PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT: A CASE STUDY IN ZIMBABWE.

By

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

SIGNATURE

4 OCTOBER 2022

DATE

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife Esmalaud, my son Dereck Edward, my daughter Dorris Rudo, my late mother Winnie and my late father Ndafireyi Edward Musaniwa.

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment in Mashonaland West Province, Zimbabwe. The System Justification Theory informed the study as the theoretical framework. A single case study design guided by the qualitative research approach was used on the four selected primary schools with a sum of 24 purposively sampled teachers. Data were generated through individual semi-structured interviews, Focus-group interviews supported by field notes taking cognisance of ethical standards. Tesch's 1990 thematic interactive model was used to present and analyse data. The major finding of the study revealed that most teachers were against the abolishment of corporal punishment in contrast with the current trends informed by the human rights and psychological perspectives that support the ban. The findings established that teachers continue to rely on corporal punishment influenced by parental requests, declining pass rates, high levels of absenteeism, an increase in misconduct and lack of respect for teachers. The findings guided in the recommendation on using child-friendly disciplinary methods such as role modelling, code of conduct, guidance and counselling. Policy issues and areas of further research were recommended in this study.

KEY TERMS:

Primary school, teachers, perceptions, abolishment, corporal punishment, alternatives to corporal punishment, guidance and counselling, manual work, detention, pain.

ISIFINYEZO

Lolu cwaningo lucubungule imibono yabafundisi bezikolo zamabanga aphansi mayelana nokususwa kwesijeziso somzimba eMashonaland West, eZimbabwe. I-System Justification Theory iqondise lolu cwaningo futhi yasebenza njengesisekelo salolu cwaningo. Kusetshenziswe uhlaka olulodwa lwesibonelo socwaningo oluqondiswa indlela yocwaningo lwekhwalithi ezikoleni ezine zamabanga aphansi ezikhethiwe ezinothisha abangama-24 okuhloswe ukuba kwenziwe amasampula. Idatha yaqoqwa ngezingxoxiswano zabantu ngabanye, kanye nezingxoxo ze-Focus-group ezazisekelwa ngamanothi enkundla njalo kunakwa izindinganiso zokuziphatha. Imodeli ka-Tesch (1990) okuthiwa yi-thematic interactive model yasetshenziswa ukwethula nokuhlaziya idatha. Okutholwe okukhulu ocwaningweni kuveze ukuthi iningi lothisha belimelene nokuqedwa kwesijeziso sokushaywa uma kuqhathaniswa nezimo zamanje ezihambisana namalungelo abantu kanye nemibono engokwengqondo esekela ukuvinjelwa. Imiphumela yaveza ukuthi othisha basaqhubeka nokuthembela ekujezisweni okuthonywa yizicelo zabazali okuholela ekwehleni kwamazinga okuphasa kanjalo nezinga eliphezulu lokulova kuphinde kubenokwanda kokungaziphathi kahle kanye nokuntula inhlonipho kothisha. Ucwaningo luncoma ukuthi kusetshenziswe izindlela zokuqondisa izigwegwe ezilungele izingane njengokulingisa indima ethile kanye nemithetho yokuziphatha kanjalo neziqondiso nokwelulekwa. Ucwaningo kalwengeziwe kunqubomgomo nokuziphatha.

AMAGAMA ABALULEKILE:

isikole sebanga eliphansi. othisha, imibono, ukuchithwa, ukushaywa, ezinye izindlela esikhundleni sokushaywa, isiqondiso nokwelulekwa, umsebenzi wezandla, ukuboshwa, ubuhlungu.

PFUPISO

Tsvakiridzo iyi yaitarisa pfungwa dzevarairidzi vevana vepuraimari maererano nekurambidzwa kwekurova vana muzvikoro zvemuMashonaland West, Zimbabwe. Pfungwa yekunatsurudza kwemaitiro (System Justification Theory) ndidzo dzaishanda kutungamira tsvakiridzo iyi. Pakashanda kurongwa kweongororo dzenyaya idzi kumwe chete, uko kwaitungamirwa nenzira yetsvakiridzo yemamiriro enyaya (qualitative research). Ndikozve kwakashandiswa pazvikoro zvina mutsvakiridzo iyi pachitariswawo varairidzi vanokwana makumi maviri nevana vakasharwa nemazvo. Ruzivo rwakaburitswa kuburikidza nebvunzurudzo dzedungamunhu dzakarongwa zvishoma, uye nedzemapoka akasharwa zvichitsigirwa nezvinyorwa zvepanzvimbo, zvichicherechedzawo zvisungo zvetsika dzakanaka. Nzira yaTesch yemuna1990 yeongororo yakashandiswa kuratidza uye kuongorora ruzivo urwu. Chiwanikwa chikuru muongororo iyi kupokana kwevarairidzi vazhinji nekubviswa kwechirango chekurova vana, zvakasiyana nezviri kuitika zvino zvinocherechedzakodzero dzevanhu uye maonero ekushanda kwepfungwa, izvo zvinotsigira kurambidzwa uku. Zvakawanikwa zvakaratidza kuti vadzidzisi vanoramba vachishandisa kurova vana zvichipesvedzerwa nezvido dzevabereki, kuderera kwenhambo dzekupasa, kurovha kwakanyanya, kuwedzera kwekusazvibata uye kushaikwa kwekuremekedza vadzidzisi. Zviwanikwa zvakatungamira hurudziro yekushandisa nzira dzekuranga dzakapfava kuvana dzakadai sekuita zvavangayemura, bumbiro rekuita tsika uye nekupanga mazano kwavari. Nyaya dzemitemo nedzimwe nhano dzeongororo zvakakurudzirwa mutsvakiridzo iyi.

MASHOKO ANOKOSHA:

chikoro chepuraimari, varairidzi, maonero, kurambidzwa, chirango chekurova, zvitsivi zvechirango chekurova, kupangwa kwemazano, basa remaoko, kuvharirwa, kurwadziwa.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACPHR	African Charter on Human and People's Rights
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ACT	Adult and Children Together Against Violence
AU	African Unity
CNNV	Churches Network on Non-Violence
CRC	Convention on the Rights of Children
DBE	Department of Education
GIEACPC	Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children
GNRC	Global Network of Religions for Children
GoZ	Government of Zimbabwe
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
MoES	Ministry of Education and Sports
MoESC	Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture
MoGCSP	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection
MoPSE	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
RACP	Royal Australasian College of Physicians
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SACJCP	South African Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention
SASA	South African Schools Act
SJT	Systems Justification Theory
SWPBS	School Wide Positive Behaviour Support
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNHRC	United Nations Human Rights Committee
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Emergency Fund

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CHAPTER 1: AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The thrust of this study was to explore and describe the primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwe. The 2013 Zimbabwean Constitution totally abolished corporal punishment in all societal contexts. This was received with mixed reactions from various stakeholders, teachers included. This chapter looks at the background to the study and the rationale behind the study. The chapter presents the problem statement, study questions including objectives guiding the exploration. The views of how the study could be of significance are discussed. The theory that informed the study is briefly explained. The chapter also clarified concepts linked to the study. A precise overview of the research paradigm, design and methodology is presented. The chapter also focuses on measures to ensure trustworthiness and compliance with ethical standards.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

I carried out this study on perceptions of primary school teachers towards the interdict on corporal punishment in Zimbabwe. A few years ago its use was banned in Zimbabwean schools. As a result, the policy and legal framework have generated a lot of debate. Dating back to the colonial era there were clauses which called for moderate corporal punishment to be administered. Article 7 of the Children's Act of 1972 (Government of Rhodesia now Zimbabwe, 1972) authorised corporal punishment to be used for behavioural management purposes. The Rhodesian Constitution of 1979 as amended in 1990; Article 15 states that moderate corporal punishment was permissible in applicable situations by persons on an individual below eighteen years (Government of Rhodesia, 1979). This means that in the colonial epoch, the legal framework endorsed corporal punishment to be used in the home and other environments.

In post-independence Zimbabwe, The Criminal Law (Codification and Reform) Act of 2004 asserts that in Clause 241(2) (a) any legalised person shall have the power to apply mild corporal punishment for corrective reasons upon children under their custody (Government of Zimbabwe [GoZ], 2004).

In line with policy issues, Policy Circular Number 35 of 1999, *Discipline in Schools: Suspension, Exclusion and Expulsion* of the Ministry of Education, Sport, and Culture (MoESC) points out that the School Head or any teacher delegated was permitted to beat learners and the name was entered in the log sheet specifying the sum of strokes given (MoESC, 1999). According to this policy circular, only boys were to receive corporal punishment imposed on the buttocks with a suitable cane but no girl was to be given any form of corporal punishment. As a result, Policy Circular Number 35 of 1999 repealed Policy Circular Number 35 of 1993 which legitimised the beating of both boys and girls, but for girls it had to be done on the palms (MoESC, 1999). The provisions of Policy Circular Number 35 of 1999 were an alignment of Statutory Instrument 362 of 1998, Education (Disciplinary Powers) Regulations, 1998 which stated that corporal punishment can be administered to male students only for any misbehaviour of severe nature (GoZ, 1998). Similarly, Article 242(4) of the Criminal Law (Codification and Reform) Act 2004 states that it is not permissible for a teacher to corporally punish female learners (GoZ, 2004).

The preceding policy and legal framework permitted teachers and parents to apply corporal punishment. These polices were overridden by the new Zimbabwe Constitution of 2013 which called for its end. According to Section 53 of the Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013) no person should be exposed to brutality or any demeaning punishment while Section 81(1) (e) provides that every child needs to be protected from any form of exploitation and abuse. These sections of the Constitution are in line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989 (United Nations [UN], 1989) which spells out that children should not be treated in a cruel and humiliating way. Zimbabwe is a signatory to the CRC.

When Zimbabwe adopted the 2013 Constitution, the country bridged the gap on efforts made earlier on the 1999 draft which had a clause on the abolishment of corporal punishment but was generally rejected by the citizens. The elimination of corporal punishment as contained in the 2013 Zimbabwe Constitution meant that the country joined other countries like South Africa which abolished corporal punishment in 1996 (Maphosa & Shumba, 2010). Similarly, in Zambia, it was abolished in basic and secondary educational institutions in 2011 (Chitalu & Phiri, 2020). The 1990 Namibian Constitution prohibited its use within schools (Legal Assistance Centre,

2010). The same approach was adopted in Cameroon which banned corporal punishment as a way of managing discipline in 1996 (The African Child Policy Forum, 2013). Kenya took the same stance in 2001 (Mweru, 2010).

In European countries such as Sweden corporal punishment was abolished in 1979 (Gershoff & Durrant, 2019). Norway brought to an end the application of corporal punishment in compliance with current trends on human rights in 1983 (Osterman, Bjorkqvist & Wahlbeck, 2014) while Germany abolished corporal punishment in 2000 (Newell, 2011).

New Zealand complied with the call to abolish corporal punishment in 2007 (Save the Children, 2018). In South America, Brazil and Argentina promulgated laws that deterred people from using corporal punishment in all settings in 1996 and 2014 respectively (Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children [GIEACPC] 2018a; 2018b). Regarding the banning of corporal punishment on the Asian continent, Nepal did so in 2018 in all settings (GIEACPC, 2018c). Mongolia made remarkable progress on outlawing physical punishment in all contexts concurring with current trends internationally (GIEACPC, 2018d). Japan effected the abolishment in all environments in 2020 (GIEACPC, 2020a).

Furthermore, the veto in Zimbabwean schools was complemented by Clause 68A (5) of the Education Act as amended in 2020 which barred teachers from corporally punishing learners (GoZ, 2020). This was further supported by Policy Circular Number 35 of 2018: *Discipline in Schools: Suspension and Exclusion* of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) which repealed Policy Circular Number 35 of 1999 called for the use of child-friendly methods of discipline (MoPSE, 2018).

I have observed that a number of schools of thought have arisen on the implications of the abolishment of corporal punishment. One school of thought is for the argument that the abolishment has contributed much to the prevalence of anti-social behaviour amongst primary school learners. This is assumed to have impacted negatively on the academic performance of the learners resulting in low pass rates. On the part of the teachers, there was the complaint that the abolishment seems to have culminated in a lack of commitment by learners as far as schoolwork is concerned

and they have lost authority over learners. In their view, this has greatly incapacitated them in the execution of their duties; hence, they felt corporal punishment is the panacea for managing discipline in the classroom and considered its abolishment as invalid. However, another school of thought highlighted the view that the sanction on corporal punishment enhanced child-friendly learning contexts which are in compliance with human rights and psychological expectations.

With reference to the preceding views the abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwe seems to have culminated in an intense debate which prompted me to study the perceptions of teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment focusing on primary schools in Mashonaland West Province. Other scholars have asserted that barring corporal punishment has become a contentious subject which has generated immense debate among teacher and parents' associations (Ogbe, 2015).

1.3 RATIONALE BEHIND THE STUDY

As discussed in the background to this study, Zimbabwe abolished corporal punishment through the 2013 Constitution and court declarations that came thereafter. Despite this positive move primary school teachers have been persistently administering corporal punishment to learners even though some have been dismissed from the teaching service or imprisoned for this. This continued use of corporal punishment while a ban is in place motivated me to study the opinions of primary school teachers about the abolishment. The findings from the study will lead to recommendations of possible ways of averting using corporal punishment so that learner-friendly environments are created which, in turn, enhance effective teaching and learning. The study will also assist policy makers in the field of education to link policies with new legislation.

I also noted that most studies conducted in Zimbabwe in the post-corporal punishment abolishment era did not focus on the primary school teachers' perceptions on its abolishment. Kudenga (2017) looked at the parents' opinions on policies that banned corporal punishment in Zimbabwean primary school contexts. The study concluded that most parents felt that hitting learners was the most effective way of handling indiscipline in schools. Gomba (2015) also focused on

Zimbabwean schools. The researcher sought to explore the opinions of parents about caning of learners in schools. The findings of this study showed that parents were in support of its continued use. Another study done by Dzawara (2017) focused on the prevalence of corporal punishment in the homes in Madziva rural area. The lack of attention on the primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment created a gap in research which led to my undertaking of this study. The insights on using positive disciplinary methods generated from the research will be shared with relevant stakeholders.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwe seems to have led to disciplinary challenges and those who have administered moderate corporal punishment, thus violating the Constitution, have faced the wrath of the law. Mushowe (2018) cited the case of the *State V Chokuramba* on 31 December 2014, in which a High Court Judge, Justice Ester Muremba proclaimed that corporal punishment was no longer permissible; she referred to the Zimbabwean Constitution of 2013, Sections 167(3) and 175(1). Nemukuyu (2017) cited another case of *Pfungwa and Anor against the School Head of Belvedere Junior Primary, and others* where Justice Mangota declared that the use of corporal punishment contravened the Constitution. The breach of the Constitution was based on Section 69(2) (c) of the Education Act of 1987 as amended in 2000 and Sections 3 to 7 of the Education Disciplinary Regulation 1985 as stated in Statutory Instrument 362 of 1998 which permitted the application of corporal punishment. The declaration by Justice Mangota was presented after a court application was filed by a custodian in a case where a Grade 1 youngster was excessively beaten by the class teacher using a rubber object. I have observed that such cases have been on the increase in primary schools despite the teachers having clear knowledge of the proclamations that banned its use. The continued inducement of pain on learners could mean that an outright abolishment did not suit the Zimbabwean teachers. Their decision to use corporal punishment could be based on the idea that the prevailing low pass rates and what is assumed to be an increase in deviant behaviour is a result of the abolishment.

With this conflict between legislation and classroom practice, I also noted that studies conducted in Zimbabwe after the abolishment did not focus on the perceptions of primary school teachers. Gudyanga, Mbengo and Wadesango (2014) studied the issues and challenges of corporal punishment. They established that educators and school administrators only put emphasis on school rules to be followed paying much attention to relevant punishments without having discussed moral issues with learners. Chimbamu (2016) investigated the effects of corporal punishment on learner behaviour and found out that the prohibition had a negative bearing on learner behaviour. Kudenga (2017) looked at the views of parents on the use of corporal punishment and it was revealed that parents thought mild corporal punishment was important in inculcating discipline in schools. The aspect of primary school teachers' opinions on the abolishment seems to have received little attention thereby creating a research gap. It is against this background that I explored and described the primary school teachers' views on the prohibition of corporal punishment in Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study sought to address to the following research questions:

MAIN QUESTION

- What are the primary school teachers' perceptions of corporal punishment abolishment in Zimbabwe?

Sub-questions

- How do primary school teachers deal with disciplinary measures in their classrooms?
- What are the views of primary school teachers on alternative measures to corporal punishment?
- What successes are encountered by primary school teachers in averting corporal punishment?
- What challenges are militating against the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools?

- What can be recommended to mitigate on the use of corporal punishment in primary schools?

Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study are to**:**

- Ascertain how primary school teachers deal with disciplinary issues in their classrooms.
- Explore the views of primary school teachers on alternative measures to corporal punishment.
- Establish successes encountered by primary school teachers in using alternative measures to corporal punishment.
- Establish the challenges that are militating against the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools.
- Recommend possible solutions to mitigate on the use of corporal punishment in primary schools.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study could be of significance to teachers, classroom practice and education policy in a number of ways.

1.6.1 Teachers

The study could be of importance to primary school teachers by:

- Acquainting them with legislation and guidelines that call for a ban on punishing learners.
- Enabling them to gain in depth knowledge on the merits of alternatives to corporal punishment.
- Assisting them in understanding the bodily and emotional outcomes of punishing learners.

1.6.2 Classroom Practice

This study could be of great value through the:

- Implementation of alternative disciplinary methods that enhance academic attainment.
- Recognition of the learners' rights as articulated in the CRC of 1989 in creating child-friendly learning contexts.
- Establishment of positive rapport between primary school teachers and learners which in turn enhances school pass rates.

1.6.3 Education Policy

To policy makers, the findings from this research could:

- Help in designing awareness programmes to equip primary school teachers with positive discipline methods.
- Assist in amending statutes and policies that approved using of corporal punishment with the newly enacted legislation.
- Give insights into the need to provide sufficient resources to facilitate the enforcement of the new laws and policies by the school management systems.

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study was informed by the Systems Justification Theory (SJT) which is attributed to John Jost (van der Toorn & Jost, 2014). According to the SJT, people are influenced (to differing levels subject to environmental and dispositional circumstances) to preserve, strengthen and validate the established societal, economic and political concessions (van der Toorn & Jost, 2014). From this perspective, the theory is conservative in nature as it calls for preservation of the status quo. Thus, some teachers may reject the abolishment of corporal punishment because it has been used in Zimbabwe for over a century which may contribute to its continued use as they feel it is effective in managing behavioural challenges. On the other hand, the theory asserts that whenever there is change that has been brought about by a new law or court declaration, people need to embrace the change though

it may take time to adjust (Blasi & Jost, 2006). This may explain why few primary school teachers in Zimbabwe accept the abolishment of corporal punishment without any reservations. The application of the theory is fully reviewed in Chapter 3.

1.8 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.8.1 Perceptions

VandenBos (2015) asserted that perceptions enable people to organise and interpret information received into a meaningful body of knowledge which assists them to act in an appropriate way. In addition, Spielman (2017) identified beliefs, cultures and norms and lived experiences as factors that influence perceptions. This implies that perceptions arise when an individual or group of people have an experience from the external environment to which they give meaning. Even though the experiences are similar, one can note that interpretations differ due to various factors which may result in contradictions. These contradictory perceptions can culminate in heated debates. In this study, the concept was applied in determining the primary school teachers' views in relation to their beliefs, values and life encounters on the abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwe.

1.8.2 Abolishment

McLaughlin and Muncie (2012) were of the view that this refers to bringing to an end government institutions which are presumed to be no longer legitimate. According to Blackwell (2008), abolishment is described as the official elimination of a system, organisation or tradition. In historical terms, this has been used in the drive to bring slave trade, brutality, prostitution and corporal punishment to an end. McLaughlin and Muncie (2012) stated that the term calls for an extreme transformation of individuals and punishment systems and their substitution with accommodative and integrative strategies for working with a complex social phenomenon.

1.8.3 Corporal Punishment

The concept is defined as the application of physical pain without causing injury with the objective remedying children's unacceptable behaviour (Ogando Portela & Pells, 2015). On the other hand, Matope and Mugodzwa (2011) defined corporal punishment from another dimension by stating that it is the imposition of force to

cause moderate form of pain and distress. These definitions note the use of pain applied against the will of an individual induced through force. It is this aspect of pain that has resulted in a controversial debate over its use with proponents calling for its continued use while others advocate for its total cessation as it has negative effects on learners. The call to abolish is noted in the argument by Heekes, Kruger, Lester and Ward (2020) who postulated that corporal punishment is a practice that is detrimental to children and may interfere with the school's mandate to provide quality education. In general terms corporal punishment as inferred from these definitions involves the imposition of pain on a learner. This is meant to elicit expected behaviour though this may have undesirable effects.

1.8.4 Alternatives to Corporal Punishment

Ndembu (2013) viewed alternatives to corporal punishment as strategies other than retribution implemented to attain positive behaviour. Khewu (2012) described them as strategies that are put in place to substitute corporal punishment which call for effective communication where teachers show a positive attitude towards the learners. Examples of alternatives to corporal punishment include detention, role modelling, guidance and counselling, pastoral teaching and parental engagement among others. Thus, alternatives refer to strategies adopted to mitigate the abolishment of corporal punishment in shaping learner behaviour.

1.9 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The study which is inductive in nature was guided by the interpretivist paradigm. Interpretivism holds the belief that social reality is grounded on socially informed meaning structure (Riyami, 2015). The focus of the interpretivist research paradigm is to understand the social reality of the phenomenon being investigated (Ponelis, 2015). In the case of this exploration, the social reality is the views of teachers on eradicating the inducement of pain on learners. Interpretivists are of the view that people interact with their social surroundings and study people's ideas, thinking and the meanings they attribute to their experiences (Addae & Quan Baffour, 2015). A full discussion of interpretivism is provided in Chapter 4.

1.10 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This section gives a brief description of the research design and methodology that is used in the study. An outline of how trustworthiness was ensured and ethical concerns are briefly looked at. A detailed discussion is provided in Chapter 4 of the study.

The study adopted the qualitative research approach. Staller (2010) views it as a blueprint providing a lucid form informing the investigator on ways of attending to a phenomenon and answering guiding questions without using numerical data. The qualitative research approach suited this study because it gives room for the participants to present their views on a phenomenon in natural situations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

A single case study design guided this study. A case study looks at data in depth rather than at face value (Takahasi & Araujo, 2019). All the primary schools and teachers in Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe constituted the population.

I used purposive non-probability sampling in the selection of participants. In purposive sampling the researcher consciously picks data rich sites and participants that are studied in depth (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholas & Ormston, 2014). Mashonaland West Province was purposively selected as the area of study.

I used individual semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews and field notes which were reflected in a journal. Semi-structured interviews are a category of an interview commonly structured prearranged open-ended questions with others arising from the conversation between the interviewer and the interviewees (Brinkman & Kvale, 2015). The focus-group interviews are defined by Krueger and Casey (2012) as a sensibly prepared sequence of discussions intended to obtain perceptions in a tolerant, non-threatening atmosphere. Field notes are notes recorded at the research sites in a journal which can be in the form of a field diary or notebook which is maintained throughout the research process. Bogdan and Biklen (2016) express that field notes assist the researcher to follow the progression of the project. Generated data were presented and examined using the thematic approach. Thematic analysis is an approach to analysing case study data whose major thrust rests on the identification of recurring ideas, themes and relationships in the

gathered data (Braun, Clarke & Terry, 2014). Using the thematic analysis approach, I applied Tesch's 1990 interactive model of data analysis.

1.11 MEASURES FOR ENHANCING TRUSTWORTHINESS

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) opined that trustworthiness prevails where there is a balance between research results and the authenticity of the phenomenon under study. In undertaking this study, I took cognisance of issues to do with credibility, dependability, conformability and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Creswell, 2013). Additionally, I used multiple sources of data generation for triangulation purposes.

1.12 COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL STANDARDS

I observed ethical standards as they are of great significance. It is an obligation that researchers must observe ethical standards to realise trustworthy results and to ensure that the entitlements and wellbeing of research participants are safeguarded (Mohd-Arifin, 2018). In observing the ethical values in research, I sought permission from the MoPSE to undertake the study in the selected primary schools. Neuman (2014) points out that study participants have the right not to participate in any investigation – they cannot be coerced into doing so. Informed consent was obtained from research participants. In this study, informed consent was sought by outlining the scope and intention of the investigation to the participants, the information to be disclosed to the researcher, the intended use of the data collected and that informants could withdraw their engagement at any point in time (Wiles, 2013). In the study, I also observed confidentiality. Confidentiality was observed through the use of pseudonyms and codes for cases and research participants (Mohd-Arifin, 2018). The study took cognisance of the ethical standard of causing no harm to research informants. The study was also cleared by the research ethics committee of the College of Education at the University of South Africa (See Appendix A).

1.13 DELIMITATION AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study explored and described the primary school teachers' perceptions on the elimination of corporal punishment in Mashonaland West Province, Zimbabwe. Four primary schools out of 759 in Mashonaland West Province were invited to participate

in the study from which a sample of 24 teachers was drawn. Semi structured interviews, Focus Group Interviews and Field notes were utilised to generate data. The study adapted Tesch's 1990 thematic interactive model in presenting and analysing data. Due to time and budgetary constraints, the study was undertaken in only one education district. Thus, the transferability of the findings to the entire country may be a problem. However, of significance is the view that findings could provide insights based on the opinions of primary school teachers about the ban on corporal punishment whether positive or negative with recommendations based on the findings.

1.14 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

1.14.1 Chapter 1: Overview of the Study

The chapter introduced the study. In this chapter, the rationale behind the study was explained. It focused on the problem statement. The research questions and objectives of the study were provided. The research methodology and ethical issues were briefly explained. The chapter also spelled out the delimitation of the study and provided a clarification of the key concepts addressed in the thesis.

1.14.2 Chapter 2: Review of Related Literature

Related literature is reviewed in the chapter relating to different aspects of corporal punishment. Literature on the abolishment of corporal punishment at global level is included. Also reviewed in this chapter is literature on alternative disciplinary measures and programmes to curb the dependence on corporal punishment.

1.14.3 Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

This chapter presents the theory underpinning the study. The SJT was adopted by this study. I discuss the key ideas of the theory and their application to the study.

1.14.4 Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology

The chapter presents the research design and methodology adopted. The data collection methods used in exploring the perceptions of primary school teachers' on the abolishment of corporal punishment are discussed in detail. Ways of ensuring trustworthiness and ethical considerations are focused on.

1.14.5 Chapter 5: Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Findings

This chapter provides a presentation of the collected data in the form of themes. The data is analysed and interpreted. The findings from the study are supported with reviewed literature and related studies in different contextual settings. The SJT is also referred to, to reinforce the findings.

1.14.6 Chapter 6: Summary of Findings, Recommendations and Conclusions

The chapter provides a summary of findings on the primary teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment. Contributions of the study to policy and theory are also looked at in this chapter. Suggestions on what can be done to avoid using corporal punishment are given in the chapter. Conclusions are drawn and presented in this chapter.

1.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter focused on background to the study and rationale. The problem statement, research questions and objectives of the exploration were presented. The chapter further looked at the significance of the study to various stakeholders. A synopsis of the underlying theory was given. The clarification of concepts was done in this chapter. The research paradigm, design and methodology used in the study were precisely looked at in this chapter. There was a precise overview of the ways used to guarantee trustworthiness and ethical principles. The chapter also centred on the delimitation and limitations of the exploration. The structure of the study was presented in this chapter. The next chapter presents a review of related literature.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The main thrust of this chapter is to review literature related to this study. The chapter provides an elaboration of the concept corporal punishment, its forms and approaches. The effects of corporal punishment are discussed in depth. The chapter focuses on the factors that influence teachers to corporally punish learners. Literature on the international declarations for the prevention of corporal punishment is reviewed. An analysis on literature relating to the legal and policy framework on corporal punishment is done. The chapter also examines literature on selected countries outside Africa that have abolished corporal punishment. The programmes that help in controlling its application are described. Views from different scholars on alternative strategies are reviewed.

2.2 ELABORATING THE CONCEPT CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

The concept was briefly defined in Chapter 1. In this section, I elaborate on the concept of corporal punishment.

Ogando Portela and Pells (2015) define corporal punishment as the use of force with the goal of causing a child to experience some pain without incurring injuries as a way of correcting behaviour. On the other hand, the GIEACPC (2015) defines it from a human rights point of view as any purposeful use of physical action against a child that causes or is expected to cause some damage to the child's wellbeing, existence, growth and dignity. Moyo, Khewu and Bagaya (2014) are in agreement with the description of corporal punishment as they look at it as the use of force with the projection of making a child being exposed to pain with no injuries for the purpose of rectifying and controlling a child's behaviour. Corporal punishment is described as the application of physical force which is intended to cause some form of hurt and discomfort although mild (Matope & Mugodzwa, 2011). In essence, the concept of corporal punishment implies the wilful use of bodily pain on a child in an attempt to control behaviour that is considered to be undesirable.

There is also a need to understand the link between discipline and corporal punishment. According to Rimal and Pokharel (2013), discipline is all about guiding

children in learning socially acceptable behaviour. In showing the relationship between discipline and corporal punishment, Frechette, Zoratti and Romano (2015) classify corporal punishment as a form of discipline which relies on the use of force in containing behaviour which is unpleasant. This is complemented by Rimal and Pokharel (2013) who explain that corporal punishment is an adverse experience to which the child is exposed to, for going against the expectations of the adults. An evaluation of these definitions indicates that discipline focuses more on guidance while corporal punishment involves the inflicting of pain; hence, it has been considered inappropriate. In addition, discipline can be attained through the use of non-violent ways which are friendly to children.

Corporal punishment is often used by teachers for a number of reasons. Those who advocate for its use consider it as a significant and reliable way of disciplining learners (Shumba, Ndofirepi & Musengi, 2012). Furthermore, Morrow and Singh (2014) suggest that teachers favour corporal punishment because it enhances academic performance and remedies unwarranted behaviour in schools. Tao (2015) goes on to say with the rapid growth in school enrolments, overcrowding in classrooms has become a common feature making teachers feel overwhelmed; they thus see corporal punishment as a way of keeping control. However, another school of thought argues against this, pointing out that it establishes an atmosphere conducive to violence (Dar Ahmad, 2012).

In the context of this study, teachers may be basing their reliance on corporal punishment to manage discipline in the large classes that they are assigned to teach. This may be the case, because of late, Zimbabwean primary schools have experienced a rise in enrolments resulting in overcrowded learning rooms.

2.3 FORMS OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Corporal punishment takes different forms which include striking, slapping, paddling, punching, kicking, smacking, thrashing, shoving, spanking, kneeling for a long time and choking, pinching, caning, scolding and assigning lighter duties among others (Kagoiya, Kimosop & Kagema, 2017). In this section, I discuss on spanking, striking, smacking, slapping and kneeling for a long time, caning, punching and assigning

lighter duties. These forms are reviewed because they are the most common forms of corporal punishment in schools.

2.3.1 Spanking

For Gershoff and Grogan- Kaylor (2016), spanking as a form of corporal punishment has been used in the home context worldwide. Straus (2010) indicates that spanking takes the form of hitting a child on the buttocks or other parts of the body. Furthermore, Straus (2010) asserts that spanking is administered using objects like hair brushes and belts among others with no purpose of causing injuries on children. Spanking is sometimes defined as any physical strength that generates pain without any bodily injury and is meant for correcting or behaviour (Gershoff & Grogan-Kaylor, 2016).

Spanking is often used in schools worldwide. Ba-Saddik and Hattab (2013) indicate that in many countries learners have reflected that they are spanked on almost every part of the body by their teachers. In agreement, Gershoff (2017) highlights that despite the ban on corporal punishment, the spanking of learners has been observed to be a common phenomenon in Kazakhstan and Cameroon schools. The same is said to be applicable in Pakistan as teachers are said to spank learners as a way of harnessing unfavourable behaviour (Qutoshi, Jabeen & Sharar, 2020). An evaluation of the foregoing views reflects that spanking is frequently used by teachers in schools. According to Zolotor (2011) spanking is commonly applied by hitting learners on the buttocks in schools.

Although spanking is commonly used as a form of corporal punishment, Gershoff (2013) argues that it is inefficient and unsuccessful in attaining obedience in the long run. Hence, Hineline and Rosales-Ruiz (2012) are of the view that one major reason why spanking is not efficient is that it fails to meet the prerequisites that behaviourists argue must prevail for punishment to be useful namely, that it should be instant, consistent and administered at every interval of the desired behaviour.

2.3.2 Striking

Iguh and Nosike (2011) highlight that striking is one of the commonly used forms of corporal punishment that is done through the use of handy items that include belts,

rulers, the hand and sticks among others. Shumba et al. (2012) point out that in South Africa, many parents confessed to striking their children and a third of the parents divulged that they beat them brutally. Furthermore, it was established that a third of parents who conceded hitting their children highlighted they did so ruthlessly using a variety of objects like belts and sticks among others. Also, it emerged that divorced parents were most likely to hit their children compared to married ones. As for children from four years upwards there was a high likelihood for them to be beaten. Additionally, parents within the age range of 25 to 35 years were more likely to strike their children while those over 35 years were not more likely to beat their children.

In my view, the types of corporal punishment used at home are the same forms that are administered in school settings as the teachers may also be parents in their own right who act in loco parentis. This is confirmed by Shumba et al. (2012) implying that teachers are likely to apply corporal punishment.

2.3.3 Slapping

Slapping is also one of the commonly applied forms of corporal punishment. Halpenny, Nixon and Watson (2010) established that slapping was a frequently used form of punishment which was administered on the bottom, hands, arms or legs. Of interest, is the fact that the pain instilled on the mentioned body parts is assumed to be effective in behaviour modification amongst children both at home and at school. Although this is the belief, it is contested by McCarthy (2013) in whose study the participants argued that slapping was ineffective in containing disciplinary challenges as it is linked to negative side effects socially and psychologically.

Therefore, one can deduce that the demerits of slapping outweigh the perceived benefits as it does not contribute to positive behaviour change. This has contributed much to the call to abolish corporal punishment.

2.3.4 Smacking

Smacking has been noted as another form of corporal punishment that is used in different settings, schools inclusive. Halpenny et al. (2010) highlight that smacking is preferred both in the home and school settings when those in authority feel that they

are failing to harness the child's disciplinary problems. From my own point of view, smacking is used as a secondary disciplinary method when other ones may have failed.

On a negative note, The Royal Australasian College of Physicians [RACP] (2013) argue that smacking is an unproductive strategy in controlling behavioural challenges as it has negative effects on the children's welfare. In agreement, Robertson (2017) asserts that smacking culminates in aggressive tendencies and health-related challenges that impact on children's social adjustment. Furthermore, Heilmann, Kelly and Watt (2015) postulate that smacking is not a recommended method of disciplining as it lowers the children's self-esteem.

In a nutshell, just like, striking, slapping and spanking, smacking is considered not to produce tangible benefits in terms of behaviour management.

