation are capable of derailing it. For example the weakness of school culture can either sideline or simply push learners away creating awkward reactions such as violence.

Hellreigel et al's (2001) organisational iceberg theory explains how formal aspects of a school (goals, finances, skills, physical facilities, technology, rules, learners, and organisation design) can be clearly overt while behavioural aspects of a school (attitudes, communication patterns, informal team processes, personalities, conflicts, political behaviour, and underlying competences and skills) can be covert. Hence schools have to be always on the alert to avoid being overtaken by new phenomena. Societal changes whether negative or positive are capable of changing the culture of a school causing learners to be less connected from school than others.

McNamara (2000) discusses two other aspects of school culture; strong culture and weak culture. Strong culture occurs when members of an organisation respond to stimulus because of their alignment to organisational values. They all work towards one goal and regard themselves as co-owners of the organisation. In a strong culture members of the organisation defend the organisation where ever they are. Whenever there is a problem such as violence they all rally behind the leadership and rules of operation to eradicate it. They consider themselves as an embarrassment whenever they go against set rules. Social cohesion is very high when a group adheres to its norms, values, and beliefs. This concurs with the social control theories that emphasise the importance of social codes of behaviour in reducing the prevalence of criminal behaviour.

On the other hand there is weak culture where members have little alignment with organisational values and control must be established through rules and procedures. Unlike in the strong culture scenario, they adhere to individual beliefs and perceptions of the organisation (Rousseau, 1990; Cooper, 1988). Social cohesion is

very weak. In such an organisation or school there is clear evidence of enforcement of rules and regulations. There is visible policing of learners by large numbers of prefects or monitors to see to it that rules are adhered to.

Members of the organisation also clearly have no common goal except for the obvious - attending school. A case in point is when the school and parents do not agree even on a single goal about conducting business. That is why at times a violent climate is both symptomatic of a weak culture and contributing towards creating a weaker culture.

However there are various factors that can threaten a strong culture and destroy social cohesion (Schein, 1992). One of these factors is a climate with tension and fear. When there is tension social relations suffer a lot. In schools with violence tensions are very high and there is poor social cohesion as each individual perceives things differently from others (Rousseau, 1990). Individuals get to think about their own survival and disconnect from group thinking and expectations. Learners that often do so lose their interest in school and engage in deviant behaviour.

2.12 PSYCHO-SOCIAL EFFECTS OF VIOLENCE ON RELATIONS

Herman et al in Adler and Denmark (1995) state that violence is traumatic and it causes dysfunction in victims. However, not only victims are traumatized but passive observers as well. Perpetrators are also traumatized by being involved repeatedly in violence (Becker et al, 1962; Brown, 2009; Martinez & Richters, 1993).

Victims (and observers too) as a result of the trauma relive their experiences through insomnia, nightmares, hallucinations, and bouts of fear (Brown, 2009; Martinez & Richters, 1993). These experiences lead to post-traumatic disorders (PTSD) (Berton & Stabb, 1996; Krueger et al, 2001). However trauma does also vary depending on the degree of the violence experienced (Brown, 2009). For example trauma associated with sexual abuse is potentially more dangerous than that of mere verbal abuse (Brown, 2009; Foa & Tolin, 2006).

Hence victims and observers of extreme violence in the schools normally exhibit more disorders than those who have been victims of mild verbal or emotional abuse

(Cole et al, 2005; Brown, 2009). For example learners that experience stabbings and shootings cannot be expected to behave or interact with others normally. Cole et al (2005) also state that these learners normally exhibit distrust for anyone and they become unsure of the security of the school. They disconnect from their caregivers such as teachers and parents.

As a result of trauma, these learners become less motivated and lose their interpersonal and intrapersonal skills (Kelman, 1978; Cole et al, 2005; Gordon et al, 1997). Such learners end up being confrontational and aggressive just to protect themselves (Gordon et al, 1997; Azrin et al, 1965). They tend to adopt a 'strike-first' attitude towards their peers. They become unpredictable: they develop mood swings and heightened anxiety (Walters & Grusec, 1977; Brown, 2009). They lose interest in friends and even lose self worth and self concept as their participation in social activities in the school dwindles (Kruger & Schalkwyk, 1997; Skinner, 1986.). They withdraw from school sporting teams and decline positions of responsibility to play safe. They become less cooperative and very difficult to deal with (Gordon et al, 1997; Azrin et al, 1965).

The 'strike-first' attitude develops either as an attempt to be accepted in the camp of the perpetrators or as self defence (Skinner, 1986). At the same time Skinner (1986) Kruger & Schalkwyk (1997) concur in that 'violence is a learned behaviour'; violence begets violence. Victims of violence end up being violent themselves as a way of self-defense or as a way of trying to be accepted by the dominant groups. Azrin et al (1965) state that counter-aggression is frequently manifested in the form of fights, and gang formation.

Generally, Skinner (1986), and Eron (1980), state that the problem with violence is that it leads to fear and hostility in the schools. Fear and hostility force people to either live in defensive groups or as ostracized individuals. Children stop playing as they should whereas teachers become nervous during lesson delivery. Perpetrators themselves experience isolation too as other learners try to draw away from them (Skinner, 1986).

General resignation and frustration is observed in learners as their test scores and problem-solving skills decline (Yates, 1962; Eron, 1980). Tardiness, truancy and dropping out of school take their toll on victims and on isolated perpetrators (Skinner, 1986). The general camaraderie interaction is lost. Every one runs for cover in the groups in the school or out of school. Violence escalates as groupings clash in gory vendettas or individuals leave the school for safer places.

Hence a violent environment is abnormal because at the end every one becomes its victim. Erich Goode (1997) says violence is deviant behaviour and no meaningful social interaction can exist in an abnormal environment (Cole et al, 2005). Fear and hostility can never create an environment conducive to peaceful relations.

Violence will not always be conspicuously physical but it might be unrecognized while it is happening (Degenaar in Centre For Intergroup Studies, 1990). Professor Degenaar (1990) writing on the violence of apartheid says, "Violence breeds upon itself and its insidious influence reaches out into every corner of present society, and also into the future, for today's violence is the seed from which tomorrow's violence will grow".

2.13 THEORIES OF VIOLENCE MANAGEMENT

2.13.1 BELIEF IN CREATING AN ENVIRONMENT

Several studies (Bonny et al, 2000; Twemlow, 2002) dealing with the concept of creating a violent-free environment have been done. This concept tries to find what really can cause a learner to feel unsafe and less attached to school. The approach states that when one feels unconnected one feels alienated. When a learner feels alienated, the learner withdraws from the peer groups and trends. The withdrawal from peer groups catapults feelings of self-defence and in turn violence. Most learners who turn into bullies will be trying to fight the feeling of alienation as they try to force entry back into groups (Sandhu, 2000).

This theory proposes the creation of an attractive environment in school to enhance attachment and commitment to school. Learner involvement in the government of the school is one of those factors that enhance attachment to school. Learners are

perceived to be involved in school violence because they are either bored or frustrated by school.

2.13.2 THE EXISTENTIAL THEORY AND THE RESTORATION AND JUSTICE THEORY (COUNSELLING AND ENCOURAGEMENT)

This psycho-dynamic approach is a reaction to the concept of feeling unconnected. It emphasises the implementation of mechanisms that ensure connectedness in learners by paying attention to dynamics of a group instead of imposing an environment or atmosphere on an individual. It exposes learners to dynamic role models in society (Bauman & Waldo, 1998; Bion, 1970). When learners discover the existence of health in the groups they live in, they feel safe and responsible members of a super group. Children always want to live a life they have seen (Bonny et al, 2000; Twemlow, 2002). They can only see this dynamism if they are deliberately guided by counsellors they admire as role models. The counselling must be followed by real life lessons. Hence teachers and members of the community are also advised to act responsibly in and out of school because learners learn a lot from them.

This is also called the existential theory because it allows for the consideration of such abstruse emotional and social factors as being, meaning, freedom, choice, and anxiety (Bauman & Waldo, 1998). This theory acknowledges the existence of many factors contributing to violence; the emotional and spiritual factors. Some see no meaning in life and then they try to give it meaning by hurting others without any remorse. Violence is used as a method of self expression. Hence when dealing with violence counsellors must be equipped with this knowledge so that they can restore the perpetrators as well as survivors of violence. This is with the understanding that both perpetrators and survivors are victims of violence. Hence this theory is also called Restoration and Justice Theory.

2.13.3 OLWEUS BULLYING AND VIOLENCE PREVENTION PROGRAM: A WHOLE-SCHOOL APPROACH

The Olweus Bullying Prevention Program was first introduced in 1983, after three 10- to 14-year-old boys in Norway committed suicide as a result of bullying and victimization at school.

This theory uses targeted programs (drawn from the existential theory and from the Restoration & Justice theory) which are designed for a subgroup of individuals at-risk of bullying or for those who have committed acts of violence. These programs are implemented in classrooms, playgrounds, and on parents to reduce risk factors and increase the protective factors (Hong, 2009; Orpinas et al., 2003; Kallestad & Olweus, 2003). Bullies are targeted and deliberately brought into counselling and rehabilitation. Parents of these perceived perpetrators of violence are also targeted for support. Briefly this theory relies on all strategies in other theories. Despite its effectiveness this theory has been blamed for stigmatising perceived bullies and promoting degrading witch- hunting tactics.

2.14 SCHOOL SAFETY PROGRAMMES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Strategies for the prevention and management of violence can never be effective unless there is an understanding of the role played by home and school attachment problems in perpetuating violence in South African schools. This is in line with the general assertion that violence in the schools is symptomatic of a social problem in the greater society (Mulvaney-Day et al, 2006; Neser et al, 2003; Orpinas et al., 2003).

Currently South Africa has various legislations that protect the rights of the child. These legislations are a basis for the creation of safety for all the groups in the school- learners (perpetrators, victims, and passive observers) and educators (perpetrators, victims, and passive observers) by protecting physical and psychological integrity of all learners in South Africa (Prinsloo, 2006). The following legislations have been put in place to either prevent or manage school violence and other abuses within and without the school:

- Child Care Act 1983 (Act 74 of 1983)
- Domestic violence Act 1998 (Act 116 of 1998)
- South African Schools Act 1996 (Act 84 of 1996)
- The occupational Health and Safety Act 1993 (Act 85 of 1993)

All the above legislations are in line with United Nations' Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) which encourages all nations to "protect the child from all forms of

physical and mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse" (UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989).

The African Charter on the Welfare of the Child is drawn from the UN Convention (1989) and it further compels member states to see to it that a child "who is subjected to school or parental discipline shall be treated with humanity and with respect for the inherent dignity of the child".

Programmes that enhance self respect and the concept of the sacredness of human life (ubuntu) are currently being implemented as an effort of managing school violence and other forms of abuse (Klonsky 2002; Mulvaney-Day et al, 2006). All the programmes are guided by the legal framework in the South African constitution, drawn from the African Charter on the Welfare of the Child, which in turn is drawn from the 'UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989). South Africa is a signatory of both charters like most African countries (Prinsloo, 2006). The right of the child to a safe environment and to education compels all the stakeholders in schools to see to it that schools are safe.

However, these legislations have not really addressed the safety of the child totally. Violence is still prevalent in the schools: both physical (shootings, stabbings, and bullying) and verbal violence (insulting, swearing and screaming) (De Wet, 2003; De Wet, 2006). Most of the schools in South Africa to be particular still do not have school policies designed to enhance school safety. There is also no security in the schools and no one is guaranteed of safety. The school's care giving role is undermined by this insecurity causing learners to be less connected to the school and its activities. This could be the reason why victims of violence are regularly turning to violence themselves for self defence (Klonsky 2002; Mulvaney-Day et al, 2006). To make it worse, guns are still being smuggled into the schools even in post apartheid times (Herald, 29 September, 2006; De Wet, 2006; Prinsloo, 2006; McCann, 2002). South Africa has the legal framework but it has no clear programme of implementation unlike United States of America, Britain, and Australia. Unless all partners (parents, educators, learners, psychologists, and the Department of Education) participate in formulating safety policies in the schools, violence will not be reduced.

It has also been argued that poor dilapidated structures and facilities in schools contribute to school violence (Bemark & Keys, 2000; Stephenson & Smith, 1991). Learners do not value and get attached to schools with poor structures. Hence, developing structures has been part of the drive by many schools to enhance safety. This has also been coupled with regular monitoring or locking of empty classrooms and halls (Chisholm and Valley, 1996).

The formulation of programmes emphasising the good relation between all groupings in the school is the first step towards creating school safety (Twemlow et al., 2002). These policies must be aimed at creating healthy learner relations. This can also be achieved by encouraging teachers and learners to improve their communication to reinforce good relations (Twemlow et al., 2002). Schools have to develop programmes that bring good relation by involving those with an experience in formulating and implementing violence management policies. All this promotes respect and health inter-relatedness in the school as a community. This enhances learner-connectedness to the school and its activities as they begin to sense love and care from it.

Twemlow et al (2002) writing on the United States experience state that community involvement in correcting relations in a school cannot be ignored. The school is a product of the community and some problems of the school come from the community. That is why the attachment theory links learners' behaviour to attachment to both school and home. Hence poor community relations instigate violence (Eliasov & Frank, 2000; Bandura, 2006). This is true of South Africa where the crime rate is higher than that of most countries in the world (UNESCO Courier, 2001; HRW, 2001). Learners express frustrations of home and school through verbal or physical violence on teachers and on other learners. Those who experience this violence regularly as victims or passive observers feel vulnerable (Twemlow, 2002; Brown, 2009) and less attached to the school. In most of the cases children will not feel safe in an environment where they do not feel the protector or the caregiver (Espelage et al, 2000). Learners want to feel the presence of security around them all the time.

School grounds, corridors and toilets cannot always provide an environment of safety and protection. Teachers are far away and those on duty cannot be everywhere. The bully stalks his or her victims unhindered throughout the school. No school rule can

stop him or her in the absence of the law enforcer. The television heroes are emulated without any hindrance (Bandura, 2006; Dorn, 2002). As a result dropping out of school in most schools in South Africa is more reasonable and safer than attending.

These learned behaviours will in turn terrorise other learners creating a culture of fear and self-defence (Bandura, 2006; Eron, 1980; Dorn, 2002.). Those who are afraid withdraw from school activities while those defending themselves fall into a vicious cycle of violence. Teacher vigilance and anti-violence programmes can short-circuit this vicious cycle of violence.

Writing on the Western Cape experience, the Southern African Catholic Bishops' Conference (2008) states that some schools have transformed into safe and positive social spaces after implementation of several internationally accepted approaches to school safety. However, a lot is still to be done in most schools in South Africa. The briefing paper suggests many innovations of enhancing school safety:

- a) Making improvements in physical security (gates, fences, and other infrastructures).
- b) Formulation of realistic school codes of conduct.
- c) Caring or counselling approach to discipline.
- d) Consistent contact with parents and guardians.
- e) The use of Department of Education Safe Schools Programs.
- f) Access to support from social workers.

Those that have tried to implement the innovations have experienced hindrances to the success of these efforts in South Africa. The surrounding communities usually do not cooperate with school efforts. Some of these communities delight in having violent schools so that they use them as transit zones for drugs and fire arms trade (Southern Africa Council of Bishops Conference, 2008). As a result of this learners fail to reform from their violent behaviours.

According to SACB teachers and other relevant professionals are either both over-worked and demoralised or too few to handle various crises in the school or in the community. At the same time some professionals feel unappreciated for efforts they are making in trying to deal with violence in the schools.

There is also lack of conflict resolution skills in the learners and Educators. This exposes schools to perpetual violence (Bandura, 2006). Most of what is known in this area has always been more theoretical than practical. Hence many skills and interventions must be taught and demonstrated. This includes programmes such as the Safe School Program. The emphasis must be on the implementation than on theory.

The school as a community can only survive through creating and celebrating positive heroes (Twemlow and Sasco, 1999). To deal with violence in the school, the school must live as a community sharing the same values and heroes (Lowe, 2000). This approach has been experimented upon in various schools in the United States (Twemlow et al, 2002). This is done by formulating programmes that reward good behaviour in and outside the school. Those that do well can be announced at assembly to encourage others to do so. As good behaviour is rewarded feelings of insecurity and feeling unconnected in various children will begin to fall away. The feeling of insecurity in the school environment creates fear, and depression in the learners (Wasley et al, 2000; Twemlow, 2002). Some learners react to this feeling of alienation by either being violent or being socially withdrawn.

2.15 SCHOOL SAFETY PROGRAMMES IN THE WEST

Violence prevention programs have been running in the school system for several years in the United States of America, ahead of South Africa and the rest of Africa (Dolan et al, 1993; Bennet –Johnson, 2004; Simonds, 2009; Shaw, 2009). There have been many campaigns and attempts at reducing media violence and that of restructuring social norms and educational systems (Centres for Disease Control, 2008; Olweus, 1991; Olweus, 1994; Olweus, 1999).

In schools many efforts have been made. Bullying has been targeted and a lot of research has been done on it to reduce its frequency in the schools (Olweus, 1991; Olweus, 1994; Olweus, 1999). Teachers are assisted in developing better and well-researched classroom management strategies (Dolan et al, 1993). Learners are also taught social skills (Bennet –Johnson, 2004) like problem-solving and team building (Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 1999).

The emphasis has been on schools and communities to have thoroughly planned violence identification assessment and management programmes (Simonds, 2009; Olweus, 1991; Olweus, 1994; Olweus, 1999). These programmes include:

- a) Reporting acts of threat to life, health or safety.
- b) Creating plans that respond to crises.
- c) Screening all school employees.
- d) Providing training to school personnel to respond to student misbehaviour.
- e) Providing training to school personnel on how to prevent suicide.
- f) Creating a school climate in which learners feel welcome.
- g) Using safe school technology (video cameras, alarms, door locks) and training
- h) Initiation of programmes that create dialogue between all stakeholders (learners, teachers, SGB, parents and community)
- i) Identification and addressing of triggers of violence (Simonds, 2009).

The prevalence of violence in USA schools is linked to many triggers. Like in South Africa the presence of weapons (guns, knives, screw-drivers, and clubs) in the USA schools, are the most popular triggers of violence. The presence of bullies and gangs also triggers violence in the school (Boyd, 2000; Dorn, 2002; USA Department of Education, 2002). Simonds (2009) cites law enforcement reports, school records and mental health as his sources of research on USA school violence. This on its own reveals the extent to which violence can impact on the whole being. It is capable of bringing disorder in schools.

Violence has a great impact on the social life of the school and of the individual. Social life is a system of social interactions. These social interactions include various social afflictions (Nezlek & Smith, 2005). Self concept and self development can be affected a lot by violence (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). While groups can be formed without violence, violence has the capacity to rearrange groupings or redefine group systems in any environment (Allport, 1954). For example perpetrators as a group get affected as well by violence just like the victims and observers. Other scholars (Boyd, 2000; Dorn, 2002; Toby, 1993) identify the following as other triggers of violence in schools in the west:

- a) Inconsistent disciplinary practices
- b) The presence of strangers and unauthorised persons in the school yard

- c) The presence of illegal drugs and alcohol in the school
- d) Inadequate supervision by adults or teachers
- e) Biological factors like brain damage, hormone imbalance, pre-natal or post-natal stress.

The presence of strangers and unauthorised persons can trigger violence only in a school where there are other triggers already in existence. A school that already has violence within can easily respond to external violent pressure. Hence schools in violent communities turn out violent especially when prevention measures are not in place.

The 'Safe School Initiative' (Vosse kuil et al, 2002), a program conducted under a partnership between the USA service and the Department of Education sought to study the criminal mind in the schools especially after the shootings at Columbine High School in 1999. This knowledge of pre-attack behaviour would assist schools in designing school safety programs.

The 'Safe School Initiative programme' has identified several triggers of violence in the school grounds and in the community. Some triggers observed during the Columbine shootings were:

- i. The presence of strangers and unauthorised persons.
- ii. Availability of weapons such as guns in the community.
- iii. Natural aggression.
- iv. Availability of violence in the school.

This 'Safe School Initiative Programme' or 'Threat Assessment Approach' is based on the following seven problem solving stages (Vosse kuil et al, 2002):

- a) Identification,
- b) Brainstorm solutions
- c) Select a few appropriate solutions
- d) Assessment of each solution and its pros and cons,
- e) Implementation of possible solutions
- f) Management and
- g) Evaluation of the programme

2.16 CONCLUSION

Violence is indeed a problem that cannot be ignored. However methods of dealing with it must be updated regularly. The understanding of social control theories such as the attachment theory can help reduce the prevalence of acts of violence that occur in the school. The understanding of this theory is central to the control and regulation of adolescent deviant behaviour.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF HOME AND SCHOOL ATTACHMENT AND VIOLENCE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will introduce the concept of violence and attachment and explain how the adjustment of attachment at adolescence presents problems to adolescents of different parentage, gender, and social backgrounds.

3.2 REVIEW APPROACH

The review draws mainly from studies done overseas because there is no literature that has directly dealt with this topic of the influence of home and/or school attachment in the context of South Africa. Hence writing this literature review without sources that deal directly with this topic is a great challenge.

This review analyses the theoretical aspects of home and school attachment as regulation or control mechanism (Hallinan, 2008; Rasmussen et al, 2005) of acts of deviance such as verbal and physical violence. However the review begins by explaining the context of school violence in South Africa and analyse the role the attachment theory can play in explaining the relation between home and school attachment and school violence. Bronfenbrenner, (1979)'s child ecology theory is also to be analysed to explain the ecology of attachment or the impact of the environment on a child. Both theories are analysed from an understanding that society has ideals and norms that have been set to be followed and that any deviation from them is regarded as anti-social. School violence or general violence is then regarded by this review as deviance from the social norms and there is to be a way of control to regulate it.

Hence the two theories are analysed as social control and regulation theories. The analysis also explains the correlation of home and school attachment to variables like physical violence, verbal violence, poverty and gender to explain how home and school attachment can regulate the decrease or prevalence of school violence. It does also explain the concept of aggression and different perspectives of aggression

and how the concept is linked to attachment to social institutions like home and school.

The review also analyses current studies on home and school attachment such as:

- i. Correlation with cigarette smoking, alcohol and marijuana use
- ii. Correlation with male sex offenders
- iii. Correlation with teacher influence

3.3 OVERVIEW OF VIOLENCE AND ATTACHMENT

The concept of school violence is well understood in South Africa and beyond. However, most of the research has been on causes and effects of victims. Although these studies have dealt at length with the concept of school violence, the relation of home and school attachment to various acts of violence has not been dealt with in South Africa. No researcher has considered how effective bases of socialisation can be to the regulation of deviant behaviour of an adolescent learner. The understanding of attachment to bases of socialisation such as homes and schools can lead to a new way of school violence management and prevention. This understanding does not concur with the assertions of psychoanalysts (Schore & Schore, 2008; Lio, 2004) that the determinants of behaviour lie in the individual states of mind and changes in the levels of libido. This claim totally ignores the fact that all humans given the same environment can achieve equally. They ignore the influence of the child's immediate environment on the child's behaviour.

However, the attachment theory (Schore & Schore, 2008) points to the influence of caregivers as responsible for the regulation of violence and other acts of deviance in an adolescent. Hence, the attachment theory has gone beyond being narrowly used as a psychological and clinical or biological theory to being a regulation theory. It states that those that are less attached to bases of care tend to be more unconventional in conduct than those that are more attached to bases of care. There is no better theory than this to explain the seemingly endless problems of school violence in South Africa. This theory does take into consideration all aspects that affect the ecology of the child: the individual adolescent emotional changes, the impact of poverty on children, poor parentage, and gender.

The use of the attachment theory to understand this violence is inspired by the current existence of poverty and social violence which have spread from the cities to the rural areas of South Africa. Learners as a result of this poverty and social violence torture, hit, shout at, stab, kill, and threaten, each other like the adults in the communities they live in. This poverty and violence alongside the AIDS pandemic have cost lives in South Africa leaving a trend of orphanages and single parenthood. Hence many learners in South Africa belong to single-parent homes or have no parents and those who do have them attend poor and dilapidated government schools.

By using the attachment theory as a social control and regulation theory this review brings in an argument that the degree of attachment to home and school determines the level of decrease or prevalence of violence in an adolescent learner. According to the advocates of the argument of 'nurture' (Mwamwenda, 2005), the nature of the child plays a little role in his/her involvement in violence. A human being is a product of society and its pressures. We all reproduce what we experience as we grow up. Thus the pressures of society have an influence in our behaviours (Schoore & Schoore, 2008).

3.4 CONTEXT OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE IN SOUTH AFRICA: IMPACT OF SOCIALISATION (HOME AND SCHOOL) ON OVERALL ADOLESCENT SCHOOL VIOLENCE

Attachment problems seem to be the major cause of deviance in South African youths because many adolescents come from poor environments and disturbed families and they attend dilapidated and poorly managed schools in the cities and provinces (The Mercury, 21 August, 2008; HRW, 2006; UNESCO Courier, 2001). Another problem that has affected South Africa in the same way as the developed world is that South Africa is heavily industrialised and industrialised countries are characterised by disintegrating families as a result of absent parents (Johnson, 2009. Nzimande, 1993). A typical industrialised nation has working mothers and fathers who have very little time for raising their children. This scenario in turn leads to children adopting risky attachment styles that drive them to aggression and various forms of deviance. In South Africa like in the West as documented by various

researchers (Fallahi, 2009; Mohr, 2006; Holt et al, 2009) these adolescents kill, steal from each other, stab, and tease each other every day (HRW, 2006; UNESCO Courier, 2001; The Mercury, 21 August, 2008).

Vally et al (1999) blame school violence on the past apartheid policies that have left a legacy of aggression and confusion in the South African communities. Like Vally et al (1999) many scholars (Neser et al, 2003; Eliasov & Frank, 2000; Le Roux & Gildenhuys, 1994) attribute school violence to gangs born out of township resistance whose impact has lasted up to the present time, infiltrating schools turning many schools especially in the Western Cape into drug and alcohol markets (UNESCO Courier, 2001; Neser et al, 2003). This proves beyond doubt that violence is as common in the post apartheid rural areas as it is in the post apartheid urban areas (De Wet, 2003; De Wet, 2006; Simpson, 2001; Stevens et al, 2001; Finsterlin, 1999; Van den Aardweg, 1987). However the influence of attachment to home and school has not been brought up to explain this violence in the society and schools.

Blaming the violence in the schools on the past racist apartheid laws is not enough and blaming school violence on the past contradicts the 'Chaos Theory' of violence (Sullivan et al, 2004) which states that violence can happen to anyone and it is not restricted to any time, class, gender, or race. Had apartheid only been to blame for the violence in the schools, there would be no violence in white schools. The current realities show us that there is violence in all populations of South Africa and not only among black schools in Soweto, Gugulethu, Alexandra, and Mdantsane unlike most scholars would like people to believe (Neser et al, 2003, 2003; Booyens, 2003; Olivier, 2003; Smit, 2003; Bezuidenhout, 2002; Vorster, 2002). All economic zones are affected by violence. This violence in the schools can only be attributed to attachment problems at home and in the schools. Only social control or regulation theories like the attachment theory can explain this violence in the schools.

3.5 ATTACHMENT IN CONTEXT/PERSPECTIVE

3.5.1 THE CONCEPT OF ATTACHMENT

The attachment theory deals with human relations and how young people are attached or connected to their caregivers during socialisation (Lohman et al, 2007; Rasmussen et al, 2005; Bowlby, 1988). It is about the psychological tendency to seek closeness to another person, to feel secure and protected against deviation from

expected norms and behaviour reminiscent of the following similar theories. The family systems theory, the social control theory, the object relations theory, and the Child ecology theory. Over the years it has explained how infants rely on and trust their caregivers for security and survival. The theory has evolved over the years from explaining the behaviour of infants to explain the effects of attachment at adolescence and adulthood. Earlier research (Bowlby, 1969; Harlow, & Harlow, 1969; Ainsworth et al, 1978) used it as a psychology, clinical, and therapeutic theory. However, recent studies (Hallinan, 2008; Rasmussen et al, 2005; Mercer, 2006) have stretched it further for use in the social sciences as a social relations theory and recently as a regulatory theory.

Unlike in the past where secure bases were only human this research will extend it to include institutions and their staff. Thus Schools like homes are arenas of socialisation and both provide support and care to children (Hallinan, 2008; Rasmussen et al, 2005). Children learn norms of society and general self control from these arenas. This is derived from the attachment theory's assumption as a social control theory that humans are social beings and are bound by the code of group conduct from the days of infancy to death. Hence within the attachment theory the concept of attachment is described as a bond between the caregiver and a young child for emotional development (Wong, 2001).