2.3.5 Kneeling for Lengthy Time Intervals

It has been observed that making learners kneel for long time intervals is also a form of punishment used in both primary and secondary schools. Umezinwa and Elendu (2012) explicitly identify this form of punishment as routinely used in educational settings. Discussing this form of punishment, Omoyemiye, Ojo and Olaomide (2014) reveal that teachers force learners to kneel for long time intervals which are complemented with by standing for a long time with both hands raised and eyes closed. Similarly, Kimani, Kara and Ogetange (2012) stated that in the Kenyan context teachers resort to coercing learners to kneel on the floor for extended periods which is reinforced by making them stand in the open exposed to the excessive temperatures from the sun with hands lifted for many hours. Kimani et al. (2012) further reported that 90% of the learners claimed that they were forced to kneel for a substantial number of hours.

Kneeling is a form of punishment used together with standing for long hours in front of whole class which may result in humiliation and emotional distress.

2.3.6 Caning

Zepeda (2019) describes caning as an action that involves the physical disciplining of learners with an object like a slim cane rod. Yeboah (2020) says that in Ghana,

caning is applied using a stick or a ruler for hitting parts of the body which causes pain for trivial or major offences committed. It has also been argued that in historical terms, the Christian text, “Spare the rod and spoil the child” has had a great influence on caning (Makewa, Myriam & Bensen, 2017). The belief in this scripture may imply there is a high likelihood of the constant usage of corporal punishment as a method of discipline. Makewa et al. (2017) assert that, in Ugandan schools, it has become the norm for teachers to cane learners when instilling discipline. Yeboah (2020) concurs by stating that in Ghana caning is prevalent in educational and home situations.

Although caning is popular in schools, it has been criticised. Segawa (2016) contends that caning does not have any merits linked to learning but, instead, leads to abnormal levels of school dropout. Similarly, Yeboah (2020) argues that if caning is executed without limitations, this may result in extreme injuries to learners exposed to it. Worth noting is that, through caning, learners are susceptible to injuries which impact their physical being.

2.3.7 Punching

Jud and Tracmé (2012) view punching as a form of punishment which involves hitting someone with body parts like the elbows or the head. Punching is a common form of corporal punishment. This is reinforced by Hecker, Hermenan, Isele and Elbert (2014) who reveal that, in Tanzania, 95% of the learners confessed that they were punched by their teachers. The high rate of punching observed in the Tanzanian setting is replicated in other contexts like Nigeria (Ojo, 2018), Israel (Gemara & Nadan, 2022) and the United States (Akhtar & Awan, 2018) among others. However, just like the other forms of corporal punishment, it impacts negatively on teaching and learning.

2.3.8 Assigning Lighter Duties

The assigning of lighter duties is another form of corporal punishment used by teachers in schools. Umezinwa and Elendu (2014) posit that sweeping and polishing the whole classroom are some of the tasks assigned to learners who infringe on the prescribed school policies. From my own perspective, the delegated duties are viewed as impacting positively on the management of unsuitable behaviour.

However, Moyo et al. (2014) are of the opinion that there are problems associated with these lighter duties as they fail to fulfil their obligation to control unwarranted behaviour as some learners make light of it. On another note, Ntuli and Machaisa (2014) argue that the lighter tasks assigned by teachers are a denial of children's rights and their implementation requires a large amount of monitoring by teachers.

I have noticed that these duties assigned to learners do not fully play their role in remedying behavioural challenges in schools. This is the case because some of the learners enjoy these tasks assigned to them by teachers at school as they are a daily routine which they experience at home.

2.4 APPROACHES TO CORPORAL PUNISHMENT AND BELIEFS IN USING THEM

This section presents literature on the retributive, deterrent and reformative approaches to corporal punishment. I reviewed this literature because it has an influence on why some teachers favour implementing corporal punishment while others prefer the use of alternative disciplinary measures.

2.4.1 The Retributive Approach

Schram and Tibbetts (2014) view retributive justice as the attainment of justice through a single-sided method of inflicting punishment. The use of retributive punishment is considered as morally acceptable. In learning settings, Peterson (2015) posits that retribution focuses on penalties teachers establish for breaching school rules, such as rebukes, detention, revoking of benefits or undertaking classroom chores. Retribution punishment also applies to the disciplinary outcomes administered for the contravention of codes of conduct such as confinement, suspension, dismissal or transfer (Peterson, 2015). The essence of the administration of these disciplinary measures by those in authority in school settings is to shape the behaviour of the learners who would have infringed the established normative demands of retributive punishment. Chemhuru (2010) reinforces this by stating that punishment is not essentially used as an end in itself, but as a measure to accomplish a positive result, namely, desirable behaviour which is in line with the purpose of education. Thus, the application of retributive punishment in schools is a

violation of the learners' rights and the legislation in place. This is the case as it does not take cognisance of the learners' welfare psychologically.

2.4.2 The Deterrent Approach

The approach has it foundations in the Utilitarian Theory of Punishment which postulates corporal punishment is a component of punishment that provides the greatest benefit to the largest number of people as it causes the smallest amount of pain to the least number of people (Chemhuru, 2010). This implies that punishment should not be too harsh or administered excessively but it must be humane. The aim should be to deter learners from repeating the same offence (Gumboh, 2017). The deterrence approach is divided into a general approach characterised by set rules and expected consequences and a specific approach (Nagin, 2013). General deterrence embraces both classroom and school rules which learners should adhere to so that there is harmony within the school setting. Dlamini, Dlamini and Bhebhe (2017) contend that the teacher involves learners in formulating the rules and consequences. The deterrence approach therefore believes that prevention is better than cure (Dlamini et al., 2017). Therefore, this approach takes a precautionary approach to ensuring that learners do not engage in undesirable behaviour.

2.4.3 The Reformative Approach

The reformative approach adopts a humanistic approach whose thrust is to educate or rehabilitate the wrongdoer with the goal of building character (Karim, 2019). Mallik (2014) concurs by stating that the major focus of the approach is moral teaching and reconstruction of the character of the delinquent. This implies that the reformative approach to punishment is against any form of brutality as it embraces the need for individual attention, education and sympathy in remedying one's behaviour. This approach could have contributed much to the human rights views on the eradication of corporal punishment as it is against any form of infliction of pain. Mishra (2016) goes on to say that this approach implies that it is the duty of society to mould the wrongdoers' behaviour by adopting appropriate disciplinary methods which take cognisance of their welfare. He further supports this argument by saying that bad behaviour is not born but created by the context of the society. The use of alternative disciplinary measures should be used in managing disciplinary matters.

2.5 EFFECTS OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

From a psychological standpoint, corporal punishment has been viewed as having negative impacts on learners. These include the development of aggression, deprived mental health and failure to boost moral internalisation, cognitive development challenges and strained learner-teacher/parent rapport.

2.5.1 Aggression

Khatete and Matanda (2014) assert that the practice of corporal punishment tends to exacerbate the incidence of misconduct such as hostility, law-breaking and violence both within and outside the school surroundings. Adding to this view, Gebrezgabiher and Hailu (2017) indicate that victims of corporal punishment at school may become criminals or abusers in their adulthood. The Churches Network for Non-Violence [CNNV] (2011) also points out that corporal punishment reinforces agitation, confrontation, retribution and resentment. This implies that its use inculcates in learners the thinking that problems are resolved through violence, thereby creating more disciplinary challenges. The foregoing views on aggression are summed up by Gudyanga et al. (2014) who point out that violence propagates violence. One can, therefore, argue that hitting learners reproduces violence; hence, the call to abolish it in schools.

2.5.2 Deprived Mental Health

Elgar, Donnelly, Michelson, Gariepy, Riehm, Walsh and Pickett (2018) assert that corporal punishment results in mental torture, feeling of helplessness, worthlessness, depression, inhibition, shame, self-doubt, guilt, social withdrawal, inferiority complex, rigidity, lowered self-esteem, stress and high levels of anxiety which may reduce one's confidence. In agreement, Durrant and Ensom (2017) stress that corporal punishment is associated with anxiety, dejection, withdrawal, self-low regard, suddenness, misbehaviour and substance abuse. Furthermore, United Nations Children's Emergency Fund [UNICEF] (2019) points out that there is a linear relationship between long-term influence of corporal punishment and the regularity of slapping and striking in early childhood and the future occurrence of nervousness and substance misuse. This implies that trauma instigated by the application of corporal punishment is detrimental to the child's wholesome

development as it may culminate in life challenges such as depression and suicidal thinking (UNICEF, 2019).

In summary, corporal punishment affects mental fitness as it leads to future aggression, suicidal tendencies, depression, tension, fear, feelings of inferiority, lowered self-esteem and social withdrawal.

2.5.3 Failure to Boost Moral Internalisation

One of the negative effects of corporal punishment is that it does not inculcate moral acquisition as it fails to impart the virtues of good behaviour in children. The norms and attitudes acquired by children assist them to choose between acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. Gudyanga et al. (2014) assert that negative discipline promotes forced compliance instead of internal regulation by stipulating obedience in order to avoid a nasty experience associated with corporal punishment. Corporal punishment has impacted negatively on the moral conduct of the learners (Shaikhnag & Assan, 2014).

In addition, Gudyanga et al. (2014) point out that moral internalisation should be complemented with good moral management which involves being cautious of wrongdoing, being aware of appropriate conduct and having the ability to control one's behaviour and remedy damage. They further say that positive discipline does not impose pain on children but provides guidance and physical development which enable children to bear responsibility for their actions. In a nutshell, corporal punishment is detrimental to the moral development of learners as it results in temporary compliance. One can deduce that the views presented here point towards the need to use accommodative disciplinary ways that take cognisance of the learners' wellbeing.

2.5.4 Cognitive Development Challenges

Corporal punishment may affect the cognitive development of learners (Rajalakshmi, 2018). According to Gudyanga et al. (2014 learners who are worried about being corporally punished are limited from exploring their social environment. This prevents them from developing their cognitive skills. UNICEF (2019) also points towards a symbiotic relationship between educational attainment and later accomplishments in

adult life which are impacted by corporal punishment in early life. Shaikhnag and Assan (2014) concur by saying that high levels of truancy and absenteeism induced by corporal punishment culminate in poor academic achievement. With the adverse effects of corporal punishment on a learner's mental development, many psychologists have called for its abolishment in favour of positive disciplinary measures (Chimbamu, 2016).

2.5.5 Strained Parent or Teacher Relationships

Gershoff, Lee and Durrant (2017) posit that using of corporal punishment impacts negatively on the worth of relationships between parents, teachers and children. Rimal and Pokharel (2013) concur by arguing that its continual use weakens the value of child and adult relationships. The children tend to avoid their parents or teachers, thereby creating an element of mistrust. In relation to teacher-learner relationships, Gudyanga et al. (2014) point out that these may be weakened as corporal punishment may lower the pupils' motivation to learn. Hence corporal punishment has intolerable effects on parent, teacher and learner relationships; hence, the call to totally prohibit it in institutions of learning.

2.6 REASONS THAT COULD INFLUENCE THE IMPOSITION OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Teachers have diverse reasons for applying corporal punishment. In this section, I review literature on the influence of culture, religion and anti-social behaviour.

2.6.1 Culture

Culture is portrayed as the organisation of wisdom, beliefs, principles, practices, feelings, morals, laws and artefacts that are common in a group setting (Idang, 2015). Cultural beliefs have an influence on the issue of corporal punishment as Dziva (2019) indicates that most traditions are pro-corporal punishment which they view as a significant aspect of their child-nurturing process and enhancing performance at school. In the African culture, corporal punishment is considered as a critical entity in child-raising. As a result, Makewa et al. (2017) write that it is common practice to use it when disciplining children in the home while some parents believe that it enhances compliance which in turn boosts performance and thus request

teachers to use it. Shumba et al. (2012) also support this view by hinting that the belief of corporal punishment as a basic and efficient method of regulating child behaviour has become deep-rooted and openly acknowledged in different cultures.

Furthermore, Grebrezgabiher and Hailu (2017) draw attention to the idea that teachers who were raised with caning in the home and school environment end up administering it to learners more frequently compared to those who were not exposed to it. On the other hand, Kudenga (2017) argues that corporal punishment spurred them to work hard and be successful in life meaning it should work for their children. Concurring with the view, Mayisela (2018) affirms that from personal experiences teachers accredited their current status of success to corporal punishment. In brief, the cultural background influences teachers to use corporal punishment citing behaviour regulation, life achievements, parental request and exposure to it in childhood.

2.6.2 Religion

Religion has been used as justification for using corporal punishment in schools and at home. In this section I review the literature on how religion influences the teachers' perceptions on corporal punishment with reference to Christianity and Islam. In this study, the specific literature on religion is important as it has an influence on perceptions on the issue of corporal punishment.

2.6.2.1 Christianity and corporal punishment

Aliperti (2019) proffers that Christians support corporal punishment basing on the following Biblical verse; 2 Samuel 7:14, Proverbs 22:15 and Proverbs 23:12 14. In line with this Engulu and Harris (2017) assert that the precise interpretation of these verses has meant that most of the teachers who are conservative Protestants tend to manage discipline using corporal punishment. As one can observe, these verses promote the use of corporal punishment in schools by teachers as they presume that it decreases the levels of moral degeneration (Ogbe, 2015). This perspective is further supported by the CNNV (2011) which presents that in 2000 a group of South African Christian private schools appealed to overturn the ban on corporal punishment on the pretext that it infringed the rights to religious freedom. However, reference to these verses as the reason for applying corporal punishment has been

rejected by many Christians. The CNNV (2016) reinforces this view by arguing that the justification for the application of corporal punishment on children does not have a place in religious circles. Therefore, it could be argued that such actions are a misrepresentation of the texts.

2.6.2.2 Islam and corporal punishment

Generally, in the Islamic societal settings, corporal punishment is permissible under the Sharia law. Okekeocha and Ewoh (2014) agree with this assertion with reference to the Nigerian context. Similarly, Gith (2014) posits that in the Israel Arab zone, parents discipline their children with a light slap imposed for educational purposes, which may, however, evolve into harsher forms of violence. This may mean that in school settings, teachers are expected to administer corporal punishment. However, Gith (2014) contends that from the Islamic point of view there is no commitment to using corporal punishment as it results in emotional and physical pain. In agreement, the CNNV (2011) assert that in Islam, no teacher has the mandate to beat a child as this damages their psychological and physical wellbeing. Furthermore, Ordu (2015) says that, in Nigeria, the Sharia law has been regarded as a violation of the constitution. One could thus conclude that the normative value of corporal punishment in Islam has to a great extent influenced the teachers to use it in schools. Despite this influence, a counter argument contends that it is not permitted in Islam, citing psychological and physical effects.

2.6.2.3 Religious perspective transition from corporal punishment

The religious perspective has made great strides in changing the teachers and parents' perceptions of corporal punishment. The Arigatou International (2019) says religious heads and faith-based institutions are encouraging the elimination of corporal punishment on children in favour of counselling and religious direction. According to the CNNV (2016) world religions are preaching the moral values of love, compassion and non-violence against children. To achieve this, a number of religious declarations have been made to bring to an end its use. The Kyoto Declaration (2006) advocates that religions have an obligation to ensure that corporal punishment is not used as a way of disciplining children thereby fostering holistic child development through proper reference to scriptures and awareness

campaigns. The other declarations include the Panama Declaration on Children (Global Network of Religions for Children [GNRC] 2017), the Churches' Commitments to Children (World Council of Churches, 2017) and the Global Partners Forum for Faith Action for Children on the Move: Action Plan (World Vision, 2018) among others.

It can be noted that recommendations and commitments made in these declarations promoted a paradigm shift among the religious groups that earlier endorsed caning as effective in handling disciplinary challenges amongst children that are now calling for an end on its use in all settings.

2.6.3 Prevalence of Anti-Social Behaviour

The prevalence of anti-social behaviour in schools motivates teachers to cane learners. This view is highlighted by de Witt and Lessing (2013) who argue that anti-social behaviour contribute much to the management of such behaviour through corporal punishment by teachers. The scholars further go on to state that the frustration generated by learner delinquency forces them to resort to corporal punishment in the South African context. In concurrence, Matope and Mugodzwa (2011) posit that a rise in errant behaviour motivates teachers to control it by carrying out corporal punishment on the learners. An analysis of these views shows that the need to control the high frequency of misbehaviour by means of corporal punishment could be influenced by cultural and religious beliefs.

2.7 DECLARATIONS FOR THE PREVENTION OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights [UDHR] (1948), the CRC of 1989, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights [ICCPR] (1966), the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights [ACHPR] (1981) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child [ACRWC] (1990) are international declarations meant to prevent the implementation of corporal punishment in countries that are signatories.

2.7.1 The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948

The United Nations (2015) states that the UDHR of 1948 enunciated the entitlements which every individual should be proportionally and fully accorded. According to

Mude (2014), the UDHR instigated global and regional treaties that function as a framework for safeguarding worldwide human rights decrees. Article 1 states that all human beings are born emancipated and equal in self-respect and civil liberties. Article 5 of this declaration opines that no person shall be exposed to persecution or brutal, inhumane or undignified handling or punishment (UN, 1948). From my point of view, these articles indicate that corporal punishment is a violation of the rights of children. Similarly, O'Neal (2008) declares that permitting corporal punishment in public schools as what most African nations allow is a clear breach of Article 5 of the UDHR.

In a nutshell, governments should play their part in ensuring that they meet their obligations as signatories to this treaty. As they do so, they will be catering for the welfare of minors who are highly vulnerable to inhumane treatment. The Zimbabwean government as a signatory to this treaty abolished corporal punishment in 2013. However, even though some African countries are signatories to this declaration, they still have laws in place that allow its use.

2.7.2 The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Child (1989)

Velez (2016) points out those children's rights have become prominent and widely discussed since the 1989 CRC influences the creation of policies and programmes that affect many children globally. The Equal Rights Trust (2017) contends that the CRC has perceived that education must be implemented taking cognisance of the integral dignity of the child through friendly ways of discipline as corporal punishment is contrary to the Convention. However, corporal punishment is still prevalent although it has been abolished with enacted laws on the ban being inadequately enforced. A number of articles in the CRC of 1989 prohibit corporal in school contexts. The CRC (1989) Article 19(1) calls for total abolition of corporal punishment as it states that nations should enact laws and educational guidelines that protect the child from all forms of aggression, abuse, exploitation and neglect (UN, 1989).

Article 37(a) of the CRC states that all state parties must ensure that no child is exposed to brutality or other harsh, nasty treatment or punishment (UN, 1989).

These articles call for total prohibition of corporal punishment citing negative effects and the need to come up with appropriate measures to substitute it.

The Zimbabwean government has made efforts to meet the expectations of the CRC of 1989 as evidenced in clauses 51 and 53 of the new Constitution of Zimbabwe and Clause 81 of the constitution (Constitution of Zimbabwe, 2013) which are applicable in school set ups.

Articles 29(1) and 28(2) of the CRC (1989) stress that universal educational institutions which use bodily and emotional pain fail to create an atmosphere that fosters non-violence or that guarantees disciplinary procedures that ensure a minor's self-worth in compliance with present convention (UN, 1989). In addition, Article 29(1) further points out that education of a child must be focused on the promotion of the child's character, endowments, intellectual and physical capabilities to their maximum potential. The articles call for alternative disciplinary measures to corporal punishment which create child-friendly environments in schools. In the Zimbabwean context, the abolition of corporal punishment in 2013 was introduced to meet the expectations of the Articles 28(2) and 29(1) of the CRC of 1989. In support, Coetzee (2010) argues that teachers are facilitators of change mandated to create an environment appropriate for learning which takes on board the children's rights.

Therefore, teachers should note that corporal punishment should not be used as a disciplinary measure in schools as it is considered to be abuse. Teachers need to uphold the learners' rights in educational institutions through positive discipline. These views have contributed much to the abolishment of corporal punishment in the Zimbabwean school system.

2.7.3 The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights of 1966

Mude (2014) states that the United Nations Human Rights Committee (UNHRC), the informative body for the ICCPR of 1966, outlined that the ban against cruelty in the pact includes corporal punishment and extreme reprimands considered as punishment for an offence or as a remedial disciplinary measure. According to the ICCPR (UN, 1966) the use of physical force in learning institutions is a violation of Article 7 of the treaty. Article 7 of the ICCPR (UN, 1966) spells out that no individual

shall be exposed to distress or brutal, insensitive treatment such as corporal punishment.

Thus, managing disciplinary challenges using corporal punishment breaches the child's security as there is exposure to physical torture. O'Neal (2008) supports this view by pointing out that integral in the implementation of corporal punishment is the contravention of the child's safety since this is applied against the will of an individual.

2.7.4 The African Charter on Human and People's Rights 1981

The African Charter on corporal punishment Human and Peoples' Rights of 1981 (the African Charter) was a treaty agreed upon by African member states of the Organisation of Africa (OAU) now the African Union (AU). It has provisions which are meant to ensure that the child is protected from corporal punishment authorised by the government within educational systems. Article 5 of the African Charter discourages the dependence on corporal punishment as a way of respecting human dignity (OAU, 1981).

However, inherent in corporal punishment is the purposeful, physical damage caused to another individual against their will, thereby breaching the child's right to dignity as articulated in Article 5 of the Charter (O'Neal, 2008). Hence, in compliance with the provisions of the Charter, many African states, including Zimbabwe have abolished corporal punishment in learning establishments.

2.7.5 The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child 1990

Article 16 of the ACRWC (African Children's Charter) of 1990 emphasises that the ways of learning undertaken in nations should safeguard the child from humiliating maltreatment (OAU, 1990). The Charter also spells out that any form of discipline in schools should take cognisance of humanity and dignity (ACRWC, 1990). O'Neal (2008) concurs by saying that even if a minor is caned in the context of discipline, it is a breach of the Charter and international standards. Signatories to the Charter need to outlaw corporal punishment in schools. Zimbabwe as a signatory to this treaty has complied by censuring corporal punishment in schools.

2.8 THE LEGAL AND POLICY FRAMEWORK ON CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN SELECTED AFRICAN COUNTRIES

The legal and policy framework in Zimbabwe has been looked at in the background to the study. In this segment I focus on the legal and policy guidelines in South Africa, Namibia, Ethiopia, Lesotho and Malawi comparing them to Zimbabwe.

2.8.1 South Africa

Prior to the attainment of independence in South Africa, corporal punishment was permissible in South African schools on both boys and girls. The 1996 South African Constitution barred corporal punishment (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1996a). Section 12(1) of this Constitution explicitly states that every citizen is guaranteed freedom and may not be disciplined by any form of physical punishment.

This clause of the Constitution has implications for classroom practice as far as disciplinary matters are concerned as it has outlawed corporal punishment, in favour of alternative disciplinary measures. As part of the South African legislation to forbid corporal punishment, the National Education Policy Act 84 of 1996 was enacted that focused on specific roles of education in South African schools. The most notable roles enunciated in this act are community and social responsibility and the pastoral role (RSA, 1996b).The main thrust of this Act was for teachers to employ democratic disciplinary measures in schools where they are expected not to breach this constitutional obligation when disciplining learners.

Thus, within the education system in South Africa, the South African Schools (SASA) Act 84 of 1996 was introduced. This policy emphasises that discipline should be upheld in learning institutions so that teaching takes place without disturbances from unruly behaviour and misdemeanours (RSA, 1996c) without necessarily using corporal punishment.

Consequently, the SASA clearly spells out that no person may apply corporal punishment to a learner and anyone who violates this clause is guilty of a crime, could be charged for assault and liable on conviction to a prison sentence. The SASA totally outlaws corporal punishment in schools in favour of democratic methods of instilling discipline (RSA, 1996c).

However, Maphosa and Shumba (2010) contend that the SASA is unclear on alternative measures teachers should implement to uphold discipline in schools. This implies that without alternative disciplinary measures being spelt out, teachers may persist in using corporal punishment in schools to preserve discipline amongst learners. Recent reports indicate that there are areas in South Africa where teachers continue discipline learners using corporal punishment. For instance, Mahlangu, Chirwa, Machisa, Sikweyiya, Shai and Jewkes (2021) established that incidences relating to corporal punishment were very high in public schools in Tshwane despite the existence of laws banning its use.

From my point of view, the use of corporal punishment in South African schools seems to be prevalent despite the abolishment since alternative disciplinary measures were not initially provided.

2.8.2 Namibia

The Legal Assistance Centre (2010) asserts that Article 8 of the Namibian Constitution of 1990 protects human respect and prohibits cruelty, demeaning treatment or retribution. The aforesaid article of the Namibian Constitution of 1990 does not permit using corporal punishment by any institution that is linked to the government, schools inclusive (Government of Namibia, 1990). Part of the Namibian Legislation as enunciated in Section 56 (1) of the Namibian Education Act of 2001 states that a teacher who is engaged in state-run or privately owned schools commits an act of misconduct by imposing corporal punishment on a learner (Government of Namibia, 2001).

The foregoing statement is reinforced by the Namibian Code of Conduct for Teaching of 2004 which points out that a teacher may not inflict corporal punishment or any other humiliating punishment upon a learner which constitutes act of misconduct (Government of Namibia, 2004). This legislation is not only limited to government schools but also applied to privately owned schools. Any contravention of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995 could culminate in suspension followed by an inquiry, with the ultimate goal of being reprimanded, fined, transferred to another position, a penalty on salary or downgrading and a possible termination of employment (Government of Namibia, 1995).

It has been observed that although laws and policies prohibit the use of corporal punishment, teachers persist in applying it in Namibian schools. To support this, End Violence Against Children (2021) expresses that a 2015 report by the Committee on the Elimination of Violence against Women revealed that there was lack of an enforcement drive of the legislation that banned corporal punishment in schools. This explicitly shows that teachers have not ceased to hit learners in Namibian schools.

The legislation and policies in Namibia are similar to those in Zimbabwe in that they all apply to state-funded and privately owned schools.

2.8.3 Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, corporal punishment was banned in schools by the 1995 constitution though permissible in homes. Article 36 Clause 1(e) of the constitution spells out that every child is entitled the freedom from the infliction of corporal punishment in schools and child care systems (Government of Ethiopia, 1995). According to the NGO, End Violence Against Children (2019), this constitutional clause influenced the Ministry of Education Policy of 1998 which pronounced that it was an act of misconduct to administer corporal punishment in schools. However, despite the existence of policies and statutes that banned corporal punishment, evidence from a longitudinal study done by Ogando Portela and Pells in 2015 indicates that learners are still being exposed to corporal punishment by teachers. In this instance, the attainment of total compliance could be a challenge in the Ethiopian context.

This has similarities with Section 51, 53 and 81(1) of the 2013 Zimbabwean Constitution and Policy Circular Number 35 of 2018, which declared the meting out of pain on learners as an infringement of their rights.

2.8.4 Lesotho

The caning of learners was outlawed in Lesotho by the Education Act of 2010 (Government of Lesotho, 2010). Article 4 of the Act supported by the Parliamentary Statement of Objects and Reasons of the Education Act 2010 highlights the banning of corporal punishment in schools (End Violence Against Children, 2020). This was an alignment with the human rights treaties signed by the country. This agrees with

the Zimbabwean laws, most notably the Education Act as amended in 2020 which clarifies that corporal punishment is not justifiable in schools.

However, the move towards the ban of corporal punishment seems to be facing some obstacles as the End Violence Against Children (2020) states that a report by the Committee on the Rights of the Child of 2018 noted that corporal punishment was still used in Lesotho schools without limitations. Thus, the committee recommended the establishment of a confidential reporting system in schools and the engagement of all stakeholders on the need to use non-aggressive ways of disciplining learners.

2.8.5 Malawi

In Malawi, legislation has declared corporal punishment as unwanted in government-run schools as per the dictates of the Article 19 of the Constitution (Government of Malawi, 1994). The Education Act of 1962 as amended in 2009 promulgated the non-use of corporal punishment in schools (End Violence Against Children, 2019). According to The End Violence Against Children (2019) the abolishment of corporal punishment in Malawian primary schools was enhanced by the 2015 National Education Standards. The legislation and policies pronounced in Malawi share common aspects with the banning of caning in Zimbabwe. However, the Malawian statutes and procedures are not all-encompassing as they are silent on their application in private schools. However, the National Statistics Office (2015) concluded that corporal punishment was still prevalent in schools basing on a survey conducted in 2014. This shows that a problem prevails in Malawi with the abolishment of corporal punishment in schools.

2.9 SELECTED COUNTRIES THAT HAVE ABOLISHED CORPORAL PUNISHMENT OUTSIDE AFRICA

This section discusses issues related to corporal punishment in countries from the European, Asian, South American and Australasian continents. The GIEACPC (2020b) contends that as of January 2020, 58 countries globally had abolished corporal punishment of types on children in all environments of which 30 had given assurance to do so. This was mainly influenced by the total ban by Sweden in 1979.

2.9.1 European Countries

In 1979, Sweden banned corporal punishment of children, becoming the first nation to do so (Gershoff & Durrant, 2019). Prior legislation did not clearly proclaim a prohibition on corporal punishment on children. The GIEACPC (2020c) affirms that the Swedish Children and Parents Act Article 6.1 explicitly directed that children should be accorded the due respect they deserve and should not be exposed to any form of corporal punishment or demeaning treatment. This was a landmark point at global level as this was in compliance with the treaties on children's rights (Modig, 2014). With the ratification of the laws to abolish all forms of corporal punishment, a study carried out by Jernbro and Janson in Sweden in 2016 showed that most of the learners did not consent to any kind of corporal punishment as 81% of them had adverse perceptions on its use (Jernbro & Janson, 2017). The veto on corporal punishment in Sweden was complemented with substantial awareness campaigns across the whole nation that educated the populace at large on the amendments to the laws relating to corporal punishment (Heilmann, Kelly & Watt, 2015). These campaigns took the form of radio and television broadcasts, pamphlets, posters and advertisements on billboards (Gershoff et al., 2017).

A number of European countries followed suit in the drive to eliminate corporal punishment. Finland enacted laws in 1983 with the passing of a statute to that effect being the second nation after Sweden to take such a position (Osterman, Bjorkqvist & Wahlbeck, 2014). The GIEACPC (2017) clearly reveals that the Finland Basic Education Act of 1998 does not contain a clause that allows disciplining children through corporal punishment. This shows that Finland eradicated the infliction of pain both physically and emotionally not only in the home but all also in educational environments. In order to attain a total elimination corporal punishment in all social contexts, Finland embarked on a country-wide community education programme to empower all concerned stakeholders on the alternative ways that can be used in the place of corporal punishment (Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection [MoGCSP] & UNICEF Ghana, 2018). According to MoGCSP and UNICEF (2018), this was attained through the use of the internet, television advertisements and books.

Austria is one of the European countries which endorsed laws that eliminated corporal punishment on children in 1989 both in the home and the schools. The abolishment in totality was effected in 1974 through Article 47 (3) as proclaimed in the School Education Act (GIEACPC, 2020d). In the same vein, since 1936, Norway had instituted a ban on corporal punishment in all spheres including schools, making it illegal. The ban was further reinforced by Clauses 2.9 and 3.7 of the Education Act of 1998 as revised in 2008 which discouraged the use of corporal punishment (GIEACPC, 2019 a). With reference to Cyprus, the GIEACPC (2019b) asserts that it banished corporal punishment in both in the home and school in 1994 which was further enhanced by a circular propagated by the Ministry of Education and Culture in 2009.

Newell (2011) stated that Germany placed an embargo on corporal punishment in 2000 in all settings as contained in Article 1631(2) of the Civil Code. The code emphasised that it is the children's right to grow up in a non-violent environment. This means that caning is not permitted in schools. The abolishment of corporal punishment in Germany was supported by societal awareness programmes delivered through print and electronic media to all citizens on the new laws and non-aggressive ways of disciplining learners (Bussman, Erthal & Schroth, 2011).

2.9.2 Asian Countries

Japan is one of the states that abolished corporal punishment in all environments. The GIEACPC (2020a) stresses that Japan changed the Education Law of 1947 making it a criminal offence to effect corporal punishment from April 2020. With these changes corporal punishment was no longer permissible in schools.

Nepal also made great strides to abolish corporal punishment in October 2018. According to the GIEACPC (2018c), the abolishment of on learners was entrenched in an Act of Parliament stating that its use was a criminal offence. However, in India the laws meant to bring corporal punishment to a halt were enacted but they had grey areas that contributed to the perpetual use in most schools (GIEACPC, 2020e). Mongolia was the 49th state globally to bar corporal punishment in all environmental settings as it called for the implementation of child-friendly measures in its laws. The GIEACPC (2018d) articulates that Clauses 7.1 of the law on the rights of Children

and Section 2.6 of the Child Protection Law were put in place to enforce the total ban on corporal punishment.

2.9.3 South American Countries

In South America, Brazil was the 38th nation in the world to abolish corporal punishment. The GIEACPC (2018a) delineates that, in Brazil, corporal punishment was barred in schools and other settings through the changes made to Article 26 of Law Number 9 394 of 1996 which determined the state of the operations of the country's education system in light of the preservation of human rights and its non-use in centres of learning and other environments. However, despite having the legislation in place, observers have noted that there has been persistent use of corporal punishment on learners which could be attributed to lack of awareness on the new law because of poor publicity. The CRC /C/15/Add.241 (2004, paragraphs 42 and 43) recommended that awareness campaigns need to be undertaken on non-violent ways of disciplining children.

Argentina promulgated a law in 2014, the Civil and Commercial Code, which prohibited corporal punishment in totality, schools included. The GIEACPC (2018b) in line with the previous statement affirms that Article 6 of the Education Law of 2000 did not endorse corporal punishment as one of the disciplinary measures to be used in schools. However, the Human Rights Committee report, 2016, CCPR /ARG/CO/5 noted that corporal punishment in schools even the home seems not to have been abolished. It was recommended to engage in massive information dissemination campaigns to educate all stakeholders on child-friendly disciplinary measures and the negative impact of corporal punishment (GIEACPC, 2018d). Such campaigns as noted in countries like Sweden, Germany and Austria inculcated a positive attitude from concerned parties on the abolishment of corporal punishment.

2.9.4 Australasia

In New Zealand, corporal punishment was brought to an end in all community contexts in 2007 through the alterations made to Clause 5 of the Crimes Act of 1961(RACP, 2013). The abolishment of corporal punishment in New Zealand was applicable to both government and private schools. The New Zealand Education Act of 1989 as amended in 2007 Section 139A (Government of New Zealand, 1989)

clearly spells out that no person who has been contracted by a school board or is engaged in a school registered under Clause 35A of the Act has the prerogative to administer corporal punishment to a bona fide learner. This means that caning or spanking is outlawed in school settings in New Zealand.

The GIEACPC (2019c) stated, however, that in an opinion poll carried out soon after the abolishment by the New Zealand Herald with a sample of about 3 000 participants, it was noted that 70% voted for its reinstatement in schools. However, with the passage of time, there seems to have been a positive shift in public viewpoints pertaining to corporal punishment as there has been a downward trend in its use generally. Save the Children (2018) supports the analysis as it pinpoints that on a survey done in New Zealand in 2018, there was a reduction in the public management of behaviour on children with the aid of corporal punishment. However, this needed to be supported by public education campaigns to reinforce the positive attitude. Zimbabwe seems to be lacking on this aspect of massive education on the abolishment.

2.10 OUTCOMES OF THE ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN SCHOOLS

The abolishment of corporal punishment has been associated with some consequences. This section discusses the declining pass rates, loss of dignity for teachers, high incidence of absenteeism and deviant behaviour as some of the outcomes of the abolishment.

2.10.1 Low Pass Rates

There has been a contention that the abolishment of corporal punishment has seen pass rates in schools tumbling to low levels. Dlamini et al. (2017) argue that outlawing corporal punishment has affected academic performance especially for examination classes in Swaziland. Sharing the same view, Kubeka (2018) posits that the low levels of academic performance realised in schools have been linked to the abolishment of corporal punishment. In addition, Suleman, Aslam and Ranjit Singh (2014) assert that the ban on corporal punishment is assumed to have contributed much to the undesirable pass rates being obtained in schools. However, the low pass rates can be attributed to the continued management of disciplinary issues

through corporal punishment despite the ban. Shaikhnag and Assan (2014) support this view by contending that corporal punishment engrains fear into learners resulting in extremely high levels of truancy and absenteeism which, in turn, affect academic achievement.

I have deduced that some teachers advocate that the high rate of absenteeism being witnessed in schools of late is a result of the abolishment of corporal punishment. On the other hand, some argue that it is the application of corporal punishment that actually propagates the escalating levels of absenteeism in schools.

2.10.2 Loss of Dignity by Teachers

One of the consequences of the abolishment of corporal punishment has been identified as loss of dignity by teachers. Maphosa and Shumba (2010) state that teachers in the South African context believe that the interdict on corporal punishment stripped them of their authority to handle indiscipline; hence, the loss of respect. A study done in Zambia by Kabungo and Munsaka (2020) supports this as it reveals that the prohibition on corporal punishment in educational settings compromised the authority of teachers. Furthermore, they state that this is the case because the alternatives suggested were not effective enough to enhance socially desirable behaviour as they were not that tough. In a study by Najoli, Runhare and Ouda (2019) it was observed that corporal punishment builds up the learners' conscience towards the respect for teachers but its removal impacts negatively on dignity the teachers deserve from the learners. This was further reinforced by a study by Chingombe, Ingwani, Chindanya and Moyo (2017) who point out that corporal punishment reminds learners that teachers have power over them. Additionally, Govender and Sookrajh (2014) postulate that teachers attribute the loss of respect to the prohibition of corporal punishment as the learners engage in unwanted behaviour knowing that no punitive action will be taken against them.

One may argue that teachers may hold such a perception because, with the abolishment of corporal punishment, they were not empowered with alternative disciplinary measures to bridge the gap created.

2.10.3 Non-school Attendance

In the literature, there is a perception that the abolishment of corporal punishment has prompted a rise in cases of absenteeism. Dlamini et al. (2017) are of the opinion that corporal punishment enhances learner attendance implying that its abolishment contributes to high levels of non-school attendance. However, this has been contested by Kambunga, Manyengo and Mbalamula (2018) who established that the use of corporal punishment results in irregular attendance because it instills fear and anxiety among leaners. Dar Ahmad (2012) shares this sentiment by stating that the indiscriminate application of corporal punishment induces fear amongst learners leading to a high level of truancy and absenteeism.

2.10.4 Deviant Behaviour

The proliferation of deviant behaviour amongst the learners in schools has been noted as one of the outcomes of the abolishment of corporal punishment. Khatete and Matanda (2014) opine that when the sanction on corporal punishment was imposed, there was a steep rise in acts of misconduct by learners in schools. Arguing along the same lines, Matope and Mugodzwa (2011) assert that the abolishment of corporal punishment has been associated with a surge in the incidence of socially undesirable behaviour. However, this has been argued against by Shaikhnag and Assan (2014) who contend that there is no close connection between the abolishment of corporal punishment and a rise in undesirable behaviour. I conclude, therefore, that there are mixed reactions relating to the abolishment of corporal punishment.

2.11 PROGRAMMES TO CURB THE USE OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Some programmes have been put in place to curb the use of corporal punishment in schools. The programmes reviewed under this heading are stakeholder participation, parental engagement, school-designated intervention strategies, guidance and counselling and School Wide Positive Behavioural Support Plan (SWPBSP). This literature is significant to this study as it gives insights into managing disciplinary challenges in the wake of the abolishment of corporal punishment.

2.11.1 Drawing up a Structure that will Enhance the Participation of Stakeholders

The participation of stakeholders calls for the establishment of learners' body and a teachers' committee with an obligation of creating a school environment that is free from corporal punishment. The Ministry of Education and Sports [MoES] (2017) mentions that there is need to create routine meetings between teachers and learners where they share views and experiences in facilitating learner-friendly environments. This can be attained through various activities which may include essay competitions, school assembly presentations, dance, drama, poetry and the use of suggestion boxes (MoES, 2017).

I maintain that constant interaction programmes between teachers and learners through a variety of activities help to build up an environment that does not tolerate corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure. This creates a child-friendly environment that enhances the teaching and the acquisition of knowledge. In the Zimbabwean context it is mandatory for every school to have a suggestion box, hold assemblies and undertake a wide range of activities that call for the abolishment of corporal punishment.

2.11.2 Parental Engagement Programmes

Parental engagement strategies have been used worldwide in a bid to eliminate corporal punishment. The parental programmes discussed in this section show how they address issues to do with corporal punishment. These programmes are reviewed because they are seen as critical in averting the use of corporal punishment as the parents are sensitised on the negative effects of corporal punishment considering that some influence teachers to use it.

2.11.2.1 Universal prevention programmes

The MoGCSP and UNICEF Ghana (2018) assert that the thrust of the universal prevention programmes is a paradigm shift that brings about a minimisation on the reliance on corporal punishment in different settings. Gershoff et al. (2017) agree by stating that universal programmes are intended to change behaviour but basically the major intention is to modify the motives which underlie behaviour. Universal input

to inculcate positive perceptions on child-friendly ways of discipline have taken different forms which embrace informative campaigns on laws and guidelines enacted among others (Gershoff et al., 2017).

The campaigns can take the form of radio and television proclamations, use of billboard advertisements and posters. To show the effectiveness of the public awareness campaigns Bussman et al. (2011) carried out a study towards public attitudes and parents' behaviour overtime in Sweden, Germany, Austria, Spain and France. It was established that compared to other countries that did not fully or had never implemented awareness campaigns, Sweden had the highest number of parents who raised their children without administering corporal punishment (Bussman et al., 2011).

The implication is that public awareness campaigns are significant to make people aware of the ban on corporal punishment to fully achieve its intended purpose as witnessed in the Swedish setting. In agreement with the universal intervention programme, Rohrs (2017), with reference to the South African context, argues that there is need to come up with an intervention whose major thrust is to shift attitudes and behaviours underlying the preference of corporal punishment as a disciplinary tool. These should explore the role of individual perceptions and societal norms in promoting the application of corporal punishment in the South African settings.

An examination of the reviewed literature indicates that parents can develop a positive attitude towards the non-use of corporal and do not request teachers to use it on their children.

2.11.2.2 Selective intervention programme

The MoGCSP and UNICEF Ghana (2018) state that the goal of the selective prevention programmes is to embark on activities that target specific groups in the population who are relatively more likely to administer corporal punishment like parents and teachers. Taking into consideration the continued upward trend in corporal punishment cases by parents, selective mitigation programmes target all parents and professionals who may influence decisions linked to discipline (Clement & Chamberland, 2014). The professionals mentioned here include teachers whose influence has a high impact on parental decisions on disciplinary issues as these

parties constantly interact. Selective prevention programmes involve activities that target parents as some depend more on corporal punishment; hence the need to eliminate its use through a holistic shift in attitudes and inculcating new perceptions on alternatives to corporal punishment to reduce its occurrence (Gershoff et al., 2017).

Parents and guardians can work in groups sharing ideas in their desire to stop corporal punishment on children. The Adults and Children Together Against Violence (ACT) is a specific example, whose major goal is to encourage the use of violence-free disciplinary measures on children, handling emotions and problem solving skills (Gershoff et al., 2017).

In the African context, a similar programme was initiated in Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique code named Stop Violence Against Girls whose major thrust was to reduce the levels of corporal punishment in different settings such as schools (Parkes & Heslop, 2011). Additionally, Nkuba, Hermenan, Goessmann and Hecker (2018) state that when the programme was implemented continuously from 2007 to 2013, significant results were realised with the rate of caning falling by 52% to 29% in Mozambique. Nkuba et al. (2018) further state the enrolment of girls showed an upward trend of 14% in Ghana, 17% in Kenya and 10% in Mozambique as a result of the implementation of the programme.

The use of media also constitutes some of the intervention programmes that are implemented as a way of curbing the use of corporal punishment. The media that can be used include the internet, television and books (MoGCSP and UNICEF Ghana, 2018). I maintain that selective intervention programmes have a beneficial impact on teachers' attitudes towards corporal punishment as positive discipline is introduced.

2.11.2.3 Indicated prevention programmes

Indicated intervention programmes focus on groups of individuals who have previously used corporal punishment and are likely to use such a method again in future (Gershoff et al., 2017; MoGCSP and UNICEF Ghana, 2018). These have been put in place in an attempt to control the use of corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure. Notable strategies under the indicated intervention strategies

are the Incredible Years and Parent Child Interaction Therapy among others. Webster-Stratton, Reid and Beauchaine (2013) express that the Incredible Years is a collective programme focused at minimising violent behaviour among children, parents and teachers. With reference to the Parent Child Interaction Therapy, Gershoff et al. (2017) assert it is a face-to-face teaching exercise meant to discourage using corporal punishment amongst parents. This reduces cases whereby parents request teachers to corporally punish their children. In my opinion, these programmes act as a reminder to those who have developed the habit of using corporal punishment so that they can refrain from doing it.

2.11.3 School Designed Intervention Strategies

The thrust of school-based prevention programmes is to eliminate corporal punishment use by teachers. Selected school-based programmes discussed in this section include the Good School Toolkit, Guidance and Counselling and the SWPBS as intervention programmes to minimise controlling behaviour by using corporal punishment in learning centres.

2.11.3.1 Good School Toolkit

The Good School Toolkit serves as a school-based intervention programme meant to check the stimulation of pain in behaviour management. The Good School Toolkit refers to a behavioural mitigation strategy initiated by a Ugandan based NGO, Rising Voices, whose goal was to bring about attitude change in the school operational culture as far as corporal punishment was concerned (Knight, Allen, Mirembe, Nakuti, Namy, Child, Sturgies, Kyegombe, Walakira, Elbourne, Naker & Devries, 2018). Furthermore, Merrill, Knight, Namy, Allen, Naker and Devries (2018) state that as a way of enhancing the Good School Toolkit in Uganda, the Raising Voices NGO provided schools with booklets, posters and guides to cater for the 60 toolkit activities which included learner discussions, debates, issues to do with respect, power relations, positive discipline approaches and classroom management strategies. The implementation of the Good School Toolkit in Uganda yielded positive results as its application by educators on learners was reduced by an average of 42% (Rohrs, 2017). The decrease shows the effectiveness of the Good School Toolkit as a school-based intervention programme. I have noted that if

properly applied in other countries, educators could be sensitised on the adverse effects of using corporal punishment and desist from using it.

2.11.3.2 Guidance and Counselling

Guidance and counselling is also regarded as a school-based programme that can be implemented in controlling corporal punishment usage in schools. Mapfumo and Nkoma (2013) describe guidance and counselling as a programme of assistance provided to individual learners governed by their needs and the influence of the school environment they interact with. Bobga (2016) shares the same view by highlighting that guidance and counselling is a professionally designed discipline programme constituted by a spectrum of activities and services whose thrust is to help learners to gain knowledge about their personality, others and the school environment and to acquire skills to adjust as anticipated. Guidance and counselling are also regarded as those key aspects in discipline management in collective settings taking cognisance of the need to guide learners' behaviour patterns to the benefit of the group (Uju, 2019). In an educational setting, one can say guidance and counselling are intervention programmes that seek to mitigate behavioural challenges on a one-on-one platform between the teacher as a counsellor and the learner. Salgong, Ngumi and Chege (2016) note that guidance and counselling strive to help teachers, parents and learners to understand themselves in order to deal with individual life experiences in an acceptable way. They further argue that this gives insight into the factors that culminate in behavioural problems, thereby providing proper alternatives to avoid scenarios which may lead to improper conduct. This implies that with the abolishment of corporal punishment in schools, guidance and counselling programmes can work as an alternative to corporal punishment in dealing with disciplinary issues. Guidance and counselling may take different approaches which are either individual or group counselling meant to alter maladaptive behaviour or prevent problems (Bobga, 2016).

To show the effectiveness of guidance and counselling, Salgong et al. (2016) established that it is significant in enhancing learner discipline. The positive impact of guidance and counselling is also supported by Najoli, Runhare and Ouda (2019) who note that schools, where teachers guide and reason with learners, value the need for discipline. Additionally, Mapfumo and Nkoma (2013) assert that guidance and

counselling programmes have been found to minimise the levels of misconduct amongst learners.

In the Zimbabwean education system, noting the importance of guidance and counselling, a policy circular was issued to that effect. The Director's Circular Number 23 of 2005 which operationalised guidance and counselling focuses on how to facilitate national development through an intensive programme to produce disciplined socially acceptable and productive individuals with good physical and mental health (MoESC, 2005). The circular mandated each school to have guidance and counselling programmes and a committee that runs guidance and counselling affairs. In the Zimbabwean education system, guidance and counselling was launched as a teaching subject. All these efforts are designed to reduce the levels of indiscipline in schools since corporal punishment had been abolished in Zimbabwe. In the Kenyan context, Kiprop, Bomett, Kipruto and Micheal (2015) assert that the institutionalisation of guidance and counselling has greatly assisted in attending to disciplinary issues with much success denoted with the establishment of committees.

Though guidance and counselling programmes are effective as measures of eliminating corporal punishment, they have had their own challenges. One of the impedements on the use of guidance and counselling is insufficient training on the part of teachers (Kagoiya et al., 2017). This is supported by Bobga (2016) with reference to the Cameroonian schools context who postulates that there is a critical shortage of counsellors in schools. In agreement, Salgong et al. (2016) also take note of the deficiency of trained teacher counsellors. The same view of inadequate training on the part of teachers is shared by Gudyanga, Wadesango, Manzira and Gudyanga (2015) who contend that teachers had no opportunity to attend any guidance and counselling workshops or attained any form of training in the discipline thereby making it a mammoth task in implementing the guidance and counselling programmes at school level. Onyango, Aloka and Raburu (2018) hinted that in service training on positive classroom management is of value to teachers as it facilitates behavioural change in learners reflected by a reduction in behavioural problems. The foregoing view shows the importance of training teachers in guidance and counselling skills as a programme that introduces alternative disciplinary methods to corporal punishment. Kagoiya et al. (2017) state that teachers should be

accorded more training so as to effectively execute guidance and counselling sessions in schools. My view is that inadequate training by teachers has been an obstacle in the full implementation of guidance and counselling yet it has positive results in managing behavioural challenges. Mwenda (2016) opined that teachers who received training on guidance and counselling affirmed that the teachers are more effective in using alternative methods than those without any form of training. He further states that teachers trained in guidance and counselling as an alternative disciplinary measure avoid the use of punitive disciplinary strategies.

Funding is another challenge faced in the implementation of the guidance and counselling programme which has culminated in a critical shortage of resources. Guidance and counselling has not been fully funded as very little funds are set aside for counselling programmes (Bobga, 2016). This scarcity of funding has to a greater extent impeded on the full implementation of guidance and counselling. Chimonyo, Mapuranga and Rugonye (2015) question how such important guidance and counselling programmes can work without proper textbooks, timetables, conducive counselling rooms and proper documentation of counselling sessions. Furthermore, Gudyanga et al. (2015) echoed that guidance and counselling programmes in schools lacked prerequisite materials and facilities for effective implementation. Onyango et al. (2018) argue along the same lines as they assert that the unavailability and insufficiency of counselling resources impedes the guidance and counselling programmes to effectively control the disciplining of learners through corporal punishment. Thus, I have noticed that poor funding acts as a drawback on successful implementation of guidance and counselling.

The time factor is also an impediment to the use of guidance and counselling in schools. Gudyanga et al. (2015) contend that in schools little time is devoted to counselling responsibilities as most time is allocated to teaching duties. In addition, Salgong et al. (2016) assert that, while some school heads in Kenya apportion time for counselling services to the learners, it was a waste as this was devoted to subjects that were examined, as counselling was considered as an after-learning activity. Ruttoh (2015) agrees with the view from Kenya by arguing that the execution of guidance and counselling programmes may conflict with other aspects of the school timetable and are thus seen as threats to the current school programmes.

The time factor is also linked to the issue of work overload on the part of teachers to implement guidance and counselling programmes. Samkange and Dondofema (2016) established that despite the introduction of guidance and counselling in Zimbabwean schools, not all teachers are engaging themselves in its implementation for a number of reasons which include the work load on the teacher. Gudyanga et al. (2015) also make reference to the aspect of work overload as an obstacle to full engagement in guidance and counselling as teachers work fulltime as classroom practitioners in addition to engaging in guidance and counselling duties and other related responsibilities in the school system. I note that the time factor has a bearing on the use of guidance and counselling in managing acts of misconduct by learners.

2.11.3.3 School Wide Positive Behaviour Supports Plan (SWPBS)

The SWPBS is a notion based on a training programme with the goal of creating effective remedial behavioural strategies, engrained in establishing just, healthy and safe measures in the school at large (Horner, Sugai & Anderson, 2010). Under the SWPBS, it is asserted that the school should come up with a disciplinary scheme that can be flighted on notice boards in corridors, classrooms and common rooms (Mashau, Mutshaeni & Kone, 2015). The discipline plan provides awareness of how learners are expected to conduct themselves. The SWPBS is a positive alternative to corporal punishment as it enhances safety, pro-social behaviour and academic attainment in schools (Madiga, Cross, Smolkowski & Strycker, 2016). As a result, the SWPBS has been used on a large scale, worldwide. In concurrence, Dunlap, Goodman, McEvoy and Paris (2010) say the SWPBS has assisted in the creation of learner-friendly school environments which embrace the behavioural expectations of all learners with ease-of-use strategies. This is achieved because common expectations for positive behaviour are put in place for learners at various points.

SWPBS are categorised into three segments referred to as tiers. In Tier 1, common support is given to all learners in which the expected behaviour codes are cascaded to learners in an explicit constructive manner in all environments within the school (Lewis, McIntosh, Simonsen, Mitchell & Hatton, 2017). Tiers 2 and 3 focus on secondary level help and implementation of tertiary strategies (Horner et al., 2010). To show the effectiveness of SWPBS, a study done by McDaniel, Robson and Houchins (2016) in a number of school settings showed that it also works for

learners with emotional behavioural disorders. However, Griffith and Tyner (2019) say although many teachers acknowledge the effectiveness of SWPBS they also argue that these can be appropriate depending on the situation. An analysis of the SWPBS model shows that if it is properly applied it can substitute corporal punishment although some teachers contend that it is situational which may imply that they are comfortable with corporal punishment.

2.12 ALTERNATIVES TO CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

With the abolishment of corporal punishment, alternatives have been suggested. Selected examples discussed in this section include the code of conduct, discipline through school administration, restorative practices, the check in/out behavioural roadmap, democratic school discipline, manual work, detention and role modelling as alternatives to corporal punishment.

2.12.1 Code of Conduct

Mbambazi and Bagaya (2013) view a code of conduct as a parameter which indicates the expected form of behaviour of a learner while undertaking academic and non-academic pursuits. The South African Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (SACJPCP) and Department of Basic Education [DBE] (2012) argue that the code of conduct is intended to inculcate a positive culture of behaviour. The same view is shared by Mtonga (2018) who defines a school code of conduct as a guideline for inculcating values of positive behaviour within which learners should control themselves rather than spelling out rules and measures for punishment.

The SASA explicitly spells out that schools are legally obliged to develop a code of conduct that highlights what is expected of educators and learners. The SASA goes on to say that the code of conduct must place emphasis on positive discipline which must not be punishment-oriented but should foster effective learning. The Zambian Education Act of 2011 is in agreement with the SASA as it dictates that it is obligatory for every school come up with a code of conduct in liaison with all concerned parties. This implies that the code of conduct is a guideline for the expected type of positive behaviour among learners in schools. The written code of conduct should specifically indicate the ramifications of the violation of school standards and describe the type of support the school is prepared to provide to help

teachers to fulfil their role professionally (MoES, 2017). In so doing, this enhances the use of favourable disciplinary methods.

The need to develop community awareness on policy issues is a significant programme to control the infliction of pain on learners. The stakeholders in the community include local leaders to reinforce the enacted policies and programmes. Mlalazi, Rembe and Shumba (2016) are of the view that the involvement of all key figures in drafting the code of conduct would produce desired outcomes in its aim to foster discipline in schools. To be gathered, from the discussion on the code of conduct is that it provides explicit guidelines on the expected behaviour, although Mncube and du Plessis (2018) argue that school heads have some dictatorial tendencies when drafting a school code of conduct. This poses as a challenge to the implementation thereof.

2.12.2 Enhancing Discipline in Schools through School Administration

The school administration plays a significant role in enhancing healthy discipline in schools. School administrators have a mandate in the behavioural management of learners in schools through the promulgation of policy issues, rules, procedures and regulations (Nooruddon & Baig, 2014). Mashau et al. (2015) contend that if school leaders consistently support educators in the implementation of a discipline scheme through feedback on disciplinary actions, they will follow their guidance. These scholars further state that the school administrators have a pivotal role to play in creating safe and warm environments in the schools they are in charge of. On the other hand, the State of South Carolina Department of Education (2019) suggests that the school leadership should endeavour to provide professional training for educators, learners, support staff and stakeholders from the community in enhancing positive behaviour and responses. The school administration should make strides to actively participate in activities that promote positive discipline like facilitating training for teachers and support staff in implementing alternative disciplinary measures (Skiba & Losen, 2015).

Therefore, it is important to note that failure to offer training on the alternatives can result in the continued use of punitive measures by teachers. Insufficient training on

given to parents may mean that they want teachers to punish their children with corporal punishment.

2.12.3 Restorative Practices

Wachtel (2016) says restorative practices are an alternative measure to corporal punishment that focuses on the attainment of social discipline through learner-centred activities and decision making. In addition, Ryan and Ruddy (2015) assert that the implementation of restorative practices result in a common alternative that is not only limited to corrective justice systems but can take place within the context of social institutions like schools. This view points towards an attitude shift from the use of punitive acts of instilling discipline like corporal punishment in schools.

Jean-Pierre and Parris-Drummond (2018) maintain that restorative practices are preventive in nature in terms of conflict ridden settings and responsive with reference to relationship building. In implementing the preventive component of restorative practices, schools can embark on awareness programmes amongst learners that emphasise the worthiness of empathy, conflict elimination and emotional skills in which restorative language is used (Dubin, 2015). As a restorative element of the responsive aspect, learners come to a consensus to observe certain laid-down guidelines while paying attention to one another through the mediation of a trained facilitator (Stewart-Kline, 2016). In so doing, the restorative practices impart the spirit of non-punitive disciplinary measures that lead to harmony in school systems. This view is shared by Ryan and Ruddy (2015) who suggest that the restorative practices model engages all concerned stakeholders in bridging the gap created during misunderstandings and paves the way for healing.

It has been observed that the commonly used restorative practices include peer chats, classroom circles, conferencing, peace-making groups and victim-offender engagement (Anfara, Evans & Lester, 2013). According to Gardner (2014), schools may have learner-steered restorative practices through modification of behaviour. The implementation of the preceding restorative practices is valuable in instilling desirable behaviour. Similarly, the State of South Carolina Department of Education (2019) highlights that the implementation of restorative practices assist in the reduction of unwanted behaviour like bullying, crime and violence thereby improving

human relationships and cementing effective leadership. Through restorative practices learners reflect on their behaviour as a way of regulating self-discipline as they develop awareness of how their misconduct impacted on others (Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018).

The significance attached to restorative practices is to train teachers on how to implement the model. It has been noted that an all-inclusive implementation of the restorative educational model may need a time frame of three to five years with adequate resources availed for the training (Gardner, 2014). Insufficient training on the alternatives may mean that teachers continue to use retributive ways as they may see them as effective in maintaining discipline in school surroundings. To conservative educators, the use of restorative practices may be assumed to be loss of authority in line with compliance of the schools' code of conduct regulated by enhancing good behaviour (Ryan & Ruddy, 2015).

This may imply that such teachers may use aggressive disciplinary ways in the wake of its abolishment. This view is supported by Dubin (2015) who argues that even though corporal punishment is not in line with the restorative practices, some teachers apply it to learners who engage in gross misbehaviour while implementing the restorative approach to insignificant disciplinary matters. One may conclude that teachers in this category are comfortable with the blending of corporal punishment and alternatives like restorative practices rather than depending on one method. It is worth noting that teachers need adequate training on restorative practices to avoid the use of violent ways to maintaining order. The teachers also need to be sensitised on the effectiveness of the restorative practices so that they do not complement them with corporal punishment.

2.12.4 The Check in / Check out Behavioural Roadmap

This alternative calls for the intervention of the teachers mainly target learners with recurring behavioural challenges. The implementation of this behavioural roadmap expects the teacher to engage the learner several times per day before lessons commence up to dismissal for the day (Hawken, Bundock, Kladis, O'Keefe & Barrett, 2014). The expectation of this strategy is to assess behavioural change on a daily basis whereby teachers evaluate the learners' behaviour which is acknowledged by

the parents at home through signing the daily report of the teacher. Similarly, Jean-Pierre and Parris-Drummond (2018) argue that if a learner shows compliance to the laid-down code of conduct, they are reinforced by praise as they log out at the end of the day. Additionally, Hawken et al. (2014) share the same view as they assert that the teacher compiles a daily report based on the extent to which behavioural expectations have been met on the particular day, praising, encouraging and rewarding learners for good behaviour. The check in / check out educational road map has a positive role to play in the extinction of acts of misconduct by learners (Swoszowski, Jolivette & Fredrick, 2013).

What could be inferred in this approach is that the learner is monitored both at home and school. This has a positive impact on behaviour change on the part of learners.

2.12.5 Democratic School Discipline

According to Jean-Pierre and Parris-Drummond (2018), the democratic model is learner-centred where they enact and comply with a mutually agreed code of conduct. This can be manifested in schools through the existence of a learners' board which has the autonomy to come up with decisions relating to disciplinary matters (Hantzopaulos, 2011). The democratic model inculcates into learners leadership skills, the spirit of fairness and societal values (Cuevas & Kralovec, 2011). The issue of democracy is seen as promoting equity and fairness in the decision-making process as all stakeholders are involved in the system.

Therefore, the inclusion of learners will enable them to evaluate their level of responsibility in terms of discipline and mapping the way forward if there are challenges. By assuming responsibility, the learner will not engage in unacceptable behaviour.

However, the learner-centred democratic disciplinary model has been observed to have some limitations. It has been viewed by teachers as an alienation of their power to learners (Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018). Thus, teachers tend to negate its implementation. Cuevas and Kralovec (2011) go on to say even some parents may reject such a novel approach of disciplining learners. From my analysis, the failure to adopt new friendly methods of disciplining learners may be a contributory factor to the use of punitive ways despite the abolishment. The rejection by the

teachers and parents could be influenced by cultural and religious beliefs which favour corporal punishment.

2.12.6 Manual Work

The use of manual work as an alternative strategy is manifested in instances where offenders are tasked to pick litter, clean the school environment, tidy up the classrooms, cut grass, weed and water the garden, fetch water and clean the school toilets (Chitalu & Phiri, 2020). Yaghambe and Tshabangu (2013) identified the chopping of firewood and the cleaning up of passages as the frequently used forms of manual work. Furthermore, Onyango, Raburu and Aloka (2016) state that manual work involves tasks such as cutting grass, tidying up bathing rooms and digging up tree stumps. The aforementioned tasks are to a greater extent assumed to impact positively on the management of learner behaviour. In tandem with this, Onyango (2019) concluded that manual work assigned to learners is very effective in controlling learner behaviour. This is further supported by Chikwature, Oyedele and Ganyani (2016) who contend that manual labour is efficient in instilling the social virtues of respect, thereby getting rid of unwanted behaviour if properly administered. An analysis shows there is dependence on the pain induced by the manual tasks in enhancing behaviour modification.

However, the use of manual work has become a contentious issue, as its effectiveness has been doubted. The use of manual work to manage discipline in schools has been viewed as an element of torture and a waste of time without any tangible benefits to the learners as it is not taken seriously (Salome & Sadambi, 2016). Similarly, Onyango and Simatwa (2016) contend that manual work constitutes a form of corporal punishment depending with the way it is administered. One can deduce that these views are against the use of manual work as an alternative as they deem it to be an infringement of the children's rights. This means the views are informed by the human rights and the psychological perspectives.

2.12.7 Detention

Detention is one of the alternatives that has been suggested as a substitute for corporal punishment. McCann (2017) states that detention means a learner stays behind in school for some time and reports to a specified room to work on

unaccomplished tasks or homework. In the South African context, Moyo et al. (2014) highlight that this alternative is used for minor acts of misconduct. It has been observed that detention promotes compliance to set down standards in the classroom (Govender & Sookrajh, 2014). Detention takes different forms like remaining behind at break-time, lunch and after school. With reference to lunch detention, McCann (2017) suggests that it provides time for teachers and administrators to interact with learners. According to McCann (2017), the foregoing view is supported by a study done by Grazak (2013) which concluded that lunch time detention offered the time to reflect on a number of aspects like pass rates, school attendance and activities within the school. One can infer that in general detention results in relationship building between teachers and learners.

However, the use of detention as an alternative to corporal punishment has received some criticism. It has been observed that it impedes the formal teaching and learning process thereby negatively affecting academic attainment if it becomes a routine (Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018). In agreement, Moyo et al. (2014) argue that detention has negative effects on the cognitive, emotional and social development of the learners. I have noticed that the use of detention as an alternative disciplinary measure is more of an extension of corporal punishment as it has some harmful psychological effects on learners.

2.12.8 Role Modelling

Role modelling is one of the identified alternative disciplinary measures. In role modelling, teachers display the good behaviour they expect their learners to emulate. Govender and Sookrajh (2014) point out that there is need for teachers to model the behaviour they want from the learners which is reflected in a caring attitude and confidence in teaching without the implementation of corporal punishment. If well implemented, this is an effective substitute for corporal punishment. However, it has been observed that the use of role modelling has some challenges. The most significant one noted in the lack of models amongst teachers and parents. Sibanda and Mpofu (2017) highlight that some teachers tend not to be good models as they engage in anti-social behaviour like alcohol consumption and cigarette smoking in the full view of learners. This indicates that there is a lack of role

models amongst teachers, parents and guardians making its use as an alternative a challenge.

2.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter focused on a review of related literature under various headings and sub-headings. The chapter explored the concept of corporal punishment noting its different forms and approaches. In the chapter, there was a review of the effects of corporal punishment. Literature on factors that influence teachers to utilise corporal punishment was also reviewed. The chapter also focused on the declarations that prohibit corporal punishment in different settings. Literature on the policies and legal frameworks on corporal punishment in selected African states was discussed. Furthermore, the chapter reviewed literature on selected countries outside the African continent that have made great strides in abolishing corporal punishment. Programmes that assist in controlling corporal punishment usage and alternatives disciplinary ways were also discussed in the chapter. The next chapter will look at the theoretical framework.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explored the theoretical framework that informed the current study. The System Justification Theory (SJT) informed this study. A brief overview of the theory is given followed by an outline of the key ideas. The applicability of the SJT based on different perspectives on the aspect of corporal punishment is given. On the application aspect, I address the religious, cultural, children's rights and psychological perspectives on corporal punishment.

3.2 THE SYSTEMS JUSTIFICATION THEORY

The SJT was developed by Jost and Banaji in 1994 (van der Toorn & Jost, 2014). According to the SJT, people are driven to perceive the current societal, commercial and political systems as valid and fair in part because of their need to consider the world as an impartial and unbiased place (Jost, 2018). Blasi and Jost (2006) further state that the magnitude to which such a drive is articulated in terms of attitudes and conduct varies by person and situation. The SJT argues that there are intentions to assess the status quo positively which often conflicts with self- and group interests thereby altering the system that disadvantages their group (Jost, 2018; van der Toorn & Jost, 2014). Consequently, Jost, Banaji and Nosek (2004) argue that the system justification intentions often function at an inherent, non-conscious degree of awareness. Furthermore, Owuamalam, Rubin and Spears (2018) explain that the SJT posits that people have an inborn urge to reinforce social systems even if they infringe on their individual and collective interests.

According to Blasi and Jost (2006) social systems tend not to propagate the psychological views that differ from the family arrangements to bigger organisational establishments and societal foundations. This implies that there are differences in relations among persons or clusters within the social environment. The SJT as viewed by Blasi and Jost (2006) suggests that people are inspired to acknowledge and maintain characteristics of the prevailing social arrangements even if they were attained accidentally, haphazardly or unjustly. Phelan and Rudman (2011) state that system justification inclinations exhibit themselves in an appeal to sustain and to

defend the status quo. Such intentions can impede taking action to correct the current differences or group based disparities.

People will not continually or explicitly support the current situation; indeed, ego or group rationalisation can outweigh the system justification drives in particular settings (Blasi & Jost, 2006; Jost, 2018; van der Toorn & Jost, 2014). Furthermore, Phelan and Rudman (2011) state that firm support for the system may direct people towards social imbalances and, therefore, stifle backing for any policies put in place to remedy them. Systems are ever-changing depending on the epoch; hence, Blasi and Jost (2006) point out that the relevance of an organisational arrangement, whether a family system, religious convention, industrial routine, organisational arrangement, union regulations, or wider socio-economic or political order can change overtime. This implies that any system can be used to rationalise the prevailing system. However, any policy which proposes that the status quo is biased may be intimidating; therefore, it is rejected. There is a proposition that alternatives to the status quo tend to be denigrated, with the consequent propagation of inequalities (Jost & Banaji, 1994; Jost & van der Toorn, 2012; Wakslak, Jost & Bauer, 2011).

In the context of this study, the SJT theoretical framework would mean that some people may reject change as they feel it is in conflict with their current values. On the other hand, some may accept the change because it has a positive bearing on their welfare.

3.3 TENETS OF THE SYSTEMS JUSTIFICATION THEORY

This section looks at the key tenets of the SJT as proffered by the scholars who subscribe to this school of thought.