Every child according to the attachment theory seeks proximity to an attachment figure during stressful times as a set goal for survival and security (Mercer, 2006). However young children only get closely bonded to primary caregivers who are sensitive and responsive to their needs. These caregivers can either be individuals or institutions; hence children can be attached to their parents in a similar way they can be attached to a school. It is the positive or negative responses from either parents or the school that create patterns of attachment which guide children's feelings, thoughts and expectations in later relationships (Van der Horst et al, 2007). Aggressive behaviour towards others is one feeling that can be derived from responses of the caregivers.

Karcher and Lee (2002) define connectedness or attachment to school as a feeling of relatedness to significant others at school and a general feeling of belonging to that

school. In short learners who do not feel wanted or appreciated in the school tend to be less attached to school caregivers and bordering on the avoidance style of attachment. As a way of seeking recognition they do as they please; they physically and verbally abuse (de Wet, 2006; Prinsloo, 2006). However, students who perceive that their teachers care about them tend to praise them (Hallinan, 2008). These learners tend to love being at school and the majority of them do well at school. Hallinan (2008) in her study of learners' attachment to school states that teachers can exert powerful influence on learners to like or hate school.

The theory further proposes that children attach to caregivers instinctively for biological and psychological reasons; survival and security (Schore & Schore, 2008). As long as the care is provided children will attach themselves to the caregiver. Actually care draws children to the care giver. The consequence of all this is that values of social control are adopted by children from caregivers instinctively (Karcher and Lee, 2002). The less attached they are the more they are difficult to control. This is the actual root of violence in the adolescents and the reason why force fails to create submissive individuals out of the adolescent learners. Instead it creates a rebellious individual. That is why schools that have relied on corporal punishment have been failing to achieve control.

At adolescence attachment behaviours tend to change from those of clinging to those of self-reliance (Schore & Schore, 2008.). This comes with many other biological, psychological, relational and emotional changes that occur at adolescence. The problem that may occur at adolescence if attachment or parental figures are unavailable is that children may deviate from societal expectations and direct some attachment behaviours at peers (Van der Horst et al, 2008; Van der Horst, 2007). Consequently, they can learn anti-social practices from other adolescents.

Therefore within the context of attachment deviance is caused by loss of attachment to caregivers because frustration is associated with anti-social behaviour such as violence. Those who lose or become less connected to their caregivers tend to seek security elsewhere or to provide it for themselves. Hence, parental figures in and outside home have to be available all the time to guarantee safety, survival and security of the children.

3.5.2 DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF INDIVIDUAL ATTACHMENT PATTERNS/STYLES

Developmental psychologists (Van der Horst et al, 2008; Bowlby, 1988; Hirschi and Gottfredson, 2005) have over the years identified five patterns of attachment at adolescence and adulthood. These attachment styles at adolescence correspond with styles of attachment at childhood (Lohman et al, 2007; Mercer, 2006). The way an adolescent relates with other people is determined by responses they get from their caregivers (Rasmussen et al, 2005).

The following are the five attachment styles:

- i. secure,
- ii. anxious-preoccupied,
- iii. dismissive-avoidant
- iv. fearful-avoidant
- v. disorganised

These have also been summarised into four by Ainsworth et al (1978) Van der Horst et al, (2008) after Ainsworth's famous "strange situation" test study in 1978: secure attachment, anxious-avoidant attachment, anxious-ambivalent attachment and disorganized attachment.

3.5.2.1 SECURE ATTACHMENT

In this pattern the child trusts in caregivers and directs questions of security to caregivers. The behaviour of this child is predictable in the sense that the caregiver can also trust the child and his/her emotional stability. Such children with secure attachment to their caregivers need very little supervision in their work because of the confidence they have. Usually these respect the social order as they feel part of the society they live in (Van der Horst et al, 2008; Rasmussen et al, 2005). Because of the respect they have for society they do not tend to deviate from social norms and engage in antisocial acts such as violence.

Those that are securely attached also tend to show stability by having lasting relationships with either friends or parents. They find sharing feelings with friends and parents comfortable. In times of trouble they seek out support from these caregivers (Rasmussen et al, 2005). Above all the securely attached adolescent has high self-esteem and this stabilises his/her emotions and behaviour.

According to research on attachment (Wang, 2003; Wong, 2001; Voss, 1999; Karavasilis et al, 1999) securely attached adolescents are less likely to engage in substance abuse, antisocial and aggressive behaviour, and risky sexual activity. For example children that are well attached or connected develop perceptions (“internal working models”) of themselves as loveable. However caregivers who are insensitive and rejecting have avoidant children who view themselves as unworthy, uncaring and undependable and these become unpredictable (Karcher and Lee, 2002).

Being responsive to their needs also means that caregivers (either parents or school) guarantee them needs such as safety, security and protection from various natural phenomena (Rasmussen et al, 2005). These attachment figures become children’s secure bases (Lohman, 2007). Thus children easily submit to these secure bases because of trust and respect; that is the more they are attached the more they exercise submission and the less they are attached the more they deviate from control. As secure bases children find it easy to explore the external world and return to them. Children are attached to figures they can trust. Once the trust has been taken away the care giver ceases to be a secure base (Hallinan, 2008; Bifulco et al, 2008). As a result, children go through frustration after losing a caregiver. However, the grief or anxiety that follows the loss is overcome either by the replacement of the caregiver or when the child adjusts well. However not all attachment adjustments are healthy (Bifulco et al, 2008). Some of these maladjustments frustrate and harden the child. Hence some deviant behaviour like violence occurs when learners fail to adjust to some changes in attachment.

Most securely attached children have enjoyed the attention of parents and teachers from an early age. Certainly these are well-provided children from affording families. A securely attached adolescent is also free to concentrate on his/her environment

without rebelling against measures of social control. They achieve and participate more in school as long as they are securely attached to both the school and home.

3.5.2.2 ANXIOUS-AVOIDANT ATTACHMENT

This refers to a tendency by frustrated children to suppress behaviour related to threats to security, and avoid attachment figures. All the time they dismiss emotions associated with caregivers. These adolescents tend to have problems with relating with caregivers. They invest little emotion in social relations of any kind and they do not share thoughts and feelings with others. Adolescents with an avoidant attachment show no preference between a caregiver and a complete stranger. All this is because their caregivers demonstrate a 'rejecting' or 'dismissing' style of care giving and as a result they develop avoidant attachments and pretend they do not need anyone (Daniel, 2000; Howe, 1999).

Usually these children have experiences of abuse or observing their care givers being abused either at home or by society at large. Their avoidance is an act of preventing confrontation with whoever they perceive as a threat to their safety and security (Rasmussen et al, 2005; Mercer, 2006).

3.5.2.3 ANXIOUS-AMBIVALENT ATTACHMENT

This refers to a tendency by frustrated children to be vigilant and anxious regarding threats to security and the availability and responsiveness of a caregiver. They at times tend to seek proximity to the caregivers but eventually fail to derive reassurance from them (Rasmussen et al, 2005). They are reluctant to trust or to be close to anyone. Their usual perception is that their caregivers and peers do not love them and as a general response they exhibit attitudes of animosity towards them. The ambivalence denotes that like those in the other risky attachment styles they are angry and seeking to draw attention from caregivers (Daniel, 2000). Howe (1999) states that these ambivalently attached children attempt to control other people's attention through coercive behaviour such as threats, anger, need and seduction which often causes those others to attempt to withdraw. These adolescents might also passively reject caregivers by refusing comfort, or may openly display direct

aggression toward caregivers. These anxious and preoccupied adolescents lack self-esteem as they tend to believe that they are worthless and unlovable. As a result they cling to anyone they perceive to be a hero. These are usually at higher risk than adolescents in other risky attachment styles. Bergen (2008) argues that although these adolescents cause insecurity, both the avoidant and ambivalent patterns are an attempt by the child to maximise the carer's availability.

3.5.2.4 DISORGANIZED ATTACHMENT

This is a category that has over the years become an attachment style because there are some individuals who cannot be categorised; their attachment style is a combination of all risky attachment styles (Becker-Weidman & Shell, 2005; Ainsworth et al, 1978). These adolescents depending on situations can be either anxious-avoidant or anxious-ambivalent. They lack a coherent style or pattern for coping. This occurs to children who have observed their caregivers as either frightened or frightening. While other adolescents learn from examples given by parents these see a disorganised picture of parents and other caregivers.

3.5.3 DEVELOPMENT AND ADJUSTMENT OF ATTACHMENT

As children grow, they experience emotional and physical changes which affect how they relate with caregivers and fellow children. Others depending on their social background and or gender withdraw their trust early or late from their caregivers as shall be shown in the following discussion.

3.5.3.1 DEVELOPMENT OF ATTACHMENT AT ADOLESCENCE

There are complex emotional, physical, and hormonal changes in the child at adolescence and this in turn complicates a child's relationship with those around her. The stage of adolescence is actually a crucial period for attachment relations because the child ventures out for extra relations with either peers or romantic partners, and has frequent communication than he/she does with parents. These relations affect the child's attachment to his/her parents. Although dangerous to adolescence with risky attachment styles Nickerson and Nagle (2005) argue that this attachment to peers is very important for an individual adolescent's social development. Secure friendships were observed by Weimer, Kerns, and Oldenberg (2004) to be between those adolescents who are securely attached.

However studies have also shown that attachment relations with parents do not totally end (Bester, 2007; Arnold et al, 2004). The parent still remains a consultant especially to the girl child (Hallinan, 2008). The need for attachment figures does not end although the adolescent might not totally use the parent as the sole attachment figure. Doherty and Beaton (2004) state that children can sometimes have differing attachments to mothers and fathers and they do not detach similarly from each parent unlike what may be expected. Boys tend to detach from their fathers earlier than girls (Laursen & Collins, 2004; Mwamwenda, 2005). However those with a pre-occupied attachment style tend to detach earlier from caregivers to attach to peers as attachment figures.

The general development of attachment at adolescence is described by a tendency of compromising dependence on parents as attachment figures (Rasmussen et al, 2005). As hormonal changes occur their physical and emotional dependence on their parents decreases and they move closer to the peer group and this affects their attachments to the caregivers (Bester, 2007). The child at this level can turn to friends even in times of stress and threats. Depending on cultures the African boy at this stage reduces his attachment to parents earlier than the girl and easily becomes vulnerable to negative peer pressure (Mwamwenda, 2005). However it must be noted that development of attachment at adolescence is usually affected by cultural norms as well. Children brought up in liberal societies like South Africa, Canada, Europe, USA and Australia tend to have more autonomy in choosing those they can trust more than children in cultures that emphasise discipline and obedience like Israel and Japan (Bifulco et al, 2008). Only those who are securely attached tend to survive the negative influence of peers at the stage of adolescence.

3.5.3.2 ADJUSTMENT OF ATTACHMENT AT ADOLESCENCE

Secure attachment is associated with healthier adjustment whereas insecure or avoidant attachment is associated with maladjustment. Those that are securely attached are less anxious, less hostile, and self-controlled. Securely attached children approach problem-solving calmly whereas the insecurely attached are defensive and temperamental (Zeanah et al, 2003). Securely attached children accept criticism. Their good relationship with their parents protects them from risk.

Such children are rarely involved in deviant activities. They prefer parents for advice than their peers.

On the other hand the insecurely attached are associated with externalising problem behaviours like aggression. Those in the dismissing style are more unpredictable and hostile than those in other attachment styles. Bifulco et al, (2008) states that boys more than girls in the dismissing style exhibit dysfunctional anger. They protect themselves from feelings of rejection by adopting a defensive stance. Distancing strategies are also adopted by these children as a defensive stance. Bifulco et al, (2008) also state that children in the dismissing attachment style perceive rejection by caregivers and use emotion avoidance in moments of crises.

The fearfully attached adolescents like dismissing adolescents suffer from perceived inadequacy and anxiety. These usually have a history of rejection by either mother or father. They usually belong to single-parent families and they tend to be associated with experimentation with drugs, negative emotions, and conflict with others (Rasmussen et al, 2005; Zeanah et al, 2003). At adolescence all these attributes become worse as a result of mixed emotions. They care less about other people's business and also care less about values of social order (Hirschi and Gottfredson, 2005).

Preoccupied attachment adolescents have poor self-image and they only see perfection in others. They believe that they are socially incompetent and as a result they do not appreciate their own efforts and live by impressing who they perceive as their hero. Of all those whose attachment is maladjusted, the preoccupied attachment adolescents are at risk. Like all in the high risk attachment styles these tend to experience mental health problems like depression which in turn influence aggressive behaviour.

3.6 SCHOOL AND ATTACHMENT IN ADOLESCENCE

Research (Rasmussen et al, 2005; Hirschi and Gottfredson, 2005) has shown that psychosocial ties to school can lead to deviant behaviour. This follows findings that adolescents with weak ties to society and norm-setting institutions like schools and homes tend to have unconventional standards of behaviour (Mwamwenda, 2005). On the other hand those with strong ties with institutions tend to internalise conventional

behaviour. These tend to like school and participating in school programs. They develop a sense of ownership of the school and what it represents. Learners that are connected to the school have a tendency of achieving academically and they are not easily intimidated by any task (Mwamwenda, 2005; Mercer, 2006). Like what they do to their parents when they perceive negligence, learners perceive detach from the school to protect themselves.

3.6.1 FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH SCHOOL BONDING

There are many factors associated with school bonding. These factors indicate satisfaction with school environment and security it offers. They determine the degree at which one would be bonded to or drawn towards that school. These factors also promote enrolment of the school. These factors enhance school attachment. The assumption is that schools like parents control or regulate children's behaviour by responding to their needs. At school learners would like to be motivated to learn, to be given the autonomy to participate in the government of the school, to have an environment that supports positive peer interactions, and to be assured of safety and security.

3.6.2 MOTIVATION TO LEARN

Learners tend to bond with schools where they are motivated to learn or where the actual practice of teaching is taken seriously (Mercer, 2006). This motivation to learn also encompasses teacher conduct and the treatment teachers give to learners. Where there is teacher support learners tend to be motivated to learn.

Motivation to learn can come from the ability of the teachers to organise and control lessons and from the physical structure of the school (Bifulco et al, 2008). Hence schools with good infrastructure attract their learners to them. Generally motivation to learn is inspired by the school's demonstration of excellence.

3.6.3 SENSE OF BELONGING TO THE SCHOOL

Adolescent learners tend to be bonded or attached to schools they are proud of. For example, they have respect for schools where they have autonomy to make decisions and contribute to their running (Bifulco et al, 2008). Schools with good

sports and academic records tend to draw learners to them. Adolescents love associating themselves with fame and victory and this augurs well with them.

Hence it is necessary to say schools with a variety of extra-mural programmes tend to be favoured by adolescent learners. This allows the school as a caregiver to respond to the learners' need for exploration of the environment. As a result learners develop intrinsic self-value. If the needs are rejected the learners develop feelings of worthlessness forcing them to engage in deviant behaviour.

3.6.4 POSITIVE PEER RELATIONS

Schools with positive peer relations tend to thrive in conventional behaviour and practice. There is little deviance from expected social norms and the frequency of involvement in violence are very low (Bifulco et al, 2008). There are few stressors and there is security for everyone in such schools. As a result majority of learners tend to be more attached to such schools than to schools where there is little care giving and security.

3.6.5 SAFETY AND SECURITY

Learners are drawn to any environment that offers them safety and security. When there are threats to security learners disconnect from the school either by adopting similar attachments they have with negligent caregivers; dismissive-avoidant, fearful-avoidant, and disorganised (Bifulco et al, 2008). The school and teachers are caregivers and once learners perceive failure by the school to respond to their needs and safety they detach from the school to seek security elsewhere.

3.7 FACTORS INFLUENCING ATTACHMENT

3.7.1 PARENTING AND ATTACHMENT IN ADOLESCENCE

Parents who are sensitive to children's needs and consistently respond to them tend to raise securely attached children (Berk, 2005). Such children regard themselves as worthy, loveable, helpful and available. These securely attached children are associated with social competence, autonomy, positive attitude towards school and work, academic achievement and self-esteem, and less depression. Parents try to be available at all times to provide support and strengthen direct verbal communication

with their adolescent children. Despite the decrease in the interaction between the parent and the child at adolescence, adolescents still show a desire for high levels of support from caring parents or caregivers (Bergen, 2008). These interactions especially with mothers than with fathers provide a support base for them and help in the renegotiation of the family roles to suit the adolescent and parents (Laursen & Collins, 2004). However the role of the father is also very crucial to the adolescent's development.

On the other hand parents who are not sensitive to children's needs tend to foster avoidant or anxious and ambivalent children who have very low self-opinion, and regarding others as uncaring and undependable. Such children tend to withdraw in times of stress as a result of perceiving rejection by their parents and everyone around. Those who are anxious and ambivalent tend to try to seek attention probably from whoever cares to be a caregiver all the time. They tend to pretend they do not need an adult. Some become violent at slight provocation or at no provocation at all exposing anger that has accumulated over the years (Bergen, 2008; Howe, 1999).

Parents that are inconsistent with care raise preoccupied children who are searching for care in other people and these children fall at risk of misconduct and aggression. Usually absentee parents (as a result of careers that take them away from home for a long time) foster preoccupied children who have low self esteem and who are ready to attach to peers for safety and security.

3.7.2 GENDER AND ATTACHMENT IN ADOLESCENCE

Gender differences are emphasised during socialisation by caregivers and this influences the style of attachment of a child (Bifulco et al, 2008). The avoidance and pre-occupation in girls is usually caused by gender-specific parental socialization practices which emphasise on controlling girls' behaviour more than that of boys (Berk, 2005). This is prevalent in Africa where girls are regularly trained for future motherhood and taught to be soft (Mwamwenda, 2005). Boys are usually given more autonomy and domineering roles than girls. This has an effect on the way these boys attach to their parents and social institutions. In Nguni culture militancy is emphasised in boys' lives from the day they are born as a way of grooming them for the future masculine duty of running and protecting the family (Mwamwenda, 2005).

Hence boys are raised to be less attached to parents and other adults (Karcher and Lee, 2002). Hence aggression and roughness are regarded as signs of manhood (Mayhew, 2006; Archer, 2004). However daughters more than sons are encouraged by parents to attend to others' needs, to conform to others' expectations, and to judge their success or failure in terms of acceptance by others. More often than not, girls anticipate feeling badly if they act aggressively toward others than boys. That is why girls will remain attached to their parents long after the boys have detached to attach to peers.

3.8 ECOLOGY OF THE CHILD AND ATTACHMENT

Child ecology is a branch of human ecology that emphasises the importance of the environment on the growth and development of a child (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). It deals with how the child is attached to his environment and how he/she gains social cognition and identity from it. This study tries to explain how related the child's thoughts and action are to the systems around him/her. For example one would not discuss a social problem like school violence without trying to find out what reinforces certain behaviours in the environment of the child (Lemma, 2007; Berk, 2005). Most reinforcements are in the systems around more than in the nature of the child. Hence this theory unlike the recapitulation theory emphasises on the power of attachment figures on the child's behaviour. One would not talk of developing school safety in the schools without analysing the environment of the child (Mulvaney-Day et al, 2006). Child Ecology is a revolutionary way of dealing with problems unlike the use of conservative ways which try to force problems to end by simply dealing with symptoms only.

The understanding of this theory makes us understand how attachment to social institutions such as home and school has a bearing on how individual learners respond to various phenomena. This also explains how attached to or dependent on the environment the child is (Kail, 2006; Mulvaney-Day et al, 2006). A child's behaviour is inversely proportional to the influence exerted on him/her by the environment. In a survey on causes of Virginia Tech shootings Fallahi et al (2009) noted that respondents believed that social support, friendship, good mental health, and parenting were important factors in preventing violent incidents. Hence the

child's attachment style determines his/her behaviour and interventions must be formulated and administered to the same environment to control the deviant behaviour.

Unlike the attachment theory which only focuses on the relationship of the children and their individual caregivers the child ecology theory concentrates on the impact of the overall environment on individual children. While children and their caregivers exist as individuals they are still part of larger society with many pressures determining their attachments and bonds with each other. The understanding of this theory complements our understanding of the attachment theory.

The child ecology theory analyses violence in an individual as a social problem that is linked to the same institutions that socialised the child. Hence Netshitahame and Vollenhoven (2002) writing on safety in rural schools in South Africa state that the creation of safe schools is a community function and they advocate for collaboration between home and school. This is supported by Ouimette et al (2002) writing on the Boston experience who states that involvement of the community or parents in the affairs of the school is associated with increases in student achievement and engagement in school. This enhances learner attachment to both home and school. Hence most societies in the west are moving towards integrating school and community to double the effort of dealing with learner problems (Ouimette, 2002; Swap, 1993; U.S. Dept. of Education, 1994; Moles, 1993; Johnson, 1997).

Children who are heads of households would certainly behave differently from children who have a normal life (Lemma, 2007; Berk, 2005). Perpetrators of violence (aggressors) and their victims can only be understood through the analysis of the ecological systems. Meaningful decisions can only be taken after the analysis of the systems that affect a child. That is why traditional methods of discipline like corporal punishment have failed to address most problems; they disregard the influence of home and school environment on a child's behaviour (Chisholm and Valley, 1996. Mwamwenda, 2004; Besag, 1989; Child Care Act, 1983; South African Schools Act, 1996). Traditional ways of dealing with school violence in the schools such as the erection of defensive structures like gates, alarms, and electronic detectors while are important cannot stop the problems in society (Bemark & Keys 2000; Stephenson &

Smith 1991; Corene de Wet, 2005 and 2006; Chisholm and Valley, 1996). In highly sophisticated societies learners are searched using high- tech lasers and scanners and those found with weapons are disarmed (Stephenson & Smith 1991). Disarming learners does not prevent them from being violent.

That is why there have been reports of the use of seemingly innocent sharp instruments (like pairs of dividers, compasses, and paper-cutting scissors) to inflict injury on other learners (Brown, 2009; Prinsloo, 2006; UNESCO Courier, 2001; de Wet, 2006). There will always be another weapon to replace the seized weapon. To prevent such occurrence, scholars have sought to apply Bronfenbrenner's (1979. 1986) ecological systems theory along with the attachment theory to understand the impact of the environment on the child. The source of violence is not the availability of weapons but home and school attachment problems (Berk, 2005).

Bronfenbrenner (1979. 1986) identified four systems that interact directly or indirectly with a child's life contributing to their thoughts, actions, responses, appreciation, ambivalence, anxiety, interests, perceptions, adaptability, and general performance. The child attaches himself or herself to attachment figures in these systems.

3.8.1 MICROSYSTEM AND ATTACHMENT

The micro-system consists of home, and family (Berk, 2005; Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986, 1990). This creates the child's first interaction with the world. All the important lessons of life (be they positive or negative) are learnt in this system where he is attached to primary caregivers and guaranteed safety and security. This is the place where the child also observes caregivers and other relationships and learns from them. If the parents abuse the child or each other, abuse becomes a value in the child's life (Woolfolk, 2005; Berton & Stabb, 1996; Mwamwenda, 2005.).

This is the system that sets the child's attachment style and determines how the child will develop for life. In short this is the most important system because this is where home is. To explain this a survey conducted in a school in the North East in the USA by Holt et al (2009) established that deviant children come from disturbed homes and that these homes were characterized by higher levels of criticism, fewer rules, child maltreatment, and lack of supervision. This is evidence that the home plays a major role in shaping a child's involvement in deviant behaviour.

There is no doubt that in most cases tendencies such as violence are reinforced in this system. Hence a school's violence prevention programme would not succeed unless it takes into consideration support from families of the learners. Parents can be involved in the creation of the programme. Traumatized children heal faster if there is support from the micro system (Berk, 2005; Tolin & Foa, 2006; Brown, 2009; Berton & Stabb, 1996). A child receives genuine and unconditional love from this system and if the child fails to receive such love there is bound to be failure to give the child proper guidance and care. Hence the degree of attachment a child has with the caregivers in this system determines and or regulates his social behaviour. In the Western Cape where the Department of Education's violence prevention programme has been implemented, successful schools have involved parents to support the programme (Southern African Catholic bishops' Conference, 2008).

3.8.2 MESOSYSTEMS AND ATTACHMENT

Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1986) describes this system as the child's interactions beyond home and this system affects the child's view of the world forever because this is where the child meets peers and their influence and learns social skills. This system links the child to a bigger net work than that of the micro-system (Berk, 2005; Mwamwenda, 2005). While the micro system concentrates mainly on home and family, this system provides a bridge for the child to be part of a school and community as well. This is a partnership between school and home and the child benefits from all these systems (Berk, 2005; Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986). Parents, teachers, and friends, come into the child's consciousness. Various influences come into the child's life. New attachments are established with teachers and school and they determine the child's conduct for life. Positive and negative things are learnt from this system.

As many challenges come to the child, a new view of the world and problem-solving are learnt; new values are brought by teachers and other learners. Most of the times these values contradict values learnt at home creating an explosive situation (Berk, 2005). For example in this system poor family attachments can present a big problem to both the learner and the school. This directly affects school values and the child's connectedness to school creating strange responses in a child. Usually violence comes as a response to these contradictions in values.

Hence interventions like violence prevention programmes have to be formulated after a thorough analysis of this interaction between home and school. These interventions must bridge the gap between home and school to create an environment conducive to sharing information and values (Mwamwenda, 2004; Berk, 2005). Bronfenbrenner (1979), states that the interaction between home and school is constant and it directly impacts positively or negatively on the child's development.

When the home is involved in the child's experiences at school, teachers become better able to address the child's weaknesses and cultivate his/her strengths. In the same way something can be done even if the problem of the child is a direct result of poor home attachment. The child feels safe and secure in the school when he/she knows that there are people who care about him or her. Hence the need for teachers to be good caregivers responsive to children's needs to compliment the efforts of caregivers at home (Berk, 2005).

3.8.3 EXOSYSTEM AND ATTACHMENT

This system is not within the experiences of the child although it interferes with his/her life indirectly. The child has no direct link with it but this shapes the child's development and perceptions (Bronfenbrenner, 1979. 1986; Berk, 2005; Mwamwenda, 2004). For example the career of a parent and the parent's experiences although not directly linked to the child, does affect the child in terms of behaviour and conduct at school. A child's type of attachment can be influenced by pressures affecting the parent similarly parents' care can be affected by their trades. Usually these children adopt an anxious-ambivalent attachment style; they are always angry and trying to draw the attention of caregivers.

The child born to a clerical family will certainly behave differently from a child born to a family of entertainment celebrities. The trade of the parents can directly impact on a child's attachment to parents and to development. Positive impact occurs when the moral standards of a clerical family influence the child's behaviour, whereas the negative impact may occur when the liberal morals of the entertainment celebrities influence the child's behaviour. At the same time the rigidity of the cleric can create an anxious and ambivalent child.

When a parent spends most of the time travelling or out working, a child is bound to feel neglected and unwanted (Bronfenbrenner, 1979. 1986; Mwamwenda, 2004. Berk, 2005). This can impact negatively on the child's attachment style and behaviour in other systems. Such a child can miss out learning important aspects of life such as coping skills. When a problem affects such a child parents cannot have the time to take note of it because of their regular absence. Hence it is important to take note of such scenarios when dealing with violent children.

Cocker (2008) found that parents whose work places require extreme conformity rather than self expression and creativity tend to be rigid and inflexible in their child rearing. Children from such upbringing tend to show very little self-reliance and creativity (Berk, 2005. Mwamwenda, 2004). They are used to being told what to do and how to do it and as a result they can take commands (either negative or positive) from anyone. In most cases these become victims of aggressive and strong-willed children.

However on rare occasions these turn out to be as strong-willed and aggressive as their parents.

3.8.4 MACROSYSTEMS AND ATTACHMENT

Macro systems are defined by Garbarino and Abramowitz (1992) as a blue print for human or child development. This is how things should be done in society as dictated by cultural norms and values of larger society. Various cultures have many expectations from those who belong to them. Hence a social problem is defined within the context of a specific culture. For example what can be regarded as abuse in the West can just be elementary discipline in the Middle East.