3.3.1 Ego, Group and System Justification Motive

Jost and Banaji (1994), distinguished among three diverse justification inclinations and reasons that may contradict one another for members of both the privileged and the deprived groups. The first one is ego validation, which Blasi and Jost (2006) view as the broad tendency to conserve or foster individual self-esteem and to understand the world in ways that are self-centred. Furthermore, ego justification is described as

the desire to create and retain a positive self-perception and to feel genuine as an individual. In this case, there is an appeal for favourable worldview about oneself (Jost et al., 2004; Jost 2018). The second one is group justification which Blasi and Jost (2006) view as the propensity to maintain and articulate more favourable opinions about groups to which one is affiliated in comparison with other groups. In addition, Owuamalam, Rubin and Spears (2018) view collective justification as the wish to develop and preserve a favourable impression of one's own group to protect and validate the actions of associates in the group. The third intention is the systems justification which embraces societal and mental requirements to authenticate the status quo and to see it as worthy, just, natural and acceptable or even unavoidable (Vargas-Salfate, Paez, Khan, Liu & Gil de Zuniga, 2018). Furthermore, Blasi and Jost (2006) point out that people have an autonomous system justification urge to preserve and rationalise systems that they are involved in, even if their roles in the systems culminate in some form of tension or inconsistency among the self, group and underlying system.

The self, collective and system explanation are in conflict for those who are disadvantaged by the current order. Such persons are basically less likely to consider the prevailing system as just and valid compared to those who are privileged (Jost, Burgess & Mosso 2001, Jost, Chaikalis-Petratsis, Abrams, Sidanius, van der Toorn & Bratt, 2012; Owuamalam et al., 2018). In addition, in such a theoretical context, affiliates of the less privileged people are likely to advocate for social transformation only when self-justification and/or collective validation drives overwhelm the effectiveness of the systems rationalisation needs and inclinations (Jost et al., 2004). Blasi and Jost (2006) go on to say the SJT enquiry explores not simply the information for the presence of the system validation motive, but also how the system rationalisation drives interrelate with other contesting motives to influence perceptions and behaviour.

Accordingly, people who are comparatively disadvantaged by a system are subject to more psychological challenges as a discrepancy emanates from the contradiction among individual, group and organisational rationalisation motives (Blasi & Jost 2006; Jost, 2018; Owuamalam et al., 2018). The scholars further argue that if individuals had no system validation motives, then one who was underprivileged on

either personal or collective basis would, granted the slightest chance, contest the system and reject it as unjust and abusive. Blasi and Jost (2006) also argue that system justification is coherent with self-regard for the populace which is advantaged by the prevailing scenario but incompatible with the self-interest for the less privileged members. This is the case because the privileged are the keen advocates of the status quo, although not necessarily continuously.

According to Blasi and Jost (2006), every person belongs to various societal systems which include the family, work organisations, societal groups, religious groups and countries in which one may be driven to rationalise numerous situations and some validations may oppose with each other. Blasi and Jost (2006) go on to say that, under situations of philosophical contradiction amongst contesting social agreements, the individual's choice of the system to validate will be decided by a number of factors. These may take into account dispositional influences such as the person's allegiance to particular values and institutions, grounded on prior experience. Situational influences also come into effect such as the extent of generalisation that is stimulated by the circumstances.

Considering the above description regarding self, group and organisational justification drives, in this study it would mean there is a tendency to protect the values that favour one's perceptions within the context of a group in the process of defending and maintaining the prevailing order. This may have an influence on the perceptions on whether to accommodate or reject the change.

3.3.2 Motive behind High Appeal of the Status Quo

According to Blasi and Jost (2006) the SJT advances that different levels of situational and dispositional influences drive people to retain, validate and explain the society's status quo. The use of a system justification provides a rationale for why people are connected to a number of intertwined belief systems. Furthermore, Blasi and Jost (2006) postulate that socio-political belief systems provide instant justifications for facets of the status quo that people feel obliged to protect and justify. On the intention to preserve the status quo, Blasi and Jost (2006) assert that the system validation process seems to function at both the overt level and the

innate level of understanding. As a result, people may not be cognisant of the degree to which they are propagating the status quo and opposing change.

3.3.3 Rationalisation of the Status Quo

According to the SJT, individuals are motivated to conserve and rationalise the societal status quo (Jost & van der Torn, 2012; Owuamalam et al., 2018). The SJT also highlights that people authenticate not only their own conduct, interests and those of affiliate group members, but also characteristics of the neither shared status quo that they neither decide nor initially desire (Blasi & Jost 2006; Jost, Gaucher & Stern, 2015). The drive is assumed to originate from basic epistemic, existential and interpersonal needs, meaning desires to minimise uncertainty, handle threats and sustain an awareness of collectively shared experience respectively (Jost, Ledgerwood & Hardin, 2008). As can be observed, people can even go to the extent of predicting threats to the current order so as to protect it. Furthermore, rationalisation requirements of the system are satisfactorily attended to by people forecasting likely results and justifying them beforehand, to the level where people are highly motivated to protect the system (Owuamalam et al., 2018).

With regard to this study, the resistance to a new order like the abolishment of corporal punishment may be taken as a threat to the existing order hence the variation in perceptions from the affected stakeholders.

3.3.4 Social and Psychological Moderators of System Justification

Character and the surroundings are significant agents in system justification which are generally conveyed through dispositional and situational bases of variability (Jost, 2018; Jost, Liviatan, van der Toorn, Ledgerwood, Mandisonza & Nosek, 2010). The topics to be discussed in this section include the dispositional and situational foundations of dissimilarity.

3.3.4.1 Dispositional sources of variability: Uncertainty and threat management

In terms of the dispositional influences, Blasi and Jost (2006) postulate that people who have intensified needs to handle uncertainty and intimidation are likely to adopt traditional, system rationalisation philosophies. Furthermore, the psychological desires to minimise uncertainty link with system justification because the status quo

understandings are well known and specified (Blasi & Jost, 2006; Jost et al., 2010; Jost, 2018; Kay & Friesen, 2011). As a result, validating the current situation gratifies numerous needs, embracing epistemic expectations for stability, rationality and certainty and existential requirements to administer several kinds of threat and pain as a way of finding meaning in life (Blasi & Jost, 2006; Hennes, Nam, Stern & Jost 2012; Vargas-Salfate et al., 2018).

In essence, these scholars emphasise that people endorse the devil they are acquainted with as less threatening compared to the one they are not aware of; hence, they are resistant to change. With reference to this study, teachers may stick to corporal punishment as they may be conditioned to it compared to the new methods that may be introduced.

3.3.4.2 Situational source of variability: System threat and mortality salience

According to Owuamalam et al. (2018), there is a tendency by people to evade doubt by validating and supporting the prevailing order. In addition, van der Toorn, Tyler and Jost (2011) asserted that people see the established system-justifying values as more appealing under circumstances of extreme system threats. People react protectively to any intimidation aimed at disrupting their personal and social identity and act jealously to preserve the current order (Jost, 2018; Laurin, Shepherd & Kay, 2010). This implies that threats to the status quo, whether explicit or implied, aggravate profound effects and drive people to conserve the social organisation (Blasi & Jost 2006; Jost, 2018; Whitson, Galinsky & Kay, 2015). Thus, the conservative reaction which can be inherent restores optimism, but can have unforeseen and, to some extent, negative outcomes (Laurin et al., 2010).

In the context of this study, this would mean that any move that is seen interfering the security of the prevailing social order is not accepted promptly by people. This may result in conflict within a community hence the mixed perceptions towards the abolishment of corporal punishment.

3.3.4.3 Personality and individual differences: Self-deception and other motives

Conceptualising system validation trends as an objectively driven act proposes that one should take into consideration personal variations in intentions alongside

approved ideological viewpoints which support the current situation (Jost, Gaucher & Stern, 2015; Jost et al., 2004; Jost, 2018). For Jost et al. (2010), the system justification intention can be arrived at if one can alter perceptions of the prevailing order as a way of avoiding confronting the divergence between the actual state and individual or common values.

This implies that people react differently whenever changes are put in place. With regard to this study, primary school teachers may adopt or reject the laws that abolished corporal punishment.

3.3.4.4 System justification and goal pursuit

System justification motives seem to support attributes of goal-directed conduct and there should be various ways of gratifying the system justification aims, including direct and inferred ways of validating it. Thus, attaining the system justification goal satisfies a number of intentions, qualifying it as a possible motivational influence (Jost, 2018; Jost & Hunday, 2005; Vargas-Salfate et al., 2018). Furthermore, system justification gratifies at least three significant categories of psychological needs which are epistemic, existential and relational desires. In addition, the epistemic desires tend to minimise uncertainty and generate a stable, anticipated worldview (Hennes et al., 2012; Jost & Hunday 2005; Vargas-Salfate et al., 2018). Jost (2018) states the existential desires address change threats by identifying a safe and conducive environment. The relational needs strive to attain common reality with significant others, associates and the family including those who have organisational legitimisation desires (Jost, 2018; Vargas-Salfate et al., 2018).

Arguably, one can conclude that that these three facets of the SJT to a greater or lesser extent influence people to safeguard the existing order, blocking any change which may be felt to be a threat. With reference to this study, teachers may thus choose not to implement the prescribed alternatives to corporal punishment.

3.4 OUTCOMES OF SYSTEM JUSTIFICATION

3.4.1 The Palliative Role of System Justification

The palliative function of the SJT is that component largely concerned with the welfare of people in terms of enhancing the self-esteem and life gratification (Jost,

2018; Ozmen, Brelsford & Danieu, 2017; Vargas-Salfate et al., 2018). Jost et al. (2010) posit that system justification provides for certain psychological roles without considering details of its developmental origins. Furthermore, it has been proposed that system legitimisation acts as a medium that enables eliminating insecurity and threats to social arrangements (Hennes et al. 2012; Jost et al. 2008; Whitson et al., 2015). System justification is therefore supportive as it helps people to manage and feel comfortable with the status quo and their standing in it (Jost, 2018; Vargas-Salfate et al., 2018). In agreement, Blasi and Jost (2006) postulate that system justifications have a palliative role, at least in the short term. This is the case because it functions as a coping tool for both the privileged and disadvantaged members, lessening fear, insecurity and suffering thereby having helpful rather than undesirable effects.

To be understood from the discussion on palliative function of system justification is that, although the SJT informs that change may be considered to be a threat to the existing system, it may have positive results. Thus, some people are quick to take it on board as it will protect the vulnerable members of society and promote fairness. In this exploration, this could mean that change brought about by the abolishment of corporal punishment would bring out justice and protection for the insecure learners.

3.4.2 Implications for Change and Adaptation to a New Regime

Blasi and Jost (2006) point out that when the status quo transforms or seem likely to change, an individual must adapt to it. They further assert that substitutes to the current order may be unfavourable when they seem unfeasible, but these options will be more appealing because of their probability of success. According to the SJT, transformation almost propagates defiance but innovation take place as people will ultimately accept what they initially considered to be unsustainable (Blasi & Jost 2006; Jost, 2015; van der Toorn & Jost, 2012). Blasi and Jost (2006) further postulate that when the status quo is openly established, for example, by a court verdict, new legislation, a referendum or a military coup, people view the arising social agreements in highly appealing terms and start to validate and legitimise the new system. Once an establishment attains an impression of irrevocability, system justification intentions urge people to employ the legitimisation process that will strengthen the new order, thereby doing away with the old one (Laurin, 2018; Laurin,

Kay & Fitzsimons, 2012). Furthermore, in terms of the SJT, preliminary resistance to transformation is bigger than other theories would forecast, yet adjustment to change is simpler (Blasi & Jost, 2006; Jost, 2015; Jost, 2018).

In this investigation, the resistance margin for change may be high but, in the long run, people will accept it. This may apply to the perceptions of those primary school teachers who tend to resist the abolishment of punitive disciplinary approaches in the Zimbabwean context as they will finally adopt the new laws for the good of the learners.

3. 5 APPLICATION OF THE SYSTEM JUSTIFICATION THEORY TO THE STUDY

The perspectives referred to include the cultural, religious, psychological and children's rights.

3. 5.1The System Justification Theory and Religion

Jost et al. (2004) point out that by adopting a system legitimisation perspective, the vital but under-estimated role of religion serves as a philosophical validation for the present societal arrangements. This establishes that, for adherents, religious principles are valid and fair, and are attractive to obey and preserve. Jost et al. (2004) consider the prospect that religious beliefs rationalise systems in relation to their contents, outcomes and causal motivational structure. In clarifying this position, Jost et al. (2008) point out that those religious philosophies are interrelated with the epistemic, existential and relational intentions to acquire assurance, security and solidarity. On the relational aspect, religion enables people with the same line of thought to affiliate and harmonise with one another to preserve a unique social identity in terms of norms and codes of conduct (Graham & Haidt, 2010). It has been proposed that the desire to share reality is higher among religious believers than non-believers. According to Jost et al. (2008) religious beliefs, like any other philosophy, provide the relational role of developing a collective understanding of reality which assists in sustaining and coordinating vital social interactions. Religion also performs the palliative duty of generating happiness amongst people so that they are gratified with the prevailing state of affairs, and, thus, are less likely to oppose the status quo.

In essence, the views related to religion could mean that those teachers who ascribe to such views could justify their actions based on religion. From the Christian point of view, Biblical verses like Proverbs 3:11-12; 13:24; 19:18; 20:30; 27:15; 23:13-14 could be used as justification to inflict corporal punishment on learners and claim that such actions are instructions from God. To expand on this view, Engulu and Harris (2017) mention that learners in church managed educational centres tend to be exposed to caning. As a result, Christians may apply the SJT in justifying the reasons why they reject the interdict on punishing learners in basic education learning institutions.

In Islam, corporal punishment is allowed basing on the Sharia law. Under the Sharia law, the motive behind punishing minors is to mould acceptable behaviour and at the same time ensure loyalty to the Islamic religious law (Gith, 2014). With reference to this study, it implies that there is a high probability that there will be a rejection of any statutes and guidelines which call for the ban on punishing learners in Islamic learning institutions.

3. 5.2 Systems Justification and Culture

Cultural beliefs have a bearing on the contentious issue of punishing children, physically and emotionally. Most cultures are pro-corporal punishment which they consider as a vital aspect of their child-raising process (Makewa et al., 2017). In addition, Rentein (2010) states that it is not easy for individuals to abandon some traditional values as culture impacts on mental processes and behaviour. The ego, collective and system rationalisation of the SJT come into effect here. In this instance, people tend to protect and bolster the application of corporal punishment as legitimate and may develop perceptions that reject its abolishment. This belief could be considered as a defence for such types of remedial action in society even if they are aware of the legal framework governing the welfare of children.

3. 5.3 The System Justification and Children's Rights

Children's rights have become a fundamental aspect of global society; hence, it becomes imperative that all forms of corporal punishment administered to children should be brought to an end. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation [UNESCO] (2005) clearly states that hitting children violates their basic

rights to respect for their physical integrity and human worth as laid down in the UDHR and ICCPR. According to Article 19 of the CRC of 1989 children should be protected from all forms of physical or emotional aggression. The Committee on the Rights of the Child, the treaty body for the Convention, has tirelessly called for the abolition of all forms of corporal punishment even in the family.

UNESCO (2005) points out that corporal punishment is counter-productive, futile, unsafe and harmful, implying that it cannot be accepted as it has no place in today's society. Zimbabwe as a signatory to this convention abolished corporal punishment in schools as contained in Section 53 of the Zimbabwe Constitution (2013).

Velez (2016) proposes that established human rights principles require abolishment of all corporal punishment. This takes cognisance of the changing opinions about child development and social settings that add strong arguments against corporal punishment. Thus, the CRC (1989) has shown the way forward to positive discipline practices that respect the child's worth and foster socially acceptable behaviour, self-control and good character. It goes on to mention that there is need to boost the child's involvement bearing in mind the child's developmental needs and the nature of life. The CRC (1989) also values the child's motivation and life opinions guaranteeing impartiality and transformative fairness.

One can note that from a children's rights perspective, corporal punishment in the school and home has been overtaken by global developments. The system is no longer justifiable as there is a need to adopt better alternatives which are considered to be fair and transformative in nature while simultaneously promoting solidarity. As this perspective is transformative, it embraces the SJT particularly with reference to implications for change and adaptation to a new order to which people must adjust. In line with the CRC of 1989, corporal punishment is inhumane implying that implementation of alternatives will be more attractive. However, some teachers may hold the perceptions that conserving the old system of administering corporal punishment in line with cultural and religious perspectives no longer has any psychological value so they will stop justifying its existence. This is evident with a high number of countries worldwide, including Zimbabwe, having constitutionally abolished corporal punishment in all community settings, showing that alternatives to corporal punishment have been adopted: this is supported by the SJT.

The implication for this study is that change may generate resistance, but transformation can occur as people will finally embrace what they once thought of as invalid (Blasi & Jost, 2006; Jost, 2018).

3. 5.4The System Justification Theory and the Psychological Perspective

Current trends in psychology have linked corporal punishment with a number of side effects which encompass social and psychological disorders (Durrant & Ensom, 2017). It has been established that the corporal punishment has resulted in a high prevalence of deviant behaviours such as aggression and delinquency both inside and outside the school (Khatete & Matanda, 2014). As Gebrezgabiher and Hailu (2017) suggest, through the application of corporal punishment, the child develops a sense of vulnerability, violence, shame, self-doubt, guilty conscience and social withdrawal, a feeling of inferiority and high levels of fear which may affect one's self-concept negatively.

From the psychological perspective, the abolishment is acceptable, in favour of alternative disciplinary measures, which reject the idea of corporal punishment. Of relevance to this study, is that if teachers were to consider the negative effects of corporal punishment, there would be fewer cases of corporal punishment in schools.

3. 6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter gave a synopsis of the SJT. The chapter further looked at the key tenets of the SJT. Some of the key tenets are the ego, group and system justification motives, the high appeal and rationalisation of the status quo.The social and psychological moderators of system justification were also looked at. The chapter also reviewed the outcomes of system justification with particular emphasis on the palliative function and implications for change and adaptation to a new regime. The chapter also focused on how the SJT is applicable to the current study with reference to the religious, cultural, children's rights and psychological perspectives. The next chapter sets out the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter looks at the research paradigm, the role of the researcher and the research approach. The chapter presents a discussion on the single case study design, population and sampling and an overview of the participants. The contextual descriptions of the study and site selection are focused on in the chapter. The data generation approaches and the way data is analysed are discussed. Furthermore, how trustworthiness of the data is ensured is addressed in the chapter. Ethical principles are discussed in line with the study.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

As indicated in Chapter 1, this study used the interpretivist research paradigm. In the next section, I discuss and substantiate interpretivism as the informing paradigm.

4.2.1 Interpretivism

I adopted the interpretivist research paradigm in exploring the primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwe to gain an understanding of the complexity of a phenomenon from the point of view of participants as informed by Riyami (2015).This is a lived experience of the participants implying that the meaning attached to the abolishment of corporal punishment is a social reality. This study was informed by the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions of interpretivism.

4.2.2 Ontological Assumptions

Ontology determines the researcher's assumptions on what constitutes reality. Embedded in ontology is the rational understanding of the character and structure of social reality (Creswell, 2013). The central ontological question guiding this research is, "What are the primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment?" Thus, from the interpretivist paradigm, social reality is subjective as it is interpreted through the perceptions of the participants (Shah & Al-Bargi, 2013). I explored and described the variations in meaning relating to the ban

on corporal punishment as they emerged from the data that was generated. This assisted me to get insights into the teachers' views which form the reality of the phenomenon thereby establishing faith in the data generated through individual semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews and field notes.

4.2.3 Epistemological Assumptions

Epistemology refers to the philosophical perspective of knowledge entrenched in our understanding of the context around us and what is considered as worthwhile knowledge (Walliman, 2011). Interpretivism assumes that the world can be understood in person as a result of our perceptions which are motivated by predeterminations, beliefs and standards as people are not passive observers but actively involved in society (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). I, thus, interviewed primary school teachers in their schools to acquire an understanding of their individual experiences linked to the problem under study. This was basically the case because people interact with their social context and come up with meanings premised on their culture and history as informed by Creswell and Creswell (2018). As noted in Chapter 1 of this study, corporal punishment has a historical base in the Zimbabwean context; hence, the abolishment had various interpretations attached to it which I established from participants through semi-structured interviews and focus-group interviews.

Furthermore, interpretivism assumes that knowledge is attained inductively through personal experiences within the context of the society (Mack, 2010). Thus, interpretivism assumes that research findings are based on the data gathered within the context of the study. I established the personal experiences of participants in their school contexts on the abolishment of corporal punishment from the data generated during semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews and field notes. Thus, I adopted the inductive approach to acquire knowledge as it emerged from the participants.

4.2.4 Methodological Assumptions

Methodological suppositions entail the rationality and organisation of the orderly process of doing research which enables one to acquire knowledge related to the problem (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The interpretivist paradigm applies interactive

methods of data generation through interviews to probe the phenomenon under study (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). I personally interacted with the research participants. As argued by Mertens (2010), personal interaction enables the researcher to generate multiple worldviews on the problem under study. I used open-ended, individual semi-structured interviews and focus-group interviews supported by field notes to obtain the views of the participants on the phenomenon being studied. The more open-ended the nature of the questioning technique was, the more manifold views of the participants were obtained in exploring the problem (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

4.3 THE ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) aver that rapport established by the researcher with the participants determines the role to be undertaken within the context of the group or site to be studied. Before undertaking the study, I obtained an ethical clearance from the College of Education Research Ethics Committee of the University of South Africa. I sought for a clearance to undertake the study from the MoPSE. I identified participants who were rich informants in the area under study and sought informed consent from them before I started the interviews. During the interviews, I took notes and audio recorded the conservations. Field notes were written at each site I visited. Audio recorded data was transcribed verbatim for presentation and analysis purposes.

4.4 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

I adopted the qualitative research approach in this study. Qualitative research is an approach whose thrust is to explore personal meaning or social creation of matters, occurrences or practices by generating non-standardised data, examining texts and representations in natural settings (Flick, 2014). Using the qualitative research approach allowed me to collect data in a natural setting (schools) and to obtain an understanding of a social reality (how primary school teachers perceived the abolishment of punishment). I embraced the qualitative research approach because the overall purpose was to explore and describe the perceptions of primary schools teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment from an insider's perspective. In

this case I obtained multiple views of the research participants on the research problem.

Considering the influence of the study context on participants' views I conducted interviews with primary school teachers in their natural contexts, namely, in the school set up. I gained insights from the research participants on their perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment which constituted the social reality.

Additionally, the qualitative research approach was suitable for this study because of its flexibility. In qualitative research, the investigator is afforded the opportunity to explore emerging valuable topics as they are discovered (Madrigal & McCain, 2012). I adapted the questions used in the individual semi-structured interviews and focus-group interviews several times to cater for significant data which emanated during the course of data generation but had not been catered for in the interview guide. This was in line with Creswell and Creswell's (2018) view that the qualitative research journey is not rigidly determined before the study begins as certain or all stages of the research procedure can be altered after the commencement of data generation by the researcher. Through the flexible nature of the adopted approach, I was able to probe the problem being studied in depth.

Qualitative research gives priority to information rich descriptions which could be words or pictorial representations rather than numerals though simple statistical data may be used to present certain data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Thus, in this study, verbatim excerpts of the participants' opinions were widely quoted in presenting, analysing and discussing the findings (See Chapter 5). Through the verbatim extracts, I encapsulated the words of the research participants on their perceptions on the phenomenon under study.

In the qualitative research approach, knowledge is attained inductively. This means that it is interactive and views emerge from the participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018; Creswell, 2013). I conducted this exploration without predetermined ideas, thereby avoiding bias in the interpretation of findings.

4.5 CASE STUDY RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a plot instituted for structuring the research and ensuring the feasibility of answering research questions based on evidence (Cohen et al., 2018). A single case study design informed this study. Yin (2018) describes a single case study as a case selected because of its uniqueness and relevance to the research problem. The single case study in this research is Mashonaland West Province.

I adopted the embedded single case design. An embedded case study is a case study containing more than one sub-unit of analysis. Yin (2018:287) defines an embedded unit of analysis as “a unit lesser than and within the main case in a case study, from which data also are collected”. For this study, out of the ten provinces in Zimbabwe, Mashonaland West Province was selected as the case. I selected four primary schools as the sub-units studied within the larger case to explore in detail the real-life phenomenon under study.

The single case study enabled me to focus on sub-units that were positioned within the larger case thereby exploring in detail the real life phenomenon under study as advised by Yin (2018). In this context,

The single case study design has demerits. Willig (2013) asserts that Positivists claim that the case study has been criticised for low levels of generalisability. This did not distract me from adapting the single case design which is an element of the case study as I did not intend to generalise the outcomes of the study collectively but to enlighten on the perceptions of primary school teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment. The other limitation of the single case study is lack of methodological rigour (Willis, 2014). I attended to this through triangulation of data sources and data generation methods. I selected four primary schools as sub units from which data was generated. I also used individual semi–structured interviews and focus groups interviews with similar questions asked which were complemented with field notes to ensure credibility of the study.

4.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

There were 759 primary schools in Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe as of 2018 (MoPSE, 2019). All primary schools and teachers constituted the target population for study.

I used purposive non-probability sampling in this study. This was used for the cases and units of analysis. Out of the ten provinces in Zimbabwe, Mashonaland West Province was purposively selected because it is one the largest provinces with the highest number of primary schools with seven administrative districts. In purposive non-probability sampling, the inquirer handpicks the individuals and sites based on their known attributes in relation to the problem under study (Taherdoost, 2016). I invited participants whom I assumed to be knowledgeable on the phenomenon under study to take part. Selecting such participants was in line with Denscombe (2014) who articulates that purposive sampling provides ways of obtaining significant information by choosing key participants with the likelihood of having experience to proffer valuable information on the phenomenon under study. Additionally, as Patton (2015) asserts, purposive sampling provides insights and a detailed understanding of the research problem. I sampled 24 teachers from the four primary schools who shared views on the abolishment of corporal punishment. The criteria for selecting participants included the following:

- Teachers with the longest teaching experience.
- Teachers from schools where there have been a number of reported cases of corporal punishment.
- Teachers who were members of disciplinary committees.
- Teachers who served on counselling committees.

Purposive sampling has been criticised by the positivist for having low levels in terms of representation and generalisability, however, this allowed me to pick sites and informants that were rich in information as informed by Cohen et al. (2018). I selected teachers from different committees that deal with discipline, with the longest teaching experience and schools where high cases of corporal punishment have been reported. High level of researcher bias has been seen as another drawback of

purposive sampling, (Sharma, 2017). I mitigated on this by coming up with a criteria to select participants as discussed above.

Table 4.1 provides the profile of the selected participants.

Table 4.1: Overview of participants

PARTICIPANTS	GENDER	QUALIFICATIONS	TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN YEARS
Participant 1	Female	BSc Psychology	23
Participant 2	Female	BSc Special Needs	26
Participant 3	Female	B.Ed. Primary	21
Participant 4	Male	Certificate in Education	28
Participant 5	Male	Diploma In Education	24
Participant 6	Male	B.Ed. Primary	29
Participant 7	Male	B.Tech	30
Participant 8	Male	B.Ed. Management	31
Participant 9	Female	Diploma In Education	22
Participant 10	Female	BSc Psychology	21
Participant 11	Female	BSc Sport	25
Participant 12	Male	B.Ed. Primary	24
Participant 13	Female	Bed (Honours) in ECD	26
Participant 14	Male	Diploma in Education	21
Participant 15	Male	Diploma in Education	22
Participant 16	Female	BSc Special Needs	28
Participant 17	Male	BSc in Physical Education	20
Participant 18	Female	Diploma in Education	20
Participant 19	Male	B.Ed. Management	33
Participant 20	Male	Med (Educational Psychology)	21
Participant 21	Male	Certificate in Education	33
Participant 22	Female	MSc in Special Needs Education	24
Participant 23	Female	BSc Geography	29
Participant 24	Female	Diploma in Education	24

4.7 CONTEXTUAL DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

In the qualitative research approach, the context of the study is a natural setting (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Athens (2010) points out that research done in a natural setting implies that the investigator is strategically situated within the field of

study. In this instance, schools were regarded natural settings. These schools were regarded as the natural settings because that is where teachers worked daily. The context of each school is described below.

4.8 SELECTION OF SITES

This section provides a description of the selected sites in this study.

4.8.1 School A

School A is a mainstream school located in a low density suburb. The school had an enrolment of 1 480 learners. It had a staff establishment of 37 members who are all qualified. In terms of gender, eight teachers were men and 29 were women. The school was expanding in terms of infrastructure to cater for the ever-increasing enrolments. It was characterised by double learning sessions where some learners attended school in the morning and others in the afternoon. The school was located in a quiet environment which facilitates effective teaching and learning. The grounds are well maintained with clear designated pathways.

4.8.2 School B

School B was established in a high-density area. The school had an enrolment of 2 400 learners and a staff establishment of 56 teachers who were all qualified of which six were men and 50 were women. It was situated in a noisy environment. The noise from the shopping centre sometimes interfered with school activities. The school looked overpopulated because of the limited space with such a large enrolment. There were double sessions of learning activities to manage the large learner numbers. In terms of infrastructure, there were old and new buildings. There were clear pathways demarcated with perimeter fences from the flower beds.

4.8.3 School C

School C was situated in a high-density suburb in the midst of residential houses. It had an enrolment of 2 700 learners. The school had a staff establishment of 66 teachers (eight men and 58 women). It looked overcrowded because it was built on a small property which could not accommodate the large enrolment. Because of high

numbers, it ran double sessions from Grade 1 to Grade 7. It comprised both old and modern buildings. The grounds were fairly maintained and clean.

4.8.4 School D

This school was also a mainstream school which was located in a high-density suburb. School D had 1 600 learners from Early Childhood Development to Grade 7. The school had a staff complement of 40 teachers (six men and 34 women). It was close to a shopping centre which was very busy. Of all the schools selected for this study, it had the smallest space implying there was overcrowding because of the high learner enrolments. The school did not have space for playgrounds. Generally, the school grounds were dusty and there were no designated pathways as in the other sites. The school had old classroom structures as there was no room for further expansion of modern buildings.

4.9 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

This section discusses the data generation approaches I used in the study. The section begins by describing the pre-procedural process and proceeds to the description of data generation instruments I used.

4.9.1 Pre-Procedural Process

I held mutual informal meetings with all participants after inviting them in writing. In these pre-procedural meetings, I discussed ethical issues to do with informed consent and confidentiality in line with the study. This is supported by Jacob and Furgerson (2012) who state that through pre-procedural sessions, the researcher establishes issues to do with informed consent and the participants' willingness to take part in the research. The participants agreed to take part in the investigation where we mutually agreed on the date, time and a venue which was private, quiet and comfortable for the interview (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). I conducted the individual semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews in the staffrooms where these conditions were met as non-participating teachers, non-teaching staff and school administrators were informed of the interviews. At this stage, I advised the participants of the duration of the interviews.

The purpose was to build rapport with the research participants as they were engaged in a relaxed mood as informal questions were asked. I followed Jacob and Furgerson's guidelines (2012) in building a rapport with participants by engaging participants in discussion or a conversation. These pre-procedural meetings were applicable to both individual semi-structured interviews and focus-group interviews.

4.9.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

I utilised individual semi-structured interviews to generate data from the primary school teachers (See Appendix G). Semi-structured interviews allowed the creation of a calm and comfortable environment in which the participants could freely express their views on the problem under study, opening new routes for the researcher to pursue (Evangelinou-Yiannakis, 2017).

As the primary school teachers had a full timetable, I avoided interfering with teaching and learning time. Thus, those participants undertaking their teaching in the afternoon sessions were interviewed before lessons began; in this instance, in the mornings. For those teaching in the morning sessions, the interviews were conducted in the afternoons. The medium of communication was English and each interview took between thirty minutes and an hour.

The individual semi-structured interviews were adaptable as they accommodated a broad spectrum of research intentions and allowed the researcher to involve participants wholly in the discussion (Galletta, 2013). I used individual semi-structured interviews to explore the social and personal issues in depth.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), individual semi-structured interviews allow the use of open-ended questions that help the participants to put across their perceptions, in this case, their opinions about the abolishment of corporal punishment. Using semi-structured interviews allowed me to be flexible and to change wording and provide explanations where needed. Furthermore, inappropriate questions were omitted and additional ones were asked (Mandieva & Gebel, 2019). Additionally, through probes I was able to ask participants to cover, expound, exemplify, clarify and qualify their answers, thereby focusing on the comprehensiveness of the responses as Wellington (2015) asserts. As a result, through probing I generated a wide range of rich data on the research problem.

In undertaking this study, I did some follow-up interviews for clarification and elaboration of the perceptions. Through these interviews, I further created trust and reinforced relationships with participants on the primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment. Two sessions of follow-up interviews were done to the point where data saturation was attained and I thereafter brought the interviews to an end. Data saturation is a situation when no new information significant to the phenomenon under study arises from the interviews (Charmaz, 2014). I administered individual semi-structured interviews to eight teachers from the four primary schools that were studied. The interviews were audio recorded and supported by note-taking with the consent of the participants.

The main drawback of semi–structured interviews is that they are time consuming (Descombe, 2014). In some instances the interviews went beyond the expected 30 minutes, going up to an hour. I noticed that the interviews were long because the responses from the teachers were detailed. In this study, I did not consider this as a demerit but a chance to capture detailed data from the participants, which helped in exploring the phenomenon with a deeper understanding.

4.9.3 Focus-Group Interviews

I conducted focus-group interviews with primary school teachers. The participants responded to same questions asked in semi-structured interviews (Appendix F) to enhance trustworthiness. A focus group is a meticulously coordinated sequence of dialogue intended to acquire views in a permissive and friendly environment (Krueger & Casey, 2012). Thus, focus groups are a group semi-structured interview arranged by the researcher to generate data from the participants.

I utilised two focus groups, each with eight participants. The number of the participants in each focus group agrees with the view that a group of six to eight discussants with similar characteristics who converge in a conversation on a specific set of topics constitute a focus group (Hennik, 2014). To cater for the issue of homogeneity in this study, no school administrators were invited to the focus groups. Only teachers constituted the focus groups. Willig (2013) asserts that this prevents power dynamics in which some participants may not be comfortable to air their

views. By doing so, I ensured that the teachers could freely provide views as they were at the same level in terms of their status at work.

Focus-group interviews are effective when the environmental setup is accommodative and non-threatening (Krueger & Casey, 2012). To attain this, I agreed on operational guidelines with the participants before beginning the interviews in creating a conducive environment that enhanced free expression in a friendly and open way. The participants and I consented on confidentiality issues that the focus-group discussions would not disclosed externally by any discussant within the group. The ground rules enabled the focus groups to be focused with the full participation of all members in a free and open manner. I also encouraged the members to respect all participants' views.

As Hesse-Biber and Leavey (2011) indicate, focus-group interviews allow the researcher to generate data from multiple voices. I noted that views raised by some participants motivated other members within the focus group to participate, culminating in some contentious arguments on the research problem. There was a clarification of opinions presented by others and some even corrected others. In agreement, Willig (2013) asserts that, in focus-group discussions, beliefs are contested, established and justified. Resultantly, the depth, richness and trustworthiness of generated data were increased. Like the individual semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews comprised of open-ended questions that gave the me room to probe participants for in-depth information on the opinions on the phenomenon under study. Data from the focus-group interviews was audio recorded and transcribed verbatim, reinforced by field notes.