However macro systems are dynamic and with the emergency of globalisation world cultures might merge as well (Berk, 2005). American values of power and grandeur as seen in the Hollywood movies and in their foreign policy might be adopted by other cultures in the world and this in turn will impact on individual character development. Unfortunately these values might manifest in child play in the school grounds and in the way children are attached to their caregivers. The emergency of pop culture has enhanced the adolescents' early detachment from the primary caregivers to attach to their peers. They now detach earlier to venture into freedom in

imitation of peers and their pop idols (Berk, 2005). Adolescents are easily influenced by global pop trends and this affects their attachment to parents and to school. To make it worse these new trends of behaviour come from peers and not from the primary caregivers.

Due to the dynamism of the macro system, support systems and violent prevention programmes, periodically find themselves overtaken by events (Netshitahame & Vollenhoven, 2002). Naser et al (2003) suggests that there must be consistent and constant adjustment of policies by governments and schools. In most cases, problems like school violence occur as a result of failure by the schools or policy makers to take note of the changes in global or universal trends (Cohen, 1999. Woolfolk, 2005; Mwamwenda, 2004; Cocker, 2008). Child counselling and psychological services should take note of these shifts in trends to.

3.9 AGGRESSION

Certainly attachment to caregivers must affect the level of aggression in an adolescent or aggression must affect the attachment of a child to a caregiver. This hen and egg phenomenon could be the scope for other researches in future but there should be a correlation between attachment and aggression.

3.9.1 THE CONCEPT

Aggression is defined as action intended to harm (McElliskem, 2004). Like the concept of violence, aggression can be either verbal or physical. It is also used by humans and animals for maintaining social order. In short every individual is aggressive although levels of aggression differ (Lio, 2004). Unlike violence which is a deliberate act of inflicting injury, aggression in humans is regarded as a spontaneous and instinctive survival mechanism embedded in genes to foster the survival of the human species (Buss, 2005; Fonagy, 2003; Freud, 1963). Hence Lio (2004)'s assertion that every individual has it. It is necessary to find out how this nature affects adolescent attachment to caregivers or how attachment to caregivers can determine the level of aggression exhibited by an individual. It is at adolescence that aggression of the human species is exhibited most. There should be a way in which attachment to caregivers triggers this aggression in individuals at adolescence.

However there has been a controversy over the years on what causes this aggression especially in humans. The debate has stemmed mainly from the fact that humans exhibit different levels of aggression. However one wonders whether attachment to caregivers does not play a major role in triggering this aggression.

The debate has created two schools of thought over the years:

- i. Drive Theorists; those that blame it on 'nature'.
- ii. Social Learning Theorists; those that blame it on 'nurturing'.

3.9.2 CONTROVERSIES ON AGGRESSION

3.9.2.1 PERSPECTIVES ON DRIVE THEORIES

Those that argue for nature through drive theories (Cant et al, 2006; Buss, 2005; Fonagy, 2003; Freud, 1963; McElliskem, 2004; Bushman & Anderson, 2001) argue that aggression is either inherited or inherent in all humans. Depending on biological disorders in the hormones, levels of aggression will differ from person to person. This argument is supported by Sigmund's claims that aggression is a process void of thought patterns and intrinsically driven solely and entirely by our instincts- the aim being self- aggrandisement.

This evolutionary claim asserts that aggression is an atavistic nature of every being linking us genetically to primate ancestors. Sigmund Freud further believed that aggression stems primarily from the re- direction of the death instinct inherent in every individual away from the self to others (Cant et al, 2006; Siyothula, 2004).

Thus aggression is an instinctive mode of self-preservation. The desire to preserve oneself from a perceived threat drives one to fight, defend or strike first. Every human being thrives for survival and this drive is deeply rooted in the sub conscience. However this drive cannot act independent of outside stimuli. This is where attachment to the environment comes in. The influence of home and school attachment shapes this drive turning people into either calm or aggressive individuals. Sigmund Freud's (1963) earlier argument on instinctive aggression would

not make sense without mentioning the environment as responsible for giving nature direction.

3.9.2.2 PERSPECTIVES ON SOCIAL LEARNING THEORIES.

Social learning theorists (Bandura, 1973; Mwamwenda, 2005; Collishaw et al, 2004; Mohr, 2006) argue that more than anything aggression is learned. While biology plays its part on levels of aggression or temperament in different individuals social institutions such as homes play a major role in shaping how individuals respond to pressure around them.

Bandura (1973) argues that aggression is linked directly to frustration, especially when frustration or an obstacle blocks someone's path to a goal. If rejection blocks someone's path to a goal aggression is likely to occur as a way of self-preservation. When a child is trying hard to catch up with gifted children in a class the tendency is that the child would be frustrated by the task especially if the school environment and teachers do not support him or her. At times the frustration can come as a result of the child's perception that those who are doing better than him or her at school might be having a low opinion of him or her. This frustration would trigger aggression in the child (Mwamwenda, 2005). He or she might target gifted peers or teachers. Hence the societal pressures would have driven the child to be aggressive.

Social learning theorists (Collishaw et al, 2004; Mohr, 2006; Stevens et al, 2002) argue that bases of socialisation teach children how to conduct themselves and how to deal with their emotions and behaviour. Since they learn coping skills at home, aggression and violence can also be responses they learn from the same place. Therefore the social control and regulation theories like the attachment theory emphasise that the less attached a child is to his or her caregivers the more vulnerable he or she stands to be to adopting risky attachment patterns which trigger aggression in an individual.

3.10 FACTORS LEADING TO AGGRESSION

3.10.1 OBSERVATION OF THE SOCIAL LEARNING AGGRESSION MODEL

Collishaw et al (2004)'s aggression model states that children learn the violence through observing their violent role models or by simply deducing the absence of a social control mechanism. Role models range from parents and teachers to actors on

television while social control mechanisms might include rules and values. Rules and values are part of a social code passed down by caregivers and if caregivers do not do so chances are high that a child might grow up without intrinsic social codes to follow. A mere observation of acts of aggression internalises violent responses to any social problem (Collishaw et al, 2004).

On the other hand Collishaw et al (2004)'s aggression model below states that aggression is nurtured by social forces by reinforcing aggressors to fight. In the same way it states possibilities of reducing the prevalence of aggression in an individual; the same society can reinforce good behaviour through reviewing the function of bases of socialisation such as schools and homes. Parents and teachers have a role to play to reduce the prevalence of aggression in the schools (Holt et al, 2009). They have the power and authority to influence the reversal of anti-social trends in the adolescents.

Arguing from this model one would notice that bases of socialisation (Home and school) have the power to reduce the prevalence of occurrence of aggression, because it is these bases that programme aggressors through various forms of reinforcement such as long standing beliefs in the supremacy of an aggressive male. The media has reinforced this stereotype through creating a super masculine Hollywood-style aggressive 'Rambo' that can liberate the weak or torment them. Fallahi et al (2009) states that most acts of aggression in the schools in the United States are committed by males which goes on to mean that indeed being male is a single predictor of violence in any society (Sutherland & Cressey, 1966). However the girl child is slowly catching in on this stereotype as well as the media is creating a new image of a fighting woman of the Hollywood-style 'Zinna' fame. Hence some girls are as troublesome as or more than boys.

However aggression will not always occur without driving factors and the following factors in the aggression model predict the prevalence of aggression; these encourage the prevalence of violence in a community:

3.10.1.1 RECEIVING OR EXPECTING PAYOFFS FOLLOWING AGGRESSION

Some people receive self-esteem from knowing that they can fight better than others or from knowing that they are champions in any given setting (Sutherland & Cressey,

1966; Collishaw et al, 2004). They will fight any time for personal aggrandisement. Hence the existence of community bullies almost everywhere. The problem that usually follows the personal feeling of gratifying the ego is the admiration that others have for such perceived champions resulting in a cycle of endless tendency of getting involved in a fight. Such aggressors feel an urge to fight and they will remain restless until they have fought. To them fighting brings satisfaction.

3.10.1.2 STOPPING AGGRESSION BY OTHERS

Some people tend to be aggressive because someone is trying to stop them from engaging in a fight (Ferguson and Beaver, 2009). This motivates them to continue being aggressive. At times some are driven by the realisation that people take them seriously as fighters. This thesis argues that these individuals are obsessed by the thought of being taken seriously and they would fight publicly to exhibit seriousness. They believe that fighting brings recognition. This is a common notion to adolescents that are in the anxious-avoidant, anxious-ambivalent, and disorganised attachment styles. Most of these adolescents have never been taken serious in anything and they regard aggression as the only vehicle of being taken serious. Those who try to stop them acknowledge their existence.

Hence they will fight to satisfy those who are stopping them or to show those who are stopping them that they cannot be stopped by anyone. They consider being stopped from fighting as a weakness (Ferguson and Beaver, 2009; Collishaw et al, 2004). It is true to the fact that wars are rarely stopped by external mediation but by the desire of the fighters to end the war. Hence this model suggests that programmes of stopping aggression must involve the aggressors at the initial stage of planning.

3.10.1.3 GETTING PRAISE OR STATUS OR SOME OTHER GOAL BY BEING AGGRESSIVE

Some fight to enhance social status especially in societies that value aggression. Some adolescent boys usually engage in acts of aggression to impress others or those of the opposite sex (Briffa, 2010; Collishaw et al, 2004). This is worsened by the belief in most societies that aggression denotes power and resilience. That is why there are many images in language and mythology which associate terms such as

hero and saviour with aggression and victory. Unless there is a paradigm shift in the mental images and language of our society aggression and violence will continue being associated with conquerors and heroes; it will not stop.

3.10.1.4 GETTING SELF-REINFORCEMENT AND PRIVATE PRAISE

Other people engage in aggression to satisfy their egos and to satisfy those around whom they consider to be weak, vulnerable, abused and deserving to be protected by those who are gifted. Fighting is very satisfying to them and some reach levels of obsession with fighting and they believe that it is the only way for them and others to be free from perceived oppression (Collishaw et al, 2004). This also is stimulated by the belief that one is fighting for the glory of many. Hence aggression becomes a duty to liberate themselves and others. These consider fighting to be a special gift that very few have and which they should treasure.

3.10.1.5 REDUCING TENSION

Some engage in aggression simply to relieve themselves of perceived mental tensions and they do not care whether any one approves or disapproves (Briffa, 2010). They believe it reduces tension and boredom in them. These reach psychopath or predatory levels where they believe fighting is therapeutic. This explains the behaviour of bullies who stalk their victims any time to pick a fight and relieve themselves of perceived discomfort and restlessness.

3.11 IMPLICATIONS OF AGGRESSION ON ATTACHMENT

In line with social learning theorists attachment plays a major role in aggression. Those who perceive rejection by care givers are bound to be more aggressive than those who are securely attached (Collishaw et al, 2004). In the same way those from disorganised homes tend to exhibit aggressive behaviour either because they have learnt it from home or because there is frustration blocking their goals. Attachment to social institutions regulates the level of violence of every person setting the human species to be different from other animal species (Ferguson and Beaver, 2009). As a regulatory theory the attachment theory explains how humans can avoid having uncontrollable aggression as a result of a 'Tarzan' experience (being brought up in a

place without norms and values) by attaching to social institutions with norms and values.

Disorganised environments have a bearing on how children respond to pressures around them; some have unconventional methods of responding to pressure as a result of being raised by unconcerned caregivers. Concerned caregivers impart coping skills spontaneously. Those without concerned caregivers adopt risky attachment styles such as anxious-preoccupied, dismissive-avoidant and fearful-avoidant and tend to be more aggressive when they confront stressful situations. These adolescents are compelled by their perceptions of absent care givers to defend themselves aggressively during stressful situations (Matud, 2005).

Reebye and Moretti (2005) argue that aggression in adolescents can result from the failure by the bases of socialisation to support children and assist them in emotion regulation. It can also result from failure by the child to learn to quickly read others emotional cues and to adjust their behaviour accordingly (Briffa, 2010; Collishaw et al, 2004). The element of attachment to bases of socialisation cannot be ignored in every element of human development.

3.12 IMPACT OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Moffat (2006) and Collishaw et al, (2004) state that psychiatric disorders and aggressive behaviour at adolescence can be linked to experiencing domestic violence at childhood. One out of every five households are affected by violence and children suffer most in this atmosphere of tension (Porter, 2003). However there is very little knowledge of the impact of the devastating effects of domestic violence on children who witness a parent or caregiver being subjected to violence (Matud, 2005; Collishaw et al, 2004; Ellsberg and Heise, 2005). Children who are exposed to domestic violence tend to have limited social skills, and exhibit violent, risky or delinquent behaviour, or suffer from depression or severe anxiety (David, 2005). Adolescents raised in violent homes are at greater risk of substance abuse, juvenile pregnancy and criminal behaviour than those raised in homes without violence (Tajima, 2004; Felitti et al, 2001).

In a survey conducted in 2003, de Wet (2003) reports that 65% of learners that are involved in acts of violence in the Eastern Cape blame it on the breakdown of family life. Hence it is true that a single best predictor of children becoming either perpetrators or victims of social or school violence later in life is whether or not they grow up in a home where there is domestic violence (Tajima, 2004; WHO, 2002; Fantuzzo and Mohr, 2003). This means any exposure to violence at home can lead to aggression in children and to less attachment to home. Children lose confidence in homes that are affected by domestic violence. They exhibit their anger and frustration through this aggression. They even tend to find it difficult to develop close and positive friendships and to trust a caregiver (UNICEF, 2000). The anger is not directed against the real abuser only but also against any perceived abuser. Perceived abusers can be other learners in the school. Such adolescents tend to be temperamental and prone to acts of aggression.

Social control theories (Hirschi and Gottfredson, 2005) state that a child becomes committed to any environment or institution that exposes him or her to proper norms and values of society. Proper values and norms are an attempt by society to exercise control on individuals and their behaviour (Hirschi, 2002). Homes affected by domestic violence do not instil values and norms that promote pride and security in a child but fear and resentment. Children that are compliant to the norms of their homes tend to be proud of their home environment; they speak well of their homes and avoid straining relations with siblings and adults (Tajima, 2004; Felitti et al, 2001). However experiences of domestic violence take away the pride and bring in feelings of resentment of home and everything it represents. They lose the sense of belonging to the home and surrender themselves to values they get from peer groups.

Hence any home that threatens a child's security does not attract the child towards it. Similarly any threat to their caregiver makes the child hopeless and less attached to that caregiver and the institution. For example many children who have observed their mothers being abused tend to seek alternative caregivers outside home (Rasmussen et al, 2005; Felitti et al, 2001). At times they lose respect for their abused parent to either imitate or appease the violent parent. They also tend to be bossy to siblings and peers as a result of exposure to power-based conflict (Porter,

2003). It is during this stage that the child adopts aggressive behaviour as a way of avoiding stressful moments. Bester (2007) states that adolescents will rely more on the peer group for social support if their relationship with their parents is weak. The answer to every problem they encounter becomes aggression. However girls tend to lose self-esteem as a result of adopting fear and distrust for public life and males.

A child exposed to domestic violence tends to generalise the response to violence, thus programming his/her brain to respond inappropriately to various stimuli outside of the threatening context and these programming errors lead to a lot of behavioural and psychological symptoms (Brown, 2009); this may include violent behaviour and an avoidant style of attachment to both the abuser and the abused. Hence the effects of stress and maternal depression affect the attachment style of adolescents, and adults (Ellsberg and Heise, 2005. Rasmussen et al, 2005). Conjugal violence is stressful to both victim and the viewer. Domestic violence is the most common problem in the micro system and it forms the basis for anxious-preoccupied, dismissive-avoidant and fearful-avoidant attachment styles. Those rejected by parents and those that view violence regularly tend to have the same trauma and exhibit deviant behaviour at adolescence.

Some children tend to be truant from school and to withdraw from the public (Mathews and Abrahams, 2001; Siyothula, 2004; Juvonen et al, 2000). They become detached from school activities and lose interest as their performance drops. Thus domestic violence is capable of affecting a child's bond with institutions such as schools.

3.13 ABUSED CHILDREN AND ATTACHMENT

Child abuse is synonymous with neglect of children, indifference, violence on children, humiliation of children, terrorisation of children, isolation of children, corruption of children by enticing them into perversion, and unreliable parenting (Porter, 2003). Children that are exposed to any of these abuses tend to be insecurely attached to abusive caregivers and to people that try to reach out to them. They are less likely to form attachments to other people; they do not trust anyone. They are characterised by avoidance and devalued self-concept. They do not easily

confide in anyone and their greatest problem is their lack of self control and regulation of emotions because of little coping strategies (Ellsberg and Heise, 2005; Porter, 2003; Rasmussen et al, 2005). Because of their disturbed attachments to parents they are more likely to assault or threaten adults than other children. Their behaviour is frequently disruptive and aggressive. Those sexually abused tend to display sexualised behaviour or a tendency to sexually abuse others.

3.14 HORMONAL CHANGES, AGGRESSION, AND ATTACHMENT

Generally adolescence is a stage of emotional, psychological, hormonal and physical change in the youth (McMorris, and Christopher, 2000). This stage occurs between the age of twelve and twenty one; this is high school going age. At this stage new trends in behaviour are observed; aggression is one of them. Aggression is normally observed in boys as the testosterone hormone develops aggressive behaviour and various sexual characteristics in the body such as pubic hair, deep voice and sperm production (Mwamwenda, 2005). Self concept develops at this stage as adolescents develop a sense of independence from caregivers. Some adolescents go through a phase of denial, disappointment and dissatisfaction with what they turn out to be physically. Those who receive rejection by their caregivers and peers tend to rebel against the expected norms at home or at school.

Some children are not well prepared by their caregivers to accept the physical changes and challenges that come with this stage. Securely attached adolescents tend to receive the changes well whereas the dismissive and avoidant adolescents tend to develop poor self- esteem. This development affects the behaviour of an adolescent. Restlessness and aggression have been observed mainly in boys. Only a few girls have been observed to be exhibiting restlessness and aggression. Psychoanalysts like Lio (2004) explain this aggression using the libido theory, which states that changes in adolescence occur as a result of change in the libido. This is expressed through the growing desire to own and conquer other children's territories or simply to be seen to be having more girl friends than others.

3.15 PEER PRESSURE AND ATTACHMENT

Adolescents can develop aggression or aggressive behaviour from being influenced by peers. They oscillate between blind submission to some self-chosen leader and defiant rebellion against any and every authority (Lio, 2004). They tend to follow trends more than what their caregivers want them to follow. These trends usually come from peer groups that tend to rise and directly challenge family values. They learn many things from these peer groups especially the role of sexuality and self concept because the peer group has a stronger influence on the personality development of the adolescent than parents, brothers, sisters, family, friends, teachers, or any other adults (Bester, 2007). They normally consider feedback from their friends as more important than that of their parents.

In a research on personality at adolescence conducted by Tatar (1998) in the United States, boys were found to develop the following personality factors more from interaction with peer groups than with other people: Cordiality, abstract thoughts, emotional stability, irritability, dominance, carelessness, conscientiousness, social boldness, soft-heartedness, individualism, tendency towards guilt, Self-sufficiency, Self-control, and Tension.

The results were slightly different for girls because girls are less affected by group pressure than boys (Fourie, 2001). In the same research, in a sample of 395 adults reporting on their personal development at adolescence, the majority of them highlighted teachers as the group which had had the most meaningful influence on them. However advocates of heredity (Lio, 2004; Bester, 2007) fail to consider this fact in the development of aggression in adolescents. They claim that there is little influence that peer groups can contribute to the development of adolescent behaviour.

A major factor is that peer group socialisation function in a social and cultural manner (Mwamwenda, 2005). Adolescence from different cultures value different behaviours and forms of sexuality. Societies that value militancy in men might be very vulnerable to producing violent males and submissive females.

3.16 SELF CONCEPT AND HOME AND SCHOOL ATTACHMENT

Self-concept is how one perceives himself as a result of interaction with one's environment. Self concept is developed early in childhood through adulthood as a result of interaction with caregivers (Mwamwenda, 2005; Fourie, 2001; Zeanah et al, 2003). If caregivers reinforce negative information about the self the child is likely to grow up with a negative or poor self concept whereas a child that grows up exposed to positive self concept tends to grow up with a positive self concept. If children are rejected or perceive rejection by caregivers they tend to adopt a negative self concept and risky attachment styles.

This does also apply to adolescents at school; if the school reinforces the positive values of self the adolescent is likely to have a positive self concept. Mwamwenda (2005) states that self concept is developed by interaction with those around you. Teachers and peers can influence a negative or a positive self concept in an individual through the way they treat them. If a learner perceives the reactions of others towards him/her as positive he/she is likely to develop a positive self concept which in turn enhances the degree of connectedness to the school. However if the learner perceives the reactions as negative the learner is likely to develop feelings of self worthlessness. For example when adolescents sense rejection by teachers and peers they tend to lose their self-esteem and self-concept. They eventually disregard the school and its functions.

Securely attached adolescents have a positive self concept because they trust the care givers and they believe that caregivers are concerned about their needs and security. They perceive love and trust from the caregivers and the environment. However adolescents with anxious and preoccupied attachment styles tend to have very low self esteem and a poor self concept and they tend to believe that they are worthless and unlovable. Such develop ways of recognition within their environment. Some tend to be violent and dismissive.

Hence self concept is developed at the bases of socialisation through the way children interact with caregivers and peers. According to social control theories these social bases enhance children's respect or disrespect for social institutions. To reduce the prevalence of acts of violence children should be exposed to positive self worth both at home and at school.

3.17 ECONOMIC DEPRIVATION AND ATTACHMENT

It has been observed that one's behaviour and philosophy is determined by one's upbringing and social standing. Hence poverty cannot be ignored as a factor that determines children's temperaments and behaviour.

3.17.1 POVERTY

Poverty is defined as general lack of basics for survival and it has been blamed for the dehumanisation of individuals and families in the world. The Copenhagen Declaration (1995) lists the deprivation of the following human needs as definition of poverty: food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education, information, lack of entitlement, power, control and opportunities. It is not only a third world phenomenon but a universal problem. The developed world too has its own poor people in the inner-cities and in the country side where the majority of the world's poor lives (Maarman, 2009; Smith, 2005; Solley, 2005; Krugman and Wells, 2009). Hence a lot of violence, starvation, low self-esteem, poor academic performance, and drug addiction in these places.

Socio-structural trends and the social exclusion characteristic of South African society have been identified as a major cause of poverty (Akinboade and Lalthapersad-Pillay, 2004). Poverty can be seen through the way people live; the low income, informal settlement, irregular patterns of spending, poor or dilapidated school environments, feelings of hopelessness and meaninglessness, perceptions of 'a helpless government' and having a negative view of those perceived as rich (Spies, 2004. Mwamwenda, 2005). Such people tend to develop hatred of those who come from families that are well to do. Many children born in these areas have a tendency of admiring poverty indirectly by having what South Africans call 'ekasi' mentality (a pop culture celebration of township or shanty town life) (Du Toit, 2004). This creates a perpetual poverty cycle in the community.

However most developed economies like South Africa support the poor through the provision of social grants. Despite government social grants being given to poor families in South Africa, South Africa still has some of the poorest families on earth (Nduru, 2006). Social grants still contribute more than half of the income of the poorest households. The number of recipients of government grants has risen

between 2001 and 2009 from three million to twelve million (Stats SA 2009/10). These Social grants only benefit around 28.3% of individuals in South Africa (General Household Survey, July 2009). Despite the claim that the provision of grants has reduced poverty by 15% most families still live under financial stress and will do anything to survive because the government expenditure on the poor does not match economic growth.

Black people make up 78 percent of South Africa's population of 46.9 million people, whites 9.6 percent, coloureds 8.9 percent and Indians 2.5 percent, according to official statistics (General Household Survey, July 2009; Nduru, 2006; Du Toit, 2004). More than 80 percent of black people in South Africa still live below the poverty datum line. At least 20% of South African households have inadequate or severely inadequate access to food (General Household Survey, July 2009). This implies that the majority of children are brought up in poor homes by poor caregivers and that these children attend poor schools in the townships and provinces. This then agrees with Maarman (2009)'s argument that poverty plays a major role in the ecology of a child by negatively influencing the child's capabilities to learn and deal with his environment.

Poverty is linked to unemployment and the unemployment rate is rising in South Africa; currently it stands at 41 % plus (StatsSA, 2007b; Nduru, 2006) and most parents or caregivers are unemployed. They rely on government grants which are received by only 43.7% of the national population for survival and they send their children to government schools (General Household Survey, July 2009). Van der Berg (2002) states that South African poverty and inequality are strongly rooted in the labour market.

According to Statistics South Africa 2005/6 using 60.1% of poor individuals who live in the South African provinces calculated poverty rates for four provinces as follows: 24.9% in Gauteng, 28.8% in the Western Cape, 57.6% in the Eastern Cape, and 60.1% in Limpopo. In general KwaZulu Natal, Limpopo, and the Eastern Cape have the highest poverty rates and the majority of the 60.1% of South Africa's poor live in these provinces.

In addition to this 45% of all female headed households which are on the increase in South Africa live below the 'lower bound' poverty line compared to that of 25% of male headed households (Statistics South Africa household survey, 2005/6). This is increasing as a result of the increasing number of young (15- 24years) heads of households as a direct result of youth unemployment in South Africa (Stats South Africa, 2005/6). The majority of these live in the rural areas and in the informal settlements. This has resulted in the division of South African society into two economic zones (low income zones and high income zones) and in extremely poor pass rates in mainly black schools (which happen to be in the majority of schools) (Van Aardt, 2007).

According to the General Household Survey (July 2009) 13.4% of South African households are informal and 53% of South African schools are categorised as Quintile 1 schools (those regarded as the poorest by the provincial education departments). The four provinces in 2009 with the highest percentage of households living in informal settlements are Gauteng (22.3%), Western Cape (17,1%), North West (16,0%) and Free State (14,8%) (General Household Survey, July 2009). This means that the majority of children live in poverty and this poverty interferes with their socialisation.

Government schools that draw most of their learners from low income zones have reported more cases of school violence than private schools which draw most of their learners from high income zones (Harrison, 2006; Netshitahame & Vollenhoven, 2002). Hence poverty plays a big role in the education and behaviour of the children in South Africa.

3.17.2 ECONOMICALLY DEPRIVED CHILDREN

Many of the children who experience poverty in their homes and communities tend to turn to deviant behaviour like stealing and violence to either eke out a living or build their social esteem (Solley, 2005; Blastland, BBC News, 31 July, 2009). This poverty is exhibited through the way these children conduct themselves at home and at school. They scramble for food and become aggressive at slight provocation. Their self-esteem is low and they react violently against caregivers and against any social

control system because of their perception that everyone knows that their families are poor.

In short children of the poor are angry children and these children tend to adopt risky attachment styles at adolescence (Solley, 2005). Their anger translates to aggression both at home and at school. They become less attached to caregivers who fail to respond adequately to their needs. However there is still no explanation to why a child would be securely attached to home but less attached to school and other institutions yet the social control theories state that being securely attached at home guarantees one of respect for other social institutions. For example children that have witnessed the rejection of their caregivers by social institutions like church and school tend to be less connected to those institutions. Hence poverty can still lead children to be securely attached to parents they perceive to be hard working. Poverty will not always lead children to adopt risky attachment styles.

There is also a high risk of educational underachievement for children who are from low-income housing circumstances (Solley, 2005). In most cases these tend to be less attached to either home or school. There is nothing they are proud of in all the caregivers; in most cases the perception is that caregivers at home fail to provide safety and security and those at school do not seem to be impressed at all by their performance.

3.17.3 LESS DEPRIVED CHILDREN

However the majority of less deprived children tend to be securely attached. They are confident and they relate well with most people. Less deprived children unlike economically deprived children, tend to trust their caregivers because they can attend to their concerns and needs (Siyothula, 2004). They also tend to trust those around them both at home and at school and they assume roles that have to do with controlling others. In most cases these perform well and appreciate correction by teachers and peer groups.

However this cannot be taken to mean that these children do not deviate from social norms. One wonders what would happen if those who assume roles of control are

resisted by those they want to control. The majority might respond to resistance aggressively despite their social status. Hence aggression comes as a result of blocked or hindered goals (Siyothula, 2004). That is why we still have violence in private schools where there is no poverty.

3.18 CURRENT STUDIES ON HOME AND SCHOOL ATTACHMENT AND CORRELATES

3.18.1 CORRELATION WITH CIGARETTE SMOKING, ALCOHOL AND MARIJUANA USE

Studies have been done in the United States of America on the effects of children's home and school attachment on antisocial acts such as cigarette smoking, alcohol use, and marijuana use at school (Dornbusch et al, 2001). The research assessed whether these factors reduced the overall frequency, prevalence, and intensity of each problem behaviour. It also examined the power of these attachments to reduce deviance among adolescents who were differentiated in terms of gender, ethnicity, and their community's level of economic deprivation. The research found that adolescent attachments to family and school tended to reduce the overall frequency, prevalence, and intensity of deviant involvement, regardless of community context, gender, or ethnic group. Connection to the family was found to be the stronger predictor of lower levels of deviance. Attachment to school was found to predict lower levels of initiation of deviant behaviour but did not predict the intensity of deviance.