Focus-group interviews have their own demerits. There is a habit by some of the participants to dominate the deliberations (Cohen et al., 2018). I attended to this by urging all the participants to engage in the discussions thereby facilitating active debates. In the focus groups, sometimes time was wasted as participants focused on trivial issues. In this instance, I asked participants questions that refocused them on the problem under study.

4.9.4 Field Notes

Field notes refer to notes recorded in the field in a journal which can be in the form of a field diary or notebook which is maintained throughout the research process (Bogdan & Biklen, 2016). Field notes include procedures, an account of occurrences, how people acted, reacted and also what was presented in the dialogue (Flick, 2019; Phillipi & Lauderdale, 2018). Furthermore, McMillan and Schumacher (2010) assert that field notes are used to record reflections on what has occurred. I kept an explicit record of what transpired in the study sites regarding corporal punishment. Additionally, I used field notes to support audio recorded data in case technical challenges with the voice recorder arose.

Field notes are advantageous in that they are fast, less expensive and record original thoughts (Tessier, 2012). Resultantly, I was able to capture detailed data which was authentic from the participants in their natural settings. Field notes have short comings just like other methods of generating data. Tessier (2012) hints that fields notes can result in researcher bias and loss of information. I used peer debriefing in checking on researcher biases that could emerge during the research process. To safeguard loss of information I complemented field notes with audio recording of interviews verbatim at every site

4.10 DATA ANALYSIS

I presented the data as a case study comprising data generated from individual semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews and field notes. The data was analysed using the thematic data analysis approach. This is an approach of analysing case study data which focuses on identifying recurring constructs, themes and patterns in collected data (Braun, Clarke & Terry, 2014). I applied Tesch's 1990 interactive model of data analysis. According to Tesch (1990), the interactive procedure of data analysis involves examining, selecting, grouping, integrating and interpreting data to address research objectives. After data generation, I fused the data into themes, classes and sub-classes through the Thematic Analysis Model.

Thus, the following steps of the model were applied.

I built up sense of the whole. I read all the transcriptions thoroughly noting down certain ideas as they reflected to mind while reading. This was done using colours.

I selected an appealing document and went over it, focusing on the fundamental meaning of the transcript.

I generated a list of all issues to be gathered and classified related topics together in columns of being key, unique and remaining topics.

I allotted each topic a code, related it to the transcription and assessed if new classes and codes emerged.

I established descriptive wording for the topics and organised them into categories. This was meant to minimise the number of groups by linking topics together.

I came up with a conclusive decision on the acronyms for each class and alphabetised the codes.

I placed generated data which were homogenous in one class and carried out an initial analysis.

I recorded the existing data when the need arose.

4.11 ENSURING TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness is viewed as a demonstration that the results presented in an investigation are sound and the case linked to the results is strong (LaBanca, 2010). While McMillan and Schumacher (2010) state that trustworthiness prevails when there is congruence between research findings and the reality of the phenomenon under study. In this study, trustworthiness was ensured through credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability as guided by Lincoln and Guba's (1985) model. Each aspect of the model is discussed below.

4.11.1 Credibility

Credibility is a deliberate effort to authenticate the correct interpretation of data (Creswell, 2013; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Credibility is the evidence of internal constancy whose goal is to ensure rigour in the research journey and how we

disseminate the way things have been done (Cohen et al., 2018). In this study, I established credibility through triangulation of data sources and methods, prolonged engagement, member checking and peer debriefing. Each principle is discussed below.

4.11.1.1 Triangulation of data sources and methods

Lincoln and Guba (1985) stated that triangulation encompasses the use of multiple data methods and sources to gather supporting proof. Perceptions of teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment are a complex phenomenon which should be looked at from multiple angles to authenticate the findings. The hallmark of case study research is the use of multiple data sources, a strategy that enhances data trustworthiness (Honorene, 2017; Noble & Heale, 2019). In this single case study, I generated data using semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews and field notes. I used multiple methods to ascertain that the drawbacks of one approach are counteracted by other methods as advised by Korstjiens and Moser (2018).

4.11.1.2 Prolonged engagement

For this study, I had three sessions of interviews at each study site of which two were follow-ups. This was done to verify the trustworthiness of the generated data and methods used. Prolonged engagement enhanced the trustworthiness of the data I collected from the study sites. Prolonged engagement is viewed as data generation over some time (Loh, 2013). Furthermore, Hadi and José Closs (2015) assert that the use of prolonged engagement is justified as it accords the researcher the opportunity to build relationships with participants as well as identifying and verifying recurring patterns. Prolonged engagement was of significance to this study as it enhanced trust and rapport; hence, participants volunteered more sensitive data on the problem being studied than they could do at the initial stages of the study.

4.11.1.3 Member checking

Member checking is a procedure whereby research findings are taken to participants to accord them the chance to verify the trustworthiness of the data and offer alternative interpretations (Barusch, Gringeri & George, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I incorporated member checking because research participants had firsthand

information on the problem being studied. Through member checking, I verified interpretations and conclusions with participants from whom the data were originally gathered before the study was finalised. The research participants validated the truthfulness of the research findings and I made adjustments where there was need. This ensured an accurate translation of the research participants' lived experiences. Thus, in the study, member checking enhanced trustworthiness of the research findings as it minimised the chances of misinterpretations on the views proffered by the participants on the abolishment of corporal punishment.

4.11.1.4 Peer debriefing

Peer debriefing involves getting feedback from peers to help improve the quality of the enquiry of findings implying that, when writing a report, the researcher should present study findings to peers to receive their comments (Anney, 2014). In this research, feedback from the schools assisted in improving in areas of weakness which I noted. In support Barusch et al. (2011) stated that, through peer debriefing, the researcher obtains the perceptions of peers in developing the conclusions of the study. Additionally, collaborative sessions in debriefing can be used by the researcher to discuss alternative approaches. This enabled me to evaluate the emerging ideas and interpretations, while probing others, thereby helping in recognising personal biases and preferences as informed by Lietz and Zayas (2010).

4.11.2 Transferability

Transferability is the way research outcomes may be of significance in other similar contexts when the same research procedures are applied (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Additionally, Cohen et al. (2018) refer to transferability as 'fittingness' as it determines whether findings fit in or are transferable to similar situations. This implies that transferability is the extent to which research results are applicable to similar situations. I presented an audit trail of procedures followed, a comprehensive contextual description of the study sites and verbatim citations from the participants. In relation to this study, transferability is the extent to which it could apply to other provinces in Zimbabwe and other contexts when tested by other researchers.

4.11.3 Dependability

Dependability is meant to ensure the credibility of findings. Dependability ensures the consistency of the data obtained from the participants by maintaining the stability of data over a period of time through replication and inquiry audit (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). For this study, dependability was attained through triangulation, member checking, peer debriefing, non-probability sampling and audio recording of interviews. In addition, the questions that I asked in the semi-structured interviews and the focus-group interviews were the same at all the study sites to determine the consistency of the responses obtained from the participants. I also kept an audit trail of raw data and field notes for verifying the accuracy of findings. I maintained an audit trail by collecting raw data from audio recordings and keeping personal field notes.

4.11.4 Confirmability

Cohen et al. (2018) assert that confirmability is an element of neutrality in ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research. Similarly, Denscombe (2014) points out that the thrust of confirmability is to establish whether data and interpretations of the research outcomes are not a product of the researcher's preconceived ideas but are explicitly generated from data. Thus, confirmability ensures that the findings are free from researcher bias as neutrality in this case focuses on data not on the researcher. I enhanced confirmability through the implementation of audit strategies, the most significant being the audit trail. An audit trail offers explicit evidence from the whole research process that the researcher did not simply find predetermined conclusions to the study (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). I integrated the amendments and supplementary information that was generated from member checking into findings to bolster confirmability.

4.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

I observed ethical standards as they are of importance when one is undertaking a research study. Researchers need to observe ethical principles to attain authentic findings and to ensure that entitlements and safety of research participants are honoured (Denscombe, 2014). Ethics deal with moral issues relating to acceptable or inappropriate conduct (Neuman, 2014). This implies that researchers need to

conform to acceptable ethical standards when undertaking a study. Informed consent, permission to conduct the study, privacy, anonymity and confidentiality are the key facets of research ethics (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell, 2014). I ensured that the ethical standards laid down by the College of Education Research Ethics Committee of the University of South Africa were adhered to. I applied for an ethical clearance from the College of Education Ethics Committee (Appendix A). Additional ethical principles used in the study are discussed below.

4.12.1 Permission to Conduct Study

It is critical for a researcher to obtain permission from the relevant stakeholders before engaging in the research process (Creswell, 2014). I sought permission to conduct the study in the four selected primary schools in Chegutu District, Mashonaland West from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (Appendices B and C). Permission was granted by the parent ministry and I then sought permission from school heads of the four sampled primary schools to conduct research at their schools (See Appendix D).

4.12.2 Informed Consent

The research participants have the right to choose to participate in any research as it voluntary to do so (Mohd-Arifin, 2018). This means that the researcher must obtain informed consent from research participants. In this study, I sought informed consent by handing invitation letters to participants that outlined the scope and purpose of the study, the information to be disclosed to the researcher, the intended use of the data gathered and advised the informants that they were free to disengage at any time if they felt the need to do so as advised by Farrimond (2013) (Appendix E). As a way of establishing informed consent in this study, the participants completed and signed consent forms voluntarily.

4.12.3 Confidentiality and Anonymity

The study also observed ethical issues to do with confidentiality and anonymity through the use of pseudonyms and codes (Babbie, 2011). I informed research participants not to disclose their names or names of their school when responding to semi-structured interview questions and focus-group interview questions. Thus,

participants were given codes for confidentiality purposes. However, confidentiality and anonymity is not fully guaranteed in focus-group discussions. The major ethical concern with the use of focus interviews group is the presence of more than one participant in a group setting at a given time (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013). To overcome this, I emphasised the significance of confidentiality and anonymity as agreed upon when informed consent was sought. I kept audio recorded information and notes under lock and key while a password was generated for information saved on my computer.

4.12.4 Privacy

Privacy entails the freedom accorded to a participant to ascertain the period, extent and considerations under which classified information will be communicated to or withheld from others (Yin, 2018). It may be referred to as the agreement between the researcher and participants that limits access to their private information. In this study, I ensured that perceptions by primary school teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment were not divulged to third parties. Rather than real names, codes were used to ensure privacy. To ensure privacy, I also conducted the interviews in the staffrooms where there was no interference as ancillary staff; non-participating teachers and school administrators were informed of the interviews.

4.12.5 Avoidance of Harm to Research Informants

I also observed the ethical standard of causing no harm to research participants. According to Denscombe (2014) the fundamental aspect of all research studies is that no participants are exposed to any form of danger due to their engagement in the study. The participants need to be safeguarded from bodily, social and emotional harm (Cohen et al., 2018). In this study, confidentiality and privacy of each research participant were maintained without compromising the trustworthiness of data generated to avoid harm. I held some peer debriefing sessions to cater for this ethical consideration to minimise harm by permitting participants to ask questions or discuss their concerns.

4.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the research paradigm. I also considered the role of the researcher in this study. The chapter focused on the qualitative research approach as it was adopted by this study. The single case study research design as adopted by the study was discussed. The sampling method used in the study was looked at in the chapter. There was an overview of the research participants and contextual description of the study. Data collection instruments were reviewed in this chapter with particular reference to semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews and field notes. The data analysis procedure was presented. Measures for enhancing trustworthiness were discussed focusing on credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. Ethical considerations were also explored. The next chapter focuses on data presentation, analysis and discussion of findings.

CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the research design and methods used to conduct this research. It also elaborated on the research process with a brief context of schools selected. In this chapter I presented a discussion on research results from the analysis of interviews, field notes and literature that elaborates on the research outcomes and conclusions.

5.2 PRESENTATION OF DATA AND ANALYSIS

The following section provides a table of key abbreviation used for presentation of data followed by a table of themes and sub-themes that emerged from the study.

Table 5.1: Guide for Interpreting Participant Interviews

Key Abbreviations
P 1 to 8: Individual Semi-Structured Interviews
P 9 to 16 : Focus Group 1
P 17 to 24: Focus Group 2
In this study therefore; P1 refers to Participant 1,
P9F1 refers to Participant 9 in Focus Group 1 and will be represented as P9F1.
P17F2 refers to Participant 17 in Focus Group 2.

The emerging themes and sub-themes are represented in the table below.

Table 5.2: Identified Themes and Sub-Themes

THEME	SUB-THEMES
1. Description of Corporal Punishment	• Infliction of pain • Manual work
2. Factors influencing teachers to use corporal punishment	• Misconduct • Parental Request
3. Teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment	• Cultural Perceptions • Religious Perceptions • Human Rights Views • Psychological Views
4. Views on the consequences of the abolishment of corporal punishment.	• Declining pass rates • Lack of respect for teachers • High levels of absenteeism • Deviant Behaviour
5. Current disciplinary practices used by teachers	• Corporal Punishment • Code of Conduct • Parental Involvement • Assigning lighter duties
6. Alternatives to corporal punishment.	• Guidance and Counselling • Role Modelling • Detention
7. Success in using alternative measures to corporal punishment	• Collaborating with guidance and counselling committees • Induction courses/training

5.3 THEMES AND SUB-THEMES THAT EMERGED FROM THE STUDY

As represented on Table 5.2, through thematic data analysis, this study generated seven main themes, namely, description of corporal punishment; factors influencing teachers to use corporal punishment; teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment; views on the consequences of the abolishment of corporal punishment; current disciplinary measures used by teachers; views on alternative measures to corporal punishment; and successes in using alternative measures to corporal punishment. Each theme had its sub-themes. The analysis of the themes

and sub-themes is provided in the subsequent sections with selected extracts and are elaborated with literature control.

5.4 THEME 1: DESCRIPTION OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Considering the high incidence of corporal punishment despite its abolishment as discussed in the background of this study, it was necessary to establish teachers' understanding of corporal punishment. What emerged from the study is that participants described corporal punishment as infliction of pain and giving manual work to the learners with the purpose of instilling socially acceptable behaviour and enhancing discipline amongst primary school learners. Bueno-Gomez (2017) indicates that inflicting pain means exposing someone to a hostile or anguishing encounter which can affect a person psychologically and physically. This often involves striking, slapping, paddling, punching, kicking, smacking, thrashing, shoving, spanking, kneeling for a long time, choking, pinching, caning, scolding and assigning lighter duties among others (Kagoiya et al., 2017). On the other hand, manual work is characterised by cutting grass, cleaning bathing rooms and excavating tree stumps (Onyango et al., 2016). Salome and Sadambi (2016) argue that when manual work is used as part of corporal punishment, it indicates some form of cruelty.

Selected extracts representing the participants' views are presented below and substantiated with literature.

5.4.1 Sub-Theme 1: Infliction of Pain

Two types of inflicting pain, namely, physical and emotional or psychological pain, were described as the purpose for corporal punishment. Selected extracts are presented below.

P2 had this to say:

> *Corporal punishment is the administering of pain using different objects like belts, palms, sjambok, sticks, pinching of the ears and many more to control socially undesirable behaviour in schools.*

P2F2 asserted that:

> *I see corporal punishment as force used to a minor such as punching, beating, kicking, slapping as an instrument of discipline. There is more of the deliberate infliction of pain as punishment for an offence.*

P5 mentioned that:

> *I can describe corporal punishment as beating in palms using a stick or sjambok but you are not supposed to hurt the child. Through corporal punishment you administer some form of pain, but this has to be moderate.*

The views of P14F1 were expressed as:

> *… corporal punishment is the physical infliction of pain on the learner which affect him or her... psychologically and emotionally so that there is behaviour modification*.

Furthermore, P6 said:

> *I describe corporal punishment as the use of pain to control someone's behaviour. There is also room to use emotional pain. Some say it is the physical use of the stick on learners to avert bad outcomes in terms of behaviour.*

P19F2 asserted that:

> *This is the use of pain to control someone's behaviour. The punishment can take the form of emotional pain.*

Regarding the objects used to administer corporal punishment on different body parts, P3 said:

> *A variety of instruments are used, which range from a stick, fan belts, electric cables, open palms as a clap, chalkboard dusters and sjambok. The learners*

are usually beaten on the buttocks, palm, back, cheeks using claps. Sometimes you pinch their ears to inflict the pain.

The descriptions presented above confirms the view of Ogando Portela and Pells (2015) who described corporal punishment as any form of punishment where physical force is applied with the intention to elicit some form of pain though moderate (See 2.2). Moyo et al. (2014) also mention that corporal punishment entails the application of force with the ultimate goal of exposing the child to pain without causing intense harm for the purpose of inculcating good behaviour. (See 2.2). Furthermore, Matope and Mugodzwa (2011) assert that corporal punishment embraces the use of physical force to induce discomfort though moderate (See 2.2).

Research conducted by Shumba, Ndofirepi and Musengi (2012) also revealed that most victims of corporal punishment in schools were beaten using sticks and open hands (See 2.3.2). Iguh and Nosike (2011) found that striking is commonly used. The objects used include rulers, bamboo canes and hands sticks among others (See 2.3.2). This tally with the responses given by the participants in this study as they mentioned the use of sticks and clapping which relates to the use of bare hands in inflicting the intended pain.

This sub-theme indicates that participants are aware of and understand what corporal punishment entails. I wonder how the teachers persist to use it as there is some pain attached and they are aware of the laws that have abolished its use.

5.4.2 Sub-Theme 2: Manual Work

Regarding manual work as a way of punishing learners the study revealed examples such as digging pits, weeding, litter picking, tree felling, cleaning windows and watering gardens.

Selected extracts include:

P1 mentioned that:

Manual tasks which are prescribed to learners include picking papers around the school yard, watering the garden and cleaning windows.

P12F1 stated that:

Corporal punishment embraces tasking learners to clean toilets, dig pits, stump trees and clean the classroom…

P 3 had this to say:

> *…corporal punishment involves giving learners strenuous activities watering the garden, tree felling and litter picking…*

P8 stated that:

> *…it can also be described as punishment where the learner is given a hard task to do like digging a pit.*

P24F2 expressed the following views:

> *I describe it as punishment where a person is assigned a tough manual task to do like digging a pit or weeding school grounds as a way of getting rid of acts of disobedience.*

Furthermore, P4 asserted that:

> *Learners may be asked to pick papers around the school yard depending on the nature of the offence*.

Similarly, a study by Onyango (2019) held the view that manual work was effective in harnessing learner behaviour (See 2.12.6). Chikwature et al. (2016) agreed that manual labour is effective in inculcating social norms and eliminates deviant behaviour (See 2.12. 6). This implies that the pain linked to the manual tasks play a pivotal role in behaviour modification. In addition, Chitalu and Phiri (2020) revealed that paper picking, sweeping the classrooms and school yard, grass weeding and toilet cleaning are some of the manual tasks commonly given to learners (See 2.12.6). Furthermore, Onyango et al. (2016) established that digging, grass cutting and the cleaning of toilets were manual tasks assigned to learners (See 2.12.6).

In contrast, Salome and Sadambi (2016) state that the pain inflicted through the use manual work is inhumane and the method is time-consuming making it less effective (See 2.12.6). Similarly, Onyango and Simatwa (2016) described manual work as a form of corporal punishment. Resultantly, Kambunga et al. (2018) recommended the adoption of child-sensitive disciplinary measures. Additionally, Kimani et al. (2012)

recommended that teachers should switch to the use of alternative disciplinary methods.

5.5 THEME 2: FACTORS INFLUENCING TEACHERS TO USE CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

This study found several factors that seem to influence teachers to rely on corporal punishment. Two sub-themes emerged, namely, misconduct behaviour and parental requests to discipline learners. Chimhenga and Mpofu (2016) assert that misconduct is any violation of the school's code of conduct. They go on to say it manifests in actions such as stealing, bullying, drug consumption, vulgar language, poor school attendance and lack of respect for adults. The participants identified bullying, theft, truancy, cheating, substance abuse, failure to comply with the schools' code of conduct and the use of vulgar language as factors that compelled the primary school teachers to depend on corporal punishment. The teachers felt that these acts impede negatively act academic attainment resulting in low pass rates.

Parental requests often happen when schools are approached because parents seem helpless to deal with their children's behaviour. Makewa et al. (2017) assert that parents often approach teachers because they feel they can trust them.

The sub-themes below present examples of selected extracts.

5.5.1 Sub-Theme 1: Misconduct Behaviour

The research participants highlighted that engagement in misconduct by the learners was a key factor that drove them to use corporal punishment. The following identified excerpts show the participants' views;

P13F1 pointed out that:

> *Teachers often dispense corporal punishment due to cases of bullying, theft, failure to write given work, truancy and absenteeism greatly influence teachers to use corporal punishment.*

P3 highlighted that:

> *Other reasons for the using of corporal punishment are bullying, theft, cheating, indecent assault, truancy and absenteeism.*

P17F2 expressed that:

> *The issue of substance abuse by the learners contributes to caning by teachers.*

P7 further elaborated that:

> *There is need to control the speaking of bad language, cheating, stealing and rudeness. Corporal punishment is also used to check on the other forms of misbehaviour which I have highlighted earlier on like absenteeism, lack of punctuality, bullying and substance abuse...*

P12F1 reinforced by the views by stating that:

> *The high levels of bullying, stealing, truancy, late coming to school and non-submission of written work among others are some the factors that influence teachers to use corporal punishment in our school.*

P8 reiterated that:

> *Cases of disobedience, stubbornness, absenteeism, lateness and laziness by learners influence teachers to use corporal punishment. Some learners are good at disturbing the flow of lessons and they cannot do as they are told and the end result is that they are beaten to make them comply.*

P20F2 shared the following views:

> *Teachers are influenced to mete out corporal punishment by the high prevalence of act of bullying, lateness to school, absconding lessons, failure to observe the code of conduct...*

The views are similar to a study by de Witt and Lessing (2013) which found out that the prevalence of socially unacceptable behaviour has to great extent influenced teachers to use corporal punishment corroborating the views of the research participants (See 2.6). In addition, Matope and Mugodzwa (2011) postulate that an upward trend in anti-social behaviour amongst the learners has greatly influenced teachers to administer corporal punishment on learners (See 2. 6).

It is remarkable to note that the Zimbabwean primary school teachers are influenced to use corporal punishment due to the prevalence of bad behaviour. The conformity to certain values based on one's background as stated by the SJT may be a contributory factor that compels teachers to take that stance (See 3.3.1). One can conclude that the primary school teachers perceive it is the only effective way of managing discipline although they would be violating the laws that abolished its use.

5.5.2 Sub-Theme 2: Parental Request

The study exposed that parental request influence teachers to use corporal punishment. The requests by the parents are aimed at containing socially unacceptable behaviour which violates the schools' code of conduct. The selected citations were presented as follows;

P2 expressed the following views:

> *Parental request is the other factor that contributes to the dispensation of corporal punishment when learners have engaged in socially unacceptable behaviour which violates the school rules and regulations.*

P19F2 stated that:

> *The reactions differ with the parents, some are for corporal punishment and they even encourage teachers to use it on their children.*

P3 highlighted that:

> *When they come for the consultation days, some parents even encourage teachers to administer corporal punishment on their children. They point out that children need to be beaten as their performance is being affected by the ban.*

P5 supported the foregoing view by asserting that:

> *As they analyse the learners' performance at the end of the term, those who will be not for corporal punishment end up approaching teachers requesting them to administer corporal punishment for better results... I can say the greater numbers of parents are for corporal punishment.*

P17F2 further stated that:

> *Those who are for corporal punishment are influenced by their cultural background to support corporal punishment. They clearly point out that during their childhood they were disciplined through the use of the stick and even at school and it worked. The same should apply to their children.*

P7 concurred with the preceding views by stating that:

> *Parents support corporal punishment as they believe that it is part of the child rearing practices. They appreciate as their children if disciplined using corporal punishment will behave well at home and improve their results.*

P12F1 had this to say:

> *Some parents are in support of corporal punishment to be used on their children whereas some do not want it to be applied on their children. The bigger number urges teachers to apply it on their children.*

P6 further elaborated that:

> *Most parents want corporal punishment to be applied as a tool for disciplining children. Thus such type of parents encourage its use to instill order, character and respect unless something extreme happens like injuries like visible bruises they raise the issue with the school authorities.*

To be gathered from this sub-theme is that the parents' inclinations to think that corporal punishment could improve academic performance and instill discipline, affirmed their child-rearing habits and cultural beliefs. The findings support the SJT which was used as a theoretical framework in that the family norms can have an impact on the changes in disciplinary methods that may be introduced (See 3.3.1). Similarly, a study by Dziva (2019) revealed that many societies favour corporal punishment which is viewed as essential in child upbringing (See 2.6.1). Makewa et al. (2017) concluded that parents approve that children should be disciplined through corporal punishment by teachers (See 2.6.1). Using corporal punishment on request by parents is a violation of clauses of the 2013 Zimbabwean Constitution, the Education Act as amended in 2020 and Policy Circular Number 35 of 2018. One may

suggest that parents request teachers to corporally punish their children and they oblige believing that it is the most effective way to modify behaviour.

5.6 THEME 3: TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

This study found that there were two conflicting views related to the abolishment of corporal punishment. Those in favour of its implementation use culture and religion as reasons while those who were against it used human rights and psychological effects as their frame of reference. Both views are presented and discussed in the next section.

5.6.1 Sub-Theme 1: Cultural Perceptions on the Abolishment of Corporal Punishment

Cultural influences refer to aspects such as knowledge, beliefs, principles, customs, feelings, ethics, regulations and artefacts that are common in a group setting (Idang, 2015). In this study, they emerged as beliefs that participants had about reasons they felt strong about the dependence on corporal punishment in primary schools. Below are the selected excerpts expressed by the participants:

P2 mentioned that:

> *Yes, they may have abolished corporal punishment in Zimbabwe in the name of human rights. However, this does not agree with our culture which supports corporal punishment in one's upbringing. To tell you my academic achievement was a result of corporal punishment.*

The views of P24F2 were expressed as:

> *...in our context corporal punishment is part of our way of life so we cannot totally do away with it. These children's rights are foreign to us so they can not eliminate a component of our culture.*

Furthermore, P3 had this to say:

> *...corporal punishment is part and parcel of our way of life in the child rearing practices which is further applied in school settings. I feel corporal punishment*

enforces compliance to school rules. To totally abolish it will promote high levels of indiscipline...

P9F1 pointed out that:

Our culture is not against corporal punishment. The use of the stick constitutes our upbringing in the traditional society. During my childhood corporal punishment was used upon us and it helped to shape our behaviour. I attribute my success in school to corporal punishment so why should we abolish it?

P5 concurred with the preceding views by asserting that:

...corporal punishment was an integral component of the way of life, hence it was a common practice that was used to instill discipline in children. At school, through corporal punishment, I was one of the best performers so its use on learners will help learners to be well disciplined.

P7 support the abovementioned views by stating that:

Behaviour management done through corporal punishment as our culture prescribes is effective… it is the way we were brought up [and] *as you can see I am a role model.*

P20F2 reiterated that:

Okay. I think the government should revisit its stance on the abolishment of corporal punishment because this has resulted in moral decadence amongst the learners. Yes, I heard someone talking of human rights, there are there to guide us but we should not look down upon our cultural values. Corporal punishment has been used from time immemorial so it should stay.

P6 confirmed that:

In our Zimbabwean culture, corporal punishment is highly acceptable as it is used to enforce moral standards. Teachers have to act as parents so they can hit learners so that they become morally upright.

To be gathered from this sub-theme is that there are strong beliefs and emotions that seem to be embedded in cultural child-raising. Of interest to note from this sub-theme is the link between social norms and values from families and schools. In my view, it shows that schools are not separate entities from their communities. In addition, it appeared that corporal punishment promotes academic success. Similarly, Makewa et al. (2017) assert that, in the African culture, corporal punishment is seen as an integral component of child-rearing. Thus, it is a common practice when disciplining children. Furthermore, parents believe that it promotes allegiance which enhances performance at school (See 2.6.1). In addition, Shumba et al. (2012) concur that the cultural practice of corporal punishment facilitates compliance (See 2.6.1). Dziva (2019) shares the same views by averring that in most social settings parents approve corporal punishment in controlling misconduct (See 2.6.1).

Regarding the link between corporal punishment and academic attainment, Mayisela (2018) also found that most teachers accredit their success to the use of corporal punishment (See 2.6.1). Kudenga (2017) found that corporal punishment motivated the learners to work harder in their school assignments enabling them to be successful in life (See 2.6.1).

Teachers who hold this perception would tend to preserve its use even if there are laws in place that prohibit it in various societal settings, schools inclusive. One can conclude that, with this in mind, teachers and the society at large tend to adopt a conservative approach to the dispensation of corporal punishment and may not accept any move to abolish its use. As expressed by the SJT, people have a tendency to appraise the views of the groups they belong to in protecting the status quo (See 3.3.1). This could possibly contribute to the reason why primary school teachers in Zimbabwe propagate the reliance on corporal punishment even if there is clear legislation in place regarding the welfare of the learners.

5.6.2 Sub-Theme 2: Religious Perceptions

It emerged from this study that participants appeared to be sentimental in supporting the importance of using corporal punishment. Some cited the Christian beliefs using

the Bible as a frame of reference while others referred to Islamic religion and cited the Sharia law.

The following are identified selected extracts:

P2 revealed that:

> *The scriptures even support corporal punishment, if you read the Bible, they say spare the rod and spoil the child. This is a manifestation of the significance placed on corporal punishment. So, if it is supported by the scriptures to correct undesirable behaviour, why should we abolish it schools? We should continue administering it. In Islam, there is the use of the Sharia Law which approves corporal punishment meaning that religion as part of culture allows it to be used.*

P21F2 said that:

> *The scriptures even say spare the rod and spoil the child. So why abolish it?*

P6 articulated that:

> *I know in religion they say vocation starts from birth thus if you do not instill the proper behaviour you are bound to face problems if any form of misbehaviour arise... the Bible clearly spells out that spare the rod and spoil the child.*

P12F1 asserted that:

> *Culture supports the corporal punishment and even the Bible which is a holy book. So let us abide by the scriptures, the human rights you are talk about do not fit our societal context.*

P7 conveyed the following views:

> *They can lobby for its abolishment but I feel that abolishing corporal punishment is not proper... even in the Bible they endorse its use so why should we stop using it*. *Yes, I have heard so but I feel it is more of blasphemy as they are going against the Holy Scriptures. Corporal punishment should stand as way of instilling discipline amongst our learners.*

P8 expressed that:

> *The religious background also motivates teachers to depend on corporal punishment as they support this with sayings from the scriptures.*

It emerged from the study that religious beliefs have a bearing on the striking of learners by teachers as a way instilling discipline in the classes they teach. Likewise, a study conducted Engulu and Harris (2017) indicated that Christian values acknowledge corporal punishment as a way of managing misconduct (See 2.6.2.1). This is further supported by Ogbe (2015) who postulates that, from a Christian point of view, corporal punishment minimises the occurrence of socially undesirable behaviour (See 2. 6.1).

Regarding the Islamic views, corporal punishment is permissible under the Sharia law. Gith (2014) mentioned that sections of the Israeli Arab community believe in corporal punishment to discipline children (See 2.6.2.2). Similarly, Okekeocha and Ewoh (2014) highlighted that, in Nigeria, corporal punishment affirms the religious beliefs of Islam (See: 2.6.2.2*)*. This means the Islamic law endorses inflicting light physical punishment as a way of teaching the child; hence, it is authorised in school contexts. The views on the perpetuation of corporal punishment from the religious perspective are similar to what the SJT theoretical framework says which highlighted that religious regulation may influence people to conserve the current order even though it may contrast with news ideas (See 3.3.1 3.3.3 & 3. 5.1).

A different view as found by the CNNV (2016) suggested that many religions worldwide, Christianity and Islam inclusive, preach the virtues of love, compassion and non-aggression which do not encourage the use corporal punishment on children. The religious perceptions as cited in this sub-theme also suggest that participants are not aware of other religious initiatives which lobby for the abolishment of corporal punishment as pronounced in the Kyoto Declaration of 2006. Specifically, the Kyoto Declaration mentioned that religions are obliged to sensitise their members against the use of corporal punishment in enhancing total child development through religious verses that object its use and awareness programmes (See 2.6.2.3). Furthermore, the Arigatou International (2019) articulated

that leaders of religions and faith-based organisations are promoting an end to violence on children in favour of counselling (See 2.6.2.3).

5.6.3 Sub-Theme 3: Human Rights Views

It also emerged that some participants approved the ban on corporal punishment basing on human rights. Human rights are described by Marks (2016) as a set of standards regulating how individuals or groups are treated by governments and non-state players in consideration of what society regards as important to modern life. The Inter-Parliamentary Union (2016) highlights that rights include the right to life, the right to freedom from punishment, right to education and right to health, among others. Within a school context, they could include protection of the child from any form of punishment, access to education, protection from economic exploitation and administration of discipline in ways that take cognisance of the child's dignity. (UN, 1989)

The following selected excerpts show the diverse perceptions of the human rights views amongst teachers:

P10F1 asserted that:

> *I feel the abolishment is proper because it is in line with the rights of children. Corporal punishment instill fear in learners hence affects their performance. Zimbabwe is a member of the United Nations. So as a member it has signed agreements to observe human rights of which the Convention of Children's Rights is one of them. This implies teachers need to take cognisance these rights which are against corporal punishment.*

P8 mentioned that:

> *In my view, the abolishment of caning Zimbabwean primary schools has effects on teaching and learning. The positive side is that its abolishment is that some teachers were physically abusing to the young ones for personal reasons.*

P19F2 expressed the following perceptions:

> *I am in support with the abolishment of corporal punishment because it promotes effective learning. Effective learning only takes place if the learners do not fear to contribute in class and at the same time the teacher-learner relationship is healthy. We need to observe the learners rights are they humans that need to be treated with respect and due dignity.*

Furthermore P1 had this to say:

> *The abolishment of corporal punishment … is meant to save our learners.*

However, some participants disagreed with the foregoing perceptions.

P2 had this to say:

> *Yes, they may have abolished corporal punishment in Zimbabwe in the name of human rights but this does not agree with our culture which supports in one's upbringing and to tell you my academic achievement was a result of … corporal punishment... it is becoming difficult to manage disciplinary matters in the class as the learners now have a lot of freedom in the name of children's rights which I feel do not apply in our cultural context.*

P18F2 mentioned that:

> *...that is the line of thinking but in our context corporal punishment is part of our way of life so we cannot totally do away with it. These children's rights are foreign to us so they can not eliminate a component of our culture.*

P5 contended that:

> *Whose human rights? Can we say what our elders in society have been doing is wrong generation after generation. In the different religions, corporal punishment is allowed then what these human rights people are trying to say does not hold water. I feel corporal punishment is the only good measure. Human rights do not work as these learners need to be brought up in the culturally acceptable ways like corporal punishment.*

In this sub-theme the findings showed mixed feelings on the issue of human rights and corporal punishment. Some of the participants applauded the abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwean primary schools as it was interpreted as an adherence to human rights in the best interests of the learners. These participants indicated that corporal punishment amongst primary school learners is more like torture as it sometimes results in injuries.

The same view is shared by the CRC (1989) in Article 37(a) which mentioned that governments should ensure that no minor is subjected to any form of abusive punishment (See 2.7.2). The views expressed by the participants concerning learner dignity in line with corporal punishment are reinforced by Articles 29(1) and 28(2) of the CRC (1989) which state that national teaching and learning systems which permit corporal punishment expose learners to abuse (See 2.7.2).

From the findings, one can determine that the participants' responses show that they have accommodated the changes to the disciplinary measures which exclude corporal punishment. It is noteworthy that the acceptance by some teachers on the ban on punishing learners in Zimbabwean primary schools may reflect the need to take cognisance of the self-worth of the learners. In the same vein, Coetzee (2010) revealed that teachers are proxies for change and they are directed to change learning institutions and rooms into spaces that respect learners' rights (See 2.7.2).

This acceptance of change is substantiated by the SJT theoretical framework as it highlights that change may face some resistance initially but eventually, it will be fully accommodated (See 3.4.2 and 3.5.3). The Zimbabwean primary school teachers who accepted this human rights view hold a positive perception hence they are calling for the ban as stated in the 2013 Zimbabwean Constitution.

Resistance to refraining from using corporal punishment as expressed by participants in this study could be interpreted as creating a gap between what is envisioned by policies such as Policy Circular Number 35 of 2018 and the Education Act as amended in 2020 (See 1.2).

5.6.4 Sub-Theme 4: Psychological Views

The study revealed that, from a psychological point of view, corporal punishment is associated with a number of psychological effects. Fear, anxiety, emotional instability, aggression, mental challenges, low esteem, poor academic performance and weak teacher pupil relations were the noted effects. The following selected extracts confirm the participants' perceptions:

P7 mentioned that:

> *...corporal punishment should not be over applied to the learners in the primary school as it instils fear and hatred. Learning won't go on effectively if there is an element of fear. Effective learning takes place if learners do not fear to contribute and at the same time the teacher-learner relationship is unified in the absence of corporal punishment.*

P19F2 shared the following perceptions:

> *I am in support with the abolishment of corporal punishment because it hampers effective learning. Effective learning only takes place if the learners do not fear to contribute in class and at the same time the teacher-learner relationship is healthy.*

P8 expressed the following views:

> *...there is the issue of inflicting pain to the young ones for silly mistakes and instilling fear so much that learners like infants end up hating school and some end up with psychological problems that have repercussions in the adult life. They do impact on adult life as learners exposed to corporal punishment develop aggressive behaviour which they imitate from the teachers hence such learners become bully.*

P13F1 had this to say:

> *...the abolishment of corporal punishment was a noble idea. I am of the feeling that it is abusive in nature as it physically and emotionally harms the learners at primary school level. It should remain banned because it demotivates the learners to come to school and freely participate in class.*

Teachers in the twenty-first century should use other methods of motivating learner to learn and modify behaviours.

However, some of the participants differed from the abovementioned perceptions.

P2 asserted that:

Yaa, excessive corporal punishment has been associated with psychological effects like fear and anxiety and may also result in injuries but what I mean here is that if it is applied in a moderate way it will not have these effects but assist in disciplinary issues.

Furthermore P14F1 pointed out that:

I view corporal punishment as the physical inflicting pain on the learner which affects him / her physically, psychologically and emotionally so that there is behaviour modification.

P5 mentioned that:

Yes, they show these signs of fear, anxiety and mental problems here and there but the number is insignificant. The objective of behaviour change for the good will have been attained from my own point of view.

An interpretation of the responses is that corporal punishment impacts negatively on the learners. In support of the above findings, Khatete and Matanda (2014) revealed that using corporal punishment culminates in violence amongst the learners (See 2.5.1). Furthermore, a study by Shaikhnag and Assan (2014) established that it has an impact on academic attainment as it contributes to high levels of truancy and non-school attendance (See 2.5.4). Additionally, Durrant and Ensom (2017) found that the application of corporal punishment results in bad relationships between learners, teachers and parents (See 2.5.5).

It is noted that some research participants were in support of the abolishment of corporal punishment as they had identified its negative impact on adult life. With these perceptions, one may conclude that the abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwean primary schools is meant to prevent the psychological effects which affect the learners' welfare as informed by the SJT (See 3.3.3; 3.3.4 & 3.5.4).

However, it has been argued that there are some primary school teachers who agree that corporal punishment has some psychological effects but consider them as insignificant. Such teachers are of the perception that it needs not to be abolished as they presume that it is effective in behaviour modification. Thus, the resistance to change on new ways of disciplining learners exhibited in favour of corporal punishment could be informed by the SJT (See 3.2).

5.7 THEME 4: VIEWS ON THE CONSEQUENCES OF THE ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

The study found that the ban had consequences such as decreased pass rates, lack of respect for teachers, increases in absenteeism and a surge in deviant behaviour among primary school learners.

5.7.1 Sub-Theme 1: Declining Pass Rates

Regarding declining pass rates, participants attributed that to non-commitment towards school work by learners. It appeared that they felt helpless as they could not administer corporal punishment. Their views are expressed below

P1 had this to say:

> *My experience in terms of the abolishment is noticeable with a high rise of indiscipline. This has affected the learners' pass rates as they are indulging in immoral activities as we are not using corporal punishment.*

P14F1 echoed the same sentiments by stating that:

> *The school pass rates have been falling since it has become difficult to manage the learners as some choose not to do the given written work*.

P18F2 shared the following views:

> *The pass rates have been declining, as learners are disobedient to their teachers to an extent of not writing given exercises.*

P4 further supported this by saying:

> *The school pass rates have even gone down since the ban on beating learners as they have developed a care free attitude towards school work. When corporal punishment was fully applied we never experienced that, our pass rates were always good and we were amongst the best ten schools in the district but now it's the opposite.*

P16F1expressed the following sentiments:

> *I concur with the views given but I also want to say behaviour by the learners has been so unbecoming and the pass rates have drastically gone down. Corporal punishment should be reinstated to enable teachers to manage the unacceptable behaviour exhibited by the learners.*

P22F2 had the following views to share:

> *The academic achievement of the learners is tumbling as they act in bad ways fully knowing that they are not going to beaten. Before the abolishment as one of the longest serving teachers in the ministry, I had never experienced that. The government needs to revisit the issue of corporal punishment so that it is reinstated.*

P5 pointed out that:

> *School pass rates have been declining from the time hitting learners was banned as there have been high levels of truancy and absenteeism, a scenario that did not prevail when corporal punishment was fully administered in schools.*

The helplessness displayed by teachers could be interpreted that they do not believe there are other ways in which academic performance could be improved. In addition, it seems as if they are advocating for the reimplementation of corporal punishment.

A study conducted by Dlamini et al. (2017) found similarities with the perceptions given by teachers in this study. One of the findings in the study was that corporal punishment should not be abolished in totality in Swaziland [now-ESwatini] (See 2.10.1). In the South African context, Kubeka (2018) concluded that educators

attribute the falling academic performance of learners to a lack of proper discipline induced by the abolishment of corporal punishment (See 2.10. 1). One may interpret this as meaning that primary school teachers prefer corporal punishment to facilitate academic attainment despite the ban.

5.7.2 Sub-Theme 2: Lack of Respect for Teachers

Participants in this study felt strongly that abolishment of corporal punishment also led to lack of respect for teachers and their authority both at school and in the community. The excerpts below show their views:

P2 stated that:

> *With the abolishment of corporal punishment, learners have tended to ignore learning and now have little respect for their teachers.*

P9F1 further went on to say:

> *I want to make an addition, as result of the abolishment; I have noted high level of lack of respect for the teachers.*

P4 concurred by saying:

> *I mean the learners have lost the expected societal values in terms of behaviour. It's like they are engaging in immoral acts and even failure to respect elders like teachers and parents in the community.*

P18F2 also reinforced this by stating that:

> *From my own point of view, there has been a challenge in teaching the learners as since the abolishment, this has promoted lack of respect for teachers.*

P6 presented the following view:

> *The most notable acts of misconduct that are prevalent …include lack of respect for teachers...*

P24F2 had this to say in line with lack of respect by learners:

> *From the time corporal punishment was prohibited in primary schools I have noted with great shock that our learners have become uncontrollable. They*

have become so wild that they cannot even abide by the class or school rules. The level of disobedience has been so high.

Findings from the responses reflect that the participants are of the view that the abolishment of corporal punishment has culminated in lack of respect for teachers as figures in authority. Research conducted by Maphosa and Shumba (2010) had similar findings. The research concluded that educators felt that they had lost power to ameliorate disciplinary challenges amongst learners in the wake of a ban on corporal punishment (See 2.10.2). Furthermore, a study done in Zambia by Kabungo and Munsaka (2020) revealed that with the prohibition of corporal punishment in schools, the authority of teachers had been greatly compromised (See 2.10.2). It seems that the research participants are calling for the official reinstatement of corporal punishment in the primary schools to enforce compliance.

One may suggest that they seem to lack knowledge on the alternatives; hence they want to stick with corporal punishment. The SJT clearly points out that there is need to adjust to the changing times rather than being conservative (See 3.4.2). One may suggest that the failure by the Zimbabwean primary school teachers to adapt to new disciplinary measures has resulted in their loss of respect from the learners.

5.7.3 Sub-Theme 3: High Levels of Absenteeism

This study found that there were conflicting views regarding high levels of absenteeism as being a consequence of the corporal punishment abolishment. The extracts below show the perceptions given by the participants:

P3 had this to say in relation to high levels of absenteeism:

Some choose not to attend lessons regularly and not doing homework given. This greatly affects school pass rates. Pass rates have been going down due to high levels of absenteeism.

P18F2 concurred with the foregoing view by stating that:

From my own opinion from the abolishment of corporal punishment… there have been challenges in teaching. Learners absent themselves from school…

P5 agreed with the aforementioned views by postulating that:

> *Learners are now seen being involved in unacceptable activities like absenteeism.... fully knowing that no form of pain will be given to them in the form of corporal punishment.*

However, some of the participants contested the preceding views relating to high levels of absenteeism as attributed to the abolishment of corporal punishment.

P10F1 differed with the prior perceptions by saying that:

> *I hold a different view altogether, with the abolishment of corporal punishment primary schools have become friendly teaching and learning places. There is less bullying and the rate of school dropout and absenteeism has dropped*.

P17F2 agreed by asserting that:

> *The abolishment of corporal punishment has brought about confidence in the learners as some no longer fear to attend school.*

P23F2 argued that:

> *It's a different perspective all together. Since the abolishment, there has been harmony in schools between learners and the teachers. The levels of absenteeism have gone down as schools have become child-friendly zones. All these other arguments are null and void.*

It has been established from the responses that participants lament that these high levels of absenteeism have contributed to the negative performance of the learners affected. Thus, corporal punishment is assumed by the participants to improve learner attendance; hence, the call for its use in schools. Similarly, Dlamini et al. (2017) concluded that some learners benefit from corporal punishment. These scholars recommended that it should not be totally abolished and should be used in balance with alternative methods (See 2.10.3).

The views that are not in favour of corporal punishment as it emerged from this study are similar to a study carried out in Tanzania. Kambunga et al. (2018) found that

most of the learners advocated for its abolishment in totality as it resulted in truancy and absenteeism (See 2.10.3). The implication is that high levels of absenteeism highlighted by the advocates for corporal punishment could be a result of the fear of pain inflicted.

The SJT clearly spells out that whenever there is change for the better there is need for one to adapt (See 3.4.2). One may conclude that the same should apply to Zimbabwean primary schools where teachers still hold on to the belief that corporal punishment is the most efficient approach of disciplining learners although it has some negative effects.

5.7.4 Sub-Theme 4: Deviant Behaviour

It emerged that participants had mixed views relating to the abolishment of corporal punishment and deviant behaviour in Zimbabwean primary schools. The following citations show the participants' views on this sub-theme;

P2 proffered the following views:

> *...with the abolishment there has been an increase in discipline problems amongst learners which has become a challenge. In this case, I am referring to immoral activities like stealing, smoking, drug abuse, engaging in sexual activities and consumption of alcohol.*

P12F1 in relation to deviant behaviour and corporal punishment further said:

> *With the abolishment of corporal punishment many learners are going out of hand. This has culminated in a high rate of deviant behaviour amongst learners which impacted negatively on academic achievement. We have experienced high levels of bullying, stealing, truancy, late coming to school and non-submission of written work amongst others.*

P7 concurred by affirming that:

> *Since the abolishment of corporal punishment there has been a rise in cases of misbehaviour in primary schools as the learners have become conditioned to corporal punishment. There has been high rise of truant behaviour amongst the learners, bullying cases, theft...*

However, some of the research informants differed with the aforementioned views.

P23F2 asserted that:

> *I am rallying behind the ban because it develops in learners a spirit of aggression and violence as children learn what they live. I view its use as an unnecessary infliction of pain on the learners***.**

P18F2 also in contrast said the following:

> *I hold a different view altogether, with the abolishment of corporal punishment primary schools have become friendly teaching and learning places. There is less bullying and the rate of school dropout and absenteeism has dropped.*

P4 had this to say:

> *Even the use of corporal punishment by teachers promotes aggressive behaviour… learners see it is proper hence a high number of bullying cases...*

The responses given above noted a proliferation of deviant behaviour such as aggression, truancy, bullying, substance abuse, theft, cheating and intimate relationships since the abolishment of corporal punishment. Similarly, Khatete and Matanda (2014) established that there was an upsurge in the cases of misconduct amongst the learners after the abolishment. The study concluded that corporal punishment was regarded as a more efficient way of managing learner behaviour (See 2.10.4). With reference to the SJT, teachers who are in this category may tend to resist the abolishment of corporal punishment in favour of the old system (See 3.2).

However, these perceptions were argued against by some of the participants. They argued that the abolishment of corporal punishment has led to a drop in the cases of deviant behaviour. The views by the participants are in harmony with a study done in South Africa by Shaikhnag and Assan (2014). The study concluded that there is no positive connection between the abolishment of corporal punishment and a rise in misconduct (See 2.10.4). According to the SJT, it could be that teachers who have these perceptions have accepted change as opposed to the maintenance of the older order (See 3.2).

5.8 THEME 5: CURRENT DISCIPLINARY PRACTICES USED BY TEACHERS

To be gathered from the study is that the current disciplinary practices in Zimbabwean primary schools include corporal punishment, the code of conduct, parental involvement and assigning lighter duties. Corporal punishment has been described by Matope and Mugodzwa (2011) as the use of physical force meant to cause some form of pain and distress. A code of conduct has been described by Mtonga (2018) as the school's policy for ingraining the virtues of positive behaviour which should help learners to regulate themselves. The MoGCSP and UNICEF Ghana (2018) see parental involvement as the engagement of parents in an attempt to eliminate corporal punishment in schools. Umezinwa and Elendu (2014) assert that scrubbing the floor and sweeping the classroom are some of the lighter duties assigned to learners who breach the school regulations. The views of the participants are presented in the following sub-themes.

5.8.1 Sub-Theme 1: Corporal Punishment

Emerging from the study were two conflicting views regarding corporal punishment with one group who were in favour of it and others who were against its use. Presented below are selected extracts showing the opinions of the participants on the sub-theme:

P5 stated that:

> *I believe in corporal punishment to a greater extent*. *I am of the opinion that corporal punishment has to be administered because it is the best method*. *Yes, children have their rights but you explain to the learners the reason why you are giving them corporal punishment so that they can understand.*

P20F2 had this to say:

> *Yes, the pain has immediate results. It's easy to maintain order in the class through corporal punishment... With the large class size that we have of almost 80 learners, it is the only way to go.*

P6 gave the following views on this sub-theme:

> *...as teachers, we prefer corporal punishment as it has instant results on behaviour change. So the mentioned internal processes need to be complemented with corporal punishment.*

P16F1 further highlighted that:

> *The mentioned processes like guidance and counselling, parental involvement and the disciplinary committee are used in the school. What I have observed is that they are rarely used; there are just committees on paper. They are seen as time-wasting and the teachers themselves lack the prerequisite skills to implement them especially guidance and counselling. The avoidance of corporal punishment becomes a challenge under such circumstances.*

However, some of the participants argued that the preference of corporal punishment has resulted in injuries as evidenced in the identified excerpts below.

P2 had this to say:

> *There are extreme cases where learners get injured when corporal punishment is administered like the incident in Kwekwe where a primary school teacher pushed a Grade 1 learner against a desk in 2019 and the learner sustained a deep cut on the forehead. Parents do not like such severe punishment.*

P3 expressed that:

> *Some cases of injuries sustained where corporal punishment is used have been reported in newspapers... some teachers have been dismissed from the teaching service for severely injuring the learners through corporal punishment*.

P8 concurred by pointing out that:

This may result in injuries amongst learners which are not acceptable. In the previous year, a learner from a neighbouring school was severely injured in the eye by the class teacher in the name of discipline and has now developed some sight challenges as a result.

Despite this, a study by Morrow and Singh (2014) established that corporal punishment is very effective in facilitating academic attainment and controlling delinquent behaviour amongst learners in schools (See 2.2). This is further supported by Tao (2015) who concluded that corporal punishment was given the first priority by teachers in management of discipline in large classes as they saw it as effective (See 2.2). It worth noting that despite the existence of alternatives, corporal punishment is given priority by primary school teachers. This may be interpreted that the Zimbabwean primary school teachers believe in protecting the old order of using corporal punishment as informed by the SJT. The SJT highlights that people to develop a habit of protecting the existing order forestalling any move which may be considered as a threat to it (See 3.3.4.4). This perception is not compatible with the current trends in resolving disciplinary matters amongst the learners which call for child-friendly methods.

However, some of the participants held that notion that it is not useful as presumed. In agreement, Yeboah (2020) gathered that excessive corporal punishment can culminate in serious injuries (See 2.3.6). In another study by Dar Ahmad (2012), it was established that corporal punishment is ineffective as it creates an environment conducive to aggression in schools (See 2.2). With the prevalence of injuries amongst the learners because of corporal punishment, one may conclude that it fails to qualify as an effective disciplinary method.

5.8.2 Sub-Theme 2: Code of Conduct

The study established that the code of conduct is also one of the current disciplinary measures used by Zimbabwean primary school teachers in managing discipline. The participants agreed that a code of conduct existed in the schools though with mixed feelings on the stakeholders involved in drafting it. The selected citations below show the participants' views:

P2 postulated that:

> *The school draws up rules and regulations on the expected behaviour of the learners. This starts at class level where the teacher engages the learners in coming up with class rules at all levels which are further reinforced by school rules where learners are also involved in enacting them.*

P9F2 noted that:

> *There is a code of conduct in the form of class and school rules. There are class monitors and prefects who ensure that the code of conduct is observed*.

P6 stated that:

> *Yes, we have a school policy which spells out the how the learners should conduct themselves and this is given to every learner*. *We give our input as teachers and the school administration and the disciplinary committee have the final say on the code of conduct.*

P15F1 expressed that:

> *Learners need to be guided within the expected code of conduct with the aid of reasonable infliction of corporal punishment.*

However, some of the participants acknowledged the use of the code of conduct but indicated that not all stakeholders were fully engaged in the designing of the document.

P24F2 argued that:

> *Yes, the code of conduct is there but key players are not involved in drafting it even the learners. Lack of learner input results in some of resistance. Even the teachers and the prefects face some challenges in enforcing the rules.*

P7 further proffered the following argument:

> *Our school has a disciplinary committee which has the responsibility of handling disciplinary issues which is led by the Deputy Head. In this*

committee, disciplinary issues are discussed and a determination is made depending on the nature of the offence in line with the laid down rules. The committee has the responsibility to come up with a school code of conduct.

P17F2 had this to say:

I do not have any idea. We are just given the typed document by the Head telling us that those are the expectations in terms of discipline for the learners. I think it is probably the school administration.

To be gathered from this sub-theme is that a code of conduct is used as a current disciplinary measure in Zimbabwean primary schools. The findings concur with the South African context where the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 proclaims that schools are lawfully obliged to have a code of conduct that sets out what is expected of educators and learners (See 2.12.1). Furthermore, Mlalazi et al. (2016) found that school staff was engaged in drafting the code of conduct although the input of learners was limited (See 2.12.1). Additionally, the South African Schools Act of 1996 (RSA, 1996c) indicates that the school code of conduct created by all the stakeholders is an important way of dealing with indiscipline in schools (See 2.12.1). The presence of the code of conduct in the primary schools appears to avert the inclination towards corporal punishment.

Contrarily, it also emerged that decisions on the code of conduct are done by the school administration without consultation; hence the implementation may face resistance from the stakeholders who had no input into it. A study undertaken by Mncube and du Plessis (2018*)* revealed that school administrators are authoritarian and mostly make decisions on their own relating to the code of conduct (See 2.12.1). One can therefore conclude that the resistance by teachers in the Zimbabwean primary schools gives room for the overuse of corporal punishment as a way of defending the status quo as argued by the SJT (See 3.2).

5.8.3 Sub-Theme 3: Parental Involvement

The study revealed that parental involvement is used in Zimbabwean primary schools to discuss behavioural challenges affecting the concerned learners.

However, the study also found that they were some limitations linked to parental engagement. The selected citations below show the participants' views.

P4 shared the following view:

> *I am saying we encourage parents to cater for their children's provisions like stationery and food so that the children do not engage in theft. They also need to support their children by instilling in them morals.*

P13F1 expressed the following ideas:

> *There is the disciplinary committee which handles cases of indiscipline amongst learners. This is composed of the Deputy Head and other senior teachers. The committee also engages parents in serious disciplinary matters to come up with a way forward.*

P5 further articulated that:

> *Yes, we have a disciplinary committee which is chaired by the Deputy Head and is composed of other senior teachers in the school. They are the ones who talk to the learners and give decisions on the disciplinary measures to be taken of which corporal punishment is the first priority. Depending on the nature of the disciplinary problem, they sometimes engage parents of the learners involved to solve the challenge at hand*.

However, some of the research participants claimed that even if the parents were invited to school they did not show up, rendering parental involvement ineffective.

P6 presented the following argument:

> *If the behaviour of the child goes beyond the control of the school authorities the parents are engaged. There is a one to one communication with the concerned parents but the challenge is they do not always turn up for such consultations.*

P9F1 shared the same argument as P6 by indicating that:

> *Even when parents are invited to school to attend to these disciplinary problems of their children they do not usually attend posing a challenge.*

P7 further elaborated that:

> *Our school engages the parents of the concerned learners on the disciplinary challenges affecting their child. However, most of the parents do not turn up forcing teachers to rely on corporal punishment to control undesirable behaviour*.

P17F2 expressed the following views:

> *As a school, we engage parents in an attempt to resolve behavioural challenges of their children. I see them coming when invited save for a few who resist and do not even come for consultation days.*

It is evident that parental involvement is considered important in enhancing positive behaviour which in turn reduces the need for corporal punishment. In line with the findings of Clement and Chamberland (2014), interaction between teachers and parents is significant in managing disciplinary challenges amongst the learners (See 2.11.2.2). In support Gershoff et al. (2017) suggest that the engagement of parents help to deter implementing corporal punishment through a total change in attitudes to minimise its occurrence (See 2.11.2.2). From the findings, one may conclude that positive parental engagement forestalls the imposition of corporal punishment.

However, some of the participants contested the effectiveness of parental involvement in managing discipline in Zimbabwean primary schools. The findings reflect that when parents were invited to school, they tended to resist. This could be attributed to the strong belief in the effectiveness of corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure by the parents. This is affirmed by Mayisela (2018) who established that most parents consider it to be reliable hence entrust teachers to use it on their children without any reservations (See 2. 6.1). This resistance by parents to attend school invitations may be interpreted to mean that corporal punishment will continue to be used by teachers despite the abolishment. With reference to the SJT, parents may take that stance to preserve the societal norms and values (See 3.2 and 3.3.1)

5.8.4 Sub-Theme 4: Assigning Lighter Duties

With particular reference to assigning of lighter duties, the study established examples such as up picking papers, cleaning windows, sweeping classrooms, packing books and cleaning storerooms. The identified extracts below indicate the participants' views on this sub-theme.

P3 noted the following light duties:

> *Assigning the offenders to pick litter and cleaning the whole classroom floors and window panes for the whole classroom block alone is one of the ways I use to manage disciplinary challenges.*

P5 had this to say;

> *The Head or the Deputy Head tasks the wrong doers to do light duties like picking up litter around the entire school yard.*

P4 also agreed by affirming that:

> *Learners may be asked to pick papers around the school yard depending on the nature of the offence*. *Mostly the learners do these duties on their own over a prolonged time interval.*

P6 had this to say:

> *The child could also be given a task at the school depending on the degree of the offence.*

P8 further went on to say:

> *...teachers can also give learners tasks like packing books, cleaning their storerooms and classroom windows.*

It is interesting to note that participants also considered using lighter duties to manage discipline despite the inclination in favour of using corporal punishment as discussed in Theme 1: Sub-Theme 1. This is confirmed by research done by Umezinwa and Elendu (2014) who concluded that polishing the floor and sweeping the classroom were some of the effective tasks assigned to learners who breached the school code of conduct (See 2.3.8). Based on the data, it is suggested that the

delegated duties impact positively on the management of discipline amongst the primary school learners thereby guarding against the management of discipline using pain.

However, it has been argued that the use of the identified lighter duties is highly ineffective and an infringement of the children's entitlements. This is the case as the tasks that are assigned to learners though assumed to be lighter, instill an element of physical and psychological pain thereby constituting corporal punishment. The ineffectiveness is confirmed by Moyo et al. (2014) who revealed that lighter duties fail to fully play their role in curbing unacceptable behaviour as some learners enjoy and make funny out of them (See 2.3.8). On another note, Ntuli and Machaisa (2014) established that the lighter duties assigned by teachers were an infringement of children's rights and need a substantial amount of time to implement (See 2.3.8). The interpretation of this argument may point towards the persistent preference by primary school teachers for punishing students. This can be the case as the SJT spells out that no change is easily tolerated by concerned parties as they tend to favour the status quo (See 3.4.2).

5.9 THEME 6: ALTERNATIVES TO CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Taking cognisance of the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools, it became imperative to establish the views on the alternative measures. What emerged from the study was that guidance and counselling, role modelling and detention are used by the primary school teachers. Bobga (2016) describes guidance and counselling as an expertly planned discipline programme made up of activities and services whose focus is to help learners to gain understanding about their character, others, the school environment and acquire knowledge to adjust their behaviour to expected norms. Detention is described by McCann (2017) as a way of making a learner remain behind in school for a while to work on unfinished assignments. Role modelling refers to being exceptional and worthy of emulation (Grande, Peters, Daniels & Tedre, 2018). The sub-themes below show the participants' views.

5.9.1 Sub-Theme 1: Guidance and Counselling

The study revealed that guidance and counselling is one of the alternative measures used by the Zimbabwean primary school teachers. However, some of the participants were sceptical on the effectiveness of its implementation. The following selected excerpts show the participants' perceptions;

P1 gave the following views:

> *...the child is referred to the Counselling Department where the child is furnished or equipped with life skills to ensure that the child will do the best of what is expected. This will equip the child with information on that which is bad and that which is good. If you communicate with the learner, the learner will come to understand what is expected and why it is important to live harmoniously with others.*

P23F2 presented this view:

> *Our school has adopted guidance and counselling as a way of managing behaviour that could possibly to corporal punishment. The school has guidance and counselling committee.*

P4 had this to say:

> *Counselling is be used to reinforce behaviour by the primary school teachers. There is a committee in place to do that.*

However, some of the participants indicated that there were some obstacles to using guidance and counselling in the Zimbabwean primary schools.

P6 gave the following views:

> *No training has been done… on alternatives approaches. We got the little knowledge that we have through a two-hour staff development session that we held at school of I cannot classify that as training.*

P15F1 echoed the following sentiments in support:

> *My opinion is that yes, we are told to desist from using corporal punishment but these other methods that should be used in the place of corporal punishment are not fully effective. I say so because as teachers, we were not empowered with training on some of these methods like guidance and counselling*.

P16F1 had this to say in relation to the time factor:

> *The mentioned alternatives to corporal punishment are more of theory. They are not being applied as they are assumed to be time-consuming as they do not have space in the overloaded school timetable and overloaded classes with about 70 learners.*

P8 reinforced the preceding view by stating that:

> *The issue of time is very significant here as most members of the committees have full classes to teach. So with this load, they sometimes fail to get time to convene sessions to handle disciplinary matters. The end result will be caning the learners by teachers as they feel that some of the indiscipline shown cannot go for some time without control. With counselling, it seems the teachers are not fully equipped with the prerequisite knowledge.*

An interpretation of the findings reveals that guidance and counselling limits the administration of corporal punishment as the learners acquire life competences that make them meet the expected disciplinary standards. This concurs with a study by Najoli et al. (2019) that established that guidance and counselling was very effective in promoting discipline in schools (See 2.11.3.2). Similarly, research by Mapfumo and Nkoma (2013) found that guidance and counselling play an essential function in minimising the levels of misbehaviour amongst the learner (See 2.11.3.2).

It is worth noting that primary school teachers who have adopted guidance and counselling avoid corporal punishment, thereby building a warm relationship between the teachers and the learners. This is good for the welfare of learners as the SJT asserts that initially there may be resistance to change but, as time progress, people will adapt (See 3.4.2).

However, it has also emerged from the study that guidance and counselling is not fully effective in managing discipline in primary schools. An interpretation of the participants' views is that lack of training renders guidance and counselling ineffective. Similarly, Kagoiya et al. (2017) found that lack of training on the part of teachers was a barrier to the implementation of guidance and counselling is schools (See 2.11.3.2). Gudyanga et al. (2015) also found that a lack of training opportunities for teachers in guidance and counselling impeded the full implementation of these alternatives (See 2.11.3.2). One may interpret this to mean that teachers may persist to corporally punish learners as they are not empowered with indispensable skills in guidance and counselling.

Furthermore, it has been argued that the time factor has had a negative impact on the use of guidance and counselling. In agreement, Salgong et al. (2016) revealed that time allotted for guidance and counselling was used in teaching learning areas that were examinable (See 2.11.3.2). Additionally, Ruttoh (2015*)* established that time reserved for guidance and counselling was seen as interfering with other school programmes; hence, its implementation was sidelined (See 2.11.3.2). Research by Samkange and Dondofema (2016) established that the time to attend to the teaching load impacted on the use of guidance and counselling in schools (See 2.11.3.2).

One may conclude that the lack of time to undertake guidance and counselling makes teachers resort to corporal punishment as they may deem it as time-saving. This is not compatible with the current legislation and guidelines that abolished caning and slapping learners in Zimbabwean primary schools.

5.9.2 Sub-Theme 2: Role Modelling

Role modelling emerged from the study as critical in the demonstration of desirable behaviour from teachers and other learners. The following extracts show the perceptions.

P1 had this to say:

> *…learners emulate what teachers do, so if you are a role model, they will like to be like you and they copy from you. They really behave in the way you do*

and that is a very good motivator for our learners and they model a behaviour that is really good.

P5F1 expressed the following views:

Teachers in the twenty-first century should use other methods of motivating learners to learn and modify behaviours. Teachers should model the behaviour they want their learner to adopt rather than beating them.

P2 presented the following view:

...as school teachers we are encouraged to be role models which learners can emulate. We should also focus on good behaviour which we can comment on to other learners like good performance, being smartly dressed, coming to school early thus punctuality be it to the whole class and at assembly. Other learners will model that.

P18F2 proffered this view:

I just want to add on the ideas raised; we also use role models so that learners can imitate good behaviour.

P7 gave the following views on role modelling:

As a teacher I am a significant other, a role model, a looking-mirror glass; hence I expect to groom a whole person, a fully moulded child.

However, some of the participants argued against the above views, citing lack of role models.

P4 had this to say:

In some instances the behaviour displayed by the teachers does not qualify them to be role models. I have seen some engaging in acts which are not socially acceptable hence learners end up copying that.

P9F1 further point out that:

> *…even some parents fail in playing their part as role models. They consume intoxicating liquor and dangerous drugs like marijuana in the presence of children hence they imitate that.*

P8 echoed the sentiment that:

> *There are cases were teachers come late to work or absent themselves for no apparent reason. This influences learners to indulge in such behaviour by coming to school late and absenting themselves from school citing flimsy reasons. This is an indicator that sometimes teachers fail to lead by example.*

I gathered that role modelling minimises the preference for corporal punishment because the learners imitated the desired behaviour. In agreement, Govender and Sookrajh (2014) revealed that teachers can avoid corporal punishment by displaying the expected behaviour that they want learners to imitate (See 2.12.8). Therefore, one can suggest that, if well implemented, role modelling enhances behaviour modification by learners, leading to whole person development. However, it emerged from the study that the effectiveness of role modelling has been affected by the lack of the role models. Similarly, Sibanda and Mpofu (2017) found that teachers fail to play their part as role models as they engage in socially undesirable behaviour in front of the learners (See 2.12.8). Thus, one may deduce that this lack of role models amongst teachers contributes to disciplinary challenges amongst primary school learners which can lead to excessive corporal punishment used on learners.

5.9.3 Sub-Theme 3: Detention

The study established that detention is used by the Zimbabwean primary school teachers in controlling discipline in schools. However, some of the participants contested the effectiveness of detention. The following selected citations show the participants' perceptions.

P24F2 had this to say:

> *I detain the misbehaving learners after all other learners have been instructed to go home. The learners who are asked to remain behind are assigned some*

tasks to do for some time before they are let to go home. This results in behaviour modification.

P3 postulated that:

One of the alternatives that I use is to delay the release of the learners who misbehave when the rest of the class has gone home. This acts as a deterrent measure that avoids corporal punishment.

P15F1 concurred by stating that:

Those learners who do not complete their written work by break time or lunch time will remain in class as other learners enjoy either their break or lunch time. I have seen learners changing their behaviour for the good which is commendable.

P6 further went on to say:

I make the learners who show deviant behaviour stay behind for an hour after all other learners have been dismissed. These misbehaving learners are assigned to some duties like packing books and sweeping when they stay behind.

However, some of the participants contested the use of detention. Below are selected extracts showing their counter argument.

P16F1 contested that:

I do not agree with the detention of the learners… This is so because there is some form of psychological pain linked to it. So with this pain it can be equated to corporal punishment. I totally dismiss it as an alternative measure.

P19F2 argued that:

The issue of making misbehaving staying behind after the rest have gone is inhumane. It is more of a violation the children's rights. I feel detention does not qualify to be an alternative strategy.

P10F1 reiterated that:

> *In my opinion, detention is not child-friendly... I am of this view because it results in emotional pain which impacts negatively on the learners. The mention of pain implies that it is in the class of corporal punishment.*

The interpretation of the findings indicates that detention is used by the Zimbabwean primary school teachers as an alternative to corporal punishment. This shares similarities with a study by Govender and Sookrajh (2014) which revealed that detention promotes compliance to set down standards in the classroom (See 2.12.7). In addition, McCann (2017) highlighted that detention builds rapport between the learners and the teacher as they spend some time together (See 2.12.7). Thus, as it builds positive relationships, it falls within the palliative function of the SJT as the welfare of the learners is taken into consideration, thereby enhancing the self-concept (See 3.4.1). Therefore, one can suggest that detention is a good alternative to corporal punishment; hence its implementation by primary school teachers in this study.