In a similar study in Denmark (Rasmussen et al, 2005) it was found that there is an independent inverse association between school connectedness and smoking among both boys and girls. However parents' attitude towards the smoking was found to be a modifying factor in their children's smoking. Hence home attachment can control the prevalence of acts of deviance. It has been found that poor psychosocial ties to school are associated with being a smoker (Rasmussen et al, 2005. Dornbusch et al, 2001).

3.18.2 CORRELATION WITH MALE SEX OFFENDERS

In a study by Smallbone and Dadds (1998) in the USA it was found that most sexual offenders can link their tendency to commit crimes to their upbringing. For example

child molesters were found to have a combination of anxious and avoidant styles of attachment owing to problematic relationships with their mothers at childhood. In contrast rapists were found to refer to their fathers as having been unsympathetic, uncaring and violent to them at childhood.

3.18.3 CORRELATION WITH TEACHER INFLUENCE

In a study in the USA Hallinan (2008) found that school connectedness in learners can be influenced by teachers' attitude towards their learners. Learners who like their teachers have higher academic achievement and a lower incidence of disciplinary problems, absenteeism, truancy, and dropping out of school than those who dislike their teachers. It was found that learners who perceive that their teachers care about them, respect them, and praise them are more apt to like school than those who do not. Teachers who apply corporal punishment are likely to influence learners to be less attached to school than those who apply collaborative methods.

3.19 IMPLICATIONS OF ATTACHMENT ON EDUCATION

3.19.1 VIOLENCE AND DISRUPTION

Violence in any school set up disrupts school management and lesson delivery. When learners bring violence to school or when learners turn violent because of the school climate, the business of the school stops (Johnson, 2009). Violence brings tension and fear to school and this in turn undermines the purpose of school as an organisation. As a result of the existence of violence in school teachers spend most of their time dealing with learners' behavioural problems and trying to manage potentially violent situations instead of teaching (Dinkes et al, 2007). While violence is a product of four variables of individual conformity to an institution (attachment, commitment, belief, and involvement) it does also affect the same values in any social setting. For example it affects learner's attachment and commitment to school in as much as it affects their beliefs (culture) and involvement in school activities.

3.19.2 ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Good academic performance is associated with secure attachment (Hallinan, 2008). Children that are securely attached tend to be mentally stable and confident whereas

insecurely attached children tend to be dismissive and unstable. Securely attached children tend to perform better in all academic areas than those in the risky attachment styles. Those in the risky attachment styles channel most of their energy to self-preservation (Rasmussen et al, 2005). They withdraw from involvement in school activities and from committing themselves to their work.

3.20 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Thus the environment plays a pivotal role in learners' behaviour. Violence or aggression can be learnt either from the micro-system (home) or from the meso-system (beyond home; school). Hence the theory of attachment helps us to understand how adolescents respond to these two systems and how these two systems directly affect their behaviour. This review evokes the attachment theory to argue that human behaviour (such as physical and verbal violence) is largely the product of how people were nurtured more than it is of their nature. The understanding of the fact that social control systems can control human behaviour can make it possible for policy makers and implementers to come up with practical interventions.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY AND APPROACH TO RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

To explain the methodology that this study took, this chapter looks at society and social problems and society's quest for knowledge. It analyses philosophical beliefs in knowledge (ontology) and ways in which people acquire knowledge (epistemology). This is done through comparing four existing and emerging research paradigms and designs; the interpretivist, the positivist, the phenomenological, and post-positivist paradigms. Within the discussion the researcher explains the paradigm and design that influenced this research.

4.2 SOCIETY, SOCIAL RESEARCH AND PROBLEMS

Social research works within a broader historical and social context because of the mere fact that the society we live in has always been dynamic and having problems. These problems from time immemorial have always needed answers. Karl Marx and Frederick Engels and their predecessors defined the history of societies as a struggle by men to survive class struggles and conflicts (Feuer, 1969). Since then social scientists have researched on various problems that people encounter in day to day life as they endeavour to survive these class struggles and conflicts. As a result this has stimulated epistemological debates leading to the formulation of many social research methods in order to gain understanding of problems and provide solutions.

Society has many problems and questions that need answers: violence, its causes and impact, attachment problems, politics and governance, remuneration and performance, and many other emerging problems. There has always been a need for reviewing research methods and paradigms in line with emerging problems to move away from the traditional methods of research. These have always been the scientific or positivist paradigm and the qualitative or interpretivist paradigm. Social scientists have used the two effectively in social research despite each paradigm's weaknesses. As a result of the existence of weaknesses in the scientific and the qualitative paradigms researchers have used the two to complement each other leading to the emergency of post-positivism.

The post-positivist paradigm emphasises on bringing together mixed methods in collecting data. In this way research can use qualitative data together with quantitative data without any restrictions. In short problems of society can now be viewed both qualitatively and scientifically.

However social problems can never be separated from those that experience them. In short people are a product of their experiences. So what the post-positivist paradigm could not solve through the use of qualitative and positivist methods, the phenomenological paradigm could solve. The problems of violence and war traumatise and affect individuals and their responses to research. Those affected are usually transformed forever in terms of conduct and approach to life. Hence the phenomenological research paradigm takes note of these human experiences as it measures variables that researchers will be testing; violence and gender, age and sex, race and behaviour, religion and attachment, education and economic growth, political ideology and economic growth, remuneration and motivation, region and poverty, work and the economy, population and migration, technology and the environment, war and security, and many other variables (Kornblum et al, 2007).

Hence traditional methods have always been perceived by many social researchers as inadequate although sufficient to stand as independent research methods (Kothari, 2004; Sindhu, 2003; Huberman and Miles, 2002). These other methods have only built on the strengths and weaknesses of traditional methods. This on its own makes the traditional methods difficult to replace. For example, population censuses as social research cannot avoid using quantitative or positivist methods. In the same way house hold surveys have to utilise the positivist methods to measure various variables such as poverty, education, and many others.

4.3 PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS AND RESEARCH PARADIGMS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

Research paradigms have been subject to various philosophical debates among social scientists (Brown, 2002; Rembe, 2005; Moyo, 2004). For example the positivist or the positivist-empiricist and interpretivist paradigms have always been pitted against each other by social researchers for many years in epistemological terms.

This brings us to important philosophical terms like *epistemology*, *methodology* and *ontology* around which the debate on research and philosophical foundations have been.

Epistemology is a study of how people or systems of people know things and how they think they know things (Golden, 1992). It is concerned with the nature of knowledge; what constitutes valid knowledge, what can be known and who can be a knower. During research, designs determine what shall be knowledge at the end. Hence the term epistemology refers to the study of how knowledge is found.

Ontology refers to the knowledge that methodologies (processes of investigation) find. What qualifies to be knowledge has always been the subject of debate since ancient Greece (Krauss, 2005; Becker, 1996). Hence the decision on what constitutes knowledge depends on one's ideological or philosophical inclination. May be what knowledge is, is determined by the means one arrives at it. This brings in the importance of methodology in all debate on epistemology.

Hence, the epistemological strength of each paradigm is determined by the type of question one has. Each question deals with different specifics that decide the philosophical approach towards it.

4.4 A CONTRAST OF PARADIGMS: POSITIVIST, INTERPRETIVIST, AND PHENOMENOLOGICAL PARADIGMS

The following graph explains the difference between the positivist, and interpretivist, paradigms:

TABLE. 4.4.1 A CONTRAST OF PARADIGMS

METATHEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT	POSITIVISM	INTERPRETIVISM
Ontology	Person (researcher) and reality are separate.	Person (researcher) and reality are inseparable (life-world).

Epistemology	Objective reality exists beyond the human mind.	Knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted through a person's lived experience.
Research Object	Research object has inherent qualities that exist independently of the researcher.	Research object is interpreted in light of meaning structure of person's (researcher's) lived experience.
Method	Statistics, content analysis.	Hermeneutics, phenomenology, et cetera.
Theory of Truth	Correspondence theory of truth: one-to-one mapping between research statements and reality.	Truth as intentional fulfilment: interpretations of research object match lived experience of object.
Validity	Certainty: data truly measures reality.	Defensible knowledge claims.
Reliability	Replicability: research results can be reproduced	Interpretive awareness: researchers recognize and address implications of their subjectivity.

The following graph explains the difference between the positivist, and phenomenological paradigms:

TABLE. 4.4.2 POSITIVIST AND PHENOMENOLOGICAL PARADIGMS

	POSITIVIST PARADIGM	PHENOMENOLOGICAL PARADIGM
Basic beliefs	The world is external and objective	The world is socially Constructed and subjective

	Observer is independent	Observer is part of what observed
	Science is value-free	Science is driven by human interests
Researcher should	Focus on facts	Focus on meanings
	Look for causality and fundamental laws	Try to understand what is happening
	Reduce phenomenon to simplest elements	Look at the totality of each situation
	Formulate hypotheses and then test them	Develop ideas through induction from data
Preferred methods Include	Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured	Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomena
	Taking large samples	Small samples investigated in depth or over time

4.5 ATTRIBUTES OF POSITIVIST RESEARCH

To the positivist only objective, quantifiable, observable and measurable data should be taken into account in research and the product of these qualifies as knowledge whereas to the interpretivist qualitative or descriptive data can create knowledge (Huberman, and Miles, 2002; Kothari, 2004). All social science research with random samples, operationally defined variables, and statistical analysis, is positivist. Within positivism, knowledge is treated as follows:

- Maths, science and technical knowledge are given high status, because they are regarded as objective; separate from the person and the private world.
- What counts is the means (methodology) by which knowledge is arrived at. These means must be objective, empirical and scientific.

- Only certain topics are worthy of enquiry, namely those that exist in the public world.
- The relationship between the self and knowledge has been largely denied – knowledge is regarded as separate from the person who constructs it. The political is separate from the personal.
- Knowledge is construed as being something discovered, not produced by human beings

(Huberman, and Miles, 2002; Kothari, 2004).

4.5.1 PHILOSOPHICAL ASSUMPTIONS AND QUALITIES OF THE POSITIVIST PARADIGM

- Concepts and knowledge are held to be the product of straightforward experience, interpreted through rational deduction.
- Assumes that if social research is done properly it will follow the model of the natural sciences and provide a clear, unambiguous road to the causes of certain social or psychological phenomena.
- Some assume that it can predict social trends and can even be used to control events.
- This assumption was in turn made possible by the assumption that there were one-to-one correspondences between social phenomena and their causes.
- Positivist research places faith in quantification and on the idea that using correct techniques will provide correct answers.
- It is also concerned to some extent with prediction and with control.

(Huberman, and Miles, 2002; Kothari, 2004).

4.5.2 POSITIVIST RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

4.5.2.1 EXPERIMENTATION

This is a way of testing hypotheses using a variable to assess causal relationships by allocating subjects randomly into two groups. One group is used as control while the other is subjected to tests (Oakley, 2000).

4.5.2.2 SURVEYS

Adams (2007) defines a survey as a method of gathering data through asking respondents questions in any of the following ways:

- a) By telephone
- b) By questionnaires
- c) By internet

There are five different types of surveys:

- a) *Cross-Sectional Surveys*: Data are collected at one point in time from a sample selected to represent a larger population.
- b) *Longitudinal Surveys* = Trend, Cohort, and Panel
- c) *Trend*: Surveys of sample population at different points in time
- d) *Cohort*: Study of same population each time data are collected, although samples studied may be different.
- e) *Panel*: Collection of data at various time points with the same sample of respondents.

For this longitudinal study questionnaires were adopted as the data gathering instrument as it shall be explained later in 4.12.8. Data was gathered at different points in time and targeted the same sample of respondents so that behaviour trends of adolescents could be observed.

4.6 THE INTERPRETIVIST PARADIGM

However all research that collects its data through interviews, focus groups, observation, or review of documents is qualitative. There are epistemological strengths that this paradigm has over the positivist. For example the interpretivists have argued over time that life is not linear but it consists of behaviour and feelings that can never be quantified (Golden, 1992; Sindhu, 2003).

4.6.1 INTERPRETIVIST RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

4.6.2 DESCRIPTIVE/INTERPRETIVE

This is the practice of noting qualitative data based on actual observation of subjects' behaviour during research.

4.6.2.1 FOCUS GROUP

This is a way of collecting data from a group discussion on experiences of different research subjects (Brannen and Nilson, 2002). The discussion is narrowed to a topic that the researcher is focussing on to avoid unnecessary diversion. Normally, this technique gets affected by the Hawthorne effect as subjects alter their behaviour to accommodate the researcher.

4.6.2.2 ACTION RESEARCH

This involves identifying a problem and focussing on solutions. It is social experiment where an empirical test is administered on a variable (Brannen and Nilson, 2002). Teachers are always involved in action research as they find answers to different problems that learners encounter. The introduction of various approaches as experiment in teaching is action research.

4.6.2.3 ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH

Payne and Payne (2004) define ethnographic research or practice as a practice of detailing prolonged, systematic, first hand, direct encounters with the subjects. This type of practice can only succeed if the researcher has skill of penetrating social groups being studied.

4.6.2.4 GROUNDED THEORY

This is the testing of hypotheses or theories using data. This seeks to build systematic theoretical statements from coding and analysing data and then revisiting concepts to test them. Grounded theory is the basis of all research in both the interpretivist and positivist paradigms (Allen, 2003; Huberman and Miles, 2002). It brings together the concepts of deduction and induction.

4.6.3 COMMON CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERPRETIVIST TECHNIQUES

- Immersion of the Researcher in the Context
- Awareness of Multiple Perspectives
- Data is mostly qualitative; spoken word, documents, observations

4.6.4 INTERPRETIVIST DATA PROCESSING

- gather data
- extract themes
- postulate generalisations
- propose taxonomies

4.7 THE PHENOMENOLOGICAL RESEARCH DESIGN

This design takes into consideration the experiences of both the researcher and subject. It brings qualities of interpretivism, where research considers people's feelings and conduct. In this design the subjects are observed and interviewed for their opinions. The experiences of the subjects are the centre of this research design. It is ideal to use this design where the researcher deals with the interactive experiences of his/ her subjects. This design emphasises on the importance of meanings and the subjective interpretation of reality by the researcher and individuals.

4.7.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF PHENOMENOLOGICAL DATA

Data gathered through phenomenological research is usually qualitative as it is drawn from interviews, document search, and observations. Most of these experiences are described and interpreted for meaning. Hence when one is using this design one has to understand the historical and cultural context of one's subjects lest there be confusion in the meaning making (Krauss, 2005; Creswell, 2003). This is where most of the weaknesses of this design are; there is great risk of misinterpretation of meanings due to the fact that realism and perception are never perfect. Different groups in society have different ways of expressing themselves making it difficult to have a universal definition of reality or truth or knowledge.

4.8 THE POST-POSITIVIST DESIGN

The post positivist design is a move away from the supposedly rigid positivist design. It claims to be a merger of both positivist and interpretivist designs (Creswell, 1994). Hence the design's emphasis on using mixed methods and multiple measures brought from both the positivist and the interpretivist designs for collecting data. Proponents of the post-positivist design like Ryan (2006) argue that humans can never be objective about social matters.

The post-positivist research design strives to 'produce an awareness of the complexity, historical contingency and fragility of the practices that we invent to discover the truth about ourselves' (Kraus, 2005). Ryan (2006) argues that the only way to avert these complexities and to tap from historical contingencies without compromising validity and reliability of the instruments (to be used for collecting data) will be to use various methods of data collection and analysis. Scholars like Maree (2007), and Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) have gone to the extreme by saying post-positivism is the uttermost portrayal of realism. They state that post-positivism is holistic and an embodiment of totality.

However this design contrary to Maree (2007) and Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) has been criticised for failure to come up with something new (Healy & Perry, 2000). While it covers the gaps that the positivist and interpretivist designs leave, it merely regurgitates what has already been said by both positivists and interpretivists.

Positivists like Kraus (2005) and Ryan (2006) still condemn the post-positivist design for subscribing to interpretivist methods which they claim collects data that is immeasurable.

4.9 THE PARADIGM THAT GUIDED THIS STUDY

The research was positivist and it only concentrated on objective, quantifiable, observable and measurable data to enable the researcher to observe frequencies and prevalence of violence in the schools. It was the most practical and purely scientific paradigm which could bring out the answers to the questions of this research without any ambiguity and controversy.

The following question was the focus during this research as mentioned in chapter 1:

A Study of the Relations of Family and School Attachment to forms of Learner Violence in Secondary School Communities in Amathole Education District, Eastern Cape

The research question and sub-questions that guided this research were as follows:

What are the relations of family and school attachment to dimensions of adolescent-learners' violent behaviours (verbal violence and physical violence) at school?

- a) Does attachment to ***school relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***verbal*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- b) Does attachment to ***family relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***verbal*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- c) Does attachment to ***school relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***physical*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- d) Does attachment to ***family relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***physical*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- e) Does the pattern of results at (a) to (d) differ for adolescent-learners of different *gender*?
- f) Does the pattern of results at (a) to (d) differ for adolescent-learners from different *social environments* (i.e. economically deprived communities and less economically deprived communities)?
- g) What are the implications of the results above for violence prevention in secondary schools?

The main question and its sub-questions required the researcher to focus on:

- (1) Overall levels, measured by observation of frequencies in specific questions in the questionnaire
- (2) Prevalence measured by observation of frequencies and means.
- (3) Frequency of forms of violence by adolescent-learners measured by observing frequencies in specific questions in the questionnaire.

This question required the researcher to look deeply at the possibilities of correlations between violence and home and school attachment and to look at various variables that influence these primary caregivers and the adolescent learners. The nature of the question usually determines the type of paradigm and research design to be used (Maree, 2007). Only the positivist approach could produce measurable, reliable and valid answers to this question.

4.9.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study used the survey research design. Research design is defined as a structure of conducting a research (Trochim, 2006). It provides direction to the researcher in getting answers for his/ her research questions. It is also defined as a blue print or structure of a research (Creswell, 2003). It provides epistemological answers to the question under research. Brown (2002) argues that it guides the manner in which the study is to be conducted and it provides a frame work for the study. It puts into place conditions for the collection of data so as to align the research to its purpose. In actual fact the research design fulfils the philosophical arguments of the research paradigm. It decides the quantitateness or the qualitateness of the paradigm.

Design also determines how the researcher will deal with the data and with his subjects during and after research (Maree, 2007). It guides the researcher on matters of ethics and on methods of reporting findings. Hence the survey design chosen for this research was suitable because it determined how research instruments and data were to be administered.

4.9.2 WHY DO A SURVEY?

The research adopted the survey design as a way of conducting the research. The survey design is broad as it consists of asking people questions through the

telephone, the internet, the questionnaire, and in many other emerging methods (Adams et al, 2007).

Despite the criticism that surveys lack imagination (Goldenberg, 1992) the following are the qualities of the survey design that influenced the researcher to use it apart from the dictates of the question:

4.9.2.1 UNIQUENESS

It gathers information not available from other sources. Thus the survey design enables the researcher to acquire original data to produce original information. Using a survey enables researchers to always find something new in the society (Payne and Payne, 2007).

4.9.2.2 NON-PROBABILITY AND PROBABILITY SAMPLING

It has unbiased representation of population of interest as most subjects are given equal chances to participate (Trochim, 2006). It is also flexible in that a researcher can still use the non-probability sampling if the sample is as big as the one used for this research.

4.9.2.3 STANDARDIZATION OF MEASUREMENT

Surveys gather the same information collected from all respondents making it easy for the researcher to deduce information. Surveys collect data from different points but all respondents respond to the same question using the same instrument making it easy for the researcher to be guaranteed of getting standard information.

4.9.2.4 ANALYSIS NEEDS

Surveys use data to complement existing data from secondary sources. Theories can be tested or verified using surveys. By virtue of being able to assess human behaviour in a large sample or population, what writers have said or hypothesised can be verified or tested within a short space of time.

4.9.2.5 CONVENIENT SAMPLE SIZE

This type of design which allows the researcher to use his/her discretion can enable the researcher to deal with big sample sizes within a short time (Creswell, 2003). Hence the study was able to gather data from 317 adolescent learners, in more than

10 conveniently chosen schools in the Amathole District within two months which could not have been done by other designs.

4.10 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING

Payne and Payne (2007) define sampling as a process of selecting a sub-set of people to participate in a study from a large population or sample frame. For this research, the sample was in excess of 300 adolescent-learners to enhance feasibility, validity, and reliability. More than 10 schools in the Amathole District were chosen for this survey.

The sample consisted of 400 adolescent-learners in 10 selected high schools as the target group as determined by the main question. In each site approximately 40 adolescents responded.

The participating high schools in the Amathole District and their participants were conveniently sampled using a non-probability sampling method and it is a sampling procedure which allowed the researcher to use his own judgment in the selection of both the schools and the participants (Saunders et al, 2003). This non-probability sampling used for selecting schools was meant to be purposive and only relevant studying typical cases as required by the question. For example the researcher wanted to deal with adolescents who are in high school and who come from different social backgrounds.

The schools studied were also purposively selected on a non-probability sampling procedure based on their economic background or location. This selection was largely purposive because it dealt with typical subjects that the researcher wanted. The state of an area's economic deprivation was based on the area's poverty levels as indicated by Statistics SA (2009. 2010) and implied by the South African Department of education quintile system (South African schools Act, 1996). This sampling gave the researcher power to choose the suitable respondents for this survey. Learners were purposively chosen for participation based on the following criteria:

- their socio-economic background,
- enrolment in school and
- Their understanding of school violence.

The idea of using senior classes (grades 9, 10, 11, and 12) in high school made it easy to design a literary instrument because the assumption is that learners at this stage can read and write.

4.11 ACCESS TO PARTICIPANTS AND TO THE RESEARCH SITE

The provincial Department of Education (Eastern) granted the researcher permission to access the Education District officers responsible for the oversight of schools to be the gatekeepers to access the districts as research sites. Permission to undertake the research in schools was sought through the local education district office through both correspondence and personal communication (see indices). The school principals were consulted to serve as gatekeepers to access the learners.

4.12 DATA COLLECTION

Data was gathered from respondents through responding to 40 items in clearly written questionnaires (see indices). There was only one questionnaire for the learners.

Designing the questionnaire was challenging and time consuming but to reduce this load the researcher had to be guided by the demands of the research sub-questions. The researcher took note of pitching questions in a simple way to accommodate different academic and cognitive levels of learners.

4.12.1 QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire is a valid and effective survey research instrument that can work well with large and broad samples such as this one chosen for this study (Payne and Payne, 2004). A questionnaire captures both statistical and qualitative data at once far better than any other instrument of collecting data (Adams et al, 2007).

These were distributed face to face to enhance a high response rate. Distributing questionnaires face to face might be expensive but it has more advantages than

sending them through the post or administering them over the phone. The questionnaire was designed along the lines of the instrument used by Avakame (1999) and those used by Grotevant and van Dulmen (1999) and Resnick and colleagues (1997). The use of four point- Likert scale allowed the learners to rate their degree of agreement, from strongly agree on the left to strongly disagree on the right. Different aspects of the sub-questions such as the following were covered:

- Family attachment (Grotevant and van Dulmen, 1999).
- School attachment / connectedness (Resnick and colleagues, 1997).
- School violence self-reports with emphasis on verbal and physical violence only.
- Community economic deprivation by constructing items that consider the quintile level or grade of the school.
- Gender of respondents.

4.12.2 STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The five sections (A to E) questionnaire used closed questions to enable the learners of all cognitive levels to participate. These items were designed in such a way that all learners can interpret them as individuals without assistance by any one. All questions required the learners to select choices in different degrees of agreement and disagreement on a Likert scale.

The researcher took advantage of the clarity and reliability of closed questions to increase the learners' response rate and reduce variability in responses. Open questions were avoided simply because they tend to be more academically demanding than closed questions. Most learners cannot interpret questions accurately and only closed questions can help them to understand the questionnaire.

A point to note is that the questionnaire used a four point scale (in sections B to E) with ten questions in each section forcing learners to either agree or disagree. The scale for indecision was deliberately omitted to allow respondents to commit themselves. Usually the indecision scale is used by respondents who either do not want to commit themselves or never understood the question as an escape route (Adams et al, 2007).

4.12.3 SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

The questionnaire's section A required the learners to fill details such as gender, age, grade, quintile or school grade, and district by ticking what is appropriate. What section A required was determined by the demands of the question. For example the "gender" aspect of section A was used to answer sub-question

- (e) Does the pattern of results at (a) to (d) differ for adolescent-learners of different *gender*?

The requirement for the school quintile or grade would help in the answering of sub-question

- (f) Does the pattern of results at (a) to (d) differ for adolescent-learners from different *social environments* (i.e. economically deprived communities and less economically deprived communities)?

4.12.4 SECTION B: FAMILY ATTACHMENT

The ten questions in this section tested learners' closeness or attachment to their parents and homes. It asked learners about their attitudes towards their homes and parents. Some questions also required the respondents to inform on their opinion of home as a safe haven. These answered sub-questions (b) and (d).

4.12.5 SECTION C: SCHOOL ATTACHMENT

This ten-question section tested the learners' closeness or commitment to school as an institution. It interrogated their attitudes towards teachers and fellow learners. It also questioned learners on their opinions about safety in the school. These answered sub-questions (a) and (c).

4.12.6 SECTION D: VERBAL VIOLENCE

In this ten-question section the learners were asked about their experiences or observation of verbal violence at school in the last three months. Three months is short enough to measure prevalence of acts of verbal violence and long enough for any individual to experience any form of violence. These answered sub-questions (a) and (b).

4.12.7 SECTION E: PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

In this last section the respondents informed on their experiences with physical violence in the school in the last three months in the same way they dealt with verbal violence in section D. These answered sub-questions (c) and (d).

4.12.8 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The researcher used group administration of the questionnaire with learners. This helped in having a higher response rate (Maree, 2007). In this way of administration the researcher and his assistants had a chance to explain unclear items which normally delay the administration of questionnaires.

However explaining unclear items to respondents can also reduce the validity of data as the researcher interferes with individual responses. To enhance validity this was done cautiously.

4.13 PILOT SURVEY

The questionnaires were piloted with 40 sampled adolescents from 2 chosen sites in Alice (grades 8 and 9) and in urban East London (grades 10 and 11). The first site was in the Fort Beaufort educational District under the Nkonkobe Municipality whereas the urban site is in the Buffalo Municipality. Both regions are in the target population of Amathole District. This pilot was testing three aspects of the questionnaire:

- Wording of the questions
- Sequence and layout of the questionnaire
- Fieldwork arrangements
- Analysis procedure

A few questions were found to be ambiguous and refined. The questionnaires were re-piloted with a different set of learners in the same schools for more adjustments.

4.14 MEASURES TO ENSURE A HIGH RESPONSE RATE

Different measures were taken by the researcher to ensure a high response rate. Adams et al. (2007) state that the failure of most surveys is caused by poor response

by the respondents. The following activities were done by the researcher to raise the response rate to at least 60% and above:

- a) Made the survey interesting by providing a covering letter that made respondents understand the background and purpose of the research.
- b) Contacted the respondents and gate keepers to ask for cooperation
- c) Kept the questions short, simple, and interesting.
- d) Narrowed my questions to cover required sub-questions.
- e) Avoided questions that require calculations and exact answers in favour of those that want respondents to draw from their experiences only.
- f) Tried to enhance commitment by avoiding indecision answers like “NOT SURE/NOT REALLY in the scales.
- g) Spelt out issues of confidentiality.
- h) Made sure the questionnaire was professionally presented in clean and well-typed paper.

4.15 DATA ANALYSIS

4.15.1 QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

Data collected through questionnaires was edited, coded, and classified, for presentation. These stages were done accurately and cautiously to avoid compromising data validity and reliability. This is a critical stage where the purpose and importance of a survey as a research design is tested to avoid abuse. It is during this process that unscrupulous researchers manipulate results of surveys to suit their ideological arguments (Kothari, 2004).