However, it also emerged from the study that detention is not an effective disciplinary measure as it has some psychological effects. Jean-Pierre and Parris-Drummond (2018*)* support this by arguing detention does yield not positive results as there is an inhibition of cognitive, emotional and moral development which has a negative bearing on academic performance (See 2.12.7). Moyo et al. (2014) argue that detention has negative effects on the mental, emotional and moral development of the learners (See 2.12.7). Therefore, one may conclude that the way detention is administered in the primary schools is a perpetuation of corporal punishment which is contrary to clauses of the 2013 Zimbabwean Constitution and the Education Act as amended in 2020. This could be a contributory factor to school dropout and truancy among the primary school learners.

5.10 THEME 7: SUCCESS IN USING ALTERNATIVE MEASURES TO CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

The study revealed that there had been some successes recorded on the use of alternative measures such as the establishment of guidance and counselling committees and induction courses. Each sub-theme is discussed below.

5.10.1 Sub-Theme 1: Collaborating with Guidance and Counselling Committees

The existence of guidance and counselling committees in primary schools is identified as a success factor in using alternative measures to corporal punishment. The participants revealed that the guidance and counselling committee provided certain interventions to mitigate corporal punishment usage in their schools. Selected excerpts were captured as follows.

P1 had this to say:

> *The first aspect that we use is counselling. We have a very vibrant Counselling Department which conducts on every assembly day a group counselling session where our learners are equipped with life skills and issues concerning the rules and regulations of the school. This will stop, to some extent, the behaviour that is unwanted.*

P13F1 expressed the following views:

> *The school also has guidance and counselling committee which also advises learners on disciplinary matters and life skills.*

P2 reiterated that:

> *They refer serious issues to the guidance and counselling committee*. *The committee renders individual and group counselling to learners who have been referred to by the disciplinary committee. In the counselling session, knowledge in the life skills is inculcated to them for positive behaviour to be realised.*

P2F23 mentioned that:

> *Our school has adopted guidance and counselling as a way of managing behaviour that could possibly to corporal punishment. The school has guidance and counselling committee.*

P6 further went on to say:

> *The school has guidance and counselling committee in place. The committee engages the learners if time permits as the time table is overloaded to conduct individual counselling sessions.*

P19F1 indicated that:

> *There is the use of guidance and counselling as seen with the presence of a committee to that effect. This has been deliberated on earlier.*

P8 stated that:

> *There is the use of guidance and counselling as we have a guidance and counselling committee which attempts to modify the behavioural challenges of the learners.*

The findings from the participants indicated that guidance and counselling committees exist in Zimbabwean primary schools. From the responses given by the participants, the committees conduct individual and group counselling to empower learners with life skills. The committees as identified by the participants work with referrals from different teachers within the Zimbabwean primary school system in relation to behavioural matters.

This sub-theme supports the views expressed in the Director's Circular Number 23 of 2005 (MoESC, 2005). The circular advances that every primary school in Zimbabwe should have a four-member gender-balanced committee which coordinates guidance and counselling issues in the form of individual and group counselling (See 2.11.3.2). The sub-theme supports findings from a study conducted in Kenya by Kiprop et al. (2015). The study found that facilitators, parents and learners believed that capable individuals should lead the guidance and counselling department in addressing many issues including the prevention of corporal punishment (See 2.11.3.2). Therefore, for effective implementation of guidance and counselling in the school system, there is need for a committee that coordinates the activities in the management of learner discipline.

It is interesting to note that while there were several challenges related to corporal punishment emerging from this study, the guidance and counselling committees had specific interventions to address issues that could lead to teachers using corporal punishment.

5.10.2 Sub-Theme 2: Induction/ Training Courses

Training or induction courses noted in some primary schools were indicated as some of the successes by the research participants. Through the training or induction sessions, the research participants stated that they gained insight into the implementation of alternative strategies in Zimbabwean primary schools. Identified citations show the participants' views on this sub-theme.

P1 expressed that:

> *...as teachers we have gone through induction courses where we have talked about how to discipline learners without corporal punishment and other measures that we can apply. And such workshops really equipped teachers with alternative methods that can be used to ensure we do not use corporal punishment.*

P11F1 gave the following view:

> *I have received a bit of training guidance and counselling through staff development programmes that were conducted at the school I was formerly teaching*. *The programmes were educative, I gained a lot from them I wish we also have them at this school since we have never had one since I assumed duty here.*

P2 stated that:

> *Yes, as teachers at this school we have undergone some training though the major thrust was on guidance and counselling. These one-day workshops were facilitated by fellow teachers who had attended cluster-based workshops of the same nature. I can say it was more of a staff development.*

P19F2 expressed the following opinion:

> *I developed an interest of reading literature on the alternative disciplinary measures after the staff development programme that was held at school. It is not formal training of some nature.*

P3 further went on to say:

> *At the teacher training college we received the training in the professional studies area and the ministry conducted workshops. Those who attended the workshops would then train others at school level.*

The views discussed above, share the views of Mwenda (2016) whose study looked at aspects of enhancing the efficiency of alternative disciplinary measures in secondary schools in Imenti North District, Kenya. The findings from the study showed that teachers who had training on guidance and counselling regarded this alternative as effective compared to those with no form of training. Thus, the research concludes that teachers trained in guidance and counselling as an alternative shun corporal punishment as a disciplinary strategy (See 2.11.3.2).

One can thus conclude that teachers who received induction or training courses can fully implement the alternatives to corporal punishment. It is interest to note that most participants expressing the positive contribution of training and induction were primary school teachers. The primary school teachers in this category in the Zimbabwean context have accepted the new changes in terms of the current legislation in place. This points towards the SJT which asserts that while some resist change, others will take it on board without any reservations (See 3.4.2).

5.11 REFLECTIONS ON FIELD NOTES

Reflections from field notes highlighted a number of recurring aspects which were of significance to this study. While in the field, I noted a group of four or five learners picking up papers while others were learning or some remained behind well after others had been dismissed for the day at all the four sites under study. Upon reflection, I linked this to corporal punishment as there was some form of pain induced by working outside while others would be learning and staying behind when others had gone home. This pointed towards corporal punishment even though it

was banned. In the sites of the research, along the corridors, I came across teachers holding some rubber objects like short hosepipes which could be an indicator of a bias towards corporal punishment.

In the corridors, I could hear teachers threatening learners with beating, showing its common use in the schools to address disciplinary challenges. While walking along the passages at one of the sites, I heard some learners sharing their experiences on corporal punishment by their teachers. Upon reflection, it seems it was a frequently used form of disciplining learners. As I reflected on the responses given by the research participants in the individual semi-structured interviews and focus-group interviews, there was an inclination towards corporal punishment which complemented the reflections from the field notes. This could be attributed to the belief systems and incapacitation on the implementation of alternatives to corporal punishment as mentioned by some of the participants. The resistance can be attributed to the need to sustain the old order as discussed by the SJT (See 3.2). I also noted that there was a fraction of teachers who were anti-corporal punishment implying that they had accepted the new policies and laws, most probably informed by the human rights and psychological views as noted from the individual semi-structured interviews and focus-group interviews.

5.12 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE INTERVIEWS

From the individual semi-structured and focus-group interviews, I inferred that bodily and emotional punishment is linked to the inducement of pain upon a learner in a variety of ways like hitting, slapping, striking and manual work among others. I also deduced from the interviews that most of the participants preferred corporal punishment as they felt it was the best way of managing misconduct behaviour and facilitating academic performance. This confirms the reflections on the field notes. This was a disregard of the policies and statutes that abolished its use. Probably this could be a way of safeguarding the status quo as presented by the SJT theoretical framework of this study (See 3.2). Through probing, I came to the conclusion that the primary school teachers lacked knowledge and skills on the implementation of the alternative approaches to discipline and thus resorted to corporal punishment. This was also linked to cultural and social beliefs. These were recurring issues in both types of interviews. However, I also concluded that those teachers who had

accepted the abolishment had embraced the new methods for the good of the learners. This in turn promotes learner-friendly environments.

5.13 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM FIELD NOTES

An analysis of the field notes guided me to some conclusions. One of the conclusions inferred was that corporal punishment was still being used by primary school teachers. This was noted in various scenarios at the study sites where one could hear teachers intimidating learners with corporal punishment and noted teachers walking around holding objects such as bamboo sticks and short hosepipes linked to the infliction of pain. Once again, I noted scenes where learners were picking up litter while others were in class and overheard some discussing incidents where corporal punishment was meted out to them. This makes one assume that corporal punishment is still common primary schools. Therefore, one can say the ongoing use of corporal punishment could be linked to lack of know-how on the execution of the recommended alternative methods of discipline. The conclusions deduced from the field notes concur greatly with opinions proffered by the by the participants in the individual semi-structured interviews and focus-group interviews.

5.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter presented the analysis of the data and a discussion of the findings on the perceptions of primary school teachers on the problem under study. The generated qualitative data were presented in seven themes each with sub-themes. The participants were coded for confidentiality purposes. The findings from the study were supported by references to literature and reflections from field notes. The next chapter presents a summary of the findings, recommendations and conclusions.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study focused on the perceptions of primary school teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwe. The main thrust of the previous chapter was the presentation, analysis and discussion of findings. This chapter looks at the summary of the study, the summary of the findings, recommendations and conclusions. The recommendations and conclusions were structured according to the objectives of the study.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

It is important to mention the main research question and sub-questions as presented in Chapter 1. The current research sought to answer the following main research question:

- What are the perceptions of teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools in Zimbabwe?

The sub-questions addressed were:

- How do primary school teachers in Zimbabwe use disciplinary measures in their classrooms?
- What alternative measures to corporal punishment are used by primary school teachers' use in Zimbabwe?
- What successes are encountered by primary school teachers in using alternative measures to corporal punishment?
- What challenges are militating against the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools?
- What can be recommended to mitigate the challenges militating against the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools?

Chapter 1 introduced the study and presented the background to the study as reflected in statutes and policies enacted since 1972 up to its abolishment by the 2013 Zimbabwean Constitution (See 1.2). Despite the abolishment of corporal punishment, it has been noted that primary school teachers in Zimbabwe are still using it. The missing link that exists in understanding the preference for corporal punishment by primary school teachers despite its abolishment gave me the impetus to undertake this study. The rationale and the problem statement were addressed. the chapter also focused on the research questions and objectives of the study. The other key aspects discussed in this chapter were the significance of the study and a brief synopsis of the research design and methodology. I reviewed the measures for ensuring trustworthiness of data and ethical principles. This chapter also covered the delineation of the study and limitations. Concepts were clarified and the layout of the study was given.

Chapter 2 presented a review of related literature on corporal punishment. The concept of corporal punishment was discussed in detail focusing on its forms and effects. The approaches to corporal punishment were discussed in this chapter. The factors that drive teachers in subjecting learners to corporal punishment were examined. Declarations that were put in place to check on the abolishment of corporal punishment were described. This chapter also covered the legal framework governing the issue of corporal punishment in selected African countries comparing these to the Zimbabwean context. The chapter also discussed the abolishment of corporal punishment at global level. The examined literature also focused on the programmes and alternatives that can be implemented by teachers in instilling discipline.

Chapter 3 looked at the theory that was adopted by this study. The SJT guided this study. The chapter gave an overview of the SJT. There was a look at the key tenets of the theory. I discussed how the theory could be applied to the study.

Chapter 4 described and substantiated the research design and methodology adopted to address the research problem. The study adopted the interpretivist research paradigm and the qualitative research approach. The single case study research design was used to explore the perceptions of primary school teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment. The chapter gave an in-depth description

and justification of methodological matters that included population, sampling procedures, site selection and participant selection. For data generation, the study used individual semi-structured Interviews, focus-group interviews and field notes. Tesch's Thematic Analysis Model was adopted as the technique for presenting, analysing and interpreting the data. The chapter also looked at how ethical concerns were observed in the research.

Chapter 5 focused on the presentation and analysis of major findings that were established from the study. This chapter presented the themes and sub-themes that were identified from the findings of the research. The perceptions of primary school teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment on every theme were presented and discussed in line with the reviewed literature and the SJT in Chapters 2 and 3 respectively. The findings that emerged from the study indicated that most of the participants were in favour of the retention of corporal punishment as they were sceptical about the use of alternative disciplinary measures to corporal punishment.

6.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The summary of the findings is provided below.

6.3.1 Description of Corporal Punishment

The results that emerged from the research indicated that corporal punishment involves the inducement of pain (Section 5.4.1). The emotional, physical and psychological pain was assumed to bring socially unacceptable behaviour amongst learners to an end. It emerged from the study that a variety of objects that range from belts, electric cables, sjamboks and fan belts were used by the Zimbabwean primary school teachers to inflict pain on the buttocks and palms. Thus, from the established findings, central to corporal punishment is the issue of pain.

It was gathered from the study that corporal punishment includes the use of manual work (See 5.4.2). From the study it was identified that pit-digging and weeding are the commonly used forms of manual work. The tiresome nature of manual work is linked to some form of pain in this study. The study findings denoted that corporal punishment is anchored on the issue of pain. Thus, the Zimbabwean primary school teachers feel that the pain induced by corporal punishment is important in managing

behavioural challenges amongst the learners, a factor that contributes to the preference of corporal punishment despite its abolishment by the new legislation in place. It is an aspect that the teachers need to take cognisance of when dealing with disciplinary matters.

6.3.2 Factors influencing Teachers to use Corporal Punishment

In the study, misconduct was identified a key factor that motivates teachers to prefer corporal punishment in fostering good behaviour amongst learners (See 5.5.1). It emerged from the study that the prevalence of socially unacceptable behaviour amongst the primary school learners in Zimbabwe compels teachers to prefer corporal punishment. The study found that the common misconduct behaviours exhibited by the primary school learners included bullying, substance abuse, vulgar language, cheating, theft and truancy, among others. It emerged that these behaviours had an impact on the academic attainment of learners, hence the continued use of caning despite its abolishment. I inferred that the primary school teachers were of the opinion that corporal punishment can control such anti-social behaviour, although they would be contravening the laws that abolished it. The persistent bias towards corporal punishment is a form of resistance to the new legislation which is an issue that requires attention if it is to be rectified.

It was also revealed in the research that parental requests influence the primary school teachers to use corporal punishment amongst the primary school learners (See 5.5.2). The parents believed that pain induced through punishment is effective in managing unwanted behaviour amongst learners and boosting academic achievement. I inferred that from the findings that parents urge teachers to use corporal punishment in managing disciplinary issues due to the influence of their cultural and religious backgrounds. This is a challenge that needs to be looked into as permitting corporal punishment is a breach of the legislation that abolished it in 2013 and policies that followed thereafter.

6.3.3 Teachers' Perceptions on the Abolishment of Corporal Punishment

In the study, it was established that Zimbabwean primary school teachers hold diverse opinions on the abolishment. The greater number, it emerged, is calling for the restoration of corporal punishment because of their cultural and religious beliefs

(See 5.6.1 and 5.6.2 respectively). As noted from the study, with reference to the cultural perspective, the primary school teachers proffered that corporal punishment has been used since time immemorial to enhance behaviour modification as part of the child-rearing practices. From a cultural point of view, it was gathered that corporal punishment enhances compliance with rules and regulations. The study found that the religious standpoint does not support the embargo on caning, based on scriptures extracted from the Bible from a Christian point of view and the Sharia law from Islam. As a result, teachers who subscribe to these two perspectives are calling for the government to revisit its stance towards the abolishment. Their proposal to reintroduce corporal punishment does not agree with current legislation and international standards, thereby creating a missing link that needs to be bridged.

It was gathered from the study that the Zimbabwean government's stance to abolish corporal punishment was supported by the human rights and psychological viewpoints which are in tandem with the global initiatives to eliminate corporal punishment (See 5.6.3 and 5.6.4 respectively). From the human rights standpoint as noted in the study, being informed by the CRC of 1989, the Zimbabwe Constitution of 2013, the Education Act as amended in 2020 and Policy Circular Number 35 of 2018, the abolishment of corporal punishment in Zimbabwean primary schools is considered to be a noble idea. This is the case because it was seen as promoting child-friendly learning environments. This implies that there is need for the Zimbabwean primary school teachers to adhere to the dictates of the statutes and policies that facilitate the implementation of children's rights. However, it was found that some primary school teachers rejected the human rights views on the abolishment. The primary school teachers who are in this category argued that the issues of human rights do not apply in the Zimbabwean context, therefore, used corporal punishment on learners. It can be inferred that this is influenced by the cultural and religious backgrounds which preserve the beating of learners in contravention of the pronounced laws. This is an anomaly that needs attention.

In the study, it was also gathered that the psychological viewpoint influenced the ban in primary schools. The perspective proffers that corporal punishment results in aggression, emotional disturbance, low academic achievement, anxiety and fear the primary school learners. Applying corporal punishment has been seen to result in

strained relations between learners and teachers. It has emerged that those primary school teachers who presented this view are proactive on the abolishment of corporal punishment. However, some of the teachers argued against this stance by stating that the cited psychological effects were of minimal and the ultimate goal of behaviour modification was attained through corporal punishment. This can be said to be resistance to the new legislation which needs to be looked into so that the primary school teachers keep abreast of the changes required.

6.3.4 Views on the Consequences of the Abolishment of Corporal Punishment

The study revealed that there was a decline in pass rates in schools due to an interdict on corporal punishment (See 5. 7.1). It emanated from the study that falling pass rates were a result of non-dedication to school work by the primary school learners which was attributed to the abolishment of corporal punishment. As a result, the Zimbabwean primary school teachers feel corporal punishment is effective in enhancing academic performance despite its abolishment. I view this as a perpetuation of the status quo influenced by the cultural and religious backgrounds or lack of knowledge on the child-friendly disciplinary measures. This gap needs to be plugged so that the primary school teachers accommodate the alternatives to corporal punishment to enhance school pass rates.

The findings of the study pointed out that the ban has culminated in a lack of respect for teachers and even parents (See 5.7.2). The study established in its findings that the abolishment has contributed to high levels of non-compliance to directives given by teachers in Zimbabwean primary schools. Thus, as a way of restoring their lost dignity, primary school teachers have been seen applying corporal punishment as they consider it to be more effective than the recommended alternatives. I deduced that their preference for corporal punishment could be due to lack of prerequisite skills on the prescribed alternatives and a strong belief in its effectiveness. This could be informed by the cultural and religious views on corporal punishment which have no place in this era. This existing position needs redress so that the primary school teachers will adopt the recommended alternatives to corporal punishment that are aligned with the new laws.

The study also established that as a result of the abolishment of corporal punishment, high levels of absenteeism have been experienced (See 5.7.3). The primary school teachers perceived that the learners had developed a negative attitude towards school attendance due to a veto on abolishment of corporal punishment. Thus, the primary school teachers with this notion in mind felt that the effective way of addressing the high levels of absenteeism was corporal punishment. However, in a counter-argument, it was established that a result of the abolishment of corporal punishment was that the rate of absenteeism in primary schools had dropped significantly as schools had become child-friendly environments. The line of argument is that corporal punishment instilled fear into learners who then chose not to attend school. The implication is that its abolishment is valid and it has positive results as the merits of the alternatives outweigh the use of corporal punishment.

The study revealed that the abolishment of corporal punishment had resulted in an acute rise in deviant behaviour amongst the Zimbabwean primary school learners (See 5.7.4). The study indicated that the most notable cases of deviant behaviour were manifested in the prevalence of truancy, cheating, bullying, substance abuse and theft amongst the leaners. This scenario has been attributed to the prohibition in primary schools; hence the call by teachers to reinstate it. However, it emerged in a counter argument in the study that exposure to corporal punishment contributes greatly to an increase in deviant behaviour. Thus, its abolishment is valid and aligns practice with the current international standards and treaties on human rights to which Zimbabwe is a signatory, such as the CRC of 1989. This is a gap that needs to be bridged in relation to those teachers who believe that the abolishment of corporal punishment has resulted in a rise in deviant behaviour.

6.3.5 Current Disciplinary Measures Used by Teachers

The findings from the study revealed that corporal punishment is one of the disciplinary measures used by primary school teachers (See 5.8.1). It was established that corporal punishment is widely applied by the Zimbabwean primary school teachers despite its ban. They argued that it has instant results in terms of behaviour management in the large classes teachers are assigned to as compared to alternative methods like guidance and counselling. The study, however, established that some argued against the use of corporal punishment citing the issue

of injuries and psychological effects incurred amongst the learners. This was supported by empirical evidence from known cases. I describe corporal punishment under such circumstances as an infringement of the children's rights. Hence, the needs for the enforcement of legislation for the efficient implementation of child-friendly methods of managing discipline.

The study revealed that codes of conduct are used in primary schools as a way of managing behavioural issues (See 5.8.2). The stakeholders involved in enacting the code of conduct as noted include the school administrators, teachers and the learners. However, it emerged from the research that the input of teachers and learners in coming up with a code of conduct was limited as this was solely done by the school administrators, thereby breeding a spirit of resentment and making it ineffective. The implication of the resistance by teachers is the overuse of corporal punishment despite its ban in Zimbabwean primary schools. This missing link needs attention to avert the hitting of primary school learners by teachers.

Parental engagement was identified in the study as the other current disciplinary measure used in the primary schools (See 5.8.3). It has emerged from the study that the involvement of parents greatly assists in behaviour modification amongst the learners as they augment the efforts made by teachers. However, the study indicates that parental involvement faced a major drawback noticeable through resistance to responding to invitations made by school authorities when dealing with behavioural challenges with their children. With this parental resistance, the implication is that teachers continue to use corporal punishment unabated as they see it as effective to bridging the gap, yet the law does not permit that. It is clear that there is a need to for this gap to be narrowed so that primary school teachers stop using corporal punishment.

It has been noted from the study that assigning light duties to students is one of the disciplinary measures being implemented by Zimbabwean primary school teachers (See 5.8.4). The study identified the following lighter duties: litter picking, window cleaning, tidying up storerooms and packing books. These have been viewed as having a positive bearing in inculcating good behaviour amongst the primary school learners. However, from another angle, it emerged that sometimes the duties assigned equate to corporal punishment as there is severe physical and

psychological pain experienced by the learners. I describe this as incongruent with the laws in place that have abolished corporal punishment in Zimbabwean primary schools as teachers are indirectly inflicting corporal punishment disguised as lighter duties. This is an issue that needs to be addressed so that it aligns with the new legislation.

6.3.6 Alternative Measures to Corporal Punishment Used by Primary School Teachers

The study found that guidance and counselling is one of the alternative measures to corporal punishment used by the primary school teachers (See 5.9.1). It was established that through guidance and counselling learners are empowered with skills that assist them in conforming to the rules and regulations. Thus, it has emerged from this study that the introduction of guidance and counselling inhibits the application of corporal punishment on primary school learners. I see this as an adoption of the changes that have been pronounced by the 2013 Zimbabwean Constitution which is highly commendable.

However, the study also revealed that the full implementation of guidance and counselling has been hindered. One of the factors was lack of training on guidance and counselling on the part of teachers. The implication of the lack of guidance and counselling skills is the continued slapping punishment by the primary school teachers which is against the legislative and policy framework of Zimbabwe. The study established that the time factor acts as an obstacle for the effective undertaking of guidance and counselling. It was found that with large class sizes and the double session system, the teachers do not have sufficient time to implement guidance and counselling as they focus more on syllabus coverage. This means that disciplinary issues are managed by administering corporal punishment. The same applies to members of the guidance and counselling committee who have full teaching loads as they cannot balance the teaching aspect and attend to guidance and counselling matters. Thus, these factors are seen to render guidance and counselling ineffective. This means there is need to address this gap by training teachers on the use of guidance and counselling to avert the reliance on corporal punishment by primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

The study noted that role modelling is also a key alternative measure that helps in the management of discipline in the Zimbabwean primary schools (See 5.9.2). The research established that role modelling promotes behaviour modification amongst the learners. This is achieved through the emulation of desirable behaviour shown by teachers and peers. However, in a counter argument it emerged that there is lack of role models amongst the teachers and the parents as they are seen engaging in undesirable behaviour in full view of the learners. This results in the imitation of such bad behaviour. In managing such emulated behaviour, teachers have been seen using corporal punishment. There is a discrepancy between the teachers' actions and the legislation in place which need to be addressed so as to prevent slapping or hitting learners.

The findings of the research showed that detention was used by the Zimbabwean primary school teachers as an alternative to corporal punishment (See 5.9.3). It is noted from the study that primary school teachers deny the learners the opportunity to have their break or lunch with others and sometimes keep them behind after school for some time after others have been dismissed. It was highlighted that this enhances behaviour change amongst the primary school learners. However, detention is often regarded as a perpetuation of corporal punishment as noted by the way in which it is administered. Denying a learner lunch or break time is an infringement of the rights of the learners and is a contravention of the 2013 Zimbabwean Constitution and the Education Act as amended in 2020. The study revealed that detention has resulted in high levels of school dropout and truancy. I conclude that the detention is a not a satisfactory disciplinary solution and other mechanisms need to be used.

6.3.7 Successes in using Alternatives to Corporal Punishment

In the study, it emerged that some successes have been noted in the use of alternatives to corporal punishment. The presence of guidance and counselling committees in the primary schools has been identified as one of the successes (See 5.10.1). The committees have been seen as providing intervention strategies that facilitate the establishment of learner-friendly environments. The existence of guidance and counselling committees has been seen as a success in spite of the impediments linked to the abolishment of corporal punishment. The undertaking of

induction or training courses has been viewed as a success in providing guidelines on the implementation of alternatives to corporal punishment (See 5.10.2). The study revealed that a few primary school teachers who received some form of training on alternatives were in a position to fully apply them.

6.3.8 Implications of the Findings

The findings established by the study show that despite the legislation, Zimbabwean primary schools teachers are continually utilising corporal punishment to address disciplinary issues. This means that there is need to come up with a holistic way forward that ensures that teachers embrace the newly introduced ways of attending to discipline. Thus, the study makes a contribution to resolve the problem and recommends strategies that can be implemented to substitute corporal punishment.

6.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The study explored the perceptions of primary school teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment. The findings could be used to influence policy issues, practice and theory.

6.4.1 Contribution to Policy

The study established that many primary school teachers favoured corporal punishment despite the promulgation of legislation and policies that abolished it. The research revealed that lack of information on the alternative disciplinary measures has contributed to the persistent beating of learners. The study could give insight to the MoPSE to fully involve teachers in policy issues relating to alternative disciplinary measures from the onset rather than depending on the centre-to-periphery policy dissemination approach. The MoPSE could devise strategies to ensure that critical information on the alternative disciplinary approaches is fully accessible to all teachers as way of reinforcing policies and legislation in place. In doing so, compliance will be facilitated in the school context by including teachers in policy formulation.

6.4.2 Contribution to Practice

The study could assist in ensuring that the challenges like lack of training on alternative disciplinary measures are addressed. The full guidance of teachers on alternative disciplinary strategies could result in a paradigm shift on its use thereby enhancing complete implementation and rendering the abolishment effective. The findings of the research could help the MoPSE to provide sufficient resources to monitor the implementation of alternative disciplinary measures as per policy stipulation.

6.4.3 Contribution to Theory

The SJT places emphasis on the premise that, whenever there is a change, people tend to resist but as time progresses they tend to adjust to the change to get rid of the status quo which is no longer tenable. The MoPSE should take cognisance of this and educate teachers through awareness campaigns on the new laws and policies to enable them to adjust to the change, thereby complementing what is proffered by the theory.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

With reference to the findings, the study provides recommendations on the perceptions of primary school teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment. The recommendations give insights on how to enhance the abolishment in primary schools.

6.5.1 Creating Child-Friendly Learning Environments

It emerged in the study that bodily and emotional pain are the most preferred ways of managing discipline with the belief that the pain induced is highly effective in bringing bad behaviour to an end (See 6.3.1; 6.3.2; 6.3.5). It is significant to note that this is not in adherence to local and international standards. Teachers are thus recommended to employ child-friendly methods of instilling discipline. Such methods could ensure that learners attend school without any form of fear and anxiety. The child-responsive methods of discipline include guidance and counselling, check in/check out behavioural strategy, restorative practices and democratic school

discipline. This could minimise levels of absenteeism, truancy and school dropout, thereby enhancing the school pass rates.

6.5.2 Awareness of Primary School Teachers on Multi-Religious Approaches against Corporal Punishment

The findings from the study indicate that religion has an impact on the embargo on corporal punishment in schools (See 6.3.3). Teachers have been seen applying corporal punishment on learners and defending their actions by making reference to their religious affiliations. There is need to sensitise the primary school teachers on the multi-religious movement on the non-use of all forms corporal punishment on children as enshrined in the Kyoto Declaration of 2006 in Japan. This creates child-friendly schools that are free from aggression, where teachers and learners interact freely in harmony and where learners are engaged in decision-making structures in terms of policy design and implementation. This could go a long way to making primary school teachers appreciate the good aspects of the newly introduced legislation on the abolishment of corporal punishment, in turn boosting the implementation of child-friendly methods of discipline.

6.5.3 School-Parent Programmes on Alternative Ways to Corporal Punishment

Findings from the study show that parents had a negative influence on the abolishment in the Zimbabwean primary schools (See 6.3.2 and 6.3.5). As noted from the views of the participants, the parents influenced teachers to administer corporal punishment to their children and were observed as resisting invitations to school to assist in the management of discipline. This has impacted negatively on the drive to abolish corporal punishment in the primary schools. The school-parent programmes entail familiarising parents with new laws and policies that abolished corporal punishment and at the same time educating them on alternative ways that could be used in place of corporal punishment. This could be implemented through workshops and induction on alternative disciplinary methods. School open days and consultation days could be used in the implementation of the school-parent programme. The schools could also use electronic media in the form of bulk text messages and printed literature distributed to all parents denouncing corporal punishment in favour of alternatives. This should not be left to schools only; there is

need for the MoPSE to embark on a massive awareness drive to enable the parents to understand the significance of the legislation that abolished corporal punishment in primary schools. The campaign drive may involve the distribution of printed pamphlets and posters in all languages used in Zimbabwe sensitising them on the ban and alternative measures so that they have an appreciation. This could ensure acceptance of the new laws and policies which will in turn enhance compliance.

6.5.4 Enhanced Learner and Teacher involvement in Drafting the Code of Conduct

It also gathered from the study that learners and teachers have limited input or none at all when drafting the school code of conduct (Section 6.3.5). This breeds a spirit of resistance amongst the stakeholders as the code of conduct is drafted and imposed by school administrators. This enhanced teacher and learner participation calls for all parties to work as a team with the school administration to provide their input on what should constitute the school code of conduct. The agreed code of conduct could be implemented through displaying it on classroom notice boards, in corridors and a precise overview of the code of conduct on assembly days. Thus, I recommend that in drafting a school code of conduct all key stakeholders like learners and teachers should be fully involved to ensure compliance as they will all claim ownership of the document. This will help to avert the issue of corporally punishing learners by the primary school teachers. The code of conduct under such circumstances will be part of the School-Wide Positive Behaviour Support that creates environments that are conducive to learning.

6.5.5 Recruitment of Specialist Guidance and Counselling Teachers

The findings of the study indicate that in the primary school, general classroom practitioners act as counsellors while they have large teaching loads including members of the guidance and counselling committee (See 6.3.6). The class sizes are so large that teachers face challenges in managing discipline while needing to fully cover the syllabus at the same time, thus resorting to corporal punishment. The MoPSE is urged to recruit specialist Guidance and Counselling teachers who do not have a teaching load and a point of reference for all other teachers facing disciplinary management challenges. This will enable serious disciplinary challenges

to be handled professionally as counselling is a process which teacher with large classes and full teaching loads cannot fully implement. The appointed specialist Guidance and Counselling teachers should be provided with adequate facilities like fully equipped counselling rooms to enhance the smooth flow of the counselling process. The appointment of such teachers at every school will greatly minimise the bias towards corporal punishment.

6.5.6 Comprehensive Training Programme for Teachers on Alternatives to Corporal Punishment

It was revealed in the study that teachers lack training on the alternative strategies (See 6.3.6). This inadequate training impedes all efforts to fully abolish corporal punishment as teachers continue to use it in controlling behavioural challenges amongst the learners. I propose that the MoPSE could offer a comprehensive training programme to all teachers on the implementation of the alternatives to corporal punishment. The programme could be undertaken over a period of time rather than depending on one-day workshops or staff development programmes. The training programme for teachers could focus on the laws and policies that have abolished corporal punishment. Furthermore, this could look at alternatives in depth such as parental engagement, the check-in/check-out plan, the code of conduct, guidance and counselling, restorative practices and the democratic disciplinary approach. These training sessions could be conducted for at least two weeks on every vacation over a period of two years and staff development programmes could be held once weekly when schools are in session. This could be implemented through the use of resource persons from various organisations like UNICEF and members of the MoPSE disciplinary section that advocate for child-friendly disciplinary ways. The training programme should be complemented with literature that could be used as a point of reference by the teachers. If teachers are empowered with the skills on alternative measures like guidance and counselling, they will shun corporal punishment. This will work in favour of the laws and policies that are against corporal punishment. This training should not only be limited to teachers but should be extended to senior managers in the education system like Provincial Education Directors, District Schools Inspectors and Schools Inspectors.

6.5.7 Time Tabling

The findings from the study indicate that the time factor impacts negatively on the implementation of alternatives (See 6.3.6). The participants mentioned that due to an overloaded timetable, they focus more on syllabus coverage rather than sparing time for guidance and counselling in managing learner behaviour. This presumed lack of time has resulted in preferring corporal punishment in addressing discipline problems amongst learners. I recommend that school heads should monitor the implementation of alternatives to corporal punishment through spot checks and assessment of records that teachers need to maintain for alternatives like guidance and counselling.

6.5.8 Monitoring on Non-compliance to Policy on the Abolishment of Corporal Punishment

It emanated from the study that despite the abolishment of corporal primary school teachers persist in administering it. The MoPSE is urged to put in place internal and external controls that ensure that there is strict adherence to legislation and policies that abolished corporal punishment. Stiff penalties should be introduced for teachers who violate the statutes as a way of deterring them from applying corporal punishment. This could be implemented by setting out policies that call for the discharge from service for teachers who use corporal punishment or long custodial sentences. The parent ministry is also encouraged to have a high frequency of supervision on the way disciplinary issues are managed in primary schools from the National Centre, Provincial, District, Cluster and School levels. The MoPSE is recommended to supply more human resources, vehicles and funding to ensure proper monitoring of the management of discipline in primary schools.