4.15.2 EDITING

This refers to the verification of questionnaire data accuracy, errors, completeness and omissions (Sindhu, 2003). The questionnaires were analysed one by one for errors, accuracy, completeness and omissions. They were grouped according to the same categories for easy coding. In this process wrongly completed questionnaires were identified and if anything could be done respondents could be contacted. However because of the condition of anonymity attached to the questionnaire this follow up could not be done. The few that were incomplete were coded for what was submitted.

4.15.3 CODING

Coding is the assignment of numeric or symbolic codes to different responses for easy identification during the classification process (Adams et al, 2007). These codes were the only ones in which the data could be recognised by the quantitative research software SPSS (18). These codes were allocated to gender, age, grade, quintile or school grade, and for each response category. For example under gender male was coded as 1 while female was coded as 2. The three age groups on the questionnaire (15, 16, and 17) were coded as 1, 2, and 3. Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12 were coded as 1, 2, 3, and 4. Quintiles were coded as 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. The four response scales were coded simply as 1, 2, 3, and 4; Strongly Agree (1), Agree (2), Disagree (3) and Strongly Disagree (4)

4.15.4 CLASSIFICATION

Classification is the categorisation or grouping of responses or data according to responses or types (Kothari, 2004). For example data on each of the five sections of the questionnaire was automatically extracted by SPSS informed by the question and sub-questions of the whole study. This stage prepares one for presentation of information gathered from the data.

4.16 QUALITY CRITERIA

Research is very sensitive because it produces answers to questions that researchers and society have but the biggest problem is that respondents in social research are mere humans capable of being biased or influenced by the researcher (who is also human) and by prevalent ideological trends (Maree, 2007). For example the Hawthorn effect is one element that can distort research results as respondents' views become influenced by the 'atmosphere of research' as if they are in an examination. Some responses lack validity and reliability as a result of this Hawthorn effect.

Another problem is that of 'acquiescent response set' (Adams et al, 2007) where respondents have a tendency of answering 'Agree' to most items because by human nature it is easy to say 'yes' (even if you do not mean it!) than to say 'no'. This too affects response validity and reliability.

Content validity and response reliability compromised by both the Hawthorn effect and the 'acquiescent response set' was ascertained by joint efforts of the supervisor of the researcher and by the pilot study. Unnecessary items were eliminated in favour of necessary and relevant items. Several items which anticipate disagreement were included to counteract the tendency to agree even in places where people must obviously disagree. The "not sure" category was deliberately avoided to encourage all respondents to commit themselves to the study.

Non-probability sampling of respondents was used to identify only those that are averagely literate (able to read and write) so that the study remains reliable and valid.

4.17 STATISTICAL TESTS EMPLOYED

Various statistical tests are employed by researchers to answer their questions. This research (guided by the nature of the question) used non-parametric tests because it used nominal and ordinal data which is not as predictable as linear data where ratios, intervals and normal distributions are known. In this data normal distributions cannot be easily determined because data is partly qualitative; scales on the questionnaire are determined by personal feelings and perceptions.

Frequencies and means of responses in specific questions on the questionnaire were observed in the answering of questions (a) to (d) which deal with overall and prevalence of physical or verbal violence.

For relationships spearman rho was used. The whole question was a relational study and Spearman rho is a non-parametric test and is favourable in dealing with ordinal data as explained before (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007: 529).

To answer questions (e) and (f) on significant differences in responses according to gender, and according to quintiles or social backgrounds, the researcher made use of chi-square calculations which deal easily with variance of data in any distribution. The chi square would enable the researcher to asses differences in responses according to given groups (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007: 525).

The response to (g) was based on observation more than on statistical calculations.

4.18 ETHICAL MEASURES

Ethics are defined as moral principles that a researcher upholds during and after research. The researcher in the process of research met several ethical issues that needed to be resolved. This ethical awareness was meant to take into consideration the interests of the participants. Research is capable of damaging the image of both the participant and the researcher if fairness is not observed during and after research. The following ethical issues were observed during the research:

4.18.1 INFORMED CONSENT

Informed consent refers to the communication of all information regarding the research (Maree, 2007; Brown, 2002). This involved informing the participants of the procedures to be taken during the research. Hence gatekeepers and participants were all informed of the purpose of the research and its results. The researcher's credentials and credibility were explained to the schools. The children's right to participate was also explained by the researcher. Schools acted in loco-parentis to get the learners to volunteer to participate without parent involvement.

4.18.2 VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

Despite the use of non-probability sampling in choosing the participants all participation in the study was voluntary. Respondents were informed about the nature of the study and given the choice if they wanted to take part or not. Only individuals who volunteered were allowed to participate. Due to teacher participation approximately 40 participated in each school although some in other sites never returned the questionnaires. It is unethical to force people to participate in a research. Although it is sensitive to raise issues of remuneration when you meet your prospective respondents, Brown, (2002) argues that participants must be told that there will be no remuneration for participating in the research so that they make choices that suit them.

It must be borne in mind that coercion of respondents can reduce a study's validity.

4.18.3 DISCLOSURE OF RESEARCHER'S IDENTITY

The researcher disclosed his identity, credentials, and purpose of the research. This was done to enhance cooperation and trust from the participants. People work freely with people they know and trust (Brown, 2002).

4.18.4 ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

Privacy and confidentiality of participants were guaranteed through explanations before they participated in the research. The identity of the respondents and the research sites were not revealed in the questionnaire and during the reporting of the findings. To identify respondents the researcher gave individuals a code number, which only the researcher understood. Thus, personal details from respondents remained anonymous. This was meant to protect those who shared information that was sensitive and personal (Rembe, 2005).

While protecting their identity the researcher guaranteed the participants that the research would not harm them emotionally and physically.

4.18.5 THE UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE HIGHER DEGREES COMMITTEE

The researcher got clearance of the University of Fort Hare Higher Degrees Committee and the approval of the supervisors to commence the research in the Amathole district.

4.18.6 PLAGIARISM

The researcher acknowledges all sources used to further this investigation. To avoid plagiarism the writing and the instruments had to be original although inspiration by other researchers could not be avoided.

4.19 SUMMARY

Without any doubt personal ideology on epistemology and ontology influence research paradigms and designs that a researcher chooses in the field. This also means that the types of questions that one asks are influenced by one's personal philosophy of what knowledge is. This chapter has explained how the researcher chose his research paradigm and design to answer the question he had. The researcher also arrived at his paradigms through conviction by personal philosophy of what constitutes knowledge.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the process of data collection by focusing on the instrument and how it was answered by the respondents from ten research sites in the Amathole District. This chapter explains the methods used for interpreting the data collected by the instrument and presenting it as information and answers to the research questions.

The data gathered was analysed through a rigorous process of physical analysis of individual questionnaires one at a time from 317 respondents drawn from high schools in all quintiles in the Amathole district (covering urban and rural schools). The use of SPSS (Version 18) made it easy for the researcher to summarise and organise large chunks of data to produce meaningful information for answering the research questions.

5.2 QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION AND RESPONSE RATE

The questionnaire was distributed to 500 respondents in more than ten sites in the Amathole District but only 317 respondents managed to submit their completed questionnaires because some schools gave respondents questionnaires to answer at home and this made others fail to complete them. At the same time the on-going end of year examinations hindered some respondents from participating as they would have wanted to. This brought the response rate to 63.4%. However there was high excitement in most sites to participate in this study because most respondents were very interested in the subject of school violence. The 317 chosen purposively to represent high school going adolescent-learners in a single district was such a good number that would ensure statistical power in the computation of inferential statistics such as correlations and difference tests.

5.3 STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND JUSTIFICATION

The questionnaire had 40 items and this made it too long for some of the school children. However, the length was unavoidable since the items tried to cover all aspects of attachment and violence, to ensure content and construct validity of the

questionnaire. The items were originally 50 and during the testing stage the current researcher trimmed them to 40 making the questionnaire concise enough to cover the aspects it sought to measure. The items dealing with prevalence and/or frequency were adopted from surveys done in Africa and elsewhere. They were drawn from family attachment studies by Grotevant and van Dulmen (1999) and from Resnick and colleagues (1997).

The researcher also drew from the Global School-based Health Surveys held in Zambia (2004) and in Swaziland (2003) which required learners to respond by providing what they either witnessed or did within a specific period. They used a period of one year to measure prevalence. The current researcher collected data over a period of three months to measure frequency and prevalence. Again, during the research the researcher took note of the fact that prevalence is either deduced or inferred from frequencies.

5.4 ANALYSIS

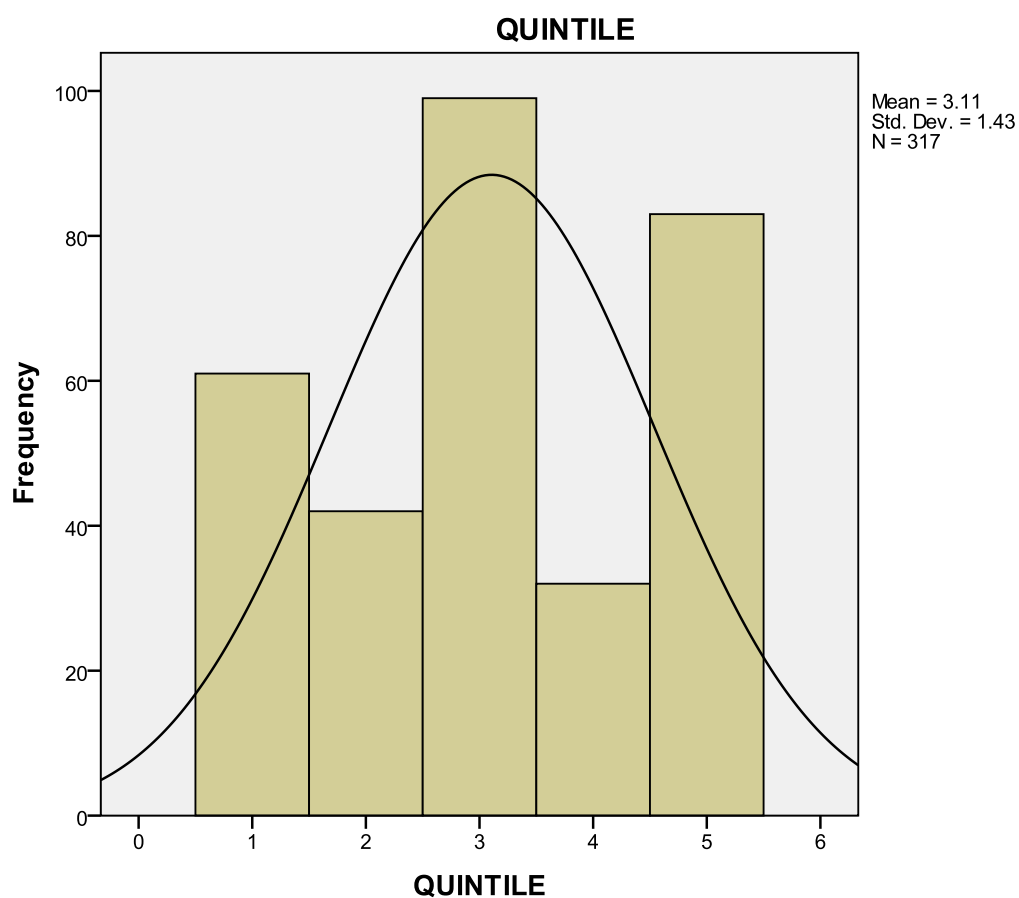
Data from questionnaires was first analysed manually through observation of tallies for frequencies, prevalence, gender, age and general responses. The responses were grouped into categories as either nominal or ordinal for easy computation by SPSS. This enabled the researcher to observe the trends of responses easily.

5.4.1 RESPONSES BY QUINTILE

The histogram below explains how each of the 5 official quintiles responded to the research in the total population of 317 ($n=317$). There were more respondents from quintile 3 ($n=99$) followed by quintile 5 ($n=83$), then quintile 1 ($n=61$), then quintile 2 ($n=42$) and quintile 4 ($n=32$).

Quintiles 1 up to 3 are relatively government aided schools because they draw their enrolment from economically deprived communities (SA schools Act, 1996; CREATE, 2010)). Quintiles 4 and 5 are considered rich and not deserving total government financial assistance.

FIG 5.4.1.1 Responses by Quintile



The profiling of research respondents by quintile enabled the researcher to compute difference tests to ascertain significant differences, and/or whether socio-economic status has any bearing on attachment, incidence and prevalence of violence.

5.4.2 GENDER

There were 317 respondents from all chosen sites in the Amathole District (n=317). Of the 317 respondents 127 were males and 190 were females. The figure below shows this distribution of respondents according to gender.

TABLE. 5.4.2.1 Respondents by gender

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
Males	127	39.9
Females	190	59.4
Total	317	99.4

The gender profile is also used for further analyses to ascertain significant differences in home and school attachment and the prevalence of verbal and physical violence.

5.4.3 AGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS

TABLE. 5.4.3.1 Respondents by age

AGE GROUP	FREQUENCY	%
15	79	24.8
16	69	21.7
17+	169	53.1
Total	317	99.7
Total	317	100.0

The majority of respondents were aged above 17 (169 or 53.1% of the total population of 317) followed by those who were 15 years old (79 or 24.8%). Those at the age of 16 were the fewest (69 or 21.7%). During sampling there were many questionnaires given to 15 year olds (involved in the research through schools acting in loco-parentis) because these were the most senior respondents in some of the schools, especially that go up to grade 9 only. However, these findings suggest that the largest percentage of questionnaires were not returned by this age cohort.

5.4.4 RESPONDENTS BY GRADE

The research targeted adolescent participants in four high school grades in various schools in the Amathole district as shown below:

TABLE. 5.4.4.1 Respondents by grade

GRADE	FREQUENCY	%
9	73	23.0
10	63	19.8
11	108	34.0
12	73	23.0
Total	317	99.8
Total	317	100.0

Grade 11 constituted the majority of respondents (34%) followed by the grades 9 (23%) and 12 (23%). The grade 10 respondents were the fewest (19.8%).

5.5 QUESTION BY QUESTION ANALYSES

The following paragraphs explain how all participants responded to all items in all the sections. Computation and calculation of this descriptive data was done through the use of SPSS version 18. To note in the analysis is the questionnaire's four point scale, frequency and the percentage. All the data to be presented was generated from the frequency of each point of the scale. In the final analyses and presentation of the findings categories were collapsed and integrated such that *Agree* and *Strongly Agree* constituted one category, whilst *Disagree* and *Strongly Disagree* constituted another category.

5.5.1 SECTION B: HOME ATTACHMENT

This section sought to measure the extent to which learners are attached to their homes. A four point Likert scale was used for this purpose in relation to 10 statements that sought to measure home attachment. In each case responses are distributed according to what the respondents said. To calculate the overall impression of responses in each question the mean was the sum of the totals of each rating multiplied by the code number of each rate (1, 2, 3, or 4) divided by the number of respondents (317).

TABLE. 5.5.1.1: My parents are always there for me.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	125	39.3
AGREE	163	51.4
DISAGREE	26	8.2
S/ DISAGREE	3	0.9
TOTAL	317	100

The majority of learners (Strongly Agree and Agree)(288 or 90.7%) believe that their parents are always there for them while 29 or 9.1% claims that their parents are not always there for them. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement that their parents are always there for them.

2. TABLE. 5.5.1.2: My parents always have time to discuss life with me

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	62	19.5
AGREE	152	47.8
DISAGREE	85	26.7
S/ DISAGREE	18	5.7
TOTAL	317	100

The majority of learners believe (214 or 67.3%) that their parents make time to discuss life with them while the minority (103 or 32.4%) does not feel so. This is quite a sizable number which is cause for concern; quite a great number of parents do not have time to talk with their children. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement that parents always have time to discuss life with the learners (their children).

3. TABLE. 5.5.1.3: I always look forward to going home.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	108	34
AGREE	165	51.9
DISAGREE	34	10.7
S/ DISAGREE	10	3.1
TOTAL	317	100

The majority (273 or 85.9%) claims they look forward to going home while the minority (44 or 13.8%) does not. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement that learners look forward to going home.

4. TABLE. 5.5.1.4: My home is the safest place for me

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	178	56
AGREE	116	36.6
DISAGREE	19	6.0
S/ DISAGREE	4	1.3
TOTAL	317	100

The majority of the respondents (294 or 92.6%) seem to be well attached to their homes or would like people to believe they are well-attached to their homes while the minority (23 or 7.3%) is less attached. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement that home is the safest place for the learners.

5. TABLE. 5.5.1.5: My parent only seems to notice me when I am angry.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	87	27.4
AGREE	128	40.3
DISAGREE	72	22.6
S/ DISAGREE	30	9.4
TOTAL	317	100

The majority of learners (215 or 67.7%) believe their parents only care about them in times of crisis while the minority (102 or 32%) believe parents always pay attention to them. 67.7% indicates that there is a great number of learners who believe their parents either do not give them attention or care about them. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to just agree that parents only seem to notice them when they are angry.

6. TABLE. 5.5.1.6: I often feel angry with my parents without knowing why.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	27	8.5
AGREE	69	21.7
DISAGREE	140	44
S/ DISAGREE	81	25.5
TOTAL	317	100

Only 96 (30.2%) admits getting angry with their parents without knowing why while the 221 (69%) do not have that feeling. 30.2% is a sizable number to cause concern; this is the number of learners that is admitting that they get angry with their parents. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement that they often feel angry with parents without knowing the reason.

7. TABLE. 5.5.1.7: I get annoyed by my parent because I have to force him/her to love me.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	29	9.1
AGREE	32	10.1
DISAGREE	138	43.4
S/ DISAGREE	118	37.1
TOTAL	317	100

Similar to the response in 6 only a few (61 or 19.2%) admit getting annoyed with their parents' lack of attention while 256 or 80.5% do not have that feeling. 19.2% is cause for concern because the angrier they are the more violent they tend to be. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement that they are annoyed by the fact that they must force their parents to love them.

8. TABLE. 5.5.1.8: I am confident that my parent will listen to me.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	111	34.9
AGREE	143	45
DISAGREE	45	14.2
S/ DISAGREE	18	5.7
TOTAL	317	100

The majority of learners (254 or 79.9%) are confident that their parents will always pay attention to their problems while 63 (19.9%) are not confident of their parents' attention. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree that they feel that parents will listen to them.

9. TABLE. 5.5.1.9: I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	134	42.1
AGREE	152	47.8
DISAGREE	22	6.9
S/ DISAGREE	9	2.8
TOTAL	317	100

286 (89.9%) enjoy helping their parents while only 31 (9.7%) do not enjoy helping their parents. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree that they enjoy helping parents whenever they can.

10. TABLE. 5.5.1.10: It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my parent.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	145	45.6
AGREE	147	46.2
DISAGREE	15	4.7
S/ DISAGREE	10	3.1
TOTAL	317	100

292 (91.8%) of learners feels good to be able to do anything for their parents while 25 (7.8%) does not enjoy doing anything for their parents. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree that it make them feel good to do things for their parents.

5.5.2 SECTION C: SCHOOL ATTACHMENT ITEMS

This section sought to measure the extent to which learners are attached to their schools. A four point likert scale was used for this purpose in relation to 10

statements that sought to measure school attachment. The mean was also calculated to indicate the overall impression of the respondents with respect to school attachment.

1. TABLE. 5.5.2.1: My teachers are always there for me in everything.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	57	17.9
AGREE	156	49.1
DISAGREE	79	24.9
S/ DISAGREE	25	7.9
TOTAL	317	100

213 (67%) believe teachers are always there for them while 104 (32.8%) does not believe so. This is very dangerous because 32.8% of learners dissatisfied with teachers' performance can turn the school into a tense environment. Physical and verbal violence is likely to happen. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement that their teachers are always there for them in everything.

2. TABLE. 5.5.2.2: My teachers make us hate school.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	23	7.2
AGREE	81	25.5
DISAGREE	124	39
S/ DISAGREE	89	28
TOTAL	317	100

A cumulative 104 (32.7%) of the learners believe teachers contribute in making learners hate school while a cumulative 213 (67%) think otherwise. 32.7% cannot be ignored and this means schools have to redress this or be blamed as part of the

cause of school violence. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

3. TABLE. 5.5.2.3: Our school buildings make me proud of my school.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	79	24.8
AGREE	118	37.1
DISAGREE	71	22.3
S/ DISAGREE	49	15.4
TOTAL	317	100

A cumulative 197 (61.9%) of learners are proud of their school infrastructure while 120 (37.7%) feel that they are not proud of their school infrastructure. 37.7% suggests something is real wrong in the schools because this is a sizable number. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement that their school buildings make them proud of their schools.

4. TABLE. 5.5.2.4: Our school rules protect us from violence and abuse from other learners.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	77	24.2
AGREE	149	47
DISAGREE	66	20.8
S/ DISAGREE	25	7.9
TOTAL	317	100

226 children (71.2%) have trust in their school rules while 91 (28.7%) do not believe school rules are effective. This means schools have to do something about order and discipline because 28.7% is quite a sizable number to wield influence in a school. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a

general tendency to agree with the statement that school rules protect them from violence and abuse from other learners.

5. TABLE. 5.5.2.5: Teachers act when we tell them that we have problems.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	70	22
AGREE	148	46.5
DISAGREE	77	24.2
S/ DISAGREE	22	6.9
TOTAL	317	100

Cumulatively, 218 (68.5%) of learners have seen teachers taking action to solve their problems while 99 (31%) of learners think otherwise. 31% is quite a sizable number to influence behaviour in a school; schools must act. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement that teachers act when told what learners' problems are.

6. TABLE. 5.5.2.6: Teachers show bias towards children from rich families.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	30	9.4
AGREE	82	25.8
DISAGREE	131	41.2
S/ DISAGREE	74	23.3
TOTAL	317	100

Cumulatively, 112 (35.2%) of learners believe that teachers in the schools show favouritism to other learners especially to those from rich families while 205 (64.5%) does not believe so. 35.2% is quite a sizable number to influence behaviour in a school and action must be taken by schools. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

7. TABLE. 5.5.2.7: School is the safest place for me.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	71	22.3
AGREE	143	45
DISAGREE	72	22.6
S/ DISAGREE	31	9.7
TOTAL	317	100

214 (67.3%) of learners believe that the school is a safe place while a cumulative 103 (32.3%) of disagreeing learners believe that schools are not safe at all. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree that the school is the safest place for them.

8. TABLE. 5.5.2.8: I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	24	7.5
AGREE	72	22.6
DISAGREE	124	39
S/ DISAGREE	97	30.5
TOTAL	317	100

The aggregate 96 (30%) of agreeing learners feel angry with other learners without any reason while the cumulative 221 (69.5%) of disagreeing learners do not have this feeling. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the above statement.

9. TABLE. 5.5.2.9: I get annoyed by my teachers because I have to force them to love or care for me.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	22	6.9
AGREE	39	12.3
DISAGREE	158	49.7
S/ DISAGREE	98	30.8
TOTAL	317	100

An aggregated 61 (19%) complain about not getting any love from the teachers while 256 (80.5%) disagrees. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

10. TABLE. 5.5.2.10: It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my school.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	111	34.9
AGREE	156	49.1
DISAGREE	29	9.1
S/ DISAGREE	21	6.6
TOTAL	317	100

267 (84%) feels good about doing anything for the school while 50 (15.7%) does not feel proud at all of doing anything for the school. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement.

5.5.3 SECTION D: VERBAL VIOLENCE

This section sought to measure the extent to which learners have either observed or been involved in acts of verbal violence within their schools. A four point Likert scale

was used for this purpose in relation to 10 statements that sought to measure the frequency of verbal violence. The mean was also calculated to indicate the overall impression of the respondents.

1. TABLE. 5.5.3.1: I saw learners swearing and teasing at school in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	78	24.5
AGREE	99	31.1
DISAGREE	103	32.4
S/ DISAGREE	37	11.6
TOTAL	317	100

A cumulative 177 (55.6%) admits witnessing swearing and teasing at school while 140 (44%) denies. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

2. TABLE. 5.5.3.2: I have sworn and teased in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	35	11
AGREE	83	26.1
DISAGREE	118	37.1
S/ DISAGREE	81	25.5
TOTAL	317	100

118 (37%) admits getting involved in swearing and teasing at school while 199 (62.6%) does not admit. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

3. TABLE. 5.5.3.3: I witnessed more than 5 cases of verbal violence in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	32	10.1
AGREE	70	22
DISAGREE	125	39.3
S/ DISAGREE	90	28.3
TOTAL	317	100

102 (32%) admits witnessing more than 5 cases of verbal violence within 3 months while 215 (67.6%) claims they have not witnessed a case of verbal violence in within 3 months. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

4. TABLE. 5.5.3.4: The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	46	14.5
AGREE	93	29.2
DISAGREE	119	37.4
S/ DISAGREE	59	18.6
TOTAL	317	100

139 (43.7%) believes that swearing and teasing has increased in the schools while 178 (56%) thinks otherwise. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

5. TABLE. 5.5.3.5: Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	45	14.2
AGREE	120	37.7
DISAGREE	99	31.1
S/ DISAGREE	53	16.7
TOTAL	317	100

165 (51.2%) of learners believe that school rules have cut down verbal violence in the schools where as 132 (47%) of learners has not seen the effectiveness of school rules. 47% is a very high figure which needs a lot of attention because 47% of learners can influence behaviour in schools. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement.

6. TABLE. 5.5.3.6: Learners have fought verbally in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	46	14.5
AGREE	65	20.4
DISAGREE	144	45.3
S/ DISAGREE	62	19.5
TOTAL	317	100

111 (34%) have witnessed verbal violence in the last 3 months where as 206 (64%) denies witnessing verbal violence in the last 3 months. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

7. TABLE. 5.5.3.7: Cases of verbal violence at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	30	9.4
AGREE	97	30.5
DISAGREE	141	44.3
S/ DISAGREE	49	15.4
TOTAL	317	100

197 (39%) admit that cases of verbal violence in the past 3 months were caused by anger from home while 190 (59.7%) does not believe so. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

8. TABLE. 5.5.3.8: Those who got involved in verbal violence in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	40	12.6
AGREE	118	37.1
DISAGREE	116	36.5
S/ DISAGREE	43	13.5
TOTAL	317	100

158 (49.7%) believes that verbal violence that occurred in the school in the past 3 months was caused by frustrations and boredom at school while 159 (50%) denies. 49.7% of learners is a very big group and what ever they say deserves attention; schools must diversify their operations to prevent learner-boredom and potential violence that goes with it. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

9. TABLE. 5.5.3.9: Some learners have been involved in verbal violence without any clear reason in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	61	19.2
AGREE	105	33
DISAGREE	112	35.2
S/ DISAGREE	39	12.3
TOTAL	317	100

166 (52%) believe that some learners engage in verbal violence without any provocation while 151 (47.5%) denies. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement.

10. TABLE. 5.5.3.10: Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	47	14.8
AGREE	86	27
DISAGREE	114	35.8
S/ DISAGREE	70	22
TOTAL	317	100

133 (41.8%) believe that schools and homes are to blame for the violence in the schools while 184 (57.8%) does not think so. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

5.5.4 SECTION E: PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

This section sought to measure the extent to which learners have either observed or been involved in acts of physical violence within their schools. A four point likert scale was used for this purpose in relation to 10 statements that sought to measure

the frequency of physical violence. The mean was calculated to determine the overall impression of responses.

1. TABLE. 5.5.4.1: I saw learners fighting physically at school in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	67	21.1
AGREE	108	34
DISAGREE	95	29.9
S/ DISAGREE	47	14.8
TOTAL	317	100

175 (55.1%) admit witnessing physical violence in the schools while 142 (44.7%) claims they did not. 55.1% of learners is a large group and this suggests that physical violence is prevalent in the schools. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement.

2. TABLE. 5.5.4.2: I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	14	4.4
AGREE	41	12.9
DISAGREE	121	38.1
S/ DISAGREE	141	44.3
TOTAL	317	100

55 (17%) admits involvement in physical violence at school while 262 (82.4%) denies involvement. If 17% of learners fight in the schools, violence is prevalent because 17% is quite a sizable number. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

3. TABLE. 5.5.4.3: I witnessed more than 5 physical fights in this school in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	26	8.2
AGREE	50	15.7
DISAGREE	153	48.1
S/ DISAGREE	88	27.7
TOTAL	317	100

76 (23.9%) admits witnessing physical violence in the schools while 241 (75.8%) claims did not witness any fights. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

5. TABLE. 5.5.4.4: The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	36	11.3
AGREE	70	22
DISAGREE	140	44
S/ DISAGREE	71	22.3
TOTAL	317	100

106 (33.3%) believes that learners that fight physically have increased in the schools while 211 (66.3%) thinks otherwise. 33.3% is quite a sizable number and there is need for attention to reduce these levels of physical violence in the schools. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

5. TABLE. 5.5.4.5: Our school rules have been reducing the occurrence of physical fights in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	45	14.2
AGREE	114	35.8
DISAGREE	106	33.3
S/ DISAGREE	52	16.4
TOTAL	317	100

159 (50%) believes schools rules reduce physical violence in the schools while 158 (49.7%) does not think school rules are capable of doing so. This being almost a 50-50 case deserves a lot of attention because the schools are divided into two camps and chances are high that the school is polarised. This polarisation might mean tension. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 2 which indicates a general tendency to agree with the statement.