6.5.9 Role Modelling

The findings of the study revealed that parent and teachers are found wanting in their responsibility as role models as they are seen to be indulging in socially unacceptable behaviour in the presence of learners (Section 6.3.6). Learners copy this undesirable behaviour and then the teachers punish them for it. To curb this, school heads are advised to utilise consultation days and annual general meetings to educate parents on the significance of being role models. For teachers, staff

development programmes should be put in place on the management of discipline with a special focus on role modelling. This will to a great extent assist in avoiding the inclination towards corporal punishment.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings from the study raised a number of primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment. There is need for further research on the following areas:

- The study looked at primary school teachers. There is need to explore the perceptions of secondary school teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment.
- The perceptions of learners on the abolishment of corporal punishment need to be studied.
- The study focused only on four schools in one district and 24 teachers. I propose that an in-depth study is undertaken on the successes attained on the abolishment of corporal punishment from district to national level.
- The impact of alternatives to corporal to corporal punishment in managing discipline in schools could be investigated.
- Further research is needed on the teachers', learners' and parents' understanding of the legislation and policies that abolished corporal punishment.
- I suggest that there is also need to study the parents' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment.

6.7 CONCLUSIONS

This section presents the conclusions informed by the results of the study. They are guided by the sub-questions and objectives of the study as presented in Chapter 1.

Religion and culture have been noted as the key drivers that facilitate the continued dependence on corporal punishment. The primary school teachers influenced by their cultural and religious beliefs contend that bodily and psychological pain are reliable and effective in managing indiscipline amongst the learners; hence, its

perpetual use. The primary school teachers have gone to the extent of calling upon the government to repeal the statutes and policies that abolished corporal punishment basing their argument on their cultural and religious beliefs. I can conclude that the primary school teachers' cultural and religious backgrounds have militated against the total abolishment of corporal punishment. Thus, there is need to sensitise them on the current religious trends which are against corporal punishment on children.

The study findings established that there has been a high prevalence of absenteeism, deviant behaviour and lack of respect for teachers. This has been attributed to the abolishment of corporal punishment. However, from another angle, it has been argued that it is the over-reliance on corporal punishment by primary school teachers that has resulted in the unacceptable behaviour. I can conclude that it is the application of corporal punishment that has culminated in high levels of absenteeism, deviant behaviour and lack of respect for teachers. This is the case because corporal punishment is highly associated with negative psychological effects like aggression, fear and anxiety which, in turn, have a bearing on academic performance; hence, there is a decline in academic performance.

Corporal punishment dominates the current disciplinary measures that are used by the primary school teachers. Even when parents are engaged, they request teachers to beat their children in controlling unwarranted behaviour and sometimes resist engagement by the school authorities. This is an element of resistance to the legislation enacted that abolished corporal punishment in all contexts. The policy of assigning light duties degenerates into corporal punishment as the tasks are time-consuming and beyond the level of the learners to tackle, thereby inflicting a lot of pain. The code of conduct is not fully observed by the teachers and learners as they had little or no input into crafting it. I can conclude that the current disciplinary measures used by the primary school teachers are more inclined to corporal punishment, thereby stifling all the efforts to totally abolish it.

The study identified guidance and counselling as one of the key alternatives to corporal punishment. This has been noted with the existence of guidance and counselling committees in the primary schools. The study indicates that although these committees exist, the teachers lack training on guidance and counselling skills.

There is also limited time to implement the counselling process as they have full teaching loads. With reference to issues of lack of training and limited time, the teachers tend to rely on corporal punishment to manage behavioural challenges in their classes. I can conclude that lack of training and time are barriers to the effective implementation of guidance and counselling.

On the use of detention as an alternative, the study revealed that its application inflicts a lot of psychological pain on the learners. I can conclude that detention is an extension of corporal punishment and teachers should desist from using it as an alternative to corporal punishment.

Some successes have also been recorded is addressing the ban on corporal punishment in primary schools. The few teachers who have accepted the new legislation have been seen implementing the alternatives to corporal punishment with the little training or induction they acquired. I can conclude that with full training on alternatives to corporal punishment, the primary school teachers can use such alternatives effectively. This will enable compatibility with the statutes and policies that banned corporal punishment.

The overall conclusion is that primary school teachers in Zimbabwe are against the abolishment of corporal punishment hence their resistance to the new laws and policies enacted by government.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNISA university of south africa

UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2019/04/17

Ref: 2019/04/17/62040251/20/MC
Name: Mr O Musaniwa
Student no: 62040251

Dear Mr Musaniwa

Decision: Ethics Approval from 2019/04/17 to 2024/04/17

Researcher(s): Name: Mr O Musaniwa
E-mail address: omusaniwa2@gmail.com
Telephone: +263 71 384 8801

Supervisor(s): Name: Dr MF Mavuso
E-mail address: mavusmf@unisa.ac.za
Telephone: +27 12 429 8635

Title of research:

Primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment: a case study in Zimbabwe.

Qualification: PhD in Psychology of Education

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2019/04/14 to 2024/04/17.

*The **low risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2019/04/14 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

University of South Africa

2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2024/04/17.** Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

The reference number **2019/04/17/62040251/20/MC** *should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Kind regards,

Prof AT Motihabane
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
motlhat@unisa.ac.za

Prof PM Sebate
ACTING EXECUTIVE DEAN
Sebatpm@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX B: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FROM THE MINISTRY OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

12 March 2019

The Permanent Secretary

Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education

P O Box CY 121

Causeway, Harare

ZIMBABWE

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THREE PRIMARY SCHOOLS (CHEGUTU DISTRICT) IN MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE, ZIMBABWE.

I am seeking permission to conduct research in selected primary schools in Chegutu District in Mashonaland West Province, Zimbabwe.

My name is Onias Musaniwa. I am currently studying for a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) with the University of South Africa (UNISA) under the supervision of Doctor M.F Mavuso in the Department of Psychology of Education. The title if my thesis is: Primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment: A case study in Zimbabwe.

Thus, we are inviting teachers to take part in the study. The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education has been selected because it is in charge of all schools in Zimbabwe from which the sample for the study will be drawn.

The purpose of the study is to explore and describe primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment and recommending the way forward.

The study utilises semi-structured interviews which will be administered to eight teachers individually who will be selected from four primary schools through purposive non-probability sampling. Old established primary schools and teachers with the longest serving experience will be purposively sampled to participate as they have experienced all the phases of the legal and policy frameworks of corporal punishment up to its abolishment in 2013. The focus-group interviews will compose of eight teachers each will be administered by the researcher to the 16 teachers. The researcher will audio record the conversation and take some notes. If you agree to participate you will be asked open-ended questions with other questions emerging from the conversation between the researcher and the participants in semi-structured interviews. The semi- structured interviews sessions will last for about 30-60 minutes. For focus groups open-ended questions will be asked and they will last for about 60 minutes. The conversations will be audio recorded and notes will be taken on responses during the sessions by the researcher.

I will strive to ensure that there is no interference with teaching during the research process. Interviews are to be conducted outside teaching and learning time. There will be no refund or any incentives for participation in the research.

I undertake to observe the following ethical issues: the names of schools and research participants shall remain confidential; all participants will be asked to participate voluntarily in the study and may withdraw during the course of the study if they feel so without any penalty; as well as protection of research participants from social, psychological and physical harm.

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education with a copy of the research report and to share the findings of the study with districts and school officials. Feedback will be given to participants after the study is finalised.

The UNISA Research Ethics Committee requires your written consent to this request.

If you need any further information you can contact my supervisor Dr MF Mavuso. The contact details are: Telephone: +27 12 429 8635 and Email: mavusmf@unisa.ac.za

Your assistance will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you in advance.

Yours sincerely

Onias Musaniwa

PHD Candidate

Contact details:

Onias Musaniwa (Researcher) +263 713 848 801 or omusaniwa2@gmail.com

Dr MF Mavuso (Supervisor) +27124298635 or mavusmf@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX C: LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM THE MINISTRY OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

All communications should be addressed to
"The Secretary for Primary & Secondary Education"
Telephone: 0242794895/0242796211
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"
Fax: 794500

ZIMBABWE

Ref: C/426/3/Mash West
Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
HARARE

27 August 2019

Onias Musaniwa
Norton 2 Primary School
Private Bag 973
Norton

Re: **PERMISSION TO VISIT SCHOOLS IN MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE: FOR RESEARCH PURPOSE: CHEGUTU DISTRICT: [redacted], [redacted], [redacted] AND [redacted] PRIMAY SCHOOLS.**

Reference is made to your application to visit schools in Mashonaland West Province for research purposes on the research titled:

"PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT: A CASE STUDY IN ZIMBABWE."

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Mashonaland West who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research. You should ensure that your research work does not disrupt the normal operations of the school. Where students are involved, parental consent is required.

You are also required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education.

T. Thabela (Mrs)
SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
Cc: P.E.D – Mashonaland West Province

APPENDIX D: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FROM SCHOOL HEADS

12 March 2019

THE SCHOOL HEAD

..... Primary School

Dear Sir/Madam

REF: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT YOUR SCHOOL.

I am seeking permission to conduct research at your school.

My name is Onias Musaniwa. I am currently studying for a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) with the University of South Africa (UNISA) under the supervision of Doctor M.F Mavuso in the Department of Psychology of Education. The title if my thesis is:

Primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment: A case study in Zimbabwe.

Thus, we are inviting teachers from your school to take part in the study. The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education has been selected because it is in charge of all schools in Zimbabwe from which the sample for the study will be drawn.

The purpose of the study is to explore and describe primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment and recommending the way forward.

The study utilises semi-structured interviews which will be administered to eight teachers individually who will be selected from four primary schools through

purposive non-probability sampling. Old established primary schools and teachers with the longest serving experience will be purposively sampled as the have experienced all the phases of the legal and policy frameworks of corporal punishment up to its abolishment in 2013. The focus-group interviews will compose of eight teachers each will be administered by the researcher to the 16 teachers. The researcher will audio record the conversation and take some notes. If you agree to participate you will be asked open-ended questions with other questions emerging from the conversation between the researcher and the participants in semi-structured interviews. The semi- structured interviews sessions will last for about 30-60 minutes. For focus groups open-ended questions will be asked and they will last for about 60 minutes. The conversations will be audio recorded and notes will be taken on responses during the sessions by the researcher.

I will strive to ensure that there is no interference with teaching during the research process. Interviews are to be conducted outside the teaching timetable. There will be no refund or any incentives for participating in the research.

I undertake to observe the following ethical issues: the names of schools and research participants shall remain confidential; all participants will be asked to participate voluntarily in the study and may withdraw at any time without any penalty; as well as protection of research participants from social, psychological and physical harm.

The benefits of the study are that teachers will express their views about the topic being investigated. Their experience could be shared with other teachers in primary schools. The findings could be used to improve classroom practice about alternative ways of dealing with behaviour to avoid corporal punishment.

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education with a copy of the research report and to share the findings of the study with districts and school officials. Feedback will be given to participants after the study is finalised.

The UNISA Research Ethics Committee requires your written consent to this request.

If you need any further information you can contact my supervisor Dr MF Mavuso. The contact details are: **Telephone**: +27 12 429 8635 and **Email**: mavusmf@unisa.ac.za

Your assistance will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you in advance.

Yours sincerely

Onias Musaniwa

PHD Candidate

Contact details:

Onias Musaniwa (Researcher) +263 713 848 801 or omusaniwa2@gmail.com

Dr MF Mavuso (Supervisor) +27124298635 or mavusmf@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX E: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET; CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS

Norton 2 Primary School

Private Bag 973

Norton

12 March 2019

TITLE: PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT: A CASE STUDY IN ZIMBABWE.

Dear Prospective Participant

My name is Onias Musaniwa and I am conducting research under the supervision of Dr MF Mavuso, a senior lecturer in the Department of Psychology of Education towards a PHD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting, you to participate in a study entitled Primary school teachers' perceptions on the abolishment of corporal punishment: A case study in Zimbabwe.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study is expected to collect important information could lead in an improvement in the area of discipline in primary school settings.

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE

You are invited to participate because of your experience as a long serving member as a teacher at primary school level.

NATURE OF PATRICIPATION IN STUDY

The study utilises semi-structured interviews which will be administered to eight teachers individually who will be selected from four primary schools through purposive non-probability sampling. Old established primary schools and teachers with the longest serving experience will be purposively sampled as the have experienced all the phases of the legal and policy frameworks of corporal punishment up to its abolishment in 2013. The focus-group interviews will compose of eight teachers each will be administered by the researcher to the 16 teachers. The researchers will audio record the conversation and take some notes. If you agree to participate you will be asked open-ended questions with other questions emerging from the conversation between the researcher and the participants in semi-structured interviews. The semi- structured interviews sessions will last for about 30-60 minutes. For focus groups open-ended questions will be asked and they will last for about 60 minutes. The conversations will be audio recorded and notes will be taken on responses during the sessions by the researcher.

WITHDRAWAL FROM THE STUDY EVEN AFTER HAVING AGREED TO PARTICIPATE

Your engagement in this study is voluntary and you are not coerced to consent to participation. If you decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You may refuse to answer any question if you feel uncomfortable. You have the right to disengage during the course of the study if you feel so without any penalty.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY

The benefits of the study are that teachers will express their views about the topic being investigated. Their experience could be shared with other teachers in primary schools. The findings could be used to improve classroom practice about alternative ways of dealing with behaviour to avoid corporal punishment.

NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT

The study involves collection of information that is non-sensitive. In the case of focus groups the foreseeable risk of inconvenience would be that it cannot be guaranteed

that the research will treat information they share during focus-group interviews confidentially. However, I shall urge all participants to observe that.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

The information that you provide shall be for research purposes only. To help me remember what you say in this interview I will record the interview using a voice recorder and take notes as well and your responses will be coded with numbers and reference will be made using this code in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conferences. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, presented in seminars and conferences, but confidentiality will be observed in the report. In some instances it may be a challenge to assure high levels of confidentiality or anonymity especially when focus-group interviews are used as a data collection method because it is a collective method which requires at least five participants.However, every effort will be made by the researcher to ensure that you will not be connected to the information that you share during the focus group, I cannot guarantee other participants in the focus group will treat information confidentially. I shall, however, encourage all participants to do so. For this reason, I advise you not to disclose personally sensitive information in this focus group. Therefore, I shall request you to sign a confidentiality statement.

PROTECTING THE SECURITY OF DATA

Hard copies of your answers and audio recorded answers will be kept by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard in the office for future research or academic purposes; electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. For the disposal of date collected after storage hard copies will shredded and electronic copies will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer after five years of completion of the study.

PAYMENT OR INCENTIVE FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY

There will be no incentives for participation in the research.

ETHICS APPROVAL

The researcher will apply for written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the College of Education, Unisa.

INFORMATION OF THE FINDINGS/RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH.

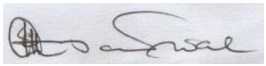
I will give feedback to each participant after the study is finalised. I shall avail my contact details to all research participants. The final copy of the research study will also be availed to each of the four case study schools. A copy of research study will also be given to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education.

Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact Onias Musaniwa on +263 713 848 801 or email omusaniwa2@gmail.com

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Dr MF Mavuso on +2712 429 86 35 or email mavusmf@unisa.ac.za

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Thank you



Onias Musaniwa

PHD Candidate

Contact details:

Onias Musaniwa (Researcher) +263 713 848 801 or omusaniwa2@gmail.com

Dr MF Mavuso (Supervisor) +27124298635 or mavusmf@unisa.ac.za

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY (Return slip)

I,....., acknowledge that the person seeking my consent to participate in this study has outlined to me the nature , procedure, possible benefits and expected inconvenience of participation.

I have read through and comprehended the study as stated in the invitation.

I was accorded adequate time to ask questions and I am willing to take part in the study.

It has been brought to my attention that participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw during the course of the study without nay penalisation.

I have been informed that a research report, journal publications and/ or conference proceedings will be generated from the findings, but my involvement will be kept confidential unless otherwise stated.

I assent to the recording of the semi-structured interviews/ focus group interviews.

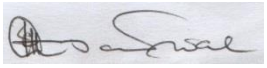
The signed form of the informed agreement was availed to me.

Participant Name & Surname (please print).....

....

Participant Signature Date

Researcher's Name & Signature (please print) Onias Musaniwa

 12 March 2019

Researcher's Signature Date

Contact details:

Onias Musaniwa (Researcher) +263 713 848 801 or omusaniwa2@gmail.com

Dr MF Mavuso (Supervisor) +27124298635 or mavusmf@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX F: FOCUS-GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS

1. What are your perceptions about the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools in Zimbabwe?
2. How would you describe corporal punishment?
3. What has been your experience about the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools in Zimbabwe?
4. In your view, what are some reasons that influence teachers in your school to use corporal punishment?
5. How do parents react to the use of corporal punishment in your school?
6. How do School Heads handle parents' complaints on corporally punish their children?
7. What is the legal framework on corporal punishment in Zimbabwe? Please elaborate on your answer?
8. What are your schools' internal processes in addressing behaviour which could possible lead to corporal punishment?
9. What alternatives measures does your school use instead of corporal punishment?
10. What training have you undergone on the alternative disciplinary measures that the place of corporal punishment?
11. In your view, how should indiscipline be handles in primary schools?

APPENDIX G: INDIVIDUAL SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS

1. What are your perceptions about the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools in Zimbabwe?
2. How would you describe corporal punishment?
3. What has been your experience about the abolishment of corporal punishment in primary schools in Zimbabwe?
4. In your view, what are some reasons that influence teachers in your school to use corporal punishment?
5. How do parents react to the use of corporal punishment in your school?
6. How do School Heads handle parents' complaints on corporally punish their children?
7. What is the legal framework on corporal punishment in Zimbabwe? Please elaborate on your answer?
8. What are your schools' internal processes in addressing behaviour which could possible lead to corporal punishment?
9. What alternatives measures does your school use instead of corporal punishment?
10. What training have you undergone on the alternative disciplinary measures that the place of corporal punishment?
11. In your view, how should indiscipline be handles in primary schools?

APPENDIX H: EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION

TRANSCRIPTION OF SEVENTH INDIVIDUAL SEMI-STRUCTURED INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW

RESEARCHER: 1. WHAT ARE YOUR PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN ZIMBABWE?

PARTICIPANT: *I am of the belief that it is a fifty fifty situation our learners at the primary school level are just too young to be left like that, they need a bit of that corporal punishment. As a teacher I am a significant other, a role model, a looking mirror glass hence I expect to groom a whole person, a fully moulded child. If corporal punishment is not administered this may result in deviant behaviour, juvenile delinquency... and early child marriages. Thus, if administered it moulds a total person who fits into the society. On the other side corporal punishment should not be over applied to the learners in the primary school as it instils fear and hatred.*

RESEARCHER: From a psychological point of view what could be the implications if corporal punishment instils fear in learners?

PARTICIPANT*: Learning won't go on effectively if there is an element of fear. Effective learning takes place if learners do not fear to contribute and at the same time the teacher learner relationship is unified in the absence of corporal punishment. All the same a human being should be respected and treated like one. However, those learners who are extremely deviant may need some form of punishment in order to discipline them.*

RESEARCHER: Am I correct to say by mentioning that human beings should be respected and treated like on you are referring to human rights views on corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT: *Yes, I think you know that the Convention on the Rights of Children of 1989 clearly spells out that children need to treated with dignity and are not supposed to be subjected to any form of cruel treatment.*

RESEARCHER: You mentioned that to some extent corporal punishment need to be applied. What makes you to administer corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT*: My social background contributes to the use of corporal punishment. In my early childhood corporal punishment was used a way of instilling discipline... I found out that there is pain yes but for a purpose. Behaviour management through corporal punishment as our culture prescribes is effective as it is the way we were brought up but as you can see I am a role model.*

RESEARCHER: You referred to the idea that if corporal punishment is not administered it results in deviant behaviour. What forms of deviant behaviour have noted as result of the abolishment of corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT: *A high rise of truant behaviour amongst the learners, bullying cases, theft, high frequency of absenteeism...*

RESEARCHER: So what is your position on the abolishment of corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT: *I feel corporal punishment and other disciplinary methods should complement each other*.

RESEARCHER: 2. HOW WOULD DESCRIBE CORPORAL PUNISHMENT?

PARTICIPANT: *It refers to beating a learner with a small sjambok, ruler, chalkboard duster, electric cable, rope... to inflict pain but not injuring the child. The expected outcome is to cause physical pain to enable behaviour change. Spanking and slapping also constitute corporal punishment.*

RESEARCHER: You stated that the pain should not injure the child. Can you totally dismiss the occurrence of injuries as result of corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT: *Yes injuries sometimes occur but these are accidental I can say*.

RESEARCHER: Is this not a violation of the children's rights as you indicated earlier?

PARTICIPANT: *I can say so but to avoid such situations the corporal punishment administered should be moderate*.

RESEARCHER: 3. WHAT HAS BEEN YOUR EXPERIENCE ABOUT THE ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN PRIMAARY SCHOOLS IN ZIMBABWE?

PARTICIPANT: *Since the abolishment of corporal punishment there has been a rise in cases of misbehaviour in primary schools as the learners have become conditioned to corporal punishment. They are usually unbecoming if there is the absence of corporal punishment. Pupils have become wild and the level of indiscipline in primary schools is now at high levels. It is becoming a challenge to for teachers to control pupil behaviour and enforce school rules. Learners have also lost respect and a sense of responsibility as a result of the abolishment of corporal punishment. Teaching these learners is now a challenge in terms of controlling them in written work and poor results are attained at the end.*

RESEARCHER: You mentioned that there has been a rise in the cases of misbehaviour. Can you specify the forms of misbehaviour you are witnessing?

PARTICIPANT: *I have noted bullying, the abuse of drugs commonly noted being cigarette smoking, lack of punctuality, lack of cooperation, absenteeism and choosing not to do tasks given by the teacher.*

4. IN YOUR VIEW, WHAT ARE SOME OF THE REASONS THAT INFLUENCE TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL TO USE CORPORAL PUNISHMENT?

PARTICIPANT: *Teachers use corporal punishment to control the pupils' behaviour. They also use it to enhance teaching and learning as pupils will be punctual. Corporal punishment is also used because it instils order and discipline at the school. The use of corporal punishment allows the school to have easy management of discipline. The need to produce the best results influences teachers to use corporal punishment.*

RESEARCHER: Which form of behaviour need to be controlled in this case?

PARTICIPANT: *There is need to control the speaking of bad language, cheating, stealing and rudeness. Corporal punishment is also used to check on the other forms of misbehaviour which I have highlighted earlier on like absenteeism, lack of punctuality, bullying and substance abuse...*

RESEARCHER: You said the teachers want to get the best results through the use of corporal punishment. To extent are the best results good results attained at this school?

PARTICIPANT: *Our pass rates at this school have been good but with the abolishment of corporal punishment I am noting a trend in which they are declining.*

RESEARCHER: I have noted that at national level the Grade 7 pass rate has been ranging from 32 percent to 44 percent for quite a long period of time. What could be the cause?

PARTICIPANT: *This is has been caused by the ban on corporal punishment though coupled with other factors like parental attitude*.

RESEARCHER: Can we say the use corporal punishment could be a contributory factor to the low pass rates both school level and national level?

PARTICIPANT: *It's not the case the opposite is true that it enhances the attainment of good results.*

RESEARCHER*:* **I am saying this because psychologists argue that corporal punishment leads results in fear which in turn generates anxiety such that pupils may become withdrawn from the whole teaching and learning process thereby contributing to poor performance. What is your view?**

PARTICIPANT: *Those issues you have mentioned are not permanent; anxiety does not last longer even the fear. The low pass rates could be attributed to learner factors not corporal punishment as such. That small percentage pass rate attained is due to the use of corporal punishment without that it could be even at very low levels. Do not forget that corporal punishment is part of upbringing you we cannot do without it so those psychological ideas you have mentioned are do not apply in our Zimbabwean settings.*

RESEARCHER: The human rights proponents are also against the use of corporal punishment on learners hence it abolishment. What is your view?

PARTICIPANT: *I understand that they say so but as I said corporal punishment to us do work. Most of the successful people managed to do to do so because of*

corporal punishment. They can lobby for its abolishment but I feel that abolishing corporal punishment is not proper... even in the Bible they endorse its use so why should we stop using it.

RESEARCHER: You mentioned that the Bible approves the use of corporal punishment but some religious organisations have joined the fight against the use of corporal punishment.

PARTICIPANT*: Yes, I have heard so but I feel it is more of blasphemy as they are going against the Holy Scriptures. Corporal punishment should stand as way of instilling discipline amongst our learners…*

RESEARCHER: 5.HOW DOES PARENTS REACT TO THE USE OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN YOUR SCHOOL?

PARTICIPANT: *Parents support corporal punishment as they believe that it is part of the child rearing practices. They appreciate as their children if disciplined using corporal punishment will behave well at home and improve their results... I once had a parent who transferred her child because she wants a teacher who imposes corporal punishment on her child as there is a belief that it enhances effective learning. However, some parents become frustrated if corporal punishment is administered to their children... they do not like its use in schools.*

RESEARCHER: Why do you think some parents support the use of corporal punishment on their children?

PARTICIPANT*: Most parents react positively to the use of corporal punishment because they do not want their children to be raised in a different way as compared to their own upbringing which relates to the way our culture perceive the use of corporal punishment.*

RESEARCHER: You mentioned that some parents become frustrated with the use of corporal punishment in schools. What could be the reason?

PARTICIPANT: *Some parents do not like their children to be beaten in schools because they feel that it is being excessively used such that it results in severe injuries amongst the learners.*

RESEARCHER: Let us say a learner has been injured through the use of corporal punishment how is the parent going to respond?

PARTICIPANT: *Some threaten to beat up the teacher while some report such case to the police as they consider it to be assault. Some parents may choose to take the matter to ministry offices.*

RESEARCHER*:* **If a report has been made either to the School Head, police or the ministry what could this imply to the concerned teacher?**

PARTICIPANT: *Investigations will be carried out on the matter. If there is overwhelming evidence a disciplinary hearing will be done with charges levelled against the teacher concerned. The determination of the disciplinary procedures may result in dismal from the profession.*

RESEARCHER: 6. HOW DO SCHOOL HEADS HANDLE PARENTS' COMPLAINTS ON THE USE OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT ON THEIR CHILDREN?

PARTICPANT: *The School Head apologises to the parents for the unfortunate incident. Usually the parents, the teacher and the School Head discuss the issue... come to a consensus not to take the matter further to protect the teacher from arrest and loss of employment. In case of severe injuries the School Head requests the teacher to cover up the medical expenses and the matter is concealed.*

RESEARCHER: **Does the law allow the School Heads to act in such ways?**

PARTICIPANT: *The law does not allow for that as we are always told. Under normal circumstances the law should take its course*.

RESEARCHER: Let's say the parent requests to further up the issue. How would the School Head handle such a situation?

PARTICIPANT: *Under such situations the School Head will give in to the parents demands thus the disciplinary procedure will commence from there in the form of investigations first... if found guilty the teacher will be dismissed from service and if a police report could have been made the legal procedures will done*.

RESEARCHER: If such risks are involved why do teacher want to continue to use corporal punishment at your school?

PARTICIPANT*: It's the influence of our upbringing so we feel discipline without corporal punishment is incomplete and the need to enhance performance for good academic results.*

RESEARCHER: 7. WHAT IS THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK ON CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN ZIMBABWE? PLEASE ELABORATE?

PARTICIPANT: *It is really not allowed in schools in our country. Thus no corporal punishment should be instituted on learners.*

RESEARCHER: Which laws are in places that have abolished corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT*: I am told the 2013 Constitution of Zimbabwe called for the abolishment of corporal punishment*

RESEARCHER: Are you familiar with the sections of the constitution that abolished corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT: *I have not read the sections but we are told by the school administrators that the constitution has brought to end the use of corporal punishment so as teachers we should comply.*

RESEARCHER: Have you ever been familiarised with policy circulars that have been put in place to guide teachers on the abolishment of corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT*: I am told they have been put in place by the ministry officials our School Head has not availed these to us so that we can be familiarised with the contents.*

RESEARCHER: *Okay.*

RESEARCHER: 8. WHAT ARE YOUR SCHOOL'S INTERNAL PROCESSES IN ADDRESSING BEHAVIOUR WHICH COULD POSSIBLY LEAD TO CORPORAL PUNISHMENT?

PARTICIPANT: *Our school has a disciplinary committee which is mandated to handle disciplinary issues which is led by the Deputy Head. In this committee disciplinary issues are discussed and a determination is made depending on the nature of the offence in line with the laid down rules. The committee has the responsibility to come up with a school code of conduct*

RESEARCHER: Are there any other stakeholders who are involved in coming with a school code of conduct?

PARTICIPANT: *They are no other stakeholders it's the committee in conjunction with the School Head.*

RESEARCHER: Okay. Can you say these are the only internal processes that you use in addressing behaviour that could possibly lead to corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT: *A Guidance and Counselling programme has been recently been put in place where sessions are conducted to try help the learners with disciplinary challenges and those without. Learners are also involved in social clubs and debate clubs that help to mould good behaviour.*

RESEARCHER: To what extent have the mentioned internal processes effective in addressing behaviour that possibly lead to corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT: *Yaa if you recall I once mentioned that it is a fifty fifty situation these internal processes... they sometimes work if adequate time is availed as you can see they require a lot of time thus with the nature of learning systems in Zimbabwe which use double sessions due to lack of classrooms very little time is available to implement programmes like Guidance and Counselling... it means is that teachers are comfortable with of corporal punishment hence the continued use even after abolishment. The minimal use of processes like Guidance and Counselling is also attributed to lack of knowledge on the part of teachers on the implementation process.*

RESEARCHER: 9. WHAT ALTERNATIVE MEASURES DOES YOUR SCHOOL USE INSTEAD OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT?

PARTICIPANT*:* *Our school engages the parents of the concerned learners on the disciplinary challenges affecting their child. However, most of the parents do not turn up forcing teachers to relay on corporal punishment to control undesirable behaviour.*

RESEARCHER: Other than the engagement of parents what other alternatives do you use?

PARTCIPANT*: I talked of Guidance and counselling earlier on, the social clubs and various sporting activities. For Guidance and Counselling I mentioned linked to the problems on its full implementation.*

RESEARCHER: 10.WHAT TRAINING HAVE YOU UNDERGONE ON THE ALTERNATIVE DISCIPLINARY MEASURES THAT WORK IN THE PLACE OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT?

PARTICIPANT: *I was not given any training on the alternative disciplinary measures since the time it is assumed corporal punishment was abolished. Guidance and Counselling has been said to be one of those but the problem is that as teachers we are not fully knowledgeable on the process involved. We acquired the little knowledge that we have through a few staff development sessions that were held at the school.From my own analysis with the little knowledge that I got through these sessions I have tried to implement it... is very time consuming as you can spend most of your time on counselling sessions rather the core business of teaching... I resort to the use of corporal punishment which has immediate results.*

RESEARCHER: What is your suggestion on the issue of training on the alternatives to disciplinary measures to corporal punishment?

PARTICIPANT: *I am of the thinking that there is great need for the teachers to get comprehensive in service training for teachers on the so called alternatives disciplinary measures. This enables us to be equipped with the necessary skills. I feel the government can engage non-governmental organisations for this.*

RESEARCHER: 11.IN YOUR VIEW, HOW SHOULD INDISCIPLINE BE HANDLED IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS?

PARTICIPANT*: In my own view corporal punishment should be used to control discipline in primary schools but it should not be extreme to avoid injuries, juvenile delinquency and school dropouts.*

RESEARCHER: The psychologists and the human rights advocates are against it use but it seems you ever repeating for its use. What is your basis?

PARTICIPANT: *It has immediate results noted in terms of behaviour change. However, I also feel that if as teachers we get full training of the alternatives then we can blend the two to handle indiscipline in primary schools. We cannot totally rely on these alternatives but corporal punishment should be as well as our upbringing calls for it.*

RESEARCHER: You mentioned that the corporal punishment administered should not be extreme to avoid injuries and school dropout? Can you assess whether the pain inflicted is not extreme?

PARTICIPANT: *Yes, you assess the nature of the object to be used in line with the age level of the learners. I have witnessed some situations where teachers have applied corporal punishment in an emotional state resulting in severe injuries as objects used are so abnormal.... such cases cannot be tolerated as whole essence of disciplining is lost. It has to be moderate.*

RESEARCHER: So what is your position on how indiscipline should be handled in primary school?

PARTICIPANT*: Blending corporal punishment and the alternatives measures that is if we get training on the latter.*

THANK YOU FOR THE SESSION

APPENDIX I: EXAMPLES OF FIELD NOTES

FIELD NOTES

SITE A

WEDNESDAY 30 OCTOBER 2019

The first individual semi-structured interview was conducted on this particular day. On interaction with the first participant on the site the perceptions were that corporal punishment was not supposed to be abolished, citing its effectiveness in controlling learner behaviour noted in a surge of anti-social behaviour. The support for the continued use had an inclination towards culture and religion. The participant indicated little knowledge on the legislation and guidelines that abolished corporal punishment. There seems teachers are verbally told that corporal punishment is not permissible without getting hold of the policies and statutes to read for themselves hence are not aware of the current changes in legislation There was an indication on the lack of skills on the alternative strategies as the participant openly declared that it was the only way to manage learner behaviour. As the I reflected on the need by the participant to reinstate corporal punishment this could be embedded on the religious or cultural background. This could be a result of inadequate knowledge on child-friendly disciplinary approaches.

As I reflected, this could point towards the idea that corporal punishment could be commonly used as a current disciplinary measure at this site. This could be so as the researcher noted some teachers with some rubber objects as they moved along the pathways and corridors which could imply the use of corporal punishment. Also the researcher walked to the interview room, teachers could be heard threatening learners with corporal punishment which may imply the prevalence its use that could be linked to the responses given by the participant. The researcher would want to note whether these will be recurring at the other sites of the study.

SITE A

FRIDAY 1 NOVEMBER 2019

The major perception of the second individual semi-structured interview was that the abolishment of corporal punishment was long overdue. It was said to be a noble move in line with the international proclamations on the observation of human entitlements. The participant justifies the abolishment on humanitarian and psychological grounds. The CRC of 1989 was made reference to. The abolishment was justified by the participant in that learner integrity was taken cognisance of which was taken as facilitating learner achievement academically. Issues to do with anxiety, emotional instability and fear amongst learners had been resolved through the abolishment of corporal punishment. The participant showed to be versatile with the policies and statutes that were put in place in abolishing corporal punishment in Zimbabwe. As the researcher reflected there is an indication on knowledge on the implementation of the alternatives measures. The use of Guidance and Counselling and parental engagement has been mentioned. I need to probe further on the magnitude to which guidance and counselling and parental engagement are implemented in attending to disciplinary challenges in other study sites.

On this day as I was going to the interview room I noted some learners picking papers within the school premises while learning was in session. As the researcher reflected this could be a pointer towards the use of lighter duties in controlling behaviour amongst the learners. The researcher was wondering why during learning time. This is an aspect that needs to be probed at other sites where such scenarios are noted. Again on this day on Site A I noted the movement of teachers along corridors and pathways guiding learners and also heard those threat that pointed towards the use of corporal punishment

APPENDIX J: TURNITIN

TURNITIN ORIGINALITY REPORT

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by

MUSANIWA ONIAS

I declare that I have edited and proofread this thesis. My involvement was restricted to language usage and spelling, completeness and consistency and referencing style. I did no structural re-writing of the content.

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