6. TABLE. 5.5.4.6: Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	35	11
AGREE	59	18.6
DISAGREE	137	43.1
S/ DISAGREE	86	27
TOTAL	317	100

94 (29.6%) believes that learners fought in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them while 223 (70.1%) does not think so. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

7. TABLE. 5.5.4.7: Physical fights at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	27	8.5
AGREE	94	29.7
DISAGREE	135	42.6
S/ DISAGREE	61	19.2
TOTAL	317	100

121 (38.2%) believe that physical fights at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home while 196 (61.8%) does not think so. 38.2% being quite a sizable number might suggest that the fights really did emanate from anger from home. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

8. TABLE. 5.5.4.8: Those who fought physically in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	29	9.1
AGREE	90	28.4
DISAGREE	136	42.9
S/ DISAGREE	62	19.6
TOTAL	317	100

119 (37.5%) believe that physical fights in the last 3 months were caused by frustration and boredom at school while 198 (62.5%) does not share this belief. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

9. TABLE. 5.5.4.9: Some learners have fought physically without any clear reason in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	37	11.7
AGREE	107	33.8
DISAGREE	114	36
S/ DISAGREE	59	18.6
TOTAL	317	100

144 (45.5%) claim that some learners engage in physical violence without any provocation while 173 (54.6%) denies that. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

10. TABLE. 5.5.4.10: Schools and homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months.

SCALE	FREQUENCY	%
S/ AGREE	40	12.6
AGREE	74	23.3
DISAGREE	115	36.3
S/ DISAGREE	88	27.8
TOTAL	317	100

114 (35.9%) believe that schools and homes are to blame for physical violence while 203 (64.1%) does not think so. Despite the confusion the question could have brought to the respondents and to the researcher later, the aim was to show that both home and school might be equally responsible for the violence at school. 35.9% believes that this is true and 35.9% being a sizable portion of the sample might suggest that a lot of attention is needed in addressing problems at both home and

school. The overall impression from the calculation of the mean was 3 which indicates a general tendency to disagree with the statement.

5.6 SIGNIFICANT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN VIOLENCE AND ATTACHMENT

The thesis that informed the computation of these correlations is that attachment to homes and schools is related to adolescent violence in the schools. There were many statistically significant correlations between attachment (home and school) and violence (verbal and physical). The correlation coefficients were calculated using the product of Spearman's rho. The confidence levels were set such that significant correlations with 95% and 99% confidence are flagged so that conclusions could be drawn about the relationships with only 5% and 1% of the linkages attributed to chance. For example sub-question (a) - (d) below asks whether there are correlations between school attachment and home attachment with either verbal or physical violence in the schools. Items of either school or home attachment and those on either verbal or physical violence were associated for correlations using the product of Spearman's rho as mentioned above.

The main question was:

What are the relations of family and school attachment to dimensions of adolescent-learners' violent behaviours (verbal violence and physical violence) at school?

And the sub-questions were to be in the order that shall follow:

- a) Does attachment to ***school relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***verbal*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- b) Does attachment to ***family relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***verbal*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- c) Does attachment to ***school relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***physical*** violence by adolescent-learners?
- d) Does attachment to ***family relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***physical*** violence by adolescent-learners?

5.6.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT TO SCHOOL AND VERBAL VIOLENCE

The hypothesis that was tested with the correlations is that attachment to school is linked to adolescent verbal violence. The following was revealed by data in answering sub-question (a) Does attachment to ***school relate to*** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of ***verbal*** violence by adolescent-learners?:

To test whether indeed attachment to school has any bearing on adolescent verbal violence a correlation test was computed. There were significant correlations between attachment to school and the overall level, the prevalence and frequency of verbal violence in high schools. The sizes of correlations to indicate the ranges of largeness, the smallness or the moderateness were regarded as follows:

- Small : $r = 0.1 - 0.3$
- Moderate: $r = 0.4 - 0.6$
- Large: $r = 0.7 - 0.8$
- Perfect correlation: $r = 0.9$ (Cohen et al, 2007)

The following are noted relations between attachment to school items and verbal violence items:

- 1) There is a small negative correlation between the statement or item 1 of school attachment (*My teachers are always there for me in everything*) and item 1 of verbal violence (*I saw learners swearing and teasing at school in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.12$, $p = 0.03$). This implies that the more the teachers care about learners the less is the frequency of observance and involvement of learners in swearing at school.

There is however a small positive correlation between item 1 of school attachment items (*My teachers are always there for me in everything*) and item 5 of verbal violence items (*Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.17$, $p = 0.003$). This means that being there for the learners in everything is associated with effectiveness of the school rules in terms of curbing verbal violence.

- 2) There is a small positive correlation between item 2 of school attachment items (*My teachers make us hate school*) and item 2 of verbal violence items (*I have sworn and teased in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.16$, $p = 0.01$). This means that those learners who agreed that teachers make them to hate school

tended to agree that they have sworn and teased. Thus, it can be concluded that the incidence of swearing and teasing is significantly associated with learners' indifference towards school as a result of relations with teachers.

There is another small significant positive correlation between item 2 of school attachment items (*My teachers make us hate school*) and the frequency of verbal violence and item 3 of verbal violence (*I witnessed more than 5 cases of verbal violence in the last 3 months*) in the school ($r = 0.15, p = 0.01$). The feeling on the part of learners that teachers make them hate is associated with more frequent observations of incidences of swearing by the same learners. There is also a negative correlation between item 2 of school attachment items (*My teachers make us hate school*) and item 5 of verbal violence items (*Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.15, p = 0.01$). Thus, the feeling that teachers make learners to hate school is associated with the disproving feeling by the same learners that school rules are less effective in the curbing of verbal violence.

- 3) There is a small negative correlation between item 3 of school attachment items (*Our school buildings make me proud of my school*) and item 6 of verbal violence items (*Learners have fought verbally in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them*) ($r = -0.13, p = 0.02$). The more learners feel good about the physical infrastructure of their school, the less likely are the reports of verbal violence amongst learners.
- 4) There is a small positive correlation between item 4 of school attachment items (*Our school rules protect us from violence and abuse from other learners*) and item 5 of verbal violence items (*Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.16, p = 0.01$). Results show that the more learners affirm that school rules protect them from abuse by other learners, there is more tendency by the same learners to agree that school rules are cutting down verbal violence.
- 5) There is a small positive correlation between item 5 of school attachment items (*Teachers act when we tell them that we have problems*) and item 5 of

verbal violence items (*Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.13, p= 0.02$). Thus, the more teachers take action to solve learners' problems the more the school rules will cut down the frequency of verbal violence.

- 6) There is a small positive correlation between item 6 of school attachment items (*Teachers show bias towards children from rich families*) and item 1 of verbal violence items (*I saw learners swearing and teasing at school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.16, p= 0.004$). Showing unnecessary favouritism and bias towards learners from families that are rich by teachers increased the frequency of acts of verbal violence. There is also a small positive correlation between item 6 of school attachment items (*Teachers show bias towards children from rich families*) and item 4 of verbal violence items (*The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.12, p= 0.04$). When learners feel that teachers show bias towards learners from rich families, there is an observed increase by the same learners in the number of learners that swear and tease.

- 7) There is a small negative correlation between item 7 of school attachment items (*School is the safest place for me*) and item 4 of verbal violence items (*The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r= -0.13, p= 0.3$). The tendency to agree with the feeling that the school is the safest place for learners is associated with the general tendency to disagree that the number of learners that swear at school increases. There is however, a positive correlation between item 7 of school attachment items (*School is the safest place for me*) and item 5 of verbal violence items (*Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.18, p= 0.001$). If the school is seen as safe there is a tendency to agree that the school rules are effective in cutting down verbal violence. There is a negative correlation between item 7 of school attachment items (*School is the safest place for me*) and item 4 of verbal violence items (*The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r= -0.12, p= 0.3$). The feeling that the school is safe is related to views that dismiss the view that swearing and teasing have increased.

- 8) There is a small positive correlation between item 8 of school attachment items (*I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why*) and item 2 of verbal violence items (*I have sworn and teased in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.18$, $p = 0.001$). The finding suggests that there is a link between those learners feeling angry without knowing why and the tendency to be involved in verbal violence. There is also a positive correlation between item 8 of school attachment items (*I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why*) and item 4 of verbal violence items (*The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.28$, $p = 0.00$). This also implies that there is a link between the frequency of verbal violence and feelings of anger. There is also a small positive correlation between item 2 of school attachment (*My teachers make us hate school*) and item 4 of verbal violence items (*The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.16$, $p = 0.01$). Similarly, research reveals positive correlations between item 8 of school attachment items (*I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why*), item 9 of verbal violence items (*Some learners have been involved in verbal violence without any clear reason in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.28$, $p = 0.00$), and item 10 of verbal violence items (*Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.25$, $p = 0.00$).
- 9) There is also a small positive correlation between item 9 of school attachment items (*I get annoyed by my teachers because I have to force them to love or care for me*) and item 4 of verbal violence items (*The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.18$, $p = 0.001$). Agreement with this observed increase in this annoyance by teachers is positively correlated to item 3 of verbal violence items (*I witnessed more than 5 cases of verbal violence in the last 3 months*) which show the increase in actual observable cases of verbal violence ($r = 0.18$, $p = 0.002$). As this annoyance increases it positively correlates with item 6 of verbal violence items (*Learners have fought verbally in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them*) ($r = 0.16$, $p = 0.006$). This annoyance is also positively correlated with item 10 of verbal violence items (*Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.21$, $p = 0.00$).

10) Item 10 of school attachment items (*It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my school*) is positively correlated with item 5 of verbal violence items (*Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r=0.17$, $p=0.002$). The feeling of being able to do things for the school is also associated with the effectiveness of school rules in curbing verbal violence.

5.6.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT TO **FAMILY** AND **VERBAL VIOLENCE**

The hypothesis is that attachment to families has ability to influence adolescent verbal violence. The following was revealed by data in answering the research sub question number (b). Does attachment to family **relate to** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of verbal violence by adolescent-learners?:

1. There is a statistical small significant negative correlation between item 1 of home attachment items (*My parents are always there for me in everything*) and item 4 of verbal violence items (*The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r= -0.13$, $p= 0.02$). Agreement that parents offer care to their children is associated with disagreement that the number of learners that swear and tease have increased.
2. There is also a small negative correlation between item 4 of home attachment items (*My home is the safest place for me*) and item 4 of verbal violence items (*The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r= -0.16$, $p= 0.01$). When learners feel safe in their homes there is likelihood that level of swearing and teasing decreases.
3. There is also a small positive correlation between item 5 of home attachment items (*My parent only seems to notice me when I am angry*) and item 9 of verbal violence items (*Some learners have been involved in verbal violence without any clear reason in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.12$, $p= 0.04$). Agreement that parents seem to notice parents when they are angry is significantly related to reports of learners involved in verbal violence without any clear reasons.
4. There is also a small positive correlation between item 6 of home attachment (*I often feel angry with my parents without knowing why*) and item 9 of verbal

violence items (*Some learners have been involved in verbal violence without any clear reason in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.15, p = 0.01$) and with item 10 of verbal violence items (*Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.14, p = 0.014$).

5. There is also a small statistical significant positive correlation between item 6 of home attachment (*I often feel angry with my parents without knowing why*) and item 10 of verbal violence items (*Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.16, p = 0.01$).
6. There is a small positive correlation between item 9 of home attachment items (*I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can*) and item 5 of verbal violence items (*Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.21, p = 0$). However, there is a negative correlation between item 9 of home attachment items (*I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can*) and item 6 of verbal violence items (*Learners have fought verbally in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them*) ($r = -0.14, p = 0.012$).
7. There is a small negative correlation between item 9 of home attachment items (*I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can*) and item 10 of verbal violence items (*Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.13, p = 0.02$). The higher the desire to do good things for parents the less blame is apportioned to parents for violence in the schools.

5.6.3 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT TO SCHOOL AND PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

The hypothesis tested with the computation of these correlations is that attachment to school has a bearing on adolescents' physical violence. The following was revealed by data in answering SUB-QUESTION (c) Does attachment to school **relate to** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of physical violence by adolescent-learners?

1. There is a small positive correlation with 95% confidence between item 1 of school attachment (*My teachers are always there for me in everything*) and item 1 of physical violence items (*I saw learners fighting physically at school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.13, p= 0.022$). This might imply that physical violence is not necessarily associated with increased care by parents. This also implies that physical violence will always occur despite the care that teachers give.
2. There is a small positive correlation between item 2 of school attachment items (*My teachers make us hate school*) and item 2 of physical violence items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.19, p= 0.001$). The more learners are made to hate school by teachers the more they get angry and fight at school.
3. There is a small positive correlation between item 3 of school attachment items (*Our school buildings make me proud of my school*) and item 3 of physical violence items (*I witnessed more than 5 physical fights in this school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.11, p = 0.05$). There is however, a negative correlation between item 3 of school attachment items (*Our school buildings make me proud of my school*) and item 10 of physical violence items (*Schools are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months*) ($r= -0.13, p= 0.02$). The more learners are proud of their school infrastructure, the less schools are blamed for instigating violence.
4. There is also a small negative correlation between item 4 of school attachment (*Our school rules protect us from violence and abuse from other learners*) and item 6 of physical violence items (*Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them*) ($r= -0.16, p= 0.004$). Tendency to agree that school rules protect them from physical violence is associated with disagreement that learners have fought physically because teachers are not protecting them.
5. There is a small positive correlation between item 6 of school attachment (*Teachers show bias towards children from rich families*) and item 4 of physical violence (*The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.12, p= 0.03$), and item 2 of physical violence (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.20$).

6. There is a small positive correlation between item 8 of school attachment (*I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why*) and item 3 of physical violence (*I witnessed more than 5 physical fights in this school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.13$, $p= 0.02$), item 2 of physical violence items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.25$, $p= 0$), item 6 of physical violence (*Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them*) ($r= 0.17$, $p= 0.01$), item 7 of physical violence (*Physical fights at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home*) ($r= 0.14$, $p= 0.012$) and item 8 of physical violence (*Those who fought physically in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school*) ($r= 0.22$, $p=0.00$). Anger against other learners is related to many factors: increase in learner involvement in fights, lack of protection by the teachers, anger from home, and feeling frustrated and bored at school.

7. There is also a small positive correlation between item 9 of school attachment items (*I get annoyed by my teachers because I have to force them to love or care for me*) and item 2 of physical violence items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.31$, $p= 0$), item 4 of physical violence (*The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.20$, $p= 0$), item 6 of physical violence items (*Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them*) ($r= 0.20$, $p= 0$), and item 10 of physical violence items (*Schools and homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months*) ($r= 0.16$, $p= 0.004$). There is a lot tied with learner-violence: annoyance by uncaring teachers, lack of protection by teachers, and schools directly involved in instigating violence.

8. However there is a small negative correlation between item 10 of school attachment items (*It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my school*) and item 2 of physical violence items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r= -0.23$, $p= 0$). The more learners get involved in school activities, the less likely for the learners to get involved in school fights.

5.6.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT TO FAMILY AND PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

The hypothesis that informed the computation of this correlation is that attachment to families has ability to influence adolescent physical violence. The following was revealed by data in answering SUB-QUESTION (d) Does attachment to **family relate to** the (1) overall level, (2) prevalence and (3) frequency of **physical** violence by adolescent-learners?

1. There is a small negative correlation between item 1 of home attachment (*My parents are always there for me in everything*) and item 10 of physical violence (*Schools and homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.15$, $p = 0.01$). The more the positive care parents offer to their adolescent children the lower the frequency and prevalence of violence and the less homes will be blamed for violence. There is also a negative correlation between item 2 of home attachment (*My parents always have time to discuss life with me*) and item 4 of physical violence (*The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.14$, $p = 0.12$). The more time parents spend with their children to discuss life is associated with the lower frequency of physical violence.
2. Further there is small negative correlation between item 3 of home attachment (*I always look forward to going home*) and item 4 of physical violence (*The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.22$, $p = 0$) and item 6 of physical violence items (*Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them*) ($r = -0.13$, $p = 0.02$). This means that the more learners look forward to going home is associated with less fights and blame on family. There is a lot tied to a strong bond to a home: the decrease in the involvement in violence at school, and the decrease in the condemnation of teachers as directly responsible for encouraging violence by failing to protect learners' violent learners.
3. There is a high negative correlation with 99% confidence between item 4 of home attachment (*My home is the safest place for me*) and item 2 of physical violence

items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.28, p = 0$), item 3 of physical violence items (*I witnessed more than 5 physical fights in this school in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.14, p = 0.12$) and item 4 of physical violence items (*I witnessed more than 5 physical fights in this school in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.16, p = 0.01$). The more families become safe the less learner involvement in violence and the lower the frequency of fights.

4. There is a small positive correlation between item 6 of home attachment (*I often feel angry with my parents without knowing why*) and item 2 of physical violence items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.18, p = 0.001$) and item 10 of physical violence items (*Schools and homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.16, p = 0.004$). The angrier the children are with their parents is associated with more involvement in physical violence.
5. There is also a small positive correlation between item 7 of home attachment items (*I get annoyed by my parent because I have to force him/her to love me*) and item 2 of physical violence items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.35, p = 0$), and item 10 of physical violence items (*homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.24, p = 0$). In brief annoyance by parents is associated with physical violence in the school.
6. There is a small negative correlation between item 8 of home attachment (*I am confident that my parent will listen to me*) and item 10 of physical violence items (*homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.11, p = 0.04$). The more parents listen to their children's problems is associated with less blame for fights being apportioned to teachers.
7. There is also a small negative a correlation between item 9 of home attachment (*I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can*) and item 2 of physical violence items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.21, p = 0$) and item 4 of physical violence items (*The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.13, p = 0.03$). The more children desire to help or be close to their parents is associated with less involvement of learners in fights and the lower the frequency of fights.

8. There is a small negative correlation between item 10 of home attachment items (*It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my parent*) and item 2 of physical violence items (*I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months*) ($r = -0.25$, $p = 0$), item 4 of physical violence items (*The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.17$, $p = 0.003$), item 10 of physical violence items (*Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them*) ($r = 0.18$, $p = 0.001$) and item 10 of physical violence items (*Schools and homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months*) ($r = 0.11$, $p = 0.04$). The more children desire to do good things and be close to their care-givers is related to less involvement in fights and less apportioning of blame to parents for the violence.

5.7 SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO GENDER

The hypothesis that informed the computation of difference tests is that girls and boys have a different way of viewing attachment as well as violence. Actually, scholars like Prinsloo (2006) have hypothesised that school violence is gender violence. This statement begs the questions in sub-question (e). A chi-square test used to answer the above question is a difference test and it is applicable to nominal and ordinal data within a given population to show differences in performance between sub-groups (Cohen et al, 2007: 525). In the questionnaire, data on gender is nominal and a chi-square test can easily separate our set of data according to gender and analyse the difference in sub-questions (a) - (d).

The following was revealed by data in answering SUB-QUESTION (e): Does the pattern of results at (a) to (d) differ for adolescent-learners of different *gender*?

5.7.1 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY ATTACHMENT

The table below suggests that there were no statistically significant differences in the ratings of the males and females of items in the family attachment segment (in section B) and in their performance in sub-question (a).

TABLE. 5.7.1.1 GENDER RESPONSE TO FAMILY ATTACHMENT

Family Attachment * Gender differences	Chi square test results
My parents are always there for me in everything	$X^2 = 1.69, df = 3, p = .639$
My parents always have time to discuss life with me	$X^2 = 3.33, df = 3, p = .344$
I always look forward to going home.	$X^2 = 3.66, df = 3, p = .30$
My home is the safest place for me	$X^2 = 0.21, df = 3, p = .98$
My parent only seems to notice me when I am angry	$X^2 = 0.62, df = 3, p = .89$
I often feel angry with my parents without knowing why	$X^2 = 2.09, df = 3, p = .552$
I get annoyed by my parent because I have to force him/her to love me.	$X^2 = 4.20, df = 3, p = .241$
I am confident that my parent will listen to me.	$X^2 = 3.14, df = 3, p = .371$
I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can.	$X^2 = 1.45, df = 3, p = .695$
It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my parents.	$X^2 = 1.78, df = 3, p = .619$

They all agreed or disagreed in a similar way to all the items in the section B of the questionnaire. This might also suggest that the expected frequencies patterns still remain as they are implying that boys are experiencing the same issues as girls in the family.

Trends were similar as in the case where 65% of girls and 70% of boys claim their parents make time to discuss life issues with them against 35% of girls and 30% of boys who claim that their parents never make time for them. Disgruntled children in terms of poor parenting are always in the minority in all genders. This same trend was observed as the majority of girls (85%) agreed with the majority of boys (87%) in that they always look forward to going home. Despite their love for home the majority of girls (69%) and that of boys (66%) claim their parents seem only to notice them when they are angry. This is also a sign of general learner pleasure and displeasure with parents cutting across gender. However, to both girls and boys this pleasure and displeasure with parents has not significantly triggered any form of anger (as indicated in by their responses for items 6 and 7 under family attachment where only a total of 27% boys and 23% girls claim to be angry with their parents).

5.7.2 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN SCHOOL ATTACHMENT

There was a notable statistically significant difference only in the first and fifth items of the school attachment section between the opinions of boys and girls on their

feelings towards teachers' readiness to assist them, and also teachers' action tendencies when told about learners' problems.

TABLE. 5.7.2.1 GENDER RESPONSE TO SCHOOL ATTACHMENT

School Attachment * Gender differences	Chi square test results
My teachers are always there for me in everything	$X^2 = 12.98$, $df = 3$, $p = .005^*$
My teachers make us hate school.	$X^2 = 1.51$, $df = 3$, $p = .679$
Our school buildings make me proud of my school.	$X^2 = 4.77$, $df = 3$, $p = .189$
Our school rules protect us from violence and abuse from other learners.	$X^2 = 2.96$, $df = 3$, $p = .398$
Teachers act when we tell them that we have problems	$X^2 = 15.07$, $df = 3$, $p = .002^*$
Teachers show bias towards children from rich families.	$X^2 = 1.24$, $df = 3$, $p = .742$
School is the safest place for me.	$X^2 = 1.13$, $df = 3$, $p = .77$
I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why	$X^2 = 2.99$, $df = 3$, $p = .39$
I get annoyed by my teachers because I have to force them to love or care for me.	$X^2 = 5.56$, $df = 3$, $p = .14$
It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my school	$X^2 = 3.17$, $df = 3$, $p = .37$

To both boys and girls the frequencies were higher in the second level (Agreed) (47% boys and 51% girls). This might mean that there is no passion (indicated by 'Strongly Agree') for teacher performance in showing care for the learners in the schools. However, this reveals that girls (51%) appreciate teachers' care than boys (47%). 18% of each gender is passionate about their teachers' care. Only 35% of boys still believe that teachers do not care about learner problems.

5.7.3 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN VIOLENCE

Chi² tests proved that 43% of boys claim that they have never witnessed violence in the schools while 57% has witnessed it. 46% of girls claim that they have never witnessed violence while 54% has witnessed it. 31% of boys say physical violence is increasing in the schools while 69% says it is not increasing. 35% of girls say physical violence is increasing in the schools while 65% says it is not increasing. 55% of boys say school rules reduce violence while 45% says they do not. However the interesting finding is that only 47% of girls say school rules reduce violence while 53% say they do not. This implies that more girls would like to see a change in the implementation of rules in the schools; more can be done. However the majority of

boys favour the status quo. May be this works well for 20% of the boys who have perpetrated violence before.

5.7.4 EXPLANATION TO NO DIFFERENCES

Contrary to Prinsloo's (2006) assertion that most of the violence in the schools is gender violence the findings in this research indicate that gender awareness has been very effective in most high schools in South Africa as a result of many campaigns and as a result of government efforts of including Life orientation as a subject in the schools. At the same time at adolescence there are few notable gender differences. In actual fact girls become more mature than boys which make them rise over many gender problems.

At the same time the research findings indicate that there is a culture of silence among learners when it comes to revealing and reporting violence (Dunne, Humphreys & Leach, 2003). This is exposed by contradictions in responding to items 1 and 2 in the physical violence section. For example 57% of boys and 54% of girls claim that they have witnessed violence in the schools yet only 20% of boys and 16% of girls admit that they have been involved in the physical violence. With such a high number of witnesses one wonders whether there was sincerity in responding to item 2. This could have been a result of the proximity of the teachers during the administration of the questionnaires.

5.8 SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS

The hypothesis is that children from poor backgrounds are exposed to social anger and that by nature they tend to be the most emotionally affected in any given environment. Nezlek et al (2005) argue that children from poor backgrounds suffer from lack of self-esteem because of their regular exposure to demeaning circumstances.

The quintiles are used in this research to demarcate schools and communities according to their social environments. The richer communities have schools designated as quintiles 4 and 5 while the poorest communities have schools designated as quintiles 1 and 2. This makes quintile 3 lie in between the rich and poor schools. Depending on anyone's discretion quintile 3 is either poor or rich.

Despite the differences in social environments patterns of results from schools in different communities concurred in many issues.

5.8.1 QUINTILE DIFFERENCES IN SCHOOL ATTACHMENT

The following was revealed by data in answering SUB-QUESTION (f): Does the pattern of results at (a) to (d) differ for adolescent-learners from different *social environments* (i.e. economically deprived communities and less economically deprived communities)?

TABLE. 5.8.1.1 RESPONSE TO SCHOOL ATTACHMENT BY QUINTILE

School Attachment * Quintile differences	Chi square test results
My teachers are always there for me in everything	$X^2 = 50.45, df = 12, p = .000^*$
My teachers make us hate school.	$X^2 = 43.30, df = 12, p = .000^*$
Our school buildings make me proud of my school.	$X^2 = 129.18, df = 12, p = .000^*$
Our school rules protect us from violence and abuse from other learners.	$X^2 = 35.20, df = 12, p = .000^*$
Teachers act when we tell them that we have problems	$X^2 = 9.05, df = 12, p = .698$
Teachers show bias towards children from rich families.	$X^2 = 29.82, df = 12, p = .003^*$
School is the safest place for me.	$X^2 = 44.25, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why	$X^2 = 51.11, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I get annoyed by my teachers because I have to force them to love or care for me.	$X^2 = 79.25, df = 12, p = .000^*$
It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my school	$X^2 = 34.46, df = 12, p = .001^*$

Table 5.8.1.1 above shows the significant differences in responses as calculated by chi square tests. There are largely no significant differences (as highlighted by *) between how all the quintiles responded except for the question on teachers where the p-value is 0.698.

However, an interesting development came from quintile 5 where only 43% of learners were happy about teacher readiness to assist. This could have been caused by the levels of understanding language in this quintile since most of these learners are highly literate and critical (grades 11 and 12). Other quintiles, especially in the rural communities could have taken this item at face value. Quintile 5 tended to have a different opinion on some items such as item 3 on school attachment where 84%

said they are not happy about their school buildings and their schools in general while other quintiles thought differently.

On the other hand quintile 2 which consists of children from economically deprived environments had a different opinion from other quintiles by having 66% learners admitting that they feel angry against other learners without knowing why. The same quintile admits having anger against teachers without any specific reason and witnessing (66%) more violence in their schools. 62% of learners in quintile 2 believe violence occurs frequently because teachers are not protecting learners and that frustrations from both school and home cause violence. This anger is positively correlated with frequency of verbal and physical violence in the schools. The more anger learners have the more frequent violence occurs in the schools.

Only 29% learners from quintile 1 admit witnessing verbal violence in the schools while the majority of learners in other quintiles admit witnessing violence. This difference could have resulted from question misinterpretation.

Quintile 4 (66%) and quintile 5 (54%) are experiencing an increase in verbal violence with quintile 5's 57% admitting that school rules are failing to reduce verbal violence in their schools.

5.8.2 QUINTILE DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY ATTACHMENT

There were statistically significant quintile differences in family attachment except for one aspect, namely: learners' confidence that their parents will listen to them. The implication of this finding is that socio-economic conditions have a bearing on parents' time and effort aimed at listening to what their children have to say.

TABLE. 5.8.2.1 QUINTILE RESPONSE TO FAMILY ATTACHMENT

Family Attachment * Quintile differences	Chi square test results
My parents are always there for me in everything	$X^2 = 21.49, df = 12, p = .044^*$
My parents always have time to discuss life with me	$X^2 = 43.31, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I always look forward to going home.	$X^2 = 32.73, df = 12, p = .001^*$
My home is the safest place for me	$X^2 = 82.28, df = 12, p = .000^*$
My parent only seems to notice me when I am angry	$X^2 = 43.46, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I often feel angry with my parents without knowing why	$X^2 = 45.76, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I get annoyed by my parent because I have to force him/her to love me.	$X^2 = 53.59, df = 12, p = .000^*$

I am confident that my parent will listen to me.	$X^2 = 18.87, df = 12, p = .092$
I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can.	$X^2 = 60.95, df = 12, p = .000^*$
It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my parent.	$X^2 = 69.46, df = 12, p = .000^*$

Table 5.8.2.1 indicates (*) that there were no significant differences to responses on family attachment according to quintiles.

From the cross tabulations, it was found that only 40% of learners in quintile 2 have parents that take time to discuss issues with them while the majority (60%) do not discuss with parents and 57% of them are angry with parents. 55% of these learners feel that their parents do not pay attention to them. In other items the majority of learners in quintiles 1 to 4 complain about parents' lack of concern. However, the majority of learners in quintile 5 (52%) think otherwise about their parents.

5.8.3 QUINTILE DIFFERENCES IN VERBAL VIOLENCE

The findings in table 5.8.3.1 below suggest (as highlighted by *) that there were statistically significant quintile differences in all items on verbal violence except for two items, namely: involvement in verbal violence because of being bored and frustrated at school, and involvement in verbal violence without any clear reason. Socio-economic factors have nothing to do with these two explanations of verbal violence.

TABLE. 5.8.3.1 QUINTILE RESPONSES TO VERBAL VIOLENCE

Quintile differences and verbal violence	Chi square test results
I saw learners swearing and teasing at school in the last 3 months	$X^2 = 81.40, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I have sworn and teased in the last 3 months.	$X^2 = 53.64, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I witnessed more than 5 cases of verbal violence in the last 3 months.	$X^2 = 51.93, df = 12, p = .000^*$
The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months.	$X^2 = 28.72, df = 12, p = .004^*$
Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months.	$X^2 = 22.57, df = 12, p = .032^*$

Learners have fought verbally in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them.	$X^2 = 29.72, df = 12, p = .003^*$
Cases of verbal violence at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home	$X^2 = 21.46, df = 12, p = .044^*$
Those who got involved in verbal violence in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school.	$X^2 = 14.71, df = 12, p = .258$
Some learners have been involved in verbal violence without any clear reason in the last 3 months	$X^2 = 20.42, df = 12, p = .059$
Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3 months.	$X^2 = 22.35, df = 12, p = .034^*$

5.8.4 QUINTILE DIFFERENCES IN PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

The findings in Table 5.8.4.1 below suggest that there were statistically significant quintile differences in physical violence (shown by p-values less than 0.05*), except for one aspect namely: school rules have been reducing the occurrence of physical fights ($p = 0.130$). This suggests that school rules are effective in curbing physical in

schools located in certain socio-economic locales where in some locations school rules are seen as less effective in combating incidences of physical violence.

TABLE. 5.8.4.1 QUINTILE RESPONSES TO PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

Quintile differences and physical violence	Chi square test results
I saw learners fighting physically at school in the last 3 months	$X^2 = 70.22, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months.	$X^2 = 95.47, df = 12, p = .000^*$
I witnessed more than 5 physical fights in this school in the last 3 months.	$X^2 = 71.49, df = 12, p = .000^*$
The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months.	$X^2 = 59.60, df = 12, p = .000^*$
Our school rules have been reducing the occurrence of physical fights in the last 3 months	$X^2 = 17.55, df = 12, p = .130$
Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them.	$X^2 = 58.19, df = 12, p = .000^*$
Physical fights at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home.	$X^2 = 27.26, df = 12, p = .007^*$
Those who fought physically in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school	$X^2 = 32.20, df = 12, p = .001^*$
Some learners have fought physically without any clear	$X^2 = 44.84, df = 12, p = .000^*$

reason in the last 3 months.	
Schools and homes are to blame for children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months.	$\chi^2 = 27.09, df = 12, p = .008^*$

Further reference to the cross tabulations suggested that 57% of learners in quintile 2 also admit involvement in physical violence and witnessing violence in their schools. 72% of learners in quintile 2 claim violence is increasing while other quintiles think otherwise. 66% of quintile 2 learners believe that teachers are to blame for failing to protect the learners in the schools.

Hence, the indication of responses according to social environments reveals that the frequency of violence is high in lower quintiles than in other quintiles.

5.9 IMPLICATIONS FOR VIOLENCE PREVENTION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

SUB-QUESTION (g): What are the implications of the results above for violence prevention in secondary schools?

Simple deductions can be made after the observations of answers given to questions (a) to (f) on the implications for violence prevention in secondary schools.

There were several observable research results especially from hypotheses with high or modest correlation coefficients (0.12 and above) that can be used as guidelines for violence prevention in high schools in the Amathole District and the whole of South Africa.

5.9.1 DRAWING FROM THE SCHOOL AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE

- a) Commitment by teachers to the curriculum and discipline can reduce the frequency of violence in the schools. This may mean teacher punctuality and general care for all learners can reduce verbal and physical violence. When teachers give attention to all learners they motivate learners to love the school environment. Teachers have to assure learners of safety because the belief that the school is the safest place reduces acts of violence.

- b) School facilities have to be in good condition and attractive because the results clearly show that there is a relationship between school violence and the beauty or ugliness of the infrastructure. Learners' involvement in violence can be reduced by the pride the learners have for their school infrastructure.
- c) Learner anger and frustration has been identified by research as behind the increase of the frequency of violence in the schools which suggests that the school must try to address learners' emotional issues by providing counselling. The higher correlation coefficients (in this case especially where r-value was the highest) suggest that schools need professional assistance in this regard. This service must be provided to learners by both teachers and professionals.
- d) Learners must be involved in school activities and teachers must motivate this involvement to reduce frustration. This frustration tends to lead to violence unless if the school diffuses it through motivation and awards.

5.9.2 DRAWING FROM THE FAMILY AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE

- a) The negative correlation coefficients of family attachment and verbal violence ($r = -0.13$, $p = 0.02$; $r = -0.12$, $p = 0$) and family attachment and physical violence ($r = -0.15$, $p = 0.01$) suggest that there is a lot parents can do to prevent anger and frustration in children. Parents must make time for their children to discuss children's problems. They must develop trust in their children.
- b) Parents must ensure safety at home as indicated by the negative correlation coefficients between family attachment and physical violence ($r = -0.28$, $p = 0$; $r = -0.14$, $p = 0.02$; $r = -0.16$, $p = 0.006$). The higher the safety the lower the involvement in physical violence.

5.10 CONCLUSION

The data presented has shown that there is indeed a correlation between home and school attachment and forms of school violence. The data does not only reveal that but that results and concerns of learners in all social backgrounds are similar. The concerns about violence are similar because violence can occur in any environment and at times the reasons for this violence are not yet clearly researched. However, a

few gender and economic differences were noted in the results dispelling common assertions about gender and violence, and economic status and violence.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND THEIR ALIGNMENT TO THE QUESTION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses findings in relation to the thesis questions and literature review to confirm or refute findings made by other researchers. This does not only seek to refute but to either establish or introduce new knowledge to the public domain.

6.2 GENERAL SURVEY OF CONCERNS

Table 6.2.1 lists notable concerns of learners in schools with respect to attachment and prevalence of violence. These concerns were deduced from individual themes that helped shape the hypotheses of this research. According to the researcher anything that was noted by more than 10% of respondents is worth to be noted and treated as an emergency. Most of the concerns are evidence that there is need for more pro-active and practical intervention in the schools to save the credibility of schools.

TABLE. 6.2.1 SURVEY OF CONCERNS

THEME	ITEMS COVERED	AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS
Parents' lack of concern	B1-B10, D7, D8	20
Homes insecure and unsafe	B3, B4	10.6
Teachers not helpful	C1-C9. D6, E6	30.6
Schools insecure and unsafe	C3, C4, C7. D8, D10, E8.	37
Personal anger/temperament.	C8-C10. D9. E9.	32.4
Prevalence of verbal violence	D1, D2, D3.	41.5

Physical violence is prevalent	E1, E2, E3	32
Verbal violence is increasing	D4	43.7
Physical violence is increasing	E4	33.3
School rules not effective	C4, D5, E5	41.8

6.3 PREVALENCE OF VIOLENCE

With an average of above 35% of respondents admitting to involvement or witnessing either verbal or physical violence in the schools there is no doubt that violence in the schools is real; this confirms that violence is prevalent in South African schools as revealed by several researchers (De Wet, 2006; Dunne et al, 2006; Prinsloo, 2006). Violence is viewed as an unwanted impediment to the learning environment by the majority of respondents. Violence is regarded as the most prevalent deviance in the schools (Tremblow, 2002; Brown, 2009; De Wet, 2006; Dunne et al, 2006; Prinsloo, 2006).

6.4 SCHOOL-ATTACHMENT

With an average of 36% of respondents either admitting that most verbal or physical violence in the schools occurs as a result of frustration and boredom at school or that teachers and school rules do not assist in reducing violence data confirms that schools are to blame in the violence going on in the schools in South Africa.

Teachers' negligence or demotivation of learners, for example, creates in-ward anger in learners. This negligence is synonymous to teacher incompetence and unethical behaviour which has a tendency of provoking learners to act defiantly against the school as a care-giver (Sandhu, 2000). Teacher incompetence includes poor attitude towards work (Mwamwenda, 1995). This bad attitude generates anger in learners who immediately become less attached to the school. Children that are less attached to the school according to findings tend to be involved in either verbal or physical violence more than those that are attached to the school.

Findings have also proven the theory that environments can cause violence true (Muro-Ruiz, 2002). Dilapidated buildings and monotonous school programmes frustrate learners creating tension in the school. Tension leads to unpredictable behaviour such as violence. Hence the school as care-giver has to improve learners' attachment to school by improving the environment in which the learners live. This can be in the form of renovating buildings or building better ones. The findings specify that the more children lose pride in their schools the less attached they become to their schools.

Results point out that as schools become unsafe violence increases and many issues are attributed to this. This concurs with the findings made by Prinsloo (2006), Bandura (1977), Bushman and Anderson (2001) and de Wet (2005, 2006). Learners are driven to violence by the simple desire to protect themselves. This concurs with the theory that violence or aggression is a natural response to hostile environments (Bushman & Anderson, 2001).

Also for a long time Freudian theorists like Cant (2006) and Buss (2005) have defined violence as a response to frustration by failing to reach a specific goal. Bandura (1977) further states that violence is a learned behaviour. For example when there is tension in an environment learners learn from either the environment or from other aggressive children to defend themselves.

6.5 HOME ATTACHMENT

Results of the research as indicated by an average of 20% of respondents who either admit that parents do not make time for them or that they do not look forward going home show that parents do not care about their children the way they should (Porter, 2003).

This perceived negligence could be probably caused by the industrial and urban nature of the country which forces all parents to work for a salary (Wikipedia, 2010; Anderson et al, 2001; CDC, 2008; Angels of Columbine, 2010; Sullivan et al, 2004). There is less violence in schools that are in less industrialised countries like Mozambique and Uganda than in countries that are heavily industrialised like Australia, USA, Canada and Europe. This impact of industrialisation on the rearing of adolescents in South Africa is yet to be researched.

The more parents listen to their children's problems or attend to their needs the less children are involved in verbal or physical violence. Children who are less attached to their parents tend to be unpredictable and violent (Schore & Schore, 2008; Bowlby, 1988; Karcher & Lee, 2002). This also applies to abused children who become anxious and avoidant and tend to reject or dismiss caregivers (Daniel, 2000; Howe, 1999). These children tend to be angry, confrontational and violent. When children are angry with their caregivers, they tend to care less about the environment around them and they withdraw or attack any time they perceive a threat in the environment.

6.6 RESULTS ACCORDING TO GENDER

However results (calculated at an average of 49.8% of respondents of both genders who claim that parents make time for them) show that adolescents do not totally cut off their trust in parents to cling to friends (Nickerson & Nagle, 2005). They still regard their parents as being very available all the time for them. However the pattern was different according to gender. Adolescent girls seem to be more attached to their parents (59.7%) than boys (39.9%). Girls have more trust in parents than boys.

Prinsloo (2006) and (Dunne et al, 2003) state that most violence in the schools is gender violence. The results of this research do not directly confirm this theory but they confirm that girls' and boys' attitude towards violence is very different. Again 59.7% of girls that responded say (see Indices) violence is prevalent in schools and that something must be done. What this implies is that girls are more willing to participate in school programmes and assist in dealing with violence unlike 20% of boys who are either involved in the violence or not concerned about what is happening around them (Berk, 2005; Karcher & Lee, 2002). Could it be that what has been regarded as gender violence is actually 'natural' dating violence driven by an increase in testosterone levels? This violence can be directed at girls who are perceived to be resisting proposals or at other boys as a way of driving them away from perceived suitors.

6.7 RESULTS ACCORDING TO SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS

Results also show that learners from economically deprived environments acknowledge the existence of violence in their schools more than those from other environments. Poverty can influence people's behaviour towards violence (Maro-Ruiz, 2002; Solley, 2005). In response to the question on how different the responses would be from children of different social backgrounds, data reveals that perceptions of violence unlike the actual occurrences differ according to children's backgrounds. Children from poor backgrounds tend to be more exposed to violence and social anger. This could be anger against parents they perceive are not doing enough or against schools they perceive are not serving their purpose as caregivers.

Ironically, findings have revealed that actual occurrences of violence are different from perceptions of violence. Actual occurrences of violence are indiscriminate and they can occur in any group of adolescents (Sullivan et al, 2004). Adolescent violence can be biologically driven and that is why all adolescents regardless of class are affected by violence or aggression. That is why some memorable and ghastly acts of school violence in South Africa have occurred in former 'model C' schools (Cape Argus, 29 May 2007; Sunday Times, 26 March 2006). The results of the research revealed this indiscriminate nature of adolescent violence as respondents from all quintiles acknowledged the existence of school violence in their schools.

6.8 NEW AREAS OF RESEARCH

When the researcher went through this research many questions kept on coming up. Perhaps the 20% of boys who admitted to being involved in school violence could be victims of cultural practices that initiate boys to manhood (Maybe the circumcision school). May be the failure by parents to make time for their children, as indicated by 32.4% of the respondents in chapter 5, section B (Home attachment), item 3 analysis, could be a result of modernisation or industrialisation which forces parents to be away from their children working hard for a living. As a result of the researcher's speculation this could be future research:

- a) The relations of industrialisation and learner home and school attachment.
- b) The correlation between cultural practices such as circumcision school philosophy and acts of violence in the schools.

6.9 CONCLUSION

As indicated by the discussion of findings and the literature review this research hopes to open new debate on the role of home and school attachment on school violence (verbal and physical). The findings can help other researchers in South Africa to focus on home and school attachment when discussing violence and prevention.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarises findings, submits recommendations to policy makers and schools and concludes this study drawing from the data collected from the schools in the Amathole District in the Eastern Cape in South Africa and from the discussion of findings.

7.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The data from this study indicates that there is a lot that schools and homes can do to reduce verbal and physical violence in the schools. There is indeed a relationship between an adolescent's attachment to either home or school and forms of violence such as verbal and physical violence. These primary care givers play a major role in the development of adolescents in the society mainly because they are the only institutions that a child understands better.

7.2.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT TO SCHOOL AND VIOLENCE

- a) The more teachers make an effort to care about learners the less learners will be involved in swearing at school. The more the teachers de-motivate learners the more frequent the learners get involved in swearing. Learners are frustrated by teachers who show little or no concern for their problems and then vent out their anger through swearing or threatening other learners.
- b) The more teachers make an effort to care about learners the more effective the school rules will be. The more the teachers de-motivate learners the less effective school rules become. At times teachers wonder why school rules are not effective. Rules can never serve a community that does not care.
- c) The more teachers take action to solve learners' problems the more effective school rules will be in cutting down the frequency of verbal violence. Likewise when teachers take action to solve learners' problems the lower the frequency of verbal violence will be at school as a result of direct frustration from home.

- d) Teachers' bad attitude towards their work and towards their learners drives learners to frustration and later to violence. The more learners are demotivated by teachers the more they get angry and fight at school.
- e) When lack of pride in one's school increases levels of violence increase in the school. The more learners are proud of their schools the less schools can be blamed for the frequency of verbal violence.
- f) When teachers show favour towards children from rich families the number of violent learners from economically deprived backgrounds increases as a way of protest. This still implies that learners are bound to protest through acts of verbal or physical violence when teachers show any kind of favour to any of their colleagues.
- g) When levels of safety at school are raised the frequency of violence at school decreases. This also means that school safety increases the effectiveness of school rules.
- h) The more learners feel angry without knowing why, the more they tend to be involved in violence. This also implies that the frequency of violence increases in an environment of frustration and anger.
- i) The more a learner desires and is given an opportunity to do well for the school, the less the learner gets involved in violence of any kind.

7.2.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT TO FAMILY AND VIOLENCE

- a) The more parents make an effort to care about their children the less children will be involved in violence at school. Children tend to have violent outbursts when they perceive that parents are not concerned about them. The more parents make an effort to offer care to their adolescent children case of violence at school will drop. Actually the more parents listen to their children's

problems the less homes will be blamed for being responsible for violence in the schools.

- b) The angrier the children are with their parents the more they get involved in violence and the more the families are blamed for violence in schools.
- c) When homes are made safe for children they will always look forward to returning home every day and avoid being involved in violence at school. This also implies that levels of risky behaviour like loitering in town will be reduced as children look forward to going home direct.
- d) The more children desire and are given an opportunity to help or to be close to their parents or any other care-giver the less they will be involved in violence.

7.2.3 RESULTS ACCORDING TO GENDER

- a) Girls appreciate teachers' and the school's care better than boys. Boys still believe that teachers do not care about their problems.
- b) Boys view current violence in the schools as normal whereas girls believe something must be done to reduce it. Hence the majority of girls believe that school rules are not either effective or implemented properly. However the majority of boys favour the status quo. May be this works well for 20% of the boys who have perpetrated violence before.

7.2.4 DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS

- a) Most learners from economically deprived environments feel angry against other learners without knowing why. The same learners admit having anger against teachers without any specific reason. Learners from economically deprived environments experience frequent violence in their schools.
- b) Learners from economically deprived environments are exposed to demoralised teachers who are not protecting learners.

- c) Learners from economically deprived environments say frustrations from both school and home cause violence in their schools.

7.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR VIOLENCE PREVENTION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

SUB-QUESTION (g): What are the implications of the results above for violence prevention in secondary schools?

Simple deductions can be made after the observations of answers given to questions (a) to (f) on the implications for violence prevention in secondary schools.

There were several observable research results especially from hypotheses with high or modest correlation coefficients (0.12 and above) that can be used as guide lines for violence prevention in high schools in the Amathole District and the whole of South Africa.

7.3.1 DRAWING FROM THE SCHOOL AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE

- a) Commitment by teachers to the curriculum and discipline can reduce the frequency of violence in the schools. This may mean teacher punctuality and general care for all learners can reduce verbal and physical violence. When teachers give attention to all learners they motivate learners to love the school environment. Teachers have to assure learners of safety because the belief that the school is the safest place reduces acts of violence.
- b) School facilities have to be in good condition and attractive because findings clearly show that there is a relationship between school violence and the beauty or ugliness of the infrastructure. Learners' involvement in violence can be reduced by the pride the learners have for their school infrastructure.
- c) Learner anger and frustration has been identified by research as behind the increase of the frequency of violence in the schools which suggests that the school must try to address learners' emotional issues by providing counselling. The notable differences suggest that schools need professional assistance in

this regard. This service must be provided to learners by both teachers and professionals.

- d) Learners must be involved in school activities and teachers must motivate this involvement to reduce frustration. This frustration tends to lead to violence unless if the school diffuses it through motivation and awards.

7.3.2 DRAWING FROM THE FAMILY AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE

- a) The negative correlation coefficients of family attachment and verbal violence ($r = -0.13$, $p = 0.02$; $r = -0.12$, $p = 0$) and family attachment and physical violence ($r = -0.15$, $p = 0.01$) suggest that there is a lot parents can do to prevent anger and frustration in children. Parents must make time for their children to discuss children's problems. They must develop trust in their children.
- b) Parents must ensure safety at home as indicated by the negative correlation coefficients between family attachment and physical violence ($r = -0.28$, $p = 0$; $r = -0.14$, $p = -0.02$; $r = -0.16$, $p = -0.006$). The higher the safety the lower the involvement in physical violence.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

There are many ways schools, parents, community, and government can adopt and implement to improve homes and schools as a way of enhancing learner-attachment. Some ways have been in use within South Africa and overseas. These recommendations are the researcher's way of trying to guide decision making about school violence prevention and to form as mentioned in chapter 1 a springboard for more in-depth longitudinal investigations.

- a) Government must play its role of improving the lives of the poor as doing so supports efforts of schools and communities to rid schools of violence. Bringing safety to schools requires total social transformation.

- b) Government must consider active supervision of policies that have been formulated to solve the problem of violence in the schools to ensure proper implementation. For example most schools have never been visited by the psychological service personnel from the Department of Education.
- c) Programs along the lines of the United States of America's Olweus bullying and violence prevention program must be introduced; a whole-school approach must be integrated with the Department of Education's Safe Schools Programs. This program emphasises on schools and communities working together so that there is regular monitoring of victims and perpetrators of violence for counselling purposes. School programs like clubs can be formulated to allow every child to participate in the development of the school and others. Under the same programme parents can be assisted on how to deal with their teen age children. These programs can only be effective if they are directed by professionals like educational psychologists and sociologists. Since schools do not have these offices the Department of Education can have an active office that will offer these services to the schools.
- d) Schools must formulate active departments responsible for counselling learners professionally instead of relying on the school office only. However this counselling department must work in consultation with class teachers and sports teachers who can assist in follow-ups and in monitoring of concerned learners. Coordinators of these counselling clubs must regularly invite department professionals to train staff in basic knowledge of counselling and violence prevention such as creating plans that respond to crises.
- e) Teachers and administrators must be advised by the Department of Education and government to develop themselves professionally to impress learners because learners can be frustrated by teachers who are neither competent nor proud of their work. Lack of professional development is the sole reason for failing to care for learners. Schools that display high level of scholasticism and professionalism draw learners towards them. It must be noted that currently the majority of teachers in South Africa are neither academically nor

professionally impressive. A professionally developed teacher inspires learners to love school and personal progress.

- f) Along the lines of Grand and Gomez (1996) educators must adopt a human relations approach in dealing with learners to encourage an environment of collaboration and cooperation.
- g) Schools must form cultural societies and introduce more sporting codes to encourage children to have an opportunity to express themselves. Findings have shown that children that have a desire to do well for their schools detach from violent activities to connect to the school. Teachers must make an effort to identify positive capabilities in all children for the purpose of reinforcement.
- h) Social workers must be brought in to assist schools in regular visits to families to discuss children's progress at both school and home. Social workers have both time and skill of visiting and dealing with societies we live in. It is not practical to have teachers teaching, planning, marking and having regular visits to children's homes.
- i) Findings reveal that poor dilapidated structures and facilities in schools contribute to school violence. Learners get de-moralized by and poorly attached to schools with poor infrastructure. School administrators must try within their means to improve their infrastructure. Government must implement the African National Congress' promise to renovate 'mud schools by 2014' (Presidential address, 2011).

7.5 LIMITATIONS

Research in school violence is very sensitive, the majority of respondents and teachers assisting in the administration of the questionnaire usually tend to protect the image of their schools by influencing each other's responses to questions. The majority of learners tended (suspiciously) to deny ever witnessing the two forms of violence in the schools when in actual fact violence such as verbal violence occurs almost daily in the schools.

The delay by the department of education to give the researcher a written response to the application for permission to conduct the research caused a delay in starting the research (see Index).

7.6 CONCLUSION

Unless recommendations from researchers are implemented violence in our schools will increase. One person's research cannot totally change a dynamic society in which values of family are dying. More avenues for research can still be explored in future research on how to reduce violence in the schools. For example during my data analysis a question arose in me about the role of education and violence. Is there a thoroughly researched correlation between education levels of societies and their involvement in violence? Do levels of violence really change as individuals get more educated?

REFERENCES

- Adams, J. Khan, H. T. A. Raeside, R & White, D. (2007). Research Methods for graduate business and social science students. London: Sage.
- Adler, L. L. & Denmark F.L. (1995). Machismo Values and Violence in America: *An Empirical Study ... Violence and the Prevention of Violence*. Praeger Publishers.
- Ainsworth, M., Blehar, M., Waters, E., & Wall, S., (1978). Patterns of Attachment. Lawrence Erlbaum Assoc., Hillsdale, NJ., 1978.
- Ainsworth, M.D.S., Blehar, M., & Waters, E., (1978) Patterns of Attachment: A Psychological Study of the Strange Situation. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Akinboade O. A. & Lalthapersad- Pillay P. (2004). *Poverty, gender and trade in southern Africa*. Tydskrif vir Geesteswetenskappe, 44:193-211.
- Allen, C. (2003). On the logic of the new welfare practice: an Ethnographic case study of the new welfare intermediaries. Sociological research online, 8 (1): www.socresonline.org. Uk/socresonline/8/1/allen.html
- Allen, J. P., McElhaney, K. B., Land, D. J., Kuperminc, G. P., Moore, C. W., & O'Beirne-Kelly, H., (2003). A secure base in adolescence: Markers of attachment security in the mother-adolescent relationship. *Child Development*, 74, 292-307.
- Anda, R.F., & Felitti, V.J. (2001) 'Abused Boys, Battered Mothers, and Male Involvement in TeenPregnancy', *Pediatrics*, Vol. 107, no. 2, pp.19-27.
- Anderson MA, Kaufman J, Simon TR, Barrios L, Paulozzi L. & Ryan G, (2001) School-associated violent deaths in the United States, 1994–1999. *Journal of the American Medical Association*; 286:2695–702.
- Arnold, M. L., Pratt, M. W., & Hicks, C. (2004). Adolescents' representations of parents' voices in family stories: Value lessons, personal adjustment, and identity development. In M. Pratt & B. Fiese (Eds.), *Family stories and the life course: Across time and generations* (pp. 163-186). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Atkins, M. S., McKay, M., Talbott, E., & Arvantis, P. (1996). "DSM-IV diagnosis of conduct disorder and oppositional defiant disorder: Implications and guidelines for school mental health teams," *School Psychology Review*, 25, 274-283. Citing: Bell, C. C., & Jenkins, E. J. (1991). "Traumatic stress and children," *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved*, 2, 175-185.

- Avakame, E. F. (1999). *Social Disorganization, social capital, and the epidemic of youth violence*. Paper presented at the 1999 Add Health Users Workshop, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland.
- Azrin, N.H. (1965). "Motivational Aspects of Escape From Punishment". *Journal of the experimental analysis of behavior*, Vol. 8.31-44.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *A Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, and New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Baum, Naomi L. (2005) "Building Resilience: A School-Based Intervention for Children Exposed to Ongoing Trauma and Stress." In *The Trauma of Terrorism. Sharing Knowledge and Shared Care. An International Handbook*, edited by Yael Danieli, Danny Brom and Joe Sills, 487-496. New York: The Haworth Press.
- Bauman, S., & Waldo, M. (1998). Existential theory and mental health counselling: If it were a snake, it would have bitten! *Journal of Mental Health Counselling*, 20, 13–27.
- Becker, H. (1996). The epistemology of qualitative research. In R. Jessor, A. Colby, & R. Schweder (Eds.), *Essays on ethnography and human development* (pp. 53-71). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Becker-Weidman, A. & Deborah Shell, D. M. A, Eds., (2005). *Creating Capacity For Attachment*, Wood N Barnes, Oklahoma City:OK
- Bennett, W. J. (2000). The relationship between media violence and school violence. In B. J. Grapes (Ed.), *School violence*. (p. 57-61). San Diego, CA: Greenhaven Press, Inc.
- Berg, B. L. (2001). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bergen, D. (2008) *Human Development: Traditional and Contemporary Themes* . New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall Inc.
- Berk, L. (2005). *Infants, Children and Adolescents*, Boston: Allyn and Bacons.
- Berk, L.E. (2005). *Child Development*, Pearson Education: USA.
- Bester, Garfield (2007). Personality development of the adolescent: peer group versus parents. *South African Journal of Education*. Vol. 27(2)177–190.

- Bisman, J. E. (2002, July). *The critical realist paradigm as an approach to research in accounting*. Poster presentation at the Accounting Association of Australian and New Zealand Annual Conference, Perth, Australia.
- Bourne, L.E. & Ekstrand, B.R. (1982). *Psychology*. New York: McGraw – Hill.
- Bowen, G. L., & Chapman, M. V. (1996). *Poverty, neighbourhood danger, social support, and individual adaptation among at-risk youth in urban areas*. *Journal of Family Issues*, 17,641-666.
- Bowlby, J. (1969) Attachment , Vol. 1 of Attachment and loss. London: Hogarth Press. New York: Basic Books; Harmondsworth: Penguin (1971).
- Brannen, J. & Nilson, A. (2002). Young people's time perspectives: from Youth to Adulthood. *Sociology*, 36 (3): 513- 37.
- Brown, B. A. (2002). The development of working relationships between indigenous and expatriate teachers: A case study. Med dissertation: University of South Africa.
- Brown, B. A. (2009). *School violence victims' posttraumatic stress disorder experiences*. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, Vol.19.1.
- Bryan, G. & Burgess, R.E. (Eds) (1994). *Analysing Qualitative Data*. London. Routledge.
- Burton, P. (2008) Merchants, Skollies and Stones: Experiences of School Violence in South Africa. Centre for Justice And Crime Prevention, Cape Town.
- Bushman, B.J. & Anderson, C. A. (2001). Is it time to pull the plug on the hostile versus instrumental aggression dichotomy? *Psychological Review* 108:273-279.
- Buss, D. M. (2005). *The murderer next door: Why the mind Is designed to kill*. New York: Penguin Press.
- Cant, M. A., Llop J., & Field J. (2006) "Individual variation in social aggression and the probability of inheritance: theory and a field test." *American Naturalist* 167: 837-852.<http://www.journals.uchicago.edu/press/051006_1_AN.html.
- Cape Argus, 29 May 2007
- Capozzoli, T. K., & McVey, R. S. (2000). Kids killing kids: Managing violence and gangs in schools. Boca Raton, FL: St. Lucie Press.
- Carrim, N. (1998). *Anti-racism and the 'new' South African educational order*. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 28(3).

- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (b). (2010). Youth risk behavioural surveillance—United States, 2009. MMWR; 59 (No. 50–55).
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2008). School-associated student homicides—United States, 1992–2006. MMWR; 57(02):33–6.
- ChildLine (2004) 'A ChildLine Information Sheet: Domestic Violence', United Kingdom,.<http://www.childline.org.uk/pdfs/DomesticViolence.pdf>
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). Research Methods In Education. Routledge.
- Collishaw S, Maughan B, Goodman R, & Pickles A (2004). Time trends in adolescent mental health. *Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry*, 45, 1350-1362.
- Cook, T. D. (1993). *A quasi-sampling theory of the generalization of causal relationships*. In L. Sechrest & A. G. Scott (Eds.), *Understanding causes and generalizing about them* (pp. 39-83). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Cooper, M. L., Shaver, P. R., & Collins, N. L. (1998). *Attachment styles, emotion regulation, and adjustment in adolescence*. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 1380-1397.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches. Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Daily Dispatch, 7 February 2008
- Daily Dispatch, 9 February 2007
- Daniel, B. (2000) 'Infancy'. In Davies, M. (ed). *The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Social Work* . Oxford: Blackwell (pp 167-169).
- De Wet, C. (2005). *The nature and extent of bullying in Free State secondary schools*. *South African Journal of Education*, Vol. 25(2) 82–88.
- De Wet, C. (2006). *Free State educators' experiences and recognition of bullying at schools*. *South African Journal of Education*. Vol. 26(1)61–73.
- De Wet, C. (2007). *South African Journal of Education* Vol. 27:673–689.
- Dillman, D. (2000). *Mail and Internet Surveys: The Tailored Design Method*. New York: Wiley & Sons.

- Dinkes R., Lemp J., & Baum K. (2008) *Indicators of School Crime and Safety*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.2007; NCES 2009-0223:1-169.
- Doherty, W. J., & Beaton, J. M. (2004). Mothers and fathers parenting together. In A. L. Vangelisti (Ed.), *Handbook of family communication* (pp. 269-286). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dornbusch, S.M. Erickson, K. G. Laird, J. & Wong, C.A. (2001). *The Relation of Family and School Attachment to Adolescent Deviance in Diverse Groups and Communities*. Journal of Adolescent Research, Vol. 16, No. 4, 396-422
- Drum, March 2005
- Du Toit A. (2004). 'Social exclusion' discourse and chronic poverty: A South African case study. *Development and Change*, 35:987-1010.
- Dunne, M. Humphreys, S. & Leach, F. (2003). Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4, "*The Leap to Equality*". London: DfID Educational Policy Unit, 1999
- Ehrensaft, M. K. (2004) 'Clinically Abusive Relationships in an Unselected Birth Cohort: Men's and Women's Participation and Developmental Antecedents', *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, vol.113, no. 2, , pp. 258-271.
- Ellsberg, M. & Heise, L. (2005) 'Researching Violence against Women. A Practical Guide for Researchers and Activists'. Washington DC, United States: World Health Organization, PATH.
- Erickson, E. (1968). *Identity, Youth, and Crisis*, New York: Norton.
- Fallahi, C. R., Austad, C. S., Fallon, M. & Leishman, L. (2009). A Survey of Perceptions of the Virginia Tech Tragedy. *Journal of School Violence*, 8:120–135.
- Fantuzzo John W. & Wanda K. Mohr (1999) 'Prevalence and Effects of Child Exposure to Domestic Violence', *The Future of Children – Domestic Violence and Children*, vol. 9,no. 3.
- Felitti V.J. (1998) 'The Relationship of Adult Health Status to Childhood Abuse and Household Dysfunction', *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, Vol. 14, , pp. 245-258.

- Fonagy, P. (2003). Towards a developmental understanding of violence. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 183, 190-192.
- Fonagy, P., Target, M., Steele, M., Steele, H., Leigh, T., Levinson, A., & Kennedy, R. (1997). *Morality, disruptive behavior, borderline personality disorder, crime and their relationship to security of attachment*. In L. Atkinson & K. J. Zucker (Eds.), *Attachment and psychopathology*. New York: Guilford.
- Furlong, M. & Morrison, G. (2000). The school in school violence: definition and facts. *Journal of Emotional & Behavioral Disorders*, 8:71-81.
- Golden, S. (1992). *Thinking Methodologically*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Grotevant, H. D., & Van Dulmen, M. (1999). *Individual and connectedness as predictors of relations of adolescents to school, peers, and society*. Paper presented at the 1999 meeting of the society for Research in Child Development, Albuquerque, New Mexico.
- Hagan, J. & Foster, H. (2000). Making criminal and corporate America less violent: public norma and structural reforms. *Contemporary Sociology*, 29 (1), 44-53.
- Haj-Yahia, M .M. (2001). The Incidence of Witnessing Interparenteral Violence and some of its psychological Consequences among Arab Adolescents. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 25,885-907.
- Hallinan, M. T. ((2008). Teacher Influences on Students' Attachment to School. *Sociology of Education*, Vol. 81, No. 3, 271-283
- Harlow, H. F. & Harlow, M. K. (1969) "Effects of various mother-infant relationships on rhesus monkey behaviors". In B. M. Foss (Ed.) *Determinants of infant behavior* (Vol. 4). London: Methuen.
- Harrison C. (2006). No-fee schools. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:173-175.
- Herrera, V. & McCloskey, L. (2001) 'Gender Differentials in the Risk for Delinquency among Youth Exposed to Family Violence', *Child Abuse and Neglect*, Vol. 25, no.8, pp. 1037-1051.
- Hilgard, E.R., Atkinson, R.C. & Atkinson, R.L. (1979). *Introduction to psychology* (7th ed.). New York: Harcourt.

- Hirschi, T. (1998). *Social bond theory*. In Cullen, F. T. & Agnew, R (Eds.), *Criminological theory: Past to present*. Los Angeles: Roxbury.
- Hirschi, T., & Gottfredson, M. R. (2005). "Punishment of Children from the Perspective of Control Theory". in Michael Donnelly and Murray A. Straus. *Corporal Punishment of Children in Theoretical Perspective*. New Haven, CT; London, UK: Yale University Press.
- Holt, M. K., Kaufman Kantor, G., & Finkelhor, D. (2009). Parent/Child Concordance about Bullying Involvement and Family Characteristics Related to Bullying and Peer victimization *Journal of School Violence*, 8:42–63.
- Hong, J. S. (2009). Feasibility of the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program in Low-Income Schools. School of Social Work, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois, USA.
- Howe, D. (1999) Attachment Theory, Child Maltreatment and Family Support: A Practice and Assessment Model . Basingstoke: Palgrave.
- Huberman, M. & Miles, M. (2002) (eds) *The Qualitative researcher's companion*. London: Sage.
- Human Rights Watch (2001). *Scared at School: Sexual Violence against Girls in South African Schools*. New York: Human Rights Watch.
- Indermaur, David, 'Young Australians and Domestic Violence', Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice, No. 195, Canberra, 2001;
- James, M. (1994) 'Domestic Violence as a Form of Child Abuse: Identification and Prevention', Issues in Child Abuse Prevention. PATH.
- Juvonen J, Nishina A., & Graham S. (2000) Peer harassment, psychological adjustment, and school functioning in early adolescence. *Educational Psychology* 92:349–359.
- Kail, R.E. (2006). *Children and their Development* (4th ed), Prentice-Hall.
- Kallestad, J. H., & Olweus, D. (2003). Predicting teachers' and schools' implementation of the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program: A multilevel study. *Prevention & Treatment*, 6(21).
- Karavasilis, K., Doyle, A.-B., & Margolese, S. K. (1999). *Links between parenting styles and adolescent attachment*. Poster presented at the biennial meetings of the Society for Research in Child Development, Albuquerque, April.

- Kernic, M.A. (2003). 'Behavioral Problems among Children whose Mothers are Abused by an Intimate Partner', *Child Abuse and Neglect*, Vol. 27, no. 11, p 1231-1248.
- Kerns, K. A., & Stevens, A. C. (1996). *Parent-child attachment in late adolescence: Links to social relations and personality*. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 25, 323-342.
- Kishor, S., & Johnson, K. (2004) 'Profiling Domestic Violence – A Multi-Country Study', Calverton MD: ORC Macro.
- Klewin, G., Tillmann, K. & Weingart, G. (2003). Violence in school. In: Heitmeyer W & Hagan J (eds). *International Handbook of Violence Research*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Klonsky, M. (2002). *How smaller schools prevent school violence*. *Educational Leadership*, 59(5):65-69.
- Kobak R., & Madsen S (2008). "Disruption in Attachment Bonds". in Cassidy J, Shaver PR. *Handbook of Attachment: Theory, Research and Clinical Applications*. New York and London: Guilford Press. pp. 23–47.
- Kornblum, W. Julian, J. & Smith, C.D. (2007). *Social Problems*. Prentice-Hall.
- Kothari, C.R. (2004). *Research Methodology*. (2nd ed). New Delhi: New Sage.
- Krauss, S. E. (2005). *Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer*. *The Qualitative Report*, 10(4), 758-770.
- Kruger, A.G. & Schalkwyk Van O.J (1997). *Classroom Management*. Van Schaik Publishers.
- Kyu, Nilar & Atsuko Kanai (2005) 'Prevalence, Antecedent Causes and Consequences of Domestic Violence in Myanmar', *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, vol. 8, no. 3, p. 244.
- Lahteenmaki, S. (2001). *Critical aspects of organizational learning research and proposals for its measurement*. *British Journal of Management*, 12(2), 113-129.
- Landberg, E. (Ed) (2005). *Addressing Barriers To Learning: A South African Perspective*, Van Schaik Publishers.
- Laursen, B., & Collins, W. A. (2004). Parent-child communication during adolescence. In A. L. Vangelisti (Ed.), *Handbook of family communication* (pp. 333-348). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Lohman, B. J. Kaura, S. A. & Newman, B. M. (2007). *Matched or Mismatched Environments? The Relationship of Family and School Differentiation to Adolescents' Psychosocial Adjustment*, Youth & Society, Vol. 39, No. 1, 3-32
- Maguire, P. (1987). *Doing Participatory Research: A Feminist Approach*. Amhest: University of Massachusetts Press.
- Main, M. (1999). "Epilogue: Attachment Theory: Eighteen Points with Suggestions for Future Studies". in Cassidy J, Shaver PR. *Handbook of Attachment: Theory, Research and Clinical Applications*. New York: Guilford Press. pp. 845–87.
- Matud, M. P. (2005). The Psychological Impact of Domestic Violence on Spanish women. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 35, 2310-2322.
- McElliskem, J. E. (2004) "Affective and Predatory Violence: a Bimodal Classification System of Human Aggression and Violence." *Aggression & Violent Behavior* 10: 1-30.
- McMorris, Barbara & Christopher Uggen. (2000). "Alcohol and Employment in the Transition to Adulthood." *Journal of Health and Social Behavior* 41:276-94.
- McNeely CA, Nonnemaker JM, & Blum R. W. *Promoting school connectedness: evidence from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health*. J Sch Health 2002; 72:138–46.
- Melissa K. Holt, Glenda Kaufman Kantor, & David Finkelhor (2009). Parent/Child Concordance about Bullying Involvement and Family Characteristics Related to Bullying and Peer Victimization. *Journal of School Violence*, 8:42–63.
- Mercer, J (2006) *Understanding Attachment: Parenting, child care and emotional development*. Westport, CT: Praeger
- Michael Blastland (2009-07-31). "Just what is poor?". BBC NEWS.
- Mills, M. (2001). *Challenging violence in schools: An issue of masculinity*. Buckingham: England.
- Moffitt, Terrie E., & Avshalom Caspi (July 1999) 'Findings About Partner Violence from the Dunedin Multi-Disciplinary Health and Development Study', Research in Brief, National Institute of Justice, Washington DC.

- Mohr, A. (2006). Family variables associated with peer victimization: Does family violence enhance the probability of being victimized by peers? *Swiss Journal of Psychology*, 65, 107–116.
- Moretti, M. & Reebye, P. (2005). Perspectives on Childhood and Adolescent Aggression. *The Canadian Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Review* February (14):11.
- Mulvaney-Day, N., Rappaport, N., Alegria, M., & Codianne, L. (2006). Developing systems interventions in a school setting: An application of community-based participatory research for mental health. *Ethnicity and Disease*, 16, 107–117.
- Nduru, M. Johannesburg, Oct 16, 2006 (IPS)
- Neser, J.J. Ovens, M. Van der Merwe, M. Morodi, R. Ladikos, A. & Prinsloo, J. (2004). *The victims of bullying in schools*. *Acta Criminologica*, 17:28-47.
- Nezlek, J.B. & Smith, C.V. (2005). *Social Identity in Daily Social Interaction. Self and Identity*, 4 243 – 261. Psychology Press.
- Nickerson, A. B., & Nagle, R. J. (2005). Parent and peer attachment in late childhood and early adolescence. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 23, 223-249.
- Nzimande, B. & Thusi, S. (1998). 'Children of war': *The impact of political violence in schooling in Natal*. In *Democratic governance of public schooling in South Africa* (pp. 3-20). Durban: Education Policy Unit (Natal).
- Oakley, A. (2000). *Experiments in Knowing: Gender and Method in the Social Sciences*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2005, February). *Linking research questions to mixed methods data analysis procedures*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.
- Owens, Linda K. (2002). Introduction To Survey. Research Design Survey Research Laboratory (Srl) Fall 2002 Seminar Series. <http://www.srl.uic.edu>
- Payne, G. & Payne, J. (2004). *Key Concepts In Social Research*. London: Sage.
- Porter, L. (2003). *Young children's behaviour: Practical Approaches for caregivers and teachers*. MacLennan and Perry Pvt Ltd.
- Presidential address (Limpopo, January, 2011). RSA.

Pretoria News, 28 May 2007.

Prinsloo, S. (2006). *Sexual harassment and violence in South African schools*. South African Journal of Education. Vol. 26(2)305–318.

Puzzanchera C. (2008) Juvenile Arrests. Juvenile Justice Bulletin. Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention; 2009. Available from URL: www.ncjrs.gov.

Rasmussen, M. Damsgaard, M. T. Due, P. & Holstein, B. E. *Boys and girls smoking within the Danish elementary school classes: a group-level analysis*. Scand J Public Health 2002; 30:62–9.

Rembe, S. W. (2005). The Politics of Transformation in South Africa: An Evaluation of Education Policies and Their Implementation with Particular Reference to the Eastern Cape Province. PhD Thesis: Rhodes University.

Resnick, M. D., Bearman, P. Blum, R. W. Bauman, K. E. Harris, K. M. Jones, J. Tabor, T. Beuhring, R. Sieving, M. Shew, M. Ireland, L. Beringer, L. & Udry, J. R. (1997). *Protecting adolescents from harm: Findings from the national longitudinal study of Adolescent Health*. Journal of the American Medical Association, 278, 823-832.

RSA, Constitution Act 108 of 1996.

Sampson, R.J., & Laub, J.H. (1994). *Urban poverty and the family context of delinquency: A new look at structure and process in a classic study*. Child Development, 65, 523-540.

Sandhu, D. S. (2000). Alienated students: Counseling strategies to curb school violence. *Professional School Counseling*, 4, 81–85.

Simonds, A. T. (2009). *Violence Prevention in United States Society of Jesus Secondary Schools*. Journal of School Violence, 8:191–204

Simpson, G. 2001. *South Africa: beyond exclusion*. The UNESCO Courier, April. Available [url:http://www.unesco.org/courier/2001_04/uk/education2.html](http://www.unesco.org/courier/2001_04/uk/education2.html). (Consulted on 15.09.09)

Sindhu, K. S. (2003). Methodology of research in education. New Delhi: Sterling.

Siyothula Evy- Terressah busisiwe, (2004). The experiences of children exposed to domestic violence, University of Zululand.

- Smith, P.K. (2003). (Ed.). *Violence in schools: The Response in Europe*. RoutledgeFalmer: London.
- Solley, Bobbie A. (2005). *When Poverty's Children Write: Celebrating Strengths, Transforming Lives*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, Inc.
- StatsSA (Statistics South Africa) (2007a). *Income survey*. Available at: www.statssa.gov.za/publications/statsdownload.
- StatsSA (Statistics South Africa) (2007b). *Labour force survey*. Available at: www.statssa.gov.za/publications/statskeyfindings.asp?PPN=P0210&SCH=3890.
- Stephen, S. C. (2005) *Ending Global Poverty: A Guide to What Works*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Stevens, V., De Bourdeaudhuij, I., & Van Oost, P. (2002). Relationship of the family environment to children's involvement in bully/victim problems at school. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 31, 419–428.
- Sullivan, K. Cleary, M. & Sullivan, G. (2004). *Bullying In Secondary Schools: What it looks like and how to change it*. Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Sunday Times, 26 March 2006.
- Sutherland, E. H. & Cressey, D.R. (1966). *Principles of criminology* (7th ed.) Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Swaziland Global School-based Student Health Survey (2003)
- Tajima, E. (2004). Correlates of the co-occurrence of wife abuse and child abuse among a representative sample. *Journal of Family Violence*, 19, 391-402.
- Tatar, M. (1998). Significant individuals in adolescence: adolescent and adult perspectives. *Journal of Adolescence*, 21:691-702.
- Trochim, W. M. (2006). *The research methods knowledge base*. Retrieved November 13, 2003, from <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/>
- Twemlow, S.W. Fonagy, P. & Sasco, F.C. (2002). *Feeling Safe In School*. Social Work, 72(2) 303-326.
- Van Aardt C. (2007). *Gap between rich and poor increasing*. Rapport.

- Victoria Department of Human Health Services (2004) 'The Health Costs of Violence, Measuring the Burden of Disease Caused by Intimate Partner Violence', Victoria.
- Weber, Ron (Ed) *MIS Quarterly Vol. 28 No. 1, pp. iii-xii/March 2004*
- Weimer, B. L., Kerns, K. A., & Oldenburg, C. M. (2003). Adolescents' interactions with a best friend: Associations with attachment style. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 88, 102-120.
- WHO (2002). 'World Report on Violence and Health', ed. By Krug, Etienne G. Geneva.
- Winberg, C (1997). *Learning How To Research And Evaluate*. Uswe, Cape Town.
- World Health Organization (2002) 'World Report on Violence and Health', ed. By Krug, Etienne G., et al., Geneva.
- World Health Organization (2002) 'World Report on Violence and Health', ed. By Krug, Etienne G., et al., Geneva.
- Woolfolk, A.E. (1995). *Educational Psychology*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Wright, John Paul & Francis, Cullen T. (2000). "Juvenile Involvement in Occupational Delinquency." *Criminology* 38:863-96.
- www.amathole.gov.za/about_amathole
- You, November 2005
- Zambian Global School-based Student Health Survey (2004)
- Zeanah, C. H., Keyes, A. & Settles L. (2003). "Attachment relationship experiences and childhood psychopathology". *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* 1008: 22–30.
- Zeanah, C., H. & Smyke, A., T. (2005) "Building Attachment Relationships Following Maltreatment and Severe Deprivation" In Berlin, L., J., Ziv, Y., Amaya-Jackson, L. and Greenberg, M., T. *Enhancing Early Attachments; Theory, research, intervention, and policy* The Guilford Press, pps 195-216.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF CONSENT

	26 Melville Heights 66 St James Street
--	---

Southernwood

East London

5201

..... August, 2010

The Principal

XXX High School

Amathole District

Eastern Cape

RSA

Dear Sir/ Madam

REF: PERMISSION TO USE YOUR SCHOOL AS A RESEARCH SITE

I would like to ask for permission to use your school as a research site. I am a PhD student in the University of Fort Hare conducting research on ***school violence and attachment***. This is an issue that everyone is talking about in the education sector and it will be an honour for me to see your school participating in my study.

This study requires learners to respond to a 40 item questionnaire. I want to assure you that the views of the learners will be treated with anonymity and respect. Hence these learners will be required to answer freely and never write their names on the questionnaires.

Results of my research will be made available to your school upon request.

Yours faithfully

Mr. Thembinkosi Ncube (Mobile number- 0027799164255)

Student Number- 200902347

APPENDIX B

LEARNERS QUESTIONNAIRE

Information will be treated confidentially; don't write your name or that of anyone. This Study values your contribution.

There is violence in the schools in South Africa (fights, beatings, stabbings, shouts, threats, rape, etc.) and exposing this violence (regardless of its magnitude) can save our schools and help all of us in getting an education and a better future. Most of this violence does not happen because people are evil by nature; there could be pressures forcing them to be violent. This questionnaire wants your true opinion based on what you have seen concerning only **physical and verbal violence**.

A. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION (*TICK WHAT IS APPROPRIATE*)

GENDER	MALE		FEMALE		
AGE	15	16	17 +		
GRADE	9	10	11	12	
QUINTILE/GRADE	1	2	3	4	5
DISTRICT					

Please enter your TRUE opinion by ***ticking*** your choice of the scale on the right of the statement; **S/A=Strongly Agree, A= Agree, DIS/A= Disagree, S/DIS= Strongly Disagree, Not Sure=Not Sure**.

B. FAMILY ATTACHMENT

8. My parents are always there for me in everything	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS

9. My parents always have time to discuss life with me	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
10. I always look forward to going home.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
11. My home is the safest place for me	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
12. My parent only seems to notice me when I am angry	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
13. I often feel angry with my parents without knowing why	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
14. I get annoyed by my parent because I have to force him/her to love me.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
15. I am confident that my parent will listen to me.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
16. I enjoy helping my parent whenever I can.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
17. It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my parent.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS

C. SCHOOL ATTACHMENT

1. My teachers are always there for me in everything.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
2. My teachers make us hate school.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
3. Our school buildings make me proud of my school.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
4. Our school rules protect us from violence and abuse from other learners.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
5. Teachers act when we tell them that we have problems	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
6. Teachers show bias towards children from rich families.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS

7. School is the safest place for me.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
8. I often feel angry with other learners without knowing why	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
9. I get annoyed by my teachers because I have to force them to love or care for me.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
10. It makes me feel good to be able to do things for my school	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS

D. VERBAL VIOLENCE

1. I saw learners swearing and teasing at school in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
2. I have sworn and teased in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
3. I witnessed more than 5 cases of verbal violence in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
4. The number of learners that swear and tease has increased in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
5. Our school rules have cut down verbal violence in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
6. Learners have fought verbally in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
7. Cases of verbal violence at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
8. Those who got involved in verbal violence in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
9. Some learners have been involved in	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS

verbal violence without any clear reason in the last 3 months.				
10. Schools and homes are to blame for this verbal violence in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS

E. PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

1. I saw learners fighting physically at school in the last 3 months	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/Ag	S/DIS
2. I have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS
3. I witnessed more than 5 physical fights in this school in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS
4. The number of learners that fight physically in the school has increased in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS
5. Our school rules have been reducing the occurrence of physical fights in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS
6. Learners have fought physically in the school in the last 3 months because teachers do not protect them.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS
7. Physical fights at school in the last 3 months were caused by anger from home.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS
8. Those who fought physically in the last 3 months did so because they are frustrated and bored at school.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS
9. Some learners have fought physically without any clear reason in the last 3 months.	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS
10. Schools and homes are to blame for	S/Agree	Agree	DIS/A	S/DIS

children's physical fights at school in the last 3 months.				
---	--	--	--	--

Thank you for taking all your time to answer these questions. You have made South Africa proud!

END OF QUESTIONS

APPENDIX C: UFH LETTER OF PERMISSION



25 June 2011

Teaching and Learning Centre

Teaching and Learning

Office #202

Henderson Hall

Alice Campus

Tel: 040 602 2704

Fax: 086 626 6986

Email: vnkonki@ufh.ac.za

To whom it may concern

RE: Request for permission to conduct research

Mr T. Ncube (Student Number 200902347) is carrying out his research in fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at the University of Fort Hare. The research is an investigation into relations of home and school attachment to forms of violence in selected secondary schools in the Amathole district.

In terms of this research he needs to survey and solicit opinions of the learners in the Amathole district. It would be appreciated if he could be given access to learners in the schools of the said district to carry out this research.

Any further help canvassed would be appreciated. Mr T. Ncube would be happy to share the outcomes of this research with the Eastern Cape Department of Education if requested to do so.

Kind regards

Dr VJJ Nkonki

Research Supervisor

APPENDIX D: EASTERN CAPE DoE LETTER



Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
EDUCATION

FET BAND & EXTRA CURRICULAR PROGRAMMES – SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS UNIT
Steve Vukile Tshwete Complex • Zone 6 • Zwelitsha • Eastern Cape Private Bag X0032 • Bisho • 5605 • REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: +27 (0)40 608 4402 Cell 082 510 6089 / 082 083 5987 • Fax: +27 (0)40 040 608 4315 or 086 504 4779
• Website: www.ecdoe.gov.za

Enquiries: Mhlangabezi Felix Mbete

Email: felix.mbete@edu.ecprov.gov.za or felix.mbete@yahoo.com

29 June 2011

TO WHOIT MAY CONCERN

GRANTING OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MR. THEMBINKOSI NCUBE

The University of Fort Hare has asked this office to kindly allow their student, Mr. Thembinkosi Ncube to gain access to some of our schools in the Amathole district with a view to conduct his research. His topic is: **RELATIONS OF HOME AND SCHOOL ATTACHMENTS TO DIFFERENT FORMS OF VIOLENCE IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE AMATHOLE DISTRICT OF THE EASTERN CAPE.**

Permission is hereby granted to Mr. T. Ncube with the proviso that his findings and recommendations – along with the names and contact details of schools visited – will be made available to this office in order to assist this department in the creation of an enabling environment for the quality education of our learners.

You are urged to kindly cooperate with him in this regard.

PP Director: FET Band & Extra Curricular Programmes

building blocks for growth



Ikama eliqambileyo!

